

SUSTAINABLE SETTLEMENTS and SHELTER

The United Kingdom National Report
Habitat II

The Department of the Environment

The National Agenda

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THE NATIONAL AGENDA

Overview

Introduction

- 1.1.1 The purpose of this National Agenda is to record what is actually being done and what it is planned to do in the United Kingdom to improve the quality of life in cities, towns and villages in ways which are consistent with the aims of sustainable development. It draws together numerous commitments in a range of related policy fields.
- 1.1.2 Sustainable development is about meeting today's needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. In the context of Habitat II, it means human settlements which meet the economic and social needs of their inhabitants and visitors while reducing damage to the environment to levels that do not endanger longer term viability. On the one hand this means a good healthy environment with adequate shelter for all. On the other hand it means places where the use of non renewable resources is minimised; where renewable resources are used sustainably; where waste recycling is encouraged; and where the remaining waste is kept within levels that can be safely absorbed by local and global systems or sinks.

The Challenge

- 1.1.3 On a world scale, the United Kingdom's population enjoys a high average standard of living, and housing conditions which are much better than in most countries. Nevertheless, there is a great deal still to be done in our country if we are to respond properly to the challenges presented by sustainable development. There will need to be a continued commitment to tackling the physical, economic and social problems of our areas of deprivation. These are part of our legacy as the first country to undergo an industrial revolution. Such areas have been amongst the worst affected by structural changes in the economy which have left pockets of persistent unemployment. The inadequacies - both physical and social - of much of the public sector social housing of the 1960s and 1970s present a further challenge.
- 1.1.4 As elsewhere in the world, the United Kingdom is also having to face the global and local problems caused by the rising use of motor vehicles and the particular conflicts that high levels of traffic cause for our cities and towns. The relatively recent trend towards out-of-town shopping and other decentralised developments has in part been a response to growing urban congestion. However, it has also increased car dependency and led to individual journeys being longer. In these respects, it is contrary to the aims of sustainable development.
- 1.1.5 Clearly, much needs to be achieved on the ground. However, as this National Agenda will show, much of the necessary policy framework is in place or is being developed, as are the related strategies and programmes of action. For example, a range of integrated strategies have been developed over the last two decades to tackle the complex problems of Britain's inner city areas. A key element in the framework is the land use planning system.

Linkages

- 1.1.6 The principles of sustainable development are progressively being incorporated into the planning system as well as into other policy areas. Nationally, they first found expression in the Government's comprehensive strategy on the environment, *This Common Inheritance* (1990). This contained numerous policy objectives and targets, progress towards which is monitored each year. Related to this, *Sustainable Development: The UK Strategy* (1994), provides a framework for carrying forward sustainable development in different sectors of the economy and across all sections of society; this looks ahead 20 years. This National Agenda refers extensively to these two documents.
- 1.1.7 However, there are many other linkages, reflecting the extent to which sustainable development has become a common concern among policy makers. These include the draft United Kingdom *Environmental Health Action Plan* which in its coverage of human health matters builds upon the Sustainable Development Strategy. Another important source is the White Paper on Housing *Our Future Homes* (1995). The strategies outlined in that paper relate particularly to the Habitat II theme of adequate shelter for all. And the application of sustainable development to rural areas is set out in the White Papers *Rural England: A Nation Committed to a*

Living Countryside (1995), Rural Scotland: People, Prosperity and Partnership (1995) and A Working Countryside for Wales (1996).

Action at Every Level

- 1.1.8 This National Agenda places particular emphasis on the policies and programmes of the United Kingdom Government. As was recognised at the Earth Summit, however, the interrelatedness of the world's natural resources, its human population and economies means that progress towards sustainability must involve action at every level, from global to local. Thus, the UK National Sustainable Development Strategy was prepared in the light of Agenda 21 - a comprehensive programme of action needed throughout the world to achieve a more sustainable pattern of development - and the other international agreements reached at the Earth Summit in Rio. Moreover, in our own world region, the majority of our environmental legislation is now decided in conjunction with our European Union partners. Within this area, the EU 5th Action Programme for the Environment provides a framework for cooperation. There are collective benefits of this, in terms of healthier towns and cities.
- 1.1.9 In the United Kingdom, the measures being taken at national level, and with our EU and other partners, are complemented by the activities of local authorities and other organisations working at the local level. Central government recognises that local authorities have a crucial part to play in developing and implementing practical policies for sustainable development. As the level of government closest to the people, they are particularly well qualified to understand local needs and to determine priorities for local action. Local government has been fully involved in the United Kingdom preparations for Habitat II, and provided a large number of case studies which are included in the National Council's best practice publication *Living in the Future: 24 Sustainable Development Ideas from the UK (1996)*. The local authority associations have also published a *Position Statement on Habitat II (1996)*.
- 1.1.10 Many non-governmental organisations are also involved in action at the local level. On the environmental front, these include groups concerned with practical conservation and with the preservation of historic buildings and areas. In appropriate cases, the work of these bodies is supported through government grants while business sponsorship provides another source of potential funding. Turning to housing, housing associations and the private sector have become increasingly involved in the provision of rented and other forms of low cost accommodation while tenant management has become established within certain local authority estates. In Scotland, the regeneration of peripheral housing estates has demonstrated how communities and agencies can work together in partnership. Certain housing associations, and a range of other bodies, have taken on the wider task of community regeneration, through the development of local economic strategies and the provision of employment and training.

Local Agenda 21

- 1.1.11 Local Agenda 21 provides an important mechanism for identifying what needs to be done in pursuit of sustainable development at the local level, involving the integration of approaches to economic, social and environmental issues. The concept was first formulated under Agenda 21.
- ‘By 1996, most local authorities in each country should have undertaken a consultative process with their populations and achieved a consensus on a Local Agenda 21 for the community’
- 1.1.12 In the United Kingdom the Local Agenda 21 Steering Group, with members from local government and other stakeholders, has been promoting Local Agenda 21, providing guidance and encouragement. Excellent progress has been achieved with well over half of local authorities and their communities having already committed themselves to the Local Agenda 21 process and the production of action plans to help meet sustainable development objectives.
- 1.1.13 The success of local initiatives, such as Local Agenda 21, will play a major part in determining whether the United Kingdom can meet its wider targets in respect of sustainable development. If the messages of Rio, and now Habitat II, are to have any real effect, people will need to witness improvements at the local level.

Critical to this will be the concept of partnership, bringing together the skills and other resources possessed by government, the private sector and local communities. Active public involvement in setting targets and contributing to local programmes of action will be needed and will require active encouragement and support.

Targets and Indicators

- 1.1.14 Environmental quality objectives and targets play an important role in guiding policies for environmental improvement. Targets have been agreed for the global atmosphere, air quality, fresh water and the sea, forestry, energy and waste management. Under the 1995 Environment Act, further targets are to be set on air pollution. At the European level, the United Kingdom is participating in the setting of common air quality standards. In Northern Ireland, where the Environment Act does not apply, the necessary targets and legislation for air quality management are under consideration and will be introduced at the earliest opportunity. A number of targets for housing have also been agreed. These are outlined in Para 2.2.4 below.
- 1.1.15 One of the commitments in the United Kingdom's Sustainable Development Strategy is for the development of a series of indicators. These are needed to help measure progress towards sustainable development. The Government published a preliminary set of indicators in March 1996. This list, which numbers 118, goes beyond indicators of the state of the environment by including indicators which link environmental impacts with socio-economic activity. It is hoped that its publication will stimulate debate, both in the United Kingdom and internationally, about how best to work towards a consensus on a core set of indicators.
- 1.1.16 As part of the Local Agenda 21 process, ten local authorities have been working with their local communities to agree local sets of sustainability indicators and to collect data on them. The findings will be used to identify trends and come up with ways of addressing local challenges. In the choice of indicators emphasis was placed on covering the broad scope of sustainable development issues, ranging from resource use and pollution to health, work, meeting local needs locally, access, and empowerment. A summary of the project has been published, *Indicators for Local Agenda 21 (1995)*, which aims to provide simple and practical pointers to local authority officers and members, and other community stakeholders, who are interested in using indicators as part of their Local Agenda 21 process.

Focus

- 1.1.17 Habitat II has been dubbed the City Summit in recognition of the fact that in the 21st century, the majority of the world's population will live and work in cities and towns. In the United Kingdom, this has been the case for well over a century. By the time of the 1991 census, 63% of England's population were living in urban settlements of 50,000 or more inhabitants.
- 1.1.18 Our most remote rural areas are not without their challenges. However, it is in our cities and larger towns, and their hinterlands, that human settlement issues are at their most complex. Our success in resolving these issues will to a large extent determine whether we can meet our national, and indeed international, goals in terms of sustainable development.
- 1.1.19 It is for these reasons that the focus of this National Agenda is on the United Kingdom's urban areas, although many of the policies and specific measures raised will be of relevance to villages as well. The Agenda covers all four parts of the United Kingdom. While the principles adopted are largely common to England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, there are differences in the detailed approaches being followed.
- 1.1.20 The relevance of urban issues to the economic, environmental and social conditions in developing and transitional countries continues to increase. Therefore, it is also appropriate for this National Agenda to set out the role of the United Kingdom Government in the sustainable development of human settlements in other countries.

Structure

- 1.1.21 The detailed Agenda which follows starts with an examination of the crucial role of land use planning in fostering sustainable development. It next summarises the current debate about where future new homes might be accommodated and then under the Adequate Shelter for All section explores a number of other housing issues. Local economic development and sustainable transport systems are then considered.
- 1.1.22 Succeeding sections cover: the future of town centres; the scope for revitalising cities as places in which people will seek to live and to work; the question of healthier cities in terms of air, water and soil/ land quality; the concept of resource conscious cities, concentrating on energy efficient homes and waste management; and United Kingdom official aid to human settlements in other countries. A concluding section addresses the need for an integrated approach to be pursued in implementing the various measures.

The Agenda II

A. Land Use Planning

Introduction: a proven planning system

- 2.1.1 The United Kingdom's Town and Country Planning system is the framework within which the development and use of land is determined. It provides a structure within which economic, social and environmental considerations can be weighed to help secure sustainable development. Planning aims to play an important role in determining the overall level of development at the national and regional scales; to guide necessary development to places where it can best be accommodated; and to create development opportunities. It also seeks to prevent development where it is not acceptable; to conserve the built and natural heritage; and to maintain the Green Belts around London and several other cities, which clearly define their physical boundaries, maintain their landscape setting and provide countryside for recreation.
- 2.1.2 The planning system's achievements have been considerable. It has catered for the housing and other development needs of the last half century, in part through the designation of new towns and other major growth areas. It has helped our major Victorian cities adapt so that they can meet the aspirations of the late 20th Century and has protected our finest environments. At the same time, it has, in the main, prevented settlements from merging through the 'ribbon development' which was typical of the 1920s and 1930s. It has maintained the integrity of our national parks and other heritage areas. Also, it has defined firm boundaries to our towns and villages so that, in most cases, it is instantly clear where a settlement finishes and the countryside begins. By doing so valuable protection has been given to areas of high agricultural quality; sites of special scientific interest; and areas of outstanding natural beauty.
- 2.1.3 The Government believes that land use planning has served the country well. Indeed, under planning legislation enacted in 1990, the role of development plans has been strengthened. All local planning authorities in the United Kingdom are required to produce area wide local plans. The legislation also made clear that individual developments will normally be determined in accordance with such plans unless important material considerations indicate otherwise.
- 2.1.4 The system provides considerable scope for public involvement so that planning decisions take into account the views of individuals and interest groups. The public inquiry and planning appeals system provides a further opportunity for the public to be involved in decision making in respect of emerging development plans as well as specific development proposals. It is clear, however, that conflicts have grown in recent years. In part, this reflects increasing public interest in the environment and an emerging understanding of the concept of sustainable development.

Planning policies for sustainable development

- 2.1.5 The Government aims to ensure that the sum total of decisions in the planning field, as elsewhere, should not deny future generations the best of today's environment. The principles of sustainable development underlie Government planning guidance and, increasingly the plans prepared by local authorities. Planning decisions will have an important bearing on the achievement of the Government's aims as set out in the Sustainable Development Strategy.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.1.6 In respect of its aims on sustainable development, the Government will continue to ensure that the principles of sustainable development are taken fully into account in the operation of the land use planning system. Also, it will ensure that planning policies and guidance are kept under review in the light of the latest understanding of the sustainable development concept. The Government will continue to advise local authorities to conduct environmental appraisals of their development plans and will scrutinise draft development plans to ensure that they take proper account of sustainable development principles. Early in 1997, the Government will issue a guide to good practice in applying the principles of sustainable development throughout the planning system.
- 2.1.7 The Government will also seek to secure the improvement and speeding up of the development plan process in England and encourage early completion of area wide plans. Similarly in Wales it will seek substantially complete local plan coverage by the end of 1996 and the preparations of new unitary development plans by 2000. Local plans currently cover nearly 90% of Scotland and the Government is seeking early completion of the programme and updating to provide a sound basis for development control decisions.
- 2.1.8 The issue of sustainable development is illustrated by two major planning questions currently facing the United Kingdom. First, what are the consequences for planning of the significant projected increase in the number of households over the next 20 years?. This is dealt with in more detail in the next section. The second question concerns how planning should address the pressures leading towards decentralised out-of-town uses highly dependent on access by car. This is discussed further in paragraphs 2.5.1-2.5.5.

Planning policies for housing

- 2.1.9 The latest household projections indicate that between 1991 and 2006 there could be an additional 2.7 million households in England, an increase of 14%. A longer term projection suggests that in England, there could be some 4.4 million additional households between 1991 and 2016, an increase of 23%. Rather than population growth which is now quite low, these figures reflect demographic and social trends. People are living longer and independently; younger people are leaving home and setting up on their own earlier; and there are higher rates of divorce and separation. Even if the projected growth in household numbers were not to materialise fully, it is recognised that a substantial amount of new housing will still be needed over the next 20 years.
- 2.1.10 The 1980s, in particular, saw a vigorous debate on the location of new houses. All participants to the debate were agreed on the emphasis to be placed on re-using land within existing built-up areas. Others felt that new homes would also need to be constructed on green-field sites.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.1.11 Given the new projections, which in respect of England represent a rate of increase 10% higher than that for which we are currently planning, the full range of options will need to be considered. Applying the principles of sustainable development will require a strong emphasis on compact, multiple-purpose urban settlements in order to increase local availability of essential services, reduce the need to travel and provide more energy-efficient transport systems, while also reducing further loss of rural land to urban development. However, all available evidence shows that there is not enough space within existing urban areas to take all of the additional housing needed. The Government will issue a discussion paper later this year (1996) exploring the alternatives available to accommodate the increase in households projected over the next 20 years.

- 2.1.12 Planning guidance set out in *Planning Policy Guidance note 13 (1994)* advises planning authorities to maintain existing densities and where appropriate increase them. It also calls upon them to concentrate higher residential densities near public transport centres or in corridors well served by public transport and close to local facilities. One way to achieve this will be through the subdivision of existing larger houses. Another will continue to be through the re-use and recycling of previously developed land, often in the hearts of our cities and towns. Indeed, the productive use of such land is an important part of Government policy with a bearing on both sustainable development and inner city regeneration. The Government has set the target of half of the new homes which are needed by 2005 being built on re-used urban sites.
- 2.1.13 The reclamation of existing disused land will often represent a major environmental gain for existing residents. In deciding on the future of such land, however, it will be important to ensure that open space valuable to local communities is not lost. Overall needs for employment and other non-housing uses, including land for playing fields, will also have to be taken into account. There is considerable scope for using land that is affected by contamination provided that affordable remedial treatment is undertaken to make it suitable for housing use.
- 2.1.14 In any one region or urban area, it will be for central and local government to determine, through their planning strategies and detailed local plans, how additional homes can best be provided.

B. Adequate Shelter For All

Introduction

- 2.2.1 Policy on housing is also about making the best possible use of the United Kingdom's existing housing stock which stood at approximately 24 million at the end of 1994. The stock must be maintained and older properties upgraded or replaced where improvement is uneconomic. Another facet of policy is ensuring that the various groups in society have affordable access to a suitable home. Most of the United Kingdom's households (over 60%) now own their own homes. Nevertheless, large numbers also live in rented housing. A significant proportion of these tenants receive help with their rents through housing benefit ranging from approximately one third in the private rented sector to two thirds in the social sector.
- 2.2.2 Over the last two decades there has been a general improvement in the condition of the United Kingdom's housing stock. This means that fewer families now live in houses which lack basic amenities, or are overcrowded and that fewer have to share accommodation. In many parts of the United Kingdom, supply and demand are broadly in balance, and unfit housing is uncommon. Some concentrations of poor and overcrowded housing remain, mainly in older urban areas.
- 2.2.3 Owner occupation has grown steadily, mostly through housing construction but also by transfers from the private rented sector, and since 1980 as a result of former social housing tenants purchasing their homes. The accompanying decline of the private rented sector has been halted and some growth is now occurring following the deregulation of rents for new private lettings in 1989. As a result of the Right-to-Buy scheme and reductions in building rates local authority housing has declined to some 18% of the total stock in 1995. By contrast, the housing association sector has grown and in 1995 was 4% of the stock.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.2.4 The Government's overall objective for housing is that a decent home should be within the reach of every family. In the White Paper *Our Future Homes (1995)*, which applies to England and Wales, the following targets for the next ten years are set:
- increase the number of owner occupied homes by 1.5 million;
 - reduce significantly the proportion of homes lying empty to 3%;

- transform, through a public and private sector partnership, the remaining large scale poor quality public estates; and
 - ensure that there is no necessity for people to sleep rough.
- 2.2.5 In Northern Ireland, the Government has published for consultation a major review of housing policies *The Housing Policy Review (1995)* which is set in the context of the Housing White Paper. The Review outlines how the Government proposes to respond to changing circumstances to ensure that its overall objective continues to be met.
- 2.2.6 The Government is committed to the continuing growth of sustainable home ownership. It will continue to offer local authority, housing association and Northern Ireland Housing Executive tenants the opportunity of low cost home ownership. Through a new scheme it will extend to housing association tenants the right to buy their homes at a discount. Grant support for improvements and repairs to older privately owned houses will be more effectively targeted. In England, developers in the public and private sectors will be encouraged to bring forward proposals which will secure the development of major brown field sites in existing urban areas. In other parts of the United Kingdom, there is a similar emphasis on the recycling of urban land and on the creation or recreation of balanced and thriving communities.
- 2.2.7 Another aim is to sustain the revival of private renting. In England, this will be achieved through encouraging more investors into the market through the creation of housing investment trusts, and through further deregulation of private renting. At the same time the quality of private rented accommodation in multiple occupation will need to be improved; while new housing benefit rules will strengthen incentives for rents to be kept at reasonable levels. This approach is also being adopted with respect to Northern Ireland, where the private rented sector has been in continued decline and represents a much smaller percentage of housing tenure than in other parts of the United Kingdom.
- 2.2.8 The housing White Paper outlines a new balance in the respective roles of the public and private sector providers of housing. The role of central government will be to focus on providing the right conditions for investment through management of the overall economy. Another priority will be to target spending and assistance to where this is most needed and most cost effective. For local authorities this new balance means them taking a strategic enabling approach covering all housing tenures and a reduced role as landlords. Housing associations are to continue as the main new providers of social housing. The Government also wishes to encourage a range of new social housing landlords, such as local housing companies, which will be not-for-profit bodies capable of bringing private investment in alongside public money to improve existing social housing. There are also a large number of voluntary and charitable organisations in the housing sector, including Shelter and Centrepoint. They campaign on housing issues and also provide a range of services, including advice and accommodation.
- 2.2.9 Direct subsidies to landlords will enable people on permanently low incomes to have a decent home at below market rents. Guided by local strategies for building and renewal, an additional 180,000 social houses are to be provided in the next 3 years in England. Among other measures to be taken, the homelessness legislation is to be reformed so that social houses go to those with the greatest claim to them. The Rough Sleepers Initiative has reduced the number of those sleeping rough in central London from over 1,000 to about 270, through the provision of shelters and hostels. Further resources have been committed to the programme, and consideration is currently being given to how it can be extended outside London.
- 2.2.10 In Scotland the Government's overall aim for housing is to secure an adequate supply of housing with improved choice and quality and the effective use of resources. This overall aim is translated into four main policy objectives: to promote greater housing choice; to assist and enable provision of an adequate supply of housing; to promote improvements in housing quality; and to seek more effective use of resources in housing.

c. Facilitating Local Economic Development

Introduction

- 2.3.1 Local economic development - at the level of the individual city or town as well as the local neighbourhood or community - and the employment opportunities that it brings, forms a fundamental basis for sustainable human settlements. Local economic conditions are greatly influenced by changes within the wider economy, towards new, often global, forms of production and distribution. As one of the first countries to industrialise, the United Kingdom has been particularly affected by these trends. They have left us with concentrations of severe unemployment as manufacturing has departed certain areas, as well as a legacy of disused buildings and land.
- 2.3.2 However, a very broad range of initiatives has been pursued over the last 20 years, many of which have breathed new life into previously declining areas. All of those involved in the regeneration process - central government, local government and communities, as well as the private sector, have coordinated their activities, both in the formulation of strategies and in implementation. Linked with this, strategies for economic development have been closely integrated with social and housing policies. Local economic development has built upon local strengths, including the skills and aptitudes of the labour force.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.3.3 The Government's primary means of encouraging regeneration and local economic development is to create the wider economic conditions for growth. In addition, it has produced a range of measures to foster local initiative and enterprise.
- 2.3.4 In England, these measures now have two main strands, the Single Regeneration Budget (SRB) with its Challenge Fund bidding element and English Partnerships. At regional level the SRB is administered by the recently formed integrated regional government offices. These bring together the Departments of Education and Employment, Environment, Trade and Industry and Transport, the aim being to coordinate the efforts of hitherto separate departments concerned with urban regeneration and economic performance.
- 2.3.5 The SRB brings together 20 separate programmes from across Government, the bulk of its £1.3 billion budget currently being devoted to meeting the costs of past commitments from those programmes.
- 2.3.6 In 1994 and 1995, however, a proportion of the total SRB resources has been set aside to support the SRB Challenge Fund. Through that fund, local partnerships are encouraged to bring forward proposals for regeneration. Typically, these go beyond economic development to embrace initiatives in such fields as housing, health and crime prevention. Some 200 projects were approved in each of the first and second rounds of the Challenge Fund. The Government expects to continue with this mix of initiatives over the coming years. They are intended to reinforce main programme activity such as housing, business support, health and social services. The Government has announced further rounds of the Challenge Fund for 1996 and 1997.
- 2.3.7 The Challenge Fund is an outputs based programme. It is also run on a competitive basis. This makes it all the more important that its results are carefully evaluated and that the process of individual partnerships is monitored. To this end, a rigorous system of evaluation and monitoring has been put in place, which involves penalties in the event of under performance and incentives, such as increased delegation limits, in the case of performance above the norm. In addition, there is to be a national evaluation of the Challenge Fund.
- 2.3.8 English Partnerships, which operates under the sponsorship of the Department of the Environment, came into full operation on 1 April 1994. In partnership with local authorities, the private sector, voluntary groups and others throughout England involved in regeneration, it is the main body promoting economic and environmental regeneration through the reclamation and development of derelict and under used land and buildings.

- 2.3.9 In 1994/95, English Partnerships projects created or protected over 13,000 jobs; reclaimed and/or serviced some 1,700 hectares of land; facilitated the provision of up to 3,000 new homes; and provided some 655,000 m² of commercial and industrial floor space. These activities attracted substantial private sector finance. English Partnerships has also played key roles in attracting several major inward investments.
- 2.3.10 In Scotland, two Government agencies, Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise have responsibility for economic development, training programmes and environmental improvements. The Scottish Enterprise network's budget for 1995-96 is £471.7 million. Provision for the Highlands and Islands Enterprise Network is £77.7 million. These two central bodies have responsibility for setting the policy framework, approving major projects and ensuring that the Government's training policies and priorities are pursued. But, large and strategic projects apart, training, economic development and environmental activities are contracted out to a network of 22 local enterprise companies which have responsibility for delivery in their areas, taking account of local needs and circumstances.
- 2.3.11 In Wales, the Strategic Development Scheme is intended to promote economic, social and environmental development to benefit areas of social need. The Scheme assists local authorities to fund capital projects they could not afford within their normal budget. Funding is increasingly being allocated to comprehensive local strategies for specific areas, which are expected to promote sustainable economic development, create jobs and encourage local enterprise and initiative. In 1994/95 the Scheme created or safeguarded over 4,000 jobs and over 15,000 m² of industrial and commercial floor space.
- 2.3.12 Urban Investment Grant is designed to encourage private sector development on derelict and run-down sites to assist the economic regeneration and environmental improvement of deprived urban areas in Wales. In addition, the Welsh Development Agency and the Land Authority for Wales are involved in economic development, environmental improvement, derelict land clearance and the provision of sites for new development.
- 2.3.13 In Northern Ireland, the Local Enterprise Development Unit (LEDU) has responsibility for promoting the establishment and expansion of small enterprises normally employing up to 50 people. LEDU's, Local Enterprise Programme (LEP) has the objective to contribute to the strengthening of the Northern Ireland economy through a self sustaining network of Enterprise Agencies. These in collaboration with LEDU on a local basis, encourage enterprise by providing appropriate support to potential and existing businesses. The aim to establish a Local Enterprise Agency in each District Council Area which offers work space accommodation and business services has been achieved. The total investment in the establishment of this network is £50.3 million.
- 2.3.14 Local economies are the building blocks for success in economic development. As the democratically elected bodies, local authorities are able to play a strategic and pivotal role in providing the right environment for business, individuals and the community to foster growth. By drawing on the strengths of a local approach to the needs of the local economy, authorities are able to develop a strategic vision. Local authorities act as enablers, catalysts for action and as direct providers.

D. An Efficient and Sustainable Transport System

Introduction

- 2.4.1 An efficient transport system is critical to the economic health of British cities and towns and also fulfils a vital social need. However, the last two decades have seen a major increase in car ownership and use, and in most areas an accompanying reduction in the use of public transport. Over the same period there has been mounting concern about the environmental effects of this growth at a local level in terms of congestion, air pollution and noise and the amount of land given over to road space and to parking. In addition, road transport is one of the few sectors where emissions of carbon dioxide, the main greenhouse gas, are rising in both absolute and relative terms.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.4.2 The Sustainable Development Strategy recognises that continued traffic growth has unacceptable consequences for the environment as well as for the economy of certain parts of the country. It could be very difficult to reconcile that growth with overall sustainable development. The Strategy therefore commits the Government to setting a policy framework which will influence the rate of traffic growth, reduce its impact and help to reconcile future transport decisions with the needs of both the environment and the economy.
- 2.4.3 The key elements of the framework are:
- to plan land use and transport infrastructure so as to provide for economic and social needs, for access to workplaces and facilities with less overall need for travel and with reduced reliance on the private car;
 - to support these policies through complementary transport strategies which seek to promote alternative means of travel;
 - to ensure that transport users increasingly bear the full costs of transport use, including the environmental impacts; and
 - to develop appropriate measures or regulations with our European partners.
- 2.4.4 There has been considerable progress in developing this framework. *Planning Policy Guidance note 13 (1994)* advises English local authorities on ways in which land use and transport planning can be used to reduce the growth in the length and number of motorised journeys. It also identifies how alternative means of travel which have less environmental impact can be encouraged and hence reliance on the private car reduced. This guidance has to be reflected in development plans and in all planning decisions. Towards the end of 1995, the advice contained in PPG13 was supplemented by *PPG13: A Guide to Better Practice (1995)*. The comparable policy in Scotland is expressed in *National Planning Policy Guidelines*.
- 2.4.5 Under the Department of Transport's recently introduced package approach, local authorities bidding for capital support are encouraged to look beyond purely road based options. A strategic overview of their transport needs is encouraged to promote a more balanced approach to local transport investment. In the first full year of the scheme, 1995-96, 37 such packages were approved. A further 53 were approved in 1996-97.
- 2.4.6 There are new priorities for road schemes. A review of the national road programme in England has led to the deletion of a number of schemes, either because they could not achieve an acceptable environmental balance or, because they were unlikely to proceed in the foreseeable future. The emphasis has now switched to smaller schemes which target accident, congestion and pollution black spots. In Wales resources are to be concentrated upon key strategic routes which are essential for economic development. The conclusion of the Standing Committee on Trunk Road Assessment that new road capacity can itself create increased levels of traffic has led to a further review of the Government's road schemes and the methodology which underlies them. In Scotland the Government published *Roads and Safety (1992)*, which sets out the objectives of the national road network.
- 2.4.7 The Government continues to support public transport. It supports high levels of investment by British Rail and London Transport and will provide appropriate funding for operators after privatisation. It seeks to encourage bus travel and is giving financial support for the development of the 400 mile London Bus Priority Network. It supports the introduction of light rail schemes in suitable cities and has set aside resources for Croydon Tramlink and Midland Metro.
- 2.4.8 The Government is assisting the development of safe and convenient cycle networks by numerous local authorities. A national charity, Sustrans, is seeking to establish a 8,000km national network reaching into all areas of mainland Britain. In Scotland, the Secretary of State has convened a National Cycling Forum.
- 2.4.9 Under the Energy Efficiency Best Practice programme, the Government is targeting business and the public sector with information and guidance to improve the energy efficiency of their transport activities. Advice to date has concentrated on improving the efficiency of both freight and car fleets.

- 2.4.10 Vehicle fuel duties are being increased annually by at least 5% to reflect the wider costs of transport. This is also aimed to meet the commitment to return United Kingdom carbon dioxide emissions to 1990 levels by the year 2000. The Government will implement new European Commission controls on vehicle emissions including controls on cars by 1997. It will support research into less polluting vehicle technology and will seek early agreement in the European Community on further new vehicle emission and fuel quality standards for the year 2000 and beyond.
- 2.4.11 The Government supports well designed traffic calming schemes. These help in reducing local traffic disturbance, noise and air pollution, by directing traffic onto more suitable roads and encouraging lower traffic speeds. They can also reduce accident rates and the severity of injuries. Aided by recent traffic legislation, more and more local authorities are introducing traffic calming schemes into their main shopping areas and their inner residential neighbourhoods.
- 2.4.12 The widespread public interest in transport policy and developments has led the Government to initiate a wide ranging debate on the future direction of transport policy. In Northern Ireland a consultation document *Transportation in Northern Ireland-The Way Forward (1995)* set out the issues surrounding transportation policy. Comments received are currently under consideration.

E. Vibrant Cities and Town Centres

Introduction

- 2.5.1 A trend of the last 20 years has been the decentralisation of major retail stores from town centres. The new out-of-town stores reflect competition between traders resulting in bigger and more efficient units, as well as shifts in population and the increasing mobility of shoppers. A more recent development has been the establishment of retail warehouses which sell a range of consumer durables. At a significantly larger scale, six regional out-of-town shopping centres have been completed in England with a further two permitted.
- 2.5.2 While these developments have generally been well patronised, concern has been expressed on two fronts. First, there is the fear that they will adversely affect existing town centres, with smaller towns likely to be particularly vulnerable. Secondly, out-of-town shopping tends to be almost entirely dependent on access by car. Motorists often drive considerable distances to reach them, whereas the emphasis of current Government advice is that decisions on the location of development should seek to minimise the use of the car.
- 2.5.3 An accompanying trend has been the decentralisation of office uses from town centre areas to business parks often located on the town bypass. Again, these developments are highly dependent on the car. Leisure uses too have sought to decentralise. Examples include a number of multi-screen cinema complexes which have been established in suburban or out-of-town locations.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.5.4 In a consultation paper, *Planning Policy Guidance note 6: Town Centres and Retail Development (1995)* the Government seeks to strengthen existing policy guidance. This makes it clear that wherever possible new retail development should be built in town and district centres. Under a sequential approach for selecting sites, first preference should be for town centres, followed by edge-of-centre sites. Only then should out-of-town locations be considered. In Scotland, draft *National Planning Policy Guidelines on Retailing (1995)* has been issued for consultation.
- 2.5.5 At the same time, the Government is helping to foster improvements to the quality of existing town and city centres. The Scottish Office has published *Planning Advice Note 35: Town Centre Improvement (1989)* which advises planning authorities how to enhance the potential of their areas for commercial and business development. A report published for the Department of the Environment, *Vital and Viable Town Centres: Meeting the Challenge (1994)* provides many detailed recommendations as to how vital and viable centres can be achieved. In particular, local authorities are advised to keep the health of their town centres under review, while action strategies should seek to improve attractions, accessibility and amenity. The report cites

numerous examples of good practice which have enhanced the attractiveness of existing centres and helped retain trade in town. The Government itself has played a role in the regeneration of certain centres through its various spending programmes including the Single Regeneration Budget.

f. Places to Live and Work

Introduction

- 2.6.1 The United Kingdom is a highly urbanised country. In principle, our generally compact cities and towns have some inherent advantages in sustainable development terms. They are economical in the use of land, while their relatively high densities offer potential for efficient energy technologies such as district heating. Also, the distances that people need to travel to reach workplaces, schools or other facilities tend to be less than in areas where the population is more dispersed. In this latter respect, larger towns tend to be more self contained than smaller ones. There is less overall need to travel to other settlements either to work or to benefit from shopping, leisure and other opportunities.
- 2.6.2 Undoubtedly, actions at the level of our cities and towns have the potential to make a substantial contribution to the achievement of national objectives on sustainable development. However, as the Sustainable Development Strategy concludes, sustainable development is closely bound up with the quality of urban life. That quality should be such as to make urban areas attractive places in which to live and work, and to counter those forces which over the last few decades have led many people to move away.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.6.3 In July 1994, the Government launched an initiative, Quality in Town and Country, to stimulate debate and action to achieve and maintain quality in buildings and the built environment of England's cities, towns and villages. This initiative is being taken forward on a variety of fronts.
- 2.6.4 Attention is being focussed on appropriate ways to achieve quality development. The Government is currently reviewing its planning policy guidance on design, within the context of a general review of *Planning Policy Guidance note 1: General Policy and Principles (1992)* to ensure that it reflects the principles of the Quality Initiative.
- 2.6.5 The Government has launched an Urban Design Campaign to further the debate on urban design issues. Twenty-one of the proposals submitted under the Campaign - which offer potential to explore urban design ideas for specific local sites where development is envisaged - have been selected as case studies. They will receive modest funding to take them forward. The case studies will form a central element of an urban design exhibition in 1996. Lessons learnt from them will help inform good practice on the processes facilitating good urban design.
- 2.6.6 Other actions, which support the principles underlying the Quality Initiative, include, in London, *The Thames Strategy Report (1995)* and *The Thames Landscape Strategy (1995)*. The former is a Government initiative which takes a wide ranging look at the Thames including broad issues of urban design in the sensitive riverside setting. It makes recommendations for the preparation of *Strategic Guidance for the Thames* (due to be published later in 1996). *The Thames Landscape Strategy* provides an illustrated long term management plan for the 18km stretch of river between Hampton and Kew. It provides a practical handbook of policies and projects for those who live along the river and for those who plan and manage the landscape.
- 2.6.7 Urban quality is not only dependent on the quality of buildings and the types of use represented. Also important are the spaces between the buildings; the presence of parks and public open space; and the abundance and quality of trees and other greenery. A number of local authorities are looking at new ways of greening the urban scene, such as patch parks and encouraging food growing on waste land, such as that round housing estates. The state of maintenance of the public domain is also an indicator of urban quality - for example, the presence or absence of litter and graffiti. Such matters are the subject of numerous local initiatives.

2.6.8 For its part, the Government supports tree planting in urban areas through urban regeneration grants and assistance to voluntary groups. It also supports the Community Forests Initiative, which involves the creation of woodlands on the fringes of certain towns and cities. This generates employment and provides new leisure and educational opportunities for urban dwellers. The urban fringe is also targeted by the Groundwork Trusts. Groundwork, which receives much of its funding from Government, together with the private sector, works with local people to remove eyesores and generally to improve the local environment.

2.6.9 Trees are not only attractive to look at. They are also of direct benefit to the environment. In cities and towns they cool the air around them through transpiration. This and the shade they provide can help make urban life more tolerable during hot summers. They also absorb and filter dust and other pollution while the oxygen that they produce helps to reduce carbon monoxide and dioxide levels along busy traffic routes. They contribute directly to the creation of healthy cities, a subject which is dealt with further in the next section.

6. Healthy Cities

Introduction

2.7.1 Historically human health has been a primary consideration in environment policy and it will always remain so. This section outlines the Government's current approaches to achieving healthier cities in terms of air, water and land/soil quality.

Air Quality

2.7.2 Good air is vital for human health and for the health of the environment as a whole. Air is also a medium for the transport of pollutants to soil and water. Urban air quality, therefore, can be taken as an important indicator in assessing progress towards sustainable human settlements.

2.7.3 The current trend in the United Kingdom is of a steady improvement in air quality with these improvements set to continue over the next decade. However, World Health Organisation (WHO) guidelines for some pollutants are still exceeded during winter and summer episodes. The Government's strategy is to strive for the best possible air quality that is affordable and to target action on areas most in need of improvement.

Current and proposed measures

2.7.4 The Government has published a consultation document *Air Quality: Meeting the Challenge (1995)*. This sets out its strategic policies for air quality management. These policies now have legislative force under Part IV of the Environment Act 1995. This provides for three main areas of action.

- A National Strategy for Air Quality a consultation draft of which will be issued in the first half of 1996. This will include government policies on air quality and it will also be a means of implementing the air quality provisions of European Community Directives and international agreements. It will set out general standards and objectives on air quality.
- A new system of local air quality management based on: regular assessments of air quality by local authorities; the designation of Air Quality Management Areas where standards or objectives are not being met or are unlikely to be met within a target period; and the preparation of an action plan in those areas to remedy air quality problems.
- Wide regulation making powers given to the Secretary of State for the Environment and to the Secretaries of State for the Welsh and Scottish Offices to enable effect to be given to additional measures which local authorities may need to employ to carry out their new duties.

- 2.7.5 The new policy is potentially very far reaching. Its implementation will involve a close working relationship between central government, the new national environment agencies, and local authorities. Local authorities will take the lead in local air quality management. However, their actions will also be important in delivering better air quality nationally and even internationally.
- 2.7.6 The Government is now spending some £4m on the monitoring of pollution through an expanding network of monitoring sites. A free phone line ensures that predictions of air quality and health advice are readily available to the public. Local authorities also engage in extensive air pollution monitoring.
- 2.7.7 In recent years there has been a rise in rates of respiratory disease and in the incidence of allergic responses such as asthma. It is thought that indoor pollutants may contribute to these conditions, the study of which will be the subject of a four year programme of research to which some £5m has been committed.

Water Quality

- 2.7.8 In terms of the urban population, the main objectives for the management of water resources and the water environment are as follows:
- to ensure adequate water resources are available to meet consumers' needs;
 - to manage and meet the demand from households, businesses and other uses;
 - to ensure that the supply of drinking water is of sufficient quality;
 - to sustain the aquatic environment;
 - to manage the inevitable discharges of waste water;
 - to control, as far as possible, pollution from diffuse sources; and
 - to enable the recreational use of water in harmony with these other concerns.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.7.9 Concerted action is being taken by the Environment Agency and other regulatory bodies, including the Scottish Environment Protection Agency, to enforce United Kingdom and European legislation in respect of water quality. This has an important bearing on the quality of the freshwater and marine environments. Significant improvements in environmental performance have been achieved.
- 2.7.10 Drinking water quality has continued to improve, with over 99% of tests meeting United Kingdom standards, which in some cases are more stringent than those in the EC Drinking Water Directive. In areas where there is a risk of the standard for lead being exceeded at consumers' taps, suppliers are replacing their part of lead service pipes and treating the water they supply so as to reduce its ability to dissolve lead from consumers' pipes.
- 2.7.11 There has been a net upgrading in quality of over 26% of river length in England and Wales between 1990 and 1994 reversing the slight decline in the 1980s. In Scotland, a 56% reduction in the length of river that is grossly polluted was achieved between 1985 and 1990. A similar measure of improvement was demonstrated in Northern Ireland with a reduction of 68% of river length classified as of poor quality in 1993.

Contaminated Land

- 2.7.12 Government policy on contaminated land distinguishes between the prevention of pollution and dealing with the legacy of land damaged by chemical pollution.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.7.13 There is already an effective regime for dealing with future pollution on a precautionary and a preventive basis. The Government employs a suitable-for-use approach to the control and treatment of existing pollution. This requires action only where the contaminated land poses unacceptable actual or potential risks to health and the environment and there are appropriate and effective means to do so, bearing in mind the actual or intended use of the site and its wider environmental setting.
- 2.7.14 The Environment Act 1995 contains specific provisions on contaminated land to replace the previous statutory nuisance powers. The new provisions provide for allocation of liability in line with 'the polluter pays' principle. Responsibility for regulation remains with local authorities, the role of the Environment Agencies being largely one of monitoring and giving advice. Legislation to be introduced shortly in Northern Ireland will mirror the provisions of the Environment Act.

H. Resource Conscious Cities

Introduction

- 2.8.1 Previous sections have indicated some of the approaches which are being introduced to achieve more environmentally sustainable development. These include the reuse and recycling of previously developed land for new uses and influencing the location, form and efficiency of new development. But there is a great deal more that could be done. For example, there is enormous scope to reduce energy consumption and to limit the amount of waste that we produce. This section outlines the Government's current approaches to improving the energy efficiency of the housing stock and managing waste.

Energy Efficient Housing

- 2.8.2 The increasing standards imposed by the Building Regulations over recent decades have led to progressive improvements in the energy efficiency of newly built housing. However, much of the older housing stock in the United Kingdom is poorly insulated with some - 16% of the total - without any central heating. A high proportion of our homes, including some relatively modern ones, has only single glazing. The cost of heating such homes during frequently cold winters can prove a considerable burden to those on low incomes, as well as being inefficient in energy terms.

Current and proposed measures

- 2.8.3 The Government is committed to improving the energy efficiency of the housing stock as part of its commitment to reduce United Kingdom CO₂ emissions to 1990 levels by the year 2000. Domestic energy use currently accounts for about a quarter of United Kingdom CO₂ emissions. Another key aim, particularly for the social housing sector, is the achievement of affordable warmth for occupants. The Government expects local authorities to make energy efficiency an integral part of their local housing strategies and housing investment programme bids. It has issued guidance - *Energy Efficiency in Council Housing: Guidance for Local Authorities (1994)* - showing local authorities how to develop and implement effective energy efficiency strategies for their stock. As part of that they are also encouraged to set aims, objectives and targets for improving the energy efficiency of their own housing stock.
- 2.8.4 For existing dwellings, the overall approach is to promote those measures, and packages of measures, which represent a cost effective investment for the homeowner or landlord (not just in direct energy benefits but in wider non-energy benefits to landlords and occupants). Where initial cost is a real barrier to uptake, grants or rebate schemes have been introduced.
- 2.8.5 With new dwellings or the refurbishment of existing ones, architects, builders, and others involved are encouraged to take an integrated approach to energy efficiency. This involves considering, together, all the features of the building which affect its energy consumption. This may mean, for example, increasing

insulation standards in conjunction with reducing the size of the heating system. In addition to action on their own stock, local authorities are well placed to promote energy efficiency across other housing in their areas. The need to do so, and to extend their energy efficiency strategies, is highlighted by the Home Energy Conservation Act 1995.

- 2.8.6 There are a range of programmes and activities in place to improve and promote energy efficiency across public and private sector housing and help achieve affordable warmth for householders. The Home Energy Conservation Act 1995 requires each local authority with housing responsibilities to draw up and submit to the Secretary of State a report setting out measures to bring about a significant improvement (30%) in the energy efficiency of all residential accommodation in its area. The Act has the potential to produce cost-effective assessments of energy use; to increase public awareness of energy inefficiency; and to help bring about real savings, and affordable warmth for all householders. It came into force on 1 April 1996 for English local authorities and the Northern Ireland Housing Executive.
- 2.8.7 The Energy Efficiency Best Practice Programme involves the promotion of good practice, primarily to building and industry professionals, through the generation and dissemination of independent, authoritative information. The programme plays a technical underpinning role in all work relating to energy efficiency and housing. It has helped bring about a number of changes in policy and practice including: higher energy efficiency standards in new build housing; incorporation of Standard Assessment Procedure home energy rating into the Building Regulations; the adoption by the Housing Corporation of high energy efficiency standards for both new properties and refurbishment work; and the incorporation of energy efficiency issues in local authority housing strategies and Housing Investment Programme bids.
- 2.8.8 The revised Building Regulations for England and Wales came into force in July 1995. The amendments include revisions to the requirements for the conservation of fuel and power. These will have the effect of raising the minimum standard of energy performance expected of new buildings and existing buildings whenever they are altered.
- 2.8.9 The Standard Assessment Procedure (SAP) has been developed by the Government to be the national standard for home energy rating. SAP provides an indication of the energy efficiency of a dwelling on a scale of 1 to 100 - the higher the rating, the more energy efficient the property. Under revised Building Regulations, new dwellings, including conversions, in England and Wales are now required to have a SAP rating. The Department of the Environment is working with Building Regulations colleagues in Northern Ireland and Scotland, with the aim to establish a similar mechanism. The Department of the Environment is also working with mortgage lenders to encourage them to incorporate SAP home energy rating and energy efficiency advice into their survey reports and offer 'green loans' or other financial services to improve energy efficiency.
- 2.8.10 The Home Energy Efficiency Scheme (HEES) pays for basic insulation and draught stripping of homes with low income, disabled or elderly (over 60) householders. Over 1.25 million homes have been treated since the scheme began in 1991. Provision for 1996/97 is around £68m. A similar scheme, the Domestic Energy Efficiency Scheme, was launched in Northern Ireland in January 1995.
- 2.8.11 The Wasting Energy Costs the Earth Campaign promotes the benefits to householders of energy efficiency ie: saving money on their fuel bills and improving comfort/warmth in their homes. A new two year campaign was launched in 1994 with a budget of £6 million. Northern Ireland has its own distinct publicity campaign.
- 2.8.12 House Renovation Grants administered by local authorities, provide help for heating and insulation to those on low incomes, including the elderly and disabled people, in private sector housing. In 1994 almost 100,000 house renovation grants were approved at a cost of almost £500 million.
- 2.8.13 The Energy Saving Trust is an organisation set up by the Government, British Gas and the Electricity Companies to develop and manage new programmes to promote energy efficiency in domestic and small business sectors throughout the United Kingdom. The Secretary of State has announced that he will make available to the Energy Saving Trust up to £25 million a year to promote energy efficiency measures, from 1996 until the gas and electricity markets are fully liberalised. The Trust is preparing a number of proposals for consideration by the Department of the Environment.

Waste Management

2.8.14 Some 400 million tonnes of solid waste is generated in the United Kingdom each year. About 174 million tonnes of this is defined as controlled waste which is made up of household waste and waste from the construction and demolition industry and other industrial waste. The remainder (non-controlled waste) is made up largely of waste from mineral workings and agriculture. Some 70% of the controlled waste is disposed of to landfill, which in most parts of the United Kingdom is the cheapest disposal option.

Current and proposed measures

2.8.15 The Government's recently issued *Strategy for Sustainable Waste Management in England and Wales (1995)* has three key objectives:

- to reduce the amount of waste that we produce;
- to make best use of what waste is produced; and
- to choose waste management practices which minimise the risks of immediate and future environmental pollution and harm to human health.

2.8.16 The waste hierarchy ranks the different waste management options in an order which is indicative of the relative sustainability of each. It considers in detail how we can use those options at the upper end of the hierarchy to manage more of our waste. It also includes proposals for making each proposal itself more sustainable. The strategy sets two primary targets and makes a commitment to set a third:

- to reduce the proportion of controlled waste going to landfill to 60% by 2005;
- to recover 40% of municipal waste by 2005; and
- to set a target for overall waste reduction, by the end of 1998.

2.8.17 In Scotland, the Scottish Environment Protection Agency is responsible for preparing the national waste strategy. The proposed Waste Management and Contaminated Land (NI) Order will, inter alia, make provision for a Northern Ireland Waste Strategy which will extend the general principles and targets of the England and Wales strategy to Northern Ireland.

2.8.18 The Government introduced a landfill tax in April 1996, the costs to business overall being offset by reductions in employer national insurance contributions. At a later stage Environment Trusts, funded largely from the landfill tax but with a 10% contribution from the waste management industry, will be set up. These will have the aim of promoting sustainable waste management and remedying the consequences of unsustainable practices in the past.

1. The United Kingdom and Urban Development Overseas

2.9.1 The United Kingdom Government will continue to provide assistance to the development and management of human settlements in developing countries through the Overseas Development Administration (ODA). Such assistance will help ODA to fulfil its purpose of improving the quality of life of people in poorer countries by reducing poverty and suffering and contributing to sustainable development.

2.9.2 Since Habitat I in 1976 the emphasis in ODA aid for human settlements has been shifting away from physical infrastructure and shelter projects towards assistance for social development, poverty reduction, and institutional capacity building. This has been achieved particularly through projects to improve urban health and education, to create employment opportunities and enable low income communities to plan and manage their development. A growing share of ODA aid has been channelled through Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) based in the United Kingdom and in developing countries. These trends will continue.

- 2.9.3 British financial aid and technical cooperation for urban and human settlement development will focus on helping central and local governments to develop policies which address the needs of the urban poor more effectively. An important focus in such policies is on ensuring an appropriate framework for private sector provision of shelter and services. ODA supports community based projects which acknowledge the importance of community participation in deciding which priorities to meet and how to meet them. It will also facilitate capacity building, strengthening local authorities, NGOs and community based organisations so they function more effectively, efficiently and accountably. Finally it will promote human resource development.
- 2.9.4 There is a wealth of British knowledge and experience in providing professional, technical and academic education and training in local government and in planning and managing human settlements. Many Commonwealth countries are particularly well placed to benefit from this because their legislative and administrative traditions are based on those of the United Kingdom.
- 2.9.5 In recent years, United Kingdom assistance aimed at improving the management of human settlements in urban areas has been extended to include countries in transition in the former Soviet Union and in Central and Eastern Europe. Areas covered include administrative reform; strategic planning; the contracting out of services; municipal management of finances; and assistance with housing projects.
- 2.9.6 Types of assistance include feasibility studies; provision of advisors; short training courses on a pump-priming basis; and longer training awards. It is planned to increase the United Kingdom's involvement in countries in transition.
- 2.9.7 Priority is given to establishing twinning arrangements between local authorities in the United Kingdom and those overseas. Hundreds of communities in the United Kingdom have friendship, partnership or twinning links with communities overseas. The majority are with other communities in Europe, but the past decade has seen a significant growth in the numbers of links with countries further afield. There are links with countries in Africa, Asia, the Caribbean and Latin America and others are now being established with countries in transition in the former Soviet Union and Eastern and Central Europe.
- 2.9.8 International links are forged for a variety of reasons. For some the main motivation is educational; for others the promotion of friendship or solidarity. In the official aid programme the emphasis is on support for partnership activities with a practical focus on local development projects or technical cooperation. The main aim is to improve the delivery of services to the rural and urban poor.

Conclusion: An Integrated Approach III.

- 3.1.1 This National Agenda for the United Kingdom outlines numerous policies and measures which relate to the two main themes for Habitat II: sustainable settlements in an urbanising world and adequate shelter for all. In line with the focus of Habitat II it is concerned with the urban development process and it places particular emphasis on the policies and programmes of the United Kingdom Government. To give a fuller picture of what is happening in the United Kingdom - it needs to be seen in conjunction with two other publications; the parallel report by British local authorities *Position Statement: the UK Local Government on Habitat II (1996)* and the report by the UK National Council for Habitat II *Living in the Future: 24 Sustainable Development Ideas from the UK (1996)*.
- 3.1.2 The policies and measures set out in this National Agenda represent a coherent framework for action. Coupled with local strategies, such as Local Agenda 21, and individual community initiatives, the mechanisms are in place to enable the United Kingdom's cities and towns to become more sustainable places. There is however no room for complacency and the Government regularly takes stock of its commitments to sustainable development to see how much action has been taken and how effective it has been. It also reviews what more needs to be done, and by whom.
- 3.1.3 To achieve real progress the various measures will need to be pursued in an integrated way. Thus, for example, land use and transport planning will have to be taken forward together; urban regeneration will require close links between housing and economic strategies; and action to make cities places in which more

people will want to live and work will require coordinated initiatives on a range of fronts. To move forward successfully on this basis will require close co-operation and partnership between the public, private and voluntary sectors at the national, regional and local level.

