The Relationship between Urban Design and Planning Systems in Practice: A Comparative Study of England and Germany

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor in Philosophy

by Adeleh Haghgoo

August 2017



Table of Contents

Acknowledgement	X
Abstract	xii
Part One	1
Chapter One: Introduction	2
1.1. Introducing the topic of this research	3
1.2. Rationale and importance of the research	5
1.3. Research objectives	9
1.4. Structure of the thesis	. 11
Chapter Two: Contextualisation and conceptualisation of the research topic	. 13
2.1. Urban design definition, profession and what constitute good urban design	. 14
2.1.1. Key definitions, theories, thoughts and movements of urban design	. 14
2.1.2. Urban Design as a profession	. 21
2.1.3. What constitute good urban design?	. 23
2.2. Economic importance of urban design	. 28
2.2.1. State, market (economy) and urban design	. 30
2.3. How does planning influence urban design?	. 35
2.3.1. Planning definition, theories, skills	. 35
2.3.2. The relationship between planning and design	. 39
2.4. Comparative planning research (planning systems and cultures)	. 42
2.4.1. Planning and legal administrative systems and families in Europe	. 42
2.4.2. The concept of a planning culture and its relations with spatial planning Europe	-
2.4.3. The issue of culture and urban design	. 50
2.4.4. A brief introduction to comparative studies on spatial planning systems	
2.5. Highlights of the main findings of Chapter 2	. 52
2.6. Conceptual framework	. 54
2.6.1. The model and its components	. 56
Chapter Three: Methodology	. 60
3.1. General strategy of this research	. 61
3.1.1. Some methodological remarks on comparative planning studies	. 62
3.2. The cases studied in this research	. 67
3.2.1. Rationales behind the selection of national cases	. 68
3.2.2. Rationales behind selection of embedded cases	. 69
3.2.3. Compositional structure of Case study chapters	. 73
3.3. Data Collection	. 74
3.3.1. Interviews	. 76

	3.3.2. Documentation	78
	3.3.3. Photographs and Site visits (which only apply to embedded case studies)	80
	3.3.4. Challenges and limitations	80
	3.4. Data analysis	82
	3.5. Ethical issues	83
	3.6. Summary	84
P	art Two	85
	hapter Four: the relationship between planning system and urban design (in practic	-
	4.1. English national context	87
	4.1.1. The planning system and planning culture in England	88
	Some of the most important and more recent reforms of English systems	89
	4.1.2. Attitudes and movements within the planning system in regards to u design (past and present)	
	4.1.3. Urban design: policy context and instruments	98
	4.1.4. Planning process	. 107
	4.1.5. Summary	. 108
	4.2. Liverpool One	. 111
	4.2.1. Paradise street development (Liverpool One and its immediate environment)	. 112
	The site of Liverpool One before intervention	112
	A time Line of planning, decision making for the site of the Liverpool One	.113
	4.2.2. Planning and urban design (attitudes and policy context)	.114
	What did the city have in place to guide planning and urban design for the Para Street development and its immediate environment	
	What does the city have in place to guide planning and urban design	119
	4.2.3. Planning, urban design and development process	. 123
	Master plan, urban design and development objectives	.123
	Position of urban design within the planning process of Liverpool One	128
	Philosophies and attitudes of the actors involved in the planning and urban de processes	_
	Evaluation of the Liverpool One project	132
	4.2.4. Summary	. 136
	4.3. Westfield London	. 140
	4.3.1. Westfield London and its immediate environment (within the White City Opportunity Area)	
	The Site of Westfield London and its immediate environment before intervention	.142
	A timeline of planning and decision making for the site of Westfield London an immediate environment	
	4.3.2. Planning and urban design (attitudes and policy context)	.146

Policy Context of urban design and planning for the London Borough of Hai	
Policy context of urban design and planning in Hammersmith and Fulham E the project of Westfield London, its extension plans and wider area of Opportunity Area	Borough for White City
4.3.3. Planning and urban design process for Westfield London and its surrounding area within White City East Area	
Master plans, urban design and development objectives	155
Position of urban design within the planning process of Westfield Lond	
Philosophies and attitudes of the actors who were involved in the planning design processes	
Evaluation of the Westfield London and its immediate environment within East area	•
4.3.4. Summary	165
Chapter Five: The relationship between planning system and urban design (in Germany	-
5.1. German national context	170
5.1.1. The planning system in Germany	171
Structure and institutions	171
Principle and responsibilities	172
Generalplanning instuments with regard to developments in Germany	177
5.1.2. Planning culture in Germany	179
5.1.3. Urban design instruments	180
5.1.4. Planning process	187
5.1.5. Summary	190
5.2. Thier Galerie (Dortmund)	192
5.2.1. Thier Galerie and its immediate environment in Dortmund centre	193
The site of Thier Galerie before Intervention	194
A timeline of planning and decision making for the site of Thier Galerie	195
5.2.2. Planning and urban design (policy context and instruments)	195
Policy contect and instruments of urban design and planning for the city of and its city centre area	
Policy context of urban design and planning for Thier Galerie	201
5.2.3. Planning and urban design process for Thier Galerie	203
Master plan, design objectives and issues	204
Position of urban design within planning process	207
Evaluation of the project	208
5.2.4. Summary	212
5.3. Mall of Berlin (Potsdamer Platz, Berlin)	216

	5.3.1. Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz	217
	The site of Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz before intervention	218
	A timeline of planning and decisionmaking for the site of Mall of Berlin and Pot Platz	
	5.3.2. Planning and urban design (policy context and instruments)	219
	Policy context and instruments of urban design and planning for Berlin and Mitte	
	Policy context of urban design and planning for the Mall of Berlin and Pol	
	5.3.3. Planning and urban design process for Mall of Berlin (Potsdamer Platz)	224
	Master plan, design objectives and issues	224
	Position of Urban Designwithing planning process	230
	Evaluation of the project	230
	5.3.4. Summary	234
Pa	rt three	237
Ch	apter Six: Comparative perspectives and Synthesis	238
	6.1. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and particles at national levels: England and Germany	olanning
	6.1.1. Administrative and legal systems in England and Germany	239
	6.1.2 Planning cultures and attitudes regarding urban development and urban d England and Germany	•
	6.1.3. Urban design and planning systems	245
	Urban design control instruments and tools	246
	Planning system's aims in regards to urban design	248
	Urban design within planning processes	248
	Urban design and planning processes outcome	
	6.2. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and the planning system for the selected English case studies	_
	Planning Culture (reflecting the projects and their respective local and nationa	•
	Urban design in planning processes (Liverpool One and Westfield London)	258
	Urban design and master plan aims and outcomes (Liverpool One and W. London)	
	6.3. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design a German planning system for the selected German case studies	
	Planning Culture (reflecting the projects and their respective local and levels)	
	Urban design in the planning processes (Thier Galerie and Mall of Berlin)	267
	Urban design and master plan aims and outcomes (Thier Galerie and Mall of Berli	n)270
	6.4. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and paystems in the embedded case studies in England and Germany.	_

6.4.1. Liverpool One and Thier Galerie 2	73	
6.4.2. Westfield London and Mall of Berlin2	73	
6.5. General interpretations and synthesis2	74	
Chapter Seven: Conclusions	81	
7.1. A review of the objectives2	82	
7.2. A review of the research questions2	88	
7.3. Contributions of this research2	96	
7.4. Avenues and directions for future research2	98	
Bibliography3	00	
Appendix3	17	
List of Boxes		
Box 2.1. Six different categories of value that can be enhanced by good design		25
Box 3.1. Themes and components for comparative perspectives of this research		64
Box 3.2. Themes of consideration for documentation		79
Box 3.3. Evaluative framework for photographs		80
Box 4.1. Three roles of planning system		99
Box 4.2. White City OAPF design objectives	1	.53
Box 5.1. Building uses in the B-Plan of Thier Galerie	2	:03
Box 5.2. Strategic objectives of Berlin's land use plan	2	21
List of Tables		
Table 2.1. Thresholds of scale		21
Table 2.2. The 10 commandments of Prince of Wales and other checklist for architecture and design		26
Table 2.3. Classification of policy instruments	:	32
Table 2.4. Unpicking epistemologies of planning theory		38
Table 3.1. Strengths and weaknesses of documentation and interviews as data collection methods		76
Table 3.2. Classification of actors and number of interviews		78
Table 4.1. A typology of different planning styles in the 1980s	9	91
Table 5.1. Summary of the changes in urban development in Germany from 1960s to 1990s	1	81
Table 6.1. A comparative summary of the administration, legal and planning systems in England and Germany	2	41
Table 6.2. Current instruments of urban design control and development management in England and Germany	2	47

Table 6.3. Stages of planning processes in England and Germany	251
Table 6.4. Urban design control and management instruments for Liverpool One and	262
Westfield London	
	269
Table 6.5. Relevant urban design control and management instruments for Thier Galerie	209
and Mall of Berlin	
List of Figures	
Figure 1.1. Research strategy	10
Figure 2.1. Generic professional and related roles in urban design	22
Figure 2.2. Elements of attractive Places to live	27
Figure 2.3. A role based model of real estate development process	34
Figure 2.4. Three contexts that frame the developer's opportunity space	35
Figure 2.5. Urban design process a place shaping continuum	40
Figure 2.6. The culturised planning model	48
Figure 2.7. The conceptual Framework model	55
Figure 3.1. The foreign culture model of cross national research	65
Figure 3.2. Methodological and procedural steps for embedded case studies	75
Figure 4.1. A 3-d model of Birmingham city centre master plan	104
Figure 4.2. Fairfield Park	105
Figure 4.3. Newhall Essex	106
Figure 4.4. Strategic map of main urban and retail developments in Liverpool city centre	111
Figure 4.5. Precise Boundaries of this case study	113
Figure 4.6. Planning application process in Liverpool City Council	121
Figure 4.7. Zones of influence analysis of BDP	124
Figure 4.8. The connectivity map in the Paradise Street development	125
Figure 4.9. Pictures of Church Street, School Lane and Blue Coat Chamber	126
Figure 4.10. Various views of Chavasse park	127
Figure 4.11. Integrated 3-d model of Liverpool One master plan by BDP and the	128
connectivity between the emerging proposals and existing city context in the master plan	
Figure 4.12. Pictures of Liverpool One	131
Figure 4.13. different views of John Lewis store, Lord Street and Albert Dock	132
Figure 4.14. A visual map of Liverpool One inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of the image	134
of the city	134
Figure 4.15. The use of symbols in Liverpool One	135
Figure 4.16. A simplified summary of the planning process of Liverpool One project	139
Figure 4.17. Map of Westfield London and its immediate environment within White City East Area	142
Figure 4.18. A map of different sites within White City East area	144
Figure 4.19. Pictures of different development projects at White City East area	146
Figure 4.20. Policy framework at the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham	152
Figure 4.21. Indicative master plan of White City East	154
Figure 4.22. Westfield London and its extension	156
Figure 4.23. Ariel view of a model of Westfield London and its extension master plan in	157
the White City	
Figure 4.24. Visual map of Westfield London inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of image of	161
the city	
Figure 4.25. Internal pictures of Westfield	162
Figure 4.26. Outside view of Westfield London and West 12 centre	164

Figure 4.27. An Ariel view of a 3-d model of Westfield extension plan	165
Figure 4.28. A simplified summary of the planning processes of Westfield London and its	168
extension	
Figure 5.1. Germany's counter-current spatial planning system	173
Figure 5.2. System of separation of powers and structure of administration of the	176
Federal Germany	
Figure 5.3. Pictures from Phoenix Site which is a part of the Dortmund Project	193
Programme	
Figure 5.4. Precise Boundaries of Thier Galerie and Dortmund city centre	194
Figure 5.5. A map showing the hierarchy of urban centres in Dortmund	197
Figure 5.6. Main retail location within Dortmund City centre	198
Figure 5.7. Target concept map (City 2030)	200
Figure 5.8. The B-Plan of Thier Galerie	202
Figure 5.9. Façade and the main entrance to Thier Galerie from Westenhellweg	205
Figure 5.10. Pictures of Silver street	205
Figure 5.11. Pictures of the facades of Thier Galerie showing the old brewery office	206
building	
Figure 5.12. different pictures from the interior of Thier Galerie	207
Figure 5.13. Visual map of Thier Galerie inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of the image of	210
the city	
Figure 5.14. Different 3-d model of Thier Galerie	211
Figure 5.15. A simplified summary of the planning process of the Thier Galerie	215
Figure 5.16. Boundaries of the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz developments	218
Figure 5.17. Different plans at different spatial levels and their relationships for Berlin	222
Figure 5.18.The concept of hierarchy of urban centres in Berlin	223
Figure 5.19. Pictures of octangal structure of Leipziger Platz and the glass roof over	225
plaza	
Figure 5.20. A 3-d model of the master plan of the Mall of Berlin	226
Figure 5.21. Pictures of Interior of the Mall of Berlin	227
Figure 5.22. Pictures of different development sectors at Potsdamer Platz	228
Figure 5.23. Hilmer and Sattler winning design and master plan for Potsdamer Platz	229
Figure 5.24. Visual map of Mall of Berlin inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of image of the	231
city	
Figure 5.25. Picture of internal and external views of the residential units at the top of	232
the Mall of Berlin	
Figure 5.26. A simplified summary of the planning process of the Mall of Berlin project	236
Figure 6.1. The factors influence the outcome of urban design	275
Figure 6.2. The design governance field of action	277
Figure 7.1. The culturised model of planning and urban design	294
Figure 7.2. Basic model for future urban design studies	299

Acknowledgement

The initial thought for this research were shaped by my personal experiences of different places that were the result of retail-led regeneration such as Liverpool One. The first questions for me were: why have some of these places seemingly integrated better with their surrounding urban fabric whereas others are not? Why do some of these places seem better designed than the others and what roles do planning systems play in shaping such places? Therefore all of these questions led me to start this research four years ago in 2013. My gratitude goes to many individuals who gave me their supports during my PhD.

I owe the greatest acknowledgement and gratitude to my professional, excellent and very kind-hearted supervisory team. I thank my primary supervisor Dr Sykes for showing great patience, generosity, enthusiasm and lots of support and helps. I also thank my secondary supervisor Professor Couch for all the inspirations, encouragement and support he has given me. I also thank both Dr Sykes and Professor Couch, for suggesting the initial ideas of my thesis. I thank my other secondary supervisor Dr Dembski for his preciseness and for giving me lots of helps, encouragement and support. I am always grateful and I will always remain indebted to all three of them. I could not complete this thesis without their help, support and wisdom.

I would like to thank all the people I interviewed formally in the framework of this research for their time and helpful insights into the planning systems and urban design processes of England and Germany.

I also thank all the staff and friends at the planning department of the University of Liverpool; Dr Peter Brown for his kindness and his help with my interviews in Liverpool. Prof Peter Batey and Dr Sykes, for their help and support for my PhD application. Everyone in the planning department made me feel happy, warm and hopeful all the times. For the last 8 years I always felt that I am at home when I was studying at this department; I have learnt so much from each individual and I know that I will miss every moment I have spent in this department. Dan, Gouping, Gemma, Matt, Tang, Phil, Samah, Miu, Bertie, Emad thank you everyone for supporting me in many ways.

I would like to end with more personal thanks:

I thank my aunt Firoozeh and my Uncle Mohammad for always being kind to me; I also thank my great family friends Mrs Javaheri and her lovely family, Mr Amani and Mrs Abbasi, my high school friends: girls – we rock! My undergraduate friend and my best tea buddy Niamh- thank you for just being there. My lovely Cheng Hui thanks for all the great work out sessions and all the laughter and encouragements. I have always been blessed with good friends in my life, thank you everyone.

I want to thank my amazing brother, Mahdi, for being my little comedian. Thank you for all the laughter and all the nonsensical talks and jokes and thank you for making every day more fun. Apart from that, good luck with your studies and I really hope that one day you win the Nobel Prize in Chemistry.

Mom, thank you for always being so sincere to me, and thank you for giving me life and happiness. Thanks for showing me how strong a lady can be.

Dad, I do not know how much I have contributed to the planning field but I promise to try my hardest and to continue to achieve and strive and try to be as incredible a person as you are. Thank you for always respecting my choices and thank you for always giving me confidence.

Hajagha, thank you for just being there whenever I and Mahdi needed you. You were the only one who encouraged me to start a PhD and you were the only one who treated me as his real daughter. This is not the most amazing thesis, but I hope it has brought you a big smile.

Abstract

This thesis explores the relationships between urban design and planning in the planning systems of two countries. More specifically it considers how urban design is being handled, managed and controlled through the planning process in the respective planning systems of England and Germany.

This thesis argues that the urban design and the urban fabric of a place are partly shaped within planning systems but that there are many factors shaping urban fabric and urban design that lie outside such systems and their planning environments. The conceptualisation of the study is influenced by the works of scholars who have emphasised that urban design as a component of urban fabric is shaped within a political market and that both the market and states play a key role in shaping it. In such perspective urban design could be either a prerequisite of successful economies and markets or their result. The approach of this thesis is informed too by the notion of planning cultures, and its typically identified components of planning artefacts, planning environment and societal environment, which are seen as crucial for understanding: planning systems, the varieties that exist between places, and the attitudes which help shape planning processes and places.

The empirical component of the thesis consists of a comparative study of two countries which examines their planning systems and urban design control approaches. The two national case study countries of England and Germany were selected after a review of the literature as leading nations for planning and urban design practices. In order to examine how urban design and planning interact in practice in these selected nations, four embedded case studies of major urban projects in four different cities were selected. This allowed a finer understanding of how urban design issues are handled within the planning process to be developed and related to the context of the respective planning systems and planning cultures.

The selected national and embedded project case studies in this thesis are compared by summarising: the urban design aims and outcomes of the planning systems, the urban design issues within planning processes in the embedded cases, as well as by identifying the relevant urban design control tools. The thesis recognises the difference in the planning systems of two countries studied with England having a discretionary and Germany a regulatory system. It argues that despite these formal differences of categorisation of the two planning systems, in practice there are many similarities regarding how urban design aims and outcomes are delivered within the planning processes. Therefore the comparative analysis in the study revealed a first insight, that whilst planning approaches may appear very different 'in theory' between one national setting and another, there may be many similarities in terms of how things work 'in practice'. An example of this within the planning processes of the cases studied was the similarities between the planning stages, mind-sets, philosophies, aims and to an extent outcome of the planning processes in relation to

how they handled urban design issues. A second contrasting insight which emerged from the comparative reflection was that things that might have been assumed as being rather the same 'in theory', in practice were different. For instance it emerged that one of the main differences in-between the two countries relates to interpretations of the terminology used in relation to the concept of urban design itself. In Germany for example, it is seen as being part of the traditional definition and 'work' of planning. Whereas in England it is seen as a more separate and specialist field and activity which may come under the remit of a number of built environment professionals not solely planners.

The comparative analysis undertaken also emphasised that there are certain things within the planning system of Germany that determine and enforce urban design such as undertaking a formal research before the initial stage of planning processes, two phases of public participation as well as the firm tendency of encouraging developers to hold urban design competitions. It was also observed that at a general level the planning culture in terms of how planning in Germany handles urban design issues is rather stable and expressed through planning artefacts such as 'traditional' planning tools. In contrast the study revealed that planning culture as regards urban design in England is shaped by more frequent reforms. These can be characterised as modifying what the culturised planning model terms 'the planning environment'. Through its research into the relationship between urban design and planning systems, this thesis thus illustrates how planning culture is embedded within the planning processes and respective planning systems of England and Germany. It is also observed that the history of plan making and decision making within particular cities, the attitudes of the main actors involved in the planning processes towards urban design, as well as the ways in which planning systems enforce, control, manage and handle urban design; are also reflected in, and shaped by, the more localised planning cultures of places. The thesis argues that understanding the influence of planning culture in practical terms and within different stages of planning processes is crucial to developing accurate interpretations of how urban design and urban design related activities are articulated within these processes in different countries.

Part One

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Introducing the topic of this research

Urban design plays a very important role in maintaining and improving the quality of the built environment and the attractiveness of cities. Urban design can be defined as a place making activity or art. Urban design as part of urban environment, 'is about shaping the form of the physical urban fabric, by organizing urban structure, manipulating relationships between elements, creating coherent ensembles of buildings and spaces' (Marshall and Caliskan, 2011: 413). Urban design can operate at a variety of scales, although it tends to be most associated with that scale greater than or equal to architecture (buildings) and less than equal to that of town planning (settlements) (Marshall and Caliskan, 2011: 413).

Both planning and urban design as place making activities are widely discussed in the literature (for instance by Sitte, 1889; Lynch, 1960; 1981; Cullen, 1961; Davidoff, 1965; Faludi, 1973; Taylor, 1998; Sutcliffe, 1981; Alexander, 1979; Kunzmann, 2001; Hall, 2002; Morphet, 2008, 2011, 2013; Allmendinger, 2009; Stead, 2012; Tewdwr-Jones and Hall, 2011; and Reimer et al., 2014;). For Gunder (2011: 191), contemporary urban design is gradually moving away from planning; he contends that 'urban design when engaged as a discrete field tends to often act merely as an instrument of global capitalism and in the fulfilment of its neoliberal agendas, unlike planning, which has a fundamental disciplinary concern for noncommoditized human and ecological values, where its practitioners have at least been trained to strive to act as advocates of the public interest'. Gunder (2011) suggests that urban design is not integrated and is not rooted in urban planning and further posits that this is one of the reasons why urban design is being shaped by the prominence of globalisation and capitalism.

In contrast, Banerjee (2011: 210) argues that the urban design of a place or a development 'is a collaborative effort that involves urban planning'. The problem is that cities are competing for globalised capital and investments which would make a new order for both planners and urban designers and that is to plan and design according to the requirements of the international market place (Banerjee, 2011: 210). For Punter (2007: 169) an increased focus on the public sector promoting the local distinctiveness led to urban design initiatives driving economic developments forward which helped to enhance the image of cities. Urban design for him is

increasingly 'driven by the imperatives of the entrepreneurial city and by urban competitiveness strategies, as cities respond to globalization and neo-liberalism', especially as 'this is most visibly expressed by flagship property regeneration projects, iconic buildings and spectacular spaces, events and festivals' (Punter, 2007: 169). Similarly for Madanipour (2006: 181) urban design is 'a means of becoming distinguishable from others, a means of product differentiation' within a globally competitive market.

Planning systems shape and control urban design by the means of their regulatory frameworks and instruments. These instruments can be formal required roles of state (guidance, incentive and control) or informal, discretionary and optional (assistance, evaluation, promotion, knowledge, evidence) (Carmona, 2016 b: 31).

This thesis discusses the extent to which the governing of places is a complex issue. One of the sources of this complexity can be reflected on to the context of the place. Places are not just the result of governance; places are representative of their historical, cultural, economic, political and social contexts. Urban governance, governing places and spaces indicate that shaping these places is not solely dependent on the existent market situation, and that there are regulations, principles and standards that need to be met in order for a place to be realised.

It is worth noting that the attitudes, philosophies, values, theories of planners and the main actors involved in a development, as well as the history, and the cultural context of that place or development are all things that affect the shaping and controlling of urban design by a given planning system. They also affect an understanding of those same systems. All of these factors are components of planning culture. Understanding the issue of planning culture helps us to recognise: the variation that exists between places (Taylor, 2013), the ways planning is put into effect (Booth, 2011), the differences in methods used by planning systems to enforce urban design, as well as the other driving forces that exist within the planning environment for shaping and controlling design.

The cultural issues are embedded within planning systems and practices; one of the intriguing aspects of culture is that it is a concept which 'points out to the phenomena that are below the surface, that are powerful in their impact but invisible and to a considerable degree unconscious' (Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1273). Culture

can be used as an organising category; this perspective would be able to explain the unconscious and hidden phenomena that exists in a culture and are the essence of that culture. Moreover, culture can be seen as a practical tool which can 'explain the invisible and taken-for-granted values and assumptions, as well as to identify how actions and behaviours are controlled or influenced by these values, meanings, and intentions' (Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1273). Both of these perspectives on culture help one to gain an understanding of the unconscious routines of planning as well as of urban design.

The culturised planning model which is presented by Othengrafen (2010) consists of three analytical dimensions planning artefacts, planning environment, and societal environment. This model is useful because it makes planning processes and outcomes more comparable; moreover this model help us to understand the cultural influences on spatial planning and to realise that spatial planning differs from context to context (Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1277; Othengrafen, 2010; Knieling and Othengrafen, 2015: 2137).

This thesis applies and adopts this model in analysing urban design issues within the planning processes. This thesis, especially in Chapter Six, categorises the findings of a number of case studies and applies the three components of the culturised planning model to those findings. One of the main discussions of this thesis is that understanding the role of planning culture in practice helps to better account for different components in planning processes and urban design. Therefore the culturised planning model makes the investigation of the relationship between urban design and planning systems easier.

1.2. Rationale and importance of the research

One of the existing problems for urban design especially with regard to the outcome of the development projects is the fact that the urban design outcome of a development project might be influenced strongly by economic situation of an area and the need for investments in that area. Which means that so many aspects of the urban design and even the quality of urban design depend upon the economy, market and investors' decisions around given developments. The assumption is that the

planning and regulatory systems play a secondary role for shaping and influencing urban design and urban developments in general and therefore it raises the question of how influential a certain planning and regulatory system is for shaping urban design. The example of this problem can be seen in London, where some of the spaces in this city have been created by global market forces and the estates and landowners and the regulatory bodies played a less bold and secondary roles for leading developments and shaping spaces within the city (Carmona, 2014: 12). For instance, as Wray (2016: 173) contends, the urban fabric that was created in central London was not the result of leadership, direction or the control of the state. Informed by the issues outlined above, the purpose of this thesis is, therefore, to understand the driving forces within planning systems that are influential in shaping urban fabric, urban environment and urban design in practice.

The quality of built environment is an important factor in the attractiveness of cities; therefore urban design plays a very important role in maintaining and improving the quality of the built environment. This makes it worthwhile to look into the power of both the planning system and the planning culture of a locality to see how legal and other instruments are used to interpret and shape urban design. The aim of this thesis is to investigate the relationship between urban design and planning systems in practice.

This thesis focuses on planning processes; as planning processes are one of the components that shape developments. In addition it is recognised that urban design management or control, as well as the planning processes themselves, are set within the wider context of planning systems. In simple terms, places are the result of development process and design governance: which as an activity in its wider sense is within the urban governance context (Carmona, 2016: 722). Therefore this thesis is looking at urban design within planning processes.

Understanding how urban design is being managed and handled in a planning system is important because it allows a better understanding of practice to be developed. Moreover by comparing different planning systems, there is an opportunity to gain broader perspectives on practices of urban design and planning. Therefore this thesis undertakes a comparative planning study on two selected planning systems. The reasons for the selection of the English and German planning systems as those to be

studied are explained in chapter three. The comparative study of the handling of design through two different planning systems in this thesis is distinctive in being formed by the planning cultures approach to comparative planning research which had risen to prominence over the past decade.

This thesis intends to move away from the classic and traditional comparative planning studies which normally try to explain and discuss differences just by looking at legal and administrative frameworks. These legal systems are just representing the top of the culturised planning model (i.e. planning artefacts) and thus these studies are arguably very narrow as they are mostly about the top of the pyramid in the culturised planning model (which is illustrated and discussed in Chapter 2 page 48). Therefore this thesis uses the planning culture approach in order to investigate the aim of this research as well as to discuss the unconscious and unrecognised routines or processes that are below the surface of planning practice.

This research suggests that the culturised model of planning is manifested in the ways urban design works and positions itself. Planning culture is a concept which binds all parts of this thesis together. This thesis argues that the context of urban design is subject to the environment that is shaped and formed by three factors: the context and the site of development, the state, and the market. In addition this research discusses that within the planning processes; the performance environment of urban designers is also bounded by the developer or investors. This is particularly the case for privately owned developments or private developers.

It is also worthy to mention that the initial thoughts for this research were shaped by the researcher's personal experiences of different places. Through these personal experiences the following initial questions, which were helping for formulation of the aim of this thesis, were shaped: Why have some of these places seemingly integrated better with their surrounding urban fabric whereas others are not? Why do some of these places seem better designed than the others? And what roles do planning systems play in shaping such places?

This research has therefore attempted to answer to the following overarching question: What are the relationshis between urban design and planning systems? In order to answer to this question, this thesis focuses on answering the following set of research questions:

- 1. What is the relationship between urban design and planning practice?
- 2. What constitutes good urban design? What are the key components for creating successful places?
- 3. What is the role of the market for producing good urban design and a successful place?
- 4. How is urban design and its principles being managed and controlled in planning systems?
- 5. How can planning systems be effective in influencing good outcomes for urban design?
- 6. How is urban design handled in planning processes? What is the position of urban design in the planning process?
- 7. What are the roles, objectives, philosophies, values and powers of the actors that are involved in planning processes?
- 8. What is the role of planning culture in practical terms and with regard to urban design?

These questions and their supporting questions are also presented in more details in part 2.7 of Chapter Two which explains the conceptual framework model and its components. Later as this study moves forward, each chapter has addressed some of these questions, and then Chapter Seven summarises the answers to these questions.

This thesis makes contribution to knowledge through its findings which suggests that with regard to delivering urban design aims and outcomes in planning processes there are lots of similarities in practice between different countries, despite the fact that there may be differences in the formal/ 'theoretical' categorisations of planning systems. This is illustrated by the similarity that the research revealed existed in the planning processes as well as stages, mind-sets, philosophies aims and to some extent the outcomes with regard to handling urban design issues.

The findings of this thesis also serve to highlight the fact that in comparative research things that might have been assumed to be the equivalent (in theory or language terms) can be very different in practice. Thus the terminology and the concept of urban design being employed in the selected national contexts and cases were revealed to be different. These issues are being discussed in more detail in Chapter Six.

1.3. Research objectives

Informed by the context and issues outlined in previous sections, the research objectives which have been developed to support the aim of this thesis of investigating the relationship between urban design and planning systems in practice, are:

- 1) To critically examine the relationship between planning practice and urban design, and to develop a contextual basis for the thesis,
- 2) To shape a conceptual frame work model based on the findings of the previous contextual basis, as well as the conceptual basis given by the Literature review,
- 3) To introduce the methods for comparative planning studies through the use of planning culture as an approach for such studies,
- 4) To develop an in-depth and practical understanding of how urban design is being handled and controlled in a planning process. In addition to find out the position of urban design in the planning and development processes, this objective addresses the main question of the research in practical terms and in each selected national and embedded case study,
- 5) To form a comparative planning study by addressing the three components of the culturised planning model - planning artefacts, planning environment and societal environment,
- 6) To summarise the findings to in response the research questions.

Figure 1.1 shows the different stages of the research strategy that has been adopted for investigating the relationship between urban design and planning systems and practices.

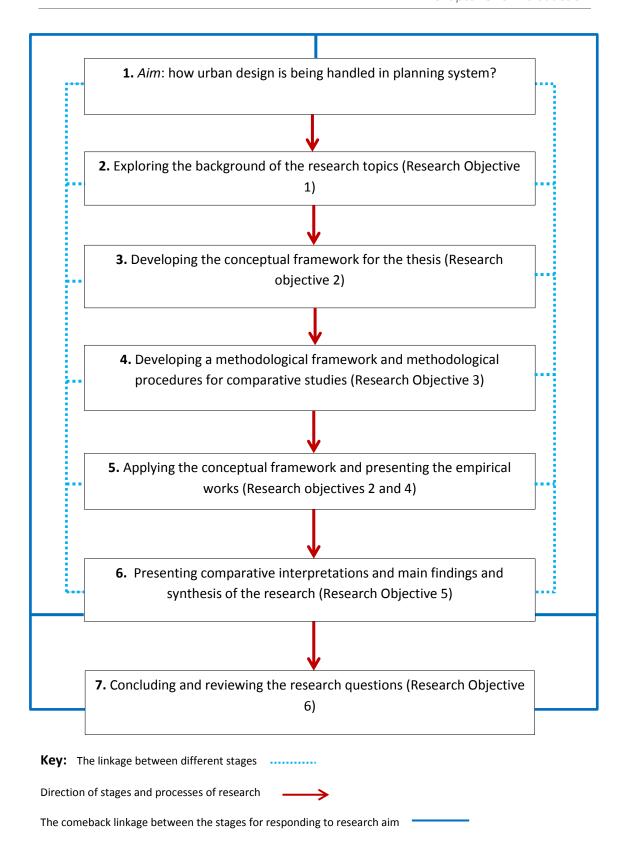


Figure 1.1. Research Strategy. Source: the author.

1.4. Structure of the thesis

This chapter has introduced the aim of the study and the context that led to development of this aim. The objectives of this research have been developed in order to respond to the aim.

There are certain criteria that need to be considered for understanding planning systems and their relationships with urban design. There are various types of planning systems and planning practices and due, to their often large scopes, it is beyond the scope of a single thesis to address them all in a fulsome academic manner. Thus the aim that has been developed in this research focuses on only two planning systems and conducts a comparative study between them. The rationale for this selection, the focus of the research, main research questions and main framework of this research are explained in the following chapters.

Chapter Two addresses the first objective of the research. Within this second chapter a scholarly review of previous literature is conducted and the background to the research is discussed. The themes and discussion of this chapter have helped the formation of the conceptual framework of this thesis.

Chapter Three presents the research methodology and design. This chapter also outlines some issues in relation to conducting a comparative planning study. Moreover, this chapter expresses the rationales for selecting the case studies for the national level and for the embedded cases. The different methods and techniques that were employed for collecting data are also explained in this chapter.

Chapters Four and Five present the empirical evidence, using England and Germany as case studies. Each chapter addresses the general nature and characteristics of planning systems; the attitudes of planning systems towards urban design; the tools, instruments and policy frameworks of planning systems for urban design; and the planning processes. The embedded case study projects in England are Liverpool One (and its immediate environment within Liverpool city centre) and Westfield London (and its immediate environment within White City Opportunity Area). The embedded case study projects for Germany are Thier Galerie (Dortmund city centre)

and Mall of Berlin (and its immediate environment within Leipziger Platz and Potsdamer Platz).

Chapter Six provides a comparison for the empirical materials presented in Chapters Four and Five. Chapter Six also interprets and translates these findings in regards to the main focus of this thesis which is how do planning systems shape urban design? And what is the role of planning culture in practice?

Chapter Seven draws conclusions from all the chapters in the thesis based on the research aim, objectives and findings of the thesis. This chapter also provides some overviews especially in the light of contextualisation and conceptualisation of the research topic presented in Chapter Two.

Chapter Two: Contextualisation and conceptualisation of the research topic

This chapter responds to the first objective of the thesis by exploring the background of the relationship between urban design and planning practice and planning systems. This chapter presents a thematic review of literature.

The first step for contextualising and conceptualising the subject and aims of this research is to understand the nature and meaning of urban design and planning practice. The interrelated themes for the literature review are: urban design, the economic importance of urban design, planning influence on urban design, planning cultures and planning systems.

The following sections of this chapter discuss the key issues within existent literature with regard to both planning and urban design as activities which shape places. These issues are consolidated to form the conceptual framework of this research. In turn this informs the framework and design of the empirical stages of this research.

2.1. Urban design definition, profession and what constitute good urban design

Urban design is one of the main instruments used to change the visual forms and urban fabrics of cities. It has been the target of many changes over time.

2.1.1. Key definitions, theories, thoughts and movements of urban design

In order to balance economic prosperity, social cohesion and environmental protection it is essential for governments to understand how place is interpreted and managed (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 4-5). Place is multi-dimensional, and therefore there is a need to emphasise that its physical and environmental characteristics are important in their own right. One of the reasons for this is that the built environment can influence everyday life (joy and misery). It can impact crime, health, education, inclusion, community cohesion and well-being, as well as attract or deter investment and job opportunities (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 4-5).

There are various definitions for urban design; however, they are usually 'depthless and incapable of moving us forward, except perhaps into another set of so called basic values, functional qualities, descriptive properties, performance dimensions or

other qualitative groupings that are usually claimed to have universal significance' (Cuthbert, 2006: 10-11). In a review of some of the definitions of urban design, Bahrainy and Bakhtiar (2016: 5) contend that most of these definitions have revealed and indicated the multi-dimensional and complex nature of urban design.

As mentioned above there are many definitions for urban design, for instance the UK government has defined it as

The art of making places for people. It includes the way places work and matters such as community safety, as well as how they look. It concerns the connections between people and places, movement and urban form, nature and the built fabric, and the processes for ensuring successful villages, towns and cities (Punter, 2010: 1).

Madanipour (1996: 117) suggests that the concept of urban design has caused many ambiguities and he has defined it as 'the multidisciplinary activity of shaping and managing urban environments interested in both the process of this shaping and the spaces it helps shape'. He contends that urban design is a component of 'the process of the production of space' (Madanipour, 1996: 117). Lynch and Hack (1984: 9) define design as

The imaginative creation of possible form which is done in many ways. It develops clouds of possibilities, both fragments and whole systems, in places vague, in others precise, in a state of mind which alternates between childish suggestibility and stern criticism. It is a dialogue between designer and the growing, shifting forms that she is developing.

Urban design is, as Marshall (2016: 400) discusses, an art, which can be referred back to 'any kind of design of the built environment of varied scope and scale. According to him urban design as an art can be classified as a 'superstructure akin to architecture but at the urban scale', as some kind of 'admixture or artful design of built environment', and as 'sort of art of informal urbanism' (Marshall, 2016: 418). According to Larice and Macdonald (2007: 167) Gordon Cullen defined urban design as an art of relationships in which there is a need to make sense of a place as a whole and its elements need to be designed as a whole.

Urban design is about 'shaping the form of the physical urban fabric, by organizing urban structure, manipulating relationships between elements, creating coherent

ensembles of buildings and spaces' (Marshall and Caliskan, 2011: 413). Urban design has also been defined as 'a subfield of urban planning particularly concerned with urban form, liveability and aesthetic' (Gunder, 2011: 1); or as 'a place making process that involves creating three dimensional urban form, liveability and aesthetics' (Wall and Waterman, 2009: 17). Urban design, as Mumford (2009: viii) states, 'grew out of an effort to combine art and science in the three dimensional planning of urban environment'. One of the definitions of urban design which is more related and focused on the physical scope and product of design is given by Childs (2010: 1) who defines urban design as 'the design and shaping of parts of settlements such as the relationships between multiple built-forms, building typologies, public space, street and other infrastructure'. One other definition of urban design which is focused on the process and purpose of design is Cuthbert's (2006: 21) definition: 'Urban design can be viewed as the social production of space in its material and symbolic dimensions.'

Schurch (1999: 8) cited by David Mackay (1990) observes: 'It is easier to talk about urban design than to write about it... In between [i.e. planning and architecture], but belonging neither to one nor the other, lies the magic world of urban design. We can recognise it by its absence. It is inferred, suggested, felt.'

Bahrainy and Bakhtiar (2016: 5) argue that Pittas (1980) insisted on the importance of a clear definition to the success of the profession of urban design. They note that Pittas introduced 'seven parameters that urban design deals with: (1) enabling rather than authorship; (2) relative rather than absolute design products; (3) uncertain time frame; (4) a different point of entry than architecture; (5) a concern with the space between buildings; (6) a concern with the three dimensional rather than two dimensional, and (7) principally public activity' (Bahrainy and Bakhtiar, 2016: 5).

In giving clear definitions, it is noted that people are one of the main factors and drivers which define the meaning and value of particular places, and without people the space would be 'defined by physical characteristics alone' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 11).

According to many recent conceptualisations, 'urban design encompasses much more than the visual impact of buildings and space: social, environmental and functional dimensions must be considered alongside visual or urban form-based concerns. And urban design must be viewed as a process as well a product-based discipline' (CABE and DETR, 2001: 18). Previous definitions of design mainly focused on aesthetic issues and the fact that it should be left to developers and designers but recently it has been redefined to a broader definition which requires public attention (Madanipour, 2006: 178). Therefore, for the users of the city or the public, urban design could help to improve how the place functions and enhances its symbolic values (Madanipour, 2006: 191).

All of the definitions of urban design presented above are important for understanding urban design, but perhaps the most relevant definition of urban design (as both an art or a concept) for this thesis could be the definition that was shaped by Marshall and Caliskan (2011: 413): urban design is an art of manipulation and organising elements of urban environment. It is worth noting that urban design is an activity that shapes places, however for this activity people play important roles. In other words these places and any activity within them are meant for people.

What constitutes good urban design is anything but clear and varies considerably throughout history. Indeed, the ideas and theories of a good city form 'do not follow a single and steady path' (Larice and Macdonald, 2007: 7). It is therefore important to know the origins and theoretical foundations of some of the urban forms that make up today's cities (Larice and Macdonald, 2007: 7).

Camillo Sitte's work (*City Planning according to artistic principles*, 1889) was an influential work for urban design, as Collin and Collins (1986: 35) contend one of Sitte's most fundamental criticisms referred to plans that were made up by surveyors. He was also against the German planning of his time, which was controlled and managed by engineers. Sitte was particularly disrespectful and contemptuous towards 'geometers – surveyors who laid out towns or parts of cities with a meaningless geometrical exactitude' (Collins and Collins, 1986: 36). Jarvis (1980: 25) contends that 'Sitte saw nineteenth-century city planning as a rigid set of street systems without artistic merit'. Examples of Sitte's artistic principles include: 'that the centre of plazas be kept free' (Sitte, 1889); 'that public squares should be enclosed entities' (Jarvis, 1980: 25); 'the size and shape of plazas' (Collins and Collins, 1986: 131). The architecture, defence of historical monuments, and use of

greenery, solids and voids for Sitte were all 'building elements for making the city into that totality toward which he always aspired' (Collins and Collins, 1986: 68).

Kevin Lynch is another influential scholar who has provided multiple of theories and concepts for good urban design. In his work, Good city form (1981: 111-221), Lynch introduces seven issues and concepts which define the theory of good city form: dimensions of performance, vitality, sense, fit, access, control, efficiency and justice. Lynch's Good city form theory has been criticised by many, however, as 'far too utopian to be truly operational in terms of providing concrete strategies and steps for a project' (Inam, 2011: 275). Lynch also identified and introduced some principles for urban design and the image of the city and urban environment in his book, The image of the city (1960). According to Lynch, the environment not only gives a sense of security but can help to establish a relationship with that environment (1960: 4). He explains that legibility, or 'the apparent clarity of [the] cityscape', can help cities to create that sense of security (Lynch, 1960: 2). Lynch (1960) also introduced five main elements within the city image. These elements are: paths, edges, districts, nodes and landmarks. This work has had a major influence on how designers perceive urban form and cities (Larice and Macdonald, 2007: 153-154). According to Taylor (2009: 190), Lynch's recommendations did not come from his preferences but rather from a study and observation of 'how ordinary citizens perceived the cities they inhabited'. As Taylor (2009: 192) discusses, Lynch suggested that if each of the five elements become indistinguishable components of a townscape, then that environment as a whole would be legible. Understanding his work is important because some of the visual evaluations of the embedded cases study projects of this thesis are partly based on his ideas.

Other examples of fundamental ideas for urban design, urban form and the urban environment were introduced by people such as Le Corbusier, Alexander, and Gordon Cullen (*The concise townscape*). For instance, Cullen (1961: 8) postulates that, as there is an art of architecture, there is an art of relationship as well. He suggests that through the manipulation of certain pliability, the art of relationship is made possible; this means that 'the aim is not to dictate the shape of the town or environment, but it is a modest one: simply to manipulate within the tolerances' (Cullen, 1961: 8). Cullen also recommends turning to other values and standards, such as the faculty of sight. He contends that, 'in fact, of course, vision is not only

useful but it evokes our memories and experiences, those responsive emotions inside us which have the power to disturb the mind when aroused' (Cullen, 1961: 8). He presents three ways in which the production of an emotional reaction of the environment takes place: concerning optics (the sceneries of a town are often seen in a serial vision); concerning place (i.e. the reaction and the position of body in the environment); and concerning content (i.e. an examination of urban fabric, colour, texture, scale, style, character, personality, and uniqueness) (Cullen, 1961: 9, 11). Cullen has been criticised as backward-looking because of his focus on picturesque aesthetic qualities, but his ideas have been a significant influence on a generation of British urban designers (Larice and Macdonald, 2007: 168).

Contributions by other scholars have also been important for urban design and urban form. It is the work of some of these scholars, that is more relevant to expanding views and perspectives of urban design and differentiating urban design activities from architecture, including: Aldo Rossi's *The architecture of the city* (1984), Rob Krier's *Urban space* (1979) and Leon Krier's *Architecture and urban design*, 1967–1992 (1992), Francis Tibbalds's *Making people-friendly towns* (1992), and various works by Rocardo Bofill, and Rem Koolhaas.

It is also important for this theoretical chapter to consider some of the relevant and significant movements for urban design as well as urban planning, which might help to improve an understanding of the nature, characteristics, and attitudes for and within both fields, particularly urban design. Thus, perhaps the key movements and thoughts for urban design are 'the city beautiful', garden cities, and modernist and post-modernist movements. These movements inspired so many works and practices around the world with regard to urban design and city planning and had a significant influence on the future of urban planning and urban design. Each movement had a series of rules or principles which are discussed in this section.

The city beautiful movement had nineteenth-century origins but Daniel Burnham's The Chicago Plan of 1909, which was his greatest achievement, played a key role in introducing this movement to the world (Bahrainy and Bakhtiar, 2016: 14; Hall, 2002: 189, 190). The principles of this movement are: balance between urban elements to create unity; that city centres are considered the cultural and physical parts of the city, which are a dominant element of urban design; creating a unified

and centralised structure in which all roads are visibly and spatially connected to the centre; and order and geometric forms; as well as the good of the whole (Bahrainy and Bakhtiar, 2016: 14).

The garden city movement as mentioned above was another key movement which aimed to make industrial cities manageable, elaborated by Ebenezer Howard in 1898. The critical principle of this movement is epitomised in the famous diagram of the Three Magnets (Hall, 2002: 93). This diagram combines the best of the countryside and the best of towns and creates a third magnet, town-country. Howard believed that each garden city would create and offer a wide range of jobs and services and would be connected to the others by a rapid transit system which would equalise the opportunities between the cities, calling this polycentric vision, the Social City (Hall, 2002: 94). The elements which were initiated and developed by Howard and his followers were formed some of the most crucial ideas of planning and urban design in later years.

The modernist movement, which was developed and became one of the key schools of thought in the twentieth century, was based on ideas such as: hygiene, use of technology, speed, efficiency in the form and function, high density, zoning, mass production, less aesthetic, avoiding the use of decorative elements (Bahrainy and Bakhtiar, 2016: 16). The post-modernist movement generally refers to 'diversity, pluralism, difference, parts and fragments, heterogeneity, paying attention to women and minorities, in search of a guide in a changing world, doubt on the value of money and capital, return to realism and uniformity and totality' (Bahrainy and Bakhtiar, 2016: 21). Post-modernism for urban design means contextualism, participation, and small-scale, process-oriented, city as a landscape, mixed uses, priority for pedestrians, decoration, dialogue, decentralisation, and discontinuity (Bahrainy and Bakhtiar, 2016: 21).

The relevance of the presented discussions is justified because these movements were very influential in shaping some of the roots of today's urban design principles. Both city beautiful and garden cities brought forward elements of aesthetic for urban design whilst the modernist movement introduced the use of technology, functionality and efficiency; and post-modernist highlighted the importance of issues such as democracy, contextualisation and participation for urban design.

It is worth mentioning that there are other movements that were influential for urban design such as the symbolism, smart growth, sustainable urban design, and new urbanism movement which will not be discussed here.

2.1.2. Urban Design as a profession

In order to understand urban design, it is important to define a boundary for it as a profession. Drawing a clear boundary for urban design as a profession is difficult; as the field involves multi-disciplinary subjects and sometimes overlaps into other fields. For instance, planning as a profession might involve some of the activities that are involved in urban design. Urban design, according to Schurch (1999: 17), is normally concerned with specific types of design venues which he identifies as 'thresholds of scale'. Moreover, 'urban design can be grouped into or possibly a combination of five interrelated project scale or subject areas called thresholds of scale' (Schurch, 1999: 17) (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Thresholds of scale. Source: Schurch, 1999: 18.

Five thresholds of scale

- 1) The site specific scale of an individual land parcel
- 2) Neighbourhoods or districts
- 3) An entire city
- 4) The region in which a city lies
- 5) Corridors

To understand urban design and its professional boundaries there is a need to understand that subjects or professions such as architecture, landscape architecture and urban planners are not the only professions that stand alone as 'fields of import' to urban design (Schurch, 1999: 25). Practitioners should consider and understand that other fields such as civil engineering, law, and real estate, as well as disciplines in the natural and social sciences are all of great importance for urban design. Therefore, practitioners should try to define urban design by understanding that all of these fields are components of urban design as a profession. It is important to recognise that none of these fields profess to practise urban design (as shown in

Figure 2.1). Moreover, urban design should not be 'narrowly perceived as an extension of any one profession or area' (Schurch, 1999: 24).

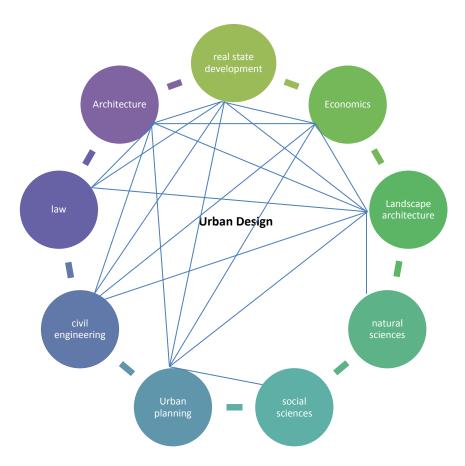


Figure 2.1. Generic professional and related roles in urban design. Source: Schurch, 1999: 25.

Urban design, which is a field in its own right, engages 'the human experience of the built environment: the sense of understandability, congeniality, playfulness, security, mystery, or awe that lands and built forms evoke' (Sternberg, 2000: 266). Urban designers' activities should be distinguished from architects, and it follows that, urban designers

Must contend with the multiple forces that generate the built environment, primarily those of the private real estate market and secondarily government regulations aimed at policy objectives that encompass not just urban form, but such additional matters as transportation efficiency and disaster mitigation. He or she must seek to affect the built environment through complex interactions with private investors, landowners, community members, interest groups, legislators, and funding agencies (Sternberg, 2000: 266).

As Adams and Tiesdell (2011: 2) suggest, urban design is divided into two types of activities. In direct design or first-order design; the urban designer is 'the author of the built environment or a component of it'. In indirect design, or second-order design, 'urban designers design the decision environments within which other development actors — developers, funders, sundry designers, surveyors etc. — necessarily operate' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2011: 2). Second-order design happens, 'before the design of the development proposal/project, and is both proactive and place-shaping. It shapes the design and development processes by creating a frame for acts of first-order design. By setting design constraints and potentials, second-order design can, thus give public policymakers significant influence on first-order design' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2011: 2).

2.1.3. What constitute good urban design?

For having a place to be successful, overall quality of that place, its design, and its functions are crucial parts; one of the contributing factors to a successful place is good urban design. There are a number of factors that can be taken as being the basis of good design. These include: 1. 'Firmness: where a design achieves the necessary technical criteria, 2. Commodity: where it achieves the necessary functional criteria and 3. Delight where it has aesthetic appeal. In making places, a fourth criteria of economy should be added' especially when people want to minimise the environmental costs instead of focusing only on respecting budget constraints (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 11, 13, 17).

Bentley et al. (1985: 9) indicate that the constraints of what you can and cannot do in a place are set by the physical fabric and management of that place and therefore 'the man-made environment is a political system in its own right' (Bentley et al., 1985: 9). Bentley et al. (1985: 9) mention that design is one of the factors that has an influence on the choices of people. There are seven principles of good urban design that were introduced by them.

Permeability (the quality which indicate where people can go and cannot), legibility (the quality which means the opportunities that a place can offer), variety (the ranges of uses available), robustness (the quality which means the degree to which people can use a given place for different purposes), visual appropriateness (whether the detailed appearance of the place makes people aware of the

choices they have), richness (people's choice of sensory experiences), personalisation (the extent to which people can put their own stamp on a place) (Bentley et al., 1985: 9).

One of the documents that gives a clear set of objectives for guiding governments, especially the UK government, is *By Design* (DETR and CABE, 2000). This set of objectives is useful in providing a broadly accepted conceptualisation of urban design that can be adapted as a basis for evaluating developments (CABE and DETR, 2001: 19). The objectives are:

- Character to promote character in townscape and landscape by responding to and reinforcing locally distinctive patterns of development and culture.
- Continuity and enclosure to promote the continuity of street frontages and the enclosure of space by development which clearly defines private and public areas.
- Quality of the public realm to promote public spaces and routes that are attractive, safe, uncluttered and work effectively for all in society, including disabled and elderly people.
- Ease of movement to promote accessibility and local permeability by making places that connect with each other and are easy to move through, putting people before traffic and integrating land uses and transport.
- Legibility to promote legibility through development that provides recognisable routes, intersections and landmarks to help people find their way around.
- Adaptability to promote adaptability through development that can respond to changing social, technological and economic conditions.
- Diversity to promote diversity and choice through a mix of compatible developments and uses that work together to create viable places that respond to local needs (CABE and DETR, 2001: 19; DETR and CABE, 2000).

Box 2.1. Six different categories of value that can be enhanced by good design.

Source: Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 30-31.

- Exchange value, 'revealed by the price at which buildings are traded' (30);
- Use value, 'evident in the appeal of places to occupiers, reflected in their contribution to productivity, profitability and competitiveness' (30);
- Social value, 'reflecting the extent to which places help to connect people, enhance social interaction, reinforce civic pride, encourage social inclusion and promote neighbourly behaviour, while reducing vandalism and crime' (31);
- Environmental value, 'shown by the degree of adaptability, flexibility and robustness and reflecting concern for intergenerational equity and biodiversity' (31);
- Image value, 'demonstrated in the contribution that places make to corporate identity, prestige, vision and reputation' (31);
- Cultural value, 'apparent in the relationship of a place to location and context, and its contribution on the rich tapestry and broader patterns of historical development of the town or city in which it is situated' (31).

One of the best known identifications of design principles is represented in Table 2.2, which indicates the Prince of Wales's ideas and ten principles of architecture and design. According to Punter and Carmona (1997: 76), this table embraced many of the principles that were introduced by other theorists with regard to urban design and architecture. However, it has also been criticised for being amateurish and naïve. Nevertheless, in more recent years this table by 'the Prince has stimulated important debates about the key principles of urban design' (Punter and Carmona, 1997: 78). The reason for including this table is that it provides a summary of the principles that were introduced by many urban design theorists such as Jane Jacobs, Francis Tibbalds, and Joe Holyoak.

 Table 2.2. The 10 commandments of Prince of Wales, and other checklists for architecture and design. Source: Punter and Carmona, 1997: 77.

Kevin Lynch	Jane Jacobs	Bentley et al.,	Tibbalds (1988)	HRH The Prince	Holyoak (1988)	Urban Design	Wates (1988)	Buchanan
(1982)	(1961)	(1985)		of Wales (1988)		Group (1987)		(1988)
Vitality	Appropriate activity before visual order	Responsive environment	Places before buildings	The place		Responsive forms	Urban environment in broadest sense	Place making Public realm Outdoor rooms
See Sense		Visual appropriateness	Respect history	Harmony and context	Retain the best Respect street line			Dialogue with context and history: re-contain street
See Fit	Mixed use	variety	Encourage mixed use		Mixed uses	Mixed uses		
See Vitality	The street	Human scale	Scale enclosure	Scale with context	In scale with context			
Access	Permeability (short blocks)	Permeability	Encourage permeability			Public access		Public spaces and movements
Control	Social Mix and consultation	Personalisation	Social mix and consultation	Community	Acceptable personalisation	Consultation	Individual responsibility, Professional enablers	
Sense (clarity with which it can be perceived)		Legibility	Legibility	Hierarchy	Visual accessibility reflect uses			Respect conventions Articulate meanings
Fit (adaptability)	Robust spaces	Robustness and adaptability						J
See Efficiency	Gradual not cataclysmic money		Small scale change					
	Activity richness	Richness	Visual delight	Materials and decoration	Visible construction	Stimulating		Natural, rich materials

It is noted that the principles represented above are inclusive for good urban design as a practice and an activity. Good urban design is just one of the main components of creating attractive places for people to live in, spend their time or do different types of activities. There are also other elements required for creating attractive places for living. Figure 2.2 is a model by Mulliner and Maliene (2011: 151) that summarises the elements needed for attractive places for living and other everyday uses.

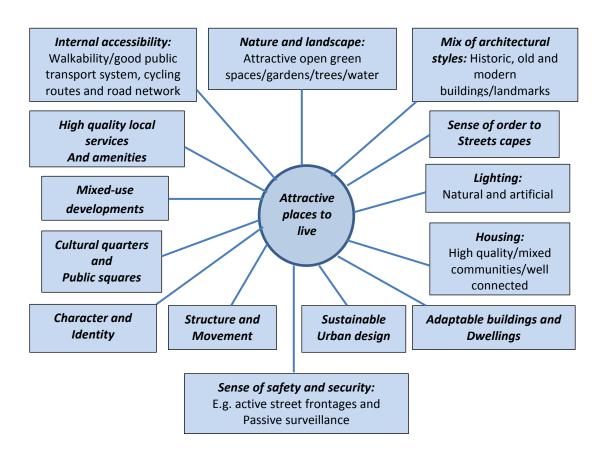


Figure 2.2. Elements of attractive places to live. Source: Mulliner and Maliene, 2011: 151.

Madanipour argues that urban design is divided into product and processes of space; urban design as a product 'occurs at scales ranging from parts of an environment, such as a street scape, to the larger wholes of districts, towns, cities or regions' while urban design as a process 'involves the art of shaping the environment which has been built over time by many different actors' (1996: 104). Reflecting on the description of Adams and Tiesdell (2011: 2) about first-order and second-order design; urban design activities such as policy making and urban design governance

are second-order design activities which shape a development process and design by using first-order designs (White, 2015: 5).

Good urban design is one of the contributing factors that result in a successful place. In addition, there might be a need for certain degrees of political and procedural reform, as well as, institutional and cultural change. However, according to Adams and Tiesdell (2013: 38), to deliver these types of changes and 'produce places with strong potential for success, requires a particular form of state-market relations in development, with an inherent policy emphasis on shaping, regulating and stimulating development activity, and indeed on building the capacity to do so'. Some of the relevant factors with regard to the market and the economy are discussed in Section 2.2.

2.2. Economic importance of urban design

By looking at the modern history of design it can be noted that there has been a trend of consolidating design (Punter, 2007: 169). As Punter (2007: 169) suggests, during the 1990s, there were several new agendas for design such as the protection of sense of place and local distinctiveness, greater environmental concerns at micro and macro levels, 'a more strategic view of urban design as a sharper of urban form city wide', and a greater concern with regard to attracting more of the population to cities by the use of urban regeneration (Punter, 2007: 169). The role of cities in initiating economic developments by using and enhancing the attractiveness of urban settlement is very important as will be noted in the case studies used in this thesis. As this thesis discusses, urban design is a tool to enhance the image of a location and attract investors and provide more opportunities for both employment and property market in cities (Punter, 2007: 169). As a response to neoliberalism and globalisation; 'urban design as public policy is tending to be driven by the imperatives of the entrepreneurial city and by urban competitiveness strategies' (Cuthbert, 2006 cited in Punter, 2007: 169). According to White (2015: 4), there is a constant pressure on the regulators of a place to create more opportunities for jobs and investments which has forced them to use urban design as an instrument or tool for enhancing global competitiveness.

Urban design's contribution to making a place economically successful can be explained by understanding that good urban design can bring both direct and indirect benefits. The former are normally in the form of economic benefits which 'accrue to those responsible for investing in development (whether from the public or private sectors)' (CABE and DETR, 2001: 26, 75). In contrast, 'indirect benefits (social but also environmental) accrue to others and to society at large' (CABE and DETR, 2001: 26, 75).

Good urban design can, as Adams and Tiesdell (2013: 33) argue, result in increases in rental and capital value as well as increase in sales and letting rates. This is relevant to this thesis because urban design and regeneration of the wider areas in which the case studies of this thesis is located resulted in increases in capital value, rental and sales. Thus better urban design can enhance the financial viability of real estate developments. It is important for urban designers to become skilful in 'understanding markets and financial models, acquiring knowledge of legal arrangements for parcelling rights to land and facilities, learning about innovative precedents for complex public- private arrangements, and mastering the skills of negotiation to reach successful agreements' (Hack and Sagalyn, 2011, cited in Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 33). This understanding and knowledge of market is something that is required by planners as they need to understand 'how markets work and how far they can be modified by planning actions' (Adams and Watkins, 2014: 24).

There is a need to accept that the quality of the urban and built environment is 'no longer a by-product of economic development but it is a prerequisite for it' (Biddulph, 2011: 65). Therefore, urban design must: improve and develop the built environment in cities so they can attract higher value industries and individuals who can now thrive economically in many locations (Biddulph, 2011: 65). Design has become a mean of 'product differentiations' and image transformation especially in the age of global competition between cities (Madanipour, 2006: 181). The

importance of this is evident particularly in the first, second and third embedded projects of this thesis.

2.2.1. State, market (economy) and urban design

The focal point and connection between urban economics, urban design and the politics of local governance, according to Mentz and Goble (2015: 149), is rarely understood; 'economic strategies often lack a spatial (place based) dimension, as much as urban plans often lack an economic logic'. These 'interrelationships' are important to understand if one wants to improve and develop efficiencies of cities and equitability along with prosperity within communities (Mentz and Goble, 2015: 149).

Madanipour (1996: 155) contends that 'the state and the market form the two main component parts of a single political economy. The production of the built environment occurs within this political economy and helps to ensure its continuity'. Madanipour further mentioned that these two structures are supportive of each other and do not have any problematic relationships with each other 1996: 155). State - market relations are a crucial component of shaping places; shaping places needs to go beyond regulatory planning and needs to deploy a range of carefully selected policy instruments (Adams and Watkins, 2014: 11).

One of the main models for the classification of policy instruments was developed by Adams et al (2014). They classified policy instruments into four types 'according to how they each impact on the decision environments of market actors. This framework defines planning as the deployment of policy instruments intended to shape, regulate or stimulate the behaviour of market actors or build capacity to do so' (Adams and Watkins, 2014: 11).

- Shaping instruments These shape the decision environment of individual development actors by setting a broad context for market actions and transactions (for example, development plans).
- Regulatory instruments These constrain the decision environment of individual development actors by regulating or controlling market actions and transactions (for example, development management).

- Stimulus instruments These expand the decision environment of individual development actors by facilitating market actions and transactions (for example, land assembly).
- Capacity building instruments These enable development actors to operate more effectively within their decision environments and so facilitate the operation of other policy instruments (for example, improving information systems).

(Adams and Watkins, 2014: 71).

For supporting particular policy objectives, these four types of instruments are usually brought together as packages. The use of particular policy instruments is, according to Adams and Tiesdell (2013: 133), 'an essentially political decision and one that is often highly contested'. It is important to understand the typology of these policy instruments now because later this thesis looks at urban design related instruments within the selected planning systems and embedded case study projects. Therefore, understanding these instruments provides the reader with a better context for understanding the urban design instruments.

The production process which shapes the built environment at different scales and paces is the real estate development process. The potential of real estate development to transform place is dependent upon 'its capacity to source land from real estate markets and combine it successfully with capital, labour and raw materials sourced from most other input markets' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 74). Real estate is a social process in which relationships between people are important for the outcomes because 'what is considered as possible in the development is highly dependent on the exact combination of individuals and organisations in dominant positions at that particular time and in that particular location' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 94). Adams and Tiesdell (2013) have created a broad framework of development roles in relation to their specific market involvement (Figure 2.3). Other key actors within the development process (as shown in Figure 2.3.) are: landowners, politicians, communities and other interest groups, banks, investors and occupier. Identifying these actors is important for the selected case studies as well as for the focus of this research, which is discussed in the following chapter.

Table 2.3. Classification of policy instruments. Source: Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 134.

Types of instrument

Shaping instruments

Shape decision environment of individual development actors by setting broad context for market actions and transactions

Common components

- Making clear what kind of places governments wish to see developed, through the publication of plans, strategies, visions and similar documents
- Restructuring the institutional environment of real estate markets, for example, by making changes to property rights or taxation systems
- Delivering strategic market transformation in the sense of radically changing what market actors consider achievable in particular locations

Regulatory instruments

Constrain decision environment of individual development actors by regulating or controlling market actions and transactions

- Choice between public regulation by statute or private regulation by contract
- Choice between preventative regulation, restricting detrimental action or directive regulation, requiring desirable action
- Choice between regulation of activities to restrict harmful impact or actors to restrict unlicensed production
- Choice between sequential regulation of different aspects of same activity or integrated regulation of different aspects of same activity
- Choice between seeking to manage activity or eradicate activity
- Choice between elective or mandatory enforcement
- Choice between regulation based on case-by-case assessment or on meeting common rules or standards

Stimulus instruments

Expand decision environment of individual development actors by facilitating market actions and transactions

- Direct state actions to stimulate new development in locations that would otherwise be avoided by market actors, such as reclamation, infrastructure provision, land acquisition and assembly, and land disposal
- Price-adjusting instruments impacting on projected costs and revenues in development appraisal, such as development grants, tax incentives and project bonuses
- Risk-reducing instruments seeking to overcome negative risk perceptions in particular areas by ensuring accurate market information, policy certainty and stability, demonstration projects and environmental improvements, and holistic place management
- Capital-raising instruments to provide or facilitate access to development finance, including loan guarantees, revolving loan funds, and public-private development partnerships

Capacity-building instrument

Enable development actors to operate more effectively within their decision environments and so facilitate the operation of other policy instruments

- Market-shaping cultures, mind sets and ideas-looking a fresh at cultural perspectives or ways of thinking
- Market-rooted networks enhancing relations across the development spectrum
- Market-rich information and knowledge about how place quality can be influenced through market and development processes
- Market-relevant skills and capabilities-developing human capital and enhancing the skills and abilities of key individuals and organisations

Real estate developers are one of the key actors within the development processes as their role is of particular importance in how cities and places are developed. According to the Opportunity Space Theory, 'the developer's scope or potential to create a viable development can be visualised as an opportunity space' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 158). The larger the space, the easier for the developer to manoeuvre and create viable places (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 158). There are three forces that press this opportunity space for the developers. They are: the physical context of the development site and its immediate environment; the regulatory context; and the market context (Figure 2.4).

The designer's opportunity space is similar to the developer's space and is subject to similar defining forces. 'The more demanding the site and the greater the challenge of putting the desired development on that site within the available budget, the more likely a developer will be to yield opportunity space to the designer' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 159). Given that the economy is a multi-dimensional subject, it follows that the relationship between economic factors, market, urban design and planning is very complex. Economists, policy makers and other actors need to think about the long term when they are creating or shaping a product. Planners, for instance, are responsible for, and have a crucial task in, creating successful places where investors and people are attracted; places which create a healthy economy, places that are active, viable and are meant for people. It is important that planners consider economic factors not just in terms of finance and constraints, but as a force that can shape a place.

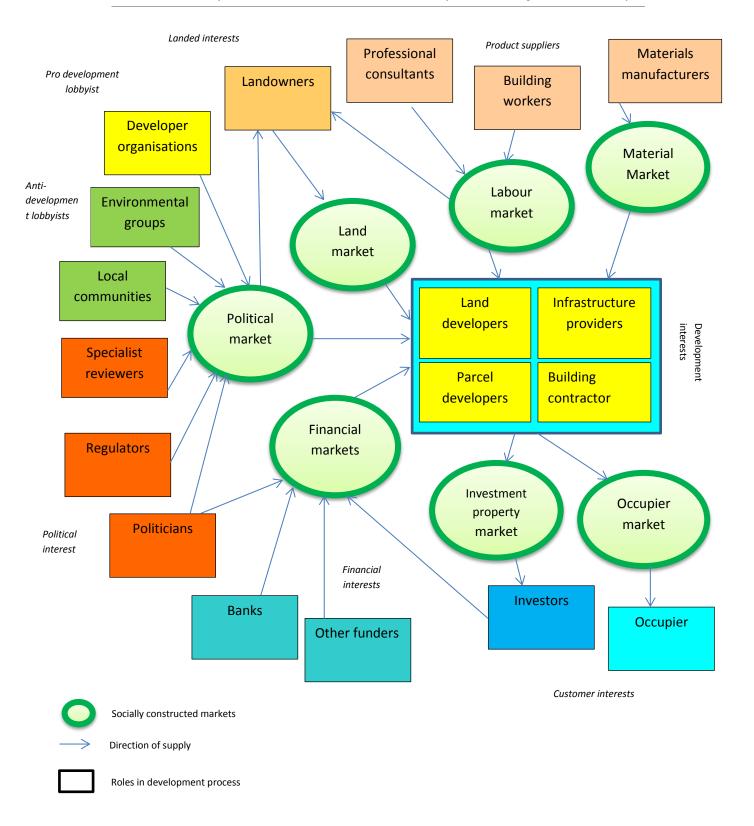


Figure 2.3. A role-based model of the real estate development process. Source: Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 94.