- 3.1.4 It remains to be seen whether, on this basis, the United Kingdom contribution will be sufficient as its share of the world-wide efforts needed to reach the international targets for global warming, ozone depletion, forestry, biodiversity, and depletion of scarce resources. These together will be the basis for long-term sustainability. Habitat II, however, offers a tremendous opportunity at the global level to determine new priorities for promoting sustainable settlements in an urbanising world. An expanding programme for monitoring progress and publicising the results will be needed to ensure, in the light of experience, success in achieving this vital objective.

**URBAN CHANGE IN
THE UNITED KINGDOM
SINCE 1976**

PART INTRODUCTION



THE CITY SUMMIT - THE UNITED NATIONS AT ISTANBUL 1976



1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 The City Summit, the United Nations Conference at Istanbul (Habitat II), has as its prime goal

'to increase the world's awareness of the problems and potentials of human settlements - as important inputs to social progress and economic growth - and to commit the world's leaders to making our cities, towns and villages healthy, safe, just and sustainable.'⁽¹⁾

1.1.2 By the year 2000, half of humanity will live and work in cities and towns, and the other half, wherever they live, will increasingly rely on urban settlements for their economic well-being. The rate of increase in the number and size of large cities is particularly rapid in developing countries. Many such cities are seriously affected by overcrowding, environmental degradation, social disruption, unemployment, poor housing, inadequate infrastructure and poor services. The levels of urbanisation, though not the rate of increase, are even greater in the developed world. Many challenges remain, albeit not of the scale or with the dynamic being experienced in the developing countries.

1.1.3 The City Summit marks the twentieth anniversary of Habitat, the first United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Vancouver in 1976. At that time, the issues of rapid and uncontrolled urbanisation accompanied by social, economic, ecological and environmental deterioration, and inequitable economic growth, were becoming apparent. The Vancouver Declaration listed sixty-four recommendations for action by national governments⁽²⁾. In summary they were:

- governments should adopt settlement policies and strategies to guide and promote the development of human settlements, and to provide adequate shelter and services for all;
- land is an essential element in the development of settlements and therefore should receive prime attention in planning;
- people - men and women, skilled and unskilled, individually and collectively - should be able to participate directly in shaping policies and programmes affecting their lives; and
- learning and the transfer of experience between countries should be encouraged, but with care taken to avoid imposing inappropriate standards and criteria that could heighten inequalities and misuse resources in developing countries.

1.1.4 More recently came the publication in 1987 of a report entitled *Our Common Future* by The World Commission on Environment and Development⁽³⁾. This was in response to an invitation by the Secretary-General of the United Nations to address rising concern about the global environment in the face of pressures for development. It brought onto the agenda the concept of sustainable development, defined in the Report as:

‘development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.’

This became the most widely quoted definition of an idea which has increasingly dominated policies and programmes at all levels, from global to local.

1.1.5 In 1990, a further United Nations Conference considered the *Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000*⁽⁴⁾. The problems of squalid residential environments and inadequate social and technical infrastructure and services in developing countries were serious and getting worse. The conference took up the themes from Vancouver, developing them in more detail and applying them more specifically to the need to provide adequate and secure shelter for all. It set out guidelines for national action; for mobilising financial resources; and for reorganising the production of shelter, including policies for land management.

1.1.6 The Earth Summit, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, held in Rio de Janeiro, followed in 1992. Its *Agenda 21* set out a programme of action for sustainable development⁽⁵⁾. The conference report covered every aspect of the social and economic dimensions of sustainable development, and the conservation and management of resources for development. One major section was devoted to promoting sustainable human settlements. This repeated in greater detail many of the recommendations of the Vancouver Declaration. But it had as the new theme sustainable development through better management of human settlements; promotion of sustainable land use planning and management; the integrated provision of environmental services; and sustainable energy and transport systems.

1.1.7 Now, in 1996, for the City Summit, governments have been called upon to prepare National Reports which will provide descriptions of the state of their human settlements, provision for shelter, and an assessment of strategies and policies. The Reports are to assess progress in attaining the goals of the Vancouver Declaration, in the context of the Global Strategy and Agenda 21. The United Nations recommended that National Reports

should be prepared in consultation with a wide range of key actors in the planning of human settlements and provision of shelter at all levels.

1.2 The United Kingdom National Report

1.2.1 The United Kingdom National Report to the Vancouver Conference in 1976 had land use planning as its focus⁽⁶⁾. This is an area in which the United Kingdom has extensive experience which has attracted considerable interest overseas. The report described the evolution of the statutory system for town and country planning and was illustrated with practical examples such as the post-war reconstruction of town centres, housing and the new towns programme, and the National Parks.

1.2.2 This United Kingdom National Report for the Istanbul Conference in 1996 also has land use planning at its core. It recognises the importance which is attached to land use planning in the recommendations of the three United Nations reports referred to earlier. It also provides continuity with the earlier report. But land use planning in the United Kingdom in 1996 is not the same as in 1976. Apart from changes in policy and practice, it now has to be placed in a sustainable development context.

1.2.3 Further, land use planning in this Report, whether at the national, regional or local levels, is not confined to the statutory system of town and country planning in the United Kingdom. The Report extends beyond that to cover related activities such as economic development, housing, transport, and the environment. In each, however, the starting point is their link to human settlements and land use planning.

1.2.4 The United Kingdom is a unitary state, with Parliament in London being the source of legislation. However, there are differences to a greater or lesser degree between the organisation of central and local government in England, Wales, and Scotland (that is Great Britain), and Northern Ireland. There are differences in the detailed approaches adopted to planning in the different parts of the United Kingdom, reflecting the different development pressures and priorities experienced in each country. The Report therefore tries to reflect something of the differences as well as the commonalities about planning in the United Kingdom.

1.2.5 Commissioned and financed by the Department of the Environment, the study *Urban Change in the United Kingdom since 1976* was produced independently by Llewelyn-Davies and the University of Reading. Government policies were

reviewed and the extensive literature on the subject in the United Kingdom and internationally examined. A series of workshops and seminars were held with people from government departments and agencies, non-governmental and voluntary organisations, and local government in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Representatives from the private sector and professional institutes with an interest in planning and development were consulted. The full list of those consulted is given in Appendix D.

1.2.6 A National Agenda has also been produced setting out what is being done and what will be done in the United Kingdom to improve the quality of life in cities, towns and villages in ways which are consistent with the aims of sustainable development.

1.2.7 In parallel with the preparation of this Report, the UK National Council for Habitat II has prepared a separate compilation of best practice, entitled *Living for the Future* which gives examples of 'actions, initiatives or projects which have resulted in clear improvements in the quality of life and the living environment of people in a sustainable way.'⁽⁷⁾

1.3 Urban change in the United Kingdom since 1976: an outline

1.3.1 The study is in three sections. This introductory section continues, in Chapter 2, with a summary of the findings of the 1976 National Report. The chapter then reviews those changes which, during the intervening years, have had a particular impact

on human settlements and shelter in the United Kingdom.

1.3.2 Chapters 3 - 8 assess the policies and progress towards sustainable human settlements in different policy areas: settlement patterns, transport, local economic development, housing, pollution and waste, and the quality of urban life. The final chapter of this section describes the British experience of human settlements and shelter provision overseas, especially in developing countries and those of central and eastern Europe.

1.3.3 The emphasis in these chapters is on how policies and methods have evolved, illustrated by examples, in the boxes, of the different approaches adopted. The chapters are all structured in a similar way. Following an introduction, sections are included on context and trends; viewpoints; policies and objectives and pointers for the future.

1.3.4 In conclusion, Chapter 10 presents the main lessons from this experience of twenty years of planning and development in a period of intense change.

1.3.5 Two Appendices describe the main statistical trends in the United Kingdom since about 1976; and the legislative base and main characteristics of the land use planning system and its operation. A glossary is provided and a further Appendix lists those organisations invited to take part in workshops. Other organisations including government departments and government offices for the regions and the National Committee for Habitat II have also contributed to this Report.

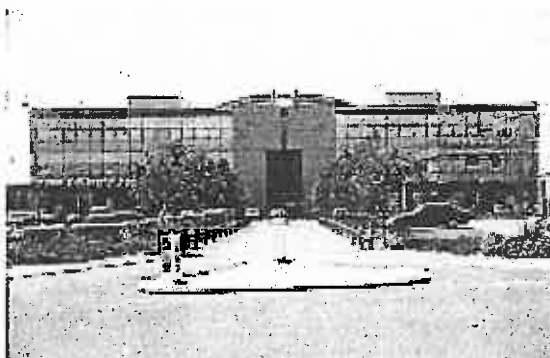
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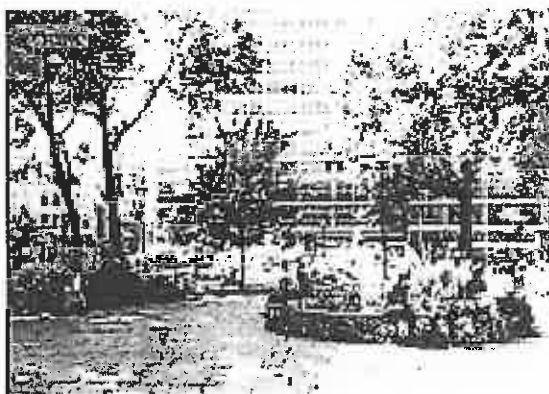


RADICAL CHANGE:

2 THE UNITED KINGDOM 1976 - 1996



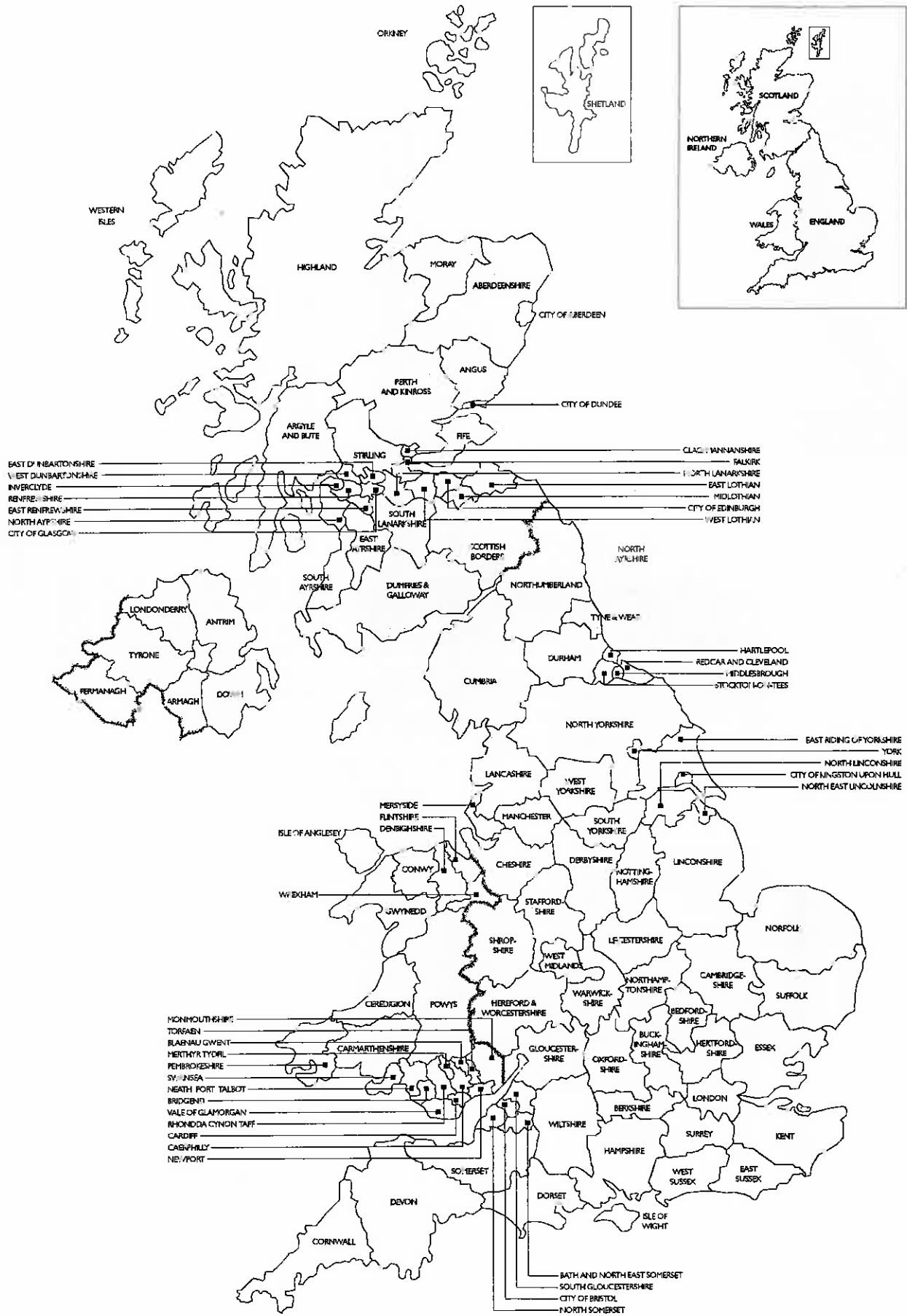
Aztec West Business Park, Bristol, Avon
A modern prestigious business park.



Red Lion Square, London
An open space enjoyed by nearby office workers.

2.1 The 1976 United Kingdom National Report

- 2.1.1 The United Kingdom National Report in 1976 started by tracing the evolution of land use planning in the United Kingdom from its origins in the response to nineteenth century industrialisation, urbanisation and social reform. It described what it called the modern movement in planning following the passing of the Town and Country Planning Act 1947 which had established the statutory planning system.
- 2.1.2 The agenda for planning between 1947 and 1976 was concerned broadly with the redevelopment of congested urban areas and the decentralisation and dispersal of industries and population from such areas. It aimed to achieve a reasonable balance of economic development throughout the country, coupled with diversification of industry.
- 2.1.3 Land use planning was to be one of the principal means of achieving those aims. The Town and Country Planning Act 1947 was to be a 'positive system for guiding and controlling development in town and countryside to conform with approved plans', with county councils as the principal planning authorities. Each local authority had to prepare a development plan showing the proposed pattern of land uses for twenty years into the future, with regular reviews to bring it up-to-date and roll it forward.
- 2.1.4 The development plans were approved, new towns were built, slums were cleared, town centres were rebuilt, green belts prevented the sprawl of towns into the countryside, National Parks and other designations protected the most attractive areas and opened up access for the people. Drawing on that experience, the United Kingdom National Report identified six 'main threads' which had lessons for the United Kingdom and were thought to be of wider interest. In summary, these were:
- the need for planning itself, though its nature must evolve in response to changing circumstances;
 - the importance of public participation in gaining acceptance of planning, whilst realising that there would be conflicts of view to resolve;
 - the importance of flexibility in planning, with the development plans capable of adjustment in the light of changing needs;
 - the need to deal with the effect of a regulated planning system on land values through forms of compensation and betterment;



United Kingdom
Administrative divisions, England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales, and Counties.

- the importance of preserving the best from the past, whether it be buildings or countryside, merging into a wider need to conserve assets, especially those that are irreplaceable; and
- the need to base planning on people's needs and how best to meet them, and a move towards comprehensive, positive planning.

2.1.5 These six 'threads' varied in strength in the period 1947-76 with some, such as public participation and conservation, only gaining force in the 1970s. A major source of contention during this period was the question of land values, compensation and betterment. Various measures covering these topics had been enacted and cancelled by successive Labour and Conservative Governments since 1947. However, by 1976, the Community Land Act had been enacted to bring land for development into public ownership; and a development land tax established specifically to recoup increases in land values for the public.

2.2 The Years of Change

- 2.2.1 The twenty years from 1976 to 1996 have been a period of radical change for the United Kingdom both internationally and at home. Many of the assumptions and ideologies which had underpinned the post-war consensus were overturned. The warning signals of impending change were already there in 1976. One was the effects of the 1973 international oil crisis. Another was the accession of the United Kingdom to the European Union in 1973, bringing a new opportunity and a new force for change affecting many aspects of life.
- 2.2.2 The world economy, and the place of the United Kingdom within it, altered during this twenty year period. Progressive reductions in tariffs and other restrictions on trade in successive GATT rounds have accelerated the increasing internationalisation of companies. This process has been given a very explicit boost by the formation of the Single European Market. The emergence of a global economy has been further reinforced by the growth of manufacturing and services in the countries of South East Asia, and the political transformation of the former communist countries of eastern and central Europe.
- 2.2.3 The effect of these trends has been to open the United Kingdom to more intensive competition for international investment and trade, with a reduction in the capacity to control investment and development at the national level, let alone by local government. Nevertheless, overseas investment in the United Kingdom rose substantially, from £3,000 million in 1976 to £38,000 million in 1994, benefiting regions such as South Wales and parts of Scotland. The latter in particular also gained from the development of North Sea oil.
- 2.2.4 The period since 1976 has also been marked by significant demographic changes: an ageing population and smaller households; the changing structure of the labour force, with greater female participation and more part-time working; and rising incomes and car ownership. These trends are described in Appendix A.
- 2.2.5 The international oil crisis set in motion a world-wide recession and, for the United Kingdom a period of rapid inflation. Control of inflation became the dominant economic objective for the entire period. At the same time, growth in public expenditure led to serious national budget deficits and corresponding attempts at controlling spending. Local government was particularly affected as central government exercised increasing control over its expenditure.
- 2.2.6 The pace of change quickened after 1979 with the election of a Conservative government committed to a radical shift in policy. This included greater freedom for market forces and a wider choice for individuals, with measures to increase competitiveness; to attract inward investment; and to provide infrastructure, especially road construction. Nationalised industries, including some public utilities, were privatised, parts of the planning system and public transport were deregulated, and tenants of local authority housing were given a 'Right-to-Buy' their dwellings. The Community Land Act was repealed and the development land tax abolished.
- 2.2.7 Social attitudes and aspirations also changed in the 1980s and 1990s. The long-term trend for dispersal from the cities continued as those with the means increasingly sought to live in what they perceived to be a better environment, away from the cities. Leisure activities widened and shopping patterns altered, especially those relying on the car. Non-governmental organisations, the voluntary sector and communities campaigned for improved housing and better social conditions in the deprived areas of cities, and greater protection for the environment. For many, the activity went beyond campaigning to direct community action, for instance, in tenant management or environmental improvements.
- 2.2.8 People's perceptions, and the political climate in which planning took place, were affected by these social and economic changes. For some, planning was seen as a burden on entrepreneurial activity,

restricting the free play of market forces. Others continued to see planning as necessary to ensure recognition of social and environmental considerations not readily priced by the market. Planning was also seen as a defence against unwelcome development affecting property values and cherished environments.

Structural Change in the National Economy

- 2.2.9 The economy experienced major structural changes in the 1970s and 1980s. Employment in manufacturing fell sharply, by a quarter between 1977 and 1984, continuing to fall for most of the rest of the period. This trend was particularly acute in the older manufacturing regions of the United Kingdom, such as the Midlands and the North of England and parts of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. However, manufacturing production grew substantially between 1981 and 1991 as a result of greater efficiency, notwithstanding the fall in employment.
- 2.2.10 The decline in manufacturing employment was accompanied by an increase in service employment, and changes in its structure, including growth in part-time employment. Employment in banking, finance and insurance in London and the South East increased in the mid-1980s, stimulated by the deregulation of financial services. This growth, occurring at the same time as an easing of some planning controls, and promotion of owner-occupation of housing, stimulated a short-lived but intense property boom in commercial office and retail development and private sector house building.
- 2.2.11 The total workforce increased between 1981 and 1993 by nearly a third of a million. Nevertheless, unemployment in the United Kingdom fluctuated around a long-term rising trend until the early 1990s. The concentration of the 1980s recession in the industrial sector reinforced the tendency apparent for most of the century, for unemployment rates to be at their greatest in the old, industrial regions of the north and west of the country. Regional disparities were further reinforced by the growth in services in the 1980s. By 1986, when unemployment nationally was at its peak (11.2%), it was, for example, twice as high in the Northern Region of England as in the South East. The long-term regional pattern changed sharply in the early 1990s, with the slower growth in services and the relative recovery of industrial competitiveness. When unemployment again reached high levels in 1993, it was only slightly greater in the Northern Region than in the South East.
- ## 2.3 Urban Regeneration
- 2.3.1 For the majority of the population who remained in employment, the period since 1976 has brought greater affluence and a perceived higher quality of life. This has been particularly apparent in the outer suburbs, the medium-size towns, and in much of the countryside. But, even in these relatively prosperous areas, economic changes and the planning decisions to accommodate them have not always occurred without conflict.
- 2.3.2 The negative effects of economic change were particularly felt in the older, larger, cities of the United Kingdom (including parts of inner London), most of which had lost at least 30 per cent of their employment between 1971 and 1976. Their population was also declining, for instance, in Glasgow, Manchester and Liverpool by more than 15 per cent between 1971 and 1976. To some extent these statistics reflect the degree to which London and the great cities were spreading beyond their administrative boundaries, to the suburban areas and beyond.
- 2.3.3 Structural changes in the economy meant that there was rising unemployment in the cities, especially amongst unskilled workers, young people, and ethnic minorities. There were persistent and significant concentrations of serious poverty and deprivation of every kind in many inner areas. This occurred particularly where the housing was a mixture of estates built by municipalities and sub-standard private-rented stock, much of it overcrowded and in multiple occupation. Many of the same problems of poverty, lack of facilities and a deteriorating environment were found in some of the large, post-war municipal housing estates built on the periphery of some cities, Liverpool and Glasgow being examples.
- 2.3.4 The problems of the cities became increasingly apparent in the early 1970s. However, the full intensity of their social and economic decline was not wholly apparent at the time of the 1976 United Kingdom National Report to Habitat. This changed when the recession of the early 1980s accentuated the problems of the inner cities, because of their reliance on traditional industries in which job losses were concentrated. New economic investment was seeking a more attractive environment with better communications, especially by road, outside the cities.

2.4 Conclusions

- 2.4.1 This chapter has reviewed some of the key changes affecting Government policies towards planning and human settlements. It has concentrated on the effects of structural economic change on declining urban areas and the moves towards a national urban policy. It has referred to the changes in social attitudes. There were also changes in rural areas associated with the dispersal of population and employment from the towns and cities. Thus the context has been set for the assessment of the United Kingdom experience in the planning of human settlements and the provision of shelter since 1976.
- 2.4.2 The general election of 1979 precipitated a re-evaluation of the aims of planning, with market forces, privatisation, and deregulation coming to dominate the political agenda. The effect was to alter radically many of the planning policies and practices which were described in the 1976 Report on *Planning in the United Kingdom*. In a period of rapid change, giving more influence to market forces was seen as necessary to take advantage of new opportunities. Planning was encouraged to facilitate development, rather than place unnecessary obstacles in the way of successful enterprise, other than where it would cause harm to interests of acknowledged importance.
- 2.4.3 The focus has shifted again in recent years, adding the themes of environmental protection and sustainable development to that of urban regeneration. It is to sustainable development that the next chapter turns.

PART II TOWARDS SUSTAINABILITY

'continued economic and social development without detriment to the environment and the natural resources on the quality of which continued human activity and further development depend.'

i The most widely-quoted definition of sustainable development, that of the World Commission on the Environment and Development, was given in Chapter 1. The Commission was building on the understanding which had been growing internationally throughout the 1970s and 1980s, that the resources of the world are limited and its eco-systems are fragile and vulnerable to change. There have been many other definitions of sustainable development, but the importance of the idea, however loosely described, has not diminished. The concept was officially endorsed in the United Kingdom in the 1990 Government White Paper, *This Common Inheritance: Britain's Environmental Strategy*⁽¹⁾.

ii The Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 gave a strong impetus to the movement towards sustainability. The United Kingdom Government joined with others in adopting Agenda 21, a programme of action throughout the world to achieve a more sustainable pattern of development for the next century. At the same time, agreement was reached on the Climate Change Convention, the Biodiversity Convention, and a statement of principles on the world's forests. The United Kingdom Government plays a full role in the work of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development which was established after Rio to oversee and monitor the implementation of Agenda 21.

iii The European Union has also developed the concept of sustainability. Its *Fifth Environmental Action Programme*, in 1992, was entitled *Towards Sustainability*⁽²⁾. By sustainability, the Union meant:

iv The Fifth Action Programme marked a significant shift in emphasis away from regulatory means of controlling pollution of the environment by setting standards, although these continue to be vital. Instead, the focus was to be widened to influence behaviour in the five key areas of industry, agriculture, energy, transport, and tourism, through pricing mechanisms and other methods. The Programme also identified a number of horizontal issues cutting across the sectoral programmes, including the urban environment.

v The United Kingdom Government published a major statement of policy in January 1994, *Sustainable Development: the United Kingdom Strategy*⁽³⁾. This was a comprehensive statement of government policies affecting the environment, covering natural and human resources and the economy. The ways in which they would be put into practice involve central and local government, business and the private sector, voluntary organisations and individuals.

vi The United Kingdom Government has published *Annual Reports* of progress in developing policies for its environmental strategy, the most recent in the Spring of 1996. More detailed strategies are being developed on a number of different aspects of the environment, including those on air quality and waste management. Government departments have incorporated environmental considerations into policy. Three measures have been instituted for disseminating knowledge more widely and stimulating debate about sustainable development:

- the Government's Panel on Sustainable Development, and the Advisory Group on Sustainable Development in Scotland, to provide authoritative and strategic advice on implementation of the United Kingdom Strategy for Sustainable Development;

- the United Kingdom Round Table on Sustainable Development, bringing together leading representatives from central and local government, business, environmental organisations and other sectors of the community to help identify the agenda and priorities; and
 - *Going for Green*, a programme for disseminating information to the public on Agenda 21, with the aim of informing and motivating individuals to make the changes to their lifestyles which will help towards sustainable development.
- vii At the same time the local authority associations, under the auspices of the Local Government Management Board, have established Local Agenda 21, noting that two-thirds of the statements in Agenda 21 cannot be delivered without the commitment and co-operation of local government. The Board has published a *Framework for Local Sustainability* and *Local Agenda 21: a Step-by-Step Guide*, to assist local authorities in developing programmes for sustainable development⁽⁴⁾. In addition, businesses are being encouraged to adopt environmental audit principles in their management practices.
- viii Non-governmental organisations have also been active in promoting ideas about sustainable development. Notable in fields related to land use planning and human settlements are the Town and Country Planning Association, Friends of the Earth, and The Royal Town Planning Institute.
- ix Effective progress towards sustainable development depends on defining clear and manageable objectives, and policies for their implementation. Monitoring the degree to which objectives are being achieved then depends on their translation into targets or indicators which are measurable and time-related. In turn, this depends on the availability of historic and current data and the level of scientific understanding of the processes involved.
- x Progress in developing targets in the United Kingdom is reported in detail in the *1996 Annual Report on This Common Inheritance*⁽⁵⁾. It shows that progress is being made in subjects such as atmospheric emissions, water quality, and waste management. However, there is debate about the actual measures or standards being set, especially those where there is a link with human health or damage to the environment. In other fields, such as rural land use or transport, measuring progress is more problematic. To some extent the potential conflict lies between differing objectives, such as economic growth, social equity, and environmental protection.
- xi A number of basic principles underlie the approach of the United Kingdom Government, namely:
- acceptance of the principle of **biodiversity**, drawing a distinction between critical environmental assets and those for which environmental controls may be negotiable;
 - the need for the **precautionary principle** in view of the degree of scientific uncertainty about many of the environmental processes, and the problems of assessing the values to be placed on future resources and the needs of future generations;
 - the need for **transparency**, especially in establishing as far as possible the environmental costs of development;
 - **economic instruments** can be more flexible and cost-effective than regulation and provide a framework to encourage competition, within which people can exercise choice;
 - recognition that **regulation** is essential in some areas, notably in land use planning and transport, to inform and make markets work more efficiently and effectively, and to prohibit damaging activities; and
 - the use of **demand management** as a means towards more sustainable use of natural resources, such as water, and in activities affecting the environment such as tourism or transport.
- xii The principles of sustainable development have been carried forward into land use planning. The Government stated in 1993 'its intention to work towards ensuring that development and growth are sustainable.' It emphasised that the planning system
- 'is an important instrument for protecting and enhancing the environment in town and country....(and) has an important role to play in guiding appropriate development to the right place as well as preventing development which is not acceptable.'⁽⁶⁾
- xiii The planning system in the United Kingdom is essentially a matter for action at the local level, within the broad framework established by Government policies and legislation. The two major urban issues have been the relationship between land use, the environment, and mobility; and the regeneration of declining urban areas, including housing and economic development. It is these which are the context for sustainable planning of settlements, covering an interacting

and complex set of policy areas for implementation at the local level, ranging from the pattern of settlements to the details of their environmental quality.

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SUSTAINABLE SETTLEMENT PATTERNS

3

3.1 Introduction

- 3.1.1 The population of the United Kingdom is highly urbanised and about 80% of its population live in cities, towns and villages. They live in settlements ranging in size from villages with a few hundred people, or small towns with a few thousand, to Greater London, with a population of more than six million. In between there are seven major conurbations with populations of between one and two million, a dozen large cities with between a quarter and three-quarters of a million, and about forty towns with between 100,000 and 200,000 inhabitants. Nine per cent of the surface area of the United Kingdom is built-up.
- 3.1.2 The spatial pattern of these settlements has changed during the twentieth century under the influence of two principal forces. One has been the voluntary dispersal of people and jobs moving out from the cities to the suburbs and beyond, assisted in recent decades by the growth in car ownership. The movements have been largely to the smaller and medium-sized towns and villages within commuting distance of London and the main conurbations, or elsewhere in the south of England. The second is a smaller, but declining, rate of depopulation of the more remote rural areas, especially in parts of Wales and Scotland.
- 3.1.3 The other influence has been land use planning. Policy since World War II has been broadly to check the outward sprawl of towns and cities to preserve their separate identity and to protect the surrounding countryside from urban development. Up to 1976, policy entailed prevention of sprawl by green belts; and planned decentralisation of activity from the larger, congested urban areas through slum clearance and redevelopment, and the post-war programme of new towns beyond the green belts.
- 3.1.4 Much has changed since 1976. The planning system was given a new focus in the 1980s, to respond more positively to market forces and pressures for development, though still protecting the green belts. The problems of decline in the larger cities and conurbations were recognised and given greater priority through programmes for urban regeneration. The new towns programme was wound down, with no further new towns being announced.
- 3.1.5 Further change has come in the 1990s. The promotion of sustainable settlement patterns is now central to the Government's approach. Its first aim is to conserve resources through the more efficient use of land in urban areas, especially by the re-use of derelict and vacant land. The second is to shape new patterns of development so as to minimise the use of energy consumed in travel between dispersed developments. Together, these aims will have major effects on the spatial pattern of development, for which more detailed policies are currently being worked out, and their implications assessed.



Edinburgh, Scotland

The countryside around the city is protected as green belt.

3.2 Context and Trends

3.2.1 Land use planning policies in the United Kingdom operate at three levels. The broad scale and general location of development, to meet the needs for housing and other uses, is determined at the strategic level through regional guidance and structure planning. Local plans provide the framework for planning at the level of the individual town and its surroundings, focusing on the distribution of land uses and patterns of circulation within the urban area, and aiming at a balance between social, economic and environmental considerations. Planning at the neighbourhood level is concerned chiefly with regulating change through the control of development and ensuring that the plans at higher levels are respected.

3.2.2 The overall direction of settlement policies has changed since 1976. The decentralisation policy was reversed, and a new priority introduced to promote urban regeneration. But, despite some of the toughest urban containment policies in the world, market forces, and partial deregulation of the planning system after 1980 ensured that dispersal from the larger urban areas continued. This was assisted by new forms of development such as out-of-town shopping centres and business parks, with an inevitable loss of greenfield sites to development. Nevertheless, the green belts and other containment policies have resulted in more than half of new housing construction in recent years being in existing built up areas.

3.2.3 The demand for land for these new homes was a consequence of demographic forces, with smaller households and more people living alone, coupled with growing affluence. Much of the demand was led by growth in jobs in new economic activity in particular areas. There was also the need to replace slums, and the search for retirement and leisure homes by an increasingly elderly and affluent population. The major features of this process, during which more than four million new homes were built between 1976 and 1995, have been:

- continuing growth in the number of households and hence a continuous increase in the demand for housing;
- persistent loss of population in the larger cities, with many people who could afford to move, opting to own their homes in the suburbs and beyond where they sought a higher quality of life;

- additional loss of population in the larger cities through slum clearance, especially in the 1970s when new, suburban municipal housing estates were being built;
- population and job growth in small towns, market towns and the more accessible rural areas;
- high rates of population and job growth in the least industrialised regions of East Anglia and South West England;
- persistent loss of jobs in industrial cities and towns, particularly in manufacturing, coupled with the decentralisation of companies seeking more spacious working conditions,
- the local decentralisation of services, such as retail facilities, employment centres and leisure facilities, away from urban centres to suburban or edge-of-town locations; and
- rising rates of car ownership and use, and associated investment in roads, which have facilitated decentralisation of jobs and homes, creating longer work and leisure journeys.

3.2.4 The process of urban decentralisation experienced from 1945 to the early 1980s gave many people a higher quality of life in a better environment. But that process is now also perceived to have led to significant problems. The quality of life and job prospects of many living in the older industrial cities have continued to decline, with an associated polarisation of the population into a disadvantaged group left behind in some inner city areas or outer municipal housing estates, and a prosperous group increasingly located in the suburbs and beyond. Rural land has continued to be lost to urban development despite much of the new housing being built in existing urban areas. New, decentralised urban developments, such as business parks, leisure facilities and shopping centres, are highly reliant on the motor car, and relatively inaccessible by public transport.

3.2.5 This process of urban change has involved a very large cast of actors and interests. Box 3.1 lists the four main categories: national government departments setting the broad framework; local government responsible for development plans and control; the private sector firms and organisations who carry out most of the development, including the recently privatised public utilities; and the various national and community organisations concerned about land use and the environment.

Box 3.1**Actors interested in settlement patterns****Central Government Departments**

The Departments of the Environment, Transport, and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food have the major responsibility for sustainable development policies in England, together with the equivalent departments of the Scottish, Welsh and Northern Ireland Offices.

Local Government

Local authorities are responsible for preparing development plans and operating the system of development control.

Environment Agency and Scottish Environment Protection Agency

Responsible for integrated pollution control including water resource management and nature conservation.

Development interests include:

- *House Builders' Federation representing volume housebuilders and smaller construction companies;*
- *British Property Federation*

representing many firms and organisations involved mainly in commercial property development; and

- *Confederation of British Industry representing most industrial firms, with a wider interest in the national economy.*

Environmental interests include:

- *Council for the Protection of Rural England, which was founded in 1926 to promote the interests of the countryside, and now comments on development plans and major planning applications; and*
- *Local Amenity Societies comprised of a large and varied number of independent organisations at the local level with an interest in urban and rural conservation.*

Other interests and agencies:

A number of firms and organisations, many of them former nationalised undertakings such as those responsible for gas, water and electricity supply, with a strong interest in patterns of settlement either through their statutory responsibilities for the supply of services or their ownership of land.

- national and regional priorities for development, and resistance to change by local communities and neighbours affected by proposals for development, the so-called NIMBY factor ('Not In My Backyard');
- the case for the new, dispersed forms of development, especially out-of-town shopping centres, and their effects on existing town centres;
- the trade-off between social and economic priorities in the need for development land, and the priority given to the protection of the countryside; and
- the future of rural settlements and their needs for affordable housing, access to jobs, and other services, against the pressure for policies restricting development in the countryside.

3.4 Policies and Objectives

3.4.1 Policies for spatial planning of urban settlements have been dominated in the past by the twin, opposing forces of containment and decentralisation. Today they are influenced by ideas about sustainable development. The 1994 *United Kingdom Strategy for Sustainable Development* emphasises the extent to which urban areas raise environmental issues through congestion, pollution and waste. But cities and towns also provide the basis for relatively sustainable forms of development in terms of their density, and their concentration of sources of waste and pollution which may be easier to deal with than in more scattered forms of development. The key issue for planning is to influence the location and form of development in ways that are sustainable in social, economic and environmental terms.

3.4.2 Four policy objectives are of crucial significance in discussing moves towards sustainable settlement patterns. They are:

- to contain urban development;
- to meet the need for new housing development in a sustainable way;
- to promote viable town centres; and
- to promote integrated land use and transport planning.

3.3 Viewpoints

3.3.1 The different actors have engaged in debate about the objectives of spatial planning of settlements at every level, national, regional and local. The two main objectives, frequently in conflict, have been to provide land for housing, employment, and other facilities; and to protect and conserve the built and natural environment. In more detailed terms, the debate has centred around:

- the potential conflict between offering people freedom to choose where to live and work, and the need to conserve resources of land and energy in the interests of sustainable patterns of development;
- the case for a compact, high density city, with intensification of development, and concern over the resultant quality of the urban environment, especially for lower income families and individuals;

To contain urban development

- 3.4.3 Green belts, within which there is a general presumption against development, have been the most visible and strongest expression of the long-standing policy of containment. They are defined in development plans around most of the major cities. The largest extends between 20 km and 50 km in width around London, and in all, green belts cover over 9% of the United Kingdom, an area almost equivalent to the built-up area. Their purpose is to safeguard the countryside and prevent the merging of neighbouring towns, though they are also used for leisure and recreation purposes. In addition, they have been used to assist in urban regeneration by restricting the outward sprawl of towns. Most development plans in England and Wales also contain policies which seek to limit isolated development in the wider countryside unless it is related to farming or forestry.



Berkshire

Box 3.2

Berkshire Structure Plan: accommodating housing demand

The most contentious planning issue in South East England is the accommodation of housing growth. An overall regional requirement is determined from demographic factors by the Government in association with SERPLAN, a regional body made up of the local planning authorities. This total is then distributed between counties according to a combination of past trends and regional planning guidance. Some counties have argued that their housing allocations are too high.

In Berkshire (population 770,300), a county to the west of London, this issue has been particularly contentious, even though the Government envisages some shift of development from the west to the east of London. The area available for new development in Berkshire is small, sandwiched between the metropolitan green belt around London and the North Wessex Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty. The government's regional planning guidance provides for 40,000 homes over the 1991-2006 period, the county council had proposed 37,000.

Pro-development interests include the National House Builders' Federation. They argue that the Government's 40,000 allocation is too low, and already switches considerable growth away from Berkshire compared to that suggested by trend based household forecasts. They advocate a figure of 49,000.

Various anti-development and environmental groups argue for as little additional housing provision as possible. These include national environmental agencies, such as the Council for the Protection of Rural England and Friends of the Earth, localised environmental groups such as Save Planning in the South East (SPISE); and ad hoc groups, such as Friends of the Lower Kennet (FOLK), formed to protect a local area from the threat of development.

The County Council acknowledges the need to accommodate growth, but objects to a level of provision that would, it argues, create serious environmental problems. Central Government, in concert with SERPLAN, has to take the broad strategic view, which requires that necessary growth is allowed for across the South East region. The Government has directed the county council to make provision for 40,000 homes.

- 3.4.4 Although there is very broad support for the policy of containment, and for green belts in particular, they are nevertheless a potential source of conflict. This is the case especially in South East England where demand for housing has been greatest. The conflicts can be between central and local government, as well as between development and environmental interests or those resisting change. The effect on land prices, by restricting supply, and, in the case of the green belts, in encouraging longer distance commuting, has also been criticised. Box 3.2 illustrates the case of Berkshire, a county where green belt and other development constraints have been major factors in decisions on the scale and location of housing growth.



Ashford, Kent

Planning policies aim to protect greenfield sites against development

To meet the need for new housing development in a sustainable way

- 3.4.5 Recent projections indicate an increase of 4.4 million households in England alone up to the year 2016, a major increase over previous projections. The question of which additional sites will be planned for development will be the subject of intensive debate over the next few years (see Chapter 6). Many inevitably will be extensions to existing urban areas on greenfield sites. But there are two other possibilities.
- 3.4.6 New settlements offer one way of providing land for homes and jobs.⁽¹⁾ This idea builds to some extent on the early experiments with garden cities, although on a much smaller scale than the Government sponsored new towns created since 1946. There were nearly 200 proposals in England in the 1980s for small, privately-developed, free-standing settlements of between 300 and 4,500 houses. The idea was that building new settlements would be a more effective way of meeting demand than extensions to towns and villages. However, there were many protests

locally against the proposals and few were eventually started, exceptions being New Ash Green in Kent, South Woodham Ferrers, and, most recently, Chafford Hundred. The two latter are both in Essex. The example of Great Notley Garden Village, also in Essex, is shown in Box 8.7. Government policy has been to discourage the development of small new settlements where they are unlikely to be well-served by public transport, and are not capable of being largely self-contained. A current proposal, at Micheldever in Hampshire, is illustrated in Box 3.3.

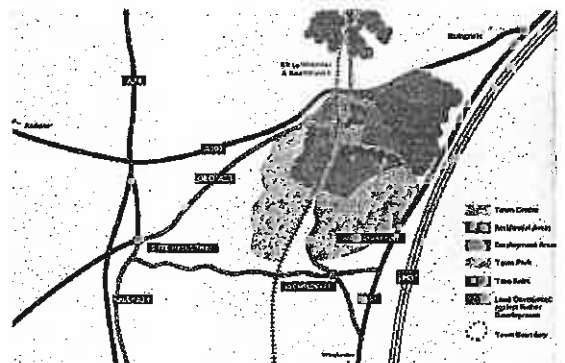
- 3.4.7 Existing built-up areas offer another choice. Approximately half of all new residential development in South East England in the 1990s has been in such areas through a mixture of development on vacant sites or derelict land; redevelopment; and intensification of development in existing residential areas, such as in the older, lower density suburbs where gardens and other open spaces have been used. Chester is one authority which has attempted to identify the

capacity of an area to accept new development without doing damage to the environment and then to plan within this constraint (Box 3.4). Urban villages have been a further idea in which private builders combine to create mixed-use developments with populations of between three and five thousand in existing built-up areas.

- 3.4.8 Promoting sustainable development involves balancing jobs and homes, and selecting the different kinds of location for new housing to achieve a more optimal pattern of settlements. A desire to promote the local economy may lead to a demand for more homes than can be supported in terms of resources and the environment. Certain patterns of development can lead to increased travel by car. The task is to balance the needs of development and the environment through the development planning process, using advice such as that in the Department of Environment's report on *Environmental Appraisal of Development Plans: a Good Practice Guide*⁽²⁾. Box 3.5 shows how this was resolved in the county of Bedfordshire.

To promote viable town centres

- 3.4.9 One symbol of the decentralisation brought about through market forces was the growth of retail development in out-of-town locations. This was at its peak in the late 1980s. Rising car ownership and changing patterns of shopping encouraged the development of ever-larger shopping centres. Sixty-nine new, out-of-town shopping centres of more than 5,000 sq m opened in 1989, compared to an average of about six a year between 1971 and 1986. Out-of-town centres are being increasingly challenged on grounds of their reliance on the car, reinforced by concern about the threat which they pose to the vitality and viability of traditional high street shopping in town centres⁽³⁾ (Box 3.6). In response to these concerns, Government policy has recently given more emphasis to support for existing town centres.



Micheldever, Hampshire

A proposal to accommodate growth without suburban expansion around existing towns.



Micheldever

Box 3.3

Micheldever New Settlement Proposal, Hampshire

Eagle Star Estates Ltd has been proposing the development of a new settlement at Micheldever, Hampshire, in southern England, over a number of years. The scheme envisages 6-8,000 homes, some industrial development and a range of service and community functions. The developers see the new settlement as a way of providing for the future demand for housing in Hampshire without more suburban growth around existing towns. The scheme has been devised with principles of sustainability in mind. In this respect, two important features of the scheme are:

- *the town would be built around an existing railway station, and*
- *the town would have a degree of employment self-containment.*

Rather than submit a proposal to the local authority, an approach taken with little success by many developers, Eagle Star promoted their scheme through the county structure plan process. The aim of this approach is to get the proposal adopted as official planning policy.

The proposal is resisted by Hampshire County Council, who view it as being in conflict with the advice in Policy in Planning Guidance note 13 on Transport and an unnecessary encroachment on open countryside. It does not feature in their draft Structure Plan Review.

However, Eagle Star will have the opportunity to press their case at the examination-in-public into the draft structure plan.

Box 3.4

Chester Environmental Capacity Study

Following concerns during the preparation of the Cheshire Structure Plan about the possible encroachment of growth into the green belt, the local authorities, with English Heritage and the Department of the Environment, commissioned a study into the environmental capacity of the historic city. The study was published in 1994, followed by a methodology report in 1995.

The aim of the study was to identify the capacity of Chester (population 113,100) to accommodate growth without

encroaching on green belt land and without doing damage to the historic core of the city. A novel feature of the work was a series of perception studies, used to determine from a qualitative view the scale of change that could be accommodated without the town losing its unique character.

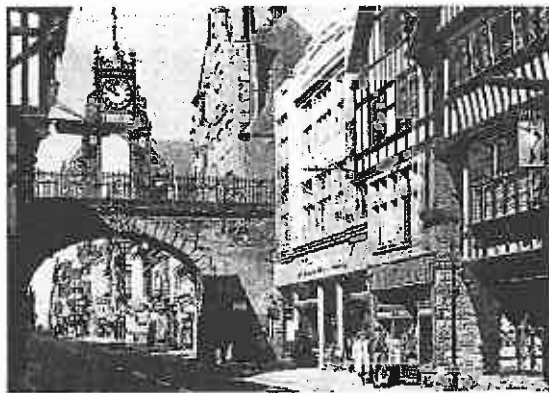
The study concluded that 'there is considerable scope for change and controlled growth in Chester without damaging those things that make Chester special. However, there are a number of identified 'pressure points' such that any change or growth cannot take place without a substantial commitment to other planning or mitigating or managerial measures.'

3.4.11 There have been significant changes from the approach of the 1980s, affecting both land use and transport. PPG13 indicates in some detail the kinds of objectives which should be pursued for sustainable settlement patterns. Policies for the location and form of development should have as their objective reductions in the need for travel, working towards a better balance of population and employment so that people can live nearer their work, and offering a wider choice of alternative travel modes to the car. Examples include, for instance:

- allocating the maximum amount of housing in existing larger urban areas; maintaining existing densities and where appropriate increasing them; and, where feasible, juxtaposing employment and residential uses through mixed-use development;
- locating sites for new housing where they are capable of being well-served by rail or other public transport and avoiding any significant expansion of housing in villages and small towns, or sporadic development in the open countryside where this is likely to lead to commuting by car;



Chester



Chester, Cheshire
A historic city threatened by too much development, traffic and people.

To promote integrated land use and transport planning

3.4.10 *Planning Policy Guidance Note 13*, on Transport, aims to ensure that local authorities carry out their land use policies and transport programmes in an integrated way which promotes sustainable patterns of development⁽⁴⁾. The guidance only applies in England. In Scotland, levels of car ownership in urban areas are significantly lower, and in both Wales and Scotland there are very extensive, remote rural areas with low population where the car is an essential means of transport. Alternative approaches to sustainable transport are therefore being investigated for these countries, underpinned by the broad principles of the *United Kingdom Sustainable Development Strategy*.



Bedfordshire

Box 3.5

Bedfordshire Draft Structure Plan, 1995: incorporating sustainable development principles

The draft Bedfordshire Structure Plan, published in February 1995, is a good example of a new generation of structure plans. Bedfordshire is a county just to the north of London with a population of 514,800. It has been the focus of considerable growth in recent years, yet faces an uncertain economic future. Ensuring that continued local economic growth is reconciled with the requirements of sustainable development is a central theme in the draft plan.

The draft plan interprets sustainable development as having three principal themes: promoting environmental stewardship, enhancing economic opportunities, and enhancing social opportunities. The plan sets 21 targets across these three themes, with policies identified by which these will be reached. The policies include the encouragement of public transport, cycling and walking, and the concentration of travel-intensive land uses in areas well-served by public transport. For each policy, a set of indicators has been devised to monitor implementation. During the production of the draft plan, an environmental appraisal exercise was carried out in order to check that all policies are environmentally sound.



Gateshead

Box 3.6

Out-of-Town Retailing

Regional shopping centre proposals, with potentially the greatest impact on existing centres, have been resisted in all but a handful of cases. Those that have proceeded have been on land with few environmental constraints such as derelict or disused sites. The Metrocentre in Gateshead is one example of such a development. It is a regional shopping centre developed on derelict land in an Enterprise Zone five km from the centres of Newcastle upon Tyne (population 264,100) and Gateshead (population 197,100). Although it has been extremely successful, there has been comparatively little loss of trade in the centre of Newcastle where the Eldon Square shopping centre has recently been refurbished. But trade has been lost in the smaller town centre of Gateshead.

Elsewhere, there are fears that shops in the city centre of Sheffield (population 523,800), for example, have lost business due to the nearby Meadowhall regional shopping centre on the site of a former steelworks. Many shops in Dudley (population 311,306) have closed following the opening of the Merry Hill regional centre.

- focusing opportunities for the development of travel-intensive uses (such as offices and shops) in urban areas already well-served by public transport, assisted by establishing 'accessibility profiles' in order to determine those sites which could best meet the aims of policy and goals of PPG13; and
- ensuring parking requirements in general are kept to the minimum, and adopting reduced parking standards for locations which have good access to other means of travel than the private car.

3.4.12 However, the overall growth of housing demand is such that large-scale greenfield development is inevitable over the next twenty years, notwithstanding the scope for using land in existing urban areas. Such developments will need to be carefully planned where they can be served by public transport and take account of other environmental constraints. Furthermore, to be effective, land use policies will need to be supported by pricing policies for managing demand for travel, such as the Government's commitment to increase the real level of fuel duty by an annual average of 5%. Inducing people to be less reliant on the motor car will be fully effective only if attractive public transport is available.



Metro Centre, Gateshead, Tyne and Wear
An out-of-town shopping centre.

- 3.4.13 At the more detailed level, the general thrust of PPG13 is seen as promoting the 'compact city', an approach favoured by the European Commission. The policy has many potential advantages. It means maximising the amount of new development in existing urban areas; avoiding sporadic development in the open countryside; and placing major generators of traffic at locations accessible by public transport. All of these should lead to reductions in the need to travel.
- 3.4.14 There are also contradictions. For example, higher densities may prevent greater urban greening; the costs of developing urban 'brownfield' sites may require subsidy to be viable for private developers; parking restrictions in town centres may clash directly with attempts to promote local businesses; limiting growth in more remote rural areas may undermine their economic viability. The task for land use planning will be to find ways of resolving these contradictions.
- 3.4.15 Despite these qualifications, PPG13 does provide a clear signal of the Government's intention to pursue the objective of sustainable settlements. Many of the policies are novel and controversial, and hence must be carefully monitored. Real effectiveness will depend on the degree to which they are reflected in development plans and development control decisions by local authorities. The Department of Environment has recently published a report on PPG13 - *A Guide to Better Practice*, setting out planning principles which local authorities should consider when developing their policies⁽⁵⁾.

3.5 Pointers for the Future

- 3.5.1 Planning for settlements in the United Kingdom during the past twenty years has, more than ever, sought a balance between meeting the demand for land for homes and jobs, and protecting the environment. The new factors have been the

growing importance of ideas about sustainable development, and the importance of the environment.