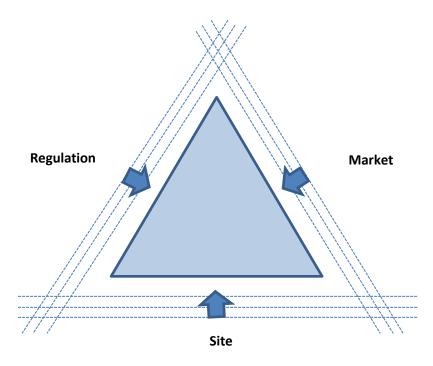


Figure 2.4. Three contexts that frame the developer's opportunity space. Source: Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 158.

2.3. How does planning influence urban design?

Design has been subject to governmental activities throughout history (Carmona, 2016: 706; Van Assche et al., 2012: 182; Banerjee, 2011: 209), whilst planning as a discipline is a product of the twentieth century (Van Assche et al., 2012: 181). The intervention of governments in shaping the built environment or urban design has always existed but in modern times it has become more universal (Marshall, 2011).

This section of Chapter Two first discusses some of the definitions, theories and required skills for planning and thereafter discusses the relationship between planning and urban design. In so doing, it cumulatively addresses the question: How can planning influence urban design?

2.3.1. Planning definition, theories, skills

Hall and Tewdwr-Jones (2011: 1) state that 'planning is concerned with deliberately achieving some objective, and it proceeds by assembling actions into some orderly sequence. One dictionary definition, in fact, refers to what planning does; the other, to how planning does it'. Planning is thus defined as a "rational choice" (Davidoff

and Reiner, 1962); the framing of subsequent decisions (Faludi, 1987: 116–128); "the processes of regulation, coordination and control" (Pierre, 1999: 376); or "a craft and a philosophy" (Markusen, 2000: 262–265).

In a systematic review of planning, there are two main teleologies: substantive teleology and instrumental teleology. The substantive purpose of planning is explicitly addressed by two approaches in planning theory: one is descriptive, 'identifying the purpose of planning with its substantive fields such as land-use planning and development control, environmental planning, economic development planning, community or neighbourhood planning, and transportation planning' (Alexander, 2009: 235). The other is normative, with implied ideological associations. An early normative teleology is Paul Davidoff's (1965) "advocacy planning", a planning model meant for the poor and designed to promote the interests of disadvantaged communities. Another openly normative approach is John Friedmann's, to whom all planning of any significance is intended to produce "the good society" through "radical practice" that leads to social transformation' (Alexander, 2009: 235).

For the evaluation of the purposes of planning in practice, there is a need for another teleology which is positive contingent planning teleologies. These are defined as

Positive because their substantive goals relate to real world practices; they are contingent because they are not general or universal, but are designed for or adapted to their specific context. But evaluating planning—that is, evaluating planning organizations and their activities, and assessing their products: plans and planning services—is still not easy, even when evaluation is framed by an appropriate positive contingent teleology (Alexander, 2009: 241).

One of the main theories concerning planning is that it should be viewed as a system. In order for a system to work and function successfully it is important for its parts to be interconnected. The physical environments that town planning is trying to plan and control, are systems themselves – such as towns, cities, and regions. It follows from this that town planning can be defined as 'a form of systems control' in which 'exercising an intelligent control requires an understanding of the system; therefore,

we can define town planning as a form of systems analysis and control' (Taylor, 1998: 62).

Faludi (1973, cited in Taylor, 1998: 66) discusses the idea that the system view of planning is based on a theory of object (the substance) and further indicates that a planners plan is a substantive theory. Faludi considers 'substantive theories as theories in planning and procedural theories as theories of planning' (Taylor, 1998: 66). According to Faludi, the rational process view is a procedural theory (Taylor, 1998: 66). With regard to planning theories, it is suggested that at different times different theories have been more popular than others (in both academia and practice). For instance, trends in planning theory have been systems and rational theories in the 1960s, Marxist influences in the 1970s, the New Right in the 1980s (in England), and collaborative, pragmatic and post-modern approaches in the 1990s (Allmendinger, 2009: 229).

Planning is thus as much about content as it is about process, according to Cullingworth and Caves (2003). Moreover, it is a process in which problems are debated and resolved by reaching agreements. It involves multiple participants with multiple perceptions, beliefs and objectives (Cullingworth and Caves, 2003: 6). It becomes difficult for a researcher to understand the complexities in behaviours and actions that are involved in planning because, in order to understand and predict these issues, one needs not only to rely on these two perspectives, but also to understand and begin to model 'the dynamics and interactions of cities and consider the impact of policy interventions' (Allmendinger, 2009: 62).

This research does not discuss these theories. It mentions them in Table 2.4 only because it intended to give a wider scope on different theories in planning and to indicate that there are various theories regarding planning. It is worth mentioning, however, that the development of theory is very complex, as 'planning theories exist side by side with varying degree of overlap' (Allmendinger, 2009: 229). The interpretation of these theories is not unified in terms of the space they have entered; different theories influence practice in different ways and in different places because the condition or specification of a place would influence the ways in which planning theory is used or interpreted (Allmendinger, 2009: 230).

Table 2.4. Unpicking epistemologies of planning theory. Source: Allmendinger, 2009: 234.

	PURPOSE What is the focus of planner decisions	ROLE What is the role of the planner in making decisions?	ORIENTATION To what extent is planning oriented to the future?	FUTURE What does a planner know about the future?	PUBLIC INTEREST Is there one?
System theory/ Rational comprehensive	Control; scientific and objective	Planner- centric expert	Positivist; instrumental rationality	Can be predicted	Output: maximum utility
Critical theory	Accumulation, distribution, and the role of state	Puppet of the market	Means/ ends	Market- driven	Capitalism
Neo liberal	A combination of a market-oriented competitive state(liberalism) and an authoritarian strong state (conservatism)	Minimal; provide conditions for the continuatio n of the market mechanism	Via the market mechanism	Can foresee barriers to market functions	The market
Pragmatism	'Getting things done'	Act on ideas or beliefs that make sense and help others to act	Spontaneous order	The outcome of using an idea	Impossible to aggregate
Advocacy	Solutions to address power inequalities	Advocate	Outcome of competing ideas	A variety of futures	Pluralism
Post modern	Focus on and release 'difference'	Narrator	Focus on day to day	Reject objective knowledge	No great vision; fragmente d and atomistic
Collaborative	Break down scientific objectivism: agreement	Introduce other (non- instrumenta I rationality) ways of	Pluralistic	Difference	No meta- narrative; life world

The nature of planning practice changes continuously. Despite this, a set of durable skills was identified by Ted Kitchen (2007: 8) which, he argues, are required for planning and could be applied to any planning situation or regime across the world. These skills are: technical, planning system and process, place, customer, personal, organisational, managerial and political context, synoptic, and integrative skills. It can be seen that these planning skills are predominantly elements of the required skills for an urban designer as well.

2.3.2. The relationship between planning and design

With regard to the general relationship between planning and design there are two views: one sees design as an aspect of planning and the other view emphasises on the professional and disciplinary boundaries of the design disciplines (Van Assche et al., 2012: 178). Planning and design share a common ground in shaping and governing spaces; therefore, it is important for design to go beyond aesthetic issues. In addition, it is important to take into account 'normative goals of achieving economic, social, and environmental public good' (Van Assche et al., 2012: 178).

The design dimension of planning seems to be in endless conflict between architects and planners, developers and designers, professionals and the public, and community groups and business leaders. Thus it is a contentious area. Design in planning is a fundamental issue 'in the sense that much if not most of development control is directed at design matters, broadly conceived'; it is a peripheral issue 'in the sense that overall design quality can be, and often is, sacrificed to achieve other objectives, particularly the desire for any development or job creation in less economically advantaged area' (Punter and Carmona, 1997: 1).

The relationship between planning and design perspectives spreads over many different actors, and it is also important to note within the confines of this thesis that there are internal variations in terms of the different forms of coordination that are represented by planning and design. Planning as design 'can be regarded as highly valuable perspective for a planning system, allowing it to capture the qualities of a specific place, to accommodate many different needs and inspire specific solutions' (Van Assche et al., 2012: 193). Planning as design can result in efficiency and help to improve the quality of the planning product (which in this respect could be the

space). Exploring a workable and unique balance between planning and design perspectives is an economic, political and ecological necessity for every system (Van Assche et al., 2012: 193).

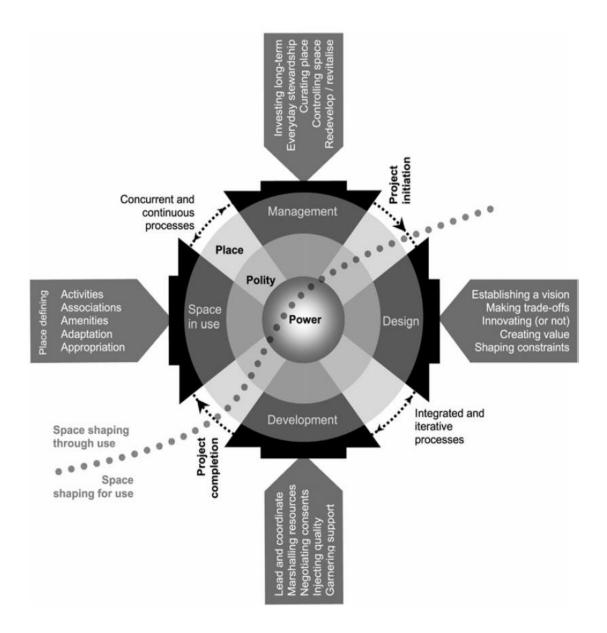


Figure 2.5. Urban design process a place shaping continuum. Source: Carmona, 2014: 11.

Planning and urban design meet each other during the place making process. Moreover, urban design and planning come together in considering the spatial and physical aspects of a certain place. According to Carmona (2014: 11), there are four key place-shaping processes: design, development, space (or place) in use and

management (as shown in Figure 2.5). He argues that the shape of the experience of space is not just design nor even the development process, but instead the combined outcomes and interactions between these four components. He also suggests that the processes of change are continually defined by 'allied historic and contemporary processes of place, polity and power' (Carmona, 2014: 33).

Planning can influence urban design or the design of the built environment by means of design governance. This activity is defined as 'the process of state-sanctioned intervention in the means and processes of designing the built environment in order to shape both processes and outcomes in a defined public interest' (Carmona, 2016: 705). There are 4 recognised categories of design quality; these are aesthetic quality, project quality, place quality and process quality (Carmona, 2016: 709). Amongst these four qualities, the activities of governments can be involved and engaged with all 4 of them but process can be influenced and affected, and thus it goes to the heart of any design governance activities (Carmona, 2016: 709).

Design governance potentially exists within a wide context of urban governance: ideological to managerial, centralised to disaggregate and with various degrees of public and private influence (Carmona, 2016: 727). According to Carmona (2016: 727) design governance

is as much concerned with designing the environment within which design decisions occur as with shaping actual design outcomes; that this process is continuous, diverse and shared across stakeholder groups, both public and private; and, that finally it reaches well beyond the imposition of statutory formal instruments on market actors. Instead, through constructive engagement it seeks to extend (rather than restrict) the opportunity space within which profitable, creative and socially useful design can occur. In the end all forms of design governance are essentially political and part of a political process that sits in judgement over the nature of good design.

The arguments presented concerning the influence of planning on urban design and urban design governance in this section are important as they are further discussed in the following chapters of this thesis.

2.4. Comparative planning research (planning systems and cultures)

For a long time, scholars of planning issues have struggled to explain 'variation among places' traditions, modes or styles of planning practice and the legal and institutional frameworks that govern spatial development and implement planning policies (Taylor, 2013: 683). In order to understand planning systems, it is necessary to recognise and understand the issue of planning cultures. Stead et al. (2015: 2127) note that the 'diversity of planning cultures and histories' across the world helps to explain some of the 'diversity of planning systems and planning outcomes'.

Before explaining the issue of planning cultures, this section of Chapter Two first explains planning and legal administrative systems, and provides a brief introduction to comparative studies. Thereafter, it moves to the concept of planning cultures and their relationship with spatial planning and urban design.

2.4.1. Planning and legal administrative systems and families in Europe

Planning systems are varied in their nature, characteristics, legal, and administrative systems. In order to understand the ways planning systems shape urban design, it is necessary to understand different categories of planning systems. The next section discusses how planning cultures are important for understanding the conscious and unconscious procedures and values within a given planning spectrum and planning system.

There are two approaches for classifying spatial planning systems. The first is the classification of legal and administrative families; the second 'seeks to apply a wider set of criteria but nevertheless produces a similar set of ideal types' (Nadin and Stead, 2008: 38). It is worth noting that 'processes of policy change are shaped by the geographical, linguistic, cultural, and/or historical attributes that define families of nations' (Stead, 2012: 25). But what are these families of nations? Over the years, several scholars have attempted to classify planning systems; this section discusses the main studies. Newman and Thornley (1996: 29) have identified five planning families for European legal and administrative systems: British, Napoleonic, Germanic, Scandinavian and East European. According to Taylor (2013: 686), these five families are 'defined as such by the degree to which development control is

discretionary as opposed to regulatory; authority is centralised or decentralised; the public-private relationship is conflictual or cooperative'. Recognising and understanding the nature and characteristics of these planning families and their national and legal administration and frameworks is important if one tries to understand the degree of flexibility, centralisation, and participatory input and power that each exercises, as well as the degree of influence over planning systems and decision-making processes. Newman and Thornley (1996: 74) recognise the importance of local authorities' power position and their differences in European countries. This power position of local authorities is 'firmly related to the planning procedures and it is clear that British system is weak in this respect' (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 74). Other systems may be weak for other reasons such as 'lack of enforcement powers and political clientism' (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 74). They suggest that it would be interesting to compare the power of local authority in negotiating situations (Newman and Thornley, 1996).

Zweigert and Kötz (1998: 64) consider legal families within a broader sense and contend that there are six legal families in the world: Romanistic, Germanic, Anglo-Saxon, Nordic, Far East, and religious legal systems. The example of the Romanistic legal family is France; the Germanic legal families include Germany, Austria and Switzerland; English common law and the law of United States of America are categorised as the Anglo Saxon family, the Nordic family belongs to Scandinavian countries (Zweigert and Kötz, 1998). Using legal families for explaining the differences among systems 'has obvious validity because the legal style and the administrative structure of government provide very strong frameworks for the operation of planning systems' (Nadin and Stead, 2008: 38). The legal families that were introduced above by Newman and Thornley (1996) and Zweigert and Kötz (1998) could be put into the first approach of classifying spatial planning systems that was noted by Nadin and Stead (2008).

The EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policy (1997) has created different kinds of criteria for the classification of planning systems and has put EU nations under four categories of: comprehensive integrated, land use regulation, regional economic, and urbanism (European Commission, 1997). According to this Compendium, the comprehensive integrated systems are those that are 'conducted

through a very systematic and formal hierarchy of plans from national to local level' (European Commission, 1997: 36) and focus on spatial coordination more than economy. The Netherlands is one of the nations that is associated with this category. The land use regulation and management systems are those that are associated with 'controlling the change of use of land at the strategic and local level' (European Commission, 1997: 37). The UK planning system has been recognised as an example of this category. This document has defined the regional economic category as a system in which there is an aim to pursue a wide range of social and economic objectives; moreover, these systems normally aim at equality of economic opportunities, as well as employment and social conditions between their regions and territories. The examples of these systems are, to some extent, France and Germany, and to lesser extent, Portugal (European Commission, 1997: 36). The urbanism categories are those systems that have a tradition of 'a strong architectural flavour and concern with urban design, townscape and building control' (European Commission, 1997: 37). The Mediterranean states are categorised as examples of urbanism systems.

According to the EU Compendium, for understanding the structure of governments and the impact of constitutional laws for spatial planning, there is a need to categorise states into federal, unitary, and regionalised (European Commission, 1997: 38). The EU Compendium has defined federal states as those which share power between different tiers of government (usually between the federal, regional, or Land government in the case of Germany and Austria) (European Commission, 1997: 39). It has also described the regionalised states as those governments in which the regional levels have got power to make law but within a framework of legislation which is set down by national government (European Commission, 1997: 40). The unitary states within this document are defined as states in which power lies with the national government. However, the level of centralisation varies in unitary states as some of the tasks and responsibilities might be delegated to lower tiers (European Commission, 1997: 39).

Tosics et al. (2010: 18) note similar categories for governmental systems and structures, explaining these categories as: classic unitary countries (e.g. Greece, Ireland), centralised unitary countries with a strong but with non-integrated local

authority level (e.g. Portugal, Bulgaria and Cypress), centralised unitary countries with strong and integrated local authority level (e.g. Denmark, Finland, the Netherland, Norway, Sweden and Lithuania), decentralised unitary countries with strong local and strong regional levels (e.g. France, UK and Poland), regionalised unitary countries (e.g. Italy, Spain), and federal states (e.g. Germany, Belgium, Austria and Switzerland) (Tosics et al., 2010: 18). This typology is based on 'the joint analysis of the two aspects, the link between the form and content of decentralization and the integrated/non-integrated character of the local administrative system' (Tosics et al., 2010: 18). The explanations of the EU Compendium and Tosics et al. (2010) could be put into the second approach of classifying spatial planning systems that was observed by Nadin and Stead (2008: 38).

There is another classification which is based on planning systems and development controls; for instance, Punter (2007: 168, 169) contends that any discussion about the design dimension of planning must talk about the differences between regulatory and discretionary systems. Punter defines regulatory systems as systems that are based on administrative law and written constitutions; in which development control is based on 'a complete statement of what is permissible made in advance' (Booth, 1995 cited in Punter, 2007: 168-169). It is his further opinion that these systems create a high level of certainty for developers, controllers, and other affected parties. In addition, discretionary systems are pragmatic and the basis of decisions made within them will not be revealed in advance; control decisions in these systems are plan based, moreover these systems are flexible, and there is a lack of certainty and trust for politicians, developers and other development participants in these systems (Punter, 2007: 169). Both systems aim to achieve better and higher qualities of design. For instance, regulatory systems recognise the need for more detailed design quality while involving more experts in the development. In a discretionary system, the policies and guidance of urban design are very general and in some cases prescriptive. This can be seen in Chapter Four of this thesis. In these systems there is a want to make control less reactive and give developers clear ideas on how to make their developments acceptable. These systems try to achieve greater certainty whilst the regulatory systems seek more discretion (Punter, 2007: 169).

The issues, characteristics and nature of planning systems are discussed further throughout this thesis, especially for the case studies of this research.

2.4.2. The concept of a planning culture and its relations with spatial planning in Europe

According to Booth (2011: 16), the culture of decision making and the ways in which that culture is interpreted at different institutional levels 'shape the ways in which planning is understood and put into effect'.

Sustainable development, economic competition and demographic changes contribute to changes in planning policy and practices (Healey and Williams 1993: 701). It seems that most of the literature regarding planning culture considers planning cultures within the framework of change. As evident from Getimis (2012: 29), 'planning culture approach draws mainly on concepts developed through the framework of the 'cultural turn' applied in many disciplines in recent decades, mainly in political science'.

The term 'planning culture' is not a scientifically defined term and definitions around this issue are different from each other. However, there is a consensus that

Planning culture refers to the role perceptions, values, interpretations, beliefs, attitudes and collective ethos of the actors involved in planning processes. In other words, it refers to the mental predispositions and shared values of those involved at all stages of the planning processes (agenda setting, decision making and implementation) influencing their behaviour and action (Getimis, 2012: 29).

Othengrafen and Reimer (2013: 1272) argue that culture consists 'both of 'shared meanings' as they are conceptualised in the basic philosophy of life and values among a group of people, and the way in which these shared meanings are visualised or manifested in people's social interactions, as well as in the results of those interactions'. Furthermore, Taylor (2013: 687) suggests that planning culture should be viewed along two dimensions: 1) an independent variable which asks whether planning culture is seen as something that causes change; or 2) a dependent variable which asks whether planning culture is an object of influence. Therefore, as Taylor states, there remains the question of whether the culture is 'construed as equivalent to

norms shared by professional planners and other actors directly involved in spatial development or, alternatively, as the norms and values of broader society. We may think of the former as organisational culture and the latter as societal culture' (Taylor, 2013: 687).

One other important perspective about the issue of planning culture has been developed by Knieling and Othengrafen (2015: 2136). Their model, which is very similar to Schein's model of the levels of planning, is a three-dimensional model of culturised planning. It should be explained that Schein's model (2004) consists of three main elements: artefacts, espoused beliefs and values, and underlying assumptions. Similarly, the culturised planning model consists of three main elements: planning artefacts, the planning environment and societal environment.

- Planning artefacts describe 'visible planning products, structures and processes which can easily be recognised and understood; for example, urban structures and master plans, etc.' (Knieling and Othengrafen, 2009: 304).
- The planning environment refers to 'assumptions and values that are specific for actors involved in spatial planning; for example, objectives and principles planning is aiming at, planning traditions, the scope of planning (comprehensive planning vs planning by projects), and political, administrative, economic and organisational structures, etc.' (Knieling and Othengrafen, 2009: 304).
- The societal environment represents 'underlying, unconscious assumptions which affect urban and regional planning as specific societal backgrounds; for example, the (self-)perception of planning or people's acceptance of planning, but also the consideration of nature, different concepts of justice and impacts of socio-economic or socio-political models about planning, etc.' (Knieling and Othengrafen, 2009: 304).

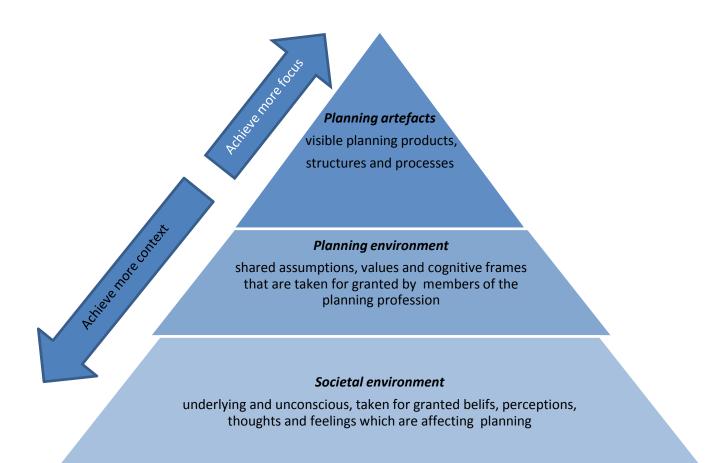


Figure 2.6. The culturised planning model. Source: Knieling and Othengrafen, 2015: 2137.

This model 'describes elements for a culture based planning paradigm' which can provide a framework for analysing and describing planning practices and cultures (Knieling and Othengrafen, 2009: 305). In addition, this culturised model 'relates the formal and informal characteristics of the planning system to their national institutional contexts, legal and administrative traditions, patterns of market relations and ways of life, which are seen as ultimately determined by culture' (Taylor, 2013: 688).

Keller et al. (1996: 42) present three levels for defining planning culture, which according to Othengrafen and Reimer (2013: 1272) are similar to those of Friedmann (1967). These three levels are:

- 1. 'fundamental beliefs, values, and orientations;
- 2. organizations, judicial and administrative structures;

3. Tasks and objects of planning, respectively their perception' (Keller et al., 1996; Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1272).

In addition, Othengrafen and Reimer (2013: 1272) contend that, based on Keller et al. (1996) and other studies; there is an emphasis on 'attitudes towards property, the role of central and local governments and their relationships to each other, and the nature of the legal—administrative framework'. These approaches lead to 'neither a systematic approach nor a theoretical framework to discuss the role of culture in planning practice' (Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1272). Stead (2012: 24) also indicates that most studies recognise the influence of culture and further suggests that they are weak at presenting and understanding the operation and performance of planning systems and the nature and influence of planning cultures across Europe.

Culture influences the ways in which 'planning systems are devised and constructed, and also affects the way in which planning operates and performs' (Stead, 2012: 24). Embeddedness of planning in a specific cultural framework is composed of 'interactive processes among involved actors, their cultural cognitive frames, and the particular planning procedures and instruments' (Stead, 2012: 24). Commenting further on embeddedness, Getimis (2012: 26) maintains that spatial planning systems are deeply embedded in their socio-economic, political and cultural contexts. Sanyal (2005, cited in Taylor, 2013: 689) also characterises planning culture as 'a reflection of the 'larger social culture in which it is embedded', stating that planning culture is not an independent variable'.

Spatial planning and its orientation attempt to 'shape the future built environment, especially with regard to the future distribution of people, activities, and resources in cities and regions in response to the demands of society or specific interests' (Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1269). Spatial planning has changed in recent decades. For instance, spatial planning is no longer considered a 'state function' which only involves different levels of authorities (central, regional and local), but an activity in cross-scale governmental systems that involves a variety of stakeholders (Getimis, 2012: 25).

Stead (2012: 20) has identified a set of general trends which are considered to be influencing the dynamic natures of spatial planning across Europe, these trends are:

- Redefining of the role of the nation-state.

- Strengthening lower levels of self-government.
- Accepting increasing diversity, variation, and even asymmetry between how territories within the nation-state are governed.
- Increasing marketization of the public domain.
- The changing rationale for planning. Planning systems are being redefined in the light of new challenges.
- The internationalization of planning education and practice.
- The influence of the EU. Management and planning approaches in Member States are being increasingly shaped by European policies and initiatives.

The views presented in this section for planning cultures are relevant to the discussions in Chapters Four, Five, Six and Seven.

2.4.3. The issue of culture and urban design

Culture is central to developing knowledge for urban design. Environmental conservation and environmental psychology are the two predominant areas that urban designers have had a largely functional relationship to culture (Cuthbert, 2006: 102). The former refers to the preservation and conservation of the built environment and spaces, and the latter is mainly concerned with 'the relationship between people and space' (Cuthbert, 2006: 102). Culture has been excluded from 'the mainstream urban design literature' and when it is addressed, 'it is couched in the functionalist and behaviourist theories popular through the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s with a significant carryover into the present' (Cuthbert, 2006: 102).

It is noted that with regard to locating urban design within the planning culture phenomenon, Knieling and Othengrafen (2009: 57) identify urban design is within the planning artefacts level of the culturised planning model. The main reason for this selection is the fact that planning artefacts have been defined as visible planning products, structures and process as well as the fact that urban design is a visible result or product of development processes.

2.4.4. A brief introduction to comparative studies on spatial planning systems in Europe

Last but not least, it is necessary to consider comparative studies of planning systems. Van Dijk (2002: 911) has distinguished four levels of comparative cross national studies:

- 1. Collecting information about planning systems in other countries ('exhibiting');
- 2. Valuing each planning system with a relative value ('valuing');
- 3. Revealing the variables that determine the outline of the planning instrument ('explaining');
- 4. Advising countries that not yet have this type of planning ('advising').

Comparative studies on spatial planning systems in Europe have, to some extent, identified similarities and differences in typologies, traditions and ideal types of spatial planning (Getimis, 2012: 26). However, these comparative studies have focused more on

Different aspects of the institutional, legal and administrative contexts at one scale of analysis, mainly the national level, during a specific period. Thus, comparative analysis remains static and does not allow an understanding of the ongoing transformations of planning systems and the important role that actor constellations play in dynamic terms. Although recent comparative studies on planning cultures have focused on neglected cultural aspects of planning, they lack operational and systematic methods of comparative analysis and remain at an abstract level reducing the analysis to selected issues' (Getimis, 2012: 26).

In addition, Othengrafen and Reimer (2013: 1271) indicate that comparative studies on spatial planning have neglected 'the role of cultural traditions, values, habits and semantics', as they have instead emphasised the formal structure of planning. The issue of comparative planning studies is discussed in more detail in Chapter Three.

It is noted from this section that the concept of culture has significant implications for spatial planning. 'Planning cultures are highly fluid, flexible, and dynamic. As a consequence, we need to improve our understanding about the drivers of change and the aptitudes of a planning culture to adapt to changes on different levels (e.g.

societal environment, planning environment, and planning artefacts)' (Othengrafen and Reimer, 2013: 1281). The culturised planning model can be especially helpful in identifying the relationship between culture and planning and could increase knowledge with regard to planning practice (Knieling and Othengrafen, 2009: 58).

2.5. Highlights of the main findings of Chapter 2

The review of scholarly works in this chapter is highlighted in the following discussions:

Based on urban design definitions that were presented in this chapter, urban design can be defined as an art, concept or activity that shape the built environment and urban fabric by 'manipulating the relationships between the elements' (Marshall and Caliskan, 2011: 413) of a spatial space. Moreover, urban design as a profession is a multidisciplinary subject which should not be simply viewed as an extension of just one field. This chapter has argued that the principles of good urban design would put people at its heart. It discussed that good urban design is only one of the main components of creating attractive places for living. It expressed that good urban design would enhance the exchange value, use value, social value, environmental value, image value and cultural value. Understanding all these points about the nature and practice of urban design provides further context for the discussions of empirical chapters and main findings of this thesis. For instance, the issue of terminology of urban design is discussed in the following chapters.

Economic situations, as argued by this chapter, are important for urban design and the ways an urban environment regenerate its spaces and images; in addition, as will be noted in the case studies used in this thesis, the role of cities and regimes for initiating an economic development is also important. This chapter discussed that good quality urban environment and urban design is no longer a by-product but rather a prerequisite of economic developments. In order to improve and develop efficiencies of cities and urban environments; the interrelationships between economy, urban design and politics of local governments are important. Thus, as discussed in this chapter, the state and the market are the two main ingredients that

create a single political economy in which urban design and production of urban environment occurs in it. Therefore, urban design is both the process and product of space.

Production processes which shape the built or urban environment could be referred to as real estate development process; success of a development outcome depends on this process as well. This process is a social process in which the relationships of actors or the people involved are very important. This implies that there are many other factors which influence urban design and the outcome of a development process which are outside the spectrum of planning and planning systems.

In terms of influences of planning and governance on urban design, it was presented that urban design could be a first- or second-order activity. Governance and policy making of urban design are second-order activities; urban design as a second-order design activity shapes the design and development process by creating a frame for the first-order design activity. This chapter notes that designers' opportunity space is shaped by the market, regulatory frameworks and the context of the development site. (These points are considered in the discussion chapter of this thesis). This chapter also discussed that planning influences design through an activity called design governance, which to some extent could mean state intervention as well. Process is something that can be influenced and therefore is at the heart of design governance.

This chapter argued that considering differences between planning systems would enlarge the scope of understanding with regard to the influence of planning systems on urban design and planning and development processes. Moreover, it discussed that, to understand spatial planning systems, it is necessary to understand the concept of planning culture. Planning cultures could be defined as the styles, mind-sets, attitudes, traditions, or ethos of the actors involved in a planning phenomenon (e.g. urban design). The culturised planning model by Knieling and Othengrafen (2009; 2015) is probably one of the most well-known planning cultures models and is divided into three levels: planning artefacts, planning environment and societal environment. The issue of a planning culture also helps to understand the conscious and unconscious phenomena that exist within the culture and shape the ways in

which planning systems handle or influence urban design and determine the outcome of a built environment.

In terms of comparative research, which is the purpose of this thesis, this chapter concluded that the role of actors and their powers in a multi-scalar comparative analysis has been neglected; moreover, as discussed in this chapter, developing a stronger understanding of the operation of planning systems and the nature and influence of culture on planning cultures in Europe is important.

The findings of this chapter suggest that with regard to the generic concepts of urban design, there is a certain universality. This universality of concepts or principles, therefore may lead to similar outcomes for projects and developments. However, depending upon planning culture, planning systems and practices, as well as main development actors; the outcomes of projects with regard to urban design might also be different. It is worth noting that there are many things outside the planning environment that influence and shape urban design and outcome of a project. For example as described above in this chapter the economy context can have a significant influence.

2.6. Conceptual framework

Conceptual framework schemes enable an author to develop research propositions in terms of the relationships between concepts and can be applied to a broad range of circumstances (Blaikie, 2000: 144).

The first step towards shaping a framework is to create a model based on: the key components and theories that are recognised in a literature review as well as the main questions of the research (see Figure 2.7).

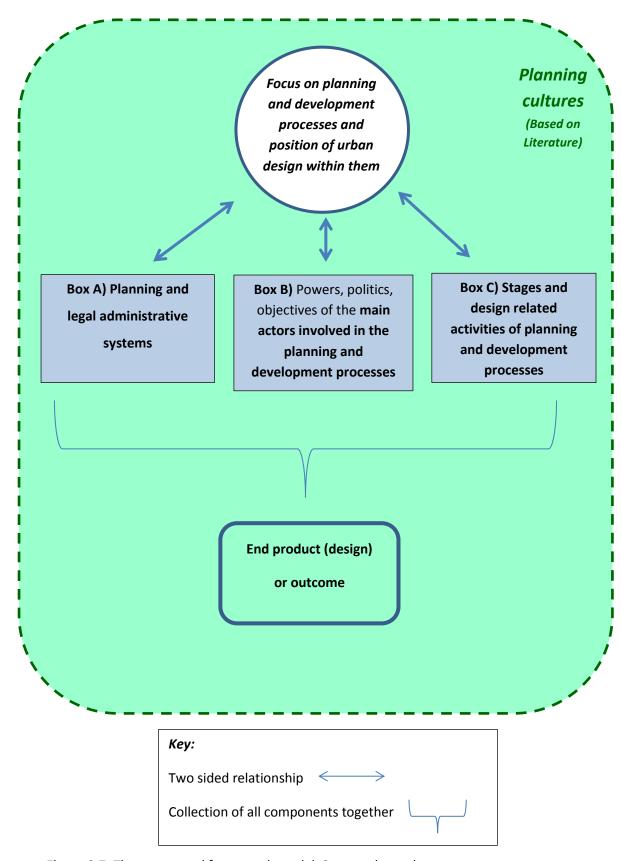


Figure 2.7. The conceptual framework model. Source: the author.

2.6.1. The model and its components

Component 1 - planning culture

Planning culture in this model is a broad and inclusive substance. The issue of a planning culture as explained in the culturised planning model (Figure 2.7) consists of three main components; planning artefacts, planning environments, and societal environments. Each component of the conceptual framework model can be categorised within the culturised planning model. According to the definitions presented in the culturised planning model, planning and legal systems can be considered as planning environments, the stages and design-related activities of planning processes can be seen as both the planning environment and the societal environment, the actors' involvements can be categorised within the planning environment, and the focus on planning and urban design as well as the end product can be put into planning artefacts.

The overarching question for this part of the conceptual framework model is:

What is the role of planning culture in practice?

Focus of the model

In order to develop a better understanding of the relationship of urban design and planning systems and planning practices, there is first a need to define the boundaries of each field. These issues have been covered in the literature review. To understand how planning systems shape and control urban design, there is a need to focus on the planning and development processes and the position of urban design within them.

This focus can be justified by explaining three facts: firstly it is important to focus on planning and development processes and the position of urban design within them because urban design is the product and result of these processes. Secondly as mentioned on page 41 process is something that is influenced, and is at the heart, of design governance. Thirdly this focus will help to understand how planning systems and practices shape and control urban design. Moreover planning and development processes are one of the main domains that urban design would take place therefore there is a need to focus on these processes.

The overarching question which this part of the conceptual framework model addresses is:

Where is the position of urban design within the planning systems and planning processes?

These questions are supported by the following questions:

- What is the relationship between urban design and planning practice?
- What constitutes good urban design? What main principles or core competencies required in the planning processes for having good urban design?
- How do planning systems control and manage urban design?
- How are the principles of urban design managed and handled in planning processes?
- Which actor[s] are involved in the planning processes?
- What types of design related activities are involved in different stages of the planning process?

Component 2 - Boxes A, B, C

This component is based on three main boxes that have been presented in the model. Each of these boxes is formed in order to understand the focus of the model better.

Box A) Planning and legal administrative system. According to the findings contained within the literature review, there are various legal systems whereby the ways these systems characterised and control or manage urban design are different. Section 2.4.1 indicates, for example, that discretionary systems are more flexible than regulatory systems. There are two main components within planning systems that are important for the conceptual framework. One is the type of measurements, methods and tools that are used to control an urban development, and consequently the urban design within that development. The second component is the political context: the attitudes, powers and perhaps cultural context of the planning systems that have directly or indirectly influenced an urban development, as well as urban design for that development. Therefore, the overarching question which the planning systems address is:

How do planning systems enforce, control and manage urban design?

This question, which is one of the supporting questions of the focus of the conceptual framework model, is supported by the following questions:

- Is urban design an integral part of planning?
- What is the role of urban design in the system? Is the quality of urban design determined in planning systems?
- What sort of attitudes do planning systems have towards urban design?
- What types of instruments are used to control urban design?
- How political is the planning system? How do political decisions ensure the outcomes of urban developments?

Box B) Main actors involved in the planning and development processes and their values, objectives, power and politics. As discussed previously, understanding actors and their roles helps to develop a better understanding of planning processes and the influence of actors' roles on planning cultures. Moreover, comparative planning studies, especially at the European level, tend to emphasise

Different aspects of the institutional, legal and administrative contexts at one scale of analysis, mainly the national level, during a specific period. Thus, comparative analysis remains static and does not allow an understanding of the ongoing transformations of planning systems and the important role that actor constellations play in dynamic terms (Getimis, 2012: 26).

Therefore, it is important for this conceptual framework model to understand the actors and their contributions, mind-sets, objectives, attitudes and values in urban design and planning. These actors have been identified before in the role-based model of real estate development processes developed by Adams and Tiesdell (2013) (see Figure 2.3). The conceptual framework of this research has identified some of the key actors in a development process in relation to urban design and planning.

The overarching question which key actors address is:

Which actor[s] are involved in the planning process?

This question, which was one of the supportive questions of the focus of the conceptual framework model, is supported by the following questions:

- How did different actors influence the planning and design process?
- What were their ambitions? What were their roles?
- Which actor or actors were focusing on and pushing urban design principles into the projects as a positive factor? Which actors were more powerful in this regard?

Box C) Stages and design related activities of planning processes. The shaping of this box is partly formed by the thesis question. To understand the focus of the conceptual framework, it is important to bring this box into the model. The overarching question which this box addresses is:

What types of design-related activities are involved in different stages of the planning processes?

This question is one of the supporting questions of the focus of the conceptual framework model.

Three main components of the conceptual framework model represented in *Boxes A*, *B*, and *C*, as well as other parts and components of the model, apply to, press and shape planning and urban design processes and consequently affect the position of urban design within the planning process. Further, they might have some influence on the outcome of urban design and urban form. This is why the final component of this model, which is not the only focus of this model, is put at the very end of the model. This thesis only partly focuses on the influence and collection of all of these components on the outcome of urban design and urban form.

This chapter of the thesis has provided a review of existent literature, as well as an overview of the conceptual framework used within this thesis. The next chapter explains the methodological frameworks of this research.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This chapter provides an overview of the methods and methodologies used within this thesis. Accordingly, this chapter works as a tool for discovering and exploring the subject of this research through the lens and perspectives of the conceptual framework. This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part introduces some of the general strategies and methodologies used in the research. It also provides a justification for the selection and adoption of the case study as a method. In addition, it considers the issues around comparative planning studies. The second part focuses more on the case selection. The third and final part focuses on the ways in which the case studies have been conducted, the methods that have been used, and how the required data has been collected and analysed.

3.1. General strategy of this research

This thesis has selected the case study as a method and an approach to the accumulation of data. One rationale for selecting the case study approach as a method is related to the main question of this research. According to Blaikie (2000: 60), research questions are divided into three types: 'What' questions which require descriptive answers and describe or discover the characteristic of a social event or a phenomenon, 'Why' questions which are directed towards explanation and understanding of the relationships between events, 'How' questions which 'are concerned with bringing about change, with practical outcomes and intervention'. This study is concerned with how, why and what questions with regard to planning systems and the ways in which they control urban design. It attempts to explore and investigate: What is the relationship between planning and urban design? Why are planning systems different? How do different types of planning system control design? How are the principles of urban design managed in the planning process? What is good urban design? Finally, it asks, How could a planning system be effective in producing a good urban design?

Yin (2009: 9) indicates that, for 'what' questions, any type of research method can be used because such questions require an exploratory study. In contrast, for 'how' and 'why' questions, case studies; histories and experiments are more suitable as research methods because these types of questions are explanatory. All of these factors justify

the decision to use a case study approach as a method for this research. For Yin the case study inquiry

- a) Copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result,
- b) Relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to coverage in a triangulating fashion, and as another result,
- c) Benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.

3.1.1. Some methodological remarks on comparative planning studies

This research compares the case studies in terms of their planning systems and how they control urban design. It follows that it is necessary to explain some of the most important factors with regard to comparative planning studies.

It has been noted that 'a comparative perspective exposes weaknesses in research design and helps a researcher improve the quality of research' (Neuman, 2007: 317). In addition, comparative research raises new questions and stimulates theory building (Neuman, 2007: 317). However, and in keeping with any other method, a comparative method has its limitations. For instance, 'comparative analysis, whether nationally, cross nationally or over time, often requires considerable resources (time, money), which are likely to present problems to those without access to large funding organizations' (Dale et al., 1988: 49).

In comparative planning studies, the legal and administrative structure of a planning system is not a good source (on its own) for studying planning practice because it does not give a complete definition of planning activities. According to Reimer et al. (2014: 4) 'at most, it specifies corridors of action within which planning practice can move on'. In addition to this, it was perceived previously that comparison at the national level is suitable for studying planning systems and practices (Reimer et al., 2014: 3). However, this fails to recognise that some of the systems are different at the national level and also fails to recognise that the ways and scales in which these systems operate and organise are very different (Reimer et al., 2014: 3). For example, in Germany, planning practice, planning responsibilities and planning tasks are different at national, regional and municipal levels. Conducting a comparative study at the national level alone would not be sufficient for making valid comparisons

(Reimer et al., 2014: 3). Recognition of all of these points calls for 'a multi-scalar and rational perspective, one that sheds light on the complex interaction of structural framework conditions and localised practices in spatial planning' (Reimer et al., 2014: 3). Thus studying actors becomes necessary within this context, because these actors have either predominant positions in terms of powers and access to resources or have specific knowledge that has entered the planning field and planning processes. Therefore, as Getimis (2012: 34 cited in Reimer et al. 2014: 3) argues, 'the specific interaction of actors and interests in turn characterises specific policy styles, understood as policy making and implementation style, reflecting deep rooted values'. These factors about comparative studies at national levels and the need to have a multi-scalar perspective as well as studying actors and their interactions are important to take into account given the research aims of this thesis.

Within existent literature there has been a degree of neglect of cultural contexts and what they mean for planning actions within comparative research on planning systems. Planning culture has sometimes been seen as equivalent to 'the values, attitudes, mind sets and routines shared by those taking part in planning' (Fürst, 2009 cited in Reimer et al., 2014: 4). Understanding cultural aspects in decision making processes and in the institutions of the state and the legal system helps the attainment of a better understanding of planning discourse, as well as the ways planning is being 'put into effect' (Booth, 2011: 16).

There are four strategies for comparative study, according to Booth (2011: 16, citing Tilly, 1984):

- 'Individualising comparisons: in which the point is to contrast specific instances of a given phenomenon as a means of grasping the peculiarities of each case',
- 'Universalising comparisons: which aim to establish that every instance of a phenomenon follows essentially the same rule',
- 'Encompassing comparisons: which aims to put different instances at various locations within the same system, on the way to explaining their characteristics as a function of their varying relations to the system as a whole',

- 'Variation finding comparisons: in which the aim is to establish a principle of variation in the character and intensify of a phenomenon by examining systematic differences among instances'.

Although this classification has been represented for historical sociology (Booth, 2011: 19), it can be seen as a general classification which could be appropriate for using in the present research. The comparison steps inherent within this research are: individualising comparisons, encompassing comparisons and variation finding comparisons which would fit in to the intended methods and approaches of this thesis. This research considers urban design and planning processes within England and Germany and compares them in order to find the both principles of variation between the case studies as well as their differences which could be put in to the category of variation finding comparisons. Moreover, this research looks at specific projects within their individual city contexts and tries to understand the ways in which urban design is managed and controlled in each case as well as by their respective national planning systems. If one considers urban design of the selected projects as one of the instances, then this would fit to the definition given for the encompassing comparisons. It could be viewed that because this research contrasts specific instances of urban design and planning systems for grasping the peculiarities of embedded case studies therefore it is conducting an individualising comparison as well. Box 3.1 introduces the themes and components of comparison for this thesis.

Box 3.1. Themes and components for comparative perspectives of this research

Source: The author.

Comparing differences and similarities of cases at the national and project level by looking at:

- Extent and type of planning at different levels (both in administrative terms and with regard to planning cultures),
- Urban design policies and instruments and how urban design is handled and managed,
- Urban design position within the planning process and the implications of finding this position,
- Some of the actors and their involvement, their powers in regard to urban design principles within the planning process
- The character, nature and culture of planning systems that would make the end result for urban design similar or different.

The sequence of the components of this research reflects the theory of the foreign culture model developed by Masser (1984: 144). Figure 3.1 shows Masser's foreign culture model of cross national research. In this model he suggested that knowledge of the home country could lead the researcher to constantly come back to the knowledge, while he or she is doing fieldwork in the foreign country (Masser, 1984: 144). For this thesis the English stage and England's context have been used to represent the concept of the home country for the researcher.

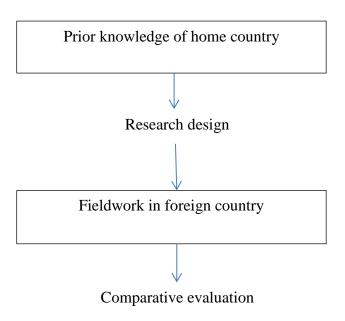


Figure 3.1. The foreign culture model of cross national research. Source: Masser (1984: 144).

As Sykes and Booth (2015: 99) argue, the complexity within the nature of comparative research requires a good knowledge and appreciation of context and culture. Another challenge for having a better understanding in comparative cross national studies, which naturally have different cultural contexts, is the issue of language. According to Booth (2011: 25) 'one of the under acknowledged pitfalls of research undertaken in other cultures is the risk of misinterpreting the events and processes that are being witnessed because of the way in which they are described and the descriptions translated'. To avoid these problems this research has used

interviews and documentation as ways of developing a better understanding of case studies in Germany. These methods are explained in more detail in Section 3.3. However, there is a need to explain that all the interviews were conducted in English and most of the documents in Germany were read in English in a translated version. Moreover, for documents and institutions in Germany, this thesis has mostly used both the original German names and the English translation of those names. Issues about language are discussed in Section 3.3.4.

With regard to the cultural context in a comparative research Hantrais (1999: 103) suggests that 'the researcher's own cultural and linguistic knowledge, disciplinary affiliations and financial and logistic resources also serve as important determinants of the choice of topic, the country mix, the contextual variables and the approach adopted'. This idea is important for the present research because some of the factors within Hantrais's ideas (1999: 103) justified some of the initial selections, approaches and questions that have been adopted within this research.

Another issue for cross national comparisons is the degree of symmetry within the research structure. Symmetry is expected usually when there is a collaborative study, however this neither means that this issue cannot be applied in a non-collaborative study nor that it is necessarily appropriate for them (Williams, 1984: 158). This is because there is an assumption that during the conducting of the research the knowledge gained in the home country may be greater; with the result that 'asymmetrical presentation of the findings may be appropriate' (Williams, 1984: 158). This thesis has therefore applied symmetry to some of the issues and topics in each case. For instance, the issue of symmetry in this research can be seen in issues and topics such as the planning systems, planning culture, planning and urban design processes, and urban design instruments. In contrast, symmetry cannot be seen in the structure of Chapters 5.1 and 4.1 because the planning culture and planning system in each country make it necessary to discuss some different issues. With regard to the symmetry of depth and detail in the English and German stages, and in reference to Figure 3.1, it should be noted that the English stage was playing the role of the home country, which made it easier to get access to the information and contact with interviewees. In the German stage the issue of knowledge and language contributed to the development of the German stage. At this point, the researcher was able to draw in expertise within the supervisory team, to address those challenges related to knowledge and language at the German stage. The researcher got assistance by having supervisory input from a German national supervisor.

With regard to language, issues of terminology are very important for this research. For instance, 'the literal translations of the names of planning institutions and instruments from one language to another can lead to ambiguity and misunderstanding' (European Commission, 1997: 25). Moreover, the meanings of different terms can be dependent and defined according to a particular country's law which can result in different meanings for the same term or same words (European Commission, 1997: 25). These terms and words are also different between the member states and sometimes between regions (European Commission, 1997: 25).

As an example of a language issue, in conducting interviews at the Germany stage, when asked about the term of urban design, the interviewees answered the question by asking the researcher a question about the interpretation of the term. They often were confused, which would imply that the terminology they use in Germany for the term urban design in England is different. In addition, this points to how differences in terminology reflect how the work of planning is categorised in Germany. This issue of terminology is discussed more in Chapters 5 and 6. This issue of language is reflected in the foreign culture model which indicates that by understanding the language and terminology issue with regard to urban design term while conducting the interviews in Germany, the comparative evaluation of the research was shaped.

3.2. The cases studied in this research

This study explores the ways in which the planning systems in England and Germany control urban design. The units of analysis in this study are the two national case studies of England and Germany with embedded case study projects in each country.

Every type of empirical research has a research design in either explicit or implicit form. The design is 'the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusion' (Yin, 2003: 21). For case studies, five components of a research design are important: 1. a study's question, 2. its propositions, if any; 3. its units of analysis, 4. the logic linking the data to the propositions and 5. the criteria for interpreting the findings (Yin, 2003: 21).

Another important issue is the criteria for the selection of cases to be included in a study and this is addressed in 3.2.1.

3.2.1. Rationales behind the selection of national cases

The first criterion for selecting the national cases was based on common issues with regard to planning. Both countries are pioneers of town planning as their planning systems have been used and transferred into different parts of the world (Sutcliffe, 1981). This became more evident in the case of Germany as it is often regarded as 'the motherland of comprehensive spatial planning' (Reimer et al., 2014: 83). Moreover, both national cases are developed countries within the European context which give better scope for comparison. In addition, they both have similar degrees of urbanisation as they are both densely populated countries with compact cities.

The second criterion and rationale for selection was based on the nature, typology and style of planning systems, which are different from each other. These differences in the planning systems result in different patterns of behaviours (for actors involved in planning processes) as well as different reactions, reflections and cultures when facing the same issues and problems. The English system is a discretionary, plan-led system with some degree of flexibility whereas the planning system in Germany is a multi-level federal system. England's planning system belongs to the British administrative family which is distinct from other systems in Europe and has its own unique characteristics. This system is based on the tradition of English common law and 'has gradually built up decisions by decisions' (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 30). In contrast, the German planning system belongs to the Germanic legal family. One of the main characteristics of the Germanic family is that the written constitution or 'Basic Law' is very important. This has led to a clear understanding of power for each level of government, and 'requires a constitutional amendment to alter the balance of responsibilities' (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 33-34). Having the objectives of this research in mind, it can be said that the above explanations are one of the justifications for the selection made. The different styles, natures and characteristics of these systems when facing urban design issues and urban design control provided a basis for comparison in this research.

3.2.2. Rationales behind selection of embedded cases

Before discussing any justification for the selection of the embedded cases, two questions need to be considered: first; Why have two level case studies (embedded case studies) been chosen? The reason for this choice was mainly because of the aims and objectives of the research. Embedded case studies or sub units of analysis help to enhance the insights into a single case (in this case the English and German planning systems) (Yin, 2003: 52). Therefore, these specific projects were chosen in order to: first return to the larger unit of analysis, and secondly, understand the main research question better (How planning systems control urban design?).

The second question is: Does this selection of single embedded case projects affect the final generalization and the ways in which these cases contribute to the scientific development? One common misunderstanding about case study research is that 'one cannot generalize on the basis of an individual case: therefore, the case study cannot contribute to scientific development' (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 3). Flyvbjerg reformulates this misunderstanding and suggests that in the social sciences the choice of case is important as it may greatly add to the generalizability of a case study (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 3, 9). According to Flyvbjerg (2006: 12):

One can often generalize on the basis of a single case, and the case study maybe central to scientific development via generalization as supplement or alternative to other method. But formal generalisation is overvalued as a source of scientific development.

In addition to this, Hague et al. (1998: 276) argue that a single case can offer a detailed illustration of a theme of wider interest. One other misunderstanding as Flyvbjerg explains is that 'it is often difficult to summarize and develop general propositions and theories on the basis of specific case studies' (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 4). The problem in summarizing case studies is not related to the case study as a research method but originates from the properties of the reality studied. Therefore 'good studies should be read as narratives in their entirety' (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 25). According to him 'narrative inquiries start with an interest in a phenomenon that is best understood narratively. Narrative inquiries then develop descriptions and interpretations of the phenomenon from the perspective of participants, researchers and others' (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 25).

The embedded case projects within the English context are two-fold: the Liverpool town centre case study (Liverpool One) and the London Shepherd's Bush town centre case study (Westfield London). In addition, the embedded case projects within the German context are: the Dortmund town centre case study (Thier Galerie) and the Berlin Potsdamar Platz and Leipziger Platz case study (Mall of Berlin).

One of the rationales for selecting the cities for this study was the notion of political and economic bargains. It should be mentioned that these cities only provide a general context for the embedded case studies and are there in order to help to develop a better understanding of the chosen embedded cases.

According to regime theorists, local political choices matter if someone wants to understand an urban development. However, the question of how specific political and economic contexts might matter in shaping the regimes themselves, has been discussed less by regime theorists as they offer fewer propositions on this subject (Savitch et al., 2007: 176). Authors such as Savitch et al. (2007: 176-177) have conceptualized regimes as bargaining agents within different types of liberal democratic political economies. According to them,

Regimes are treated as governmental agents that function to bargain out the terms of cooperation between the public and private sectors in a liberal democratic political economy. This means that government must bargain over conditions for inducing capital investment from private sector markets to achieve economic goals that are shared by dominant political interests.

It should be noted that the ability of a city (to attract investments) within a regime is dependent upon its market position as well as the assistance that it receives from government. Cities are varied in respect to their governance and inter governing bodies and environments, and with reference to how the local capital investment process is regulated. Simply, some cities provide greater assistance than other ones. These authors suggest that some regimes – especially those with stronger economies and clearer national support, can be more assertive in their bargaining with outside investors and more directed about their development while 'cities with weaker economies and less generous national governments are more dependent on private investors and poorly positioned to bargain to their own advantage' (Savitch et al., 2007: 176 -177).

Selecting London and Berlin, which are the official and formal capital cities of, respectively the UK and Germany, was based on the notion of economic bargain and the fact that their governmental and economical systems are in favour of bargaining. This research assumes that because of the political power and economic situations of capital cities which are supporting the bargaining notion for inducing capital investments, the chances of developments in these cities increase more than other cities. This gave one justification for selecting an embedded case study within these two cities (without overlooking their contrasting economic positions).

Moreover, some individual characteristics of these cities justified the choice of the two cities. For instance, in Berlin the transformation in the city in terms of urban fabric and urban development especially after the fall of the Berlin Wall and the unification of the eastern and western parts of the city provided a rationale for considering the city as not only suitable but also an 'intrinsically interesting case' (Denscombe, 2008: 41). In addition, the structure and levels of governmental instructions for London and its differences with other English cities with regard to governing and planning tiers, as well as how each London Borough is managed and governed, was another factor for selecting London.

Selecting Liverpool and Dortmund firstly was justified by explaining their history as both cities have faced industrial decline (Liverpool's port and shipping industry and Dortmund's steel and coal industry) and were left with a large number of unattended sites and lands. Dortmund was not the only city in Germany which faced decline in steel and coal industry and, accordingly, this point was not sufficient to convince the researcher to not choose Dortmund because the transformation in the city and the policy responses to its urban problems motivated and gave a justification for selecting the city. The same issue was considered with regard to Liverpool. The city policy responses to its problems as well as the structure of city council – especially the planning policy department – gave the researcher more reasons to choose Liverpool. Apart from these reasons, the initial notion behind the selection of Dortmund and Liverpool was based again on the economic bargaining of regimes within these cities. For instance, Liverpool has been identified by Savitch et al. (2007: 177) as a dependent, private city which has a long tradition of radical politics and regimes, was more dependent on private investors, and was poorly positioned in favour of bargaining.

The logic behind selection of the embedded cases was based on:

- Design quality: choosing publicly or other types of acclaimed or rewarded projects in terms of urban design quality. This was important because it would make the evaluation process easier and would allow the researcher to focus more on the process of the development rather than making detailed analysis of urban design principles and proving them.
- Private development/Investment: were chosen mainly because of the increased tendency of governments and systems for involving private sector in planning developments. This made them ideal places for the researcher to observe the planning processes and understand how the regulatory instruments of the systems are applied. Furthermore, it would allow the positioning of urban design within the planning processes and the planning systems. In addition, this selection of private development reflects the concept of bargaining regimes and would thus provide a better understanding of urban design issues within the planning culture, as well as its systems and processes.
- Retail-led regeneration projects of town centre (urban quarters): this research selected retail-led regeneration projects within town centres because it considered that these kinds of projects would provide more dimensions for evaluating urban design issues within planning processes. This also helps to understand the implication of these projects on broader areas in which they are located. In this way, the researcher could gain wider perspectives on how different components of urban design and planning system come together and make the wider context more workable. It is necessary to stress here that the focus of this thesis is not on retail planning; rather, retail-led regeneration projects in town centres were selected as they provided examples of large-scale urban projects incorporating significant urban design issues and choices which allowed the researcher to explore the questions with which this study is concerned.
- *Relatively recent:* this research selected relatively recent projects mainly because it assumed that the required data would be more readily available and that it would be easier to contact relevant actors for conducting interviews.

Moreover, it chose recent projects because it assumed that the materials, documents and data would be more up to date.

3.2.3. Compositional structure of Case study chapters

In this study the succeeding chapters present the narrative of multiple cases with chapters four and five begin by presenting the national case studies of England and Germany in sub-chapters 4.1 and 5.1. While sub-chapters 4.2, 4.3, 5.2 and 5.3 discuss the embedded case study projects in England and Germany. Chapter Six compares and interprets the findings of the empirical chapters and represents a brief synthesis to connect these findings with the literature review in Chapter Two.

The conceptual framework model of this thesis (see figure 2.7 on page 55) has shaped and influenced the composition of the individual embedded cases. For the national cases which have provided a national context for the embedded case studies, the compositional structure is based on discussing the planning system and planning culture which reflects the planning culture element in the conceptual frame work model as well as Box A of this model which is about planning and legal administrative systems (see figure 2.7). Moreover because of the focus of this model, which is about planning and development processes, as well as Box C the stages within the planning processes; sub-chapter 4.1 and sub-chapter 5.1 discuss the planning and urban design instruments and different stages of planning processes.

For the embedded case studies sub-chapter (i.e. sub-chapters 4.2, 4.3, 5.2, 5.3) the first part intends to give some information with regard to the urban history and transformation of the selected cities in which these cases are located. These sub-chapters then present a section with regard to the planning and urban design attitudes, policy context and instruments which are a reflection of planning culture as well as Box A of the conceptual framework model (see page 55). The next section of these case studies sub-chapters present the planning, urban design and development processes of these case studies by considering the masterplan objectives, position of urban design within these processes as well as evaluation of these projects. This section in each of the embedded case studies addresses Box A, Box C, the focus of the model, and the end product element of the model by reviewing their masterplan objectives, the urban design position in the planning process and evaluation of the projects. Moreover this section in each embedded case study also considers Box B of

the model which relates to the roles and powers of the main actors in the planning process of these projects. Figure 3.2 shows the compositional structure of the case study chapters; moreover it also outlines the methods that have been used for addressing different theoretical issues, contexts and questions at different stages of this research.

3.3. Data Collection

There are six commonly used sources of evidence in case studies (Yin, 2009: 101). No single source has a complete advantage over all the other sources (Yin, 2009: 101). A good case study will want to use as many sources as possible (Yin, 2009: 101). This research uses two of these sources as methods for collecting data (interviews and documents). In addition, this research uses photographs and some site visits observations in the form of illustrations, maps, diagrams and photographs. In order to develop a better understanding and develop better support for findings and results, this research uses triangulation to reduce the effect of the particular biases of each method. Through adopting such an approach, 'observers can achieve the best of each, while overcoming their unique deficiencies' (Denzin, 1970, cited in Blaikie, 2000: 263). Table 3.1 shows the weaknesses and strengths of the methods used in this thesis.

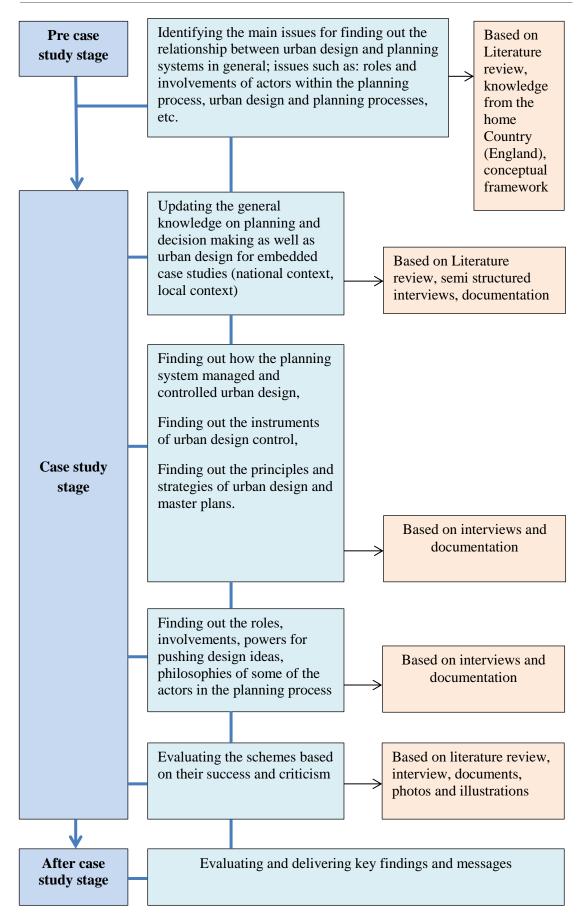


Figure 3.2. Methodological and procedural steps for embedded case studies. Source: the author.

Table 3.1. Strengths and weaknesses of documentation and interviews as data collection methods. Source: adapted from Yin, 2009: 102.

Source of evidence	Strengths	Weaknesses
Documentation	Stable (can be reviewed repeatedly), unobtrusive (not created as a result of case study), exact (contains exact names, references, and details of an event), broad coverage (long span of time, many events, and many settings).	Retrievability (can be low), biased selectivity (if collection is incomplete), reporting bias (reflects unknown bias of author); access (may be deliberately blocked).
Interviews	Targeted(focuses directly on case study topic, insightful (provide perceived causal inferences)	Bias due to poorly constructed questions, response bias, inaccuracies due to poor recall, reflexivity (interviewee gives what interviewer wants to hear)

3.3.1. Interviews

Interviews are an important source of evidence for case studies because 'most case studies are about human affairs or behavioural events. Well informed interviewees can provide shortcuts to prior history of such situations helping the researcher to identify other relevant sources of evidence' (Yin, 2009: 108). In this research, the interviews were conducted to help the researcher to find out more detailed evidence for each of the specific cases. It could be said that the main reasons for selecting this method of data collection were as follows:

- Gaining more insightful perspectives on the ways these planning systems have worked for urban design of the embedded and specific cases.
- By interviewing different actors and experts, this research was able to develop better understandings of the roles and the level of involvement of these actors in planning and design activities. Moreover, conducting the interviews provided an opportunity for the researcher to gain access to a different range of experiences from different actors.

In order to answer the main questions of this research, the interviews were mainly conducted with actors or experts involved in planning and the plan making processes of these cases, such as planners in the relevant governmental authorities, developers/landowners/investors, urban designers, architects, planning/urban design consultants, and real estate managers. In order to gain an overall perspective on these projects as well as the individual planning system's performance, the researcher tried to interview the experts who were not involved in the planning and urban design processes but had some publications or opinions about these specific cases; such as relevant academics. Most of the interviews were conducted in the form of face-to-face or telephone interviews. The questions and themes of interviews were designed as open ended and semi-structured interview questions, which helped the researcher to adjust the order of questions, adapt to the atmosphere of the interviews and act accordingly, and helped to clarify any issues which were vague for the interviewees. In addition, conducting these interviews in a semi-structured manner allowed for more in-depth discussion and provided an opportunity to answer specific types of questions. It should be mentioned that in some cases the interviews were undertaken in the form of email interviews.

The interviews for the English cases were undertaken mostly between May 2015 and August 2015, whilst the interviews for Germany were undertaken mostly between April 2016 and August 2016. The interviewees were selected using the snowball technique, which means all of the interviewees were within 'an interconnected web of linkage' with direct and indirect links (Neuman, 2007: 144). The interview questions and their orders were changed each time according to the nature of the interviewee's job, the time limit, or according to the principles of the research.

The interview questions were designed considering three main themes: 1. the planning context, 2. the urban design context, and 3. the relationship between urban design and planning systems. The interview questions were divided into four main parts. First, before starting to ask questions, more information about the purpose of the research, its importance and other issues such as confidentiality, were given to the interviewees. Secondly, and considering the role of each interviewee, the questions were designed on a specific case study basis so as to enable greater understanding and trust to be established between the researcher and interviewees. Thirdly, the questions were designed according to the conceptual framework and the main issues that were identified in the conceptual framework. Lastly, the final part of the interview questions made sure to ask for concluding points relating to general

contexts. Moreover, in order to reflect back to the general framework, there were questions that sought each interviewee's advice and their reflections on the thesis topics.

There were 28 interviews conducted in total (1 comparative interview, 18 in England and 9 in Germany). All the face-to-face and telephone interviews were recorded using an electronic voice recorder while taking notes at the same time. Table 3.2 shows the numbers and classifications of interviews.

Table 3.2. Classification of actors and number of interviews. Source: The author.

Cases	Governmental	Developer/ landowner/ investor	Urban designer and Architect	Planning/ design consultant	others	Total number of interviews for each case
Liverpool One	1	1	3	1	4	10
Westfield London	2	1	2	2	1	8
Thier Galerie Dortmund	2	1	0	0	2	5
Mall of Berlin	1	1	2	0	0	4
Total number of interview s in each class	6	4	7	3	7	27 +1*

^{*}One of the interviewees gave comparative answers, however in total there were 28 interviews.

3.3.2. Documentation

According to Yin (2009: 101) 'documentary information should be the object of explicit data collection plans as they can take many forms'. For this research, documentation was a stable and exact source of evidence which countered the biases of other methods and provided specific information about some of the cases. The documents that were considered for this research included:

- Governmental planning documents that related to urban design and plan making (at the national, city/regional and local level).

- Previous academic literature
- Some newspaper reports
- Other reports that addressed economic issues along with general urban design with the wider planning context.

The government documents were collected by visiting government websites or brought to the attention of the researcher by the interviewees. In England this type of documents included: the National Planning Policy Framework, and the National Planning Practice Guidance (NPPG) review. For English embedded cases, this research looked at: local urban design guidance documents, local master plans, local supplementary development plans and local unitary development plans, the White City Opportunity Area Planning Framework. In Germany, government documents included: the Federal Building Code, relevant regional plans, some of the relevant local (Flächennutzungsplan), development land use plans site plans (Bebauungsplan), the Dortmund 2030 Concept, and the Berlin 2030 Concept. Box 3.2 outlines the themes that were considered in the review of documentation.

Box 3.2. Themes of consideration for Documentation

Source: the author.

- Instruments of urban design control and urban design management
- Attitudes towards urban design and urban design guidance
- Evaluation of physical design
- Actors and stakeholders' responsibilities, involvements and activities
- History of decision making and decision making process
- Urban history of place at project level as well as city level
- Urban design and planning processes
- Institutional structures
- Position of urban design within the planning processes and planning systems at different levels
- Objectives of master plans and design documents
- Future strategies for urban design and developments

Other non-governmental documents were collected by three methods: a) websites, b) going to the local libraries and studying them, c) some of the documents were introduced to the researcher by the interviewees.

3.3.3. Photographs and Site visits (which only apply to embedded case studies)

This thesis selected photography and site visits in order to bring more visual forms to the research as well as to give an opportunity for more reflections on the surrounding urban fabric and urban design of the cases. These perspectives were used for making judgments on the physical design and evaluation of these projects. Most of the photographs represented in this research were taken during visits to these cases. Box 3.3 shows an evaluative framework for photographs and some of the visualisations and observations used in this thesis.

Box 3.3. Evaluative framework for photographs

Source: the author.

Most of the points below are based on pedestrian perspective and point of view:

- Mixture of uses and variations of retail offers
- Permeability, accessibility and ease of movement, walkability
- Legibility
- Fitting in the wider context
- Attractiveness and visually pleasing, quality of public realm and public spaces
- Traffic around the scheme and car park
- Connection to history and heritage, and use of symbols
- Safety, sense of place and sense of belonging, attracting a range of people
- Some pictures based on some of the objectives of master plans and design documents, some of the technical issues

3.3.4. Challenges and limitations

The main challenges for this research are divided into two categories: the challenges for scheduling the interviews and the challenges for conducting the interviews. This

part of Chapter Three introduces those challenges and explains how the researcher resolved these challenges and problems.