3.5.2 The principal pointers for future policy are:

- **population and employment in local areas should be balanced as far as possible**, in order to reduce the need for travel and ensure that major developments are sited in urban areas or at locations accessible by public transport;
 - **the need for a balance between local needs and strategic priorities** if the interests and aspirations of local people and communities for homes, jobs and protection of their environment
- are to be given due weight together with national and regional priorities for social and economic development;
- **achieving a more sustainable pattern of settlements requires an approach to development based on a plan-led system** of locally accountable development plans set within a framework of planning guidelines; and
 - **further research and monitoring is needed on policies and practices for achieving sustainable patterns of development**, particularly into the relationship between patterns of land use and development and their implications for movement and travel by different means.

References

- 1 Department of the Environment (1993), *Alternative Development Patterns: New Settlements*, London: HMSO
- 2 Department of the Environment (1993), *Environmental Appraisal of Development Plans: A Good Practice Guide*, London: HMSO
- 3 Department of the Environment (1993), *Planning Policy Guidance note 6 (revised): Town Centres and Retail Developments*, London: HMSO
- 4 Department of the Environment (1995), *Planning Policy Guidance note 13: Transport*, London: HMSO
- 5 Department of the Environment (1995), *PPG 13, A Guide to Better Practice: Reducing the need to travel through land use and transport planning*, London: HMSO

SUSTAINABLE TRANSPORT

4

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 A sustainable transport system should provide for the transport requirements of all members of society, commerce and industry in a way which protects the environment and secures the quality of life for future generations.

4.1.2 Growing concerns about the environmental effects of traffic and transport projects in terms of energy consumption, emissions, noise and vibration, safety, and the visual and severance effects have led to a vigorous debate about transport. This debate has at its heart the need to reconcile the protection of the environment with the promotion of economic growth and the maintenance of personal freedom. It also recognises the need to improve access and mobility for those without cars. Travel behaviour can be influenced by taxation and pricing policies and by providing information about the environmental effects of the choice of mode. Land use planning can help reduce the need to travel and provide the opportunity of using public transport.

4.1.3 Transport strategies can also provide a balanced provision for private and public transport to allow a choice of travel mode. Improvements to public transport, in terms of reliability, comfort and convenience, will attract more passengers, particularly if complemented by restraints on car usage and locational policies which ensure that new development can be served by public transport. Cycling and walking can be encouraged by developing safe routes linking homes with schools and other local facilities.



York, North Yorkshire

Cycling and walking are now being encouraged with improved facilities such as town centre cycle parking, cycleway and pedestrian area.



Reading, Berkshire

Public transport is responding to the access needs of all including those in wheelchairs.

4.2 Context and Trends

- 4.2.1 Between 1976 and 1992 nearly 1,000 kilometres of motorway and over 28,000 kilometres of new roads were built in the United Kingdom. The national motorway network, which has been taken into the heart of urban areas, together with other road links, has improved road access for goods and people in many regions and urban areas. Such a road network can be an important factor in the enhancement of productive capacity and attraction of new businesses.
- 4.2.2 It is now recognised that some new roads, rather than simply accommodating existing and forecast traffic, can encourage more journeys to be made⁽¹⁾. The road building programme has aroused protests at national and local levels, based on concerns about the emphasis on road transport, landscape and habitat loss, the pollution effects of more road vehicles and the resource implications. Official forecasts indicate that road traffic could double by 2025. Attention is now turning to reducing the need to travel by means of land use planning and making better use of existing road space⁽²⁾.

Increased Car Ownership and Use

- 4.2.3 There are some 21 million cars in the United Kingdom. The great majority of households now have the use of one car or more, the proportion having increased from 41% in 1965 to 68% in 1993. However, these statistics conceal considerable variations across the United Kingdom - between, at one extreme, the large conurbations where average ownership figures are relatively low and, at the other, prosperous rural areas where they are correspondingly high.
- 4.2.4 Increased car ownership has contributed significantly to the growth of road traffic, the total distance travelled by car having doubled between 1972 and 1993⁽³⁾. A principal cause of this growth is that average journey lengths have increased. In part, this reflects the dispersal of centres of employment and other trends such as the development of out-of-town shopping centres. While the car has benefited many through greater mobility, those who are reliant on public transport find it increasingly difficult to reach the same range of facilities.

Environmental Effects and Safety

- 4.2.5 Road traffic contributes to air pollution with both local and global effects. The possible contribution of vehicle emissions to the recent increase in

asthma and to other medical conditions is the subject of current research. Cars and goods vehicles are the most energy consuming form of land transport. They are also a source of noise and vibration which, together with emissions and considerations of safety, can severely affect the amenity of residential areas and town centres. The Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution⁽⁴⁾ has estimated that in 1994/95 the cost of road transport to the environment was in the range of £10 - 18 billion.

- 4.2.6 Although United Kingdom roads are the safest in Europe, road accidents still accounted for some 3,650 deaths in 1994. Cyclists are particularly vulnerable and child pedestrian accident rates are among the highest in Europe. Considerations of safety, traffic levels and speeds deter people from cycling and walking. Children are particularly affected: in 1970, 80% of eight and nine year old children travelled to school on their own but by 1990 this had fallen to 9%, with concerns about traffic influencing parents' decisions to accompany children⁽⁵⁾.

Public Transport

- 4.2.7 In terms of the distances travelled, between 1976 and 1994, the use of public transport fell by 14.3%, but the use of the car rose by 71.2%⁽³⁾. During this period, public transport, whether by bus, coach or rail, became relatively more expensive. Fare increases exceeded the level of inflation, whereas rises in the cost of motoring trailed behind inflation.
- 4.2.8 In the 1970s, public transport was provided mainly by companies in the public sector. From the mid-1980s, however, there has been a radical restructuring of bus transport with the aim of introducing competition and increasing cost effectiveness. In 1994, the railways were reorganised to pave the way for privatisation, a principal purpose of which is to stimulate investment in new and improved services.

Settlement Patterns

- 4.2.9 The previous chapter addressed the linkages between urban form and sustainable development⁽⁶⁾. In the context of transport, the particular settlement pattern will clearly affect the extent to which the private car is used and hence fuel consumption and emissions⁽⁷⁾. It will also affect the viability and patronage of public transport. The form that a settlement should take to meet sustainable development aims, at least for

Box 4.1**Actors involved in transport policy, provision and use**

The formulation and implementation of transport policy involves national and local government, transport operators and transport users.

Department of Transport

The central government department with responsibility for overall transport policy, assessing transport demand and funding.

Highways Agency (England)

An agency responsible for commissioning main national road construction and improvements.

Regional Offices of Government

Combine the Regional Offices of the Departments of Environment, Transport, Trade and Industry, Employment and Education, by bringing together the programmes of all four Ministries, particularly through the Single Regeneration Budget.

The Scottish Office, Welsh Office and the Northern Ireland Office co-ordinate strategy and policy between departments in these countries.

Highway Authorities

The upper tier and unitary local authorities are responsible for funding and works to roads other than main national routes. They may also undertake work on behalf of the Highways Agency and delegate some works to District Councils.

Passenger Transport Executives

Local organisations in the metropolitan areas responsible for the provision of local transport services, involving the co-operation of local authorities, users and transport providers.

Railtrack

British Rail is in the process of being privatised except in Northern Ireland and has been broken down into different elements. Railtrack owns the track, stations and signalling infrastructure.

Train Operating Companies including Rail Freight

Regional companies who will provide passenger services and promote competition.

Rail Regulator

The regulator has responsibility for passenger interests and the promotion of competition.

Franchising Director

The director is responsible for letting contracts to companies providing train services and setting levels of service and prices, including subsidies for services where appropriate.

Bus Operators

Apart from in London, deregulation of bus services enabled private bus companies to enter the market. Bus services are provided by private companies, with the exception of a few local authorities.

Rail Users Consultative Committee

Members are appointed by the Department of Transport and the rail regulator to represent the interests of rail users.

Transport Users Committees

Established by some local authorities to consider all transport services.

Road Haulage Association

Trade Association to promote the interests of road haulage.

Transport Campaigning Groups include:

- *Sustrans, a campaigning group which promotes cycling and designs and builds traffic free routes for cyclists, walkers and disabled people;*
- *Friends of the Earth, a campaigning organisation promoting public transport, cycling and walking; and*
- *Transport 2000, a campaigning organisation concerned with research and education on transport and its impact on society.*

transport, is a highly complex area. Relevant factors include density, scale and shape, as well as the degree of self containment in employment terms and how land uses are arranged within the built up area⁽⁸⁾. The Government's latest thinking on the planning principles that should be applied in development plan preparation and in the assessment of planning applications is set out in PPG13⁽²⁾ and the related publication on best practice.

- 4.2.10 What is clear is that past policy decisions in many public services and private companies have tended to increase the need to travel. For example, the closure of small rural schools means that children have to travel to the next village or town to attend school and are often taken by car. Hospitals have tended to rationalise their services onto one new site out of the central area which is hard to reach by public transport. Employment too, has moved out of central sites to new bypass and business park locations. These new dispersed developments have encouraged more travel and greater reliance upon the car and are at odds with sustainability objectives.

4.3 Viewpoints

- 4.3.12 Transport in recent years has become a topic of wide public interest not just in relation to environmental issues and health, but also in relation to accessibility, convenience and safety. Although there is official recognition of the need to restrain road traffic growth, many issues are still the subject of debate, including the following:

- the car is often a symbol of status and identity, and provides greater comfort and security than public transport for many journeys but it is also seen as an intruder in town centres and residential streets;
- the means to reduce congestion, either by building more roads and locating activities where there is less congestion, or alternatively by developing integrated transport strategies which provide for access with reduced dependence on the car;
- the conflicting evidence about the effects of privatisation and de-regulation of public transport: the indications are that passenger miles travelled have fallen by 25% whilst bus mileage has increased by 21%; equally, there is evidence of local improvements, with many new services and new routes being opened up; rail privatisation has provoked concern about fare and service levels, the lack of integration between

regional networks, safety and the adequacy of the investment that can be attracted;

- the need to take into account the full human and environmental costs of road transport in terms of accidents, pollution and congestion; and
- the level of subsidy to collective transport and how the subsidy can best increase use, whether to reduce fares, improve existing service infrastructure, or promote new services.

4.4 Policies and Objectives

4.4.1 The strategic aims of transport policy are to establish an efficient and competitive transport market to service the interests of the economy and community with maximum emphasis upon safety

Box 4.2

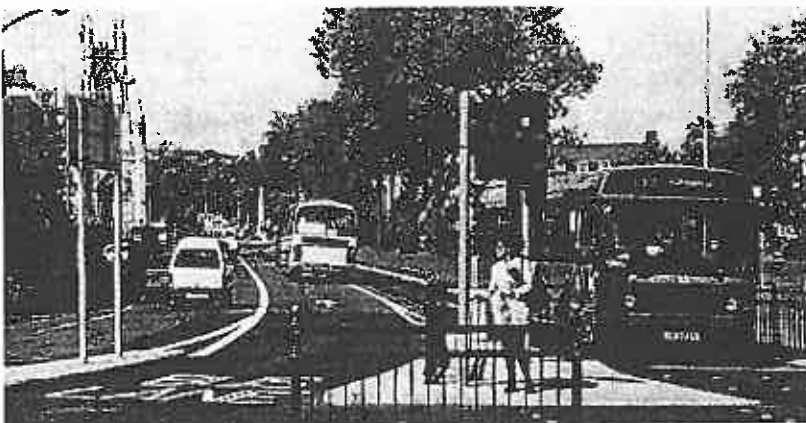
Brighton: the 'package approach' to transport policy

Brighton (population 143,000) is a popular resort and major commercial and conference centre on the south coast of England. It experiences severe traffic congestion and there is a lot of pedestrian movement. The planning strategy seeks to maintain the viability of the town centre whilst improving environmental conditions. The overall objective of the transport strategy is to increase the relative attractiveness of public transport, particularly for journeys to the town centre. It includes the following measures:

- bus priority schemes and travel information;
- complementary traffic management measures to reduce the accessibility of the town centre for cars;
- increased restrictions and charges for town centre car parking; and
- improved conditions for pedestrians and cyclists.



Brighton



Victoria Gardens, Brighton, West Sussex
Contra-flow bus lane with pedestrian and cycle provision.

and the environment. The Government is examining its transport priorities and fostering national debate, particularly about how the need to travel can be reduced.

4.4.2 A significant change in approach, from projecting travel demand and providing additional road space to accommodate it, is the acceptance that road space and the use of the private car cannot be expanded indefinitely. Demand needs to be managed. Coupled with this, the Government is seeking to influence behaviour through taxation and pricing policies and the provision of information about the environmental effects of travel choices. The importance of changing land use patterns in the long term is recognised as a key element and is discussed in Chapter 3. Six transport policies are significant, and are now being developed. They are:

- to promote choice in transport modes and destinations;
- to encourage the use of public transport;
- to encourage cycling and walking;
- to develop parking strategies;
- to control the growth of car mileage; and
- to secure adequate funding by involving the private sector.

To promote choice in transport modes and destinations

4.4.3 Emphasis is being placed upon policies which will manage demand. Under the recently introduced 'package approach'⁽⁹⁾, the government is encouraging local authorities to develop broad-based transport strategies to support their applications for government funding for transport projects. Such transport packages, which should relate to local development strategies and land use planning policies, may include a range of road, rail and collective transport options, as well as environmental, safety and parking measures. Box 4.2 sets out the principles of a package bid in relation to Brighton.

4.4.4 The development of an integrated transport and land use strategy can facilitate the provision of improved levels of accessibility and choice of energy-efficient modes of transport to a variety of destinations and activities. For any area, the mix of policies and actions is inevitably different. Box 4.3 shows how planning guidance can support

Box 4.3

West Midlands Regional Planning Guidance: promoting public transport usage

The West Midlands (population 5 million) covers nearly 13,000 square kilometres and includes 4 shire counties and 7 metropolitan districts. At the heart of the region are the Birmingham, Black Country and Coventry conurbations, surrounded by a green belt and smaller towns. The area is still an important manufacturing centre but economic restructuring has left a legacy of high levels of dereliction, with some parts experiencing considerable deprivation. Birmingham is a major commercial centre and some parts of the region have seen high levels of growth.

The Regional Planning Guidance includes the following objectives:

- development and transport policies should be co-ordinated;
- development should be concentrated in existing conurbations and larger settlements, re-using vacant and derelict sites in order to achieve a good match between workforce and the number and range of jobs;
- development should be located in places highly accessible by public transport;
- the siting of development in transport corridors with spare transport capacity or where public transport could be strengthened to provide a choice of transport;
- the identification of corridors which meet detailed criteria for sustainable development; and
- encouragement is to be given to areas to the north and west of the conurbation to reduce dereliction and create employment opportunities.

To encourage cycling and walking

4.4.7 Walking and cycling have the potential to provide for some of the 25% of car trips which are under two miles. They also give the opportunity for daily exercise to improve fitness and reduce the risk of heart disease. Cycling and pedestrian routes need to be planned into new developments and to form part of an overall movement strategy in existing areas. However, under present traffic conditions, cycling and walking may not always be convenient, safe or pleasant means of travel⁽¹⁰⁾. Traffic management aims to make the best use of existing roads and reflect the priority to be given to different road users, particularly cyclists and pedestrians. The Department of the Environment Design Bulletin 32⁽¹¹⁾ sets out the approach to the design of roads and footpaths and encourages local authorities to adopt a hierarchical road structure of primary, district and local roads. The aims of the approach are to:

- help traffic use main roads safely;
- discourage through-traffic on local roads; and
- create safe conditions for all road users especially young pedestrians.



West Midlands

increased public transport usage. Box 4.4 shows how land use planning and public transport strategies can be combined to provide choice in a conurbation.

To encourage the use of public transport

4.4.5 Within existing settlements people can be encouraged to travel by public transport if its reliability, convenience and speed are improved and it is realistically priced. This can be achieved through bus, rail, tram or metro systems, to serve a town, small city, or city region. Improvements to the bus system can be achieved within the existing street pattern without the construction of extensive infrastructure. Guided buses and dedicated lanes can improve bus speeds and reliability. To be fully effective, such measures will need to form part of an overall approach, which includes traffic management and parking controls.

4.4.6 London Transport have calculated that the annual value of the passenger benefits from a £3.5 million scheme to give buses automatic priority through traffic lights equal the capital costs. Provision for possible future guided-bus operations is now being designed into the streets of central Leeds (see Box 4.5).



Tyne and Wear

Box 4.4

Tyne & Wear Metro: towards an integrated transport system

Tyne and Wear comprises five local authorities (population 1.1 million) distributed between several urban centres. In the 1970s, the land use transport strategy for Tyneside identified the need for a balanced programme of investment in both roads and public transport to support land use and regeneration strategies. The Metro has provided the backbone of an integrated transport system:

- an existing rail-line was extended into Newcastle and Gateshead town centres and to the international airport, with a proposed extension to Sunderland to support regeneration initiatives;
- new sections followed the proposed route of an urban motorway (not constructed);
- the metro is integrated with buses and park and ride facilities, and has made journeys quicker, easier and more convenient, increasing usage and satisfaction;
- the metro provides for work, social and leisure trips and serves the needs of children, unemployed, elderly and disabled people, and
- the metro has released existing road space to accommodate traffic growth, and congestion on town centre roads has decreased.

Box 4.5

Leeds Guided Bus System

The Leeds system has been developed to help buses avoid congested main routes. The city council and adjoining local authorities in conjunction with local bus companies have worked together to provide a low cost solution. The first 500 metre stretch of guided lane is now in use and is to be extended. The system is part of a package of measures including more comfortable buses; new central bus station, and better information for passengers. The key features are:

- special bus-only guideways and other priority measures on congested routes

- to and from the city centre,
- the system uses existing roads where congestion is not a problem,
- the network penetrates residential areas and the city centre;
- guideways provide a smoother ride and ensure that other vehicles cannot use them.
- guideways in the central reservation will be raised and ramps provided, giving easier access for elderly and disabled people,
- signal controlled crossings at bus stops; and
- guideways incorporated into existing roadways, reducing the need to cut down trees.



Horsham, West Sussex

Traffic calming creates safer conditions for pedestrians and cyclists.

4.4.10 In other areas, where off-road networks are not easily created, they are being provided as a mixture of off-road sections (through parks, along canal towpaths, etc.), by reserving lanes for cyclists on main roads; by signposting back-street routes; and by special provision for cyclists at junctions. One city which is actively developing a cycle strategy, building on already high levels of use, is York, (Box 4.6). Cycling can also be encouraged by making bike parking easier and more secure, especially in shopping centres and workplaces, and at railway stations. Sustrans have promoted and achieved funding for a national cycleway network and they are now encouraging local cycling and walking campaigns to link the proposed network to existing and proposed local routes.

4.4.11 People will be more likely to choose to walk - instead of making a short car trip - if the destination is conveniently located, and if the journey is pleasant, attractive and safe. The location of employment, shops and leisure activities can be influenced by planning policies and controls. Mixed use areas and local provision of facilities can encourage walking. It will inevitably be a long-term strategy to reverse the twenty year decline in walking.



Bristol, Avon

Cycleway and pedestrian route.



Leeds

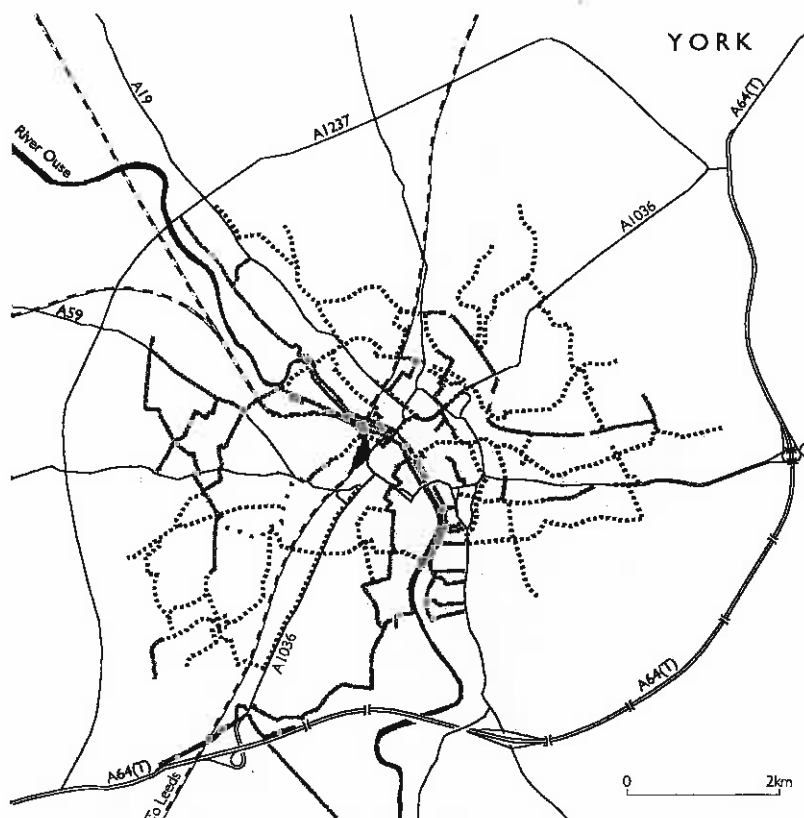


Leeds, West Yorkshire

Guided buses beat traffic congestion.

4.4.8 Traffic calming can include a wide range of physical measures such as road narrowing, the creation of pinch points and cycle and bus lanes and distinguishing village streets from the open road, to resolve the conflicts between different road users and improve safety and environmental conditions. Legal measures such as 20 mph speed zones (32 kph) are used to complement physical modifications. Significant wider benefits from calming will depend upon an overall reduction in traffic.

4.4.9 The United Kingdom is not generally characterised by high levels of cycle use. Yet places such as York (20% of work journeys by bicycle), Oxford and Cambridge show that this is by no means inevitable. This is confirmed by experience in some other European countries, notably The Netherlands (27% of all journeys) and Denmark (18%). New towns like Stevenage and Milton Keynes incorporate a comprehensive system of vehicle free cycle routes.



..... Proposed Cycle Routes
 — Existing Cycle Routes

York, North Yorkshire

A comprehensive network of safe cycle routes is being created.

Box 4.6

York's Cycleways and Pedestrian Areas

A cycling and pedestrian strategy, with measures to improve safety and environmental conditions, has been developed to promote alternatives to car use as part of the overall transport policy for York, a cathedral city with a population of 100,000. The cycle routes are well used and cycling accidents have been reduced by nearly a third. The key aspects of the cycling strategy are:

- 80 kilometres of safe cycle routes of which half now exist;
- the network includes routes through open spaces, riverside paths, and disused railway lines, contraflow cycle lanes and shared footpaths;
- special lanes and crossings at busy road junctions;
- cycle parking in the central area (900 spaces), suburban shopping areas, work places and leisure facilities; and
- bike and ride facilities with cycle parking (44 spaces) linked to fast and frequent bus services to the city centre.

The underlying purpose of the creation of footstreets is to improve

environmental conditions and give priority to the pedestrian, whilst recognising the needs of access for services and deliveries and people living in the area. The pedestrian zone comprises:

- 30 streets in the central area;
- streets closed to traffic at times of busy pedestrian flows, now being extended into the early evening and on Sundays;
- dropped curbs, audible beepers and tactile paving installed at crossing points to help people in wheelchairs, pram and buggy pushers, the elderly and disabled; and
- high levels of maintenance and the provision of high quality signposts, lighting, seats and wastebins to create a distinctive identity and a people-friendly environment.

Pedestrian attitude surveys show that the streets are popular with users. More people use the footstreets and rent levels are higher compared to streets which still carry traffic. A pedestrian network to link the city centre with residential areas, local shops, leisure facilities and the open countryside is now proposed in co-operation with adjoining local authorities.

4.4.12 Improving the environment for the pedestrian can be more quickly implemented. Pedestrianisation of many town centres has proved a stimulus to commercial activity, while the development of streets dedicated to use by pedestrians is extending in many towns and cities. In residential areas, streets are being redesigned with traffic-calming schemes to make them safer for pedestrians. Again, York (Box 4.6) provides an interesting example, with its 'City for the Pedestrian' initiative. The 30 footstreets in the city form one of Britain's largest pedestrian zones.

To develop parking strategies

4.4.13 Parking strategies can be used to shift the balance of choice from the car to public transport. London has steadily tightened on-street parking controls, removing spaces in central area streets, extending the hours of control, and increasing charges. Other towns and cities are making better use of their parking capacity by reducing long term commuter parking and increasing the number of spaces available for short term visitors to the town centre,



York, North Yorkshire
 One of the many footstreets.



York

by a mixture of management and pricing policies. It is recognised that adequate car parking is required if town centres are to compete with out of centre developments, and there is concern that too tight a restriction will merely deflect car shoppers or visitors to another destination without such restrictions, rather than bring about a switch to train or bus.

To control the growth of car mileage

4.4.14 Changes to our lifestyles are required before there can be any significant reduction in the trips people make. There is scope to influence transport choices by raising public awareness of the transport options available and the environmental implications of different choices. Hampshire's HEADSTART and Hertfordshire's TRAVELWISE are examples of this approach.

4.4.15 Choices will also be influenced by pricing mechanisms. Fuel taxes are being steadily raised by 5% per annum at national level. Road pricing has been considered. A research study has concluded that although congestion charging is not an option for the immediate future, in the longer term it could be an effective way of reducing congestion and the environmental effects of traffic. Improvements to the necessary technology in terms of reliability and accuracy are required. Also, administrative and enforcement issues need to be addressed, before it can be reliably introduced.

To secure adequate funding by involving the private sector in the provision of transport

4.4.16 In line with the increased control of public expenditure since the late 1970s, private money has been sought to fund new and improved infrastructure and services. The deregulation and privatisation of bus services undertaken in the 1980s is now being complemented by the privatisation of British Rail. Contributions to new transport infrastructure by the private sector already include the Queen Elizabeth II bridge over the Thames and the Heathrow Express rail link. The concept of design, build, finance and operate is being promoted in the case of lightrail extensions in London - the Croydon Tramlink and Docklands Light Rail Extension at Lewisham - as a different approach to involving the private sector.

4.5 Pointers for the Future

4.4.1 In working towards a sustainable transport system, the following considerations should be taken into account:

- **behaviour can be influenced** by providing information about the environmental effects of different transport choices, the promotion of sustainable transport patterns by company transport plans, transport awareness campaigns, and by making the cost of transport choices more 'transparent' to the individual through pricing policies;
- **transport system efficiency** must continue to be improved, providing more capacity in a sustainable way, by improving public transport performance (speed, reliability, integration of the different modes), as well as improving its attractiveness (quality, comfort, cost), compared to the private car;
- **closer integration of transport and land-use** is needed to bring about less land-extensive development patterns, to support modes which use less energy and cause less environmental damage, and to guide public and private investment decisions;
- **service frameworks for transport providers** will be required if private sector provision is to take into account wider environmental and social objectives; and
- **pricing of transport** should take into account the full environmental costs of resource use, pollution, health and accident costs and any adverse effects upon amenity.

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LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

5



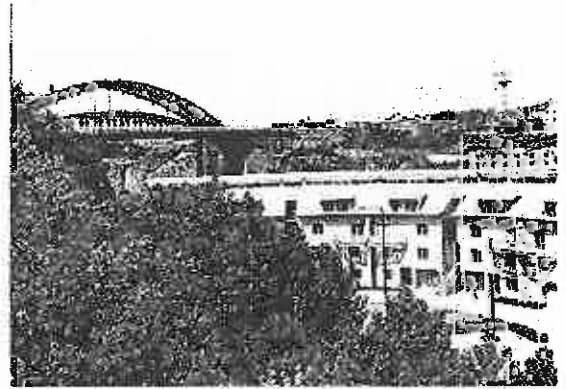
Newcastle upon Tyne, Tyne and Wear
A firework display celebrated the illumination of the Tyne Bridge.

5.1 Introduction

- 5.1.1 The 1976 United Kingdom Habitat report saw the provision of economic opportunity as a fundamental part of creating and distributing wealth and improving the quality of people's lives. But the structural changes in the United Kingdom economy over the last two decades have not always produced outcomes in line with those broad objectives. Changes in the global economy and macro-economic policies resulted in opportunities for economic development. This general trend, however, saw great variation at the level of individual regions and settlements. Concentrations of unemployment in some areas contrasted with labour shortages elsewhere. Areas of industrial dereliction in some cities exist alongside intense pressures for commercial property development in others.
- 5.1.2 The Government sought to influence the location of economic activity before 1976 chiefly through regional policy. Later policy changed as the negative effects of economic structural trends were experienced at a more local level, in particular in the inner areas of major industrial cities. Greater emphasis was given to regenerating local economies through an 'urban policy', whose concerns extended into other areas, in particular, housing.
- 5.1.3 Starting with the aim of providing enough land for employment-generating development, the range of local economic development programmes rapidly widened. They expanded into a variety of activities including advance factory building; managed workspaces; information and advice; marketing and promotion; environmental improvements; financial incentives through grants and loans; and training programmes. Local authorities became more involved in promoting and encouraging economic development, which became closely linked with policies for land use planning, housing, transport and environmental improvements.
- 5.1.4 The period since 1976 thus was characterised by a bundle of different types of initiative, but the overarching objective throughout remained the encouragement of local economic development. The aim in the 1980s was to facilitate market-led local economic development by creating the conditions under which private sector investment would be attracted and job opportunities created. Later, policies became more broadly based, balancing economic priorities with social and environmental interests in pursuit of sustainable development. Ideas about the best means of achieving the objective evolved in a continuous learning process, based on monitoring and research, as more experience was gained about different institutional arrangements.

5.2 Context and Trends

5.2.1 Structural changes in the global economy since the 1970s caused some specific localities to experience decline, others, economic growth. This local polarisation of economic decline and expansion, and its political consequences, led to a progressive shift in the 1980s and 1990s to local economic development. This included government programmes, action by local authorities and



Sunderland, Tyne and Wear

Student accommodation increasing the mix of uses in the regenerated riverside.

Box 5.1

Actors involved in local economic development

Government bodies

English Partnerships

- formed in 1993 to promote the development of vacant, derelict and contaminated land, taking over the work of the former English Estates which owned and managed industrial and commercial properties and estates

Scottish Enterprise

- set up in 1991, through the merger of the Scottish Development Agency and the Training Agency, to promote economic development, environmental improvement, and skills and management training. Most of its activities are delivered through local enterprise companies.

Welsh Development Agency

- set up in 1976 to undertake land development projects, including the clearance and improvement of derelict land.

Land Authority for Wales

- set up in 1974 to acquire, service and dispose of land for development.

Industrial Development Board and the Local Economic Development Unit

- set up by the Northern Ireland Office in 1971 to promote and support job opportunities in large and small firms.

Urban Development Corporations

- boards appointed by Government for a 10-year period for the regeneration of designated urban renewal areas.

Local authority organisations or interests

City Challenge Companies

- partnerships formed between local authorities, local businesses and community organisations to administer City Challenge projects.

Local Enterprise Boards

- companies formed by some local authorities to promote local economic development in their areas.

Private sector organisations supported by Government

Training and Enterprise Councils

- formed by local business leaders in various parts of England and Wales, with Government funding, to promote and organise training and vocational education in selected areas.

Local Enterprise Companies

- led by local business people, to deliver enterprise, environmental and training programmes in Scotland.

Business in the Community

- a voluntary organisation set up in 1982 to persuade business leaders to assist in the regeneration of their communities.

Local Enterprise Agencies

- organisations set up (under various names) to promote community involvement by companies, with funding from a variety of public and private sources.

Community-based organisations

Development Trusts

- organisations set up by local

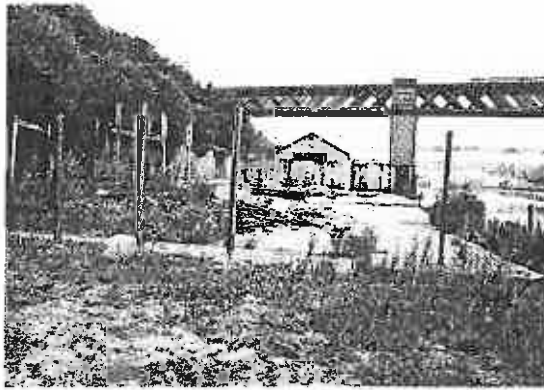
communities and increasingly, partnerships involving all stakeholders⁽¹⁾.

5.2.2 The most significant structural trend was the rapid decline of employment in traditional manufacturing, mining, and port-related industries, especially in the early 1980s. The distinctive feature was its uneven geographical distribution, concentrated in the older cities in the north of England, and later in the West Midlands, some areas of London, and in parts of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The decline took various forms, for example:

- the closure of a single, dominant factory in a town or city, such as a steel works or car factory;
- the more widespread collapse of an industry over a region, such as coal mining in south Wales;
- changes in shipping technology and the consequent closure of older docks, such as the London docks; and
- the closure of branch plant factories during economic recession.

5.2.3 Set against these job losses was the growth in employment in service industries, especially financial and business services, and in the newer, high technology industries. This too was unevenly distributed, being concentrated largely in southern and eastern England. Other areas, notably parts of Scotland and south Wales, also benefited. Examples included:

- the growth in financial and business services in London, especially following deregulation of financial services and the attraction of banks and other international companies from overseas;



Elswick Riverside, Newcastle upon Tyne,
Tyne and Wear

Before environmental improvement work ...



... and after completion.

- the spill-over effects of office growth, as property prices rose in London, to smaller towns beyond the London green belt;
- the growth of new major centres in some of the main provincial cities, such as Manchester, Leeds and Edinburgh;
- the attraction of a single major new industrial investment from overseas, such as a Japanese car factory; and
- the more widespread investment in smaller high-technology factories, offices, and other service industries in many smaller towns and villages, especially in southern and eastern England.

5.2.4 One consequence of this uneven pattern of growth and decline was that in many of the larger cities, there were concentrations of high unemployment, especially among unskilled and young people, and people from ethnic minorities. These were found in the inner areas of the cities, often limited to poor quality housing; or in the large, municipal housing estates on the outskirts of cities like Liverpool or Glasgow. Some of these areas became the scenes of poverty, deprivation and a decaying environment, with a growing fear of crime.

5.2.5 The economic, social and physical problems of the cities, tellingly expressed through the urban riots of the early and mid-1980s, raised the political profile of these areas. Urban policy developed a sharp focus on particular localities rather than wider regions. It also had wider concerns, covering social issues such as crime, poverty, and housing (Chapters 6 and 8). However, the urban policy itself became dominated in financial terms by its economic development component from the mid-1980s.

5.2.6 In England, the aim of policy was seen as creating the conditions under which private investment would be attracted to these areas. The two watchwords became 'targeting' on closely-defined areas most seriously affected by high unemployment, vacant land, disinvestment, and social deprivation; and 'leverage', in which government investment in land assembly, reclamation and servicing, and in the award of grants, would be used to attract private investment, much of it in property development.

5.2.7 The range of organisations which have been created reflects local circumstances as well as government structures in different parts of the country. Box 5.1 identifies some of the principal bodies.

5.3 Viewpoints

5.3.1 Underpinning the increased focus on economic issues has been concern about the appropriateness of public intervention in local economic development, whether by central or local government, and the mechanisms and distributional objectives that such intervention might utilise. Major issues around which debate - by politicians, economists, business interests and local residents - has centred have included:

- the relevance of local economic development in the face of global economic forces and national macro-economic policies, and its capacity for seriously affecting local levels of employment or prosperity;
- the value of area-based initiatives targeted on relatively small areas of a town or rural area, including the extent to which they may result in a redistribution of economic activity rather than a net increase in the overall, regional level;

- the priority given to property-led economic development and the extent to which it benefits all of the people living in an area, including for example the long-term unemployed, women, or ethnic minorities;
- the degree to which policies for local economic development are closely co-ordinated with other policies and programmes for urban and rural regeneration, including those affecting housing, transport and the environment; and
- the real costs and benefits of the policies for local economic development and urban regeneration.

5.3.2 Such issues have been the subject of several major inquiries, and of reports in Parliament. But the political imperatives have been such that the programmes have continued, albeit with many changes in the institutional structures and instruments. However difficult local action may be in the face of differences about its objectives and effectiveness and in the face of global trends, it can scarcely be neglected.

5.4 Policies and Objectives

5.4.1 Whichever of the various actors and interests is responsible for initiating programmes for local economic development, their objectives fall into three broad categories:

- to enhance the job prospects of local people;
- to improve the image of an area and market its attractions; and
- to attract inward investment from the private sector, and financial support from other sources, including government programmes and European funding.

5.4.2 Since the mid-1970s both Government-led initiatives such as the urban development corporations, and locally-generated initiatives such as development trusts have been deployed. There is considerable similarity between them, the common features being that they are local in their impact, and that virtually all have multiple objectives. A short list of typical activities might include the following:

- clearing derelict sites and buildings, and preparing land for marketing and development;
- improving the transport infrastructure and environment of an area;

- supporting small enterprises by providing managed workshops and business advice centres;
- providing financial incentives through grants and loans, or various forms of tax relief;
- setting up training programmes for local people to raise their skills and increase the opportunities for recruitment into the labour market; and
- developing, promoting and marketing the assets of an area to attract inward investment, or tourists, depending on the locality.

In many cases the objectives of the initiatives extend beyond local economic development into matters of housing, social issues, health, education, crime and safety and community development.

5.4.3 The number and variety of initiatives since 1976 has been great. In effect it has been a progressive learning process in community groups, board rooms, and government departments. The new Single Regeneration Budget, established in England in 1994, is the latest in the long sequence of Government-led initiatives. It builds on earlier experience in stimulating local economic development under circumstances where the normal operation of market forces and planning control are insufficient. Three of these earlier experiences were the enterprise zones, urban development corporations and city challenge. Developments in training were also significant.

Enterprise Zones

5.4.4 One of the first government-led initiatives was for enterprise zones. Eleven such zones were designated throughout the United Kingdom, including one in Clydebank, near Glasgow (Box 5.2). A further fourteen were designated in 1983/84. Since then there have only been a few new designations, in exceptional cases. The zones were areas of predominantly derelict or neglected land, many in inner city areas, but also in older industrial areas. Their aim was to bring the land back into productive use with three main kinds of incentives: exemption for the specified period of ten years from local property taxes; 100% tax allowances on capital investment; and a simplified planning regime. Before designating the zones, the Government invited named local authorities to prepare a planning scheme, after public consultation. The scheme, once adopted, granted planning permission for development, the only exceptions being for noxious industries and, in some but not all zones, for other uses such as major retail developments.

Box 5.2

Clydebank Enterprise Zone: Achievements

Clydebank, near Glasgow, was dominated in the 1970s by manufacturing industries and consequently suffered high unemployment followed by physical decay in the recession of the late 1970s. The Enterprise Zone (area 93 ha) was one of the first, experimental schemes to be set up, in 1981, to encourage industrial and commercial activity and to provide employment opportunities. The designation of the zone had a marked impact on the attractiveness of the area. Environmental improvements and the industrial estate development did much to raise morale in the area and 285 companies were attracted to the area by mid-1985, with the creation of some 3,000 jobs. The economy was diversified through the attraction of

service and office employment and through increasing private sector investment.

However, the Clydebank Enterprise Zone has not been without its problems. It suffered from a lack of training schemes for local inhabitants which caused a mis-match between the skills base of the area and the types of employment available. Local unemployment continued to run at a high rate despite the extra jobs that had been created. The cost to the public of land acquisition and infrastructure investment and in taxes forgone was also quite considerable, as was the case in some other enterprise zones. Notwithstanding these setbacks the Clydebank Enterprise Zone has been hailed as one of the most successful schemes from the first round of enterprise zones.

Urban Development Corporations

- 5.4.6 Since 1980, twelve urban development corporations have been established in England, and one in Wales. They were each appointed by Government for a fixed term of about ten years with a clear objective. They were to act as the catalyst, through land assembly, reclamation and servicing, for development by the private sector, to regenerate the local economy.
- 5.4.7 The corporations were modelled on the new town development corporations. These had been successful in the 1950s and 1960s in building new towns designed to receive population from the major conurbations. Boards of Directors for urban development corporations were drawn largely from the private sector. They were financed by the Government, had extensive powers of land acquisition, and held statutory planning powers for development control.
- 5.4.8 The first two corporations, London Docklands Development Corporation (LDDC) and Merseyside Development Corporation, were established in 1981. The LDDC in particular proved at first to be a source of conflict. Its designation was quickly followed by the property boom in London and South East England in the mid-1980s. It became the scene of an explosive growth in commercial office development and private sector housing, reinforced by designation of part of its area as an enterprise zone. Conflict stemmed from concern, articulated by local authorities and individuals, that the LDDC was creating jobs which did not match the skills of local communities experiencing high levels of unemployment.



Clydebank



Clydebank, Glasgow, Scotland
Enterprise Zone in abandoned industrial area.

- 5.4.5 The enterprise zones were closely monitored. They were largely successful in attracting investment, but much of the new development was a transfer of activity from neighbouring areas. The benefits were gained at a relatively high cost in terms of taxes foregone and public expenditure on land reclamation and infrastructure. The relaxation of planning control was not a major factor in the success of the zones.



i) Tyne and Wear Development Corporation,
Newcastle upon Tyne
New housing and marina.

Box 5.3

Putting Development Corporation lessons into practice: Tyne and Wear Development Corporation

The Tyne and Wear Development Corporation (TWDC) was set up in 1987 with the task of physical renewal and economic and social regeneration of 2,400 ha of land alongside over 40 km of urban riverbank in the North East of England. Diversity was a key part of the strategy for the area and central to this was the development of partnerships with both the public and private sectors. There has been strong emphasis on a rounded approach to the regeneration of the area which has meant that offices, shops, factories, homes for sale and rent, and leisure and education facilities have been developed alongside new and improved transport and infrastructure

systems, with the aim of whole community development.

TWDC has viewed its partnerships and community approach as vital to the success of the scheme and has forged strong links with private sector developers, The Housing Corporation, Training and Enterprise Councils, local authorities and, very importantly, with local residents.

Independent Community Monitoring Panels have been established around the largest development sites, through which local people liaise with the Corporation and developers on a monthly basis and are thus able to influence the plans and priorities for each site. The success of the TWDC can also be measured by the 700,000 m² of industrial and commercial floorspace created in its area since the Corporation's foundation, which has virtually all been let.

5.4.9 The later urban development corporations, established between 1987 and 1993, had the same objectives and structure. But they covered smaller areas, and benefited from the experience of the first two. Thus the majority co-operated more closely with the local authorities and local communities. It is too soon to come to a final view on the effectiveness of the urban development corporations. They are only now being wound up, as their fixed terms expire. They have resulted in a considerable amount of new development and environmental improvements, but land reclamation and infrastructure improvements have been costly. Box 5.3 illustrates the case of the Tyne-Wear Corporation, in North East England.

City Challenge

5.4.10 City Challenge, introduced in 1991, was a crucial policy development, benefiting from earlier experience with the Urban Development Corporations, the Scottish Partnerships and other initiatives. It was designed as a five-year programme for co-ordinating and integrating projects for the regeneration of small, sharply-targeted areas. Although its main emphasis, like the earlier schemes, was on land and property, it was to be linked to the local community. It was to be a partnership between all of the interests involved in an area, adopting a comprehensive approach to area-based regeneration, using government grants to attract private investment and other private and community resources.

5.4.11 Local authorities were invited to make competitive bids for resources. The first round in 1991 was restricted to fifteen local authorities, of which eleven were successful. The second round in 1992 was widened to include all 57 local authorities within the Government's Urban Programme, of which twenty were selected. The example of the Liverpool City Challenge, in Box 5.4, shows that there has been real progress. The lessons gained in the City Challenges were used in setting up the Single Regeneration Budget.

Training

5.4.12 A common feature in the regeneration of local economies has been to address the skill levels, training and recruitment of the workforce living in their areas. This approach has been especially important where young people or ethnic minorities are having real difficulty in finding long-term employment. A number of government training schemes and workshops were set up in the 1970s and early 1980s, including the Youth Opportunities



Tyne and Wear



ii) Tyne and Wear Development Corporation, Newcastle upon Tyne

Physical renewal and social and economic regeneration of an area.



iii) Tyne and Wear Development Corporation, Newcastle upon Tyne

A Wet and Wild Waterpark.

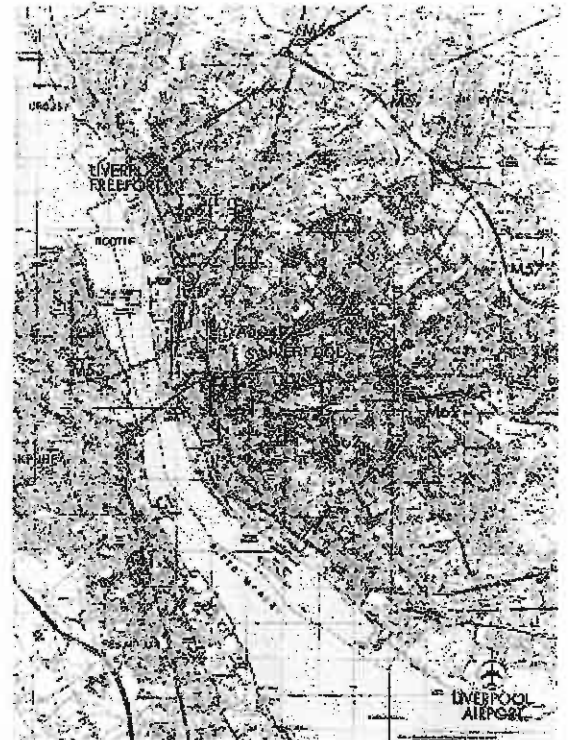
Box 5.4

Liverpool City Challenge:
Partnership in Economic
Regeneration

The primary role of this five-year initiative was to create a new physical and economic environment in a tightly-defined area of 140 ha in inner Liverpool, City Centre East, which would become self-sustaining when the City Challenge ceases in 1997. The area was chosen partly because it had particular economic and environmental problems and partly because of its importance to the Merseyside community. The aim is that both the local community and businesses benefit from the regeneration programme. Public funding is used to unlock extra community resources and private sector finance and to allocate them in line with long and short-term action plans to regenerate the area. Its results include:

- improvements to the appearance of the area and a higher profile, which have encouraged more people to live in the city centre,

- mixed-use development is proving attractive to private sector funders, bringing more economic vitality and security to the inner city,
- grants to the private sector have generated small private sector schemes across a broad spectrum of uses, including retail, residential, industrial and research development,
- new training opportunities and employment, the creation of better housing and improvement of the physical environment are boosting community confidence and improving the quality of life for the people who live and work there,
- neighbourhood and voluntary organisations have been supported to help them address local economic problems,
- community-based organisations act as employment outreach points to improve local residents' access to emerging job opportunities, and
- neighbourhoods are beginning to reap the benefits of their involvement in the regeneration programme after three years in the Scheme.



Liverpool, Merseyside

The City Challenge area is in the heart of the city.

Grants, designed to lever private investment into otherwise unprofitable areas.



Liverpool

Schemes and work-based Community Programmes. Since 1990, these programmes have been co-ordinated in England and Wales by local Training and Enterprise Councils, or TECs (Box 5.5). These were formed by local business leaders with knowledge of local labour markets, in co-operation with local authorities and trade unions. The TECs are based on three principles, that youth and employment training should be privatised, localised and decentralised.

Grants, Co-ordination and the Single
Regeneration Budget

5.4.13 A common feature of many of the initiatives has been a wide and ever-changing variety of government grants to stimulate local economic regeneration. In many cases, these were linked to other social and environmental objectives. The grants have been made to developers and landowners, and to community and voluntary organisations. Grant regimes have ranged from the long-established Urban Programme, with a list of economic, social and community objectives, to the more specific Derelict Land Grants, or Urban Development Grants and the subsequent City

5.4.14 These different regimes had a number of limitations. They were administered by different government departments, either directly, or through local authorities. The rules and procedures were complex and changing. A further concern has been that they were often for a limited period, usually three years, which was too short to leave a lasting benefit. Above all they have been uncoordinated.

5.4.15 Liverpool had been the scene of a proliferation of overlapping, even conflicting programmes throughout the 1970s, initiated by several government departments. A Merseyside Task Force was therefore set up, precipitated by riots in Liverpool in 1981. The function of the Task Force was to co-ordinate the different programmes, with an emphasis on economic development. Later, sixteen smaller Task Forces were set up for local areas in other cities, with an intended life of two years, and a small budget for supporting innovative ideas. Their membership included local business representatives as well as representatives of government departments.

5.4.16 All these different approaches were rationalised in 1994 when the Single Regeneration Budget was set up by the Government in order to simplify and co-ordinate support for regeneration, economic

Box 5.5

The Work of a Training and Enterprise Council: Manchester TEC

The City of Manchester is ranked as the thirteenth most deprived local authority in England and has the third highest rate of unemployment. The Manchester TEC area, which covers four contiguous urban boroughs - Manchester, Salford, Tameside and Trafford (population 1,054,000) - has an exceptionally large and diverse ethnic population, with 7% of residents from ethnic minority groups, and a consistently higher rate of unemployment than either the regional or national levels. The business structure of the area is not typical of the United Kingdom, since it has a higher proportion of medium and large firms and an under-developed small firms economy. While the economy has strengths in financial services, arts and cultural industries, transport,

distribution and construction it also has a heavy dependence on industries experiencing major restructuring and employment decline.

The fundamental challenge for the TEC is to provide a local service to organise and promote training, business activity and vocational education and to maximise opportunities for all sections of the community. The TEC addresses the problems by working with others to improve the performance standards of school leavers, to create a more diverse world-class skills base within the area, and to provide lifetime training opportunities for the whole workforce, especially those disadvantaged by extreme deprivation. With Manchester's emergence as a European Regional Centre, and with the potential of the growing service industry, the TEC has a strategic role to play in the future economic development of the region.



Castlemilk, Scotland
Office skills training to enhance local skills.

21 or European funding, as well as arrangements for monitoring progress in achieving the programme's specified targets. The result in the first year, announced in December 1994, was a wide range of winning bids, covering all of England and every kind of initiative. In many cases social or environmental elements in a bid were seen as supporting economic development in a comprehensive approach to an area's problems.

5.4.19 The rest of the Single Regeneration Budget, other than the Challenge Fund, is reserved for three types of public body, English Partnerships, the urban development corporations, and the housing action trusts.



Manchester

development and industrial competitiveness in England. The Single Regeneration Budget is administered by a Ministerial Committee, and a new structure of ten Integrated Regional Offices was formed, bringing into one place the regional offices of the key government departments, Trade and Industry, Employment (now Education and Employment), Environment, and Transport. Staff are also allocated to each regional office from the Home Office.

5.4.17 The Single Regeneration Budget brings together into one package twenty separate programmes and grants previously administered by five different government departments. Part of it is allocated to a Challenge Fund which is intended to be a catalyst for sustainable local regeneration, targeted to a small or large area, or particular population group. It supports local proposals for regeneration that add value to existing initiatives and strategies, and reinforce or enhance other private investment and public spending.

5.4.18 Annual bids for funds for a period of up to seven years are made by involved members of the business, voluntary, education and other sectors, usually under the leadership of a local authority or TEC. The bid must contain details of its strategic objectives, including its relationship with complementary programmes such as Local Agenda

Scotland

5.4.20 The wide range of functions and powers of the Scottish Office encouraged an integrated approach to development issues in Scotland earlier than in other parts of the United Kingdom⁽²⁾. In 1975, in the face of heavy job losses in the older manufacturing industries in lowland Scotland, the Scottish Development Agency was set up with wide financial and land acquisition powers to promote economic development.