In scheduling the interviews, the first challenge was identifying the interviewees, especially in the case studies of London, Dortmund and Berlin. In order to resolve this issue, the researcher first identified and made a list of the actors who were involved in these projects and then identified the sector or firms that were involved in the planning and design of the specific projects. After that contact was made with the general enquiry office or the main office of those sectors/firms. Some of these general offices referred the researcher to the responsible person for the chosen case study. The second challenge was the issue of time because it was difficult to arrange an appointment with interviewees, especially after the time that they received an introduction email and were asked to give and spend their time for the interviews. In some cases, the interviews got cancelled because the interviewees were too busy. This problem was partly overcome by contacting other people who were involved in these projects or had some knowledge of the projects. In some other cases the interview requests were rejected because the responsible persons were retired or not working for the firm anymore. To deal with this issue, in some cases the researcher got help from the junior colleagues of the people who had initially been selected for interview. To overcome most of the challenges at this stage the snowball method was used more than any other method or technique.

Other relevant challenges occurred mostly *during the interviews*. For instance the first challenge was the issue of designing questions and the issue of the general manner of questions. For this challenge, the design of a themed basis for the questions was used and thus the questions were asked in a theme by theme order. The questions were checked many times with both the supervisory team and the interviewees in order to fill the missing pieces from the questions. Most of the interviews were in the form of semi structured and there were based on discussions.

The main limitation for the researcher was the issue of language. To be more specific the researcher does not speak German which made it difficult to get better access to some of the required documents; also it was difficult to contact and get connected to people for interviewing. In addition, naturally the level of understanding as well as interpretations for the German cases were less deep than the English cases, mainly

because of the language issues which were explained previously in section 3.1.1. This issue as discussed before was resolved by getting assistance from the supervisory team. Figure 3.2 illustrates the steps for the methodology and procedures of embedded case studies of this thesis.

3.4. Data analysis

The collected data from the interviews and documentation were qualitative in form. The general approach of this research for data analysis was interpretivist. For analysing data, the researcher mainly used coding (following a theme-by-theme approach). However, the use of coding methods is in contrast with the interpretivist approach advanced by Miles and Huberman (1994: 8), who mention that the phenomenologists of this approach normally work with interview transcriptions but do not use coding. Despite this, the researcher insisted that aspects of this approach were more appropriate for the data being analysed in this research. This point can be proved by the explanation given by Miles and Huberman (1994: 8), who suggest that this approach would lead to 'a practical understanding of meaning and actions'. They also mention that:

Interpretivists argue that the researchers have their own understandings, their own convictions, and their own conceptual orientations... They will be undeniably affected by what they hear and observe in the field, often in unnoticed ways (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 8).

This research has used coding as a method for analysing data, and as Blaikie (2000: 239) explains, in coding techniques everything is placed under a concept or category. He indicates that the coding process involves open coding, which means breaking down the data into categories and subcategories, and axial coding, which is used to find the relationships between these subcategories. This research has broken down the data into themes and categories and then reflected back on its conceptual framework and its main aims and objectives. In this way, the research has followed a manual and self-coding paradigm to return the data in new ways. The main reason for this choice was because the researcher wanted to use less time-consuming methods as the amount of data was not big and therefore it was assumed that the use

of computer software programs was not necessary. After dividing the data into themes, the researcher tried to think about the context, the concept, the actions that were involved, and the consequences of the actions that were not involved in these cases, and then selected a core category with a descriptive narrative.

The first step towards creating these themes and categories for the interviews involved transcribing them from the audio files and from the notes that were taken during the interviews. The second step included rereading those transcriptions, highlighting the most important issues and discussions and then creating the categories based on these issues.

In the case of the documentation, similar steps were taken, after revisiting and reviewing the documents. The most important issues were highlighted and then those issues were put in to a category, subcategory or as descriptive narratives for those categories.

3.5. Ethical issues

Neuman (2007: 48) explains that all the concerns, dilemmas, and conflicts that arise during the conducting of research are included in ethics. According to Neuman, 'ethics helps to define what is, or is not, legitimate to do, or what moral research procedures involve' (2007: 48). This research has followed the ethical procedures and guidelines of the University of Liverpool. Before starting the data collection stage (i.e. interviews), formal ethical clearance was received from the University of Liverpool ethics committee through a process which is consistence with the ESRC guidelines. During the data collection stage and in order to create a balance between the ways of knowledge pursuit and the rights of participants, an information sheet was prepared and was sent to each of the interviewees in advance of the interview. Complete and clear explanations with regard to the research itself, the use of a voice recorder and the issue of confidentiality were given. In the information sheet it was explained that the participation of the interviewees was voluntary and that they were free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without their rights being affected. Moreover the risks and benefits of participating were also explained. In the information sheet it was also explained that all the data would remain anonymised and confidential. Before conducting and recording any of the interviews, the researcher made sure to ask the interviewees for their consent, either by asking them to fill in the consent form and sending the consent forms to them, or by coming to an agreement in emails during the stage of scheduling the interviews. The researcher respected the wishes of those participants who wished to stay anonymous and has ensured that the identity of the interviewees would remain unrecognised by using codes and numbers instead of their names. The interviewees were also informed about the result of this thesis and the availability of this research in the public domain through the publication of the thesis on the University of Liverpool website.

3.6. Summary

This chapter has presented the research design and methodology which were adopted in this study. It has firstly discussed the general strategy of this research; moreover it has also presented some of the methodological considerations surrounding comparative planning studies. Therefore the first section of this chapter has reflected on the following: different strategies for comparative studies, themes and components for comparative study in this thesis, the 'foreign culture model' of comparative research, issues of language and terminology and research symmetry. In the second part this chapter has outlined the rationales behind selection of case studies. The chapter has also discussed the compositional structure of the case study chapters. Then data collection, data analysis and ethical issues were presented and discussed. Chapter Four now moves on to the English case studies followed by Chapter Five which presents the German case studies.

Part Two

Chapter Four: the relationship between planning system and urban design (in practice) in England

This chapter presents the English case studies of this research. Therefore this chapter contains three parts. The first part present the English national context, the second part presents the case of Liverpool One and its immediate environment in the city centre of Liverpool, and the final and third part presents the case of London Westfield and its immediate environment in the White City Opportunity area.

4.1. English national context

Planning as a place making activity with a tradition of land use planning and management has a long history in England. However, the introduction of the spatial planning concept in England 'makes a distinct break with the past and [is] an indicator of wider policies for the future' (Morphet, 2011: 7). The use of this concept, has declined since the Coalition government was elected in 2010 (Lord and Tewdwr-Jones, 2014) and, thereafter, a Conservative government in 2016. Land use planning is the basis of all planning activities and is normally considered to be a regulatory planning tool. For some it 'is a restricting term implying no intervention or delivery and a disassociation from the distributional nature of land use activities and how these might be delivered with other public policy outcomes' (Morphet, 2011: 7).

The above explanations indicate one of the changes in the English system. The planning system in England has seen many reforms and transformations. For the purpose of the case studies and in order to understand the planning system in England better, it is necessary to go through the most important and the most recent reforms in the planning system. Thus the first part of this chapter discusses the planning system and planning culture in England by discussing reform cycles. Secondly, the chapter discusses some of the attitudes, traditions and movements within the system in regards to urban design. Then, in the third part of the chapter, the urban design role and instruments within the system are explained along with a review of some of the current planning instruments and documents for urban design. The main purpose of this section of Chapter Four is to set a national context for better understanding the following embedded English case studies.

4.1.1. The planning system and planning culture in England

The English planning system belongs to the British tradition of planning. This type of 'planning family' was identified by Newman and Thornley (1996: 39) as a family that is historically distinct from the rest of the European planning family. According to this explanation, in terms of administrative activities, the British family has 'a much sharper division between central and local government and a high degree of centralised monitoring and control'; therefore it is significantly different from all systems within Europe (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 39). The nature of the British family and English system can be explained by the amount of discretion in decision making. A notable feature of the English system is that as a discretionary system, it allows a degree of flexibility in 'interpreting the public interest' (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006: 1). Flexibility is highly regarded in the UK because 'it enables the planning system to meet diverse requirements and the constantly changing nature of the problems with which it attempts to deal' (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006: 1). The system is a plan-led system and the preparation of a local plan is normally carried out by the same local authority that implements it; this further increases the level of discretion within the political and planning system in the UK (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 10). In the UK 'a local authority is guided by a development plan but is not bound by it as other material considerations are taken into account' (Cullingworth and Nadin 2006: 10). The point about the flexibility of the system has been discussed by a lot of scholars for instance Morphet (2013: 48) contends that being responsive, flexible and short term rather than strategic are the main features that have characterised the UK policy making agendas.

It is worth noting that the UK as a union state consists of different units which operate without a formal federal division of power and within which each keeps some of their old institutions and practices (Reimer et al., 2014: 190). There are separate governing institutions for Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, and England with one common UK government. For instance one of the main principles of governance in the England is that power is highly centralised in Parliament and that all governing bodies, such as local planning and development government, exist only because the Westminster Parliament permits them (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 107). This type of parliamentary power has made the English government capable of exercising a hierarchical power (by controlling its bureaucracy at different

government levels). According to Rhodes (1996, cited in Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 107) 'bureaucracy remains the prime example of hierarchy or coordination by administrative order and, for all the recent changes, it is still a major way of delivering services in British government'.

According to the EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policies (1997), as Reimer et al. (2014: 192) discusses some of the characteristics of British planning system are:

- 'National planning policies together with local development plans are the primary consideration in making decisions about development, and the means for wider participation in policymaking' (Reimer et al., 2014: 192). Local development plans must conform to national policies. Plans use more performance criteria as they are not legally binding and are less detailed in the form of zoning plans.
- 'Decisions on development proposals are made at the time the proposal comes forward. The decision moment is therefore near the end of the process, whereas in systems employing legally binding zoning plans, decisions are effectively made at the time the plan is adopted' (Reimer et al., 2014: 192).
- There is a degree of discretion for both the applicants; in term of meeting the terms of policies and the decision makers; in terms of requiring a certain outcome or condition in regards to a particular development. 'The system is intended to be plan led' (Reimer et al., 2014: 192).

The planning system in England which is one of the national case studies of this research is involved an endless process of review, reform and change. It is important to go through some of these reforms if one wants to understand the embeddedness of planning culture. Moreover, discussing some of the recent reforms of the English planning system can help one to understand some of the influential movements that have changed the attitudes of planning system towards urban design.

Some of the most important and more recent reforms of English system

The English planning system of the post war period had faced two main criticisms especially during the 1950s with regard to the quality of the design of new developments as well as of the emphasis on physical planning (Taylor, 1988: 39).

The first criticism suggests that the planning system of the post war period had specific foci on urban design and traditional physical view and that in being so focused it lost focus on social issues or, as Taylor (1988: 40) argued, it was socially blind. The urban design and aesthetic concerns continued to be central matters to the planning system post war until the Town and Country Planning Act of 1968. In this Act, economic planning and social planning were reflected in a new structure plan which was introduced by this act (Taylor, 1988: 63).

Moreover, the British Welfare state which was created in an age of big government which started after the Second World War. This era of welfareism increased the responsibilities of the state and was 'paid for out of general taxation' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 108). In addition, it meant and guaranteed free access to health, education and other sorts of public and social services. As part of the post war reform movement British New Towns and cities were initiated. However, by the mid-1970s there were growing concerns about the effectiveness and efficiency of the UK government as the hierarchical bureaucratic government became 'overstretched and overloaded' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 109). In 1979 with the election of Margaret Thatcher's Conservative government, a bureaucratic hierarchy was replaced with a focus on market based competition. Hallmarks of Thatcher's administration included 'the rolling back of local government planning regulation and the wholesale abolition of strategic planning authorities in the metropolitan areas; the introduction of centrally controlled development corporations and simplified planning zones; and the downgrading of plans in favour of market decisions' (Reimer et al., 2014: 198). The aim of this government was to reform the welfare system (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 111). The national policies of the Thatcher government permitted out of town and green field development while leaving the inner parts of cities without investment (Morphet, 2011: 9). The Thatcher government made no effort to solve the policy and planning problems of the post war and the 1970s. Instead the Government 'did decidedly shift resources away from inner city areas towards the suburbs, as well as trimming areal expenditure overall' (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 137). Urban development corporations and enterprise zones were two inner city initiatives that were introduced by the Thatcher Government (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 138). The Thatcher government did not abolish planning but rather 'called upon planning authorities to use prevailing planning powers to facilitate market led development' (Brindley, Rydin and Stoker 1989 cited in Taylor 1998: 142). These scholars claim that different types of planning emerged during the 1980s. The typology of these planning styles is shown in table 4.1. The reason for presenting this typology of planning styles of the 1980s is to explain that these typologies continued to shape planning culture in England and that this, in turn, had implications for urban design. It can be concluded in this part that the planning of the 1970s and 1980s lost its focus on urban design matters as the system was, instead, involved in solving the economic problems of the 1970s and addressing the political concerns of the 1980s.

Table 4.1. A typology of different planning styles in the 1980s. Source: Taylor, 1998: 143.

Perceived nature of urban problems	Attitude to market processes			
-	Market- critical: redressing	Market-led: correcting		
	imbalances and inequalities	inefficiencies while supporting		
	created by the market	market processes		
Buoyant area: minor problems	Regulative planning	Trend planning		
and buoyant market				
Marginal area: pockets of urban	Popular planning	Leverage planning		
problems and potential market				
interest				
Derelict areas: comprehensive	Public investment planning	Private management planning		
urban problems and depressed				
market				

The introduction of the 1991 Planning Act represented a big change in planning towards a more plan-led system (Reimer et al., 2014: 198). Thereafter, the election of the New Labour government in 1997 represented the starting point for the system to distance itself from the past and move towards the modernisation of the public sector as well as greater participation of stakeholders and more consultation. From the planning policies of this government it is clear that the speed of development applications increased and that this was achieved by making the decision-making process more effective and more efficient (Shaw and Lord, 2009: 418). From 1997-2004 regional strategic planning was strengthened by the Labour government and from 2004-2011 a legal requirement in England became the comprehensive Regional

Spatial Strategic (Reimer et al., 2014: 202). However, the regional tiers of government with the exception of London were abolished in England in 2011 by the Conservative-Liberal coalition government.

During the 2000s the focus of planning system reforms was more towards spatial planning approaches (Reimer et al., 2014: 201). In addition, 'the 2001 - 2010 planning reform occurred as the planning profession itself was reflecting on its own performance and direction' (Gunn and Hillier, 2012: 366). The fundamental change in English spatial planning happened in 2004 (with the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act). The change in name to spatial planning as Morphet (2011: 13) contends 'represented a break with the immediate past. It moved planning back into a delivery mode and a corporate role'. The reform agenda of the 2004 Act evolved over a ten year period. Gunn and Hillier (2012: 366) discussed 'Intermediaries of a Green Paper (DTLR, 2001a), two White Papers (DCLG, 2007a; ODPM, 2002) and two Planning Acts (2004, 2008) were generated in response to a combination of a perceived (in)ability of planning practice to adapt, [and] shifting priorities and allegiances within government'. From 2004 the revised planning policy framework took place and consisted of: National Planning Policy Statements that replaced Planning Policy Guidance Notes; Regional Spatial Strategies which replaced Regional Planning Guidance Notes; Sub Regional Strategies introduced for the first time; Local Development Frameworks, Area Action Plans and Master plans which took the place of the old hierarchy of Structure Plans, Local Plans and Unitary development Plans (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 163).

The optimism of the 2004 Planning Act 'was replaced by concerns that the system was too complex and cumbersome to achieve the vision of the Planning Green Paper 2001 Delivering a Fundamental Change to:

- simplify the plan hierarchy;
- deliver shorter, better focused plans which can be adopted and revised more quickly;
- engage community more closely;
- Improve integration with other local strategies and plans' (Rozee, 2014: 127).

The complexities of the 2004 Planning Act as well as other problems such as housing and major infrastructure crises led the government to commission the Baker Review

of Housing 2004 and Review of Planning 2006 as well as the Eddington Review of Transport in 2006. These reviews resulted in a new Planning Act in 2008 which 'introduced an entirely new and separate regime for the planning of major infrastructure. The system was based on the principle that ministers made policy and established need (via National Policy Statements) leaving decisions on individual projects to be taken by an Independent Planning Commission' (Rozee, 2014: 127).

With the election of a Coalition government in 2010 a new phase of reform started in England. The vision of the Coalition government was very similar to the Planning Green Paper - published by the Conservative Party before the election, and sought to create a more localised and more decentralised system where communities would take responsibility for the development of their own areas (Rozee, 2014: 127). The coalition government replaced and reduced the national policies to a single National Planning Framework and emphasised sustainable development issues 'whilst seeking to reduce or contain the environmental role of planning...to privilege economic growth' (Cowell, 2012: 14 cited in Reimer et al., 2014: 205, 206).

With the introduction of the 2011 Localism Act there were some fundamental changes to the system; for instance, the infrastructure Planning Commission was abolished and all the functions of the 2008 Planning Act were transferred to the Planning Inspectorate. Moreover 'a new statutory layer of plan-making with neighbourhood plans giving local people (neighbourhood forums or parish councils) powers to make plans which will form part of the Development Plan' (Rozee, 2014: 128) was introduced. The 2011 Localism Act also gave power to the Secretary of State and resulted in the abolition of regional spatial strategies (Rozee, 2014: 128).

In 2013 a new bill pertaining to growth and infrastructure was introduced to support local jobs and local growth by reducing bureaucratic barriers. The Housing and Planning Bill 2015-2016 was introduced to Parliament in 2015. This Bill attempts to make the planning system quicker and seeks to help provide more housing (Winter et al., 2016: 38). The Conservative Party won the election; and in 2016 as the party promised in their election campaign, they held a referendum with regard to staying or leaving the European Union. The results of this referendum revealed that UK wanted to leave the EU a decision whose impacts on planning are already being discussed (Cowell, 2017). For instance as Cowell (2017:153) discussed this decision 'has

potentially far-reaching implications for planning, especially its interface with environmental policy'. Although it is hard to predict the impact of this decision on urban design, it can be said that the general planning and environmental impacts of this decision are more obvious at the moment. This could be justified by explaining the following:

Key influences of being part of the EU are: having firmer environmental standards for protecting environment, promoting public participation, having access to justice and enhancing the availability of environmental information. In addition being part of the EU meant that many part of the UK can use the EU funding for regeneration and economic developments and infrastructure developments, especially for those parts that are considered as lagging regions in the UK (Cowell, 2017: 155, 156). Thus as Cowell (2017: 157) argued 'EU membership has undeniably impacted UK planning, directly in terms of planning procedures but also through shaping the wider regulatory and developmental context'.

4.1.2. Attitudes and movements within the planning system in regards to urban design (past and present)

The planning system in England has faced periods of decline and increase in terms of the level of concern that it has had for urban design. For instance urban design in aesthetical terms was one of the central parts of English planning of the post war period. In addition, one of the notable movements towards urban and physical transformation as a positive factor in recent decades was started by the Labour government of late 1970s and the Thatcher government of the 1980s, which aimed to help and solve inner city problems in the form of 'enterprise zones, urban development corporations, the urban programme, city grant and the like' (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 102). The founding and establishment of the Urban Design Group was one of the critical changes that happened in the 1980s and was very influential with regard to shaping the attitudes of government and practitioners towards urban design. Although the focus on urban design in planning declined during the 1970s and 1980s, and planning theorists in these periods showed little interest for urban design (Taylor, 1988: 150); the policies, programmes and funding grants of the period resulted in some changes in the attitudes of planners for urban

design especially in the later years of the 1990s. After a decade of planning deregulation and property-led regeneration under the Thatcher government; (at the beginning of the 1990s) the Conservative government started 'to develop some elements of an urban renaissance policy' (Punter, 2011: 2). There were lots of attempts 'to develop a more plan-led system, to reinforce existing town centres and contain the projected growth of households within existing settlements, particularly in the Conservative shires of the South East' (Punter, 2011: 2). During this period there were also some improvements in terms of design quality and promoting urban design in the planning field (Punter, 2011: 2). The 1991 Planning Act created a big change for the plan-led system, because it required the local planning authorities and local decision makers to explicitly perform reasoning with reference to the development plans (Reimer et al., 2014: 198). In April 1994, John Major's government created ten government offices for the regions in England; 'essentially satellite offices of central government coordinating on a regional basis the activities of the Department of Trade and Industry, Department of Employment, Department of Transport and the Department for Environment' (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 96). John Major's reforms were substantial and coincided with the introduction and incorporation of sustainable development criteria and objectives into the English planning system. In this sense John Major's reforms were influential for urban design as they introduced the importance of environmental aspects as well as sustainability concepts for urban design and planning.

Moreover in 1994 English Partnerships was established - much of its work was later effectively subsumed in that of the Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), which were established to promote regional regeneration by Blair's government (1997) (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 148). The establishment of this agency was another influential factor in the transformation of the image of cities and urban design. The establishment of English Partnerships, which resulted in creation of Integrated Regional Offices, was a change of direction manifested itself in the City Challenge programme (Belchem, 2006: 471). The City Challenge Programme emphasised partnership and recognised that 'local authorities could play a key role in coordinating regeneration and expected them to involve a range of private, public, voluntary and community bodies in both the design and implementation of the regeneration programme' (Belchem, 2006: 471).

In 1997, the New Labour government tried to produce a new type of public policy which was more caring, more inclusive and more engaging; the government was committed to Third Way politics which 'sought to find the middle ground between the neoliberal economic and social policies of the Conservatives' (Punter, 2011: 2). There is a need to mention that neoliberalism has been involved in the transformation of planning and design practices. As Adams and Tiesdell (2013: 113) discussed: 'urban transformation at the height of neoliberalism' was focused more on a market led approach and less on: urban infrastructure, and coordination between developments and urban transport. Therefore, as a consequence of planning powers decreasing and the aesthetic aspects of design became more important without discussing and considering the public interest (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 113). 'Neoliberalism remains a powerful political philosophy which aims to limit state intervention in the development process and promote a market led approach to urban planning and development' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 114). The reasons hitherto mentioned give one justification for the common ground between neoliberalism and socialism that was sought by the Third Way. Shaw and Lord (2009: 423) argued that the Third Way 'represents an inclusive philosophy which seeks to overcome the divisions of the past, which saw either state or market as the dominant agency by which policy is discharged'. As mentioned before, the policies that the New Labour government of 1997 was trying to create were moving towards modernising the public sector and the use of more consultation and stakeholder participation (Shaw and Lord, 2009: 418).

The effect of neoliberalism, market-led approaches for developments, as well as ideas and concepts such as the Third Way have partly formed the existing culture of planning and the attitudes towards urban design within the planning system. This is one of the reasons for discussing these issues in this part of the thesis which will be discussed in Chapter Six.

In 1998 the government appointed an *Urban Task Force*, under the chairmanship of the architect Richard Rogers, for the purpose of tackling complex problems of housing demands as a result of demographic changes, the housing pressure on the South of England, and the problems of urban decline (Punter, 2011: 4; Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 151). The Urban Task Force was one of the key influences on reforms and the state's attitudes towards urban planning and urban design

increasingly recognising the importance of sustainability and design. The UTF report presented 105 recommendations which were grouped into 9 key headings of 'urban design, connections, management of the environment, urban regeneration, skills and innovation, planning, land supply, recycling buildings and finance' (UTF, 1999: 7 cited in Punter, 2011: 4). One of the main functions of the UTF report was its socially inclusive function as it was recognised by Rogers that social issues are very important to regeneration. His vision was 'well designed, more compact and connected cities, with integrated public transport and supporting a range of diverse uses, allowing people to live at close quarters within sustainable and adaptable urban environments' (UTF, 1999: 8 cited from Punter, 2011: 4). The subsequent Urban White Paper of 2000'was a wider statement about government urban policy and gave an explicit response to each UTF recommendation' (Punter, 2011: 4).

In line with the recommendations of the UTF; the government created a national framework for urban design with the aim of creating excellent urban design. This national framework, which established some principles for raising the standard of urban design, was the Planning Policy Statement 1 or PPS1. This framework encouraged planning authorities to seek high quality and inclusive urban design (Punter, 2010: 13). The other types of documents that were created to help government to achieve this desired excellence in urban design, were 'new style development plans, reforms to development control, and new forms of design guidance (including master planning, residential street design and design coding)' (Punter, 2010: 12, 13). In addition to the UTF report, the Commission for Architecture and Built Environment (CABE) which was founded by the government in 1999 gave valuable advice on how to achieve best practice in urban design. By Design was a document produced by CABE and DETR in 2000 which took a proactive approach towards urban design. This document established a manual for comprehensive design. Other documents and guidance that were produced by CABE were also useful for implementing design quality such as guidance developed from design reviews, urban design compendiums and documents that were the result of collaborations between CABE and English Heritage on contextual design in Conservation Areas and on tall buildings policy (Punter, 2010: 13). In 2003, Deputy Prime Minister John Prescott, established a document called the Sustainable Communities: Building for the Future plan, which set a long term programme for

delivering sustainable communities. This document encouraged the design of sustainable social, economic and environmental developments with particular emphasis on high quality urban design, mixed usage, sustainable living and cohesive communities (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 159). The documents that were mentioned above were a new beginning and a renaissance for government and local authorities' attitudes towards urban design. The changes that these reforms and these documents made gradually resulted in greater support for higher urban design standards by local authorities and central government.

4.1.3. Urban design: policy context and instruments¹

The current English *National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF)* which was adopted by the Department for Communities and Local Government in 2012 provides a framework for local people and their councils to produce their own distinctive plans. The NPPF is a material consideration during the decision-making process and must be taken into account when preparing local and neighbourhood plans. (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 1). According to the NPPF 'the purpose of the planning system is to contribute to the achievement of sustainable development' (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 2). This document recognises three dimensions of economic, social and environmental sustainability in development and contends that the planning system should act in three roles according to these dimensions: an economic role, a social role and an environmental role. Box 4.1 introduces these three roles.

In order for the planning system to achieve sustainable development, these three roles should be considered simultaneously and therefore the planning system should play an active role in guiding sustainable solutions into developments. It should be noted that the NPPF contains a presumption in favour of sustainable development

_

¹ It is important to discuss the national planning policy context here because as argues chapter 6 tries to argue that in England, an important part of the planning culture is shaped by reforms of the planning system. Therefore as two of the overarching policy frameworks for the planning system, explaining NPPF and NPPG is necessary. However, it should be recognised that such national policy frameworks evolve. For instance at the time of the development of Liverpool One and Westfield London, there were other tools in place at the national level for guiding developments, particularly with regard to urban design.

(Communities and Local Government, 2012: 3, 4). For delivering sustainable development the NPPF has recognised and repackaged a number of categories such as: building a strong and competitive economy, ensuring the vitality of town centres, supporting a prosperous rural economy, promoting sustainable transport, supporting high quality communications infrastructure, delivering a wide choice of high quality homes, requiring good urban design, promoting healthy communities, protecting Green Belt land, meeting the challenge of climate change, flooding and coastal change; conserving and enhancing the natural environment, conserving and enhancing the historic environment, facilitating the sustainable use of minerals.

Box 4.1. Three roles of the planning system Source (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 2)

An economic role: 'contributing to building a strong, responsive and competitive economy, by ensuring that sufficient land of the right type is available in the right places and at the right time to support growth and innovation; and by identifying and coordinating development requirements, including the provision of infrastructure';

A social role: 'supporting strong, vibrant and healthy communities, by providing the supply of housing required to meet the needs of present and future generations; and by creating a high quality built environment, with accessible local services that reflect the community's needs and support its health, social and cultural well-being; and'

An environmental role: 'contributing to protecting and enhancing our natural, built and historic environment; and, as part of this, helping to improve biodiversity, use natural resources prudently, minimise waste and pollution, and mitigate and adapt to climate change including moving to a low carbon economy'.

With regard to urban design, the NPPF indicates that good urban design is one of the most important aspects of sustainable development and that it is therefore important for design to be inclusive and high quality. In addition, a set of robust and comprehensive policies are required in the local and neighbourhood plans which establish the future expectations of a given development area. According to

paragraph 58 of the NPPF 'these policies should be based on stated objectives for the future of the area and an evaluation of its defining characteristics' (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 15).

Paragraph 58 of the NPPF on good urban design has encouraged local planning policies and local decisions to aim for: overall quality, lifetime, function, and sense of place, mix of uses, safety and accessibility, responsivity to local character and history and attractiveness; of their local developments (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 15). The use of design codes has been recommended in this document because they are helpful for delivering high quality design. However, the NPPF also explains that design policies should not be too prescriptive and that unnecessary prescription should be avoided; instead they should focus on delivering other details such as height, overall scale, density, layout, materials, and access. (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 15). The issue of the level of detail and prescription in planning policies and decisions; and whether this level of prescription would limit creativity and innovation, has been raised in the NPPF. As this document suggested that prescriptions as well as imposing design ideas by local authorities should be at a level that would not create a burden for innovation, originality and creative design ideas; however this document contends that it is appropriate for the local authorities 'to seek to promote or reinforce local distinctiveness'. In addition, the NPPF has encouraged local authorities to raise design standards by giving more weight to innovative and outstanding design ideas (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 15-16).

Although the aesthetic aspects of urban design are considered as an important factor, the NPPF states that for delivering high quality urban development, urban design should go beyond its aesthetic boundaries and focus more on the relationship between people and places and how the new development would fit and sit within its wider environment. The NPPF has thus encouraged local planners and local authorities to have an assigned team for design review. Moreover, when it comes to assessing planning applications, local authorities should respect the decisions of their design review panels. In addition, the document suggests that engaging with urban design matters is more beneficial if it happens at the early stages of a given development (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 15-16). Paragraph 64 of the NPPF states that 'permission should be refused for development of poor design

that fails to take the opportunities available for improving the character and quality of an area and the way it functions' (2012: 16).

The local plans should be examined by an independent inspector who will consider the soundness of the plan. The soundness according to NPPF means that the local plan is positively prepared, justified, effective, and consistent with the national policy (Communities and Local Government, 2012: 43).

According to Paterson (2012: 148) the language of the NPPF with regard to urban design is vague. Although the document uses some key phrases from the 2005 PPS1, such as mentioning that 'good design is indivisible from planning' (Paterson, 2012: 148) and explaining that good design is a 'key element of achieving sustainable development' (Paterson, 2012: 148), it has missed the opportunity to make some references to urban design principles that have been identified in the relevant urban design literature over many years (Paterson, 2012: 148). In addition, the NPPF is weak in expressing how to achieve good urban design as well as explaining what good urban design constitutes (Paterson, 2012: 148). One other issue about the NPPF which is important to note at this juncture is that whilst the document suggests that local planning authorities should avoid unnecessary prescription 'there is no indication of how much prescription might be reasonable' (Paterson, 2012: 148).

The National Planning Practice Guidance which was published by the UK government is the other key document that sets out the government's expectations of local authorities. The National Planning Practice Guidance note (NPPG note on Design which was updated in 2014; ID: 26) contends that good quality urban design is an important factor for achieving sustainable development and therefore encourages planners and decision makers to secure high quality urban design for their developments (Communities and Local Government, 2016). According to the definition given by the NPPG 'well-designed new or changing places should: be functional, support mixed uses and tenures, include successful public spaces, be adoptable and resilient, have a distinctive character, be attractive, encourage ease of movement' (Communities and Local Government, 2016). The NPPG has also mentioned that pre-application discussions are an opportunity for local authorities to discuss design policies, requirements, parameters and principles with developers. Discussions about proposed design issues at the pre-application stage are more

beneficial than at later stages. The NPPG has explained that in addition to preapplication discussions; design and access statements, design review, design codes, supporting design objectives of development plans while making planning decisions, are ways in which planning applications and proposals could achieve good urban design (after granting planning permissions) (Communities and Local Government, 2016). In the design guidelines of the NPPG, it is mentioned that design issues and principles and qualities of well-designed places are similar for most developments. However, in practice, these qualities can mean different things depending on the type of development being undertaken. The NPGG notes four distinct types of development: housing design, town centre design, street design and transport corridors (Communities and Local Government, 2016).

With regard to *town centre design*, which is relevant to the London Westfield extension which is the second embedded English case study in this research, the NPPG contends that well designed and integrated town centres can create attractive and comfortable places for people. The language of these guidelines is very general and it points out a few issues with regard to access, arrival points, walking environment, active frontages and entrances, signage quality and the issue of car parking (Communities and Local Government, 2016).

The language that has been used in both the NPPF and NPPG with regard to urban design is very general and both of them are relying more on the role of local planning authorities for achieving and securing good urban design for developments.

While both the NPPF and NPPG were compiled at a national level; at the local level *core strategies* and *development plans* guide urban design. Local authorities are the responsible bodies for planning and all associated issues within their geographic jurisdictions; such as urban design.

Urban design guidance is also being used to guide design aspects of developments in England. *Urban design guidance* is a term for documents that guide developers, designers, and other actors with regard to urban design issues of a given development. It can be prepared by local authorities, developers, or any other actor that is involved in the planning of a development. According to Cowan (2002: 10) 'urban design guidance can support planning policy, facilitate collaboration, express vision, set design standards and indicate the next steps'. There are different types of

guidance documents such as: *urban design frameworks*, *development briefs*, *master plans*, *design codes*, *design statements*. Design guidance can also have a formal status such as supplementary planning guidance (SPG). Essex County Council's Design Guide of 1973 was one of the most influential design guides for a generation of such documentation (Madanipour, 1996: 174). This design guide divided policies into physical and visual policies; the visual policies placed more emphasis on the spatial organisation and design of buildings within an urban framework, while the physical policies discussed the services, standards and maintenance of housing (Madanipour, 1996: 174).

Urban design frameworks come in a number of different forms including; urban design strategies, area development frameworks, and planning and urban design frameworks. An urban design framework describes the ways in which planning and design policies and principles of an area are being delivered and implemented (Cowan, 2002: 12). One simple example of urban design framework is the White City opportunity area framework of 2013 within the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham (see Chapter 4.3).

In contrast to urban design frameworks, *Development briefs* are established for an area of significant size or sensitivity and provide guidance on how developments and plans for that site should harmonise with the relevant policies. A development brief is usually produced for an area which is likely to be developed in the near future (Cowan, 2002: 12).