5.4.21 One of the first major urban regeneration projects was the Glasgow Eastern Area Renewal project. It covered a very large part of the city where there were all the problems of high unemployment, poor housing, a bad environment, and a failing economy. The Scottish Development Agency took the lead in a partnership with the local, regional and city councils and other government agencies in regenerating the area. Many lessons were learned, the environment was improved, and a greater mix of housing tenures achieved, but the economic impact was less successful.

5.4.22 A second approach was developed in response to the significant problems for local communities caused by major industrial closures. This involved the creation of industrial task forces charged with adopting an integrated approach to regeneration within a limited time-frame. One such task force was appointed for Clydebank, which had been affected by major industrial closures. It was also designated an Enterprise Zone (Box 5.2). A third approach was for a co-ordinated programme to tackle areas suffering from urban decay and deprivation through project agreements involving the different agencies.

5.4.23 There was a major new departure in 1991 when the Scottish Development Agency was merged with the Training Agency in Scotland to create Scottish Enterprise. This is a government-funded economic development agency with wide powers to advise, assist and finance businesses, acquire and develop land and premises, improve the physical environment and run training programmes. It draws up strategies after wide consultation, then



Ebbw Vale, Wales

A garden festival on a former steelworks site prepared the site for redevelopment.

delegates most of its functions and funding to local enterprise companies led predominantly by local business people. The result is a high degree of integration of complementary economic and social measures, coupled with a high level of decentralisation and local decision-making.

Wales

5.4.24 The distinctive feature in Wales has been the existence since the 1970s of two special government-appointed agencies with prime responsibility for local economic development. The Welsh Development Agency, set up in 1976, has been mainly concerned with administering a number of development projects, including the clearance and improvement of derelict land. It is involved in the *Programme for the Valleys*, a multi-purpose, multi-agency scheme to respond to the rapid decline of the coal mining industry in the South Wales mining valleys (Box 5.6). In addition, Wales has several enterprise zones and, unlike Scotland, an urban development corporation, for Cardiff Bay.

5.4.25 The other agency is the Land Authority for Wales. This was set up in 1974 under the Community Land Scheme, and is now its sole survivor. The Land Authority for Wales was given powers to acquire land, if necessary by compulsory purchase, which in England and Scotland had been given to local authorities. It survived the repeal of the Community Land Scheme for two reasons. In the first place, it was successful in making land available for development in areas where the private sector had experienced difficulty in obtaining land. Secondly, it was a single-purpose agency, concerned with a positive approach to land development, and was not responsible for land use planning, thus avoiding a conflict of interest.



South Wales

Box 5.6

Revitalisation of the South Wales Mining Valleys

Approximately 25% of the population of Wales lives in the South Wales Valleys. Since the recent decline of their coal-mining and metal manufacturing industries, the area has suffered from massive economic, social and environmental problems. As a result, it contained some of the most disadvantaged communities in Wales. The first 'Programme for the Valleys', covering an area of 2,000 sq km, was introduced by the Secretary of State for Wales in 1988 to counter the effects of this decline. It is a partnership project involving local government, the private and voluntary sectors, and local communities in an improvement scheme for the social, economic and environmental well-being of the Valleys.

The scheme has already entered its second phase. It uses partnerships to encourage investment in the area to create better quality jobs, to reduce the rate of unemployment and to provide support for the indigenous industries of the area. This is linked with action to improve the health of Valley communities and to attract new employment opportunities. A major feature of the Programme is the visual transformation of the environment with sites being cleared and made available for new housing and amenity uses. Over the lifetime of the Programme it is estimated that public sector expenditure will be in the region of £1 billion, with a similar amount of investment expected from the private sector.

Box 5.7

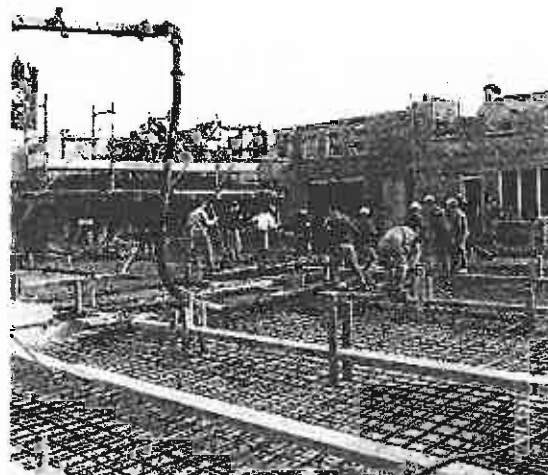
Community-led Urban Regeneration: Derry Inner City Trust, Northern Ireland

The Inner City Trust was established in 1981. Reconstituted with charitable status in 1993, it became a company limited by guarantee in 1988. The Trust is part of a wider network which includes the North West Centre for Learning and Development and in the past operated as the property owning and development arm of the network. Derry inner city had suffered the ravages of urban neglect and a bombing campaign. As a result, it had been largely abandoned by the private sector and investment in new buildings was at a low ebb. There were three initial reasons for the Trust's existence:

- *to provide meaningful employment for young people in a city which has one of the highest unemployment rates in Europe,*
- *to involve the community in a positive and constructive way in removing dereliction and in environmental improvement; and*

- *to impart an interest and appreciation of the city in local people and develop leadership and management skills.*

From its modest beginnings in 1981 in restoring a single derelict building, the Trust has gone from strength to strength. It has now acquired and redeveloped substantial parts of the city centre and, in doing so, has inspired others in the private sector to do likewise. With a mixture of private and public funding, its main achievements have been the provision of over thirty residential units, the same number of business units, educational and office space for a range of community organisations; a genealogy research and heritage centre, an international youth hostel, and tourist accommodation and other tourist attractions. All this has been supported by an active programme of education and training for local people. Dr McKiernan of the Irish American Cultural Institute has described the Trust as, 'the most creative and positive programme for peace in Northern Ireland for a generation'.



Derry, Northern Ireland

Local people were employed in the renovation and redevelopment.

for-profit companies established with the objective of renewing an area 'physically, socially and in spirit'. They obtain resources, including land, finance and skills, from government, charitable foundations, and other sources. Activities, such as the provision of community facilities and improvement of the environment, are supported at least in part by income-generating commercial development. The key feature is that they are locally-owned and managed, encouraging substantial involvement by local people. One such example is that of the Derry Inner City Trust (Box 5.7).



Derry, Northern Ireland

Violin maker, one of the many local crafts accommodated in renovated buildings.



Northern Ireland

Derry

5.4.26 Local economic development in Northern Ireland has followed a different course from that in the rest of the United Kingdom. Since 1982, it has been the responsibility of the Northern Ireland Office, and local government has had no role. Planning powers are also exercised directly by Government. Several specialised government departments and agencies have been active in promoting and assisting local economic development, including the Department of Economic Development, the Industrial Development Board, and, since 1971, the Local Economic Development Unit, which assists small firms.

5.4.27 To add to the problems of urban decline in Northern Ireland, and the near collapse of its traditional industries such as shipbuilding, there are those arising from sectarian divisions within and between communities. Thus community initiative and involvement has been a key factor in urban regeneration and local economic development. One method, used here and elsewhere in the United Kingdom, has been the idea of development trusts. These are independent, not-

Box 5.8

Stockley Park: an environmentally-friendly business park

Business in the late 1980s was booming and there was a move towards decentralisation of companies from London to less costly fringe locations. Coupled with this was a massive growth in high-technology industries in the south east of England and a growing demand for environmentally-attractive development schemes on low-density sites.

Stockley Park Consortium took advantage of these trends and, following extensive consumer research, developed London's first international business park on 16.5 hectares of previously

derelict land. The site, to the west of London near Heathrow Airport, was in the green belt and had previously been classed as heavily-contaminated land with few alternative uses. It now comprises 52.5 hectares of business park and 110 hectares of open parkland.

Creation of an environmentally attractive working space was central to the development of Stockley Park. The low-density buildings have been constructed to exceptionally high architectural and engineering briefs which results in the highly efficient use of energy, light and space. The rest of the site surrounding the scheme has been landscaped for recreation purposes and now includes a golf course, leisure facilities, shops and many lakes and water features.



Stockley Business Park, London Borough of Hillingdon
High quality buildings and landscape with recreation opportunities.

on local authority advice and financial assistance in the shape of loans and grants. They have also developed sector studies and strategies, and encourage equal opportunity policies in the recruitment of workers.



Stockley Park

Locally-generated initiatives for economic development

5.4.28 Development trusts such as that in Derry, in Northern Ireland, are one example of locally-generated initiatives for economic development. These have been used throughout the United Kingdom, but there are others. One of the key tasks for localities has been to contribute to the revitalisation of their local economies through their own efforts, whether by the local authority, local businesses, local communities or some combination of the three. Much of this has involved seeking market-niches in the changing national or international economy, often in competition with other localities. This places emphasis not only on new economic activities but also on the necessary supporting infrastructure such as education, research and development, social and cultural facilities, tourism, environmental quality and 'image-making' and 'place-making' (Box 8.2).

5.4.29 The private sector in a number of areas has established Enterprise Agencies to further local economic development. These offer advice to new firms setting up, especially small businesses needing training and advice on management and marketing. Typically these have been initiated by one of the leading employers in an area, such as ICI in Teesside. The number of such organisations increased from about 100 in 1982 to more than 300 by 1992. Another approach, adopted by local authorities in many areas faced with economic decline, has been to establish Enterprise Boards, such as the West Midlands Enterprise Board. These are companies engaged in stimulating new and expanding businesses in their area. They draw

5.4.30 Local initiatives for economic development in other areas have focused on Growth Coalitions, such as the Newcastle Initiative. Typically, a partnership has been built between the local authority, other organisations, and leading private firms in the area. Their joint aim is to establish a multi-agency approach to revitalisation by providing leadership and vision. Their members might ensure the provision of sites and buildings, or enhance the quality of life through support for the arts, and environmental improvements. Marketing the city, its attractions and potential, internationally is a key activity.

Planning, economic development and the environment

5.4.31 Finally, there are many examples in the last twenty years of how attitudes and practices in planning altered in response to the new economic priorities. For example:

- the amendment of the *Use Classes Order* in 1987, allowing existing industrial buildings to be used or redeveloped for a broader range of business activities, in the event, predominantly office use;
- the use of public-private partnerships to develop land for employment-generating and other development, where the local authority brought to the partnership its land holdings and powers of land acquisition, and the private sector its financial resources and market expertise; and
- the allocation and servicing of land, including the reclamation of derelict land, for new forms of

Box 5.9

Bradford City: Economic Regeneration through Tourism and Heritage

The economic recession of the late 1970s hit the traditional textiles and engineering industries in Bradford (population 457,300) particularly hard, causing local unemployment to rise to 15.7% in 1986. The area suffered from a poor image, with investors reluctant to commit money to what was perceived as a grimy, backward, industrial region. A bold and innovative step was therefore taken in 1979 by Bradford Metropolitan District Council, with the setting up of Britain's first Economic Development Unit. The brief for the unit was to change the district's image in order to attract investment and to create new jobs and employment opportunities. The unit focused on tourism

development as a key component of the Council's economic strategy.

The policy was founded on the area's Victorian industrial heritage and on its proximity to the Yorkshire Dales as well as on its ethnic inhabitants. The introduction and refurbishment of museums and theatres also contributed to the campaign for improvements. Despite initial scepticism, the scheme proved so successful that after ten years Bradford has established itself as a market leader in short-stay and weekend holiday breaks, attracting six million visitors annually and injecting over £56 million per year into the local economy. During this same period unemployment fell to 8% and investment rose to an all-time high demonstrating how tourism can contribute significantly to economic regeneration.

5.5 Pointers for the Future

- 5.5.1 The past twenty years has been a period of rapid economic change during which there has been a continuous development of policy and practice in local economic development by central and local government, and in their relationships with the private sector and non-governmental organisations.
- 5.5.2 The principal pointers for future policy and practice are as follows:

- economic development for a locality must build on local resources, assets and opportunities, including the skills of its labour force and its opportunities for education and training, the advantages of its geographical location and communications, and the quality of its social and physical infrastructure and environment;
- local economic development policies and programmes must be closely integrated with social and housing policies, because good housing and social facilities are as important as jobs and training for the planning and development of sustainable settlements;
- successful and sustainable local economic development depends on a genuine partnership involving all sectors and interests in a locality;
- local leadership and vision are essential to the working of an effective partnership, although the lead may come from local or central government, the private sector, or community initiatives; and
- willingness to experiment with different approaches is required to identify the most appropriate approach to pursue locally.

commercial activity such as high quality business parks, sub-regional retail centres or themed leisure parks (Box 5.8).

- 5.4.32 One of the aims of planning is to ensure that land is used in an efficient manner, having regard to social considerations, amenity and the wider environment. Examples include the conversion of old warehouses for new uses, such as a maritime museum, art gallery and speciality shopping in the Albert Dock, Liverpool; or providing a new concert hall, hotels and conference centre as in Birmingham and Belfast. A third example, the city of Bradford, is illustrated in Box 5.9. In each case, an opportunity for creating a new attraction has been exploited to the economic and social benefit of the area.



Bradford

References

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HOUSING

6



Nottingham City Challenge, Nottinghamshire
Estate improvements work best if consultation takes place.



Banbury, Oxfordshire
Housing development has used an attractive canalside location to create a high quality environment.

6.1 Introduction

- 6.1.1 Housing is a key element of public policy. The overall aims are to ensure a supply of land and housing that meets the overall demand and to ensure that those who cannot afford the market price still have access to housing. Home ownership has been encouraged because it meets popular aspirations. Local authority tenants are offered the Right-to-Buy their homes. Ownership has been made more affordable by a variety of means, including making land available at below open market value; innovative funding arrangements; and the construction of smaller, cheaper homes by housing developers.
- 6.1.2 The Government has a commitment to meet the housing needs of those who cannot afford the market price of housing or who do not want to buy. But there is a limited supply of good quality, low cost homes. Encouragement is being given to increase the supply of private rented homes. However, most people who need low cost homes rely on housing associations and municipal provision. The approach to the provision of subsidised housing has changed since 1976. The number of such social housing providers has been increased to provide competition and introduce innovation, thereby reducing the cost of building and improving housing management.
- 6.1.3 Housing associations are now the main providers of new social housing, in partnership with local authorities who remain the landlords to the largest number of tenants. A new relationship with tenants has been developed and they are being empowered to become involved in the design of improvements and management. Housing renewal and new building have been funded by a partnership between the private sector and the Government. Although the rents of social housing are still below market levels, they have been progressively increased. Subsidies to those who still cannot afford to pay are targeted at individuals via housing benefits and income support.
- 6.1.4 There has been a diversity of approach and practice in the United Kingdom influenced by the different economic and political circumstances, particularly in Scotland and Northern Ireland. It is now accepted that renewal of housing should form part of a wider urban renewal strategy. This should address the economic issues of access to jobs, unemployment and low wages, and other issues such as poor health, community development and crime. A partnership between those responsible for these aspects - housing, health, education and law enforcement agencies, government and the local community - is necessary to secure lasting regeneration.

6.2 Context and Trends

The Demand for Housing

6.2.1 Despite a low rate of population growth since 1976, over 4 million new houses have been built or converted. By 2016, the number of households in the United Kingdom is projected to grow by 4.4 million. A large part of the growth will arise because of an increase in the number of small households.

Affordability

6.2.2 A growing number of people with below average earnings cannot afford to buy or to pay market rents⁽¹⁾. The problem is more acute in some areas⁽²⁾, in London, for example, where there is a high level of demand for housing, and the emphasis upon providing homes in existing urban areas means that there may be difficulties in land assembly and high costs of reclamation⁽³⁾. In attractive rural areas the problem arises where the supply is constrained by planning policies, and where the demand for homes by high income commuters or retired people has caused house



System-built housing, Scotland

Many homes were built to unconventional designs which have deteriorated.

prices to rise. Local authorities and housing associations provide homes at rents below market values. Housing benefit and income support is also paid when these rents cannot be afforded. Increasingly, providers of social housing are encouraged to operate common waiting lists to ensure priority for those in greatest need. The level of demand for housing means some households share housing. Approximately 3% of households live in overcrowded conditions.

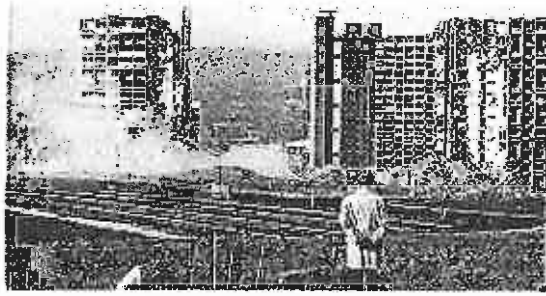
Homelessness

6.2.3 Against a background of rapid social and economic change and for a variety of complex reasons, including family break-up, unemployment and illness, some individuals and families become homeless. In 1978, 53,100 households were accepted by local authorities in England and Wales as being homeless and were rehoused. The figure peaked in 1991 at 170,500 but has fallen to 143,500 in 1994. Sleeping rough on the streets is the most visible kind of homelessness, and is most evident in London. Independent estimates suggest the number of people sleeping rough in central London has dropped from over 1,000 in 1990 to 270 in May 1995, as a result of targeted help and the provision of accommodation.

6.2.4 The 1977 Homeless Persons Act places a duty on local authorities to secure accommodation for local people with dependent children or vulnerable adults, homeless through no fault of their own. The limited supply of social housing means that bed and breakfast accommodation in hotels, hostels or short life tenancies may be used before an offer of longer term accommodation is made. The use of temporary and bed and breakfast accommodation is unsatisfactory and has been reduced since 1991. An increase in the amount of social housing, financial support and housing advice has contributed to this reduction. There is concern that, because such people are in acute need of housing, they receive priority over others on the housing list. Nevertheless, in 1993-94, over 60% of all new lettings still went to people on the housing waiting list.

House Building and the Condition of the Housing Stock

6.2.5 Overall the annual rate of building has fallen since 1976. Most of the houses built since 1976 have been for sale to owner occupiers, and 20% are social housing for people on low incomes, provided by housing associations.



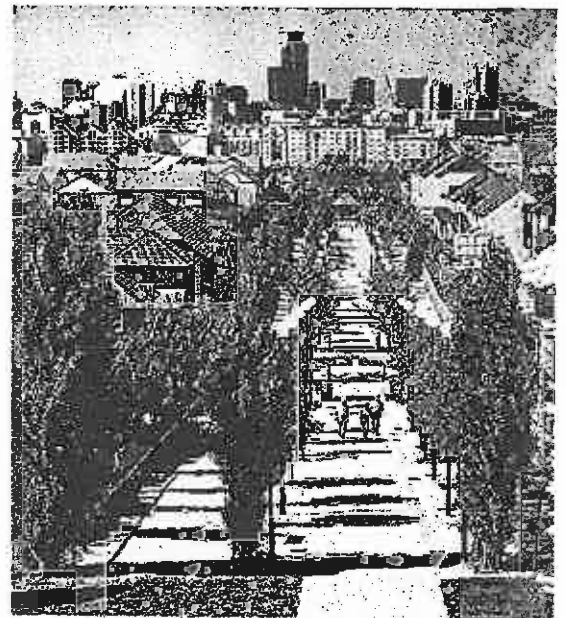
Castle Court, Hyde Park, Sheffield, South Yorkshire
High Rise blocks have proved so unpopular and entail such high maintenance costs that demolition may be the best solution.

- 6.2.6 Only 1% of homes in England now lack basic facilities. Unfitness and disrepair has been falling. Although 1.8 million dwellings still do not meet the government's 'fitness' standard, half of these require only minor expenditure to bring them up to standard. Significant work may be required in the longer term to bring the 45% of United Kingdom homes which are over fifty years old up to modern standards, particularly in relation to energy efficiency.
- 6.2.7 A significant number of homes on municipal estates have problems with condensation, mould growth and damp. In England and Wales 500,000, and in Scotland 584,000 homes have such problems. Many of these homes were built to unconventional designs. In practice they have deteriorated more rapidly than conventional, traditionally constructed buildings, imposing increased maintenance costs, while heating bills to tenants have tended to be higher.
- 6.2.8 Some municipal estates have become unpopular, particularly the high rise and deck access developments of the 1960s and 70s, where people feel little sense of identity or responsibility for the shared spaces either inside or outside the buildings. High levels of vandalism have caused further deterioration of these estates. Some new housing areas were also located on the edges of existing urban areas, distant from suitable employment opportunities, poorly-served by public transport and lacking the facilities that make everyday life pleasant and convenient. Poverty and its destructive effects have set many areas apart from the rest of society, to the extent that communities, as well as the buildings, need to be regenerated⁽⁴⁾.
- 6.2.9 In the private sector, there are particular problems with some houses in multiple occupation, particularly where such properties offer accommodation at low rents. This accommodation is likely to be in the worst physical condition, overcrowded and poorly managed.

Inadequate fire precautions have led to avoidable deaths. The poorest households, particularly single young people and the elderly, have little alternative to such accommodation. If it is improved, the resultant higher rents could be too costly. In some of the larger cities, the availability of such cheaper accommodation has been reduced as large houses have been sold and converted to single family homes as living close to the centre has become more attractive.

Tenure

- 6.2.10 Owner occupation has increased in the United Kingdom from 55% in 1981 to 67% in 1994. Since 1979, an additional 5 million homes have become owner occupied. Low interest rates, high levels of inflation, and generally rising incomes helped make home ownership more affordable. The strong demand for home ownership outstripped supply and created house price inflation, particularly in the south of England. This reached its height in the mid-1980s. The subsequent down-turn in the economy, income instability and mortgage defaults have slowed the growth in owner occupation, and house prices in some areas have fallen, creating problems of negative equity.
- 6.2.11 There has been a drop in the proportion of houses and flats rented from municipal authorities. In 1976 municipal authority tenants represented 32% of all tenure groups. However, by 1995 this percentage had fallen to 18% through a combination of the right-to-buy initiative and a



Stave Hill, Surrey Quays, London Borough of Soutwark and London Docklands Development Corporation Area
New housing in an attractive landscape.

Box 6.1**Actors involved in housing provision**

There are a large number of public, private and voluntary organisations involved in the funding, construction and management of housing and each organisation has a distinct role.

Central Government

- sets the market framework with taxation and incentives;
- offers financial support for individual households (income support and housing benefit); and
- provides grants via the Housing Corporation and loans via local authorities for new house building, conversions and improvements

Northern Ireland Housing Executive

Regional housing authority for all of Northern Ireland which:

- assesses housing needs; and
- funds and manages social housing directly.

Local Government

- assesses housing needs;
- ensures a land supply for new

- housing needs;
- provides housing and benefit advice;
- manages its own housing stock, and
- manages transfers of council stock to new landlords.

Housing Corporation (England)
Non-departmental public body which

- monitors the performance of housing associations; and
- allocates central government funding for social housing projects.

Scottish Homes

A development funding agency which:

- manages and maintains over 50,000 homes in urban Scotland;
- promotes house building for sale at cost; and
- promotes housing and urban renewal.

Housing Associations

Non-profit making bodies, Industrial and Provident Societies, co-operatives or charitable bodies, created to meet housing needs, which:

- design housing projects;

- obtain grants from the Housing Corporation or Scottish Homes;
- obtain loans from private sector and sponsorship from local government;
- provide affordable housing for rent or sale; and
- manage rented and shared equity stock.

Housing Action Trusts (England)

Non-departmental public bodies set up to regenerate run down housing estates, which:

- repair and improve the homes of tenants;
- manage estates;
- encourage a wider range of forms of ownership and choice of landlord;
- improve living, social and environmental conditions;
- combine central government grants and private sector funding; and
- are time limited.

Development Trusts

Charitable, not for profit companies which:

- obtain loans for housing projects based on land transfer to the company; and
- use assets to support further

housing projects and regeneration.

Private Landlords

- Currently private landlords are being encouraged by tax concessions in England and Wales and Grants for Rent and Ownership (GRO Grant) in Scotland.

Banks and Building Societies

Play a key role in funding house purchase with loans to individuals and housing associations.

Private Construction Companies and Development Companies

- build private housing for home ownership; and
- play a major role in the funding, design and construction of new social housing for sale and rent by housing associations and local authorities

Voluntary Bodies and Advice Agencies, e.g. Shelter

- provide housing services and advice to the homeless and those in housing need, and campaign for better housing provision.

greatly reduced building rate. Today, additions to the stock of homes to rent are provided predominantly by housing associations which are now the landlords for some 4% of tenants across the United Kingdom. Municipal management of homes was often considered to be remote and inflexible, taking insufficient account of tenants needs. Increased emphasis on tenant participation and tenants' rights through the Council Tenant's Charter, has helped make management of social housing more responsive and efficient⁽⁵⁾.

6.2.12 Private renting became increasingly subject to control during the late 1960s, following growing concerns about high rent levels, poor conditions and harassment of tenants. Rents were set below market levels. Low returns on investment, together with the high prices that could be obtained from the sale of houses in areas of high demand, led to the reduction of private rented tenancies from 3 million in 1976 to 2 million in 1988. Following

deregulation of this sector in 1988, and a move to market rents, there has been a modest revival in private rented housing.

6.3 Viewpoints

6.3.1 The provision of adequate housing is an emotive issue and there are many areas of debate. The questions of land supply and housing provision have been covered in Chapter 3, but other specifically housing issues remain:

- planning controls which seek to restrain growth in some local authority areas, for a variety of strategic reasons, restrict the land supply and can increase land and house prices locally;
- local housing needs may be in conflict with strategic restraint on housing growth;

- despite targets that aim to ensure that at least 50% of all new homes are built on re-cycled land, greenfield sites are easier to assemble and do not have reclamation costs;
- the projected figures for new households should be treated with caution - they do not necessarily reflect demand;
- housing organisations believe that insufficient new social lettings are being created;
- home ownership may be less attractive and private rented accommodation increasingly important as the job market changes; and
- pressures to reduce the initial costs of both public and private sector homes could be in conflict with quality and energy conservation objectives.

6.4 Policies and Objectives

6.4.1 The overall objective of housing policy is to provide decent housing at a price people can afford⁽⁶⁾. Detailed objectives are to:

- ensure a supply of land capable of being developed in the plan period;
- encourage home ownership and make it more affordable;
- increase the availability of private rented property;
- provide homes for people in need;
- improve the quality and energy efficiency of new and existing homes; and
- ensure efficient and responsive management of social housing.

To ensure a supply of land capable of being developed in the plan period

6.4.2 The supply of land for house building is controlled through the planning system. Government policy for over 20 years has required local authorities to ensure that there is always a 5 year supply of land available to meet forecast demands for new house building⁽⁶⁾. The quantity and geographical distribution of land for new housing is influenced by regional guidance, issued by Government, and by structure, unitary and local plans drawn up by local authorities, which define targets, allocate specific sites and set out policies and criteria for their development⁽⁷⁾.

Box 6.2

Legislation

1974 Housing Act provides for:

- *the designation of Housing Action Areas, to secure the improvement of homes and housing areas; and*
- *powers of compulsory acquisition to secure the improvement of homes.*

1977 Homeless Persons Act, consolidated by 1985 Housing Act (1985 Housing Act, Scotland)

- *places the duty on local authorities to provide accommodation for those classified as homeless, and*
- *empowers local authorities to give grants to voluntary organisations to prevent and relieve homelessness,*

1980 Housing Act

- *grants council tenants the Right-to-Buy their properties.*

1987 Housing (Scotland) Act

- *increases security of tenure for public sector tenants, and*
- *grants council tenants the Right-to-Buy their properties.*

1988 Housing (Scotland) Act

- *provides for the establishment of Scottish Homes.*

1988 Housing Act (England and Wales) provides for

- *reduced capital subsidies to housing associations,*
- *the establishment of Housing Action Trusts,*
- *market rents for new private tenancies,*
- *easier procedures to evict unsuitable tenants, and*
- *greater protection for tenants against landlord harassment and unfair eviction.*

1989 Local Government and Housing Act

- *introduced new controls on capital expenditure by local authorities in England and Wales; and*
- *changed the role of local authorities to enablers rather than providers of homes.*

1992 Social Security Contributions and Benefits Act

1992 Social Security Administration Act

- *together, these provide for housing benefit to help tenants on low incomes to pay rent.*

1993 Leasehold Reform, Housing and Urban Development Act

- *for the first time, grants flat owners the Right-to-Buy their freehold or extend their leases, and*
- *extends the Right-to-Buy the freehold to higher value houses.*

To encourage home ownership and make it more affordable

- 6.4.3 Surveys of attitudes to housing show a clear preference for owner occupation. Traditionally, ownership gave greater security of tenure and control over the home and the immediate environment compared to renting. The Right-to-Buy, with prices discounted by up to 70%, has enabled 1.8 million former municipal tenants to buy their houses or flats since 1979. Cash grants are also available to municipal tenants, to help them buy homes of their choice in the private sector. Increasingly, land for affordable housing is being set aside by developers as a planning gain⁽²⁾. Many local authorities require developers to form a partnership with a housing association to provide a proportion of homes for sale or rent below the market price to eligible purchasers. Some self-build housing co-operatives have been given the opportunity to build by the provision of sites at below market values. Housing associations have introduced shared ownership schemes which enable tenants to increase their share of the equity as financial circumstances permit.
- 6.4.4 Ownership has also been made more affordable by initiatives on the part of the developer by building smaller, cheaper 'starter homes' and by putting together financial packages to encourage the first time buyer. On some municipal housing estates, home ownership has been particularly encouraged, to increase the mix of tenures to avoid concentrations of families with social and economic problems.

To increase the availability of private rented property

- 6.4.5 A good supply of private sector homes to rent is important because it can meet short term housing needs and because some people prefer to rent. It can provide the first independent home for young people, students and those saving to buy homes. Renting can enable people to move quickly to areas where there are better job opportunities.
- 6.4.6 The 1988 Housing Act set a new market framework which allows market rents for new tenancies and gives better protection to the tenants against harassment and illegal eviction. Since 1988, the number of households privately renting has increased from 2 million to 2.3 million. Business Expansion Schemes, which granted tax relief to private landlords, created 80,000 new homes to rent, although there is concern that if house prices start to rise, many properties currently rented may be sold.



Witney, Oxfordshire
Homes for sale.

To provide homes for people in need

- 6.4.7 Public investment will provide 70,000 additional social lettings in England in 1995/96, towards the bottom end of estimates of need. Housing associations use private finance alongside Housing Corporation or Scottish Homes grants to provide homes to rent. Subsidies for housing costs are now targeted at individuals via income support and housing benefit. Subsidies to bricks and mortar have been reduced. In 1994, 83% of new housing association tenants received housing benefit.
- 6.4.8 Rent levels of social lettings have increased substantially, but they are still about 45% of market rents. On the newest and most expensive schemes, though, people in low paid work but not eligible for income support or benefits have difficulty affording rents. There is a danger that such schemes are creating new concentrations of poverty and families dependent on housing benefit for payment of their rents. Because rent levels are one of the value for money criteria that are used to evaluate a scheme, the most successful housing associations, who have built most homes with private finance, may be penalised. Housing associations may be tempted to lower projected rents, draw on reserves and reduce maintenance. This could have long term implications for the housing stock and future capacity to build.
- 6.4.9 There is an on-going loss of homes available at low rents. Low cost rental homes may be lost when estates are renewed and local authority stock is reduced as people exercise their Right-to-Buy. However, housing association receipts can now be used to build more homes, and part of local authority receipts may also be used, sometimes to provide funding to housing associations.
- 6.4.10 Single young people are often not a priority for housing association schemes and they are a small proportion of social rented tenants. Yet they have some of the lowest incomes, highest levels of

unemployment, and least secure jobs. They experience some of the worst housing conditions in the cheapest private rented stock, and receive lower rates of housing benefit. Housing associations, and other organisations have developed housing schemes, including hostels and shared homes, to meet their specific needs.

6.4.11 In addition to formal housing provision, the Rough Sleepers Initiative was started in England and Wales in 1990. Grants to housing associations are funding 3,300 permanent homes for people with a history of sleeping rough. Resources are also being provided for 18 voluntary organisations and housing associations to work alongside local authorities and other statutory organisations to identify the needs of people sleeping rough; to ensure that the support services are available to help them to move to a more settled way of life; and to provide housing advice and help to find accommodation.

6.4.12 There is a particular need for social housing in some rural areas, where, for planning reasons, new housing would not normally be permitted. Local authorities are allowed to make exceptions to such restrictions for low cost housing, particularly on small sites within or adjacent to existing villages.

The Right-to-Buy will not be extended to such homes, in order to protect a supply of low cost rented housing. The Housing Corporation will, by the end of 1995, have provided 10,000 low cost homes in rural settlements. Box 6.3 shows an example of a community initiative to meet rural housing needs.

To improve the energy efficiency and general quality of new and existing homes

6.4.13 Energy efficiency is particularly important because home heating accounts for about 28% of all energy use and for 25% of carbon dioxide emissions. Tenants in social housing are particularly sensitive to heating costs and a well designed and insulated house can enable people to be more comfortable at a lower cost.

6.4.14 The Government is working with the building industry and housing providers to improve the energy efficiency of existing and new homes. The Standard Assessment Procedure (SAP) has been adopted by the Government for home energy rating. It has been developed by the Building Research Establishment to indicate whether energy is being used efficiently to heat space and water. Higher standards for thermal insulation and SAP ratings are now required by the Building Regulations for all new homes. Potential energy savings could amount to 25% of total energy use. The Housing Corporation and Scottish Homes have adopted higher energy efficiency standards for all new housing association developments (Box 6.4). Energy efficiency is also one of the criteria for assessing local authority Housing Improvement Programme bids. Information about home energy ratings using the Standard Assessment Procedure has been produced for home buyers.

6.4.15 Owner occupiers have invested heavily in home maintenance and improvement. Between 1986 and 1991, in England and Wales, outstanding repairs



Sapperton, Gloucestershire
An attractive village with housing needs.



Sapperton

Box 6.3

Housing for Local Needs in Rural Areas: Sapperton, Gloucestershire

Sapperton (population 409) is a picturesque village in rural Gloucestershire. The stone built cottages and houses are much sought after by people moving into the area, thus pushing up house prices. The village residents were concerned about the future of their community and sought the support of the Gloucestershire Rural Community Council to look at a wide range of issues including the views of village residents on the availability of low cost rented housing. The stages were:

- a Village Appraisal (1991) looked at a wide range of issues affecting community life e.g. structure of the population, services, transport, facilities for families and children, and design;
- a Housing Needs Survey following up the above to identify the housing need (rent, shared equity) and for which age

group (families, the elderly);

- a search for suitable land in the village on which to build, research into low cost housing, preparation of proposal by a group of residents; and
- funding sought and a housing association proposed (late 1995).

The above process relied on a series of partnerships which included:

- the Rural Community Council who provided the residents with advice and other support;
- village residents who conducted the Village Appraisal with the support of the Parish Council;
- the Parochial Church Council which owns the land chosen and supports the scheme vigorously;
- District Council officers who assisted in the analysis of survey results;
- District Council members whose support will be required to obtain planning permission; and
- a housing association sympathetic to the proposal for a small scheme (4 houses) in a village setting.



Gwalia

Box 6.4

Gwalia Housing Society: improving energy efficiency

Gwalia Housing Society in Swansea decided to improve energy efficiency in its new homes. A pilot scheme included the following features:

- *insulation in excess of the then building regulation standards to reduce heat loss through roofs, walls and floors,*
- *sustainably grown redwood window frames double glazed,*
- *south facing habitable rooms to maximise passive solar gains, and*
- *conservatories built into the south elevations to capture solar heat.*

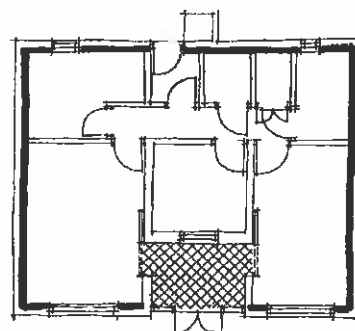
The development created greater comfort for tenants and reduced costs for space and water heating. The society have now obtained a European Union THERMIE Grant to allow further energy saving features to be incorporated into the next phase of the scheme.

were reduced by 25% and the number of unfit owner-occupied homes was reduced by 10%. Grants for essential repairs and energy efficiency measures are available for people on low incomes. Since 1990, 350,000 grants totalling over £1 billion have been made in England.

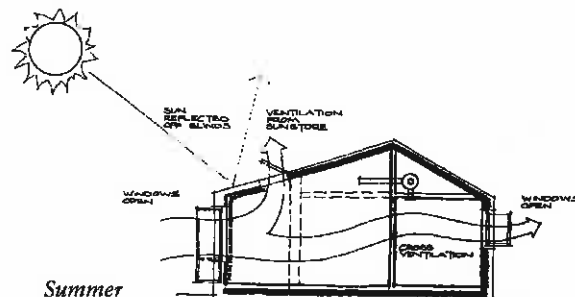
6.4.16 There has been considerable innovation in relation to housing renewal which had largely replaced comprehensive redevelopment by the 1970s. Scotland, for example, had a legacy of large concentrations of tenements which displayed some of the worst housing problems in Europe. Large numbers were demolished after 1945, but by the early 1970s, it became clear that many people wanted to stay in these areas. Since 1974, tenement improvement programmes have taken place in many urban neighbourhoods across Scotland (Box 6.5).



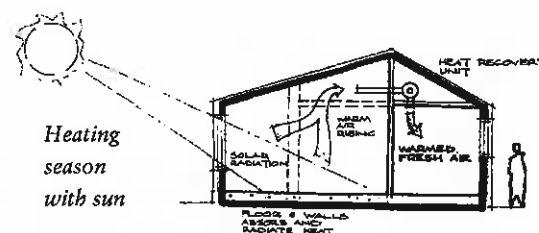
North Peckham, London Borough of Southwark
Unpopular, deck access flats ...



Plan



Summer



Heating season with sun

Gwalia Housing Association, Swansea, Wales
Energy efficient housing.

6.4.17 In England since 1985, the Estates Action Programme has sought to tackle the problem of post-war housing. £2 billion have been used to improve over half a million homes on 500 estates in over 170 local authorities. The programmes have invested in greater security, remodelling poorly designed blocks, (for example, getting rid of access decks and replacing tower blocks with low rise houses) and creating a variety and choice of home. Between 1981 and 1991, the cost of the outstanding repairs required on the worst municipal homes fell by 20%. There is still a large amount of work to be done to improve the quality of life on many housing estates and, in some cases, renewal will now have to be repeated.



... remodelled and private gardens created from unused communal space.

6.4.18 Private sector money has been attracted into housing renewal in the form of loans to housing associations. The property values of estates have been used to fund improvements by providing collateral for these loans. In some cases, sites and properties have been transferred to the builder/developer in conjunction with a City Grant subsidy. Cowgate, Newcastle (Box 6.6) is an example of this. This has also created a tenure mix. In the case of Cowgate, the end result is not entirely successful as there remain significant problems of crime and vandalism.

6.4.19 Housing problems are not confined to inner city areas. Peripheral housing estates, whether in Scotland, Liverpool or London present their own challenges. As well as physical deterioration, their distance from employment centres, poor transport links and low skill levels have created concentrations of unemployment, low incomes, social deprivation, crime and vandalism.

6.4.20 To address these problems, whether found in inner or peripheral areas, comprehensive approaches have been developed which take into account social, economic and community needs. Under the Single Regeneration Budget Challenge Fund, the problems of bad housing can be tackled alongside unemployment, education, training and crime. Partnerships between the public and private sectors are an essential element of Single Regeneration Budget programmes⁽⁸⁾.



Glasgow



Reidvale Street, Glasgow, Scotland
Tenement improvements were followed by external environmental improvements.

Box 6.5

Tenement Improvements in Scotland

Tenements, which date from the turn of the century, are blocks of 3 or 4 storey flats, built around a central open space with a common entrance and stair. The particular problems that tenement renewal has encountered are:

- poor housing quality caused by the original low construction standards, bad maintenance practice and a lack of amenities (many tenement residents had no bathroom and had to share outside WCs);
- overcrowding and a preponderance of very small houses accessed by stairs which were unsuitable for families and older people; and
- the difficulty of co-ordinating improvements to buildings which are in multiple ownership and which may combine residential and commercial uses.

The solutions which have been adopted include:

- refurbishment of the fabric of the buildings, creation of larger flats where opportunities to amalgamate are available;
- provision of standard amenities within flats;
- new-build housing on gap sites to increase choice of house sizes, types and tenures and to safeguard investment in the refurbished tenements;
- using community-based housing associations to manage the complex process of co-ordinating improvement works on behalf of all owners in the buildings; and
- unique partnership and funding arrangements between local authorities, community based housing associations and the Housing Corporation/Scottish Homes, to ensure that tenement improvement takes place as part of a strategic approach to area renewal and that adequate funding is available.

Box 6.6

Cowgate Estate Improvement, Newcastle

The private developer has worked with tenants, housing associations and the local authority to identify and design the improvements. The process has included:

- part of the estate has been transferred to a private developer and £6 million of private money has been added to over £30 million of public investment;
- 191 new or refurbished homes have been made available for sale at market values;
- 174 housing association homes have been made available for rent or low cost ownership;
- self-builders have refurbished 14 homes for sale or rent; and
- the local authority has improved 739 of its own properties.



Cowgate

Housing Action Trusts

6.4.21 On some of the worst estates in England, with severe structural and maintenance problems, tenants have voted for Housing Action Trusts to take over and improve their housing from the local authority. The life of the Trusts is to be 8-10 years. To date, six have been established. Single Regeneration Budget grant funding (see Chapter 5) from central government was made available to initiate the work, but loans from banks and building societies have now been obtained by the Trusts. The example of Waltham Forest, Box 6.7, illustrates the procedures and achievements of one such Trust.



Waltham Forest

Box 6.7

Waltham Forest Housing Action Trust

The area within the trust comprises 4 large housing estates built between 1966 and 1972 together with adjoining land, and includes 2,422 homes with severe structural and maintenance problems. Tenants are involved in decision making and make up 26% of the workforce employed by the contractors. The projects are:

- *the phased demolition of the tower blocks and redevelopment / improvement of the estates;*
- *assisting residents to get jobs by training, advice, organising job search groups and liaison with local employers;*
- *providing skills training and establishing a construction skills training centre to enable local residents to take up construction jobs on the estate;*
- *help for residents to set up their own businesses (e.g. painting and decorating, catering, site canteen and bakery); and*
- *childcare, playgroups and clubs, drama, music, poetry, video projects.*

There has been close tenant consultation at all stages and partnerships have been formed with the local health authority to provide health advice.



Waltham Forest Housing Action Trust, London Borough of Waltham Forest

A Career Advice and Placement Project helped this tenant into a training course and into a job on site afterwards.

To provide efficient and responsive management of social housing

6.4.22 Good estate management is important to ensure that the housing stock is used effectively, properly maintained and that tenants are satisfied with their homes and maintenance levels. In England, the number of vacancies on local authority estates amounts to just over 70,000 dwellings, or about 2% of the local authority stock. The number has been reduced by 43,000 over the last 10 years.

6.4.23 Matching homes to needs is also important in terms of size, access to gardens and play areas and the needs of the elderly. Under-occupation is quite common among households where children have left home, and people are being encouraged to use spare bedrooms by taking in lodgers or to move to smaller homes. Setting rents which reflect the size of the property will give people the incentive to move to a smaller home.

6.4.24 Management and maintenance should reflect tenants' needs and priorities. Tenant involvement in managing their estates is important to provide the same sense of ownership and control that owner occupiers enjoy. An example of tenant involvement is shown in Box 6.8. Tenants are a key element in partnership schemes and Housing Action Trusts. Central government will fund tenants who wish to develop management organisations to buy independent training and support. Once the management organisation has signed a management agreement with the local authority, the authority will give it a budget to manage the estate.

6.4.25 If tenants are to manage their estates effectively, access to training and outside organisations who can share experiences and provide advice and technical support, is required. The National Tenants Resource Centre is an organisation which can provide training courses for tenants, housing managers, local authorities and housing association staff. The Institute of Housing also provides support and advice and disseminates good practice via its Good Practice Unit.



Hornsey Lane

Box 6.8

Hornsey Lane: tenant involvement in estate management

Hornsey Lane is a low rise balcony access estate in Islington, north London. In the 1970s, the estate developed problems of overcrowding, racial tension, high crime rates, youth disorder and resident dissatisfaction. A concentration of vulnerable families developed as tenants left. Residents became involved in local authority action to improve the estate and formed a community association which secured premises and a community worker. The local authority provided training and support to enable an Estate Management Board to be set up. The Estate Management Board has:

- *brought the community together and reduced the turnover of tenants;*
- *consulted widely with the residents;*
- *achieved more sensitive estate management - locating families in ground floor flats with access to specially created secure garden areas;*
- *ensured quicker repairs and better maintenance;*
- *supervised physical improvements; and*
- *reduced the number of empty properties.*

The process underlines the importance of tenants playing a central role in estate management.

adapting houses to meet the specific needs of tenants;

- **housing renewal should be part of an overall strategy** including social, economic and environmental improvements, and be based on a partnership between the local authority, businesses and the local community;
- **the economic benefits of investment in renewal could be retained** on estates if training is provided so that local residents can take up employment opportunities created by the investment in regeneration;
- **new and renovated homes should be built to higher standards**, to reduce energy consumption, enable tenants to enjoy greater comfort at lower costs, and to avoid the need for frequent major renewal projects; and
- **greater satisfaction with housing will be achieved if tenants are empowered to manage their estates**, are involved in the design of improvements and receive training, on-going support and a budget.

6.5 Pointers for the Future

6.5.1 Key issues that housing strategies will have to address include:

- **complete public sector funding of housing is not efficient**, and encouraging affordable home ownership and an improved market in private rented housing can reduce the demand for public sector housing;
- **significant inequalities in income levels mean that some people will require assistance** in paying for the cost of housing, and this is better targeted at people rather than properties;
- **encouragement of a variety of housing providers and partnership with the private sector can introduce innovation, competition and reduce the cost of housing construction and management;**
- **the effective use of the existing housing stock can be improved** by reducing the number of empty houses and under-occupation, and by

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ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND HEALTH



Central London

Emissions from road vehicles are perceived as a hazard for cyclists and pedestrians.

7.1 Introduction

- 7.1.1 The Vancouver recommendations of 1976 reflected concern for the quality of the environment in the development of human settlements. The reduction, safe disposal and beneficial use of waste and the provision of a safe water supply were key matters raised. These same concerns and new ones are at the heart of contemporary United Kingdom objectives for protecting the environment, including wildlife and natural habitats found in many urban as well as rural areas, and improving health and the quality of life, particularly in urban areas.
- 7.1.2 A framework of regulation and control exists at the national level with the integrated pollution control of large industrial plants and processes. Standards, quality objectives and targets have been set in relation to noise, water quality and air quality. At the local government level, environmental assessment, local air quality monitoring, noise control and land use planning are complementary controls. In addition, economic instruments and auditing are being introduced to influence behaviour and protect the environment.
- 7.1.3 The United Kingdom Government's approach is precautionary in that it attempts to identify the potentially polluting effects of substances and activities and to reduce them at source. The 'polluter pays' principle has been adopted, although the costs of actions to reduce emissions are taken into account in the licensing of operations.
- 7.1.4 Whilst air pollution from manufacturing and power generation has been reduced in line with targets set, as have some specific pollutants, road transport now dominates total emissions. In respect of water, increased rates of abstraction to meet growing demands had an adverse effect upon the ecological value and appearance of rivers until the creation of the National Rivers Authority in England in 1989. Since then, environmental factors have been taken into account before granting new licenses. The quality of United Kingdom bathing waters has been improving steadily in recent years. In relation to the management of waste, the emphasis is now being put on reduction and recycling to reduce the amounts that require disposal.
- 7.1.5 Although a framework of regulation and control is in place, changes in attitudes, behaviour and practices in industry, commerce, agriculture and transport are required to make a real difference. Current life styles and patterns of consumption will also need to change to reflect more sustainable choices either voluntarily, influenced through pricing, education and information, or by additional controls, or a mixture of both. The changes will need to be made whilst taking into account the costs to the economy and the effects upon those who can least afford to pay.

7.2 Context and Trends

7.2.1 Since 1976 there has been a growth in awareness of the effects of human activities upon health and the natural environment⁽¹⁾. Key concerns relate to:

- the increased use of the car affecting air quality, and creating noise and road safety problems;
- the disposal of larger volumes of solid waste, including some special industrial and radioactive wastes, which require extensive areas of land, and which may have a considerable local impact; and
- contaminated land, uncontained landfill sites and storage of chemicals which may present threats to river water quality.

7.2.2 There is a growing amount of information relating to the effects of various activities and processes⁽²⁾. Conversely, these are areas where much scientific uncertainty remains. In such cases, it may be appropriate to take action according to the precautionary principle to limit or ban the use of materials and practices if there is a reasonable fear that they could cause damage, especially if it could be irreversible⁽³⁾. Actions, whether precautionary or remedial, should take into account the scale and

seriousness of potential damage and the cost of avoidance. Assessing the costs to the environment is therefore critical to any decision. Such costs are the subject of keen debate amongst different interests including Government, environmental groups and business.

7.2.3 It is now an accepted principle that non-renewable resources should be used at a rate which considers the needs of future generations. This will require changes in patterns of consumption and greater efficiency. Demand management increasingly underlies the United Kingdom approach. Environmental information is made available by central and local government and non-governmental organisations, including via the school curriculum, so that people can have a better understanding of the effects of choices. Pricing and taxation of the use of resources can also influence behaviour.

7.2.4 The United Kingdom approach to environmental protection entails a mixture of regulation, for example by control of emissions; economic instruments, for example taxation to favour the use of unleaded petrol; and land use planning. Voluntary action is also important. Many organisations have adopted better management practices as well as Environmental Management and Auditing Systems to avoid and reduce the effects of activities. The Jubilee Line Environmental Management System is an example of this approach (Box 7.1). Although there is significant reliance on command and control legislation, the aim is to reduce the burden of regulation and make economic instruments work for the environment⁽⁴⁾. The practicality of implementing and enforcing policies together with cost to the public and private sectors has influenced legislation in the United Kingdom. The approach has been one which avoids too cosy relationship between enforcers and businesses or an excessively legalistic/enforcement oriented approach.

7.2.5 The United Kingdom has contributed fully to the environmental debate in the European Union, and promoted nature protection, integrated pollution control and river basin management. In turn, United Kingdom policies have been influenced by the European Union, for example in respect of waste, water quality and the natural habitats.

7.2.6 In certain areas, for example emissions from power stations, targets have been set. In the case of emissions from individual vehicles, progressively tighter targets have been set. There has been no corresponding move, however, either to define total limits to vehicle emission levels and the growth in vehicle miles, or to quantify an increased



Jubilee Line

Box 7.1

Jubilee Line: environmental management of a major construction project

The Jubilee Line is a major extension to the London Underground, adding 16 kilometres and 11 stations to the railway system. The line is being constructed through central London and has the potential to affect the natural environment and the people who live and work in the area. A project goal is to minimise the environmental effects. The key features are:

- a whole company environmental policy;
- an environmental management system based on a national standard;
- mitigation of the effects identified by an environmental assessment;
- consultation with local residents and businesses;
- a Code of Construction Practice agreed with local authorities, with its environmental requirements incorporated into contractual documents;
- an environmental award scheme recognising the good performance of the contractor;
- reviews of designs, undertaken to reduce noise, prevent water pollution, increase energy efficiency and enhance the quality of architectural design; and
- training programmes to ensure good environmental practices.

use of 'green' transport modes. There may be a need for comprehensive targets, because the growth of vehicle traffic is overtaking the benefits of cleaner burn cars and reduced fuel consumption, so that carbon emissions are still increasing. The Second European Conference on Environment and Health agreed an Environment and Health Action Plan for Europe (EHAPE)⁽⁵⁾. A principal feature was that individual countries would prepare their own national action plans. The United Kingdom, as one of six pilot countries, issued a consultation draft of its plan in 1995⁽⁵⁾.

Land Use Planning Controls and Development Plans

7.2.7 Planning controls (see Appendix B) are an important complementary element in the prevention of pollution, and the protection of human health. Planning authorities consult the relevant pollution control agencies amongst others, in both development plan preparation and in respect of individual developments to ensure that:

- the land proposed for development can be supplied with water and sewerage and infrastructure investment can be planned;
- the development does not, in the case of cemeteries, waste disposal plants and mineral extraction, compromise other uses or create a risk of water pollution;



Westminster,
London Borough

Emissions testing including spotchecks is part of the local air quality monitoring programme.

- development is not allowed on land liable to flooding, or liable to be affected by other hazards or high levels of noise; and
- the diversity and abundance of United Kingdom wildlife is protected and enhanced.

Box 7.2

Legislation

A coherent system of regulations, regulatory agencies and taxation and pricing policies is developing to protect the environment as well as health.

Environmental Protection Act 1990 provides for:

- control of emissions to air, water and land;
- abatement of nuisances;
- control of litter;
- classification and control of waste;
- setting safe limits and standards;
- nature conservation and the countryside; and
- the use of Best Available Techniques Not Entailing Excessive Cost (BATNEEC).

The Act also establishes regulatory

organisations for the provision of water supply and sewerage by the utility companies.

The Water Resources Act 1991 (England and Wales) provides for:

- control of water pollution; and
- water resource management.

The Environment Act 1995 provides for:

- Environment Agencies for England and Wales and for Scotland;
- clearer definition of contaminated land and regulatory machinery to deal with it;
- implementation at national and local levels to improve air quality in towns and cities;
- national waste strategies in England, Wales and Scotland; and
- national waste surveys to inform the strategies.

Environmental Assessment and Appraisal

7.2.8 A key planning tool for environmental protection is the environmental assessment of projects. This provides environmental information which enables an informed decision to be made about the acceptability of a project⁽⁶⁾. The Department of the Environment has recently issued advice on the environmental appraisal of local authority development plans⁽⁷⁾. The example in Box 7.3 shows the complementary roles of the land use planning system, the Department of Trade and Industry and the pollution control agencies. It demonstrates how the potential effects identified in environmental assessments can be mitigated by planning conditions and through the process of Integrated Pollution Control.

7.3 Viewpoints

7.3.1 There are many different viewpoints on the value to be attached to environmental factors. They include the following:

Box 7.3**Environmental assessment of a major development proposal: South Humber Bank power station**

As well as planning approval, major plants such as power stations have to meet the requirements of the relevant pollution control agency (Box 7.4)

The site of the proposed power station and the associated cooling system is close to the Humber estuary with cooling water pipes crossing the intertidal mudflats. The mudflats are a sensitive nature area, particularly for overwintering birds, and they are designated as a Special Protection Area under the European Commission Directive on the Conservation of Wild Birds. The environmental assessment process comprised:

- consultations with the local planning authority, Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Pollution, the National Rivers Authority, English Nature and the Countryside Commission to identify views and concerns and obtain information;*

- a Code of Construction Practice which incorporated measures to protect the environment and residents;*
- an Environmental Statement which contained relevant information on the baseline environment and its sensitivity, identified key concerns and suggested the following mitigation measures, which were adopted as conditions to the approvals:*
 - construction activity on the mud flats restricted to a 15m wide area;*
 - construction activity on the mudflats to take place between April and August to avoid main period of bird activity;*
 - construction activity near to the nature conservation areas to be tightly controlled;*
 - detailed planning of all construction activity to be agreed with the interested authorities;*
 - restoration of disturbed habitats;*
 - effects of construction activity and recovery of disturbed areas to be monitored; and*
 - traffic management to avoid construction traffic passing through a village.*



South Humber Bank

- unfettered markets in conjunction with technological progress will reduce and substitute the use of resources and overcome pollution problems;
- reliance on technological solutions will not avoid environmental degradation or resource consumption. Instead the environmental capacity should be identified and growth should stay within this capacity;
- green accountancy has attempted to put a cost on the environmental effects of policies and actions but the techniques used are not completely reliable;
- the discretion given to regulatory bodies has allowed them to build up a good relationship with operators, but standards have been set too low; and
- taxation and pricing policies can influence behaviour, spur technological innovation and reduce consumption so that regulation may only be required where the problem is grave enough to

require prohibition or where a price increase is unlikely to reduce consumption.

7.4 Policies and Objectives

7.4.1 Within the overall aim of protecting the natural environment and human health there is a need to ensure the prudent use of resources, including energy; and minimise waste; prevent and minimise pollution of air, land and water in a cost effective way; and protect and enhance habitats and species. A target-led approach is increasingly being adopted in relation to policies. Indicators are being developed which can help quantify progress in achieving these targets. Objectives are to:

- improve waste management;
- enhance air quality;
- reduce noise levels;
- enhance water quality;
- reduce areas of derelict and contaminated land; and
- protect and enhance habitats and species.

To improve waste management

7.4.2 The United Kingdom generates 435 million tonnes of solid waste each year of which 245 million tonnes is controlled waste subject to the Control of Pollution Act 1974. This includes household waste, commercial waste, some sewage sludge, demolition and construction waste and industrial waste. 70% of controlled waste goes to landfill which is the cheapest option. The reduction, re-use, recovery and safe disposal of waste is being promoted by the government's *Waste Strategy for England and Wales* which was issued as a white paper in December 1995⁽⁸⁾. The strategy has three key objectives:

- to reduce the amount of waste;
- to make the best use of waste produced; and
- to choose waste management practices which minimise the risks of immediate and future environmental pollution and harm to human health.

7.4.3 In order to help achieve these objectives, waste management options have been ranked in a hierarchy which reflects their environmental

Box 7.4

Actors involved in environmental protection

Central Government Departments

The Department of the Environment has the principal responsibility for environmental protection policy in England, together with the equivalent departments of the Scottish, Welsh and Northern Ireland Offices. The DoE and Scottish Office are the sponsor departments for the pollution control agencies. They:

- combine the functions of Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Pollution (HMIP), the National Rivers Authority (NRA) and the waste regulation functions of local authorities in England and Wales, and the Industrial Pollution Inspectorate (Scotland) and River Purification Boards in Scotland;
- aim to provide strong independent voices to influence the adoption of better environmental standards and practices and to contribute to sustainable development;
- promote high quality integrated environmental protection and

enhancement; and

- provide cross-media assessments to identify the best environmental options.

Drinking Water Inspectorate

• checks that the water companies in England and Wales supply water that is safe to drink and meets the standards set in the Water Quality Regulations, including the monitoring requirements;

• takes action as necessary against water companies to ensure compliance with the legal requirements;

• investigates incidents which affect, or threaten to affect, drinking water quality;

• advises Ministers on the prosecution of water companies if water has been supplied which is unfit for human consumption; and

• publishes an annual report on its activities and drinking water quality in England and Wales.

Department of the Environment (Northern Ireland)

The department has direct responsibility for:

- water and sewage services via the

Water Executive;

- environmental protection and countryside and wildlife via the Environment Service.

Local Authority Environmental Health Departments

These have responsibility for:

- local authority air pollution control;

• control of emissions to the air from industrial plant, commercial premises, homes and vehicles;

• control of noise from all premises, land and construction sites and from vehicles, machinery and equipment in the streets;

- implementation of smoke control, smell and other nuisances under the provisions of the Clean Air Act; and
- local air quality management.

English Nature, Scottish Natural Heritage, Countryside Council for Wales

- responsible for nature protection

Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution

An independent permanent body, includes people from a range of disciplines and advises Parliament

on matters relating to the pollution of the environment.

Private Utility Companies in England and Wales

- supply water, gas, electricity, provide sewerage

Scotland

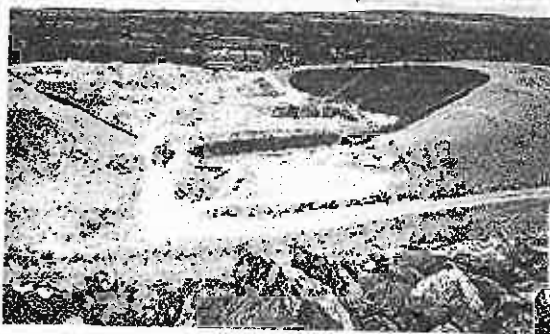
In Scotland, three public Water Authorities have been established to provide water and sewerage services. The Scottish Water and Sewerage Consumer Council has been established to protect the interests of consumers.

Waste Management Companies

Some local authorities have contracted private waste management companies to collect and dispose of waste. Many landfill sites are operated by private companies

Voluntary Groups

There are many national groups such as Waste Watch, Friends of the Earth and the National Recycling Forum and local groups involved in waste reduction and recycling activities. Some projects are supported by Government grants



Green Road, Ballyclare, Northern Ireland
Installing a liner at a landfill site to contain leachates.

benefits and disbenefits. This is being resisted by waste management companies promoting incineration who want the options presented without any priority indicated.

7.4.4 Currently only about 5% of household waste is recycled. Many schemes to encourage sorting of waste in the home, followed by kerb side collections are now underway. Recycling centres for paper, glass, aluminium and compostable materials have also been provided at locations close to people's homes. Local government and the voluntary sector have taken the lead and started many innovative campaigns including re-cycling projects to raise funds, and schemes to collect items such as furniture, toys and tools for repair and resale. Organisational support and grants have enabled such projects to create local employment opportunities. One of the priorities of 'Going for Green', the new citizens' initiative on sustainable development, will be to educate people about the need to reduce the use of materials and to recycle.

7.4.5 Although manufacturing industries use significant amounts of recycled materials, there is considerable scope to increase these levels. Plants to re-process

Box 7.5

The Rover/Birmingham City Council Environmental Management Initiative

In 1992 the Rover Group and Birmingham City Council jointly instigated an environmental initiative to encourage automotive suppliers in the West Midlands to establish and implement environmental management systems. One of the six suppliers invited to take part in a pilot scheme was a company called Pulley Brothers Ltd from Birmingham which manufactures vacuum formings and polyurethane mouldings.

After adopting and modifying the Government's Quality Management System BS 5750 to meet the requirements of the British and European environmental management systems, the company undertook an intensive training programme for all staff at all

levels of the company. An enthusiastic response prompted management to complete a factory audit which required each member of staff to fill in a questionnaire highlighting their concerns and ideas for more effective environmental management. In response to the audit a number of improvements and initiatives have been progressed thereby reducing energy use, waste and pollution. An annual saving of £200,000 has been achieved and further initiatives and financial savings are likely to be initiated due to the annual cycle of monitoring and review built into the system.

The key lesson from this case study is that an environmental management system is no good without the support and commitment of the people who are going to operate it. Their involvement and ideas are essential if it is going to achieve real improvements in environmental management.



Birmingham

materials have been established, including some by Trade Associations, to seek to achieve these increased levels. The new producer responsibility initiative, which involves producers taking more responsibility for their products once they become waste, will help foster markets for recycled materials. The Rover Initiative (Box 7.5) is an example of how energy use, waste and pollution can be reduced if all the people involved are committed to a programme of good environmental practice.

- 7.4.6 Waste local plans and waste disposal plans were introduced in England under the 1990 Town and Country Planning Act, the 1991 Planning and Compensation Act and the 1990 Environmental Protection Act respectively. This new system and its relationship to land use development plans is described in *Planning Policy Guidance note 23 Planning and Pollution Control*⁽⁹⁾.

To enhance air quality

- 7.4.7 International commitments have been given in respect of sulphur dioxide levels in the Long Range Trans-boundary Air Pollution Convention. European Commission Directives relating to levels of sulphur dioxide, suspended particulates, nitrogen and nitrogen dioxide, ozone and lead have been adopted. Strategic policies have now been

introduced for air quality management⁽¹⁰⁾ which include:

- national air quality standards;
- targets for principal air pollutants;
- local air quality management; and
- action plans to reduce transport emissions, especially in urban areas.

- 7.4.8 Between 1980 and 1993, national emissions of most pollutants fell, particularly when measured against units of Gross Domestic Product. This reflects a decline in the use of coal and smokeless fuel, structural changes in industry and the introduction of more stringent regulations.

- 7.4.9 Lead levels have fallen since the introduction of limits for the lead content of petrol. Differential rates of tax on petrol have increased unleaded petrol sales from 3% in 1988 to 62% in 1995 of the total amount of petrol sold.

- 7.4.10 Between 1980 and 1993 national emissions of carbon monoxide rose, largely as a result of traffic growth. During the same period, emissions of volatile organic compounds remained steady, whereas emissions of sulphur dioxide, black smoke, oxides of nitrogen, carbon dioxide and methane all fell. Despite the improvement in overall air quality there remain significant areas, particularly in congested urban centres, which still experience relatively high levels of pollution. The risk of more widespread episodes of high pollution will also continue for some years.

- 7.4.11 In 1995 the United Kingdom Government introduced a new framework for dealing with outstanding air quality problems. Under the Environment Act 1995, the Government will prepare a national air quality strategy⁽¹⁰⁾. This will include standards and objectives for air quality together with the steps the Government is taking to achieve these aims and the action that it will expect others to take.

- 7.4.12 The United Nations Climate Change Convention requires developed countries to aim to return greenhouse gas emissions to 1990 levels by 2000. *Climate Change: The United Kingdom Programme*⁽¹¹⁾, published in January 1994, sets out the policies and measures designed to achieve this aim. For carbon dioxide, the main greenhouse gas, the programme covers all sectors of the economy and highlights the scope for reducing emissions through improved energy efficiency and less carbon intensive electricity generation. The programme

emphasises the contribution of voluntary action within a fiscal, regulatory and institutional framework set by government. On the basis of energy projections published earlier this year, the United Kingdom now expects that carbon dioxide emissions in the year 2000 will be some 4-8% below 1990 levels.

To reduce noise levels

- 7.4.13 The main cause of complaints to local authorities about noise and vibration relate to domestic, industrial and commercial premises. Complaints are also made about noise from road works, construction and demolition work, and traffic sources such as aircraft and railways. In England and Wales, complaints to local authorities about noise rose by some 150% in the ten year period up to 1993/94. A study carried out in 1990 found that in over 50% of the dwellings tested, noise levels exceeded World Health Organisation guidelines.
- 7.4.14 The majority of complaints relate to noise from neighbouring homes. Local authorities use a variety of methods to deal with complaints, including informal approaches such as mediation, as an alternative to using formal controls under noise and housing legislation. Some local authorities and housing associations have introduced probationary tenancies to supplement legal action.
- 7.4.15 The Department of Transport has responsibility for policy and legislation in relation to the various sources of transport noise. The overall approach is to reduce noise at source, through design and noise barriers, as well as the use of noise insulation on individual properties. In relation to road traffic noise, the approach has been to set noise limits for types of vehicles rather than regulate traffic flows. Traffic management schemes and the exclusion of heavy lorries (Box 7.6), the main cause of complaints, can reduce noise levels in specific areas. When new roads are built or existing roads substantially improved, the alignment chosen will aim to minimise noise⁽¹²⁾. Barriers and earth mounding to protect areas from traffic noise may be incorporated. Noise insulation will be provided for homes if noise levels exceed 68dB(L10 18 hr).
- 7.4.16 Following considerable public demand, the Mitchell Committee was set up in 1990 to identify national noise insulation standards for the operation of new railway lines on an equitable basis with new or improved roads. Draft regulations provide for noise insulation where noise levels on new or substantially altered railways exceed 68dB_{L_{Aeq}} 18hr (day) and 63dB_{L_{Aeq}}

6hr (night). Noise barriers have been provided along existing railway lines where noise levels have increased due to intensification of use following the opening of the Channel Tunnel. In advance of regulations, local concerns prompted the development of policy for noise and vibration levels on an extension to the Docklands Light Railway and the surface sections of a new London Underground line.

- 7.4.17 National guidance issued to local planning authorities in 1994⁽¹³⁾, includes recommended noise levels for new dwellings near to major transport and mixed noise sources. In addition, if it is anticipated that a proposed development could create high levels of noise, either from the activities or as a result of the traffic generated, conditions to limit noise can be applied to the planning permission. However, if it is considered that practical measures will not reduce noise to an acceptable level, the development may be refused.

To enhance water quality

- 7.4.18 In England and Wales the percentage of good quality rivers has risen over the last few years and there has been an overall improvement in quality. Between 1990 and 1994 there was a net improvement of 26.1% in river quality in England and Wales. During this period the proportion of good quality rivers increased from 47.7% to 58.8%. On the basis of the classification schemes used in Northern Ireland and Scotland, 72% and 97% of rivers respectively are considered to be of good quality.
- 7.4.19 In England and Wales the improvements reflect the effectiveness of regulation and enforcement action by the National Rivers Authority, the level of water industry investment in improved sewerage and sewage treatment, and better farming and industrial practices.



River Darent, Kent

Extraction and low rainfall have led to dried up rivers.

Box 7.6

Windsor Lorry Ban

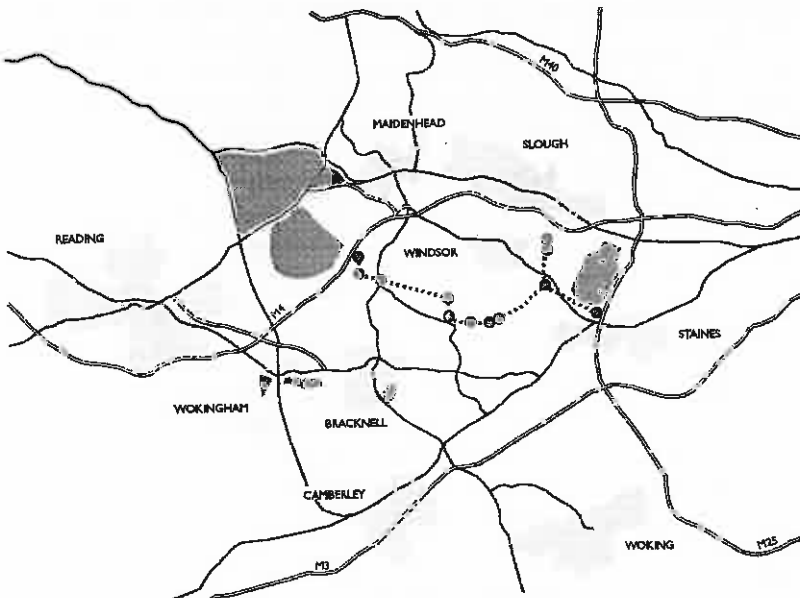
Windsor is a small town in Berkshire, near to the M4 and M40 motorways, on the banks of the River Thames. Prior to the opening of the M25 motorway, heavy lorries used Windsor as part of a through route. Windsor and the surrounding villages have old buildings and narrow streets. Tourists and shoppers through the main streets and there was concern about the effects of lorries in terms of noise, fumes and size, upon the number of visitors and the quality of life of local residents.

Berkshire County Council introduced the following measures:

- a cordon was created around Windsor to prevent lorries passing through the town to reach the nearby motorway;

- vehicles over 17 tonnes gross weight are banned from sections of roads within this cordons;
- to avoid knock on effects of lorries by-passing Windsor, lorries over 7.5 gross tonnes are banned from local sensitive villages;
- some vehicles are exempt, including petrol and milk tankers delivering in the area, and agricultural vehicles; and
- lorries seeking access to deliver within Windsor can obtain permits to enter the area.

The ban has been retained to control lorry movements because congestion on the M25 deflects lorries onto alternative routes. Pedestrianisation and environmental improvements are now proposed for the town centre of Windsor.



Major Vehicle Restrictions, Windsor, Berkshire
A cordon has been created to prevent through movement of lorries.

- Motorway
- Roads
- Location of 17 tonnes gross weight limit
- 7.5 tonnes gross weight limit except for access



Windsor

Further action to improve water quality is proposed by:

- higher standards of sewage treatment to improve the quality of water discharged to rivers;
- the regulation and reduction of the use of pesticides and nitrates by agriculture; and
- the introduction of more Nitrate Sensitive Areas

and Nitrate Advisory Areas where levels of nitrate in the water supply are a cause for concern.

7.4.20 Water companies have investment programmes to improve treatment and supply infrastructure. Currently, 97% of properties are connected to sewers. Sewage from 90% of properties is treated prior to discharge. The Government is proposing to test procedures for implementation of statutory water quality objectives in a small number of catchments. A remaining source of pollution is the discharge of inadequately treated and untreated sewage into coastal waters. However, the water industry's £2 billion bathing water improvement programme and progressive implementation of the European Directive on Urban Waste Water Treatment are significantly reducing pollution from this source.

7.4.21 The quality of drinking water is generally very high. During 1994, the water companies in England and Wales carried out some 3.5 million tests on drinking water. Of these tests 99.3% met the standards set out in the European Drinking Water Quality Directive. In Scotland and Northern Ireland, testing has been carried out by government departments and equally high standards were found.

7.4.22 Overall water usage has increased by 4% since 1980. In dry years, reduced river flows, particularly in the South and East of England, affect water quality, wildlife and the appearance of rivers. Locally, abstractions significantly reduced flows. In some areas the gap between demand and reliable yield is narrowing, increasing the possibility of shortages in very dry summers. The Government and the relevant control agencies will require a more sustainable approach to water supply on the part of the water companies, including more active demand management and the restoration of low flows in rivers depleted by over abstraction⁽¹⁴⁾.

To reduce areas of derelict and contaminated land

7.4.23 There are nearly 60,000 hectares of land officially classed as derelict in England, Wales and Scotland. This represents a reduction of 16% since 1973/75. Although derelict land is equally distributed between urban and rural authorities, there is a concentration in the older industrial regions in Scotland, Wales and the north of England and in the inner urban areas of large conurbations. The recorded reduction has been greatest in London and the West Midlands. English Partnerships provide financial assistance to enable derelict land to be brought back into beneficial use.

Box 7.7

Space for Nature in Middlesbrough: A Nature Conservation Plan

Middlesbrough (population 141,600) is an industrial town which has suffered severe environmental pollution. The district council has produced a comprehensive plan for nature conservation and the enhancement of wildlife areas within its urban area.

The plan, based on local information and wide consultation with the public

and voluntary groups, was prepared to take account of existing policies, new developments in urban nature conservation, and advice from national and local organisations. It provides the basis for, and the detail behind, the wildlife section of the local plan and contains site-specific recommendations

The council has pledged its commitment to the principles of planning for wildlife and people, and recognises the importance of involving residents in the design and management of local spaces



Middlesbrough, Cleveland

Habitat creation in urban areas supported by the local community.



Middlesbrough

7.4.24 Some derelict land is contaminated by past activity which can pose actual or potential risks to health and the environment, and act to prevent easy redevelopment of the land. Pollution control legislation aims to prevent or minimise the contamination of land. The Environment Act 1995 introduced a specific regime for the control of contaminated land, using a 'suitable for use' approach which relates remediation requirements to the environmental setting of the land and its current use⁽¹⁵⁾. This approach enables contamination to be tackled in an orderly and controlled fashion without imposing unnecessary financial and regulatory burdens that could discourage private sector investment. The private sector has, in the past, contributed to the reinstatement of contaminated land and its use for housing and other urban uses.

To protect habitats and species

7.4.25 Nature Reserves and Sites of Special Scientific Interest are under strict planning control. English Nature and the other statutory bodies for nature protection designate the sites; are involved in the



Dalmuir, Scotland

Former Ministry of Defence site re-used for housing.

preparation of development plans; advise on policies to protect important sites; and are consulted on applications for planning permission affecting a site. Many local authorities, together with voluntary groups such as county naturalists' trusts, have developed and managed habitats and undertaken environmental improvements in towns as well as the countryside. The objective has been to protect natural habitats, eco-systems, and wildlife, but also to increase awareness and understanding about their nature and importance (Box 7.7).

7.5 Pointers for the Future

7.5.1 Key issues which future policy will have to address include:

- **reducing or managing the demand for resources**, particularly with respect to the use of water and the production of waste to benefit the environment without adversely affecting people's lives or economic output;
- **regulation, taxation and pricing policies have different roles** and should be used where appropriate to complement one another and to reinforce 'greener' environmental behaviour without excessive regulation;
- **land use controls can complement pollution control regimes and have a role to play in environmental protection** and the creation of healthy cities by ensuring that established uses are not adversely affected by new activities and infrastructure and that the sites proposed for

particular uses such as housing are of good environmental quality;

- **the precautionary principle** requires the full investigation, prediction, mitigation and monitoring of potentially harmful effects. Where scientific evidence is not conclusive, significant risks should be avoided and research and investigation should continue;

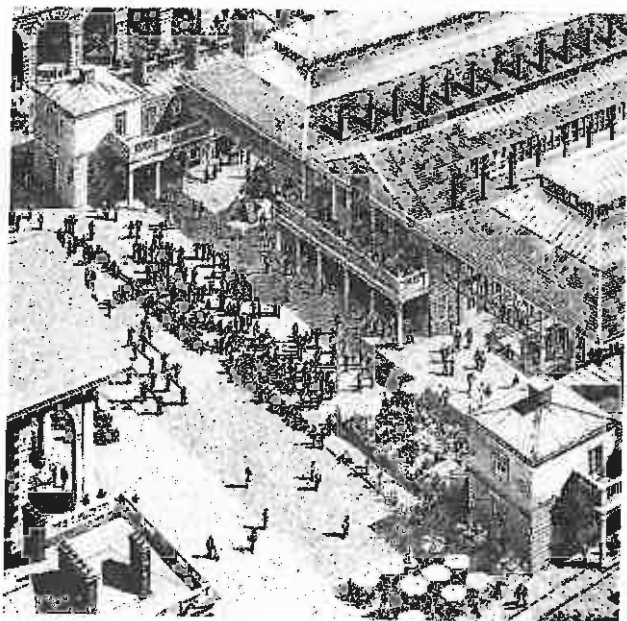
- **direct action to reduce traffic levels** may be required in some areas because, despite tighter standards for new vehicles, emissions from older cars combined with rising traffic overall are now the major cause of poor air quality; and

- **environmental audits and environmental management systems** can provide a focus to develop 'greener' policies in organisations based on reviews of processes, management, the use of materials and design.

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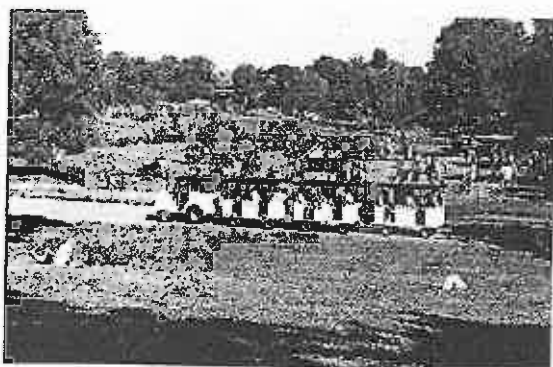
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URBAN 8 QUALITY



Covent Garden, London

A focal point for market and leisure activities since the 17th century. The square was designed by Inigo Jones.



Crystal Palace Park, London Borough of Bromley
Open space is a vital ingredient of urban quality.

8.1 Introduction

8.1.1 Earlier chapters have highlighted the trends towards dispersed patterns of living and working. If the United Kingdom is to halt or reverse these trends in order to achieve more sustainable development, action to improve the environmental quality of its existing urban areas will play an important part. People should be able to enjoy safe, well designed streets and open spaces and have access to social and cultural activities. If people are able to exercise choice about where they live or invest, it will be influenced by their experience of life in urban areas. The continued ability to attract investment to create employment opportunities, reclaim derelict areas and stimulate new activities will depend upon the image an area presents as well as the other business locational factors.

8.1.2 Large scale and rapid changes have taken place in British villages, town and cities which have altered their appearance and often destroyed or reduced their character and local distinctiveness. Road systems have reduced the ease with which people can move around on foot and the human scale has been lost. The liveliness of urban centres, which are traditional meeting points, has been reduced by declining trade and the loss of entertainment and cultural facilities. The buildings and sites abandoned following economic change, detract from the image of an area. Crime and the fear of crime is a major concern. It can deter people from going out at night and has influenced moves away from some urban areas, making the problem worse.

8.1.3 The need to provide attractive places for people and to create the right image to attract investment has focused attention on how to secure good design. Skills and approaches are being rediscovered or invented. The creation of attractive settlements depends upon the development of a shared vision of what is to be created and how it is to be achieved. In the United Kingdom, this proactive approach has been based upon civic leadership and partnership developed between the local authority, the resident and business community and other key actors.

8.1.4 In terms of streets and spaces, a development framework should be provided which will guide design of individual buildings and encourage public and private investment. Underpinning this approach should be the recognition that it is not enough to consider one building in isolation: the relationship between buildings and spaces is also important. Conservation and enhancement should equally be objectives of the strategy. Identifying and meeting the needs of all users for access and movement and creating a sense of security are important if all are to use and enjoy urban places.

8.2 Context and Trends

- 8.2.1 The form of development to meet new requirements, using new building techniques and materials, has increased the impact of change. Urban centres have been transformed by comprehensive development schemes to meet the needs of modern retailing. The growth of car use, and the provision made for it, have changed the scale and appearance of many existing town centres. Multi-storey car parks, wide roads and complex junctions have replaced familiar buildings and human scale streets, creating barriers to pedestrian movement. Office buildings have become more demanding in terms of services, and have increased in size. Areas devoted solely to such uses become deserted at the end of the working day.
- 8.2.2 Private developers and house builders, although providing house types which are well-liked, have too often adopted standard approaches in terms of building design, layout and materials regardless of location. Short term economies in the use of materials have been made. This has resulted in standardised designs which do not reflect the local context. Social housing, on the other hand, has in recent years seen considerable innovation in building type and layout.



Whitfield, Dundee, Scotland

Abandoned, vandalised buildings where businesses were driven out.

- 8.2.3 Rising crime and the fear of crime have been key features of the period since 1976. This had a direct influence on the quality of life and satisfaction with urban living. Concentrations of crime can create areas that people avoid and where businesses, residents and visitors are driven out, making the situation worse. The causes of crime and vandalism are complex but desolate, sterile and featureless areas create a sense of alienation. Badly maintained, empty and vandalised buildings and spaces suggest that an area is unsafe. The very absence of people on the street allows crime to flourish⁽¹⁾.
- 8.2.4 Open space has an important role to play in the quality of settlements⁽²⁾. It gives form to the urban area and provides the opportunity for sport and recreation. Parks and other open spaces also provide opportunities for people to meet, socialise and enjoy cultural activities. In urban areas they allow people to enjoy nature. In recent years, private open spaces such as former school playing fields, have been lost to development. The amount of money spent on parks has fallen with a result that maintenance and facilities have deteriorated and there are fewer security patrols. There is an urgent need to revitalise our parks to meet today's needs, notwithstanding public funding constraints⁽³⁾.
- 8.2.5 The United Kingdom has a legacy of domestic, public and industrial historic buildings which are valued in their own right and for their contribution to the street scene or town. These often fall within wider conservation areas whose character enriches many towns and villages and where new development has to be in keeping with the old. Maintaining or creating an economic rationale and use for historic buildings and conservation areas has formed a key element in the United Kingdom approach to conservation.
- 8.2.6 A major objective of land use planning is to protect and enhance amenity, the quality of design being one of the factors taken into account in planning decisions. Despite planning controls, too many mediocre or even ugly buildings have displaced familiar buildings and spoil the distinctive local character of many areas. Past approaches have failed to manage rapid and large scale change in a way which enhances the character of settlements. Concern about what has happened has focused attention on the need to improve the convenience and beauty of streets, spaces and buildings. The approaches to design which were used to create new towns such as Letchworth and Milton Keynes have not been consistently applied to regeneration projects or major urban expansions.
- 8.2.7 Changes in behaviour have affected the social and cultural life of towns. People have more time and money to spend on recreation and leisure activities and they demand higher standards and greater choice. Home entertainment in the form of videos, cable and satellite television and the internet have become popular, while visits to cinemas, theatres, art galleries, and eating out and general social outings are also rising. At the local level there is considerable community involvement in welfare work, sport, amateur dramatics, as well as environmental movements. These activities need the right type of buildings and open spaces.

Box 8.1

Actors Involved in Securing Good Design

Central Government

The Department of the Environment takes a direct lead in promoting good design by policy guidance and advice notes, commissioning research and encouraging debate. The Government is also a major patron, commissioning new public buildings.

Local Government

Local plans contain guidelines for the design of individual buildings and areas. Development control considers the quality of buildings and their relationship to the surrounding buildings as well as the convenience for users.

English Heritage, Cadw (in Wales), Historic Scotland and Department of the Environment (Northern Ireland)

These bodies have statutory responsibility for the protection and enhancement of historic buildings, conservation areas and archaeology.

Royal Fine Art Commission/Royal Fine Art Commission for Scotland

The Commissions are independent bodies of eminent architects, designers and lay people who advise on architecture, urban design and public amenity and promote good design.

English Historic Towns Forum, Historic Boroughs Association of Scotland

Contact groups of local authorities responsible for the management of important historic towns and cities. They aim to promote a corporate approach to economic needs and conservation and disseminate good practice.

National Trust and National Trust for Scotland

The National Trusts are one of the earliest and now the largest conservation body in the United Kingdom. The Trusts acquire by purchase or gift, buildings, gardens and parks, countryside and coastal areas, often with an endowment to provide an income to

secure the future maintenance of properties. The Trusts are not allowed to sell property once acquired.

Civic Trust

An independent charity which aims to create, enhance and sustain the quality of the built environment, the local community and economy in partnership with the community and businesses, by practical projects, awareness campaigns and award schemes. It has over 5,000 local branches.

Conservation and Amenity Societies

These societies often focus on a local area or park, e.g. Friends of Highgate Cemetery. They may undertake survey, research or practical work to improve the area.

Professional Bodies

These represent the professions involved in urban design. They campaign for better design and offer awards for good design. They include:

- Royal Institute of British Architects
- Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors
- Royal Town Planning Institute

Urban Design Group

Group of professional architects and planners in England with the two objectives of promoting high professional standards and inter-professional co-operation in planning, urban design and related disciplines and educating professionals and the public about urban design.

Police Authorities

Have established community fora to discuss local crime issues, and to provide guidance in designing out crime.

National Playing Fields Association

A United Kingdom charity with the responsibility for the acquisition, protection and improvement of playing fields, playgrounds and playspace. It provides specialist advice and support for local government, community groups, business and commercial organisations, individuals and play and sports clubs.

8.2.8 A key lesson in relation to securing a high quality built environment through the good design of buildings and places is that they should meet the needs of users. This means involving people in the design process. A large number of professional and official organisations as well as individuals and community groups in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland are involved in securing good quality urban and rural environments (Box 8.1).

8.3 Viewpoints

8.3.1 Because of the level of interest in the quality of buildings, streets and spaces, including crime related issues, a fierce debate has raged about design issues and architectural styles and solutions. The issues debated include:

- the impact of rigid approaches to conservation and the protection of historic buildings, which could compromise the establishment of new uses for old buildings and areas to secure their long term future;
- mediocre and dull environments could be created if pastiche copies of historic and vernacular styles are promoted in preference to innovative and exciting new architecture;
- the reluctance of some in the professions to debate and justify proposals to planning committees and the public, or to recognise the right of others to comment on design matters;
- parks and other open spaces have often been neglected so that they may be unattractive, perceived to be unsafe and little used;



Exchange Square, Broadgate, City of London
Redevelopment around a major railway terminal, as well as providing new office space, has created a place for local workers and visitors to enjoy throughout the year.

- the current emphasis upon intensifying development in urban areas could lead to a greater reduction of open space; and
- the lasting benefits of initiatives to reduce crime in any particular area have yet to be established and they may displace crime from one area to another.

8.4 Policies and Objectives

8.4.1 The overall objective to maintain and enhance the quality of life for people can be considered through six specific objectives, relating to how, in the United Kingdom, policy and practice has sought to:

- maintain and enhance the quality of the built environment and encourage high standards of design;
- protect and enhance the vitality and viability of town centres;
- protect and enhance the built heritage and re-use old buildings;
- create and maintain safe and secure living environments;
- protect and enhance the community, cultural and social life of settlements; and
- meet needs for open space and recreation in urban areas.

To maintain and enhance the quality of the built environment and encourage high standards of design

8.4.2 The importance of maintaining and enhancing the quality of the built environment has been highlighted by the Government's initiative on *Quality in Town and Country* which was launched in July 1994⁽⁴⁾. The aim of the Quality Initiative is:

- to raise awareness of the importance of good design and quality both in individual buildings and in the built environment more generally;
- to encourage debate and stimulate ideas about how best to achieve quality in the future; and
- to challenge others to see what they are prepared to do to achieve quality.

8.4.3 The Quality Initiative is concerned with the quality of the entire built environment, both urban and

rural. This includes not only buildings but also parks, open spaces, roads and the way buildings relate to these and to each other⁽⁵⁾. A relative consensus on the principles of good design has emerged⁽⁶⁾, including the following:

- places are as important as buildings, and care should be taken with the spaces between buildings;
- the need to learn from the past without creating a pastiche copy;
- mixed uses and activities with people working, living, shopping and playing in the same area, create lively, safe environments;
- human scale and interest at street level are important;
- freedom of pedestrian movement is important and can be achieved by creating pedestrian routes through developments and between buildings;
- accessibility is for everyone, and although the impact of the car should be reduced, access for all to activities, buildings and other resources is required;
- people need to know where they are and to be able to find their way about;
- environments should be robust and long lasting, and the materials used should look good and wear well;
- change should be small scale and incremental, repairing the damage of past unsympathetic development; and
- all these elements should be brought together to create an attractive, busy and well-used public realm.



South Woodham Ferrers, Essex

A design guide encouraged local styles and sympathetic road layouts.

8.4.4 Good practice in achieving good quality design includes:

- design guidance;
- site development and design briefs; and
- urban design strategies.

8.4.5 Design Guides seek to upgrade the quality of development by providing indicative layouts with more sympathetic road designs and landscaping⁽⁷⁾. They also identify traditional design features and materials and encourage developments of high quality in keeping with the locality. Unfortunately, they often provide standardised solutions both in the locality and in other parts of the country as they can be copied too slavishly.

8.4.6 Development and design briefs are useful area and site specific tools. They aim to facilitate good quality development by proposing the most appropriate forms of development for a site, including forms which are visually well related to their settings. Such briefs were, for example, a prerequisite for the redevelopment of London's abandoned docks. Good design briefs are well illustrated with photographs, diagrams, and indicative designs, often using computer aided design, photomontages and models.



Surrey Quays, London Borough of Southwark
The development brief commissioned by the London Docklands Development Corporation guided this high density urban development.

8.4.7 Urban design strategies for large areas are now being developed, usually involving economic regeneration, the enhancement of the existing fabric, the identification of development sites, infrastructure investment and the knitting of old and new together. Problems of access and linkages for pedestrians and vehicles are also important considerations. The approach is one which provides a framework to guide public and private investment and which is sufficiently robust to cope with the uncertainties of the market. The city of

Birmingham is one United Kingdom city which has developed such a strategy to improve the physical environment together with social and cultural life in the city centre (Box 8.2).



Birmingham

A new convention centre has created an area with its own character.

8.4.8 An important element in design is to provide for the specific needs of different groups in society, including the less mobile, those with disabilities and the elderly. For disabled people, advice and guidance has been produced in consultation with disability groups and is reinforced by legislation to ensure their access to all new buildings to which the general public have access. Ease of access to existing buildings and movement around public areas, particularly town centres, is of particular concern to women who are more likely to be on foot, have the care of children, the elderly and disabled.

To protect and enhance the vitality and viability of town centres

8.4.9 Traditional shopping centres have lost trade to out-of-town shopping centres and retail parks with plenty of parking space and good road access. In England and Wales, unlike Scotland, where major greenfield out-of-town centres have not been approved, population growth and increased spending power in some areas appeared to justify new centres. However, out-of-town centres are not



generally accessible by people without cars and are usually difficult to serve economically by public transport. They generate additional car journeys. Current Government policy is to place emphasis on existing town centres and to promote measures to improve their vitality and viability⁽⁸⁾ (Box 8.3).

Birmingham

Box 8.2

City of Birmingham, European Business Centre

The city of Birmingham is at the heart of the West Midlands conurbation, (population 2.5 million). The decline of vehicle manufacturing led the council to identify a new role for Birmingham as a European Business Centre. A key element in the economic development strategy is the improvement of the image of the city as a place to live, work and visit. An extensive consultation process established a vision to guide future policy. The strategy comprises:

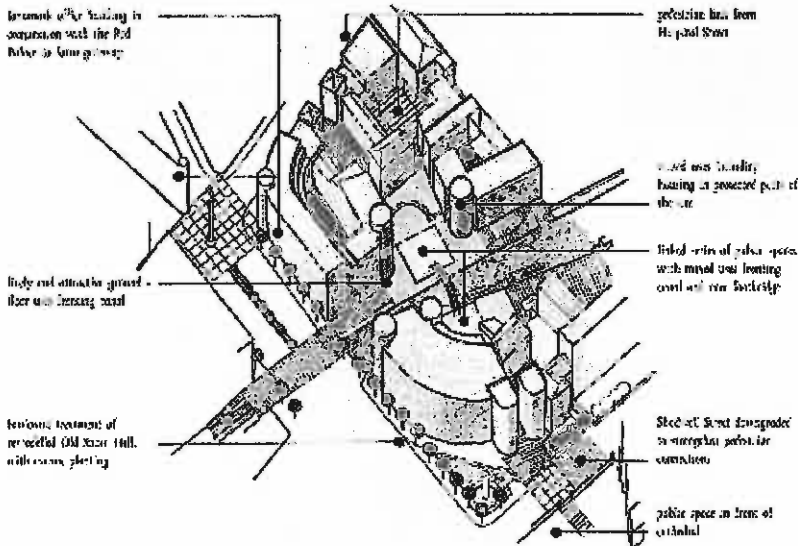
- *a shared vision of a new city and a partnership between public and private sectors;*
- *a proactive approach, to guide private investment and public environmental improvements;*
- *the identification of the different quarters of Birmingham which relate to its industrial past - the gun quarter, the jewellery quarter - and buildings,*

streets and spaces which created their character; together with a new economic rationale for each quarter that would underpin future renewal;

- *the creation of new quarters with a distinctive character eg convention centre;*
- *enhancing the identity of existing areas, eg civic centre focused on the town hall;*
- *a public realm strategy for the whole area, including:*
 - *new public squares and places;*
 - *enhanced physical links, particularly pedestrian links, between quarters and city centre;*
 - *pedestrianisation of key parts of the city centre; and*
 - *high quality detailed design;*
- *the identification of development opportunities;*
- *measures to enhance cultural life, including a new concert hall and establishing Birmingham as the home of the Birmingham Royal Ballet.*

8.4.10 Town centres are now starting to fight back by emphasising their advantages over out of town centres in terms of their accessibility by public transport; their cultural and recreational facilities such as libraries, theatres, cinemas, museums and parks; and the range of informal social opportunities that they offer⁽⁹⁾. The approach has been to forge partnerships between local authorities, major landowners, major stores, residential and business communities to co-ordinate action and manage town centres as a whole. This has involved car parking strategies, traffic management, environmental improvement programmes, video camera security monitoring, as well as support for markets, street musicians and other theatrical events in the street. A national Association of Town Centre Managers has been established.

8.4.11 In addition, support for night-time activities to enliven town centres out of shopping hours, is recognised as being important. For example, the Leeds 24-Hour City Initiative has persuaded businesses to extend opening hours and increase evening visitors. Encouragement for residential uses in town centres, by bringing back in to use empty properties above shops, and by new residential development and conversions, can also enhance the liveliness of town centres.



St Chad's Circus, Gun Quarter, Birmingham

Urban design concepts were set out for the different parts of the Gun Quarter to guide future development.



Leeds, West Yorkshire

Lighting, extended opening hours, and special attractions keep the city centre alive at night.

Box 8.3

Actions to protect and enhance the vitality and viability of town centres

Many town, suburban and rural centres in the United Kingdom have shown signs of decline. This has been brought about by a reduction in retail spending but also by competition between centres and changes to shopping patterns particularly the growth of out-of-town retailing. A report on good practice in England has identified some key actions to protect and enhance town centres which are:

- local authorities should keep the health of town centres under review by reference to indicators such as rental yield, pedestrian flows, changes in use and vacancies;
- strategies should seek to improve the attractions, accessibility and amenity;
- higher standards of town centre management should be promoted;
- investment in key sites should be encouraged by positive planning based on an overall vision and strategy for implementation;
- user-friendly public transport should form part of town centre strategies and could include bus priority routes, good travel information, waiting and interchange facilities and through ticketing;
- national organisations - eg English Heritage, housing associations, tourist boards - with their wide experience of town centre diversification, development and funding problems should offer technical assistance to the many small local authorities with town centre problems;
- a positive climate for investment should be created by emphasising town centres as fashionable places to live and to enjoy; and
- longer term problems of town centres will need to be addressed.



Eldon Square, Newcastle upon Tyne, Tyne and Wear
A shopping centre, served by a metro system, has reinforced the existing city centre.

opportunities, education, training and recreation, as well as good design, can improve the quality of life and reduce the incidence of crime. At the local level, partnerships between the police, local communities and businesses have been formed to make areas safer for the people who live and work there.

- 8.4.13 Estate improvement and Single Regeneration Budget projects, described in Chapters 5 and 6 have paid special attention to the concerns about security expressed by local residents and businesses. The police can provide specialist advice on the location, layout and design of developments. Police forces in the United Kingdom employ Architectural Liaison Officers and police officers are given additional training to enable them to provide this crime prevention advice, known as Secured by Design.

To protect and enhance our built heritage and re-use old buildings

- 8.4.14 The British heritage of listed buildings, historic landscapes, old parts of towns and villages, together with archaeological remains is a finite, non-renewable resource. It requires appropriate management to ensure that it survives in good condition. There is specific legislation (Box 8.5) and guidance whose aim is to protect listed buildings, monuments, conservation areas⁽¹¹⁾ and archaeological remains⁽¹²⁾. Once a building is listed, any alterations have to be carefully designed to avoid damage to its architectural and historic character. There is the assumption that such buildings should not be demolished. In some circumstances, however, redevelopment may be accepted although much would normally depend on the merits of the replacement building. In conservation areas, any proposed development should preserve or enhance that area.

Box 8.4

General Principles for planning for crime prevention

The following design principles are contained in Planning Advice Note 46 (Scotland) and Department of the Environment Circular S194 'Planning out Crime'.

- natural surveillance of space by passers by and adjoining users;
- private spaces should have defined boundaries so that people feel responsible for them and trespassers feel uncomfortable;
- landscaping should not create hiding places;
- lighting can expose criminal activity while engendering a feeling of security amongst legitimate users of public space;
- access points for pedestrians and vehicles should be clearly defined and follow clear routes; and
- car parks should be located where they can be clearly seen and well-lit.

To create and maintain safe and secure living environments

- 8.4.12 Crime and vandalism are a major concern. Successful crime prevention strategies entail action in many policy areas⁽¹⁰⁾. Improved employment

8.4.15 Emphasis is placed upon maintaining economic uses for buildings and areas so that their protection can be funded largely by the users. Saltaire, near Bradford, a nineteenth century village built for industrial workers, illustrates how buildings have been adapted to a variety of uses including an art gallery, commercial enterprises and tourist facilities. Other conversions include Dock Warehouses into homes and art galleries, churches and schools into homes, offices, community centres and heritage centres, Power Stations into Art Galleries and Railway Stations into Exhibition Centres. In London, old market buildings and spaces around Covent Garden have been transformed into a lively business, retail, restaurant and entertainment area to which crowds flock everyday, despite once being scheduled for comprehensive re-development.

8.4.16 Many areas of Britain have a rich archaeological heritage. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, developments on greenfield sites exposed the remains of former settlements, while re-development in historic urban areas often entailed the excavation of deep foundations, which destroyed archaeological remains where they existed. An approach has since been formulated which dovetails archaeological exploration and construction. Areas where there is a great potential for archaeological remains are identified in local plans and the local planning authority can require a

developer to undertake a field excavation prior to the granting of planning approval (Box 8.6).



London Bridge, London Borough of Southwark
Archaeological excavation of Roman multi-coloured mosaic pavement during the construction of a new underground railway.

To protect and enhance the community, cultural and social life in settlements

8.4.17 Many of Britain's art galleries, concert halls and theatres were established by public benefactors and public subscription, and more recently by central and local government. Many are still managed by trusts and charities, while some are commercial enterprises. The provision of such venues can both enhance the cultural life of settlements and act as catalyst in an overall strategy of urban regeneration. In both Birmingham and Belfast, new concert halls are playing a key role in the regeneration of the central area, the local economy and cultural life.

8.4.18 At the more local level, the cultural and social life of the community will depend in part upon the availability of meeting places for various social, welfare and voluntary activities. In established residential areas, churches and church halls have been particularly important in providing meeting places. They have been adapted to provide for a wide range of community needs, ranging from day centres for the elderly, advice centres, play groups, and meeting places for guides and scouts. The ongoing funding of such facilities can be a problem, despite income from letting rooms. In large new developments, the developer may be prepared to set aside sites for facilities such as churches, halls and schools to support community life (Box 8.7). In some cases, trusts are established to manage and fund such facilities.

Box 8.5 Legislation

Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Areas Act 1979

- requires preparation of a schedule of Ancient Monuments and provision for their protection;
- provides for archaeological surveys in advance of construction and for rescue archaeology; and
- provides for the identification of Areas of Archaeological Importance to provide advance warning to developers and increase the protection given to archaeology in such areas.

National Heritage Act 1983 provides for:

- the establishment of the Historic Buildings and Ancient Monuments Commission, now called English Heritage in England, Cadw in Wales and Historic Scotland;
- compilation of lists of buildings of

special architectural or historic interest; and

- *specialist advice to be available.*

Planning (Listed Buildings and Conservation Areas) Act 1990 (consolidating earlier legislation)

- provides for the listing of buildings of special architectural or historic interest, in respect of which:
 - listed building consent is required for alteration or demolition;
 - English Heritage, Cadw or Historic Scotland should be consulted;
- provides for the designation of conservation areas, in respect of which:
 - development should preserve or enhance the character or appearance of the area;
 - demolition of buildings is controlled;
 - all trees are protected; and
 - provides for grants to undertake restoration work on listed buildings and in conservation areas.



Craigavon

Box 8.9

Green spaces in urban areas:
Lurgan Park, Craigavon

Lurgan Park covers 80 hectares near to the centre of Lurgan, County Armagh, Northern Ireland. The park is the landscaped grounds of an important listed building and includes a lake, grassland and woodland. Since the 1960s, spending on maintenance and new facilities has decreased. Vandalism, under age drinking and sectarian problems associated with 'The Troubles', had meant that the park had become a no go area for many people. The borough council responsible for the park took action to protect the historic landscape and to make it a safe place for recreation for all the community. The action comprised:

- a management plan to identify conservation strategies and improvements to the facilities;
- a ranger service to patrol the park and discourage misuse;
- educational activities to help people understand and appreciate the environment;
- involving local children, who might previously have caused damage to the park, in improvements, including planting and building bird nesting boxes; and
- a group 'Friends of Lurgan Park', was set up to involve them in improvements and ensure better appreciation and use.

The park is now perceived as a safe and relaxing place and has more visitors.



Lurgan Park, Craigavon, Northern Ireland

Local children help a Park Ranger to plant trees.



Bethnal Green

Box 8.10

Attlee Adventure Playground,
Bethnal Green, London

The Attlee Foundation was established by public subscription to commemorate the life and work of Clement Attlee, British Prime Minister 1945-1951. The Adventure Playground is supported by the foundation together with the local authorities, city institutions, city luxury companies and individuals.