Master plans are detailed guidance which explain the implementation of proposals, the vision of a development area, the timing and phasing of the project and its costs (Cowan, 2002: 13). Master plans often provide a long term vision of the developments and thus give developers and investors more certainty (White, 2016: 5). An example of a master plan which provides a future vision is the Birmingham city centre master plan (Big City Plan). This master plan (Figure 4.1) which is a non-statutory document and whose main principles and objectives are being considered in the city core strategy, has presented the vision of city centre developments for the next 20 years (Birmingham City Council, 2011: 4, 6). The main objectives of this master plan are to transform the city from its present state into a liveable, sustainable,

smart, connected, creative, authentic, and knowledge city (Birmingham City Council, 2011: 10).

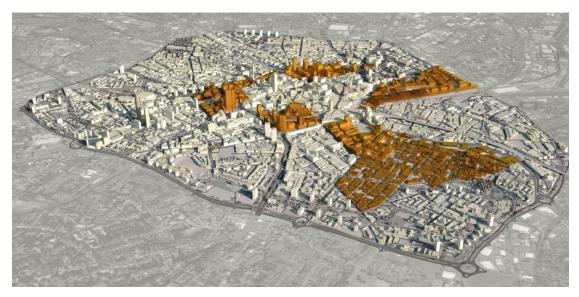


Figure 4.1. A 3-D model of Birmingham city centre master-plan. Source: Birmingham City Council, 2011.

Design Codes are another important planning instrument in England and they originated from the new urbanist movement in North America. A design code 'is a set of rules specifying the three-dimensional form of a development and which provides a means to ensure that each plot or subdivision contributes to the intended vision for the broader place' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 261). The task of design codes is to represent what is expected from an area instead of prescribing what is not allowed. Design codes often contain detailed illustrations and promote 'an overall vision of a desired urban form' (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 261). Design codes are often prepared on the basis of a vision for an area alongside the master plan. 'Coding could be used to make a gradual but ongoing shift in the planning system, from a reactive to a proactive model of control' (Rouse, 2003: 18 cited in Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 262). Design codes could be prepared, firstly as part of the planning process and planning approval, or secondly on behalf of the landowner or developer. With reference to the first, an example of this type of design code is Fairfield Park in Bedfordshire in which a design code and a master plan was one of the central demands of local authorities (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 246). This area was developed into a residential community consisting of 1,200 houses, a retail store, primary school and other facilities (Figure 4.2). The two main developers of this area established a joint company called Fairfield Redevelopment Ltd which became responsible for selling the serviced parcels to individual developers; each of these developers built the houses in accordance to the urban design code (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 246). An example of the second type is Newhall in Essex (Figure 4.3) in which the design code was prepared on behalf of the developer and the landowner. The landowners of Newhall had subdivided the first phase of development into six almost equal development parcels and these developments were marketed on the basis that the developer must conform and meet the requirements of the master plan and the design code. This requirement made the developers seek the help of urban designers because it was impossible for them to use standard designs (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 179).







Figure 4.2. Left picture is the master plan of Fairfield Park; right pictures are some pictures of Fairfield Park. Source: fairfield-park, 2016.

Design statements explain the design principles of development proposals and are usually produced by developers at the time of submitting planning permission. A design statement 'enables a local authority to give an initial response to the main issues raised by the proposal' (Cowan, 2002: 16).

It can be concluded that design control in England still operates on a kind of project by project basis. The national level provides general context and guidance for design, while most of design principles are managed and controlled at the local and project level. It follows, that the effectiveness of the tools presented in this part of the chapter also depends on local politics, financial situations, and the broader regulatory regime (White, 2016: 5).



Figure 4.3. Left picture shows the master plan for Newhall in Essex, the left pictures are some pictures of the housing design in the Newhall. Source: Newhall project, 2016.

4.1.4. Planning process

For planning developments, the English planning system has some level of prescriptivism with regard to process. As shown in the previous section (4.1.3), there are lots of instructions and instruments in the system that could be used for planning and designing a development. Although the system is prescriptive, it does, nevertheless, contain a certain amount of flexibility which does not prevent designers, developers or other actors from being innovative. Within this prescriptive system a typical planning process contains these stages:

- Initial discussion stage and pre-planning application stage: this stage involves discussions and negotiations between the land owner, the developer and the local authorities and, depending on the case; it might include many sub stages, especially for big projects such as retail developments or for areas of high importance. The first possible sub stage is conducting research for the need and type of development and its social and economic effects. The second possible sub stage involves property rights and land ownership negotiations. The other sub stages are working and consulting with local authorities, financial negotiations, identifying the land developer, preparing for a planning application, advertising for the land, and informing the public of the plans for the project. The preparation of a planning application would depend on the nature of the project; if it is a project that is located in an area where there are likely to be subsequent developments - such as the site of Westfield (see section 4.3. of this chapter), then the most important documents that should be submitted along with the application are the development brief as well as the design statement, initial illustrations, drawings. It is worth mentioning that these documents are mostly done and prepared by the developers. As a result of the amount of documentation required this is the likely stage where a master plan would be adopted and included with the planning application. One other important thing which could happen at this stage or any other stage is making a contract for delivering and implementing the project. The exact nature of this does, however, very much depend on the developer or the client's preferences.
- *Master planning stage*: at this stage all the details with regard to the project would be agreed. This stage and the next stage (the decision making stage)

sometimes overlap (depending on the nature of projects and actors attitudes). This stage could also involve lots of planning and design reviews as well as lots of consultations and negotiations with the developer, the designer and relevant public authorities.

- *Decision making stage:* at this stage, when a certain developer or land owner applies for planning permission, the local authorities would investigate that application and would decide whether to grant permission. One of the important sub stages at the decision making stage is *Public consultation*.
- *Implementation and delivery stage*: this stage sometimes happens at the same time as the master planning stage. For instance this was the case for the second embedded case study i.e. Westfield London. The important thing to note is that this stage would not happen unless planning permission has been granted.
- After delivery and Management stage: for some projects this stage means maintenance, remaining active, attracting a variety of people and all the issues relating to the management of that place after delivery.

The question in this part is: where does urban design fit into these stages of the planning process in England? The answer lies in first understanding that the position of urban design is very dependent on the characteristics and context of the planning culture, planning system, as well as the people who are involved in these processes. Moreover, the nature and context of the specific development is also very important. Secondly, the position of urban design depends on the negotiations, formal and informal agreements, and consultations as well as the skills of individual developers and urban designers. It can be concluded that the initial discussion stage, master planning stage and decision making stage are the ones where urban design is taking place. Nevertheless, and depending on the context of the project - as will be explained in the Westfield London case, some of the design ideas and strategies can be developed after the initial construction and implementation have taken place.

4.1.5. Summary

The planning system of England has been subject to almost constant cycles of reforms in recent decades. In order to understand both the planning culture and the planning system in England, it is important to go through these reforms. Some of

these reforms as discussed before had big implications for urban design. One of the important points in time at which one could distinguish the emergence of new attitudes towards the importance of urban design in planning after some period of decline for urban design concerns; was the Urban Task Force Report of the late 1990s and the urban renaissance agenda pursued by the New Labour government of that time. During this period urban design became an important topic for delivery within the planning system.

The English planning system is a discretionary system in which planning policies have a direct impact on decision making. In this system a high level of trust is vested with the decision making bodies including local authorities. The system is plan-led and flexible Despite many reforms to the system, the main component, namely, being a plan-led system, has remained unchanged. With regard to controlling urban design, the planning system is decentralised with most decisions carried out by local authorities. Moreover the planning system in England as mentioned in Chapter Two is a decentralised unitary system (Tosics et al., 2010: 18). Most of the influential tools for enforcing and controlling urban design within the English planning system exist at the project level or at the local authority level. These tools can be classified into urban design guidance, urban design frameworks, design codes, design outlines, design statements, master plans in addition to, in a broader sense, the local plan, core strategy, and supplementary planning documents. The use of each of these documents for guiding urban design depends on the context of the project, the tradition and nature of the planning culture at the specific local level, and the nature of the planning process and the planning application. For instance, depending on the context of the project, the planning permission and planning application could be in the form of an outline planning application (for example see 4.3).

The degree of enforcement of urban design within the planning system in England is dependent on the capabilities of individual planning authorities and how they develop a vision, how they implement that vision and the extent to which they rely and interact with the private sector, investors, developers, and urban designers. Conforming with the codes, regulations and laws is not normally very difficult because the system has some degree of flexibility. Moreover these guidelines are there to help the urban design aspects of a development and ensure good quality urban design (according to the standards of the system).

Guidance at the English national level (in the *NPPF* and the *NPPG*) clearly supports good design ideas and rejects bad design ideas. Moreover, the planning system in England seems to have learnt some lessons and tends not be radical with regard to focusing solely on aesthetic and physical design which was the main focus of the system during the post war period until the 1968 Planning Act. The planning system also tends not to be radical like before more specifically during the 1970s and 1980s when it ignored the urban design. Enforcement of urban design within the English planning system partly comes from the planning cultures of the country and is seen as a means of improving physical, economic, and social infrastructure as well as transforming the image of an area.

One of the planning culture issues that has influenced urban design and shaped policies related to the urban environment is the market-led approach of neoliberalism. The primary goal of neoliberalism in England was to reduce state intervention, and to replace the involvement of the state with market capitalism in the belief that the latter would deliver efficiency, growth and prosperity for an area (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 111). This concept resulted in the weakness of political aspects of planning and changed the objectives and processes of spatial planning (Waterhout et al., 2013: 157). Neoliberalism has affected planning and political power in lots of countries in Europe, but what makes England distinguishable from the others is the radical approach and traditions of the system towards Neoliberalism (Waterhout et al., 2013: 157). In this sense planning can be seen as a subject that is losing its power for shaping policies as the focus of policies such as urban design policies are now more about the market and economy.

4.2. Liverpool One

The city of Liverpool has a long history of decline in its port industry which consequently and gradually resulted in population decline, housing demand and housing market problems and a struggling public infrastructure. As Biddulph (2010: 100) stated 'the city had gone from one of Britain's most successful cities to one of Britain's least'. The Paradise street development (namely Liverpool One) is located at the heart of Liverpool and was conceived as one of the major projects to transform the city centre.

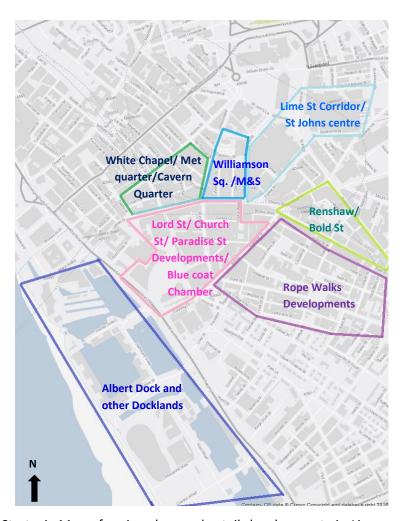


Figure 4.4. Strategic Map of main urban and retail developments in Liverpool city centre. Source: the author, 2016.

4.2.1. Paradise street development (Liverpool One and its immediate environment)

Liverpool One comprises over 165 shops, more than 500 apartments, two hotels, 25 restaurants, a 14-screen Odeon cinema, 2,787sqm of offices, a revitalised five-acre park, 3,000 car parking spaces and a public transport interchange. It is a mixed used development project which was master planned in a 42 acre area of Liverpool. It acted as a catalyst for further improvements in the city especially in the city centre area (BDP, 2015; Grosvenor, 2015). In January 2010, two years after Liverpool One opened, Liverpool Vision reported a further £900 million of city-wide development was either on-site or in planning. Apart from this it has created over 5,000 new jobs and has resulted in the city receiving a massive boost in business rates as well as substantial increases in the level of ground rents charged in the city. Furthermore in the retail hierarchy, Liverpool city centre has moved up since the opening of Liverpool One as the number of visitors and footfall to Liverpool One itself and other parts in the city has increased considerably (BDP, 2015; Grosvenor, 2015).

The case of this study is the Paradise Street development (Liverpool One) and its immediate environment. The precise boundaries of this case study are shown in Figure 4.5. The case study of the Paradise Street development area is intended to respond to the questions of this research which consider the ways in which the planning system in England manages and controls developments.

The site of Liverpool One development before intervention

Liverpool was the second most bombed city after London in 1941; consequently many sites in the centre including the site of the Paradise Street development were destroyed. When they were thereafter flattened, 'they became an interruption between the city itself and the historic docks to the south' (Littlefield, 2009: 27). The site of this case study redeveloped later and in some parts it was being used as a multi-storey car park, a bus station, a hotel, an office block, while the other remaining areas were being used as parkland or were simply grassed over (Littlefield, 2009: 21).



Key: This case study boundaries are: *a)* the main retail area of Liverpool One and South John street, which is surrounded by 1. Strand Street and Chavasse Park, 2. Canning Place, 3. Paradise Street. *b)* The area between Paradise Street and Hanover Street which is surrounded by, 4. Hanover Street, 5. College Lane, 6. School Lane, 7. Church Street, 8. Lord Street.

Figure 4.5. Precise boundaries of this case study. Source: the author, 2016.

A time line of the planning, decision making for the site of the Liverpool One development

Probably the first sparks of regeneration in Liverpool were lit with the redevelopment of Albert Dock in 1983 'by one of Michael Heseltine's quangos, the Merseyside Development Corporation (MDC)' (Parker and Garnell, 2006: 294) which acted as a catalyst for further regeneration in the city, for instance, by developers like the Urban Splash movement from 1993 onwards. In addition one other effective factor for the transformation of the city happened in 1993 when 'as one of the poorest areas in the EU (with only 71 % of average EU GDP) Liverpool received Objective One status which was a key boost in efforts at regeneration of the 1990s' (Belchem, 2006: 517).

For the Paradise Street development site, the most obvious starting point is 1998 when the Liberal-Democrats took charge of the city council. In the following year a new chief executive was employed; the combination of new chief executive and the Urban Task Force Report of 1999 resulted in the establishment of Liverpool Vision, the UK's first urban regeneration company (Biddulph, 2011: 75). This company, which was responsible for regenerating the city centre, was 'a partnership organisation created to build consensus between organisations responsible for delivering projects' (Biddulph, 2011: 75). Moreover, one other starting point for urban developments within the site of this case study was in 1998 when the city council appointed Healey and Baker (now part of Cushman and Wakefield) to do an assessment of the city centre shopping provision (Parker and Garnell, 2006: 300; Littlefield, 2009: 28). In their report, Healey and Baker identified the area around Paradise Street as an opportunity area which had the potential for improving and regenerating the centre. In 1999 the City Council started to advertise to find a developer for the site and as Parker and Garnell (2006: 301) note 'the city invited expressions of interest from the development community'. Cushman and Wakefield were retained by the council as consultants to help and give advice on marketing as well as choosing a development partner. During this process of selection, the City Council commissioned an urban design study by Chapman Taylor Partners and a transportation study from W.S. Atkins. The results of both of these commissions were put into the outline development brief which was issued to shortlist the development companies (Parker and Garnell, 2006: 301). Grosvenor, which was one of the seven companies in the shortlist, was selected as the development partner in 2000. The master plan for this project developed in 2000; first and second planning applications were submitted in 2001 and 2002; in 2004 the construction of the whole project started and then, about 4 years later in 2008, Liverpool One was opened.

4.2.2. Planning and urban design (attitudes and policy context)

Couch (2003:3) contends that 'Liverpool has been a laboratory for almost every experiment and innovation in modern urban policy and planning'. This part of the chapter explains the most influential urban development movements and policies that were relevant to the Liverpool One project and to Liverpool city centre. As

previously noted, the regeneration of the 1980s and most importantly the regeneration and conservation of Albert Dock, was a starting point and a catalyst for other regeneration programmes in the city (Parker and Garnell, 2006: 294; Rodwell, 2014: 91). As Rodwell (2014: 91) has expressed the regeneration of Albert Dock was like a 'beacon in the desert'. Two major elements of regeneration and development governance in the 1980s were: the Merseyside Task Force (MTF), which supported Michael Heseltine in solving the long term problems of Liverpool as well as encouraging private investments and bringing them back in to the city, and the Merseyside Development Corporation (MDC), which was one of the first urban development corporation companies in the country and was concerned with regeneration within the city (Rodwell, 2014: 91). MDC was also involved with the creation of industrial space and the International Garden Festival of 1984 (Sykes et al., 2013: 11).

Following these, the city acquired EU Objective One Status in 1993, which was a key point for further regeneration in the city (Belchem, 2006: 473). In addition one other influential factor particularly for the city centre area was the establishment of the Urban Splash (private sector regeneration and development) Company in 1993. This company is responsible for the reuse of historic buildings in the city centre and the wider city region of Liverpool (Rodwell, 2014: 94). One of the exemplary works of this company is the Ropewalks development which was finished in 1995. This company noticed the potential of the previous site of the Ropewalks and turned it into a mixed use project which 'was built around a new privately managed public space which almost instantly became a new focal point in the city' (Biddulph, 2011: 90).

In 1997, when the Labour Party won the election, the regeneration policies were modified and reviewed, and the ways in which urban life and urban transformation were previously viewed, hanged (Couch et al., 2003: 36; Biddulph, 2011: 74). As part of New Labour's urban policy, the concept of the English Core Cities (including Liverpool) emerged. This concept was intended to help attenuate the economic imbalances between London and other major cities in England. Therefore it sought to provide a 'counterbalance to the economic weight of London' (Rae, 2013: 96). In the following years the Urban Task Force Report 1999 (Towards an Urban Renaissance) was a turning point for Liverpool and 'how the city dealt with urban design and

development issues within its centre, and the attention given to the physical environment started to be reflected in both guidance and emerging developments' (Biddulph, 2011: 74). The combination of the Urban Task Force Report (1999) and the employment of a new chief executive in the city council in 1989 resulted in the establishment of Liverpool Vision. The responsibility of Liverpool Vision was to regenerate sites within the centre of the city and it had six target areas (Biddulph, 2011: 75). Liverpool Vision which was the UK's first urban regeneration company was created to produce a balance and consensus between different organisations responsible for developing and delivering projects as well as to form a partnership between the public and private sector (Biddulph, 2011: 75). Liverpool Vision commissioned SOM (Skidmore, Owings and Merrill), which is a multidisciplinary (consultancy) firm, to produce a new Strategic Regeneration Framework (Biddulph, 2011: 75). This strategic framework intended to create an attractive environment for investors in the city; it also intended to make an opportunity for the city to compete with other European cities especially with regard to attracting investments. Moreover, it intended to make Liverpool a premier European City (Biddulph, 2011: 75). The Liverpool City Centre Movement Strategy, which was a collaboration between Liverpool vision, the City Council and Mersey Travel, emerged from the Strategic Regeneration Framework (Biddulph, 2010: 105). One of the other influences of The Urban Task Force Report of 1999 (Towards an Urban Renaissance) for Liverpool was the call for cities to establish and select an urban design Champion. Liverpool was the first city to select a Champion, who, according to Biddulph (2011: 76), 'tried to promote the benefits of good design and help establish a higher standard for new development amongst partners'. This Champion, whom ensured the awareness of design issues in Liverpool within local agendas, was a councillor (Mrs Beatrice Fraenkel).

The changes in the city came at the time when, according to Deputy Prime Minister John Prescott (in a government brochure called Our Towns and Cities: the Future which was published in 2000), 'many urban areas have suffered from neglect, poor management, inadequate public services, lack of investment and a culture of short-termism' (Littlefield, 2009: 39). These changes in Liverpool happened at the time when the level of awareness with regard to urban design was rising nationally, in addition these changes at the national level were mostly due to many policies and

movements of the late 1990s and 2000s but probably the most influential ones for urban design were: The Urban Task Force Report of 1999 (Towards an Urban Renaissance) and By Design: urban planning in the design system-towards better practice by CABE.

What did the city have in place to guide planning and urban design for the Paradise Street development and its immediate environment?

The main statutory plan which was adopted in 2002 was the *Liverpool Unitary Development Plan*. The city centre was recognised in Chapter Six (economic regeneration) and Chapter Seven (heritage and design in the built environment) of this plan as one of the target areas for economic regeneration and development under the concept of good design; moreover, the Paradise Street development area was recognised as one of the main retail areas within the centre (The City of Liverpool, 2002: 76). It seems that the parts that are more relevant to the economic regeneration of the centre are more specific (see, for example, paragraphs 6.80, 6.85, The City of Liverpool, 2002: 76) and the parts related to the concept of good urban design are more general, as they only give some ideas and basically introduce the concept of good urban design for the city in general terms (see, for example, paragraphs 7.132-7.136, The City of Liverpool, 2002: 123). The *Policy HD 18* of this document about urban design is short and, according to Carmona et al (2002 cited in Biddulph, 2011: 77); this reflects 'a low level of commitment to urban design'.

The Liverpool Urban Design Guide, which was published a year after the Unitary Development Plan of 2002, was adopted as a Supplementary Planning Guidance Note (SPG) (LCC, 2016a). The Supplementary Planning Guidance Notes (SPG) would usually give more detailed contexts for some of the policies within the Unitary Development Plans. In addition, they are normally written after the public consultation and public inquiry (LCC, 2016a). It is worth noting that Liverpool design guide was reflecting the agendas of *By Design (CABE)* and directed people's minds towards the concept of what urban design and urban development should achieve (Biddulph, 2011: 77). The language of this document was encouraging but it was not specific (Biddulph, 2011: 77). There were seven objectives that were established in the Liverpool Urban Design Guide; these objectives acted as key principles for assessing urban developments and whether they represent good or poor

design. These objectives were: 1) character, 2) continuity and enclosure, 3) a quality public realm, 4) ease of movement, 5) legibility, 6) adaptability, 7) diversity (Liverpool City Council planning services and Chapman Robinson Consultants, 2003).

One of the other influential documents, which was published by the City Council in 1999, contained an urban design study of the Paradise Street Development Area. The main considerations of this study which embraced urban design were:

- Retaining listed buildings and other buildings of interest and character;
- Retaining at least some of the pre-existing street pattern;
- Maximizing permeability (that is, through routes, eliminating dead-ends) over a 24-hour period;
- Reinforcing the character of the city centre, especially the physical and commercial link with the sea;
- Responding to the scale and massing of buildings and the metropolitan character of Liverpool;
- Exploiting the changes in level across the site, there is a 36 foot (11 metre) fall, reflecting the route of original inlet around which Liverpool was built;
- Creating active perimeter frontages, such as shop fronts rather than blank walls;
- Providing full access from the main shopping route of Church Street;
- Relocating any business or activity that is inappropriate for the redeveloped site;
- Creating high quality, open, public spaces;
- Creating links to neighbouring districts, such as the Ropewalks, the central business district and the waterfront (Littlefield, 2009: 22).

One other document that was very important for the development of Paradise Street area and Liverpool One is the master plan of this development. This master plan is discussed in Section 4.2.3.

As is evident from the above documents, the guidance in regards to planning and urban design issues in the Paradise Street Development Area (with the exception of master plan) was more general. Moreover, from the interviews, it seems that there is a consensus about the flexibility and openness of the guidance and codes (Interviews

for Liverpool One, 2015). For instance, according to one interviewee who was previously involved with the planning and design process of Paradise Street Development Area, 'in terms of conforming with the codes the Council left it flexible and easy, moreover they left it deliberately open so designers could put forward ideas and then they integrate those ideas into the scheme' (Interview 1, 2015).

What does the city have in place to guide planning and urban design?

Planning applications were and are currently being decided upon based on the Unitary Development Plan (UDP adopted in 2002) (LCC, 2016b). The UDP is a statutory document which includes within it, the Local Plan. The UDP also indicates the permitted usage of land in the city. The Liverpool Local Plan, which is still under development, intends to guide developments in Liverpool until at least 2030 by providing strategies and development principles (LCC, 2016c). At the heart of the Local Plan is the Core Strategy; a draft of which was prepared in 2012 (LCC, 2016c). The Submission Draft Liverpool Core Strategy 2012 created a vision for developments in the city. With regard to the city centre, the vision indicates that 'the city centre will remain at the heart of the city's economic and urban renaissance. It will be a thriving regional centre for commercial and retail investment, a showcase for culture and art, civic, leisure, educational, world-class knowledge economy business and residential uses' (Liverpool City Council, 2012: 33). The draft submission of the Liverpool Core Strategy has established eight strategic objectives for delivering its vision. These objectives are: strengthen the city's economy; create residential neighbourhoods that meet housing needs, vital and viable shopping centres, attractive and safe city with a strong local identity, high quality green infrastructure, and use resources efficiently, maximising sustainable accessibility and maximising social inclusion and equal opportunities (Liverpool City Council, 2012: 35-38). Urban design was not discussed in this document specifically. However, the creation of high quality urban design is unconsciously a requirement of the plan and is a part of most of the strategic objectives. Accordingly, the system seems to be aware of the need to deliver urban design quality.

The issue of urban design within the current system of Liverpool City council is predominantly considered through the planning application process rather than through detailed plans or guidance. In the advice notes from Liverpool City Council,

the *Design and Access Statement* has been recognised as a compulsory part of what must be considered when making a planning application (LCC, 2016c). The Design and Access Statements which are required to be concise and detailed should reflect some of the additional advice, guidance principles and concepts by CABE that have been applied to particular aspects of the proposal (LCC, 2016c). These are the use; amount; layout; scale; landscaping and appearance of the development (LCC, 2016c).

In the current planning application process of Liverpool City Council, after the applications have been registered there is validation stage in which all the documents attached to the planning applications including the design and access statements are reviewed to establish if they have sufficient information which could support the planning authorities' judgments and decisions (LCC, 2016d). After validation each planning application follows 'statutory processing procedures' (LCC, 2016d). There would normally be a 21 days' time limit for comments and during this time the application is open to public inspection. Figure 4.6 shows the planning application process within Liverpool City Council.

The relevance of the discussions in this section to this case study could be justified by explaining that in order to understand urban design for this case study it is important to understand the previous tools as well as the current tools in the city of Liverpool with regard to urban design. Also it may be helpful for understanding the process of change in the attitude of the city towards urban design and consequently the planning culture within the city for urban design. In addition, the above arguments could be useful for making the chronological order of this sub-chapter more complete.

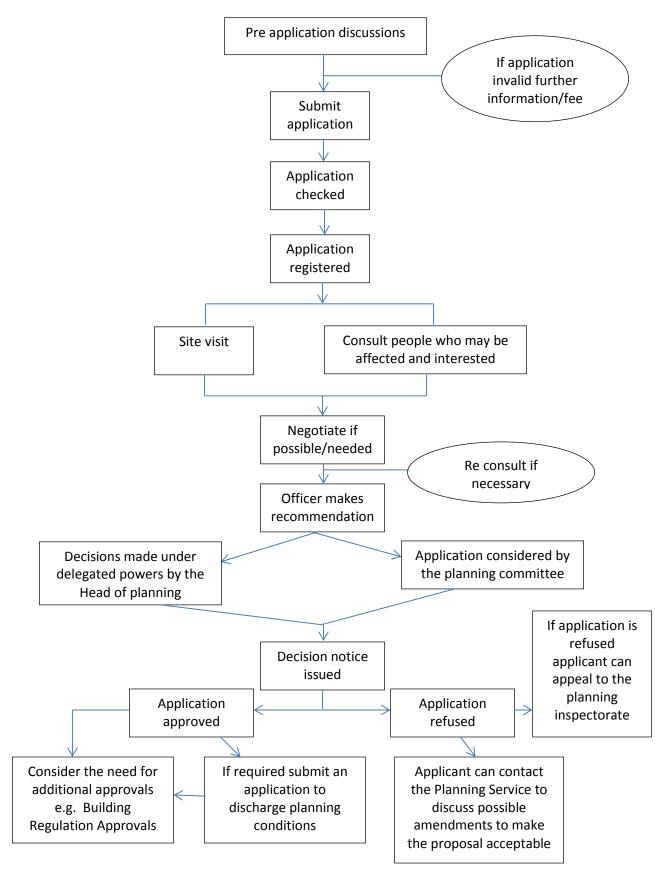


Figure 4.6. Planning Application Process in Liverpool City Council. Source: LCC, 2016e.

To explain the economic development in Liverpool, it should be noted that policy GEN9 in the Liverpool Unitary Development plan 2002, later to be replaced in the subsequent Liverpool Core Strategy, indicated that 'the Plan aims to maintain and enhance the City Centre's role and function as a regional centre by:

- i. furthering economic development;
- ii. securing new retail investment in the Main Retail Area;
- iii. promoting the development of the Paradise Street Development Area;
- iv. improving access and circulation;
- v. enhancing the living environment;
- vi. improving the general physical environment; and
- vii. promoting, marketing and gathering of information' (The City of Liverpool, 2002: 42).

One important factor is that this plan explained that the economic performance of the city centre is crucial to the economic wellbeing of the city as a whole. Therefore, this plan indicated that the major areas of change in the city would be in five economic regeneration areas, and particularly the city centre, noting that 'it is the success of these changes that will influence Liverpool's economic revival into the next century'. These five areas were identified as the city centre, waterfront and docks and hinterland, eastern corridor, Speke/Garston, Glilmoss/Fazakerley/Aintree (The City of Liverpool, 2002: 43).

This plan predicted that the City Council's objectives for the city centre 'will complement private sector initiatives resulting in improved business confidence and a better environment for shoppers' (The City of Liverpool, 2002: 201).

There are two influential documents with reference to the current retail area of Liverpool city centre: Liverpool Retail and Commercial Leisure study 2011 by GL Hearn which was commissioned for the council and Liverpool City Council- a Strategy for the Main Retail Area in 2011. These documents will not be discussed in this research as its main focus is on the design aspects of the planning of the Liverpool One development rather than subsequent retail policy for the city.

4.2.3. Planning, urban design and development process

Master plan, urban design and development objectives

According to the development director of the Liverpool One and Paradise Street project, the main theme and idea behind the master plan for Grosvenor was to take Belgravia and Mayfair in London as examples to use for the Liverpool One project (Interview 6, 2015). The question for them at that time was: should Liverpool One be more like Belgravia, where the buildings were designed to be of high quality and the value increasing constantly, or should it be more like Mayfair, where the height and size of buildings was restricted. In addition, in Mayfair and unlike Belgravia, the buildings have changed over time and although the area is not as beautiful as Belgravia in urbanistic terms, as Liverpool One's development director suggested, 'it had more energy' (Interview 6, 2015). The decision taken was that Grosvenor wanted a place more like Mayfair because they wanted all the buildings to change and they wanted to have as many people as possible designing different buildings (Interview 6, 2015). When they finished a formal master plan they engaged 26 architecture firms to design different buildings on the Liverpool One site (Interview 6, 2015; Taylor, 2009). During the Paradise Street project Grosvenor knew they wanted to have an open-air shopping centre and one of the main reasons for that was that they wanted to have something that would increase in value and they realised that shops that open directly onto the streets have more value than shops in a shopping centre (Interview 6, 2015).

The Master plan of this development was designed and planned by BDP and Grosvenor; it consists of (six) concepts and characteristic areas (all Interviews of Liverpool One, 2015; Taylor, 2009). One important factor that helped Grosvenor in developing this area was a high quality brief that was given to them by the city council. The emphasis of this brief was on making good linkages and connections into the adjacent areas of the city. Moreover, they outlined that permeability as well as making the development workable with 'the grain of the city' were very important to them (Taylor, 2009: 44). Parker and Garnell (2006: 300) note that one of the things that the city council needed to be assured of was that the main retail area would remain protected and that it would therefore be strengthened, not endangered, by the Paradise Street Development. What the council needed to do was 'to separate its core function, both as a land owner and a local planning authority' (Parker and

Garnell, 2006: 301). In addition, as Parker and Garnell (2006: 301) argue; as the local planning authority, Liverpool City Council prepared additional planning guidance in the form of a planning framework which was endorsed by the council in 1999 after lots of public consultation. This was put into the draft Liverpool Unitary Development Plan (Parker and Garnell, 2006: 301).

The Director of Architecture at BDP at the time of the Paradise Street Development explained that the master plan was about integrating into the urban fabric as well as making sure that people would move around the centre easily (Interview 5, 2015). The Landscape Group Leader at BDP stated that because of the tram project which did not happen; the design in the master plan was adapted and was evolved to ensure the failure of the tram project was not a great loss to the city centre (Interview 4, 2015). Figure 4.7 shows one of the key initial diagrams of the project which were carried through and executed in the final scheme.

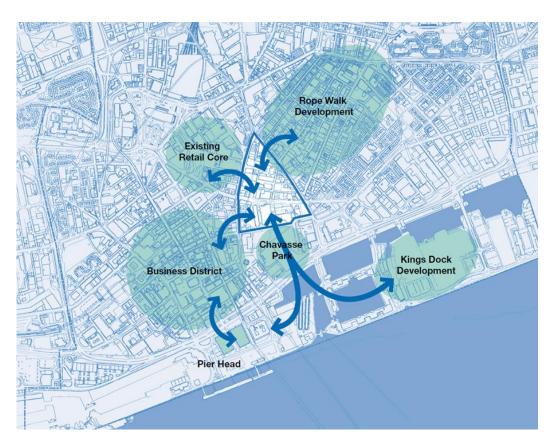


Figure 4.7. Zones of influence, analysis of BDP. Source: Taylor, 2009: 32.

A study of retail potential in Liverpool which was produced by Healy and Baker in 1998 for the City Council was very important for the master plan, as it was based on and reflected many of the principles and issues in this report. One of the other main requirements of the City Council was to have a *single and one phase scheme* because they were concerned about any potential developers perhaps walking away from the development in the middle (Biddulph, 2011: 86; all Interviews of Liverpool One, 2015). In addition to this and as Interviewee 6 mentioned, 'Grosvenor group don't own the land'. This interviewee indicated that they put the land together and gave it to City Council and later the Council leased it to Grosvenor and its partners for 250 years with a pre-requirement that it all had to be done at one phase' (interview 6, 2015).

The master plan of this development was based on increasing footprint and decreasing walking distances between three main anchor stores: M&S, John Lewis, and Debenhams (as shown in Figure 4.8). According to Biddulph (2011: 86), this led to development of new arcade (Figure 4.9) breaking through Church Street and was constrained in scale by the location of the Bluecoat Chamber (oldest building in the centre).

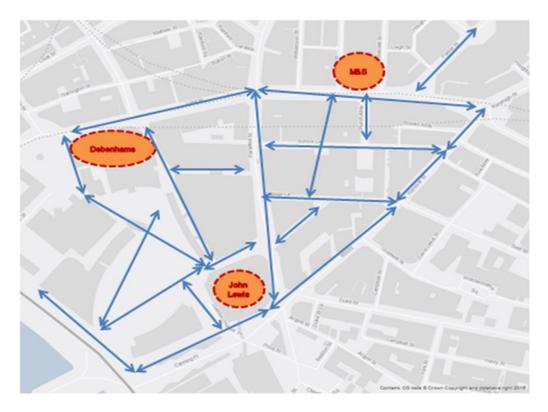


Figure 4.8. The connectivity map in the Paradise Street Development, indicating the shortest walking distances between the anchor stores. Source: the author, 2016.