The adventure playground is located in a deprived area with poor housing conditions, little open space and high levels of unemployment. Many ethnic groups are represented and many children have special needs because of learning, behavioural and physical problems. The main features of the scheme are as follows:

- paid play leaders who reflect the ethnic composition of users and speak Bengali, Hindi, Urdu and English and have training in sign language;
- volunteer help is regularly used;
- activities include crafts, cookery, library games and homework clubs;
- outdoor activities include a splash pool, climbing structures, football, gardening and free play;
- visits are made to local places of interest, larger parks, swimming pools and theatres;
- girl-only sessions to meet the cultural preferences of parents; and
- holiday projects are organised.



Attlee Adventure Playground, Bethnal Green, London

Cooking sessions led by a parent are popular.

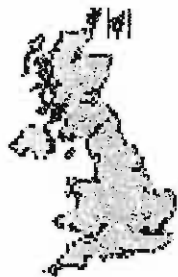
8.5 Pointers for the Future

8.5.1 In working towards more sustainable cities, towns and villages, the following design considerations should be recognised:

- **good urban quality and good design have a direct relationship to the creation of sustainable settlements:** they are key factors in maintaining the attraction of urban areas;
- **a good urban environment depends upon the development of a vision shared by the local authority, the resident and business community and potential key players such as tourist, heritage, cultural and transport organisations, of a place's future role;**
- **the creation of 'people friendly' environments requires special approaches** which are area wide and look at all the factors that interact to create good environments;
- **local distinctiveness and character should be identified** and new development should aim to enhance these qualities and repair the effects of unsuccessful past development;
- **special urban design skills are required** to improve the public realm, together with the ability to communicate and listen to public concerns and an understanding of private sector and funding regimes; and
- **public commitment and funding for key features may be required to provide confidence to attract private investment.**

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London Borough
of Southwark

Box 8.6

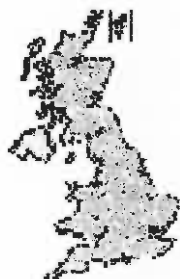
Archaeological exploration of a construction site - National Wharf, London Borough of Southwark

A development proposal in an area of archaeological potential followed the approach set out in Planning Policy Guidance note 16, *Archaeology and Planning*.

- the developer was informed by the local planning authority that the site was of archaeological importance,
- prior to the planning application, the Museum of London Archaeology Service had been commissioned by the developer to undertake a field evaluation of the site,
- the four test pits were excavated and archaeological investigation was conducted alongside engineers' geotechnical work,
- the assessment revealed that a 15th to 17th century timber wall-front structure had survived and that mitigation measures would therefore be necessary,
- the engineer devised a scheme whereby the foundations to the previous 1930's development of the site could be reused, so avoiding the need for further damaging ground works; and
- this mitigation design was accepted by the planning authority and planning consent for the development was granted conditional upon the protection of the archaeological remains.

To meet needs for open space and recreation in urban areas

- 8.4.19 Within urban areas the approach to open space planning has become more sophisticated since 1976. Established approaches which relate the area of open space to the size of the population (e.g. the National Playing Fields Association 2.4 hectare/1000 population standard) have been complemented by methodologies which seek to take account of the distribution, accessibility and quality of open spaces and people's need for different types of open space (Box 8.8).
- 8.4.20 In many urban areas, new problems have emerged in relation to the use of open spaces. Vandalism, bullying and racial abuse cause parents anxiety about letting children play in some parks. Although children have the same need to play, different cultural customs need to be respected and this affects the use of parks by women and young girls. Local solutions to the design of facilities, their management and funding have been developed. Park development plans for individual parks are prepared to guide future investment and management. Local authorities increasingly ask the potential users of open spaces what improvements are required and what facilities should be provided. Local communities and other user groups are taking the initiative in the planning and management of open space. This will help to ensure that provision relates to local needs and that



Great Notley Garden Village

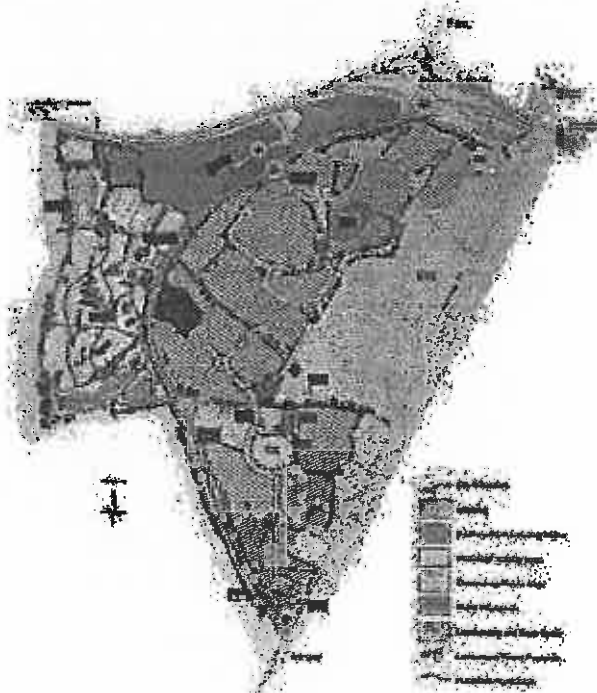
Box 8.7

Great Notley Garden Village

Great Notley Garden Village is a development of 2,000 new homes on 187 hectares in East Anglia, 30 minutes drive from Stansted Airport. It has been designed and promoted by one private developer, but other developers are involved in the different housing elements.

The development will take place over a number of years, in relation to housing demand. The facilities are being phased in as the population grows. The doctors surgery and playgroup are housed in temporary buildings. To date, 200 homes have been built and a further 150 are under construction. The development will include:

- 2,000 homes for sale, rent and shared ownership,
- a 1 hectare housing site given to the local authority,
- 10% of homes will be available to rent or be low cost homes, subject to a housing association obtaining funding,
- open space, recreation and leisure facilities, including a 40 hectare country park, sports hall and facilities,
- primary school and church,
- village centre including shops, village hall, pub and restaurant and health centre,
- the open space, school site and village hall will be handed over to the local authority, the health centre to the health authority, and
- a business park development.



Great Notley Garden Village, Essex

A new village under construction which incorporates a range of social and recreation facilities.

parks have a central place in the life of the community (Box 8.9).

8.4.21 Open spaces and play areas can be managed by local trusts and community organisations in a way which meets local needs. A play area in a densely developed, poor, multi-racial area such as Bethnal Green has to overcome language barriers, and provide a safe haven against racial harassment. Also, its management must ensure that the facility is not vandalised. The solution may be a supervised, highly organised playground such as

the Attlee Adventure Playground (Box 8.10).

8.4.22 Improvements to open spaces have played a key part in regeneration strategies supported under the City Challenge Scheme. Other innovations in the provision and funding of improvements to open spaces include agreements with the developer to provide land for parks as part of their development and the use of planning agreements and obligations (Appendix B).

Box 8.8

London Planning Advisory Committee Open Space Hierarchy

Type and main function	Approximate size and distance from home	Characteristics
<i>Regional Parks and Open Spaces (linked metropolitan open land and green belt corridors). Weekend and occasional visits by car or public transport.</i>	400 hectares 3.2 - 8 kilometres	Large areas and corridors of natural heathland, downland, commons, woodlands and parkland also including areas not publicly accessible but which contribute to the overall environmental amenity. Primarily providing for informal recreation with some non-intensive active recreation uses. Car parking at key locations.
<i>Metropolitan Parks. Weekend and occasional visits by car or public transport.</i>	60 hectares 3.2 kilometres or more where the park is appreciably larger	Either (i) natural heathland, downland, commons, woodland etc. or (ii) formal parks providing for both active and passive recreation. May contain playing fields, but at least 40 hectares for other pursuits. Adequate car parking.
<i>District Parks. Weekend and occasional visits by foot, cycle, car and short bus trips.</i>	20 hectares 1.2 kilometres	Landscape setting with a variety of natural features providing for a wide range of activities, including outdoor sports facilities and playing fields, children's play for different age groups, and informal recreation pursuits. Should provide some car parking.
<i>Local Parks. For pedestrian visitors.</i>	2 hectares 0.4 kilometres	Providing for court games, children's play, sitting-out areas, nature conservation, landscaped environment, and playing fields if the parks are large enough.
<i>Small Local Parks and Open Spaces. Pedestrian visits, especially by old people and children, particularly valuable in high density areas.</i>	up to 2 hectares up to 0.4 kilometres	Gardens, sitting-out areas, children's playgrounds or other areas of a specialist nature, including nature conservation areas.
<i>Linear Open Space. Pedestrian visits.</i>	Variable (Wherever feasible.)	Canal towpaths, paths, disused railways and other routes which provide opportunities for informal recreation, including nature conservation. Often areas which are not fully accessible to the public but contribute to the enjoyment of the space.

UNITED KINGDOM OVERSEAS ASSISTANCE

9



Sri Lanka
The Intermediate Technology Group worked with local agencies to develop simple fuel-efficient stoves that can be produced locally to save time collecting fuel and cooking.



Empowering women
The ODA finances and supports programmes to enhance the legal, political, social and economic status of women.

Supply of manufacturing equipment
Fibre concrete roofing tiles have been developed to provide permanent roof cladding based on raw materials available locally.

9.1 Introduction

- 9.1.1 The period since the Vancouver Declaration in 1976 has been marked by a massive increase in the world's population, particularly in developing countries. It has also seen significant urbanisation. Problems of poverty, shelter, infrastructure, health and environment now increasingly focus on urban areas.
- 9.1.2 The United Kingdom has long been one of the principal providers of assistance to developing countries. It has now extended its activities to include countries in transition in central and eastern Europe. The Government provides and funds overseas aid mainly through the Overseas Development Administration (ODA), which has many bilateral programmes and also contributes to multilateral aid agencies. British non-government organisations (voluntary bodies), consultants, and education and training institutions also play a major role, as does British investment and trade.
- 9.1.3 During the last 20 years, the United Kingdom has responded to the changing needs of developing and transitional countries and adapted its aid policies to reflect the greater emphasis now being placed on holistic approaches in relation to shelter and environmental concerns. This involves co-operation and partnerships with overseas governments, local authorities, other public agencies and voluntary bodies and increasingly aid is channelled via multilateral aid and development institutions.



9.2 Context and Trends

9.2.1 Since Habitat I focused international attention on urbanisation 20 years ago, the relevance of urban issues to the economic development of poorer countries has been steadily growing. By the year 2000, 45% of the population of developing

countries will be in urban areas, and these countries will account for 70% of the world's urban population. There are variations in urban population growth by region, but the whole developing world is urbanising rapidly. More urban growth is now due to natural increases in existing urban populations than to rural-urban migration. Urban growth also reflects increasing numbers of settlements being classified as urban centres as their populations expand⁽¹⁾.

Box 9.1

United Kingdom Actors Assisting Urban Development Overseas

A number of British agencies are active in promoting sustainable development and poverty reduction in poorer countries. Although few are concerned exclusively with urban and shelter issues, many support a range of urban projects, or are associated with wider programmes which benefit urban as well as rural people

The Overseas Development Administration

The Overseas Development Administration is responsible for administering official overseas aid for developing countries and assistance to central and eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. It also administers the Global Environmental Assistance programme, which helps developing countries play their part in protecting the global environment. The Overseas Development Administration is a part of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, a department of central government.

Non-Governmental Organisations

A large number of non-governmental organisations based in the United Kingdom are active in promoting development and technical capabilities overseas, in both rural and urban settings. Many non-governmental organisations rely heavily on public donations. Several United Kingdom-focused charities also give grants for projects in developing countries.

Commonwealth Development Corporation

The Commonwealth Development Corporation's purpose is to promote economic development in the countries

in which it operates, by providing loans, equity funds and management services for financially viable and developmentally sound business enterprises. Housing finance and urban water supply are two of the Commonwealth Development Corporation's shelter-related areas of work.

British Council

The British Council is Britain's principal agency for cultural relations abroad. It promotes a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language, and encourages cultural, scientific, technological and educational co-operation with other countries. Its main activities include information work, promoting exchanges and partnerships, and arts events

Local Government International Bureau and Others

The Local Government International Bureau operates a variety of technical, exchange and training programmes to assist local governments in central and eastern Europe, Africa and the Caribbean to build capacity and strengthen institutions for effective and democratic local government. Initiatives by other groups include United Kingdom cities 'twinning' with cities overseas to share experiences of implementing Local Agenda 21.

The Academic and Private Sectors

These sectors play a major role in the United Kingdom's involvement overseas through training, research, consultancy, investment and trade.

The British Consultants Bureau (BCB)

The BCB has a long established role as the focal point for British consultancy overseas and its members offer a wide range of consultancy skills and services

9.2.2 Economic activity is attracted to urban centres because businesses there find support services, economies of scale, skilled labour, and markets for their products. So urban growth is closely linked with expanding productive capacity and employment, and with enhancing efficiency in the economy. By 1989, more than half the Gross Domestic Product of developing countries was produced in urban areas.

9.2.3 In most developing countries, the planning, pricing and management of infrastructure and services have not given due regard to sustainability considerations, and so water, sanitation, waste disposal, power and telecommunications systems are insufficient and unreliable. In addition, traffic congestion and air and water pollution have made living and working in many cities much less easy or pleasant, and city activities have often had serious adverse environmental impacts on rural hinterlands. These phenomena raise business and household costs and damage productivity, health and human well-being. They impose costs on society as a whole, even though some companies may benefit financially from lax environmental regulation.

9.2.4 Urban poverty in developing countries is a massive problem. The World Bank estimates that by the year 2000, the majority of the world's poor will be in urban areas, and that one third to one half of the developing world's urban population will be poor. Most poor urban people are forced to live in overcrowded slum districts where water and sanitation services are often inadequate or completely absent and ill-health often results.

9.2.5 It is estimated that at least one billion people in the developing world still lack access to clean water, nearly two billion lack adequate sanitation, and over one billion people are inadequately housed. It is common for 30-60% of a city's population in developing countries to live without secure tenure in houses or neighbourhoods which have been developed informally. Utility companies, municipalities and financial institutions are reluctant to invest in improving services to such areas or to lend to people who live there⁽²⁾.



Northern Iraq

90 teams of skilled British volunteers helped provide clean water supplies, adequate sanitation, health care and shelter for Kurdish refugees.

9.2.6 Many poor urban households and communities do, however, actively invest in improving their living environments, and incremental improvements in environmental services such as sewage or solid waste disposal are often within a community's ability to organise and finance. But the impact and sustainability of these efforts is frequently constrained by shortcomings in institutions outside

the settlement boundary and the community's control.

9.2.7 The process of rapid urbanisation has profound social effects, again especially on poor people. It often weakens traditional social networks, so that migrants and their families are deprived of the support systems they would previously have relied upon. Women tend to be more disadvantaged than men, in terms of access to income, education and housing, and they face more physical dangers from violent crime. Street children and drug abuse are increasingly common⁽¹⁾.

9.3 Viewpoints

9.3.1 The objectives of overseas development assistance, and the means to achieve them, are the subject of debate. The main issues include the following:

- aid projects should reflect the needs of the recipient country and the management of projects should be sufficiently flexible to accommodate changing situations within the project lifetime;
- community participation is important for maximising and sustaining the benefits of a project yet the process of consultation and consensus-building can slow down improvements to conditions for the urban poor;
- local partners are required to ensure that projects reflect local needs and can be sustained, yet working with existing community groups may continue to exclude the poorest and most vulnerable;
- local resources, both skills and materials, should be more widely used to ensure that the full benefits of aid are retained in the recipient country;
- projects continue to be largely sectoral yet greater integration is required to take into account the wider needs of poor urban communities which include accessible health care, education, and income generating opportunities as well as major infrastructure improvements such as water and sanitation;
- a wider view of the environmental effects of projects is required; and
- the multiplicity of aid agencies can mean that several projects may be underway in one area and there is a need to provide some co-ordination to ensure maximum benefits.

9.4 United Kingdom Official Aid Programme

9.4.1 The Overseas Development Administration administers the British official aid programme. However, official aid plays only one part in the process of development. Primary responsibility for promoting economic and social development rests with the United Kingdom's partner countries: their Governments' policies and economic management; and the initiative and enterprise of their people. In addition foreign direct investment, free trade and debt relief also make significant contributions to development.



Waste Water Project, Cairo
Infrastructure to treat and collect sewage.

Box 9.2

Tackling environmental problems - Cairo Wastewater Project

The sewerage system in Cairo was grossly overloaded by the mid 1970s, prone to blockage and dependent on unreliable and outdated pumping stations. Large areas of Cairo were regularly flooded with sewage, causing severe disruption and environmental health hazards.

The objective of the project was to increase the capacity of the system to collect and treat sewage. It was jointly funded by the Overseas Development Administration, USAID and the Government of Egypt to a total of over £1.5 billion. Evaluation of the project to date has considered it technically well designed and likely to provide a major benefit to the residents of Cairo for many years to come. It is one of the largest urban environmental projects in the world.

However, limitations have been identified. The project took longer to build and was considerably more expensive than planned. Shortcomings in achieving institutional reform for management and maintenance, and inadequate cost recovery mechanisms could undermine the sustainability of the investment. Linkages to water supply and drainage services are essential, but were inadequately addressed. Sewerage projects should be linked to water policy to ensure that excessive water use does not lead to increased sewage flows which exceed the system's capacity.

These lessons are now being applied. An institutional development strategy, appraisals of the environmental impacts of sewage projects, and health education programmes to maximise the health benefits of such investments, are all now considered as part of wastewater projects at the inception stage.

9.4.2 The Overseas Development Administration's purpose is to improve the quality of life of people in poorer countries by contributing to sustainable development and reducing poverty and suffering. The Overseas Development Administration places poverty reduction at the heart of its assistance to low-income countries, who receive the bulk of United Kingdom bilateral aid.

9.4.3 To achieve its purpose, the Overseas Development Administration pursues the following aims⁽³⁾:

- to encourage sound development policies, efficient markets and good government;
- to help people achieve better health, education and opportunity, particularly for women;
- to enhance productive capacity and to conserve the environment; and
- to promote international policies for sustainable development and enhance the effectiveness of multilateral development institutions.

9.4.4 The Overseas Development Administration also uses emergency aid to respond to natural and man-made disasters. It seeks to understand links between disasters and development problems, and gives special attention to disaster preparedness and mitigation work.

9.4.5 The United Kingdom provides overseas aid for two broad reasons :

- the Government believes it is right that a part of the nation's wealth should be used to help poorer countries and their peoples to improve their standards of living; and
- the provision of aid to other countries represents part of the Government's contribution to the international effort for sustainable development, greater prosperity and increased political stability.

9.4.6 The British Government aid programme spent £2.3 billion in 1994/5: 0.31% of United Kingdom Gross National Product in 1994 was given as official development assistance. Around half of the total aid budget is spent as contributions to multilateral development institutions such as the World Bank Group, regional development banks, United Nations, International Monetary Fund and the Commonwealth, or as the United Kingdom share of the European Union's aid⁽³⁾.

Box 9.3

Helping poor people in South Asian Cities: a changing approach

Overseas Development Administration's Slum Improvement Projects have evolved over 10 years during which the benefits and limitations of area-based projects have become evident. Slum Improvement Projects have largely been successful in addressing poverty, by integrating physical infrastructure, planning, health, education and income generation, but sustainability and accurate poverty targeting have been problematic. More recent Slum Improvement Projects have attempted, with some success, to bring about community participation in decision making and implementation. While improvements to infrastructure and services are likely to remain components of Overseas Development Administration urban poverty projects in Asia, experience has shown that projects are to have a real poverty-reducing impact, more emphasis must be placed on finding ways to raise the incomes of the poor.

The area-based Slum Improvement Projects have been manageable and the results tangible. However, the approach had weaknesses such as:

- it tackled the slum improvement areas without integration into the physical,

social and economic planning of the city or with local, state or federal schemes or policies;

- it excluded urban poor people not living inside the project area;
- it did not tackle poverty alleviation adequately;
- it was difficult to achieve security of tenure, so project benefits accrued to landlords not tenant residents; and
- sustainability was difficult due to relatively high capital and maintenance costs, inadequate community participation from the start of the project and insufficient capacity building in municipalities.

Recent initiatives focus more strongly on income generation and community participation as priorities, while upgrading infrastructure remains an important activity. The Faisalabad Urban Up-grading Project and new Slum Improvement Projects for the Indian cities of Cochin and Cuttack illustrate such features. Quite a different approach is being tried with an innovative poverty reduction project focused on urban areas of Andhra Pradesh in India. In this step away from the area-based approach, the Overseas Development Administration and the state government are working in close partnership to improve the effectiveness of urban poverty reduction efforts in the state.

9.4.7 Between them, these multilateral agencies provide funds for capital investment and for technical assistance across the full range of development activities. Much activity is relevant to urban areas, such as funds for infrastructure investment and assistance in its planning and sustainable management. In 1993 the World Bank lent US\$2 billion for urban development and US\$4.7 billion for infrastructure (water supply and sewerage, transportation and telecommunications). Some 9% of total United Kingdom Government aid is contributed to the World Bank Group. Box 9.2 illustrates a major waste water project in Cairo funded by multilateral aid.



Hyderabad, India

A widow and her family, a new house and a petty loan for a vegetable stall.

United Kingdom Bilateral Aid

9.4.8 The United Kingdom bilateral aid programme - that part which is delivered through Overseas Development Administration programmes and projects - similarly addresses a wide range of development activities. Some assistance is explicitly directed at urban areas (Box 9.3), and much other aid benefits urban dwellers indirectly. The ways in which bilateral aid is provided include supplying technical assistance and financial aid (as capital for investment projects or as programme aid) in country programmes, and funding research which contributes to the development process of many countries.

9.4.9 Some two-thirds of United Kingdom bilateral aid goes to the poorest countries (those with Gross National Product per capita under US\$676 in 1992). The recipients of the largest sums of United Kingdom bilateral development aid in 1994/5 were India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Zambia, Indonesia, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Russia, Tanzania and Malawi. Other countries received large amounts of Overseas Development Administration emergency assistance: the largest amounts in 1994/5 were spent in the states of ex-Yugoslavia, Rwanda, Ethiopia,

Box 9.4**Promoting good government: the Poland Local Government Assistance Programme**

Poland has devolved power at the local level to over 2,500 municipalities which are now democratic bodies. This, together with the introduction of the market economy, has transformed the role which municipalities undertake. To assist in this transition, the United Kingdom's Know How Fund formulated a three year Local Government Assistance Programme in 1992. Its main elements were:

- Polish and British consultants were appointed to work together;
- a targeted municipal administration, finance, economic development, land

management and development, housing and audit,

- for each of these a Practice Manual was produced which defined the new roles for municipalities together with techniques for carrying them out; and
- a nationwide training programme has been set up to train municipality politicians and staff in the new techniques.

The programme has been extended for a further three years with responsibility for this transferred to the Polish partners. It is concentrating on enlarging the training programme to improve nationwide coverage and setting up pilot projects to demonstrate the new techniques.



Poland

A training seminar in Land Management led by United Kingdom consultants.

Malawi and Sudan. In total, 161 countries received British Government aid in 1994/5⁽³⁾.

9.4.10 Economic growth based on sound policies and the principle of sustainable development is central to achieving improvements in people's material and social well-being. The United Kingdom assists economic reform to promote sound economic policies and efficient and competitive markets⁽⁴⁾. This often includes public sector reform, including privatisation, and development of the private sector. Related to this, and given the key productive role of cities in national economic development, United Kingdom aid contributes to enhancing productive capacity through support to productive sectors and to infrastructure. The Overseas Development Administration is active in supporting the development of small enterprises, which are important for poverty reduction in developing countries⁽⁵⁾.

9.4.11 Emphasis is now also placed on efficient government and the enhancement of skills - in aspects ranging from town planning to tax collecting, good business practices and the provision of services. Reforms and strengthening of local government aim to improve the relationships between central, regional and local governments in many countries (Box 9.4). The Overseas Development Administration's good government objectives include not only promoting legitimate, accountable and competent government but also strengthening other institutions in civil society and helping to promote human rights and the rule of law.

9.4.12 Improved health and educational standards and equality of opportunity are key aspects of human development. Alleviation of poverty and access to healthy homes and unpolluted environments contribute enormously to good health. People in both urban and rural areas need improved access to good quality, affordable and relevant health care, enhancing reproductive health and enabling people to have children by choice. The Overseas Development Administration has invested in research at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine into health in urban contexts, including immunisation, nutrition and intra-urban health differentials, which has generated a better understanding of these issues⁽⁶⁾.

9.4.14 Across all of its development work, Overseas Development Administration aims to promote the status of women. This means working with aid partners to address the interests of women, as well as men, and seeking to tackle the causes of subordination and discrimination in the relations between them. An understanding of gender influences activities in all sectors, in both urban and rural contexts⁽⁷⁾.

Non-Governmental Organisations

9.4.14 Non-governmental organisations vary widely in their nature and their approach to development, although they tend to focus on poor people, to work on smaller scale projects than official (governmental) development agencies and to emphasise a bottom-up approach of working with local partners⁽⁸⁾. Non-governmental organisations often find it easier to work directly with community groups and with the people who are the beneficiaries of development efforts, than do official aid agencies which mostly work on a government-government level. United Kingdom non-governmental organisations usually work with

partner non-governmental organisations in developing countries: many such 'Southern' non-governmental organisations are active in urban work (Box 9.5). Several international non-governmental networks facilitate information exchange and collaboration between organisations.

9.4.15 While British non-governmental organisations raise funds themselves and undertake projects independently, the Overseas Development Administration helps to finance some of their work, through provision of block grants, project financing through the Joint Funding Scheme, and research and other funds. Projects to improve shelter conditions in developing countries which Overseas Development Administration has helped to finance include:

- a research and advisory project in Sao Paulo, Brazil, co-funded with Christian Aid and implemented by a local non-governmental organisation called POLIS;
- a slum improvement scheme in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, co-funded with Water Aid; and



Homeless International
Community discussion of a project.

- a training and advisory project in Shinyanga, Tanzania, co-funded with OXFAM, which provides practical training in low-cost housing supervision and the purchase of building materials.

9.4.16 Many non-governmental organisations are active in training community leaders and residents in skills that will facilitate urban development and income generation. Plan International UK, for example, currently works with communities to run integrated development programmes in thirty countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Priorities include preventative health training, support for local training programmes, income generation and environmental management. All activities operate through community groups which are strengthened to ensure the long term impact of the programmes.

9.4.17 Most shelter for poor people in developing countries is provided informally, often by the residents themselves. Building materials and techniques need to be simple, affordable, easy to maintain and suited to local circumstances. A number of non-governmental organisations are helping poor people to improve their own shelter by researching appropriate building techniques and materials. Examples of this include the Building Research Establishment's work to develop methods for making stabilised soil building blocks for more durable and healthy dwellings, and to produce cement from rice husks. Involving beneficiaries in the development of technical innovations has been found greatly to improve prospects of success. Promoting the production of building components based on local materials and indigenous skills has been a focus of the Intermediate Technology Development Group's work in urban areas.

Box 9.5

Homeless International

The most directly shelter-focused non-governmental organisation working from the United Kingdom is Homeless International. It has helped efforts to improve the shelter conditions of poor people (in urban and rural areas) in many countries in Asia, Africa, Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean. In 1994/5 project expenditure was £658,000.

The main features of Homeless International's approach are close links between non-governmental organisations and community groups; seeking to involve all actors in urban development including state authorities; promoting long-term partnerships and exchanges between developing countries to share ideas, experiences and solutions for urban poverty; and concentrating on capacity-building in pilot projects, to enable projects to be replicated and benefits spread more widely.

Homeless International has 30 partners working in major cities in developing

countries. In South Africa, for example, Homeless International has supported a network of over 250 informal settlements, the Homeless People's Federation, to exchange information and experiences. The exchange process has been expanded to include a partnership with the National Slum Dwellers Federation in India. Those participating have been able to develop their capacity to carry out settlement surveys, mapping and enumeration and have set up community based housing saving schemes. The Homeless People's Federation have been given direct access to £2m in housing subsidies and have taken the lead in initiating community based housing development.

Homeless International works in partnership not only with other non-governmental organisations but also with the British Government. Since 1989 the Overseas Development Administration has funded 24 projects supported by Homeless International in 11 countries, and has committed more than £0.7m to Homeless International's work.

Academic and Private Sectors

- 9.4.18 The United Kingdom academic sector makes a valuable and wide-ranging contribution to urban development thinking and practice. For example, three United Kingdom universities pooled their complementary urban expertise to form an Urban Management Consortium in 1992 which provides technical support to the multi-donor, multi-country Urban Management Programme. Several universities and research institutions provide dedicated programmes for research, education and training for urban development management and planning in developing countries.
- 9.4.19 The private business sector has a substantial role overseas through investment and trade to developing and transition economies. This has grown in recent decades, and exports from these countries to the United Kingdom have also increased. Consultants have provided expertise in urban planning, social housing, the environment, water and sanitation, public administration, health, education and training and economic development for projects funded by the World Bank, various Regional Development banks, the European Development Fund and the European Union TACIS and PHARE programmes. The latter particularly are drawing on United Kingdom experience in environmental clean up, municipal administration and planning procedures. United Kingdom consultants have also worked on urban planning projects, including new towns in the Middle East, either for national governments or the private sector.

9.5 Pointers for the Future

- 9.5.1 Some of the key considerations for future donor assistance to urban development are:
- **participation in the design of projects by all key stakeholders**, including beneficiary households and businesses as well as agencies concerned with project implementation, will increase their chances of success;
 - **non-governmental and community based organisations are most likely to secure participation**, particularly by the poorer people;
 - **the public sector should play an 'enabling' role** for private sector initiative, ensuring clear property rights and a judicious but not excessive regulatory framework within which households and businesses, acting in their own interests, will make market-based decisions which are beneficial to the local economy and environment;
 - careful attention is needed to **strengthen local institutions** responsible for urban management, such as municipalities and utilities, by improving management, cost recovery, competence and accountability; and
 - **to improve the targeting of interventions, and thus their effectiveness**, poverty reduction activities should be based on a thorough understanding of who the poor are and why they are poor.

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PART

CONCLUSIONS

III

THE WAY 10 AHEAD

10.1 Introduction

- 10.1.1 Habitat II, the City Summit, has two themes, sustainable human settlements in an urbanising world; and adequate shelter for all. The Conference is to report progress since the previous Habitat Conference, held in Vancouver in 1976. The context will be the changing circumstances in the world over the past twenty years, notably the recommendations for sustainable development at the 'Earth Summit' in Rio de Janeiro in 1992.
- 10.1.2 The recommendations of the first Habitat Conference emphasised that land use planning is an essential pre-condition for the healthy, just, and efficient development of human settlements. The United Kingdom National Report to that Conference had strongly held that view, describing the achievements of land use planning in the country. In the twenty years since 1976, urbanisation has continued apace, placing ever greater stress on human settlements. But the international experience of urbanisation and the development of human settlements in those twenty years has varied.
- 10.1.3 The experience in developing countries has been of rapid and accelerating growth in the number and size of cities. An accompanying feature has been the large and expanding areas of informal housing which pose a threat to health and social stability. Properly planned land for housing, industry and commerce, social facilities and parks is required if the settlements are to develop in a sustainable manner. Also, it is essential to facilitate and encourage secure investment by the public and private sectors, and the construction of efficient housing and infrastructure. That in turn requires urban institutional capacity to provide the skills and means for effective land use planning and development, building on the thriving informal economy found in many of these cities.
- 10.1.4 Urbanisation in the United Kingdom is at a different stage. While there will be growth, the emphasis will be on restructuring and reorganising land uses and infrastructure at the wide regional level as well as the local scale within towns and villages. Problems of equity and the environment have come to the fore. In policy terms, this means that increasing attention is being paid to cities and towns adversely affected by economic change, and to improving the quality of urban life.
- 10.1.5 Coping with these changes in human settlements in the United Kingdom, no less than in developing countries, will require a well-supported institutional framework of urban management. This includes planning, within which investment in public and private development can take place with confidence. There is, in 1996, a well-established planning system and institutional structure for land use planning in the United Kingdom, many of whose features are the same as in 1976.
- 10.1.6 Planning in 1976, as reported in the United Kingdom Report at Vancouver, rested on the foundations of the system as laid down in the 1940s. Those early principles were concerned with regional balance; the redevelopment of congested urban areas; decentralisation from such areas; and protection of the countryside from urban development. The system assumed a positive role for land use planning. Development would be in accordance with the new development plans being introduced in the 1970s, supported by an active public sector land policy.
- 10.1.7 The experience of the United Kingdom since 1976 has been marked by the emergence of two new, dominating ideas to which the planning system has had to adapt. The first came in the 1980s, when the dominant approach was to reduce public expenditure and widen choice by curtailing the role of the state and giving primacy to market forces. Privatisation and deregulation, and the use of private sector resources and skills, were the chosen means, though state intervention was retained in particular for urban regeneration. The planning system took on an enabling role, taking its lead from the private sector. Planners learnt new skills of understanding markets; working with flexible plans and policy guidance. Part of the unearned increment in land values was recouped by means of bargaining with developers for planning gain rather

than passing development land through public ownership or by the imposition of the development land tax.

10.1.8 The second idea was the concept of sustainable development, coming to the fore in the 1990s. This was influenced by many factors, from global warming to the loss of cherished local habitats or buildings. Sustainable development is a complex and wide-ranging concept which, to be successful, needs to be widely accepted and understood by people in all sectors and organisations. The Government committed itself to the objective of sustainable development in its post-Rio Strategy of 1994, and this has been followed up in subsequent annual reviews of progress and reports on the state of the environment; and the continuing work on policy development. The concept has also gained ground across local government, voluntary organisations and local communities, notably through the spread of Local Agenda 21. The challenge is to translate policies and objectives into effective action.

10.2 The Assessment of Progress Since 1976

10.2.1 The two dominating ideas of the period since 1976 find expression in the Government's current aims for land use planning. They fit within the context of the overall objective of achieving efficiency, economy and amenity in the development and use of land through its regulation in the public interest. The idea of working with market forces is reflected in the planning system, which seeks within development plans to make adequate provision for the needs of industry, commerce, housing, transport and other uses.

10.2.2 The more recent idea - the concept of sustainable development - finds its expression in the belief that growth and development need not be incompatible with the protection of the environment. The challenge is to accommodate market forces within the concept of sustainable development. The aim for sustainable development should be to ensure that the sum total of the decisions made within the planning system do not deny future generations the best of today's environment. This is interpreted in the Government's strategy for sustainable development to mean that development in town and country should provide for the nation's needs for food production, minerals extraction, new homes and other buildings, whilst respecting environmental objectives. In like fashion, the right balance must be struck between the ability of transport to serve economic development whilst protecting the environment and sustaining the future quality of life. In particular this means:

- using already developed areas in the most efficient way, including redevelopment of vacant urban land and reclamation of contaminated land, whilst protecting urban quality;

- providing for the economic and social needs for access in ways which reduce the need for travel, shaping new development in a way that minimises the use of energy, and limiting the adverse environmental impact of transport; and

- conserving the natural resources of wildlife, habitats and landscapes.

10.2.3 The planning and development of United Kingdom settlements since 1976 has taken place within the context of global economic forces, and national social and economic policies. To that extent the capacity of planning to work towards a more sustainable form of settlements has been constrained. Nevertheless, the assessment of planning since 1976, and the recent developments in policies and objectives, described in earlier chapters, show that principles relating to the concept of sustainable development are being put in place. In particular, they provide for:

- building a long-term, strategic vision of the future of settlements, nationally, regionally and locally;

- expressing the strategy in regional guidance and development plans based on consultation with the private and voluntary sectors, and communities;

- establishing and maintaining patterns of land uses and development which contribute to the quality of social and cultural life and the economy;

- managing the demand for land and transport in ways that minimise the use of non-renewable resources, in particular energy and minerals, and protect critical capital assets in the natural environment in urban and rural areas;

- increasing awareness and understanding among individuals, communities and businesses of the relationships between development and the environment, and the nature and capacity of the environment to support human settlements; and

- facilitating and controlling development through the planning system in a flexible and accountable way which is widely accepted and understood by the public at large.

10.2.4 The successful application of these principles depends on a close interaction between the objectives and content of policies; the processes and methods for their implementation; and the institutional structures for the involvement of all of the participants in the planning and development of settlements.

Policies and Objectives

10.2.5 General objectives for planning for sustainable cities, towns and villages in a market economy can be identified across the range of individual policy areas. They bring together the various separate examples described in earlier chapters, for instance on housing, economic development, transport, and the environment, in the following ways.

10.2.6 Regional, strategic planning is essential to achieve sustainable patterns of settlements which minimise the consumption of natural resources, including land where that is in short supply and energy, where it will generate waste or pollution. Such planning needs to integrate land use and transport; ensure a balance in the supply of land for homes, employment, and social infrastructure; and create opportunities for efficient travel for all, using a variety of public and private modes. It should aim at the optimum use of existing built-up areas. New development should be located where it can be served by public transport by road and rail.

10.2.7 The planning and development of individual cities and towns should aim at settlements which are sustainable in their use of resources, including public and private finance, and which offer all of their inhabitants a high quality of environment. Planning should be built on the locational advantages of the individual settlement; the quality of its infrastructure and local resources, including the education and skills of local people, its natural and man-made environmental assets; and its cultural and historic qualities.

10.2.8 The natural environment in urban areas and the health of people, need to be protected and enhanced. The production of waste, and pollution of the air, water and soil should be minimised. Natural habitats, wildlife and landscapes should be protected, conserved and enhanced, with particular regard to critical capital assets and the capacity of the natural environment.

Methods and Processes

10.2.9 The prime need is for vision, leadership, and acceptance of the basic ideas about sustainability throughout the different policy areas, at all levels of government and in the wider society. The role of Government has been crucial in the United Kingdom, supported and supplemented by the action of local governments, voluntary organisations and communities through Local Agenda 21. The major gap to be surmounted in many policy fields is to translate general aims and objectives into operational plans, policies and programmes. This requires:

- clarity in the definition of objectives, including provision for choice by a pluralistic society; and their translation into policies and plans based on a close assessment of the environmental costs and benefits;
 - policies and programmes which respect the variety of local settlements and environments, and the different ways in which pressures and opportunities for planning and development interact at the local level of individual cities and towns;
 - the preparation of effective regional and local policy guidance and plans based on consultation and opportunities for participation in the planning processes by people, communities and business interests; and
 - co-ordination of policies, especially between those for land use, transport, economic development and housing, and integration with other, related policy areas.
- 10.2.10 Effective implementation of policies for sustainable development relies, among other things, on being able to influence behaviour with regard to development, and raise awareness of its environmental costs and benefits amongst individuals, communities, businesses and government. It requires:
- the use of a variety of methods for the implementation of policies, ranging from economic instruments to regulatory mechanisms supported by advice and information;
 - a willingness to work with market forces where they are appropriate and contribute to sustainable development, for example in urban regeneration through local economic development or mixed use developments;

- the involvement of community organisations, for instance, in tenant management of housing, or in environmental education, and responding to their initiatives; and
- a concern for achieving a high quality of environment, encompassing the provision of social facilities, improvements in the built environment and in the regulation of environmental standards.

10.2.11 Continuing and accelerated research is needed to underpin policy development and its implementation within a reasonable period of time. This includes:

- building an understanding of social, economic and ecological processes in relation to market forces;
- devising targets and standards, based on an understanding of environmental processes and market forces, and methods for measuring their achievement through the implementation of policies;
- experimenting with different instruments and methods for the implementation of policies, and monitoring their effectiveness; and
- recording, analysing, and disseminating information at the national, regional and local levels about development trends, impacts and effectiveness of policies, instruments and measures.

Institutions and Structures

10.2.12 Sustainable planning depends on there being appropriate institutions and structures which bring together all of the actors and interests in the processes of sustainable development. Fundamentally, this requires building an effective capability for partnership and co-operation between the different organisations and individuals, whether at the level of national policy, or local implementation. For this, public confidence in planning is an essential pre-requisite based on open government, qualified staff, community education, and widespread dissemination of information. Five matters are crucial:

- involvement by all of the different actors and interests, including central and local government, business interests and the private sector, non-governmental and voluntary organisations,

community groups, and the public in the planning and development of their settlements;

- at the national level, leadership by Government, with commitment and vision spanning different policy areas, agencies and departments, to ensure an integrated, holistic approach to sustainable development, with co-ordination and co-operation between the different agencies and organisations;
- at the level of individual cities, towns and villages, the major role is for local government, providing local, accountable leadership in negotiating the agenda for the sustainable development of their areas, supported by appropriate powers and resources;
- consistent support for community involvement in the sustainable development of their areas, through community development, skills training, financial and other resources, and appropriate legislation; and
- independent, regulatory bodies such as those associated with environmental protection to set appropriate standards and monitor the achievement of the objectives of policies and programmes, and levels of service.

10.3 The International Relevance

10.3.1 Land use planning for human settlements in the United Kingdom, no less than in any other country, is a response to the constitutional structure, state of social and economic development, environment, and above all the cultural values and traditions of that society. Thus the detailed, practical lessons to be drawn from the United Kingdom experience since 1976 are highly specific to the United Kingdom. They are not necessarily for easy transfer to other countries, especially those with very different cultures and legal systems, or those at different stages of social and economic development.

10.3.2 The significance of this is demonstrated by the United Kingdom experience of planning abroad, especially in developing countries. The experience has changed, with a greater understanding of the issues involved, from one driven by individual projects, often of a highly sophisticated and technical character, to one which is more pragmatic, responding to the variety of requirements and urban preferences. This has meant giving greater emphasis to an enabling approach to urban management, building on the local circumstances

of the individual town or country, rather than prescribing idealised development models and solutions. Such an approach requires the development of sound urban management skills and processes within the recipient countries. It places the emphasis on capacity-building for sustainable human settlements.

10.3.3 In some respects there has been a parallel development of planning ideas within the United Kingdom, notably in the focus on an enabling approach and partnership between government, communities and business interests. Now, the scale and pace of change, particularly in developing countries, and those in transition, are such that ideas which were once the prerogative of western countries are finding their expression world-wide. The stimulus for this comes from the influence of market forces and the spread of ideas about sustainable development.

10.3.4 The expansion and reorganisation of cities and towns throughout the world is an inevitable process. Their growth is in itself an indicator of social and economic development. But, for growth and development to be sustainable, they must be matched by a concern for the protection and enhancement of the environment.

10.3.5 Seen in this context, some of the lessons of the United Kingdom experience could provide pointers to ideas transferable to other countries. It will be for those countries to decide whether ideas are applicable in their specific circumstances. But five essential requirements, whatever the circumstances, are:

- the identification of clear objectives based on an understanding of the issues involved in development that contributes to environmentally sustainable economic growth;
- democratically-based leadership by government at both national and local levels;
- involvement by, and partnership between, the public, private and voluntary sectors and communities;
- effective administrative structures and organisations at the national and local levels, with the appropriate skills and resources; and
- policies, plans and instruments for achievement of the objectives of sustainable development.

10.4 Conclusions

10.4.1 The experience of the last twenty years of radical change within the United Kingdom is that issues relating to sustainable human settlements and shelter are now approached with a different perspective. There have been achievements, but also failures, of sustainable planning and development. The scale of resources required, and, even more importantly, the changes required in the priorities of governments and behaviour of individuals, communities and businesses, are significant. The challenge is to ensure that the experience of the United Kingdom, achieved both nationally and overseas, contributes to a more sustainable, socially just, development of human settlements.



APPENDIX BACKGROUND DATA

A

Introduction

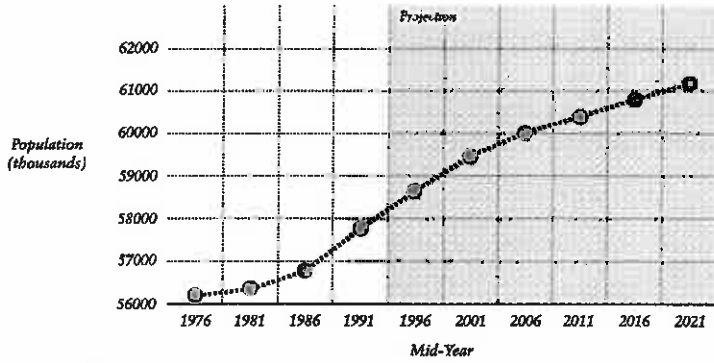
The United Kingdom consists of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Some official statistics are given for Great Britain, which excludes Northern Ireland. Others are given for England and Wales jointly, and for Scotland separately. Occasionally, data are presented solely for England. Some data are shown for the regions in England, and are presented alongside the equivalent data for Wales, Scotland, and occasionally Northern Ireland.

The temporal availability of data in the United Kingdom differs considerably. Some, such as unemployment data, are presented on a monthly basis, while others are available on an annual basis. Some data are estimates, based on samples, while others are drawn from comprehensive surveys. The most comprehensive single source of socio-economic data is the decennial Population Census.

A.1 Population

Population Change

Figure 1.1: Population Change and Projections, United Kingdom, 1976 - 2021



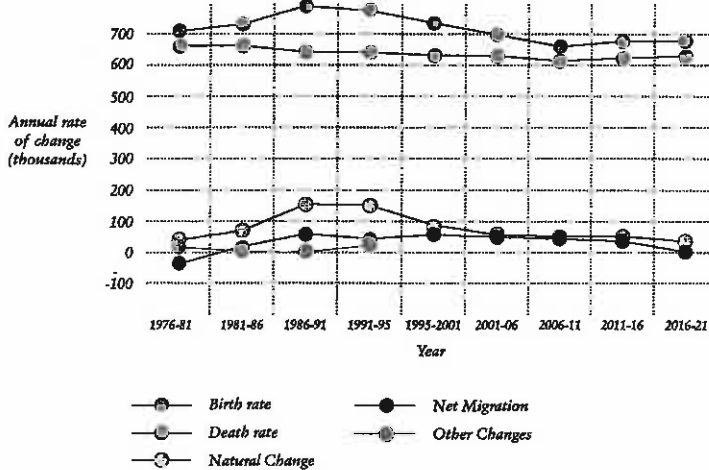
Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.1.1 The estimated population of the United Kingdom in mid 1994 was 58,394,000.

England	48,707,000
Wales	2,913,000
Scotland	5,132,000
Northern Ireland	1,642,000

It has increased by 2,179,000 or nearly 4% since 1976. It is projected to grow to 60,493,000 by 2011.

Figure 1.2: Components of Population Change and Projection, United Kingdom, 1976 - 2021 (annual average rates).



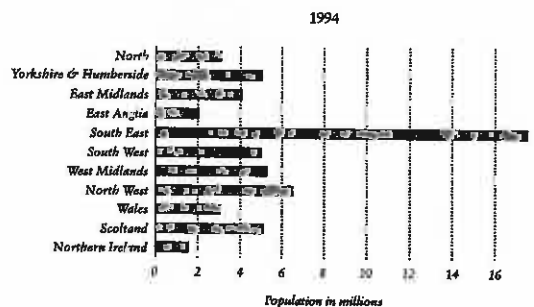
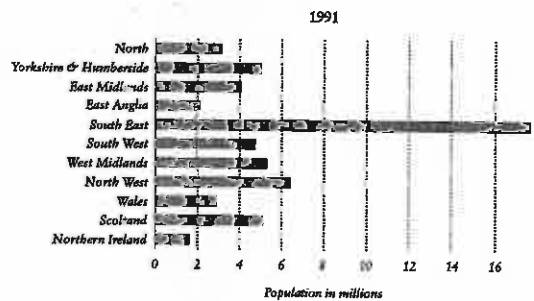
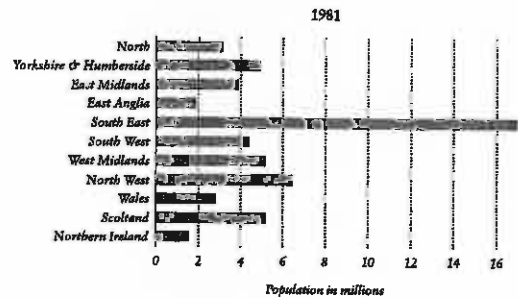
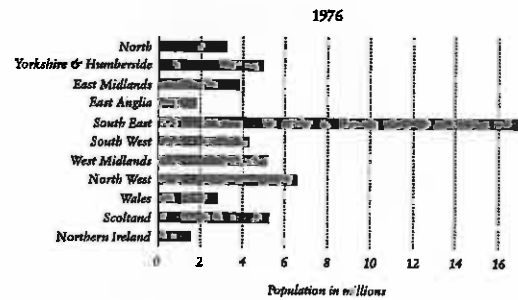
Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.1.2 There has been natural population increase where the number of births exceeds the number of deaths. People are living longer. Women are having children at a later stage with more children

now being born to women aged 30-34 than to those aged 20-24. Migration flows have been reversed. During the late 1970s more people left the United Kingdom than entered. Since then, more people have entered than left. In 1993-94, the gains from in-migration made up about a third of the total increase.

Population Change by Region

Figure 1.3: Population Change, Regions of the United Kingdom 1976-1994 (mid-year estimates)



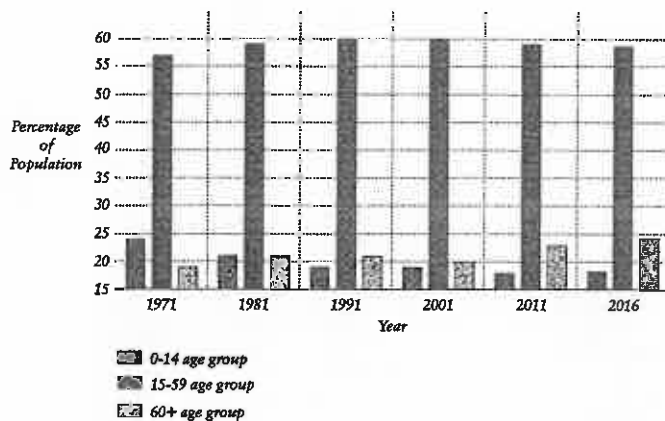
Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.1.3 Between 1976 and 1994, the populations of England

and Northern Ireland have increased but Scotland has experienced an overall population decline. In the English regions, the largest percentage increases in population have been experienced in East Anglia, the East Midlands and the South West, with population decline in the Northern and North West Regions. Population movements within the United Kingdom have accounted for some population changes. Northern Ireland has had a net loss whilst Wales has gained from migration flows.

Population Structure

Figure 1.4: Population Structure, United Kingdom, 1971 - 2011 (Mid-year estimates).



Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.1.4 The proportion of people over 65 will continue to increase. The proportion of people under 15 will fall.

A.1.5 In 1991, 5.5% of the population came from ethnic minority groups, of whom just over 47% were born in the United Kingdom. People from ethnic minorities are living in the older urban areas - 25.6% of the population of Inner London and in some boroughs, for example Hackney and Lambeth, over 30% of their population are drawn from ethnic minorities. Outside London, there are similar concentrations of ethnic minorities in the older urban areas, for example in Birmingham (21.6%) and Bradford (15.7%).

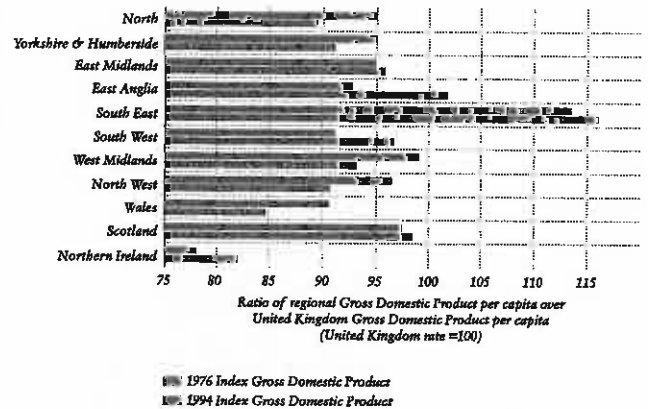
A.2 The Economy and Economic Change

A.2.1 Four measures are used to demonstrate the changing structure of the United Kingdom economy, employment and the fortunes of the regions. The measures used are:

- Gross Domestic Product;
- income levels;
- employment; and
- unemployment.

Gross Domestic Product

Figure 2.1: Gross Domestic Product, United Kingdom Regions, 1976 - 1994



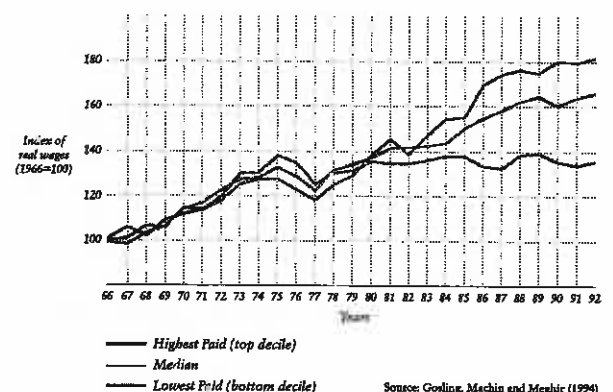
Source: Regional Trends, Economic Trends

A.2.2 The United Kingdom Gross Domestic Product grew by 62% between 1971 and 1995 at an annual average rate of 2%. The oil price shock in the 1970s and recessions in the early 1980s and early 1990s caused falls in the rate of growth but Gross Domestic Product has grown since 1992.

A.2.3 The South East accounts for one third of the United Kingdom Gross Domestic Product. Together with East Anglia, the South East region also has the highest per capita levels of Gross Domestic Product. The lowest levels are found in Northern Ireland and Wales. Per capita Gross Domestic Product levels have fallen since 1976 in the Northern Region, Yorkshire, Humberside, the West Midlands, the North West, Greater London and Wales.

Income Levels

Figure 2.2: Dispersion of Male Wages



Source: Gooling, Machin and Meghji (1994)

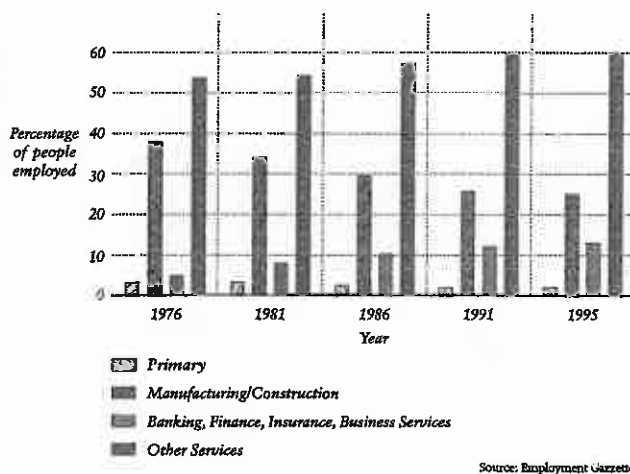
A.2.4 Since the mid 1970s income disparities have increased. The wage levels of the lowest paid hardly changed and are now lower in real terms

than in 1975. Median wages rose by 35% and the highest wage levels rose by 50%. More people have become dependent upon state benefits as a result of higher unemployment, early retirement and invalidity. Because benefits have been pegged to prices they have fallen behind rising wage levels, creating further inequality. There has been an increase in the proportion of households with two adult incomes, from 51% in 1975, to 60% in 1993.

Women's average wages have now reached 73% of average male earnings.

Employment Change

Figure 2.3: Employment in Broad Industrial Sectors, in United Kingdom 1976 - 1995 (percentage)

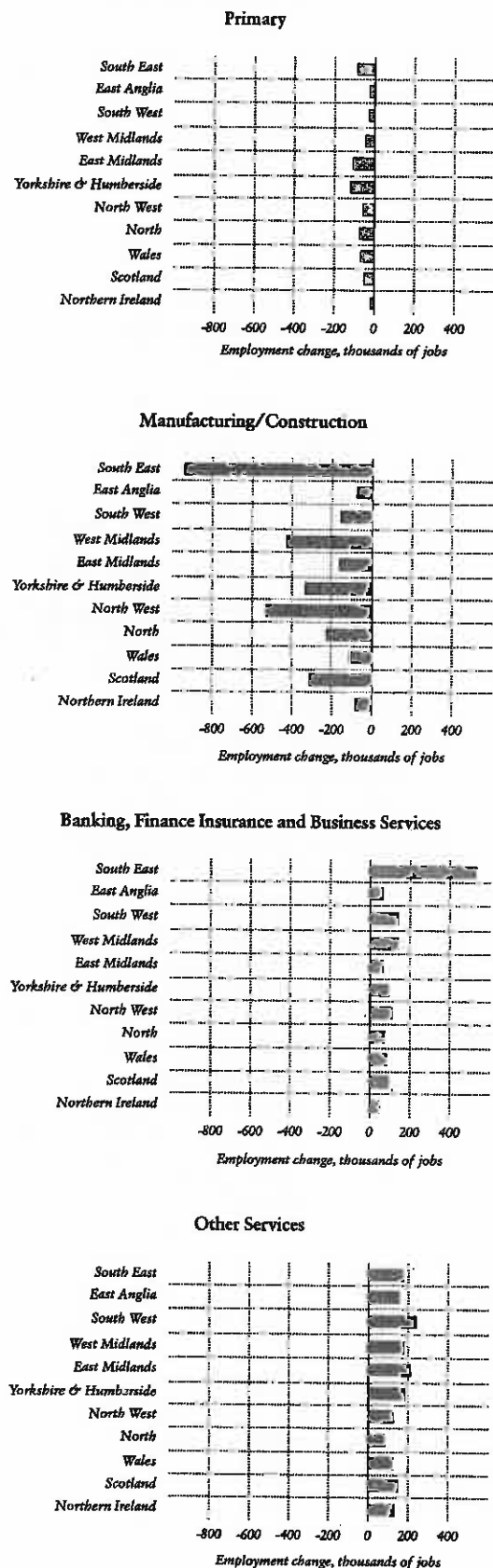


A.2.5 The number of full and part time jobs in 1976 was just over 22 million, which is slightly higher than current employment levels. In addition there are currently nearly 3.3 million self-employed people (13% of the total people employed compared with 8% in 1976) in Great Britain.

A.2.6 Since 1976, there have been major changes in the United Kingdom economy. First of all, the process of de-industrialisation has led to the loss of over 3 million jobs in the manufacturing sector which now accounts for only 18% of all jobs compared to nearly 36% in 1971. Secondly, the service sector overall now accounts for 75.6% of all jobs. Banking, finance and insurance experienced rapid growth in employment following deregulation of financial services in the late 1980s. The recession and internal changes in the sector have slowed down the rate of growth since 1991.

Regional Employment Change

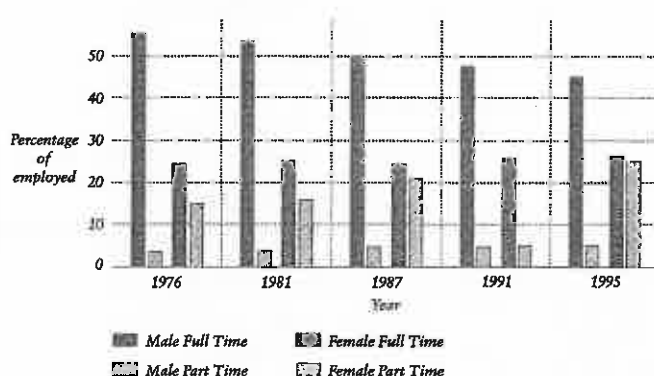
Figure 2.4: Employment Structures and Change, 1976-1995, United Kingdom regions (000s of jobs)



A.2.7 Since 1976, only East Anglia, the South West, the East Midlands and Northern Ireland have had an overall increase in the number of jobs, particularly in the service sectors. Over 40% of the growth of employment in banking, finance and insurance took place in the South East, but nearly a third of all United Kingdom manufacturing job losses also occurred in the South East.

Employment Structure

Figure 2.5: Employment Structure in the United Kingdom 1976 - 1995 showing percentages male/female

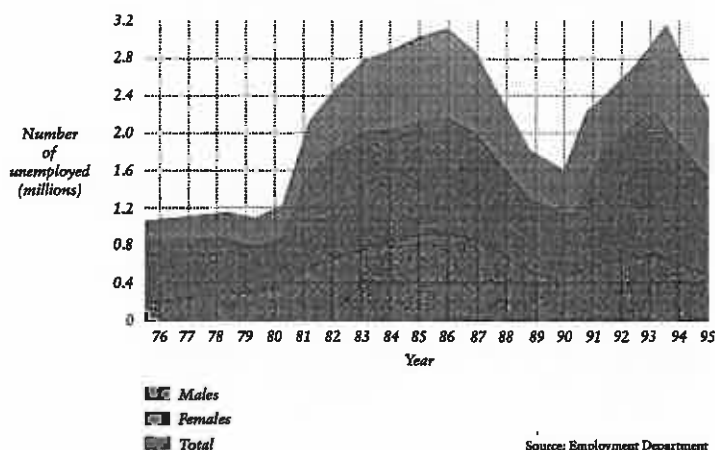


Source: Employment Gazette Historical Supplement, October 1994; Employment Gazette July 1995

A.2.8 Female workers now form 49% of the workforce compared to 41% in 1976. There are 6.2 million part-time jobs, an increase from 19% to 29% of the workforce since 1976. Women have 80% of all part-time jobs.

Unemployment

Figure 2.6: Male and Female Unemployment in the United Kingdom, 1976 - 1996 (000s jobs)



Source: Employment Department

A.2.9 The annual average of claimant unemployed (i.e. those people unemployed who are actively seeking employment during the week in which the claim is made for unemployment benefit) was just over 1 million in 1976 compared to 2.3 million in 1995. Unemployment levels rose sharply to 2 million in 1981 and then continued to rise to 3 million by 1985.

A.2.10 The average claimant unemployment rate for 1995 was 8.2% for the United Kingdom compared to 4.2% in 1976. However, unemployment has fallen from 11.1% since its highest peak in 1986 (July). Male unemployment rates have been consistently higher than female rates. In 1976, the average rate of unemployment for males was 5.3% compared to 2.3% for females. The 1995 averages were 11.1% and 4.5% respectively. (All figures are seasonally adjusted).

A.2.11 Changes in female unemployment rates have generally paralleled changes in male rates, although the gap between male and female rates did widen from 1982 up to the 1986 peak, and from 1991 up to the most recent peak in 1992 (December - all figures are seasonally adjusted).

A.2.12 Unemployment rates are higher for young people. For example, in October 1995, 16.6% of the workforce aged 18-19 years old were claimant unemployed, compared to 7.9% of the total workforce (all figures unadjusted).

A.2.13 Long term claimant unemployment (those unemployed for over one year) is falling. It accounted for 37.3% of all unemployment in October 1995 compared to 41.4% in 1986. Long term unemployment is still higher than in 1990, when claimant unemployment reached the end of its previous downward trend.

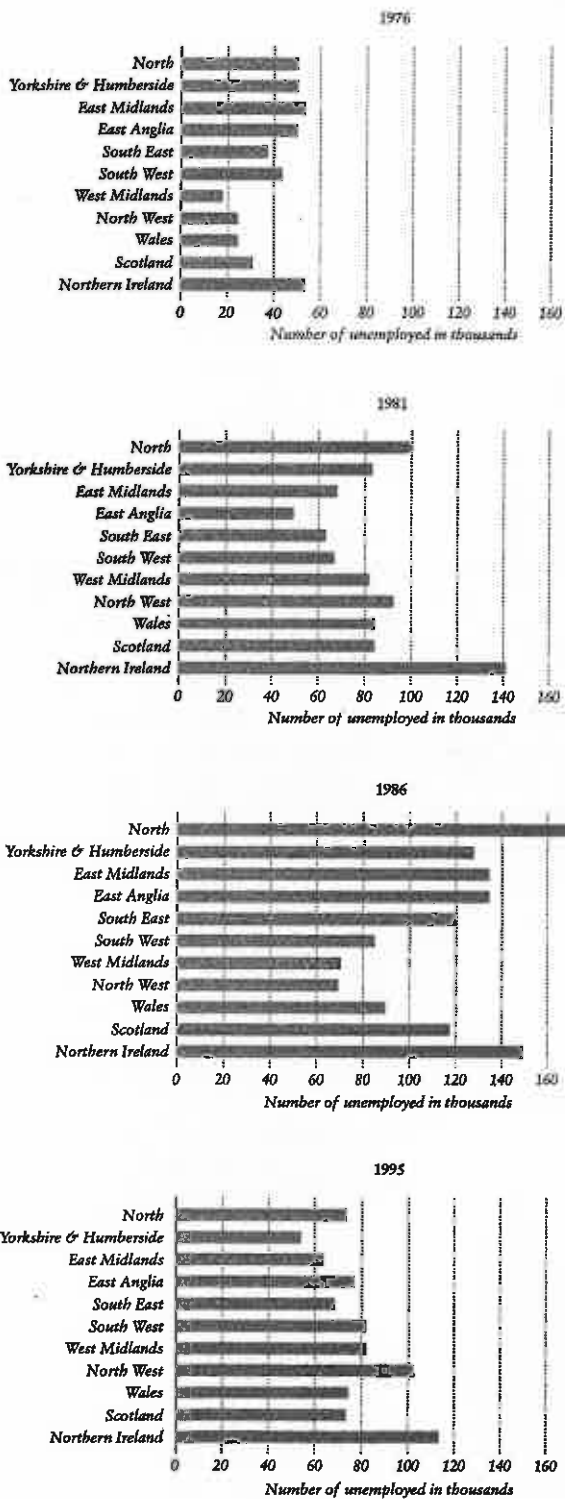
A.2.14 Unemployment rates amongst ethnic minorities are significantly higher than those for whites. In Spring 1986, the total unemployment rate amongst whites was 10.7%, compared to 20% in ethnic groups. In 1995, the comparable rates were 8.1% and 18.8%.

Regional Unemployment

A.2.15 Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, the loss of heavy industry and manufacturing created high levels of unemployment in Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales and the Northern Region as well as Yorkshire and Humberside, the West Midlands and the North West. With the exception of Northern Ireland and the Northern Region, where unemployment levels remain high, variations in unemployment levels between the regions has been

reduced following recent job losses in the service sectors in the South East region.

Figure 2.7: Regional Unemployment



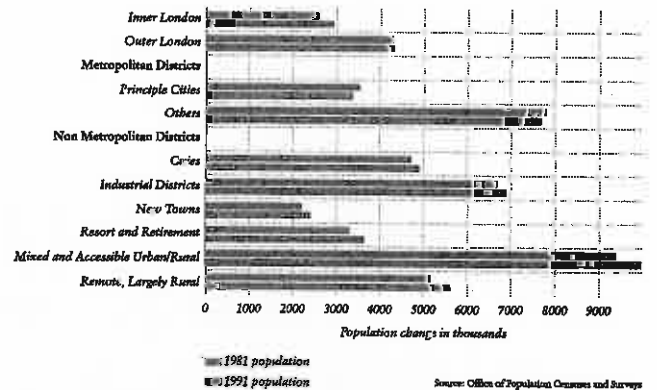
Source: Employment Gazette

A.3 Urbanisation

A.3.1 Figures 3.1 and 3.2 are based on data for England and Wales but similar trends have been experienced in Northern Ireland and Scotland. The figures chart population and employment change in areas of different types.

Population Decentralisation

Figure 3.1: Population Change 1981 - 1991 for OPCS Urban Types, England and Wales (000s)

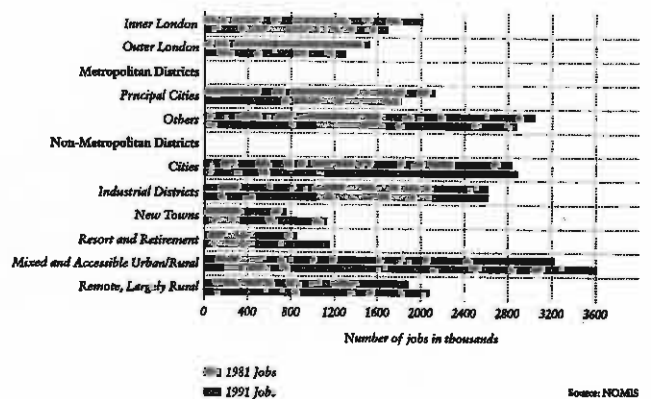


Source: Office of Population, Census and Surveys

A.3.2 A general process of decentralisation, with losses of population in the metropolitan areas and gains in the rural areas, has taken place. Inner London defied these trends with a 3% gain in population over the decade. The three most rural categories - remote, largely rural, resort and retirement and accessible urban/rural showed the greatest gains, mainly as a result of in-migration.

Employment Decentralisation

Figure 3.2: Employment Change 1981 - 1991, for OPCS Urban Types, England and Wales (000s jobs)



Source: NOMIS

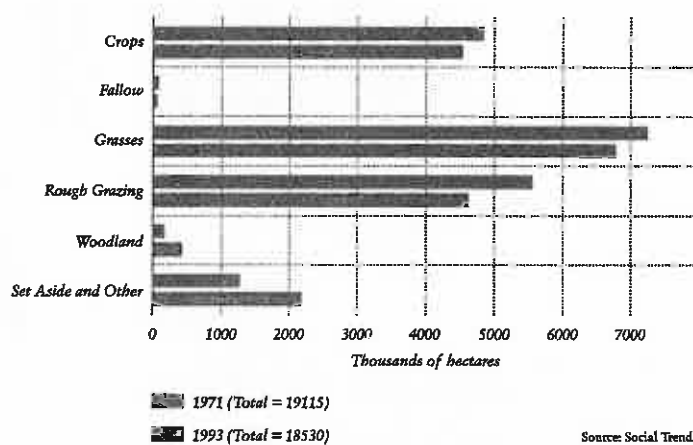
A.3.3 The same decentralisation process is reflected in the decline in jobs in the larger, older urban area.

In this case, Inner London shows substantial job losses of 8%, whilst in the remote largely rural areas employment increased by 13.5%.

A.4 Land Use Change

Agricultural Land Use

Figure 4.1: Agricultural Land Use, United Kingdom 1971-1993 (000s hectares)



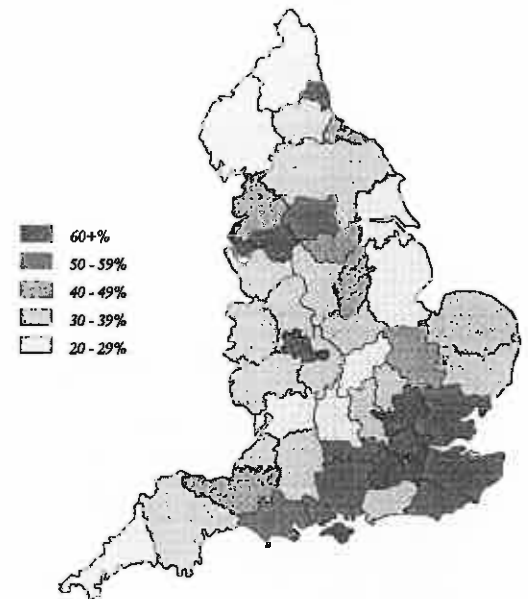
A.4.1 The set-aside and other category includes common rough grazing land which is estimated to cover about 1.2 million hectares in the United Kingdom. Set-aside was introduced around 1988/89 and became widespread in 1993.

The total amount of land in agricultural use in 1993 was 18,530 hectares, compared to 19,115 hectares in 1971. During the 1970-1990 period, crop production increased. The problems of overproduction led to a revision of the European Common Agricultural Policy and the adoption of set-aside. The proportion of agricultural land under cultivation started to fall with the introduction of set-aside. The area of woodland on farms has steadily increased.

Conversion to Urban Uses

A.4.2 Nearly half of all land currently developed for new residential development was previously developed for urban uses. In recent years the proportion has been increasing. Projecting existing trends forwards suggests that by 2016 just under 12% of England's land area will be in urban use compared to 10.6% in 1991.

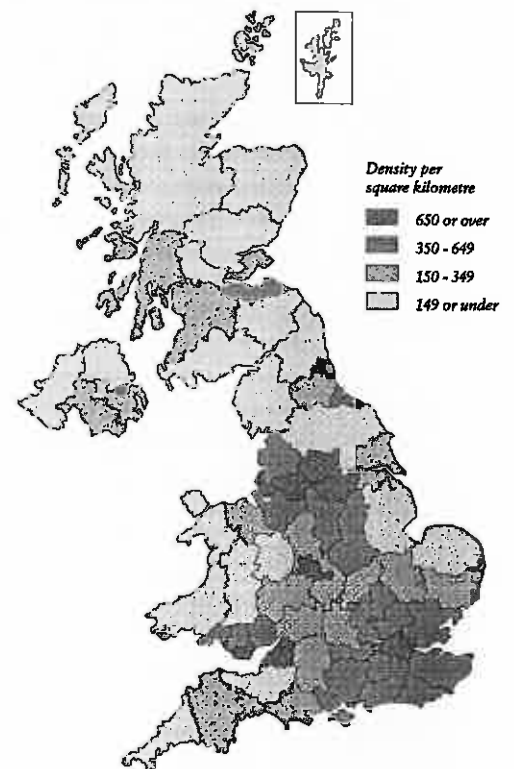
Figure 4.2: Percentage of New Residential Development on Land Previously Developed for Urban Uses, England, 1992



Source: Department of the Environment

Density

Figure 4.3: Population Density, in the United Kingdom using 1994 mid-year population estimates

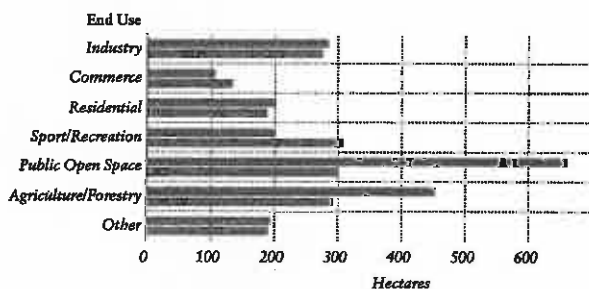


Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; General Register Office (Scotland); General Register Office (Northern Ireland)

A.4.3 Greater London has the highest population density of 4,400 people per square kilometre. The other areas of high density are the West Midlands, South Lancashire, South Yorkshire and the Tyne and Wear conurbations. The lowest densities are found in the highlands of Scotland with densities of eight people per square kilometre.

Derelict Land

Figure 4.4: Derelict Land reclaimed and brought back into end use per annum



Legend:
 ■ Average annual amount of derelict land reclaimed and brought back into end use 1982-1988
 ■ Average annual amount of derelict land reclaimed and brought back into end use 1988-1993

Source: Survey of Derelict Land in England 1993; Department of the Environment

A.4.4 In 1993, there were nearly 40,000 hectares of derelict land in England compared with 45,600 hectares in 1982, representing a small reduction of the amount of derelict land. Over this period land has been reclaimed but other sites have become derelict. For example, since 1988, 9,500 hectares have been reclaimed, but 8,600 hectares have become derelict. Reclaimed land has been used almost equally for hard and soft end uses. Industry is the most frequent hard end use and open space the most frequent soft end use.

A.5 Housing

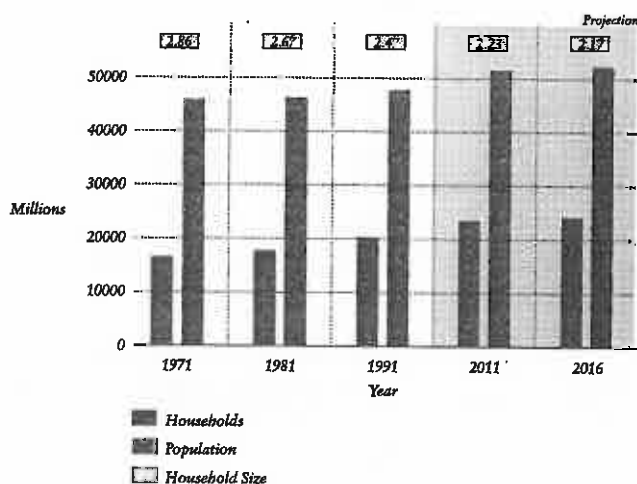
A.5.1 Since 1970, there has been a net increase of 5 million homes or about 20% of the total stock. In 1994 there were 24.2 million dwellings and 23.6 million households in the United Kingdom.

Housing Demand

A.5.2 Although the population of England has grown by only 3% since 1971, the number of households has grown by 14%. The demand for housing has risen because of the growth of small households. This pattern of demand is expected to continue. The average household size will continue to fall. The

same patterns have occurred in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

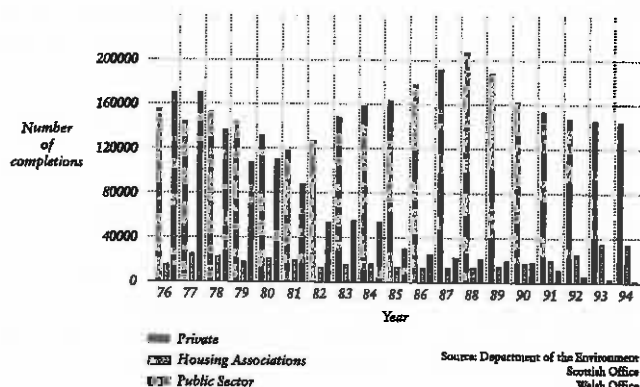
Figure 5.1: Households, Population and Average Household Size, 1971 - 2016, England



Source: 1971, 1981, 1991 Censuses; Department of the Environment Household Projection, 1995

Housing Construction

Figure 5.2: Housing completions, United Kingdom, 1976 - 1994



Source: Department of the Environment Scottish Office Welsh Office

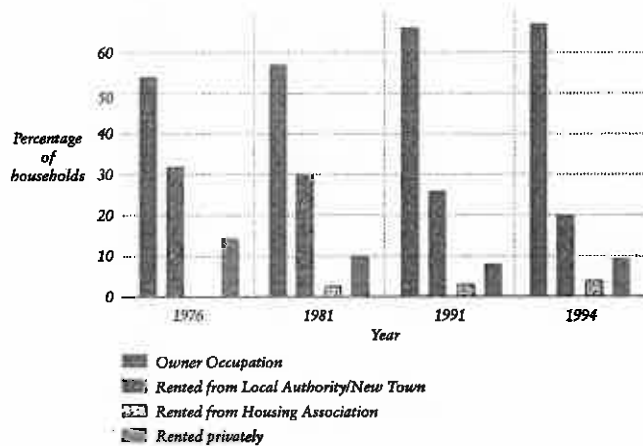
A.5.3 Recent construction rates have averaged about 180,000 dwellings per year, compared to over 300,000 in the 1960s and 1970s. A significant feature is the reduction in the local authority building rate which has fallen from 142,000 dwellings in 1976 to 1,300 in 1994, and has been replaced by housing associations which completed 41,000 homes in 1994. Most homes have been built for sale and construction rates have fluctuated with levels of demand influenced by the state of the economy.

Tenure

A.5.4 The number of people who own their homes has

increased from 54% in 1976 to 67% in 1994. 20% of all households rent their homes from local authorities, a reduction from 32% in 1976.

Figure 5.3: Housing Tenure, United Kingdom, 1976 - 1994

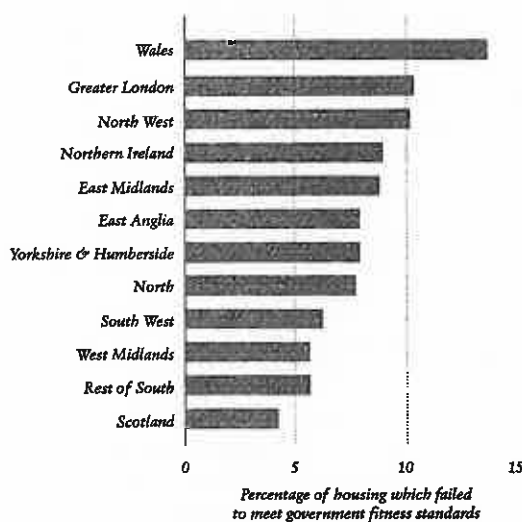


Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.5.5 Tenure patterns vary across the United Kingdom. In England 67%, in Wales 72%, and in Northern Ireland 68% of households own their homes. In Scotland, only 55% of dwellings are owner occupied and in Monklands, a suburb of Glasgow, only 33% of households own their own home.

Housing Conditions

Figure 5.4: Housing Conditions, United Kingdom, 1991



Source: Department of the Environment; Welsh Office; Department of the Environment; Northern Ireland; Scottish Office

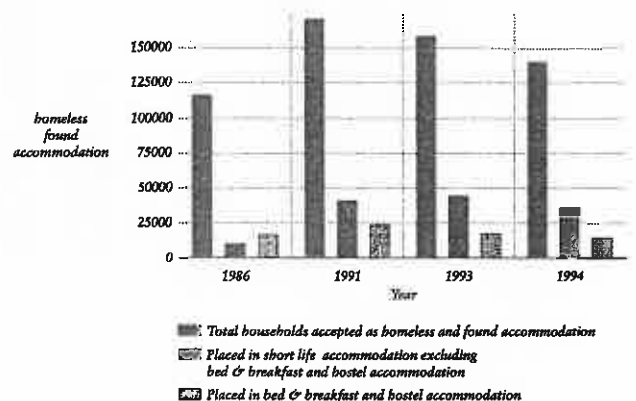
A.5.6 Standards are used to determine if a house is fit for human occupation. The standard takes the following into account:

- freedom from serious disrepair;
- structural stability;
- freedom from damp which could prejudice health;
- adequate provision for heating, lighting and ventilation;
- wholesome water supply;
- effective systems to remove foul waste and surface water;
- exclusive use of W.C. and bath or shower and wash hand basin with hot and cold water supply; and
- satisfactory facilities for food preparation and cooking, including a supply of hot and cold water.

A.5.7 There were about 1.5 million unfit homes in England in 1991, 160,800 in Wales in 1993 and 95,000 in Scotland in 1991, where a slightly different definition is used. The highest proportions of unfit dwellings are found in Wales, Greater London and the North West.

Homelessness

Figure 5.5: Homeless Households in Great Britain, 1986 - 1994



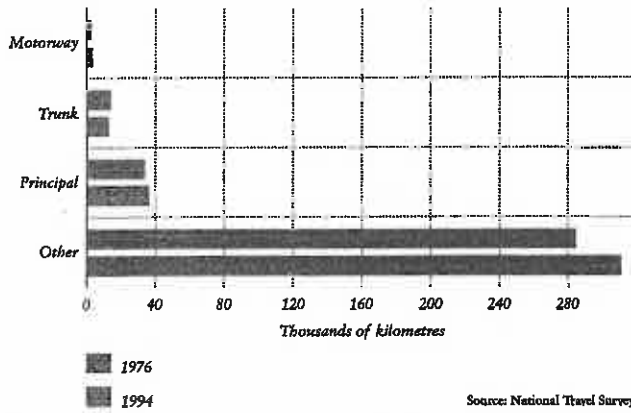
Source: Department of the Environment; Welsh Office; Scottish Office

A.5.8 In 1994, 143,500 households were accepted as being in need under the terms of Homeless Person legislation. This represented a fall compared to 1991. Many of the households accepted for re-housing are placed in bed and breakfast, hotels, hostels and other temporary accommodation until suitable accommodation becomes available. The use of bed and breakfast accommodation has been considerably reduced in recent years.

A.6 Transport

Roads

Figure 6.1: Length of Public Roads

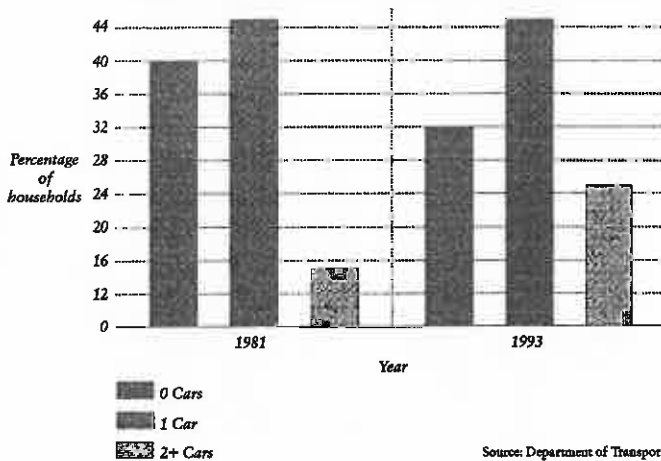


Source: National Travel Survey

A.6.1 The total length of motorways nearly doubled between 1976 - 1994. Improvements to other roads have increased the overall capacity without adding to the total length of roads.

Car Ownership

Figure 6.2: Household Car Ownership in the United Kingdom, 1981 and 1993

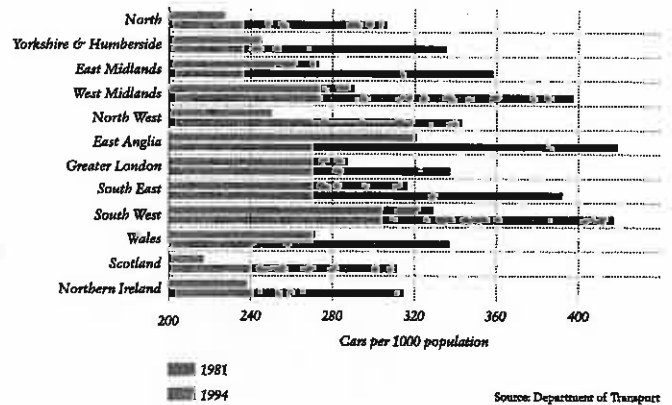


Source: Department of Transport

A.6.2 A third of all households do not have a car. There has been a large increase in the number of households with two or more cars.

A.6.3 There are variations in car ownership across the United Kingdom. The highest rates of car ownership occur in the South East (outside Greater London), the South West and East Anglia and the lowest rates in Scotland and the Northern region. The West Midlands has experienced the greatest growth of car ownership.

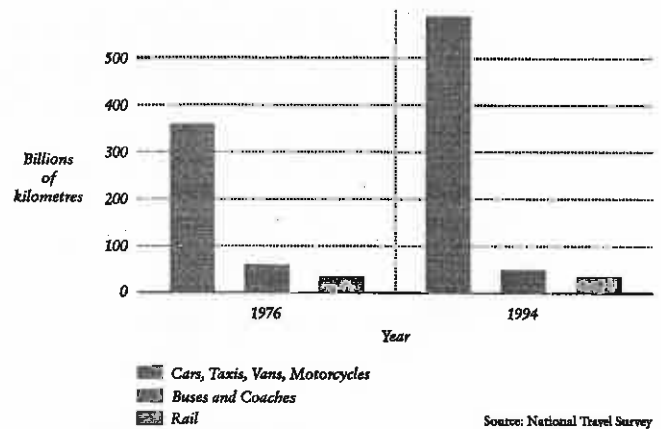
Figure 6.3: Car Ownership by Region, 1981 and 1994 (rates/000s population)



Source: Department of Transport

Transport Use

Figure 6.4: Passenger Kilometres, Great Britain, 1976 and 1994 (billions of kilometres)



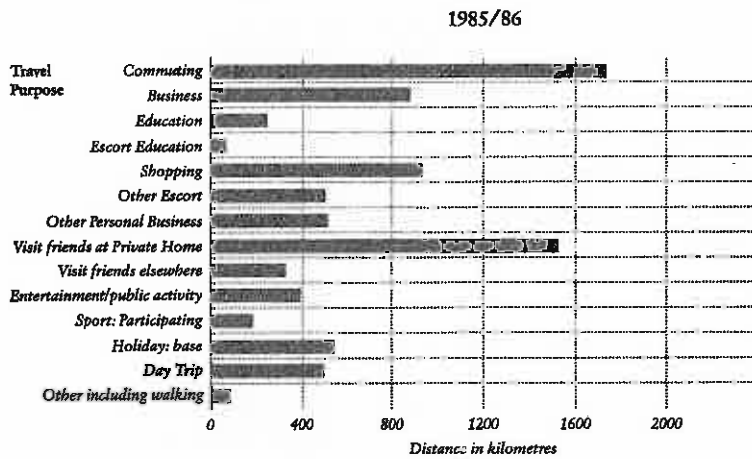
Source: National Travel Survey

A.6.4 Car, taxi and motorcycle use have shown the greatest increase since 1976 and now account for 90% of all travel. The distances travelled by train have remained constant since 1971. The distances travelled by bus and coach have fallen.

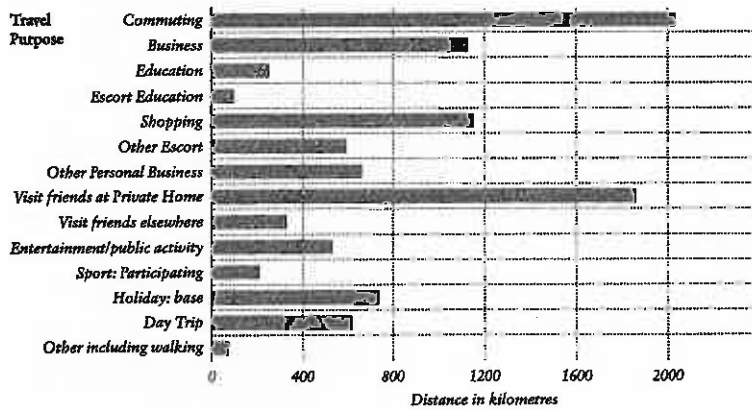
Distances Travelled

A.6.5 The distances people travel in a year have increased by 25% since 1985. Education, shopping, visiting friends and day trips showed the greatest increases in distance. Commuter and business trips grew longer but both fell after a peak in 1989/91.

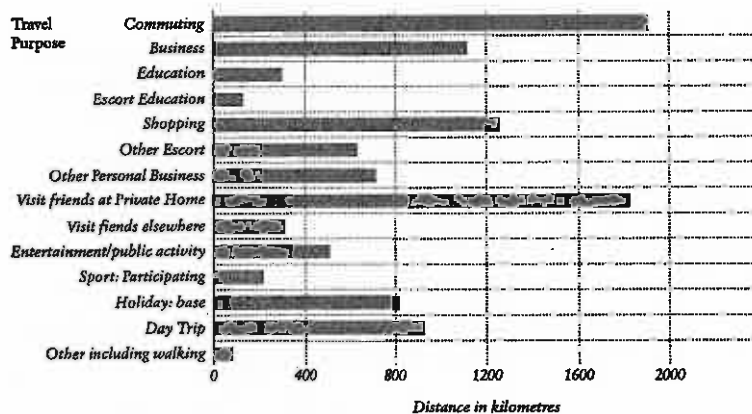
Figure 6.5: Distance Travelled Per Person, Per Year, By Purpose, Great Britain (kilometres)



1989/91



1992/94

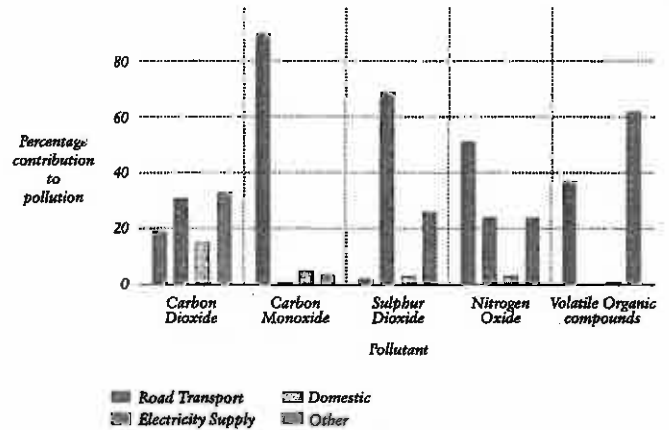


Source: National Travel Survey

A.7 The Environment

Sources of Air Pollution

Figure 7.1: Air Pollutants, by source, United Kingdom, 1993



Source: National Environment Technology Centre

A.7.1 Carbon dioxide is the major pollutant by weight and is derived mainly from power generation. Road transport is the major source of pollution by weight.

Changes in Air Pollution

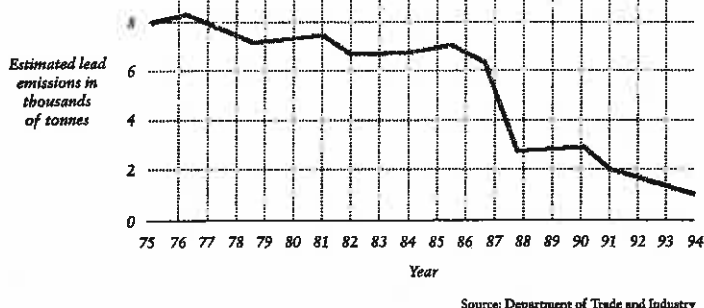
Figure 7.2: Emissions of Air Pollutants, United Kingdom 1980 and 1993

	1980		1993	
	million tonnes	million tonnes / £m GDP	million tonnes	million tonnes / £m GDP
Sulphur dioxide	4.9	11.6	3.2	5.8
Smoke	0.56	1.3	0.44	0.8
Nitrogen oxides	2.4	5.7	2.3	4.3
Volatile organic compounds	2.4	5.6	2.4	4.4
Carbon monoxide	4.9	11.6	5.6	10.3
Carbon dioxide	163	385	151	275
Methane	5.2	12.2	4.2	7.6

A.7.2 Since 1980, levels of sulphur dioxide have fallen, reflecting the use of sulphur free fuels such as natural gas and reduced emissions from industry. Smoke reductions are one of the benefits of the reduced use of coal for domestic heating, although diesel emissions are still a major source of smoke. Carbon monoxide levels have increased with rising traffic levels. The levels of pollution per unit of Gross Domestic Product have fallen reflecting efficiency in energy use and technical improvements.

Lead Levels

Figure 7.3: Estimated Emissions of Lead from Petrol Engines, 1975 - 1994 United Kingdom



A.7.3 Lead levels in the atmosphere have fallen with the increased use of lead free petrol.

River Water Quality

Figure 7.4: Percentage of River and Canal Lengths by General Quality Assessment Chemical Water Quality Class (England and Wales)

	1988-90	1992-94
Good quality (%)		
Class A	17.6	25.3
Class B	30.1	33.5
Fair quality (%)		
Class C	23.0	22.1
Class D	14.2	9.9
Poor quality (%)		
Class E	12.7	8.3
Bad quality (%)		
Class F	2.3	1.0

Figure 7.5: Percentages of River and Canal Water Changing Grade Between 1988 - 1990 and 1992 - 1994 (England and Wales)

Length upgraded %	Length downgraded %	Net Improvement %
38.80	12.70	26.10

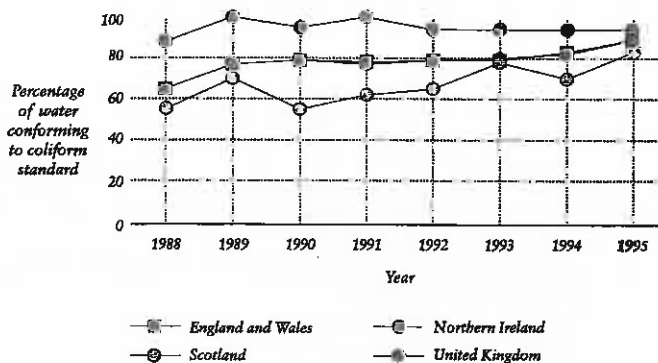
Source: 7A & 7.5 National Rivers Authority

A.7.4 The majority of United Kingdom waters are of good or fair quality. Overall, river and canal water quality improved between 1988 /90 and 1992/94. The best water quality is found in Scotland, Wales, the South West and Northern Ireland, which are all predominantly rural.

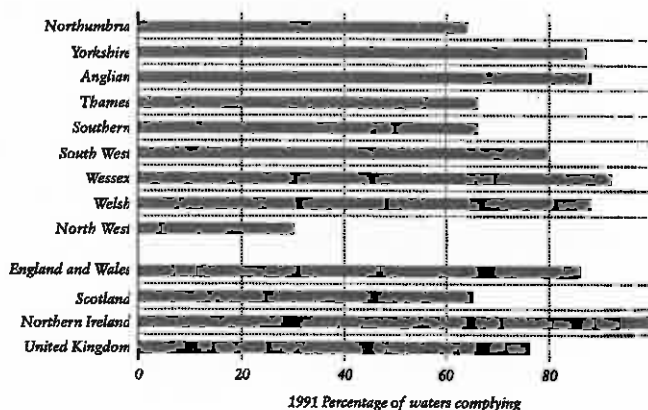
A.7.5 In England, the largest proportions of water of the poorest water quality are found in the East Anglia, Severn Trent, North West, Northumbria and Yorkshire catchment areas. In East Anglia intensive agriculture, entailing the application of fertilisers and weedkillers, can have an adverse effect upon water quality. The Severn Trent, North West, Northumbria and Yorkshire catchment areas are affected by historic and current discharges from manufacturing activity, power generation and density of people and activities.

Bathing Waters

Figures 7.6: Bathing Waters, Compliance with Coliform Standard by Country, 1988 - 1995, United Kingdom



Figures 7.7: Bathing Waters, Compliance with Coliform Standard by Region and Country, 1991, United Kingdom



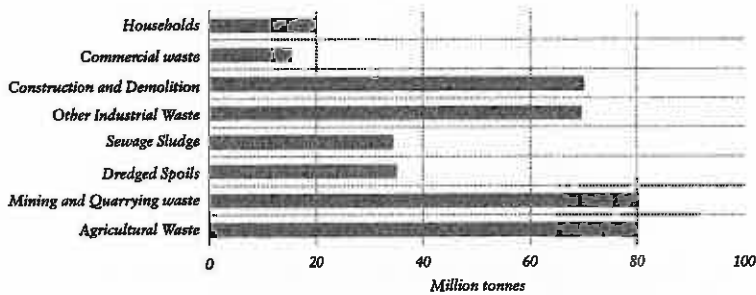
A.7.6 Standards for bathing water which relate to physical, chemical and microbiological criteria are set by European Directive 76/160/EEC. Of the

bathing waters sampled across the United Kingdom as a whole, more bathing waters met the coliform standard between 1988 and 1990, but in 1991, fewer bathing waters met the standard. The North West region, with many popular resorts such as Blackpool, had the lowest proportion of bathing waters which met the standard because of pollution from sewage and shipping. Since 1991, the percentage for the United Kingdom as a whole has steadily increased.

A.8.1 Death rates per 1,000 live births have fallen progressively.

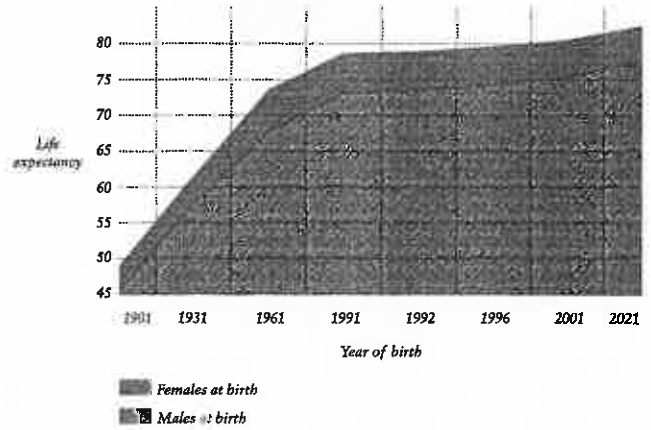
Waste

Figure 7.8: Annual Waste Arising by Sector, United Kingdom (millions tonnes)



Source: Department of the Environment; Ministry of Agriculture Fisheries and Food; Waste Quality Inspectorate

A.7.7 Approximately 400 million tonnes of waste currently arises annually in the United Kingdom. The largest sources of waste are mining and quarrying and agriculture. Of the 244 million tonnes of waste subject to regulation by the Environmental Protection Act, 1990, industrial wastes and wastes from demolition and construction make up the largest part. Landfill accounts for about 70% of the disposal of controlled waste and about 2% is incinerated.



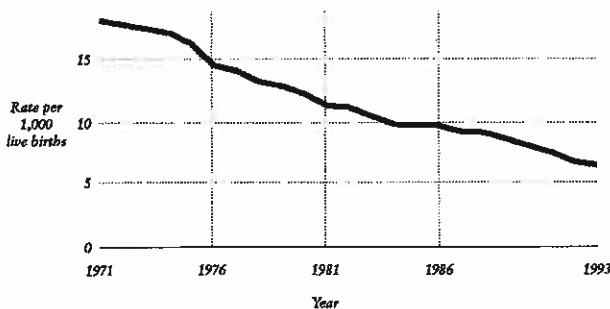
Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; General Register Office (Scotland); General Register Office (Northern Ireland)

A.8.2 Based on mortality rates projected for 1996, there is a life expectancy of 74 years for males and 80 for females. The graph shown is not to scale.

A.8 Health

Infant Mortality

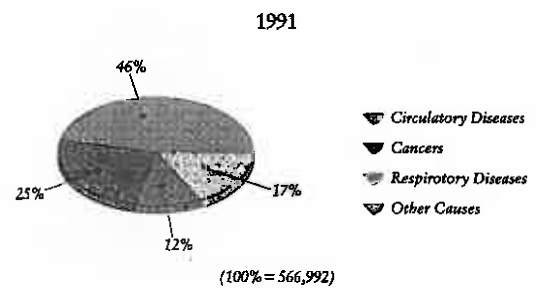
Figure 8.1: Infant Mortality, United Kingdom, 1971 - 1993



Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys; General Register Office (Scotland); General Register Office (Northern Ireland)

Cause of Death

Figure 8.3: Major Causes of Death 1991, all persons, England and Wales

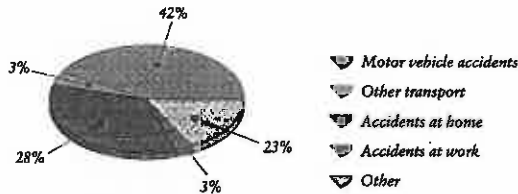


Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.8.3 The major causes of premature death are heart disease and cancer. There are regional variations in the incidence of heart disease and Scotland, Northern Ireland and the North of England have the highest death rates from heart disease.

Accidents

Figure 8.4: Deaths from accidents, all persons, England and Wales, 1992



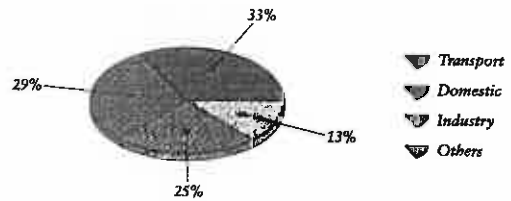
(Figures do not add up to 100% due to rounding)

Source: Office of Population Censuses and Surveys

A.8.4 Accidents are also a cause of premature death. In Great Britain, motor vehicle and transport accidents accounted for 46% of all accidents in 1990.

Energy Consumption by Final User

Figure 9.2: Energy Consumption by final user, United Kingdom, 1994



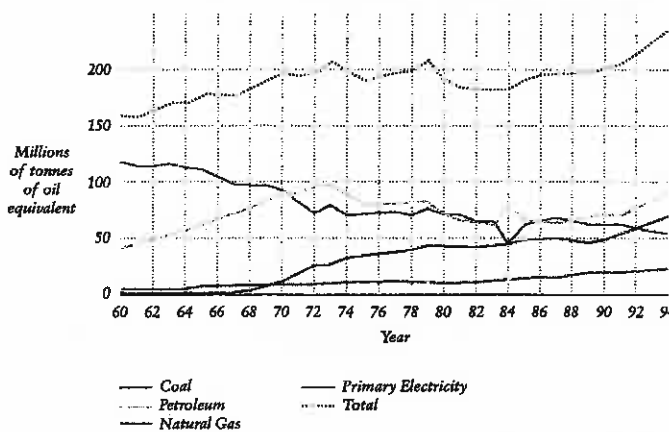
Source: Digest of United Kingdom energy statistics

A.9.2 Energy consumption by final user amounted to 152 million tonnes of oil equivalent in 1994, an increase of 19% since 1960. The transport sector was the largest user of energy and has shown the greatest increase in consumption, whereas industrial consumption has fallen.