Figure 4.9. The top photos and the left photo at the bottom show the arcade breaking through Church Street into School Lane. The bottom- right photo shows the Bluecoat Chamber art gallery. Source: the author, 2016.

In order to maximise the potential of the site, this scheme had to move people through a number of levels (Biddulph, 2011: 87). The plan comprises of ground level and first floor levels of shops, (Figure 4.12), and a second level which is a mixture of restaurants, leisure, other facilities and an open public space (park). Lifts and escalators are used so that people can easily move between the levels. One part of the master plan is Chavasse Park (see Figure 4.10) which is built over the car park. The landscape designers and architects considered design and access guidelines for making the park accessible and also safe (Interview 9, 2015). In so doing they tried to create unity and the main idea and theme was to try to have an ellipse of light (Interviews 3 and 9 and 10, 2015).

The original master plan was, according to Biddulph (2011: 87), 'extremely prescriptive and contained details of building heights, uses and floor areas'. This master plan was used as a basis for a compulsory purchase order. After the brief for the master plan was created, Grosvenor and the City Council selected the architects. They all collaborated together to ensure the completion of project (Interview 2, 2015;

Biddulph, 2011). Projects and schemes were submitted to 'a special working group of councillors rather than the full planning committee' (Biddulph, 2011: 87).

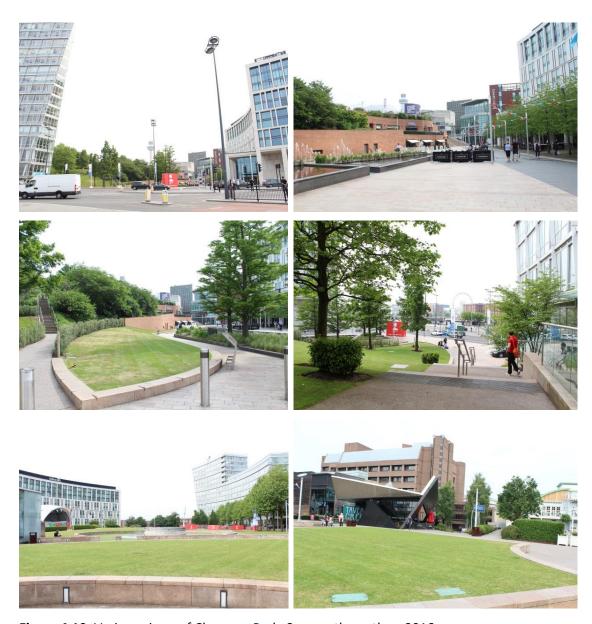


Figure 4.10. Various views of Chavasse Park. Source: the author, 2016.

The master plan of this development intended to connect the fragmented parts of the centre together. One of the main areas was the Albert Dock and the waterfront area; the master plan was designed in a way so that it could stitch the main retail area of Liverpool to the waterfront and Albert Dock attraction areas (see Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.11) (all the Interviewees contacted and interviewed in relation to Liverpool One, 2015).



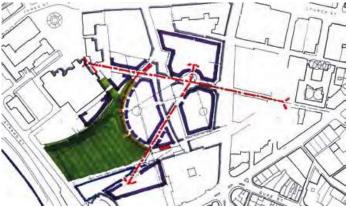


Figure 4.11. Top picture is an integrated three dimensional model of Liverpool One master plan by BDP; Bottom picture shows the connectivity between the emerging proposals and existing city context in the master plan Source: Taylor, 2009: 49, 61.

Position of urban design within the planning process of Liverpool One

The planning and design processes for the Paradise Street developments, especially at the master planning stage as mentioned above, was very collaborative. According to an interviewee from Liverpool City Council, 'the master plan was flexible which was about scale, the mass, the layout. In terms of conforming to the codes they left it flexible and easy; moreover, they left it deliberately open so designers could put [in] ideas and then they integrate[d] those ideas' (Interview 1, 2015). There were design meetings every two weeks, as well as other activities such as workshops, consultations, meeting teams, meeting politicians' working groups, and meeting with the public. There were many people who had the right and 'were at the position to say this is what Liverpool needed', so were always listening to other ideas (Interview 1, 2015).

The development director from Grosvenor explained that:

The master plan would be not just zoning but an outline plan that every component and each 35 units would be defined by their heights, usage, footprint, access and the size of units. All these requirements were annexes of the master plan. So the master plan was given outline planning but we could not change anything without going back to the planning departments... All the needs like lighting etc. were in documents which we needed to follow. So between the time we started and finished we rarely changed anything on that master plan... [There were lots of meetings held with political groups and the Mayor and all sorts of people.] When we all agreed with each other, then we went with the design.

(Interview 6, 2015).

The role of the City Council within the planning and urban design processes of this development was very important. Parker and Garnell (2006: 295) noted that the Council was playing a crucial role in regard to the regeneration of the city. They also suggested that the appointment of a new managerial and political structure within Liverpool City Council was a significant factor for improving investor confidence (Parker and Garnell, 2006: 295). The Council appointed a dedicated urban designer to work on its behalf with the development team. This urban designer was responsible for ensuring urban design qualities were being delivered during the design process (Biddulph, 2011: 87). This responsibility was divided between the developer (Grosvenor) and the individual urban designer employed by the Council.

It can therefore be concluded that this was a very important partnership between the two. Moreover, the fact that projects were being submitted to a group of councillors, instead of going through the whole planning committee, was probably influential in terms of making the process speedier (Interviews 2 and 14, 2015). Furthermore, holding design competitions during the planning and design processes meant that the project was very welcoming to new ideas (Interview 14, 2015).

Philosophies and attitudes of the actors involved in the planning and urban design processes

One of the main questions here is what constitutes good urban design? Although the answer to this question has been addressed (partly) in Chapter Two, for understanding the case of this study more specifically, it is necessary to look at urban

design principles as well as to discover the answer to this question from the actors' perspectives.

One way of defining good urban design, as the Development Director of Liverpool One believes, is to understand what a good city is

Hearts of cities or centres of cities are where the most intensive and creative activities would take place. When the heart is healthy, creative and positive, then it invites the city to be healthy and when the city becomes healthy then the region which that city is located in is healthy and then the country would become healthy but if a city centre is failing and imploding then the city will decay and the whole city region is failing and the country will fail.

(Interview 6, 2015).

In order to have a good city the right ingredients are also needed. These ingredients are 'something that responds to local context' (Interview 5, 2015). These ingredients could be and should be related to 'healthy economies, universities, successful hospitals, commercial activators, innovators, entrepreneurs, creative and artistic people, good places where people can meet (restaurants), good quality houses, attractive city centres and (open spaces, planted spaces, fountains), and Museums (making awareness of a city's development and culture)' (Interview 6, 2015).

In order to have a good urban design, the estate director and manger at the Liverpool One discussed 'the designers have to prioritize what the use is and how people are going to respond to the environment and making sure that people are at ease and then how their design evolves around that' (Interview 10, 2015). In addition, and according to Interviewee 2 - who was responsible for producing an urban design guide for Liverpool, a good urban design 'happens in different spatial levels', therefore the planners should be aware of different spatial levels.

A good urban design which is one of the main features of a good place adds legibility to the environment. It should 'create identity, celebrate local culture, character and human heritage, and understand that each place is different and celebrate those differences' (Interview 1, 2015). There seemed to be a consensus amongst all the interviewees of Liverpool One that a good urban design and a good place should try to create a coherent pole where everything stitches together properly. Moreover, good design would act as an encouragement to people to use and enjoy the place and

would bring comfort to them (all the Interviewees contacted and interviewed in relation to Liverpool One, 2015).



Figure 4.12. Top photos: views of South John Street (Liverpool One from the top floor), Bottom pictures: top level where the restaurants and the park are located. Source: the author, 2016.

People are one of the key components of each place and its development, and this issue was noticed in all the interviews and reviews. It is difficult to give one single definition of good urban design because people who work in different professions such as planning, urban design, and architecture, have each got different views on the subject. However, within the course of this research and during the interviews and document reviews, it has been noticed that in order to give a definition one needs to pay attention to the following general ideas and principles:

- Place and the context,
- People and the usage of the place,
- Psychology and what is being perceived from that particular place,
- Character and identity of that place (Heritage and culture), and how that place is working (Is it working as a pole? is it balanced?)

- And last but not least, design related principles (e.g. legibility, permeability, etc.).

Evaluation of the Liverpool One project

The Paradise Street Development Area (Liverpool One) has won over 60 awards including the International Council of Shopping Centres award: The Best of The Best award and The Green Flag award for Chavasse Park (Grosvenor Website, 2016).

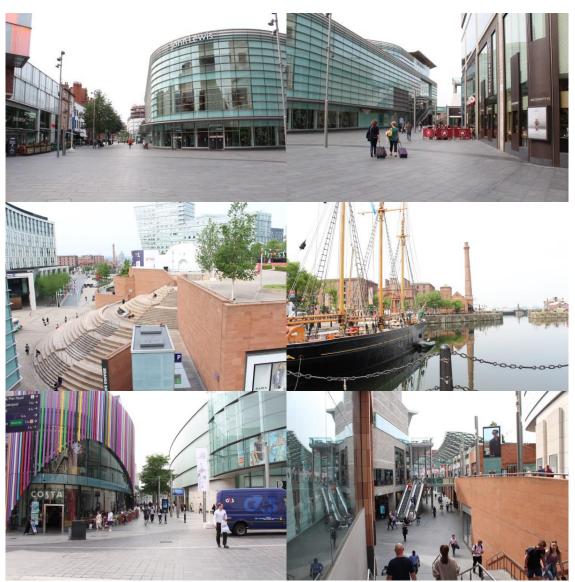


Figure 4.13. Top pictures: different views of John Lewis Store from Paradise Street, Middle Picture left: the entrance to Albert dock, Middle right: the Albert Dock, Bottom pictures: entrance to Liverpool One from Lord Street. Source: the author, 2016.

This project has been successful in creating a mixture of uses, retail and leisure facilities. It has also created an urban quarter within the centre of Liverpool. In addition the Paradise Street Development has worked as a catalyst for further regeneration in the centre. It has invented an urban hub which stitches different parts of the centre together for instance the waterfront area and the rest of centre. This project has been designed in a way that would make it easy to go through different parts of the centre and end up in Liverpool One without even realising it (Interviews 2 and 14 and 10, 2015).

One other factor that can be used as evidence for the success of this development is that it sits well within the urban fabric of the centre. Moreover, if one assesses and examines the project against general urban design principles such as legibility, permeability, connectivity and ease of movement, diversity and mixture of uses, high quality urban design, it again suggests that the project has been a success. As it is evident from Figure 4.14, the Liverpool One project has increased permeability, legibility, and ease of movement within the city centre area. Furthermore, and as can be seen in Figure 4.14, this project has created a number of new landmarks and whilst also helping the existing landmarks of the centre to be seen by increasing their permeability and legibility. Figure 4.14 also shows the major viewpoints, nodes, and the pedestrian routes as well as main public transport stations for the city centre and Liverpool One project.

Despite the fact that the individual buildings have been designed by different architects, they complement each other. Further, although the architecture or design of the building might appear ordinary looking, if one views these buildings as a complex they function and working well together. The use of symbols for representing Liverpool One as well as the use of signs are one other contributing factor that adds to the positive side of the Liverpool One project (as it can be seen from Figure 4.15).

Apart from the physical success of the area, the planning and design processes of this project were also important. These latter points are important to note within the confines of this thesis because they resulted in pushing design principles as positive factors into different stages especially the master planning stage. The success of the planning and design processes for this project mainly centred upon the facts that they

did not rely on one actor such as the developer and were instead formed in a partnership, consensus and collaboration between different actors and stakeholders. In addition both the Council and the developer understood each other in terms of the requirements and other aspects that were critical to the success of the plan such as the characteristic and nature of Liverpool city centre.

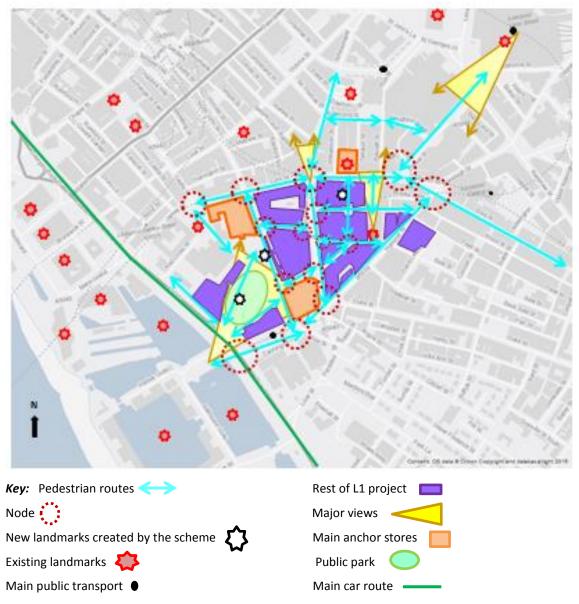


Figure 4.14. A visual map of Liverpool One inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of image of the city. Source: the author, 2016.

Public engagement and seeking public opinion throughout the whole planning and design process is other important factor to consider because they increased the

chances of creativity and positive intervention by making every idea welcome (Interviews 2 and 6, 2015).





Figure 4.15. The use of symbols and signs photos from Strand Street. Source: the author, 2016.

With regard to the approach adopted by the City Council for this project; probably the word 'revolution of urban design', is an appropriate word as 'Liverpool City Council tried to be more business facing and investment friendly' and it seems 'that city centre has received a diverse range of investment' (Biddulph, 2011: 97). In addition, the Liverpool One project opened at the time when the 2008 recession was happening and 'helped Liverpool to see the worst time economic crises, as an investment for the city it had positive outcome' (Interview 10, 2015). Therefore 'the economic context did play a role in this project moreover given the climate, now it would not have happened the same way, again'. The commercial outcome of this project was what Grosvenor wanted and Grosvenor still manages and maintains Liverpool One (Interview 10, 2015). Good planning at the start and acknowledgment of the quality required throughout the project building are further factors that made Liverpool One a successful place.

Like any other development the story of Liverpool One's success is not perfect. It has some negative factors and can be criticised for the following reasons:

- The issue of the privatisation of public space -being an open shopping street suggests publicness but these streets are being managed internally to meet the needs of property owners (Biddulph, 2011: 89).
- The fact that the scheme used a variety of architects in order to have diversity and avoid ending up with signature buildings which can be criticised as not being very memorable, iconic or unique.
- The issue that the scheme land purchase was through the compulsory purchase power which is unacceptable to wider non consumer public interests (Biddulph, 2011: 89).
- The question of how the scheme sits in relation to the wider regeneration of the city, and whether the city is focused too much on the centre still remain unanswered (Sykes et al., 2013).

4.2.4. Summary

The Paradise Street Development Area (Liverpool One project) has transformed 'attitudes to the city and paved the way for further regeneration' (Anderson and Ramchurn, 2013: 12). The Liverpool One project has improved the permeability and legibility of the city centre, and in so doing has connected different parts of the city centre, particularly the waterfront area and the existing retail area in the centre. Liverpool One has moved from delivering and ensuring design quality to its current stage of management and maintenance of the space in terms of physical design, public realm, and making or keeping the retail space more desirable (in retail terms) to its visitors and customers (Interview 10, 2015).

The Liverpool One project emerged at the time when significant changes with regard to the attitudes and politics of the City Council - especially with reference to urban design; were happening. Moreover, this project was coincided with the changes in the attitudes of England's national planning system towards urban design. The regeneration and conservation of the Albert Docks during the 1980s worked as a catalyst for further regeneration in the city. As a result two very influential bodies

were established: the Merseyside Task Force (MTF), and the Merseyside Development Corporation (MDC). The establishment of MTF and MDC encouraged and started a period of change and transformation for both the physical environment and the mind-set that reflected the planning culture in the city. For instance in 1993 Urban Splash was established and was the company that later regenerated key buildings in the Ropewalks development area (see Figure 4.4) in the city centre.

In addition the Liverpool One project benefitted from the urban renaissance regime of the 1990s and 2000s. The establishment of the two most influential documents at the national level during these times: the *Urban Task Force* (UTF) report and CABE's *By Design* later in the 2000s, was also important for the city as both of these documents enforced a significant change in the attitude of planners in the city towards urban design. One example of the implication of the UTF for instance was the selection of a Design Champion which, in the case of Liverpool, was a local councillor. The responsibility of the Design Champion was to promote and improve urban design standards and knowledge within the city. It can be concluded that this appointment as well as both the UTF and *By Design* documents gradually changed the planning and urban design culture in Liverpool.

Liverpool Vision also produced a series of influential documents which were effective for the whole city centre area as well as the Liverpool One project. These documents were the Strategic Regeneration Framework which aimed at improving the planning and design of the whole centre of Liverpool and the Liverpool City Centre Movement Strategy. Both of these documents as well as Liverpool Vision itself were very important for raising urban design principles, qualities and standards in the city.

The recognition of the importance of culture and place by the agencies that were involved in the renaissance of Liverpool (centre); and their understanding of the fact that place and culture are assets shaped by history and identity of a place, also played a crucial role in transforming Liverpool (Shaw et al., 2009: 124).

The Liverpool One project is an example of a retail led regeneration project that has transformed the image of the city. The planning process of the Liverpool One project was collaborative and within it urban design ideas and principles were crucial. The Planning process of the Liverpool One project was very active in terms of engaging

urban designers and other main actors. An example of this active engagement was the urban design and architecture competitions (which might be the case for every planning process in democratic societies, but what made Liverpool One slightly different was the insistence of developer in having a variety of buildings and architecture instead of having just one signature architect).

For this planning process the role of developer and their understanding of both the context and concept of the area and the city were very important. Moreover some factors in the planning culture and planning system of the city council and Liverpool city were very important for the urban design of the project. For instance, the clear and flexible guidelines and codes that were provided by the city council and Liverpool Vision, the appointment of an specific urban designer by the city council who gave consultancy services to the developer and had frequent (urban designoriented) meetings with the actors involved in this project, as well as the focus of the council on the appropriateness of the scheme and creating a place which does not disturb the existing shopping district in the centre. Figure 4.16 summarises the stages of the planning process and the urban design related activities at these stages, as well as noting the most influential actors involved in these stages.

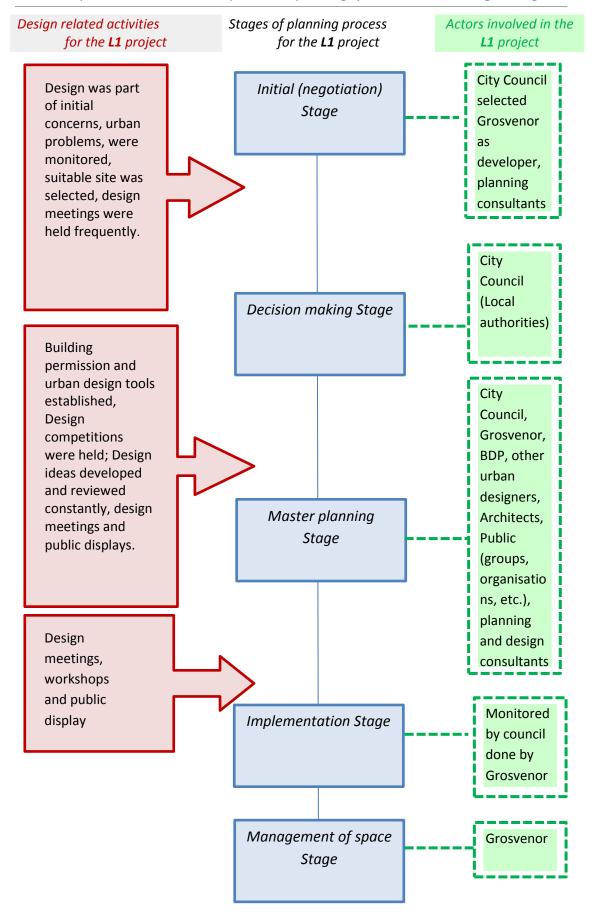


Figure 4.16. A simplified summary of the planning process of the Liverpool One project. Source: author.

4.3. Westfield London

This section of Chapter Four presents the second English embedded case study: Westfield London and its immediate environment in the White City Opportunity Area.

London has experienced and faced many urban transformations and phases of regeneration. This city has transformed itself from 'a declining industrial city to its current status as an iconic centre of global financial and cultural flows' (Imrie et al., 2009: 40). The history of place-shaping in the city indicates that a network of uncoordinated actors has shaped or reshaped the city (Carmona, 2014: 12). For instance, in Central London, which was re-planned during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as well as in the 21st century, 'a city fabric almost unique to the city emerged' (Wray, 2016: 173). However 'the lead certainly did not, and does not, come from state direction or control' (Wray, 2016: 173).

The history of place-shaping in the city also suggests that in the processes of placeshaping large landowners and powerful developers have often taken the lead, 'guided by market opportunity, a light-touch regulatory process and a fragmented state that has often been reluctant or incapable of investing directly in the infrastructure of the city itself' (Carmona, 2014: 12). For instance, as Wray (2016: 174) notes, London was shaped by 'the forces of individual objection and individual land ownership, subtly modulated by regulation and the rule of law'. This pattern of the great estate which shaped the urban and developed form of inner London still continues today. The great estates are growing and not shrinking, but the new landlords are more interested and focused on the regeneration and redevelopment of declined areas such as King's Cross and St Pancras (Wray, 2016: 175). These factors have characterised the process of place-shaping in the city and still continue to do so (Carmona, 2014: 12). In addition, London was shaped by an uncoordinated, fragmented and weak regulatory system which resulted in the design of some of the spaces within the city, be they either 'created during un-self-conscious design processes (e.g. London's historic market spaces), designed for private purposes (e.g. the garden squares), or have evolved into their present role from an initial, far more staid and largely representational purpose (e.g. London's civic set pieces)' (Carmona, 2014: 12).

The case study of Westfield London, which is located in the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and is a close neighbour of Shepherd's Bush town in West London, which is one of the many regeneration areas in London. This project which is a mega-retail-led regeneration scheme (Lee, 2013: 75), emerged at a time when at the national level, urban regeneration schemes were being used as a means for marketing and developing urban areas, mainly because the UK's urban governance changed and moved towards urban entrepreneurialism (Lee, 2013: 75).

4.3.1. Westfield London and its immediate environment (within the White City East Opportunity Area)

This case study consists of the Westfield London retail and leisure centre and the Westfield London extension plan in the White City East Opportunity Area (see Figure 4.17 and Figure 4.18). London Westfield (Number 7 in Figure 4.18) was opened in 2008 but the extension plan (Number 8 in Figure 4.18) for this centre was approved by Hammersmith and Fulham Council (H & F council) in 2012 and, to date is still under construction. Figure 4.17 shows the precise boundaries of this case study. This area is bounded by West Cross Road, Uxbridge Road and Wood Lane (Figure 4.17).

Westfield London has a retail floor size of approximately 157, 810 sqm; the project has 5 anchor stores: Debenhams, Next, Marks and Spencer, House of Fraser, and Waitrose. In addition, it has over 300 luxury, premium, and high street retailers from more than 15 different countries. In 2014, Westfield London attracted footfall of 27.5 million and achieved retail sales of £995.7 million (Westfield London, 2017). Westfield London has also got a feature called The Village, with luxury brands. The cost of building the Westfield London project is projected to be £1.6 bn (Harris, 2008).



Figure 4.17. Map of Westfield London and its immediate environment within White City East area. Source: adapted from Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2016; adapted by author, 2016.

The site of Westfield London and its immediate environment before intervention

Early developments in this area started in the nineteenth century. The White City East Opportunity Area was originally largely farmland but by the end of the century this pattern had been changed by the building and expansion of the railway network (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham, and Mayor of London, 2013: 44). As a result of these new transport links in the beginning of the twentieth century, the area was turned into a leisure place for West London and also has some relatively dense Victorian houses which are still the dominant character of housing in the area (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham, and Mayor of London, 2013: 44). In 1908 the first series of international exhibitions, the Franco-British Exhibition was held in west Wood Lane, the name 'White City' came from these days mainly because the temporary structure and buildings within which this exhibition was held were constructed of in white painted stucco (London Borough of Hammersmith and

Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 44). As Black (2008) notes, the White City area under the direction of Imre Kiralfy was turned into "the architectural equivalent of wedding cake". As a result of Kiralfy's help and direction further developments were made in the area:

Pavilions, an Irish village, lakes, canals, scenic railways, toboggan slides. When Rome backed out of the Olympics on grounds of expense, Kiralfy added a stadium in time for the games. White City mounted several more great exhibitions before the First World War and went on mounting smaller ones after Kiralfy's death in 1919 (Black, 2008).

This exhibition attracted many visitors to the area; the grounds of this exhibition hosted and featured a number of roads, bridges, and as mentioned before, the 1908 Olympic Stadium. This exhibition and its temporary structures were continued until late 1930s (London Borough of Hammersmith & Fulham & Mayor of London, 2013: 44). After the 1930s, this area stood empty for a while until in the 1990s when it was demolished (Glancey, 2008). Today what is left for this area from its past are the diagonal road alignment between the White City estate, BBC Media village (see numbers 2 and 4 in figure 4.18) and the grounds of Hammersmith Park (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 44). Two other important features of this area were: 1. the building and of West way motorway (see Figure 4.17) and also the West Cross route in the late 1960s;

and 2. the expansion of BBC Television Centre to a media village which resulted in the demolishment of the White City stadium (London Borough of Hammersmith & Fulham & Mayor of London, 2013:46). Most of the White City east is within the Wood Lane Conservation Area. There are two Grade II Listed Buildings, one is the BBC TV Centre and the other is the DIMCO building which is a former electricity generation station (see Numbers 4 and 8 in Figure 4.18). The site of Westfield London was previously a railway siding yard (all Interviews of Westfield London, 2015 and 2016).

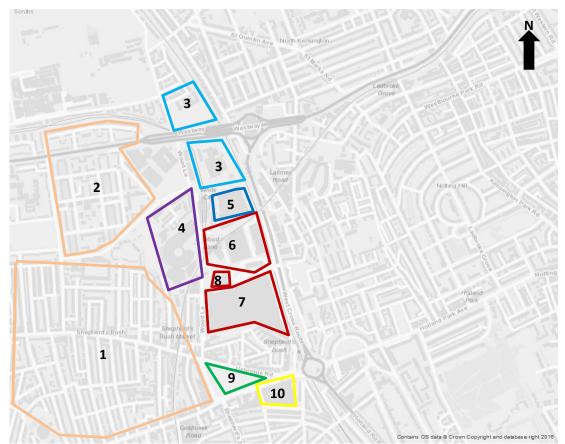


Figure 4.18. A map of different sites within the White City East area. Source: the author, 2016.

Key: Different sites within the White City East Opportunity Area and Shepherds Bush area are: 1. Shepherds Bush area and Shepherds Bush market, 2. White City estate (residential area), 3. Imperial college development sites, 4.BBC media village site, 5. Dairy co warehouse site, 6. Westfield London Extension site, 7. Westfield London, 8. DIMCO building, 9. Shepherds Bush Green, 10. West 12 centre.

A timeline of planning and decision making for the site of Westfield London and its immediate environment

The process of planning and designing Westfield London took some 20 years (Falk, 2010: 3). In the 1990s the Chelsfield Group who were the land owners of the current site of Westfield London were amongst many investors interested in the area. The Chelsfield Group started to work with the Hammersmith and Fulham Council and considered plans and projects that could be achieved in the area (Interview 7, 2015). In the end, the Chelsfield Group submitted their planning application to the Hammersmith and Fulham Council and got approval from the Council (Interview 7, 2015). Ian Ritchie Architects were commissioned by the Chelsfield group as master planners and architects for the site (Ritchie, 2016).

In later years the main contractor and developer changed to a consortium company called Multiplex group. As a result of this, the design objectives changed and they sought to get planning approval (Interview 7 and 8, 2015; Interview 15, 2016). During these years Ian Ritchie's Architects were again working on the master plan. In 2004 the developer changed again and Westfield group, an Australian company, became responsible for developing the site. They thought of some changes to the project and this happened at the same time as building preparation, foundation and infrastructure works for the rail line (at the shepherds bush over ground and underground stations) (Interview 8, 2015; Black, 2008). In 2005-2006 Westfield changed the design and got planning approval. Then they made contracts with variety of urban designers and Architects, and from 2006-2007 most of the building works were completed and the retail centre opened later in 2008.

After the opening of the centre, the Westfield Group, with the help of Allies and Morrison as master planners, were granted an outline planning approval by the Hammersmith and Fulham Council in 2012 for the extension of the centre, including the building a new anchor store (John Lewis), as well as, the creation of a retail led residential developments providing around 1500 residential units (Allies and Morrison, 2016).

Other parts of the White City Opportunity Area were also getting prepared for further developments such as when Imperial College acquired a part of Wood Lane to build academic and mixed use developments in 2009, or the BBC Television centre which was acquired by Stanhope in 2012 (Interview 20, 2016 and Figure 4.19). Imperial College, Stanhope, Westfield, St Jones have planning permission for most of their acquired sites within the Opportunity Area and are expected to complete their developments within the coming years (Interview 20, 2016).

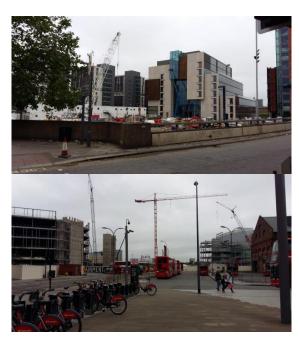




Figure 4.19. Top picture left: shows the constructions on Imperial College site, top picture right: shows the constructions on the site of BBC Media Village. Bottom pictures: show the constructions on the site of Westfield extension. Source: the author, 2016.

4.3.2. Planning and urban design (attitudes and policy context)

This section intends to give a brief history on the urban change and most importantly urban ideas or plans for London. Moreover this section introduces the policy context, instruments as well as attitudes with regard to urban design and planning at three levels of London, London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and the embedded case study of Westfield London and its extension parts.

Urban change and urban planning in London was a significant part of the 18th century when London expanded (Carmona & Wunderlich, 2012: 13). This expansion continued in nineteenth and twentieth centuries, in which London experienced so many urban problems such as sprawl. As it was recognised by Thomas Hall (1997: 91) the city had grown up without any particular control and there was a division between the west end and east end of the city. All of these had made London 'the largest and most sprawling metropolitan area' the world had seen (Hall, 1997: 91). The expansion of railway network was seen as a solution to tackle: the sprawl problems, the industrialisation problems and later the industrial decline; however this extension of railway networks; resulted in further urban sprawl while it also provided

more opportunity for developments in the city (Hall, 2002: 62; Garside, 1984: 229). The urban problems of London have inspired many other ideas; one of the most notable ones was the Garden City of Tomorrow. As Thomas Hall contends London's problems 'have provoked London's most important contribution to the town planning creed, namely Ebenezer Howard's Garden Cities of Tomorrow' (Hall, 1997: 91).

Some of the most influential plans for London were created after the Second World War period when London was in desperate need for planning as it had been bombed massively during the war. For instance in 1942, the MARS plan was developed for the city by the Modern Architecture Research Group; this plan principal publication was as a 10,000-word 'description and analysis' in the Architectural Review (Korn and Samuely, 1942) and a public exhibition: the full plan *per se* was never published (Larkham and Adams, 2011: 10). 'The plan's comb-like linear structure prioritised rail transport rather than road; reorganised industrial location; and suggested a hierarchy of social units'(Larkham and Adams, 2011: 10). The importance of this unpublished plan lies in its introduction and promotion of neighbourhood units (Larkham and Adams, 2011: 11).

In addition to this, the city suffered from a lack of any overall plan, Patrick Abercrombie's plan was one of the most major plans advanced for the capital and it resulted in dramatic policy changes for the city (Carmona, 2014:12). The principles of the Greater London plan of 1945 were aimed at moving people from overcrowded London into largely right new satellite towns that were planned to be built beyond the green belt (Larkham and Adams, 2011: 7; Hall, 2002: 186). The broad aim of the plan was inspired by Howard's ideas and the method of the plan was inspired by Gedde's ideas (Hall and Tewder-Jones, 2011: 44). 'The plan's fundamental concerns were to control the haphazard growth of the capital city, to introduce a measure of decentralization, and to introduce controlled development of housing, industry and communications' (Larkham and Adams, 2011: 9). By 1949 all of the 8 new towns were designed and were going to be under the completion by mid-1960s (Hall, 2002: 186).

There were so many other influential plans for London, in regards to changing the policy context, the planning culture and governance; as well as in terms of creating

urban change and regenerations in the city such as Greater London Development Plan (GLDP) of 1969, or one of the most recent ones the 2004 London Plan that was prepared by Mayor Livingston's administration team. Moreover the creation of the Greater London Authority (GLA) was a new point for changes in the attitudes of London authorities towards planning of the city.

With regard to the Westfield case study the London Plan of 2004 was published at the same year in which the Westfield Group became the new investor and developer of the site. The London Plan of 2004 had some influence upon the developments of the White City area in which Westfield London is located. This 2004 plan encouraged the use of good urban design in policies: 4B.1 (Design principles for a compact city), 4B.2 (Promoting world class architecture and urban design), 4B.3 (Maximising the potential of the site), 4B.4 (Enhancing the quality of public realm), 4B.5 (Creating an inclusive environment), 4B.6 (Sustainable design and construction), along with issues regards to heritage conservation and local and cultural context addressed by policies 4B.7, 4B.11, and 4B.12 (Greater London Authority, 2004: 173 - 188).

The London Plan of 2004 also recognised the White City area as an Opportunity Area (Greater London Authority, 2004: 257). This plan mentioned the need for improvements of public transport which, as is discussed in 4.3.3, was one of the main contributions and objectives of the Westfield London master plan. This plan has, therefore, provided a general framework for the White City area.

The current planning framework and planning document for the city is the London Plan which was published in 2011 (updated 2016). This plan is a strategic spatial development plan for the Mayor, and sets an overarching and general framework for all the 33 London Boroughs (London Government, 2016). The purpose of this framework is to tackle the local issues within each borough effectively. All the local plans of the individual London Boroughs have conformed to the London Plan (London Government, 2016). One of the tasks and responsibilities of the Mayor is to keep reviewing the London Plan according to changing patterns and trends within the city. The London Plan has recognised some designated areas as Opportunity Areas. These are mostly brownfield lands that have potential and capacity for developments (London Government, 2016). The London Plan has also identified 7 Intensification

Areas which are defined as built up areas with good transport linkages and have the potential to support redevelopments at higher densities. These areas have a lower capacity for developments compared to the Opportunity Areas (London Government, 2016). The White City Opportunity area is one of the Opportunity areas within the London borough of Hammersmith and Fulham that have been recognised in the London Plan.