A.9 Energy

Primary Energy Consumption and Sources of Energy

Figure 9.1: Energy Consumption and Sources of Energy, United Kingdom, 1960 - 1994

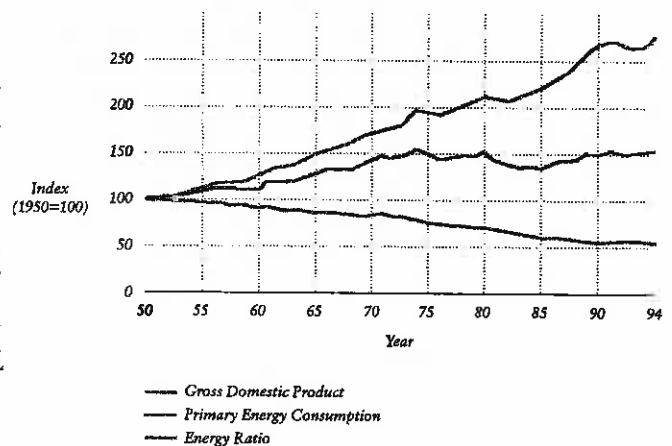


Source: Digest of United Kingdom energy statistics

A.9.1 Overall energy consumption rose steadily at 2% per annum from 1960 to a peak in 1973. Consumption fell back in the early 1980s, but by 1993 had almost reached the earlier peak, falling back in 1994. Petroleum consumption fell after the oil price rise in the early 1970s. Coal consumption has fallen throughout the period.

Energy Consumption and Gross Domestic Product

Figure 9.3: Energy Consumption and Gross Domestic Product, United Kingdom, 1950 -1994



Source: Digest of United Kingdom Energy Statistics

A.9.3 The energy ratio is energy consumption divided by Gross Domestic Product. It has fallen to 55% of its 1950 level. This reflects improved energy efficiency, saturation in ownership levels of domestic appliances and the change from energy intensive industries to service employment.

The major sources of data are:

- Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (now Office for National Statistics)
- Central Statistical Office (now Office for National Statistics)
- Employment Gazette, NOMIS, Department of Employment (now Department for Education and Employment)
- *Annual Abstract of Statistics*, London: HMSO
- *Transport Statistics in Great Britain*, London: HMSO
- *Social Trends*, London: HMSO
- *Regional Trends*, London: HMSO
- *Economic Trends*, London: HMSO
- *Economic Trends*, Annual Supplement, London: HMSO
- Gosling A, Huchin S and Meghir C (1994) *What has happened to wages?* Commentary No 43, London: IFS
- Digest of Environmental Statistics No. 17, 1995 The United Kingdom Environment.
- Digest of United Kingdom Energy Statistics, 1995
- Department of the Environment (1993) *Survey of Derelict Land in England*, London: HMSO

APPENDIX B LAND USE PLANNING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

B.1 Principles and Aims of the Planning System

B.1.1 The modern planning system was established by the Town and Country Planning Act 1947 to co-ordinate and regulate the development and use of land in a consistent manner⁽¹⁾. Its broad principles have remained largely unchanged to the present day where they have legislative expression for England and Wales in the Town and Country Planning Act 1990, as amended by the Planning and Compensation Act 1991. There is separate legislation for Scotland and Northern Ireland, where the principles and structure of the systems are similar to those in England and Wales.

B.1.2 The planning system has been robust. It has been able to respond to fundamental changes in policy and attitudes because of its relative simplicity in broad outline, matched by the sophistication and variety of ways in which it has been used.

Seven basic principles underlie the system. They are that:

- overall responsibility rests with central government, but the detailed formulation and implementation of policy is delegated to local government;
- county and regional authorities and some unitary district authorities are required to prepare a structure plan; most non-metropolitan district councils prepare a local plan; and London boroughs and metropolitan districts prepare a unitary development plan;

- a single, comprehensive definition of development covers all building and other operations on land, and changes in the use of land and buildings;
- planning permission is required for any proposal for development, through the system of development control by the local authority;
- planning decisions should be in accord with the development plan unless material considerations indicate otherwise (the 'plan led' system);
- a right of appeal to the Secretary of State exists against a refusal of planning permission on grounds of policy, and to the Courts on the legality of the decision; and
- a power of enforcement is invoked against so-called 'breaches of planning control', in effect carrying out development without planning permission.

B.1.3 The basis and purpose of the planning system are set out in *Planning Policy Guidance Note 1, General Policy and Principles*⁽²⁾. The system is designed to regulate the development and use of land in the public interest, such that development and growth are sustainable. This means balancing two broad sets of aims:

- to protect and enhance the environment in town and country, preserving the built and natural heritage, conserving the rural landscape and maintaining the green belts around major cities; and
- to guide appropriate development to the right place by making adequate provision for development including new houses and workplaces, and associated services such as

schools and roads, as well as preventing development which is not acceptable. Where applications for development are consistent with the development plan, they should be allowed unless the proposed development would cause demonstrable harm to matters of acknowledged importance. The sum total of decisions in the planning field should not deny future generations the best of today's environment.

B.2 The Administrative Framework for Planning

B.2.1 Planning is administered by a combination of central and local government. The Department of the Environment, headed by a minister, the Secretary of State, is responsible in England. There is no elected regional tier of government in England. However, there are ten integrated regional offices, bringing together the regional interests of four government departments, namely Environment, Transport, Trade and Industry, and Employment and Education. They have important functions in dealings with the European Commission, and in administering land use, regional and urban policy.

B.2.2 Planning in the other three parts of the United Kingdom is the responsibility respectively of the Welsh, Scottish, and Northern Ireland Offices of the national government, each headed by a Secretary of State.

B.2.3 Local government in most of the United Kingdom was substantially reorganised in 1974 and 1975, and further altered in 1986 and 1996. The reorganised system in 1996 is:

- in Greater London and the six metropolitan conurbations in England, a single tier of unitary district councils;
- over most of England, a two-tier system of county councils (average population 750,000) and district councils (100,000), but with the larger cities having a unitary district council;
- in Wales and Scotland, a system of unitary councils; and
- in Northern Ireland, where local government has not been reorganised in 1996, a single tier of district councils but many of the usual functions of local government are exercised directly by the Northern Ireland Office.

B.2.4 The responsibilities of local government are laid down by legislation in Parliament. County and district councillors are elected, usually for a period

of four years. Planning is divided between central and local government except in Northern Ireland where planning decisions are made by Government. All planning decisions by local government are made by the elected council, or delegated by it to a committee, or in some limited cases to their Chief Planning Officer. Each council is advised by such a person and his or her staff. Most of these individuals will normally be professionally-qualified town planners, usually members of the Royal Town Planning Institute (see Box B.1).

Box B.1

The Royal Town Planning Institute

The Royal Town Planning Institute (RTPI) was formed in 1914 with the following aims, granted by Royal Charter in 1959:

- *the advancement of the study of town planning;*
- *promotion of the artistic and scientific development of towns, cities and the countryside;*
- *securing the association of those engaged professionally or otherwise in town planning and promoting of their general interests.*

The RTPI accredits planning courses in 21 universities and institutes of higher education for membership of the Institute after graduates have also completed two years of practical experience.

Current membership is approximately 18,000, working in central and local government, private consultancies, academic institutions and elsewhere.

B.2.5 There is a third very local tier of parish or town councils in the more rural areas of England and Wales. Their only formal involvement is to be consulted on development plans and applications for planning permission.

B.3 The Operation of the Planning System

National, Regional and Strategic Planning

B.3.1 The United Kingdom does not have a national physical plan. Responsibility for preparing land use plans from the outset in 1947 was given to local authorities. The Department of the Environment and the Welsh and Scottish Offices issue guidance for the preparation of development plans and the considerations to be taken into account in development control. The Scottish Office began issuing National Planning Policy Guidelines in

1974. They also publish Planning Advice Notes on good practice. A list of recent Guidelines is given in Box B.2. The series of Planning Policy Guidance Notes issued by the Department of the Environment from 1988 are listed in Box B.3. Most of these were also issued by the Welsh Office, although they are now being reviewed.

B.3.2 The Notes and Guidelines provide guidance on the general aims of the planning system, the content and methods of preparing development plans, and on specific policy topics. These are published after consultation with a wide range of interests and organisations, and have been revised in the 1990s to take account of sustainable development aims. They have no formal, legal status, although they have been held by the Courts to be a proper 'consideration' to be taken into account in development control. The Town and Country Planning Act 1990, as amended, states that when preparing a development plan, the local authority must 'have regard' to national policies.

B.3.3 Since 1988, as part of the emerging 'plan-led' approach to planning, the Department of the Environment has issued Regional Planning Guidance for each of the eight English regions. It has the same status as the national guidance and is approved after consultation with the local authorities and other interested organisations in the region. For their part, the local authorities have banded together as regional conferences or fora to offer collective advice to the Department in advance of publication of the draft guidance.

B.3.4 The Department also has issued Strategic Planning Guidance for London and the metropolitan areas. The guidance has the same status and is based on much the same procedure as for the regional guidance, but is in more detail, given the smaller area to be covered. It is being replaced by regional planning guidance in all metropolitan areas except London.

Development Plans

B.3.5 The Town and Country Planning Act 1990, as amended by the Planning and Compensation Act 1991, requires that a development plan be prepared for every local planning authority in England and Wales. There are two types of policies in the development plan:

- strategic policies, which cover key planning issues over a broad area and provide a framework for local planning; and

Box B.2

National Planning Guidelines, Scotland

NPPG1	<i>The Planning System (1994)</i>
NPPG2	<i>Business and Industry (1993, amended 1994)</i>
NPPG3	<i>Land for Housing (1993)</i>
NPPG4	<i>Land for Mineral Working (1994)</i>
NPPG5	<i>Archaeology and Planning (1994)</i>
NPPG6	<i>Renewable Energy (1994)</i>
NPPG7	<i>Planning and Flooding (1995)</i>
NPPG9	<i>The Provision of Roadside Facilities on Motorways and Other Trunk Roads in Scotland (consultation draft 1994)</i>
NPPG10	<i>Land for Waste Disposal (consultation draft 1994)</i>
NPPG	<i>Retailing (consultation draft 1995)</i>
NPPG	<i>Sport and Physical Recreation (consultation draft 1995)</i>

- local policies, which are more detailed and act as a guide to individual planning decisions. Local policies may include proposals for specific sites.

B.3.6 The development plan for an area is made up of a number of separate plans:

- Structure Plans contain the strategic policies. They are prepared by the strategic planning authority for the area, usually the county council or the council of a unitary district. Two or more strategic authorities can work together to prepare a joint structure plan for their combined areas.
- Local Plans are prepared by the district councils and national park authorities for their areas. They set out the local policies for an area in line with the structure plan.
- Minerals and waste local plans are prepared by county councils, unitary districts and national park authorities, although the policies alternatively may be contained in their local plans.
- Unitary development plans combine strategic, local and minerals and waste policies in other areas (including the metropolitan areas and London).

B.3.7 Each local planning authority must have a plan of the appropriate kind in place for the whole of their area, and keep those plans under review, updating them at appropriate intervals. Structure plans are already in place for all parts of England. Many district authorities expect to have their local

plans/unitary development plans completed by the end of 1996.

B.3.8 Following the 1996 local government reorganisation the new district planning authorities and national park authorities in Wales will prepare unitary development plans. Until they have been prepared, the previous structure and local plans will remain in force. The situation in Scotland is that all of the seventeen new unitary planning authorities will prepare local plans. In addition, eleven will also prepare a structure plan while in the other areas a joint structure plan will be prepared covering several districts.

B.3.9 Procedures for the preparation or review of plans are laid down in the legislation. The key stages are:

- a survey of the area, keeping matters affecting its planning under review, and consulting with appropriate public authorities and other bodies;

- public participation in which people have an opportunity to comment on the proposals as they emerge;
- scope for formal objection to the draft plan, if necessary through a form of public inquiry; and
- adoption by the local authority preparing the plan.

The Secretary of State can intervene by use of the power to direct modifications if the plan is unsatisfactory, for example, in relation to national and regional planning guidance, or if it is technically deficient. As a last resort, he can call in all or parts of a plan for his own determination.

B.3.10 Further details of the content and procedure for the preparation of structure, local and unitary development plans are given in *Planning Policy Guidance Note 12, Development Plans and Regional Planning Guidance*, in *Development Plans: A Good Practice Guide*, and in *Environmental Appraisal of Development Plans, a Good Practice Guide*⁽³⁾.

B.3.11 Structure plans form one part of the development plan in some areas and have the following characteristics:

- they set out the main policies for the development of their area for a period of about fifteen years, having regard to national and regional planning guidance;
- they provide the framework for the local plans to be prepared by the district councils in their area, and the minerals and waste local plan to be prepared by the county council;
- they do this in a flexible way which concentrates on general principles, expressed as a series of written policies, with a key diagram illustrating their spatial relationships; and
- since 1991, in England and Wales, and occasionally in Scotland, they have been adopted by the local planning authority after an 'examination-in-public', in which issues are explored.

B.3.12 Structure plans cover a range of policy areas in broad detail, having regard to the availability of resources, including:

- housing, including new housing provision in each district;

Box B.3

Planning Policy Guidance Notes, England

PPG1	<i>General Policy and Principles (1988, revised 1992, under revision 1996)</i>
PPG2	<i>Green Belts (1988, revised 1995)</i>
PPG3	<i>Housing (1988, revised 1992)</i>
PPG4	<i>Industrial and Commercial Development and Small Firms (1988, revised 1992)</i>
PPG5	<i>Simplified Planning Zones (1992)</i>
PPG6	<i>Town Centres and Retail Developments (1988, revised 1993, under revision 1996)</i>
PPG7	<i>The Countryside and the Rural Economy (1988, revised 1992, under revision 1996)</i>
PPG8	<i>Telecommunications (1992)</i>
PPG9	<i>Nature Conservation (1994)</i>
PPG12	<i>Development Plans and Regional Planning Guidance (1988, revised 1994, under revision 1996)</i>
PPG13	<i>Transport (1988, revised 1994)</i>
PPG14	<i>Development on Unstable Land (1990)</i>
PPG15	<i>Planning and the Historic Environment (1994)</i>
PPG16	<i>Archaeology and Planning (1990)</i>
PPG17	<i>Sport and Recreation (1991)</i>
PPG18	<i>Enforcing Planning Control (1991)</i>
PPG19	<i>Outdoor Advertisement Control (1992)</i>
PPG20	<i>Coastal Planning (1992)</i>
PPG21	<i>Tourism (1992)</i>
PPG22	<i>Renewable Energy (1993)</i>
PPG23	<i>Planning and Pollution Control (1994)</i>
PPG24	<i>Planning and Noise (1994)</i>

Box B.4

West Glamorgan Structure Plan Review

The West Glamorgan Structure Plan was approved in 1980, and Alteration No 1 in 1986. Changes in the economy led to Alteration No 2 being started in 1990. A short, non-technical report on Key Issues and Major Policy Choices was widely distributed in September 1990, and people and organisations were invited to comment within three months.

The Report briefly reviewed the main changes, including the end of deep coal mining in the county, development in the Enterprise Zone, support from the European Commission for re-structuring the economy, with growth in services and tourism, and the rise in environmental consciousness, with concern about the quality of life in urban areas, the beaches and the sea, and the Gower Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty (AONB).

Key issues were identified and a number of major policy choices identified, including:

- the desired scale of residential development in a number of areas;

- encouragement of substantial new shopping and other uses in the Swansea city centre, or in locations outside the city centre;
- concentration of major commercial and industrial investment on development sites along the M4 corridor, or a more equitable distribution throughout the County;
- a choice between more expenditure on roads, or on public transport, traffic management, cycling and pedestrians; and
- retention of the strict control of development in the countryside, especially the AONB, or selectively to relax policies to facilitate tourism and recreation.

The choices were expressed in the form of two possible strategies, one for a concentration of development on the Swansea-Neath axis; and the other for dispersal, especially to smaller urban areas and the valleys. The chosen strategy favours a dispersed pattern of growth in urban areas, in the Valleys, and on the coast, consolidating current planning commitments, and using vacant land and sites already committed but not yet developed.

B.3.13 Structure plans covered the entire country by 1983 and, in many areas, have been revised several times to take account of changing circumstances. They seek to maintain, as far as possible, consistency in their principal objectives. This gives a degree of certainty for development interests and also for those concerned with protecting the environment. This aim is further reinforced by the provision of the 1991 Planning Act, that the planning system be 'plan-led'. Box B.4 gives an example of the choices in a structure plan review, that for West Glamorgan, in Wales.

B.3.14 Local plans carry forward policies in the structure plan. They set out detailed policies and specific proposals for the development and use of land, and provide a detailed framework for development control. They comprise a written statement of policies and a detailed proposals map showing specific proposals for development and other area-specific policies affecting the use and development of land, including transport and the environment.

B.3.15 The process of preparing a local plan follows the same broad sequence as for a structure plan, allowing for the fact that it has to conform to the appropriate structure plan. The chief procedural difference is that instead of an 'examination-in-public' into issues, there is opportunity for a formal public inquiry. This takes place in front of an Inspector appointed by the Secretary of State (at which objections to the draft plan are heard, and the local authority has to reply) who then presents a report to the local planning authority which adopts the plan, with or without modifications.

B.3.16 The form and content of local plans can vary considerably as they are designed to respond to local circumstances. The local plan for an area where the local council is identifying opportunities for commercial development will be different to that for an area where the policy is to define precisely the boundaries of a green belt and generally restrain development (Box B.5).

B.3.17 The unitary development plans which apply in London boroughs and in the districts of the six English metropolitan areas, are in two parts. They generally correspond to a structure plan and a local plan.

B.3.18 Finally, supplementary planning guidance is prepared by many local authorities to supplement the policies in the development plan itself and can provide helpful guidance for those preparing planning applications. It can be a material consideration in determining applications for planning permission, and its weight will increase if it has been subject to public consultation. Typical examples include:



West Glamorgan

- green belts and conservation of the natural and built environment;
- the rural economy;
- the urban economy, including major industrial, business, retail and other wealth-creating and employment-generating development;
- strategic transport and highway facilities, and other infrastructure requirements;
- mineral working, including disposal of mineral waste and reclamation and re-use of former mineral workings, and protection of mineral resources;
- waste treatment and disposal, land reclamation and re-use;
- tourism, leisure and recreation; and
- energy generation, including renewable energy.

- design guides for specified areas or types of development;
- design or development briefs for particular sites; and
- guidance on the social or physical infrastructure which may be needed to support development.

- the application is recorded in a public register and publicised;
- relevant agencies, such as the highways department of the county council and the pollution control agency, are consulted;
- the planning officer prepares a report and recommendations for the planning committee, based on policies in the development plan, consultations and other representations;
- the planning committee of elected councillors makes its decision, unless it has been delegated to officers;
- the decision will be to grant planning permission, with or without conditions, or to refuse permission;
- the decision will normally be made within eight weeks, with opportunities for an extension by agreement with the applicant; and
- the applicant has a right of appeal for non-determination if the decision is not forthcoming within the 8 week period.

Box B.5

Dundee District Local Plan (Draft)

The city of Dundee, in the Tayside Region, is the fourth largest in Scotland, with a population of 165,000. The draft Local Plan was published by the City Council in November 1994. It covers the entire district, including the city and its surrounding countryside and villages. It is intended to replace in a single statutory plan a series of earlier local plans for the central area and other parts of the district adopted between 1985 and 1994, themselves revisions of earlier plans.

The aims of the plan are to establish through management of land use change and development:

- a new economic role for the city following the collapse of its traditional manufacturing industry, and
- a better quality of life and environment for its citizens, including those in the areas of deprivation and peripheral municipal housing estates.

The philosophy of the plan embodies six general policies. They cover commitments for:

- public consultation;
- equality of opportunity;
- sustainable development;

- balanced communities, and diversity and integration of land uses;
- compulsory purchase of land, where necessary; and
- regular monitoring and review.

The plan is for a five year period to 2001, with more tentative coverage for the following five years. It is based on considerable public participation, with twenty forums encompassing the business community, elected members of the council, and the local communities across the district. Community regeneration is the major challenge of the plan. It contains:

- policies, which are statements of the council's attitudes or intentions relating to a particular issue or site;
- proposals, which are specific intended actions to be carried out by the district council or other public or private bodies within five years of adoption of the plan; and
- recommendations, which relate to matters outside the council's control, indicating its views on specific subjects.

The plan is intended to conform to the Tayside Regional Council's 1993 draft Structure Plan. It has gone forward for a Public Inquiry into objections before its final adoption by the council.

B.3.20 Applications should be decided in accordance with the development plan, unless material considerations indicate otherwise. Thus development control should be plan-led, but the system allows for some flexibility.

B.3.21 The process of development control is the same for all applications whether they are for an extension to a house, or a proposal for a new estate of 2,000 houses, or a shopping centre of 100,000m². The only difference is likely to be that the smaller applications would be submitted in full whereas the larger proposals would probably be the subject of an outline application to establish the principles of the development, to be followed by approval of reserved matters such as the design, access, or landscaping.

B.3.22 There are modified procedures for development by local authorities, government departments and the Crown, though these are based on the same criteria of open government and public consultation.

B.3.23 The general principles of development control have remained largely unchanged in the period since 1976. However, there have been some detailed changes of approach of which three are particularly important.

Development Control

B.3.19 Development control, the process whereby planning permission is granted, operates broadly as follows:

- proposals for development requiring planning permission are submitted to the planning department of the relevant planning authority, generally a district or borough council;



Dundee

B.3.24 First, the detailed definition of development requiring planning permission was altered in the late 1980s and again in 1995. The aim was to extend the range of 'permitted' development for which planning permission would no longer be required, in line with market forces and deregulation. They were:

- further extensions to the definition of relatively minor forms of development in the General Development Order, such as extensions to a house or factory; and
- greater flexibility in permitted changes within one of the categories in the Use Classes Order. The 1987 and 1995 revisions enabled greater flexibility, especially for changes between industrial and commercial office uses.

B.3.25 Secondly, in 1988, requirements were introduced for certain planning applications to be accompanied by an Environmental Statement. These arose from European Directive 85/337 EEC. Nine types of development, including major power stations, chemical plants or infrastructure projects, have to be subject to environmental assessment. More than eighty other types of development require environmental assessments if they are likely to have significant effects on the environment by virtue of factors such as their nature, size or location. In 1998 the categories of development for which environmental assessment is mandatory will be extended.

B.3.26 Thirdly, there has been a gradual increase in the number of applications, usually major commercial or residential developments, which give rise to negotiations between planners and developers about additional requirements to be met before planning permission will be given. The outcome would be a legal agreement or contract between the applicant and the local authority, which would come into effect once planning permission was granted. Such requirements could include:

- financial contributions to the costs of off-site infrastructure, essential parking or community facilities directly related to the proposal;
- a guarantee that all the uses in a mixed-use development will be completed;
- public rights-of-way across the site; or
- the provision of on- or off-site landscaping or amenity space.

Appeals

B.3.27 People who have submitted an application for planning permission and have either been refused consent, or granted consent with conditions to which they object, or not had a decision within the specified time, have a right to appeal to the Secretary of State for a decision. The Secretary of State, in England and Wales, then appoints an Inspector (a Reporter in Scotland) who is usually a professional town planner to hear the appeal. The appeal may involve either written representations submitted by the applicant and the local authority to the Inspector, or the case being heard by the Inspector, either through a quasi-judicial public inquiry or, less formally, a hearing. The decision in principle is by the same criteria as the original, local authority decision and it would usually be taken by the Inspector unless the case is sufficiently important or complicated, in which case the decision would be by the Secretary of State.

B.3.28 In addition, applicants for planning permission, and local planning authorities may also appeal to the Courts on a point of law, that the decision to which they object, whether to grant or refuse planning consent, failed to follow the correct legal procedures. The result, if successful, would be for the decision to be quashed and redetermined, and, if required, for the application to be re-submitted or the appeal re-heard.

B.3.29 The increase in the number of appeals, and of the proportion which were successful, was especially marked during the later 1980s when there was an increase in the number of applications, mainly induced by the property boom. The number of appeals has since diminished in the 1990s as the pressure for new development has been affected by the recession in the property industry.

B.3.30 Finally, there is a Local Government Commissioner appointed by Government to hear appeals against a local authority for malpractice, such as for instance failing to notify neighbours or others with an interest in a planning application.

Planning and the Public

B.3.31 The rights of people to become involved in the operation of the planning system are built into the legislation. There are formal rights for public participation built into the procedures for the preparation and adoption of development plans. Secondly, the public can learn about, and neighbours are informed about, applications for planning permission, after which they can register an objection with the local authority before a

decision is made. They may also subsequently appear at an appeal against a refusal of planning permission.

- B.3.32 Professional planning consultants, usually members of the Royal Town Planning Institute, offer advice on planning aspects of development projects to financial institutions, developers or individuals. In addition, there is a network of planners who are willing to provide their services free of charge to individuals and community groups who cannot afford to pay so that they can take part in the plan making process, object to a major development, or promote their own proposals.

B.4 Extensions to the Planning System

- B.4.1 Land-use planning is complemented by other legislation. For example, there is separate

legislation covering many aspects of amenity affecting the quality of life in towns and countryside, including protection of trees and control of outdoor advertisements. In particular, it provides for the protection of buildings or areas of special architectural or historic interest.

- B.4.2 In respect of urban regeneration, legislation in the late 1970s and 1980s gave additional powers to tackle the problems of urban areas in decline, covering economic development, housing and environmental improvements. For the most part, these were to attract and promote development in inner urban areas. In particular, Urban Development Corporations shifted responsibility for planning from local authorities to government-appointed bodies for a specified period, and enterprise and simplified planning zones established relaxed planning and development control regimes in designated areas.

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APPENDIX

GLOSSARY

OF TERMS

C

Architectural Liaison Officer

Member of the police force who has had special training in and who is responsible for advising on security aspects of design. They are consulted by the local planning authority in respect of development proposals.

Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty

An area of countryside designated by the Countryside Commission with the objective of conserving the natural beauty of the landscape.

Brownfield site

Land previously developed for urban uses.

Building Regulations

The control mechanism designed primarily to ensure the health and safety of people in and around buildings. They also cover access for people with disabilities and insulation standards.

Business park

Non-industrial employment area with low density, high quality buildings in a high quality landscape setting.

Bus lanes

Part of the highway set aside for either permanent or part-time use by buses to provide a clear route for buses.

City Challenge

A programme included as part of the Single Regeneration Budget since 1994, and due to wind up in 1998, to promote regeneration of disadvantaged areas, based on partnership between public, private and community organisations. Local authorities are invited to form partnerships, prepare plans and bid for funds.

City Grant/Urban Development Grant

Project specific funding for industrial, commercial or housing development designed to attract net additional private investment whilst addressing some special urban need. They have been included as part of English Partnerships, within the Single Regeneration Budget since 1994.

Codes of construction practice

Codes which set out agreed standards and practices in related to particular construction projects, to minimise adverse environmental effects.

Community action

Initiatives arising from groups within the community to influence or start projects or plans.

Compact City

An approach to sustainable development, emphasising the economic and social advantages of mixed use, high density cities, but which also protects the environmental quality of urban areas.

Conservation area

A designated area of special architectural or historic interest, usually in a town or village, within which development is more strictly controlled and for which the local planning authority has a duty to formulate and publish proposals for preservation and enhancement.

Contaminated land

Land so damaged by industrial or other development that it is incapable of beneficial use without treatment.

Councillor

The elected member of a county, district or borough council.

County Council

The upper tier of elected local government in England and Wales outside London and the metropolitan areas prior to 1996. In some areas of England and in all of Scotland and Wales, the two tier system of local authorities was replaced in 1996 by a single unitary authority.

Cycle lanes

Routes within the highway which are intended for use by pedal cyclists, with or without rights of way for pedestrians.

Derelict land

Vacant land damaged by the previous use which has been abandoned.

Development

Development is strictly and comprehensively defined in planning legislation as covering building, engineering and other operations, and changes in the use of land and buildings between the classes of use defined in the use classes order.

Development control

The system by which development is controlled through the grant or refusal of planning permission.

Development plan

The local planning authority's statutory statement of policy for the use and development of land within its area, currently comprising structure and local plans, and in some areas, a unitary development plan.

Ecosystem

A community of inter-dependent organisms together with the environment they inhabit and with which they interact.

Enforcement

A process to remedy breaches of planning control. Remedies include enforcement notices, breach of condition notices, and injunctions. Certain enforcement offences carry penalty fines on conviction.

English Partnerships

A Government agency set up in November 1993 to stimulate the reclamation and development of land across England to create jobs and environmental benefits. It is part of the Single Regeneration Budget.

Enterprise Zone

A small area designated for a period of 10 years by the Government, usually in older, or inner city industrial areas, within which specified types of

development receive tax incentives and are granted planning permission automatically, without having to submit an application.

Environmental appraisal

The process of defining and examining the environmental implications of proposed policies, plans and programmes.

Environmental assessment

A technique for identifying the environmental effects of development projects, and an important element in the land use planning process for certain new developments. Procedures include the preparation of an environmental statement and appropriate public consultations prior to the granting of consent for the project.

Estates Action Programme

Schemes which focus on specific estates to improve homes and the general environment.

Examination-in-Public

A special form of inquiry by a panel of experts appointed by the Secretary of State to advise the local planning authority on matters arising from structure plan proposals.

Fitness standard

Criteria used to determine if a house is fit for human occupation.

Government Offices for the Regions

Ten integrated regional offices of the central government departments of Trade and Industry, Education and Employment, Environment and Transport, with the prime tasks of administering the Single Regeneration Budget and encouraging regional competitiveness.

Greater London

Following the abolition of the Greater London Council in 1986, Greater London is administered by the 33 pre-existing borough councils, each preparing a unitary development plan for its area.

Green belt

An area of land designated in development plans with the aim of preventing urban sprawl by keeping land permanently open.

Greenfield site

Land where urban development has not previously taken place.

Housing Action Trusts

Local bodies, set up by Parliament, to which areas of housing have been transferred in order to improve them.

Housing Benefit

Benefits are available to people on low incomes to enable them to pay the rent for which they are responsible. Account is taken of household circumstances, income levels and rent levels.

Income Support

Income support is available to people with low or no other income, according to their circumstances.

Integrated Pollution Control

System of control of releases from the potentially most polluting industrial processes, enforced by the Environment Agency. The agency considers emissions to all media in the context of their effect on the environment as a whole.

Joint Funding Scheme

Arrangements where overseas aid projects are jointly funded by the ODA and non-governmental organisations.

Leverage

Private sector funds which are 'levered in' to support and enhance the effects of public funds, and which would not otherwise be spent in an area or on a strategy.

Listed Buildings

Buildings of architectural or historic interest, listed by the Historic Buildings and Monuments Commission for England and subject to strict planning control requiring 'listed building consent' to be obtained for any works affecting them.

Local Agenda 21

Local strategy on environmental issues, developed jointly by local authorities, businesses and communities following the adoption of Agenda 21 at the UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992.

Local Government

A generic term used to refer generally to elected local authorities including county councils, district councils, metropolitan district councils, London borough councils, and the new unitary authorities.

Local Government Commission

Independent commission set up to review the geographical extent and functional divisions of local government in England.

Local Government Management Board

The LGMB is governed by a board of elected members nominated by the local authority associations. It represents the interests of local authorities throughout England and Wales.

Local Nature Reserve

An area of local ecological interest, established by local authorities to provide opportunities for education and for the enjoyment of wildlife.

Local Plan

A form of development plan prepared and adopted by a local planning authority (usually a district council), in conformity with the relevant structure plan, containing detailed policies and proposals for the use of land in its area, including site specific policies.

Medium-sized towns

Towns with a population of 50,000 to 100,000.

Metropolitan areas

The six highly urbanised areas of England (excluding Greater London), formerly administered by elected metropolitan county councils, abolished in 1986. Each is now subdivided and administered by metropolitan district councils.

Metropolitan District Council

The single tier of elected local government in the metropolitan areas, which prepares and adopts a unitary development plan for its area.

National Park

An area designated by the Countryside Commission with the purpose of conserving and enhancing natural beauty, wildlife and cultural heritage, and promoting opportunities for public understanding and enjoyment of its special qualities.

Negative equity

A situation where the current value of a home is less than the outstanding mortgage.

Neighbourhood planning

Informal community based planning below the level of the district plan which focuses on social and community development issues.

New Settlement

Free-standing settlements promoted by private and/or public sector interests, where the new development constitutes 50% or more of the total size of settlement, of whatever size, measured in terms of population or dwellings.

New Town

Free-standing or greatly expanded new settlement, designated under the New Towns legislation in the post-war period up to the 1980s whose growth was managed by a special purpose New Town Development Corporation.

Nitrate Advisory Areas/ Nitrate Sensitive Areas

Areas where pilot schemes have been introduced to regulate and advise on the use of fertiliser and organic manure, with the aim of reducing the levels of nitrate in drinking water.

Non-determination

Failure by a local planning authority to issue a decision in respect of a planning application within eight weeks of the date the authority received the application, or within any extended period agreed in writing with the applicant (eg. 16 weeks if Environmental Assessment is required). There is the right of appeal to the Secretary of State against non-determination.

Non Governmental Organisation

Any organisation which is not directly sponsored by government.

Outline planning application/permission

A form of planning application/permission establishing the basic principles of a proposed development, but still requiring approval of reserved matters of detail.

Out-of-town shopping centre

Free-standing retail centre with a high level of shopping provision, located outside an existing urban area, usually to take advantage of highway access.

Parish Council/Town Council

Small local authorities outside metropolitan areas and large towns with limited statutory powers but considerable local influence. They have the right to be consulted on planning applications in their area and can appear at any planning inquiry, and have powers to acquire, appropriate and dispose of land.

Partnerships

Consortia entered into voluntarily by a range of public, private or other organisations to contribute funding, expertise and voluntary effort to secure the improvement of an area.

Permitted development

A form of development, mainly minor in scale, for which planning permission is granted automatically by the General Permitted Development Order.

Planning appeal

An application to the Secretary of State appealing against the decision of a local planning authority to refuse planning permission or to grant planning permission subject to conditions, or against the authority's failure to determine a planning application within the statutory period or agreed extension.

Planning gain

This term has no statutory significance and is used in different ways. Some people use it to describe the legitimate agreements or offers made to overcome planning objections to a proposed development. In other cases, it is used to describe offers of extra benefits from developers, or attempts to extract payments in cash or kind, for purposes that are not related to the development proposed.

Planning Inquiry

A quasi-judicial hearing conducted by a planning inspector (or a reporter in Scotland) into planning matters for which the Secretary of State is the decision-making authority, such as planning appeals, or into objections to a deposited local or unitary development plan.

Planning obligation

Effectively a promise to do (or refrain from doing) something or to make a payment to the local planning authority. Obligations do not have to be related to a particular planning application but are usually made in order to overcome the planning objections to a proposed development. They may take the form of an agreement with the local planning authorities or a unilateral undertaking offered by the developer (often at appeal).

Planning permission

The basic instrument of development control, following an application to a local planning authority for permission to develop land including changes of use.

Planning Policy Guidance

Guidance issued by the Department of the Environment on aspects of planning. It has no formal, legal status, although it has been held by the courts to be a proper 'consideration' to be taken into account in development control.

Public interest

Issues that are of wide national or community concern where private rights and freedom may need to be curtailed.

Public participation

The arrangements in planning legislation for the public to be consulted on the preparation of development plans and other planning matters.

Regeneration

The physical, social, economic and institutional renewal of areas which have experienced widespread decay.

Regional Planning Guidance

Guidance issued by the Department of the Environment, in particular providing a framework for the preparation of development plans.

Reserved matters

The matters of detail which have to be approved following the grant of outline planning permission.

Right-to-Buy

The Right-to-Buy is the most significant part of the Government's policy of extending home ownership to those who otherwise could not afford it. Tenants of public sector landlords (mainly local authorities) and of housing associations, have the right to buy their homes from their landlords at a discount.

Single Regeneration Budget

The Single Regeneration Budget (SRB) as a whole combines 20 separate programmes previously operated by 5 different government departments, to provide a more flexible fund for local regeneration.

Site of Special Scientific Interest

A small area of particular ecological or geological character designated by the Nature Conservancy Council and subject to strict control.

Smaller towns

Towns of less than 10,000 population.

Social housing

Housing provided by local authorities, housing associations or others at below market rents.

Starter Homes

Smaller houses or flats, built for a low price to enable young or low income households to buy a home.

Strategic Planning Guidance

Guidance issued by the Department of the Environment for metropolitan areas to support unitary development plan preparation, for example, Greater London.

Structure Plan

A form of development plan prepared and adopted by a local planning authority (usually a county council) containing broad strategic planning policies for its area.

Supplementary Planning Guidance

Guidance prepared by local planning authorities to supplement policies in their development plans. Usually cover matters of detail such as design guidance or briefs for particular sites.

Targeting

Assistance/action focused on a group of people or an area to enhance the effects of policy.

Task Force

Group of technical advisers assembled to focus on and study an area to achieve rapid results from assistance.

Town Council

see Parish Council

Training and Enterprise Council

Private company which has been set up to provide training, and to support enterprise, business and service organisations with grants and advice.

Under-Occupation

The situation when the number of people resident in a dwelling is less than the number of rooms would normally be expected to accommodate.

Unitary Development Plan

A form of development plan prepared and adopted by metropolitan district councils, London boroughs and some other unitary authorities, comprising, in Part I, the equivalent of a structure plan, and in Part II, the equivalent of a local plan.

Urban design

Can be taken to mean the complex inter-relationship between different buildings, between buildings and the streets and open spaces which make up the public domain, and between different parts of a village, town or city. It includes the interplay between our evolving built environment and the values, expectations and resources of people.

Urban Development Corporation

Organisation appointed by the Secretary of State for the Environment for selected urban areas with responsibility chiefly for the acquisition and preparation of land for development and the promotion of development by the private sector.

Urban greening

A strategy which seeks to improve the environment, stimulate community involvement, provide environmental education and improve access to, and the recreational potential of, existing and reclaimed land in urban areas.

Urban village

Large scale, mixed use residential development within an existing urban area, focused on community facilities and designed to maximise self-containment.

Use Classes Order

The statutory instrument approved by Parliament which defines broad categories of the use of land and building within which changes of use do not constitute development and therefore do not require planning permission.

Village Appraisal

A tool to encourage the community to voice and agree its priorities for action, gain confidence in its right and ability to be involved and draw out new activities and voluntary action.

Voluntary sector

Organisations and activities which primarily rely upon voluntary help and involvement from members of the community. Some funding may be available from official or charitable sources to undertake activities.

APPENDIX ORGANISATIONS

D INVITED TO WORKSHOPS

ACRE (Action with Communities in Rural England)
 Association of Community Technical Aid Centres
 Action Aid
 ✓ Admiral Homes Ltd
 Age Concern
 Allerdale Borough Council
 Alnwick District Council
 AMP Asset Management
 Armagh District Council
 * Armagh Regeneration Trust
 Ashford Borough Council
 Association for the Conservation of Energy
 * Association of District Councils
 Avon County Council
 Aylesbury Vale District Council
 * Banff and Buchan DC
 Barclay Homes (Sussex)
 Barking and Dagenham London Borough Council
 ✓ Barmouth Chamber of Trade
 * Barnsley City Challenge
 * Barnsley Metropolitan Borough Council
 * Bath City Council
 BBC Wales
 * Bedfordshire County Council
 * Belfast City Council
 Belfast Telegraph
 * Bellway Homes plc
 Berkshire County Council
 ✓ * Bethnal Green City Challenge Company Ltd
 Birmingham City Council
 * Bishops Officer for Urban Priority Areas
 * Black Environment Network
 Black Housing Association Standing Group
 Blackpool Borough Council

* Bolton Metropolitan Borough Council
 ✓ Boots The Chemist
 * Borders Regional Council
 Borough of Allerdale
 Boston Borough Council
 Bournemouth District Council
 ✓ * Bournville Village Trust
 Boyd Partnership
 * Bradford City Council
 Brecknock Borough Council
 * Brecon Beacons National Park
 Brighton Borough Council
 Bristol City Council
 ✓ British Bankers Association
 ✓ British Coal Property
 * British Property Federation
 British Trust for Conservation Volunteers
 Broxbourne Borough Council
 * Buckinghamshire County Council
 Building Design Partnership
 ✓ Building Employers Federation
 ✓ Building Societies Association
 Burnley Borough Council
 Cambridge City Council
 Cambridgeshire County Council
 Campaign for Racial Equality
 Cardiff Bay Development Corporation
 * Cardiff City Council
 * Carmichael Residents Association
 Carrick District Council
 Catholic Housing Aid Society
 * Central Regional Council
 ✓ Centre Parcs Ltd
 Chamber of Commerce
 * Chartered Institute of Housing
 * Cheshire County Council
 Chester City Council
 Church Commissioners
 * Church in Wales, Board of Mission
 Citizens Advice Bureau

* denotes those organisations which took part in workshops for Habitat II.

- City of Bradford Metropolitan Council
City of Coventry
- * City of Dundee District Council
 - * City of Edinburgh District Council
 - Civic Trust
 - * Civic Trust for Wales
 - * Cleveland County Council
 - * Clipper Estates Limited
 - * Clwyd County Council
 - * Clyde River Purification Board
 - * Clydebank District Council
 - Coin Street Community Builders
 - * Commission for New Towns
 - Community Development Foundation
 - * Community Self Build Agency
 - Confederation of British Industry
 - Consumer Association
 - * Convention of Scottish Local Authorities
 - Cooke & Arkwright
 - Coopers & Lybrand
 - Corby District Council
 - Cornwall County Council
 - Cotswold District Council
 - * Council for Environmental Education
 - * Council for Racial Equality
 - Council for the Homeless (N Ireland)
 - Council for the Protection of Rural England
 - * Country Landowners Association
 - Countryside Commission
 - * Countryside Council for Wales
 - Countryside Properties
 - County Offices
 - Coventry City Council
 - * Craigavon Borough Council
 - Craigmillar Housing Development Project
 - Crawley Borough Council
 - Crewe and Nantwich Borough Council
 - * Croydon London Borough Council
 - Campaign for Social and Economic Research on the Global Environment
 - Cumbria County Council
 - Cynon Valley Borough Council
 - Debenham Thorpe Property & Development
 - Derby City Council
 - Derbyshire County Council
 - Derbyshire Dales District Council
 - * Derry Development Officer
 - Derry District Council
 - * Development Trusts Association
 - Devon County Council
 - Docklands Forum
 - Dorset County Council
 - Dover District Council
 - Drivers Jonas
 - * Dudley Metropolitan Borough Council
 - * Dumfries and Galloway Regional Council
 - * Duncan of Jordanstone College of Art
 - * Dundee District Council
 - * Dunfermline District Council
 - Durham County Council
 - * Dyfed County Council
 - * Ealing London Borough Council
 - * East Sussex County Council
 - East Yorkshire Borough Council
 - * Edinburgh College of Art
 - * Edinburgh District Council
 - * Edinburgh Old Town Renewal Trust
 - English Partnerships
 - * Environment Trust Associates Ltd
 - Essex County Council
 - Federation of Black Housing Organisations
 - Fermanagh District Council
 - Forestry Industry Committee
 - * Friends of the Earth
 - * Gateshead Metropolitan Borough Council
 - Gedling Borough Council
 - General Synod Board for Social Responsibility
 - Gerald Eve
 - * Glasgow City Council
 - * Gloucestershire County Council
 - * Grampian Regional Council
 - Great Yarmouth Borough Council
 - Greater London Association for the Disabled
 - * Greater Shankill Action Team
 - Greater Shankill Partnership
 - Green Alliance
 - Greenpeace (UK Office)
 - Greenwich Society
 - * Grimley J R Eve
 - Grosvenor Estate Holdings
 - Grosvenor Waterside Property & Development
 - * Groundwork Foundation
 - * Gwent County Council
 - * Gwynedd County Council
 - * Hammersmith and Fulham London Borough Council
 - * Hampshire County Council
 - Harrow London Borough Council
 - Hart District Council
 - * Heath and Old Hampstead Society
 - Hereford & Worcester County Council;
 - * Heriot-Watt University
 - Hertfordshire County Council
 - High Newton
 - * Highland Regional Council
 - Highlands and Islands Enterprise
 - Hillier Parker
 - * Historic Buildings Council
 - * Historic Scotland
 - * Homeless International
 - * Hounslow Borough Council
 - * House Builders Federation
 - * Housing Centre Trust
 - Housing Corporation
- * denotes those organisations which took part in workshops for Habitat II.

- * Housing for Wales
Hove Borough Council
 - * Hull City Council
Humberside County Council
Huntingdonshire District Council
Institute for European Environmental Policy
Institute of Surveyors, Valuers and Auctioneers
Isle of Wight County Council
 - * International Institute for Environment and Development
 - * Jersey Waterfront Enterprise Board
 - * JMP Consultants
Jones Lang Wootton
 - * Joseph Rowntree Foundation
Kent County Council
Kensington and Chelsea London Borough Council
 - * Kirklees Metropolitan Borough Council
Knowsley Metropolitan Borough Council
 - * Kyle & Carrick District Council
Laganside Corporation
 - * Laing Homes Ltd
Lake District National Park
 - * Lancashire County Council
 - * Land Authority for Wales
 - * London Docklands Development Corporation
Leeds City Council
Leicester City Council
Leicestershire County Council
Lincolnshire County Council
Liverpool City Council
Lliw Valley Borough Council
 - * London Ecology Unit
 - * London Forum
 - * London Wildlife Trust
 - * London Transport
 - * Lothian Regional Council
 - * London Planning Advisory Committee
Malvern Hills District Council
 - * Manchester City Council
Marks and Spencer plc
MEPC plc
Merton London Borough Council
Metropolitan Transport Research Unit
Mid Bedfordshire District Council
Mid Devon District Council
Mid Glamorgan County Council
 - * Midlands Amenity Societies Association
Miller Developments
 - * Morrison Developments
Mosside & Hulme Community Development Trust
 - * Motherwell District Council
National Association of Local Councils
National Council for Voluntary Organisations
National Federation of Housing Associations
National Gypsy Council
National House Building Council
National Housing Forum
 - * National Housing & Town Planning Council
National Playing Fields Association
 - * National Society of Allotments & Leisure Gardens
National Tenants and Residents Federation
 - * National Tenants Resource Centre
National Trust
 - * Neighbourhood Initiatives Foundation
New Economics Foundation
New Kesteven District Council
Newark and Sherwood District Council
 - * Newcastle City Challenge
Newcastle under Lyme District Council
 - * Newcastle upon Tyne City Council
 - * Newham London Borough Council
 - * Newry Regeneration Project
Norfolk County Council
 - * Northern Ireland Economic Research Centre
 - * Northern Ireland Environmental Link
 - * Northern Ireland Federation of Housing Associations
 - * Northern Ireland Office
 - * Northern Ireland Housing Executive
North Cornwall District Council
North Norfolk District Council
 - * North Warwickshire Borough Council
North Yorkshire County Council
Northamptonshire County Council
Northern Development Company
Northern Ireland Centre in Europe
Northern Ireland Tourist Board
 - * Northumberland County Council
Norwich City Council
 - * Nottinghamshire County Council
Old Grammar School
Oldham Metropolitan Borough Council
Omagh District Council
 - * OXFAM
Oxford City Council
Oxfordshire County Council
Peak District National Park
Perth and Kinross District Council
 - * Planning Aid for London
Planning Appeals Commission
Planning Inspectorate
Powys County Council
Prince of Wales Committee
Property Market Analysis
Prudential Properties
 - * Queen's University, Belfast
 - * Radnorshire District Council
Rank Organisation
Reading Borough Council
Reigate and Banstead Borough Council
 - * Renfrew District Council
Rhuddlan Borough Council
Rhymney Valley Borough Council
Richard Ellis
- * denotes those organisations which took part in workshops for Habitat II.

- Richmond London Borough Council
 Royal Association for Disability and Rehabilitation
- * Royal Institute of British Architects
 - * Royal Fine Art Commission
 - Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors
 - Royal Society for Nature Conservation
 - * Royal Society for the Protection of Birds
 - * Royal Town Planning Institute
 - * Royal Town Planning Institute (Irish Branch, N Section)
 - * Royal Town Planning Institute (Scotland)
 - Royal Town Planning Institute (South Wales Branch)
 - * Rural Community Network
 - Rural Development Council for Northern Ireland
 - Rural Forum
 - Rural Voice
 - Sainsburys plc
 - Sandwell Metropolitan Borough Council
 - Scottish Civic Trust
 - * Scottish Enterprise
 - * Scottish Federation of Housing Associations
 - * Scottish Homes
 - Scottish Metropolitan
 - * Scottish Natural Heritage
 - * Scottish Office
 - * Scottish Sports Council
 - * Scottish Tourist Board
 - Scottish Widows Fund Group
 - Scunthorpe Borough Council
 - * Serplan
 - * Sheffield Metropolitan City Council
 - Shell (Better Britain Campaign)
 - Shelter
 - * Shelter (Scotland)
 - Shropshire County Council
 - Slough Borough Council
 - Slough Estates plc
 - Somerset County Council
 - * South Belfast Residents Association
 - South Buckinghamshire District Council
 - * South Glamorgan County Council
 - South Lakeland District Council
 - South Norfolk District Council
 - South Shropshire District Council
 - South Tyneside Metropolitan Borough Council
 - * Southend on Sea Borough Council
 - * Southwark Diocesan Board for Social Responsibility
 - Southwark London Borough Council
 - Staffordshire County Council
 - Stanhopes
 - Stirrat Park Hogg
 - * Stockport Metropolitan Borough Council
 - * Strathclyde Passenger Transport Executive
 - * Strathclyde Regional Council
 - Suffolk County Council
 - Sun Alliance Group Properties
 - * Surrey County Council
 - * Surrey Heath Borough Council
 - Tai Cymru
 - * Tameside Metropolitan Borough Council
 - * Taylor Woodrow Homes Ltd
 - Tenants Participation Advisory Centre
 - * Thamesdown Borough Council
 - Thanet District Council
 - * Thurrock Borough Council
 - * Tidy Britain Group (ERCU)
 - * Timber Growers Association
 - Todd Architects and Planners
 - * Torridge District Council
 - * Town and Country Planning Association
 - Trades Union Congress
 - Trafalgar House Property
 - Transport 2000
 - Tyne and Wear Development Corporation
 - United Kingdom - Centre for Economic and Environmental Development
 - * Ulster Arch Heritage Society
 - Ulster Society Preservation of the Countryside
 - Ulster Television plc
 - * United Nations Association (UK)
 - * University of Cambridge
 - * University of Dundee
 - University of Edinburgh
 - * University of Glasgow
 - * University of Greenwich
 - * University of Manchester
 - * University of Newcastle
 - * University of Strathclyde
 - University of Ulster
 - * University of Wales
 - Urban Villages Group
 - * Wales Tourist Board
 - Walter Segal Self Build Trust
 - Waltham Forest London Borough Council
 - Warwickshire County Council
 - * Waveney District Council
 - Welsh Development Agency
 - * Welsh Office
 - * Welsh Water plc
 - * West Glamorgan County Council
 - West Midlands Planning Aid
 - * West Midlands Regional Forum
 - West Oxfordshire District Council
 - West Somerset District Council
 - West Sussex County Council
 - * Westminster City Council
 - Wigan Metropolitan Borough Council
 - Wiltshire County Council
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 - Woking Borough Council
 - * Women's Environmental Network
 - World Wide Fund for Nature

* denotes those organisations which took part in workshops for Habitat II.

World Wildlife Fund, Scotland
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