The top tier administrative body for Greater London is the Greater London Authority which consists of the Mayor of London and the London Assembly. The mayor has a legal right to reject development proposals within a borough if they are not in the interests of the city as a whole.

In order to understand this case the policies and guidelines of London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham are now considered.

Policy context of urban design and planning for the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham

In terms of guiding urban design within the Hammersmith and Fulham Borough, there are a number of important documents that shape the policy framework and guidelines for urban design in the borough. These guidelines are not solely for urban design but also cover aspects such as accessibility, conservation, and heritage.

From reviewing the Hammersmith and Fulham Council website, it is clear that urban design policies and guidelines are primarily included in three documents: the Core Strategy of the borough, the Development Management Local Plan and the Planning Guidance Supplementary Planning Document (SPD) (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2016a).

The Core Strategy document was adopted in 2011 and should therefore conform to the National Planning Policy Statement and the Regional Guidance in the London Plan (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2011). The White City Opportunity Area has been identified as one of the five key regeneration areas within the Core Strategy of the Borough. With regard to guiding urban design there is broad guidance in the Core Strategy; for instance in paragraph 7.19, some of the principles of urban design is encouraged such as permeability and connectivity (especially in the area of Wood Lane as a potential area which according to this document would affect the whole

borough as well as its surrounding areas) (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2011: 49). The Core Strategy suggests and encourages 'a holistic approach to design that considers what makes a place function and how buildings, public realm, land uses and movement patterns can combine to produce attractive, distinctive and safe areas that achieve the highest standards' (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2011: 121). The Core Strategy does not, however, establish detailed guidance on urban design; rather this issue is addressed in more detail by the Development Management Local Plan as well as the Planning Guidance Supplementary Planning Document (SPD) (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2011: 121).

The Development Management Local Plan of the Hammersmith and Fulham borough was adopted in 2013 and provides 8 policies in regards to design and conservation for the Borough: 1) design of new build, 2) tall buildings, 3) alternations and extensions, 4) shop fronts, 5) replacement windows, 6) views and landmarks of local importance, 7) heritage and conservation, 8) advertisement (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2013: 59). It seems that the level of detail for design policies in this document is less deep compared to that contained within the Planning Guidance Supplementary Planning Document (SPD). The SPD gives more detailed guidance on the application of policies and the policies within the SPD are applied when Hammersmith and Fulham council considers development proposals (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2013a: 9). Urban design related policies in SPD are under these categories: accessible and inclusive design, guidelines for light wells, shop front design, building regulations, building of merit, conservation area guidelines and archaeology (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2013a: 21-75).

Policy context of urban design and planning in Hammersmith and Fulham borough for the project of Westfield, its extension plans and wider area of White City Opportunity Area

For the whole White city East Opportunity Area apart from the London Plan, the Hammersmith and Fulham Core Strategy, Hammersmith and Fulham Local plan and Supplementary planning document; there is White City Opportunity Area Planning Framework which was produced in 2013 by the Hammersmith and Fulham Borough Council, Greater London Authority (GLA) and the Mayor of London. The White City Opportunity Area Planning Framework (OAPF) has provided guidance that

applies the London Plan and Hammersmith & Fulham core Strategy policies for White City and therefore it does not create any policy (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 18). This document has established guidance on land use, urban design, transport, social, community and leisure infrastructure, energy and environmental strategies and delivery and implementation in the White City (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013). This document looks at the implication of schemes in the White City: design impact, transport impact, infrastructure impact, etc. (Interview 20, 2016). The OAPF sits under the general strategic guidance of the London Plan and the more detailed guidance of the Hammersmith & Fulham Core Strategy (shown in Figure 4.20).

The urban design strategy of the White City Opportunity Area Planning Framework (OAPF) is based on the following main themes and principles: liveable, lifetime neighbourhoods, permeability and connectivity, and the public realm. In order to achieve these principles, White City OAPF has created three main objectives: 1. Creating areas of new public realm and open space, 2. Maximising connectivity, 3. Quality urban design that responds to context (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 56). These objectives are discussed in more detail in Box 4.2.

The White City OAPF has also created an indicative master plan (Figure 4.21) which illustrates these urban design objectives within the White City East area. This master plan intends to encourage individual schemes and developments to come up with cohesive design solutions for the challenges and problems within the area (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 58). According to the White City OAPF this master plan aims to provide assistance tools for considering development proposals and therefore 'it is not intended to be prescriptive' (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 58). The master plan not only considers the delivery of the 3 main design objectives but also takes into account each individual scheme and the works that have been done on each of them so far. It then tries to bring balance and integration between each development (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 58).

One of the big aspirations of the White City OAPF was to produce and create a north-south connection from the mall to the Imperial College site (Interview 21, 2016).

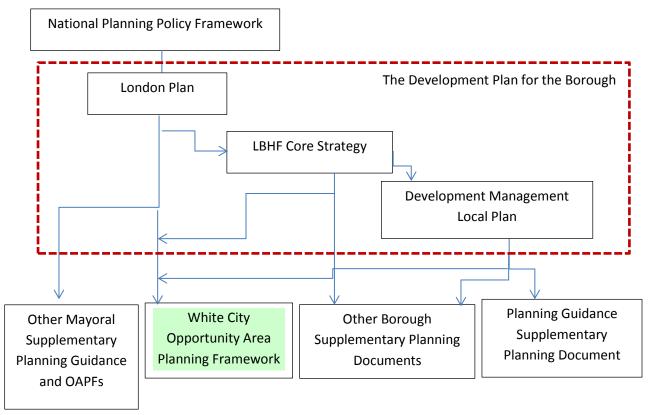


Figure 4.20. Policy Framework at the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham (The OAPF is highlighted in green). Source: London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 18.

Box 4.2. White City OAPF design objectives

Source: (London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 56).

Objective1. Creating areas of new public realm and open space:

- Seeking provision of high quality area of public space, preferably on each side of the Hammersmith and City Line viaduct, to give the area identity and provide a recreational space for shoppers, residents and workers.
- Providing smaller areas of open space which will enhance local character and distinctiveness and be clearly defined as private or shared amenity space.
- Integrating existing parks, open spaces and landscaping with new public realm.
- Providing play areas which reflect diverse needs.
- Provide ecological corridors to encourage rich biodiversity throughout the area.

Objective2. Maximising connectivity:

- Providing new linkages to overcome barriers created by the Westway, A3220, West London Line, the Central Line cutting and Hammersmith and City Line viaduct.
- Ensuring new developments should be permeable and existing buildings with large impermeable building footprints should provide new links through their sites to provide better connections to surrounding areas.
- Design new streets with active frontages and to be tree- lined with identified routes that will improve conditions for pedestrians and cyclists while reducing congestion.

Objective3. Quality urban design that responds to context:

- Provide the majority of buildings at a height of 6-10 storeys in the area to allow for a mix of uses, while also providing some lower rise terraces adjacent to existing neighbourhoods.
- Taller buildings would be more appropriate along the elevated Westway, where they would act as a point of identification for White City.
- Build upon the character of the surrounding high quality areas in West London and provide mansion block typologies for residential areas.
- Improve settings for the distinctive architectural and townscape features of the area including DIMCO, BBC TV Centre, the Westway and the Hammersmith and City Line viaduct.
- New retail should focus on shops within a shopping street typology.
- Provide a transition in sale of buildings from the town centre, moving north through White City East.
- Provide a flexible block plan that can accommodate, and be adapted to, a variety of building types, scales, sizes and variety of amenity spaces.

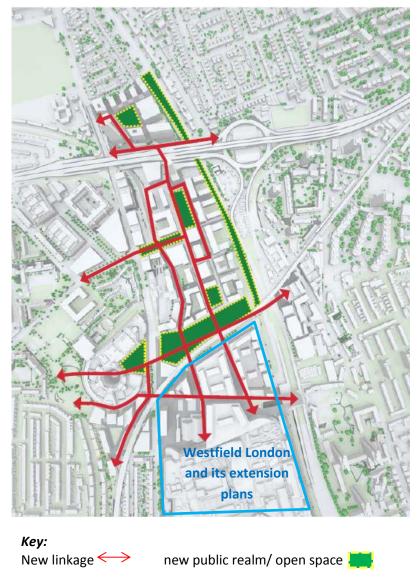


Figure 4.21. Indicative Master Plan of White City East. Source: adapted from London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and Mayor of London, 2013: 57.

For the development of Westfield London, there was a Unitary Development Plan for the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham which was adopted in 2003 (Interview 7, 2015). This Unitary Development Plan was a statutory development plan for the whole borough of Hammersmith and Fulham and was an alteration of the previous Unitary Development Plan of 1994 (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2016b). This document was one of the most important documents for guiding planning and urban design within the Westfield London project. There were a number of character profiles for the conservation areas which were published within the Unitary Development Plan as a form of very basic supplementary document

guidelines (Interview 7, 2015). In addition, the Hammersmith and Fulham Council has worked with the GLA and the Mayor of London's office to develop a supplementary planning document for White City area. This supplementary planning document sets out some of the principles and policies that were used to assess planning application in the area (Interview 20, 2016).

4.3.3. Planning and urban design process for Westfield London and its immediate surrounding area within White City East Area

As mentioned before a part of this case study has been developed already and the other part of it, which is the extension plans for Westfield London, is yet to be completed (see Figure 4.22).

Master plan, design and development objectives

One of the key design objectives for Westfield London was to create a premium shopping centre. According to an interview with an urban designer at the Westfield Group, 'when Westfield took over the shopping centre, they introduced more permeability and transport improvement to the scheme and they focused on connection. Only 20 percent of the people arrive in the centre come by car; almost 80 percent of people come by public transport' (Interview 15, 2016). One of the other objectives in accordance with the overall context in which Westfield was developed was to make this scheme contribute to, and be integrated into, its wider area and Shepherd's Bush town (Interviews 8 and 12, 2015). Westfield Shopping Centre is, on the one hand, an inward-looking shopping centre but, on the other hand, it sits in a dense part of Central London; therefore, achieving this objective was considered a challenge that they had to face (Interviews 8 and 12, 2015). In order to build 'a viable scheme that had a large enclosed shopping circuit to it' (Interviews 8 and 12, 2015), the Westfield Group was concerned about infrastructure expenses (and how to make up for all those expenses that they had already paid for infrastructure). Accordingly, their primary objective was

To create a retail scheme that works on every level from servicing to customary experience. One of the other objectives was to create and give back a great connectivity for the area. Inside the scheme itself, there was a planning provision for having a big central plaza and the planners were happy to either have that space indoors or outdoors; this requirement has created for Westfield an opportunity to make sure that space would be reactivated all the time.

(Interview 8, 2015).

One of the technical objectives and processes for Westfield London involved lowering the rail sidings underground which meant that there could not be a car park underground and therefore the developers had to raise the building by nine metres, giving 'a huge number of constraints to the building itself' (Interview 8, 2015).

The internal part of the Westfield Centre, as Black (2008) discussed, is designed based on the four, corner, anchor stores of Marks and Spencer, Debenhams, House of Fraser and Next - with hundreds of shops between, sheltering under a large glazed roof.

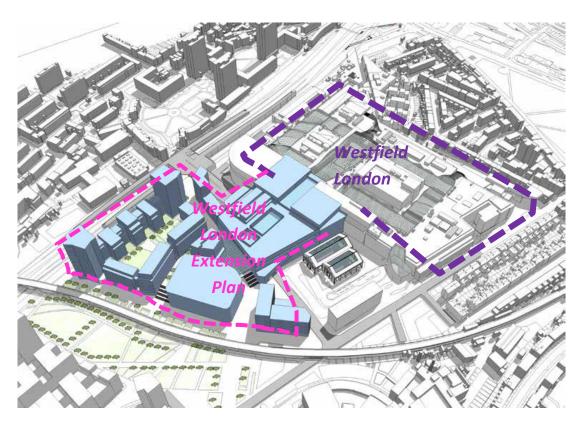


Figure 4.22. Westfield London and Its Extension. Source: adapted from Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2016; adapted by the author, 2016.

The design objectives and the main idea for the master plan of the Westfield extension, created by the collaboration of the Westfield Group and Allies and Morrison, are to extend the mall and the shops on either side, as well as to create an

anchor store for John Lewis (see Figures 4.22 and 4.23). Therefore, there are more shops and more configurations around the central spine. 'Westfield was seeking to satisfy the demands of its principal tenant John Lewis and ended up with design of residential blocks and units as well as two routes that would come to the John Lewis anchor store' (Interview 21, 2016). These plans have been approved only in the form of an outline planning permission and the master plan was revised again during engagement and discussions with John Lewis's needs (Interviews 20 and 21, 2016). John Lewis wanted to have a stand-alone building, mainly because they wanted to have a more independent identity (Interview 21, 2016). To be more specific, according to an urban designer at the Westfield Group, John Lewis stated in their brief to Allies and Morrison that they wanted 'a contemporary civic building' which would reflect their standing in the community, as 'they see themselves as the heart of community' (Interview 15, 2016).



Figure 4.23. Ariel view of a model of Westfield London and its extension's master plans in the White City East area. Source: Allies and Morrison, 2016.

With regards to the master plan of this extension, there was an issue that needs to be addressed. As mentioned before, for this extension plan there was only an outline

planning application. When the planning applications come through the Hammersmith and Fulham Council, they need to comply with a series of documents such as design and access statement and planning drawings which establish the applicant's vision and schemes (Interview 7, 2015). Moreover, apart from the design codes at the council (which are very detailed), the Hammersmith and Fulham Council has accepted parameter plans, which normally give more diagrammatic details about the schemes, such as the number of horizontal and vertical deviations, maximum height, the levels from the street, and so on. All of these documents were created for the planners at the Council so they could assess an application against these documents (Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2016; Interview 7, 2016; Interview 20, 2016). As mentioned before, the extension plan for Westfield includes 1,522 residential units and 55,000 sqm of retail space (Allies and Morrison, 2016).

Position of urban design within the planning processes of Westfield London and its extension

For the Westfield London planning process, the position of urban design could be put into the pre-application (initial discussion) stage to the master planning, decision making and implementation stages. The reason for this is that the master plan and decision making for Westfield London was changing continuously and some of the design ideas and inspirations came to the project later when some parts of its construction were already under work (Interview 7, 2015; Interview 15, 2016).

For the Westfield extension plans, the main stages for urban design position were during the pre-application stage, as well as the master planning and decision making stages. The pre-application meetings with Hammersmith and Fulham Council and the GLA were very important in terms of reaching an agreement with the developer, the council and the GLA (Interview 21, 2016). These meetings helped these three parties to ensure that what the developer wanted to achieve would fit in to the process of what the council and the GLA wanted to do. Therefore this process is collaborative without even meaning to be at least consciously (Interview 21, 2016). During the planning processes for Westfield extension, there was an acknowledgment of the landowner's roles and views. Everyone who was involved within the process understood that 'it is incredibly useful to develop things alongside the land owners

and to allow the emerging policies to shape what landowners are doing but also equally allow the landowners to shape the policies' (Interview 23, 2016).

It can be concluded here, that the changes in the position of urban design within the different stages of planning process for Westfield London and its extension plans arose primarily because of differences in attitudes as well as the frameworks that shaped them.

Philosophies and attitudes of the actors who were involved in the planning and urban design processes

The main question in this part is what constitutes good urban design? According to interviews with the planning Officials at Hammersmith and Fulham Council who played important roles for design and planning of Westfield London and its extension plans: good urban design is about permeability and legibility, it is about interacting with new development particularly in London, it is about making sure that people can walk safely and conveniently to where they need to go to underground and bus station and also link back to the development' (Interview 7, 2015: Interview 20, 2016). The answer to the question 'what makes good urban design' according to architects involved in Westfield project was that good urban design should be able to stitch any scheme back to its environment. It should create authenticity and connectivity as well as create places and destinations in which people feel comfortable in them (Interviews 8 and 12, 2015).

In addition, one interviewee from Westfield group suggested that

Good design should be linked back to some historical precedents and that this kind of linkage would signal their way forward. In other words the history is always a good place to start...in the nineteenth century a lot of high streets in London started to grow on a line between two stations; so in places like Wimbledon and Clapham, there are stations at the bottom and at the top of these high streets. The centre of the commerce grow up in between those two stations and on this line you might have a library, butcher, etc. this model of liner high street is what Westfield group tried to produce. There are a number of stations such as Shepherds Bush, Wood Lane and White City stations and in between these stations the group attempted to have best shops, cinema, etc. (Interview 15, 2016).

Another example that would connect the project of Westfield to the nineteenth century historical high streets is that 'during those times there used to be a focal meeting point for people places like a square, a fountain or even a town hall; for Westfield this exists in the form of the current Atrium' (Interview 15, 2016).

Other definitions of good urban design that were put forward by interviewees involved in the planning processes of Westfield London and its extension parts, had these principles in common: delivering good quality design and mix of uses, paying attention to details specially in case of infrastructure, putting people at the heart and create places which are welcoming and comfortable (all Interviews of London Westfield, 2015 and 2016).

Evaluation of the Westfield London and its immediate environment within White City East area

There seems to be a consensus from all the interviews for Westfield London that this project has been successful in terms of creating a retail centre and a leisure destination in West London mainly because of the services it offers (all Interviews of Westfield London, 2015 and 2016). Moreover the centre has been able to act as a catalyst for the regeneration of White City East area, because it has attracted businesses and interests to this area and has improved transport infrastructure of the area such as building new Wood Lane station and a new public library (Interviews 7 and 8, 2015).

The centre with the help of transport infrastructure has also been successful in attracting lots of visitors each year since its opening in 2008. Although it was built during the economic boom and opened during the economic recession of 2008, the centre has continually attracted both local and international visitors. According to an urban designer at Westfield group this is probably because 'big schemes such as Westfield are normally rely on both their local catchment and tourism; for Westfield London people travelling from other countries such as China, helped supplement what was going on locally during the recession and that is probably why it was successful even though there was a recession' (Interview 15, 2016).

With regard to urban design principles and image of a place (As Figure 4.24 shows) the Westfield centre has increased the permeability and accessibility issues within its own space (both internally and externally). It has also made some improvement to

the pedestrian paths along and around the centre. In addition, and with reference to ecology and sustainability issues, according to Black (2008) 'Westfield prides itself on its water-harvesting, public transport access and a carbon-saving air heating and cooling system'.

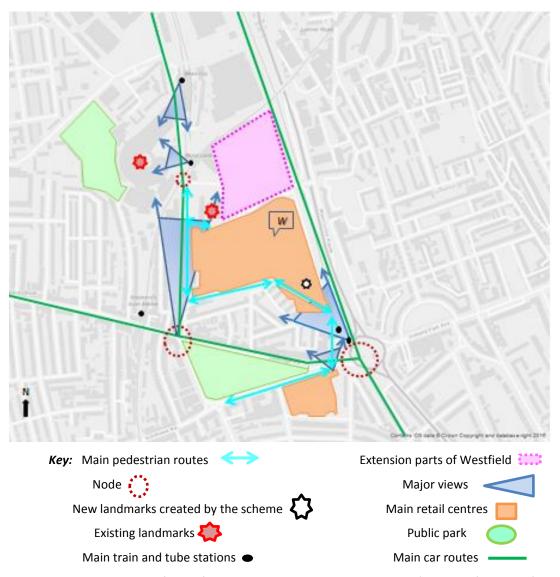


Figure 4.24. Visual map of Westfield London inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of image of the city. Source: the author, 2016.

The proposals to extend Westfield London have sought to improve the legibility, permeability and create a new land mark while maintaining the existing landmarks on the site (see Figure 4.24, Figure 4.22, and Figure 4.21). Moreover, these proposals have promised to create more connectivity through the different parcels of the

scheme. The Westfield extension parts also aim to create more housing to help the housing provision goals of Hammersmith and Fulham Council and it is expected that they will also have a positive impact on the number of jobs in the area (Allies and Morrison, 2016; Hammersmith and Fulham Council, 2016; Interview 20, 2016).

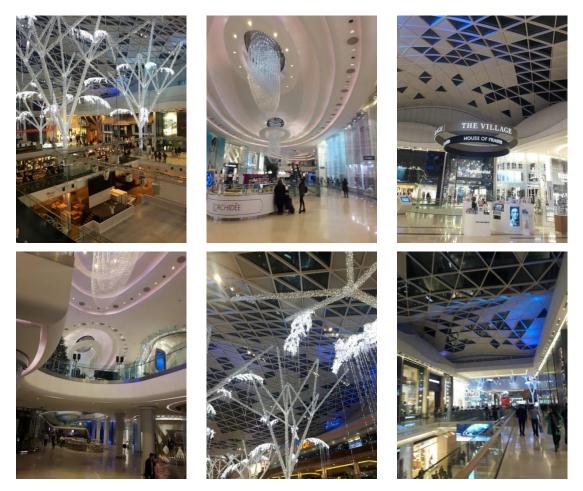


Figure 4.25. Internal pictures of Westfield London. Source: the author, 2016.

The Westfield London centre has been able to create some architectural features in its internal space (Figure 4.25). According to Wiles (2009) the glass roof is one of the most iconic features of this project whilst Westfield itself has become a landmark. However, Wiles (2009) argues that, apart from the glass roof and the Luxury Village, the rest of the Westfield Centre is

A shopping centre, which is to say, it is an insipid nothing, drab, glossy acres of plain cladding and beige terrazzo. Above it all is that wobbly roof, which is supported by some tree-like columns over the vast central atrium space. This is a dispiriting view of architecture. It is a thin layer of aesthetic jam scraped over a doorstep of moneymaking shed.

In addition, the Westfield Centre's size and internal distances have been criticised by Wiles (2009) for being "exhausting".

It is argued here that, from an external pedestrian point of view, Westfield London looks like a block which, in regard to urban design and sense of place, might not have been able to sit within its wider area. Figure 4.26 shows that some of the external view of Westfield London can be used as a supporter of this statement. As for the extension part of this centre, the plans and proposals are aiming to integrate Westfield into the White City area, and as mentioned previously, pay more attention to urban design and the public realm.

One of the criticisms of the centre, in a news article in the Evening Standard by Blunden (2014), mentions that nearly six years after the opening of the Westfield project, the local residents of the nineteenth-century cottages behind the centre were waiting for Westfield to fix the damage to their houses which has been caused by the construction of Westfield Centre. These residents also complained that shoppers of this centre use their cul-de-sac as a cut-through from the Tube (Blunden, 2014).

In addition to the above discussions, according to research by Lee (2013) who examined housing prices and the mega-retail-led regeneration; the Westfield London development caused an increase in the rate of change in housing prices in the deprived area surrounding the shopping centre. It was concluded in that paper, that 'the mega-retail-led regeneration schemes may be a main cause for pricing out the residents of neighbourhoods surrounding these urban shopping centre' (Lee, 2013: 83). Moreover, one of the issues that had been raised in this paper was: 'who gains and who loses by the regeneration process?' (Lee, 2013: 83). The findings of this paper suggest that the landlords in this neighbourhood area have benefited exclusively from Westfield development. It suggests that these benefits have been privatised which 'appear to be unreasonable', given the fact that these agencies have been supported by public tax (Lee, 2013: 83).









Figure 4.26. Top pictures showing different views of Westfield London from its surrounding residential neighbourhoods. Bottom left picture: shows West12 centre, Bottom right picture: shows Westfield from outside (view of a pedestrian). Source: the author, 2015.

There is some uncertainty about the effect that this project had on other retail parts of West and Central London such as Kensington High Street, Ealing High Street, and Hammersmith (Interview 8, 2015). From an observer point of view, Westfield London has changed the retail context in Shepherd's Bush Market and the West 12 Centre, because it offers a variety of services and has attracted lots of people. In this way, the centre has changed and shaped the type and the context of retail and commerce within the area of White City and Shepherd's Bush town.

It seems that for the main actors of this project such as designers and architects, what the clients required were put as an important issue. It is also suggested that these actors were paying more attention to their requirements and their interests than to those of the people. This is especially true with regard to the residents of White City and Shepherd's Bush. If one looks at the whole picture instead of just focusing on the current situation of Westfield London, it seems that the future extensions and developments of this centre (see Figure 4.27) are more promising in terms of creating

spaces that would meet the needs of residents, and key urban design principles, as well as being a benefit to the whole area.



Figure 4.27. An Ariel view of a three-dimensional model of Westfield extension plans. Source: Westfield London, 2016a.

4.3.4. Summary

Westfield London and its immediate environment are a retail led regeneration scheme which is also part of the regeneration schemes of the White City Opportunity Area. They are located within one of the densest parts of London, the London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham. The project of Westfield London was proposed at the time when the attitude and regeneration of central areas in England were moving towards urban entrepreneurialism (Lee, 2013). This project has been shaped in London context in which planning culture and place-shaping have had a particular way to process because the planning and place-shaping culture in this city were directed, led and regulated by fragmented and weak state and authorities. Moreover, within the place-shaping context of London, the developers and investors played bolder roles than any other actors; the market was one of the strong

substances within the place-shaping culture of London that guided developers and investors.

It can be concluded that the project of Westfield London, its extension plan as well as most of the development and changes within White City area are the result of recognition of White City as an Opportunity Area within the London Plan. Most of the decisions and urban design control for the whole Westfield London site were made at the Hammersmith and Fulham Council. The planning culture and place-shaping context of this London Borough were a reflection of the national planning culture and the whole London planning culture. The Hammersmith and Fulham borough has been mainly concerned about meeting the housing provision and job provision that were set by the GLA. It follows, especially with regard to the extension proposals of Westfield London that the council is looking at how these criteria can now be met.

Urban design played an essential role in improving and enhancing the public realm, connectivity, permeability and legibility of the current Westfield centre and its immediate environment. Moreover, urban design was and is being used as a tool for making the whole Westfield area appropriate and workable in the White City and Shepherd's Bush context.

Despite the fact that the planning system for this case study was very observant and monitored the design aspects of the Westfield London and its immediate environment, the system has also left a space for design inspirations and principles. The main policy instruments that were used for controlling urban design in this case study was the London Plan; the Core Strategy, the Development Management Local Plan and the Supplementary Planning Guidance Document (SPD) and the master plan, design codes, parameter plans and design and access statements at city, borough, and project contexts respectively. The level of details in each document at the Hammersmith and Fulham borough context varied from each other. For instance, the SPD and the Local Plan policies with regards to urban design policies were more detailed compared to the Core Strategy. The urban design policies also contained lots of other information regarding conservation as there were lots of conservation areas within the borough in general, as well as the White City area, in particular. One of the other key guidance documents at the borough level, which did not create any

policies but has just shaped the framework for the development and design strategies, was the White City Opportunity Area Framework. This document is in line with the design principles and proposals of each development within the White City Area. The OAPF created an indicative master plan for its urban design strategies and aimed to create more connectivity and more public spaces.

The design principles as positive factors were pushed by clients and developers and in some parts especially with regard to the general concept these principles were pushed in to the whole scheme by the planning authorities. However, some of these design principles of Westfield London and its extension were demanded by the developer and client; because of their characteristics and their nature which predetermined the final product. The urban design principles for the whole scheme could be categorised into pre-application stage, master planning, and decision-making stage. That said, for the Westfield centre itself, some of the design ideas and decisions were being made while some parts of the actual building work had commenced (for a summary of planning processes see Figure 4.28).

One of the key factors that have helped the Westfield centre to increase the number of its visitors is the improved transport infrastructure. As mentioned before, these improvements, which were expensive at the start for the developer, are now being used as key routes which would get people and visitors to the centre. The whole site of Westfield London is at the phase of activation and functionality; for instance for the centre the developers and investors have to maintain their retail and leisure functions and make and keep the whole place active while in the extension parts they are at the stage of implementation, delivery, maintenance and enhancement which in a way refer to the phase of activation and functionality.

This chapter of the thesis has presented the national English case study followed by the two embedded case study projects. This chapter has also discussed the planning culture and planning system of this country with regard to urban design. Moreover this chapter has also focused on the planning processes and has identified the urban design issues within them. The next chapter is presenting the case studies of Germany.

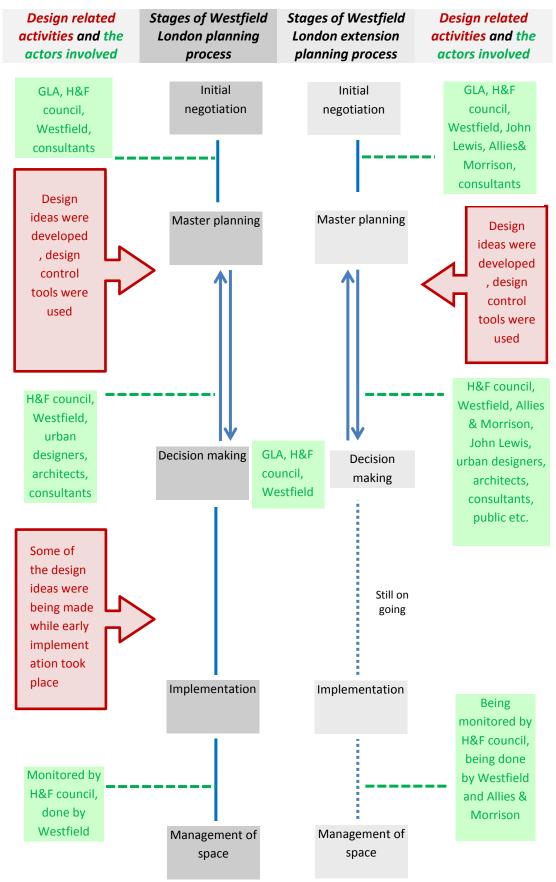


Figure 4.28. A simplified summary of the planning processes of Westfield and its extension. Source: author.

Chapter Five: The relationship between planning system and urban design (in practice) in Germany

This chapter presents the German case studies of this thesis. It contains three parts: the first part presents the national context of Germany, the second discusses Thier Galerie and its immediate environment in Dortmund city centre, and the final part presents the Mall of Berlin and its immediate environment at the Potsdamer Platz.

5.1. German national context

The federal nature of German political system is reflected in a polycentric urban structure. This polycentric nature, according to Couch et al. (2011: 19), means that no one city is dominant politically or economically. The roots and origins of polycentrism in Germany and 'the existence of multiple significant economic, political and cultural centres lies much further back in history in the patchwork of 'micro-states', free cities, dukedoms and principalities that characterised the territory that became the united Germany in the 1870s' (Winder, 2010, cited by Couch et al., 2011: 19). In terms of the performance of cities in the international league tables of urban liveability, most cities in Germany appear to perform well and are 'very competitive against major indicators' (Couch et al., 2011: 19).

With regard to planning, a strong legal framework and a decentralised decision-making structure are two key features of the German planning system. In this kind of planning system, the written constitution, or Basic Law, is important for all legislation. One of the basic principles of this kind of system is that plans and policies have to conform to those of higher levels within the overall concept of subsidiarity, which means that lower level authorities have sovereignty over policy details (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 34, 60).

This section introduces the planning context of Germany by discussing the administrative, legal, and spatial planning system in Germany. Moreover, this section discusses planning acts, elements, and culture. It then moves on to urban design issues and instruments in the planning system and, finally, it discusses the planning process in Germany.

5.1.1. The planning system in Germany

Structure and institutions

The structure of government in Germany is based on a decentralised, multi-level, federal system consisting of three main levels: the federal level (Bund), the regional level (Länder) and the local level (Gemeinden). Each federal state has its own state power and constitution (Stead et al., 2004: 29). The federal system in Germany means that power is shared between the federal level and the regional government levels (state (Länder)) (European Commission, 1997: 39). The fundamental structural principles of the Federal Republic of Germany are: federalism, democracy, the rule of law and the social state (meaning government is based on social justice). 'The Federalism principle is realised by distributing state authority between the constitutive states and the federation. This principle of the vertical separation of powers, which contrasts with that of the unitary state is crucial in understanding the structure of government and administration in Germany' (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 17). According to their democratic principle, the people of Germany 'exercise their state authority directly, by means of election and other forms of ballot' (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 17). The rule of law principle requires all government actions to be bound by law and justice. In addition, the social state principle focuses on the equality of opportunities and provides social equity, especially for socially weak and vulnerable people (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 17).

Planning in Germany involves *Raumordunung*, a concept that can be interpreted as spatial planning or management which is the responsibility of the federal government and the states, planning also involves *Bauleitplanung*, or urban development, which is the responsibility of municipalities (Schmidt, 2009: 1912). The bodies actually responsible for planning are the states (*Länder*) and municipalities. The federal government only outlines a framework, in which planning occurs (Schmidt, 2009: 1912). Planning authorities in Germany operate at four levels: federal spatial planning (federal level), state spatial planning (*Länder*), regional planning, and local authority planning (municipal level) (Zaspel-Heisters and Haury, 2015; Reimer et al., 2014).

The states have their own constitutions and territories as well as their own constitutional institutions, which are: the state parliament (*Landtag* in a non-city

state; *Bürgerschaft* in the city states of Bremen and Hamburg; and *Abgeordnetenhaus* in Berlin), the government of states, state courts and tribunals (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 24-25). According to the Basic Law, federal laws are to be implemented directly by the federation, and states implement federal legislation on behalf of the federation, and thus administration is a joint task and responsibility (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 26).

The local authorities are concerned first with matters regarding the local community and act within their own remit a function that is known as local self - government task (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 28). Secondly, they are concerned with federal and state government functions which local authorities discharge on their behalf (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 29). In addition, it is noted that local authorities, through their umbrella organisations, participate in and play a role in policy making, for example 'through participation in hearings on state and federal bills' (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 31). These umbrella organisations are the: German Association of Cities and Towns (*Deutscher Städtetag*), grouping major cities; the German County Association (*Deutscher Landkreistag*); and the German Association of Towns and Municipalities (*Deutscher Städte- und Gemeindebund*), grouping smaller and medium-sized communities (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 31).

Principles and responsibilities

Planning in Germany is organised on the counter-current principle (*Gegenstromprinzip*) (Schmidt and Buehler, 2007: 57). In this system, the objectives need to be passed from the federal level down; while feedback needs to be filtered from the local level up (Figure 5.1. shows the structure of the planning system in Germany). Further, Reimer et al. (2014: 101) note that the planning system 'needs to process inputs from three directions: from above (1), from below (2), and from sectoral policy departments, i.e. from the side (3)'. The first direction indicates that the higher European level would debate and codify the spatial visions and then make them into principles for spatial development legal documents.

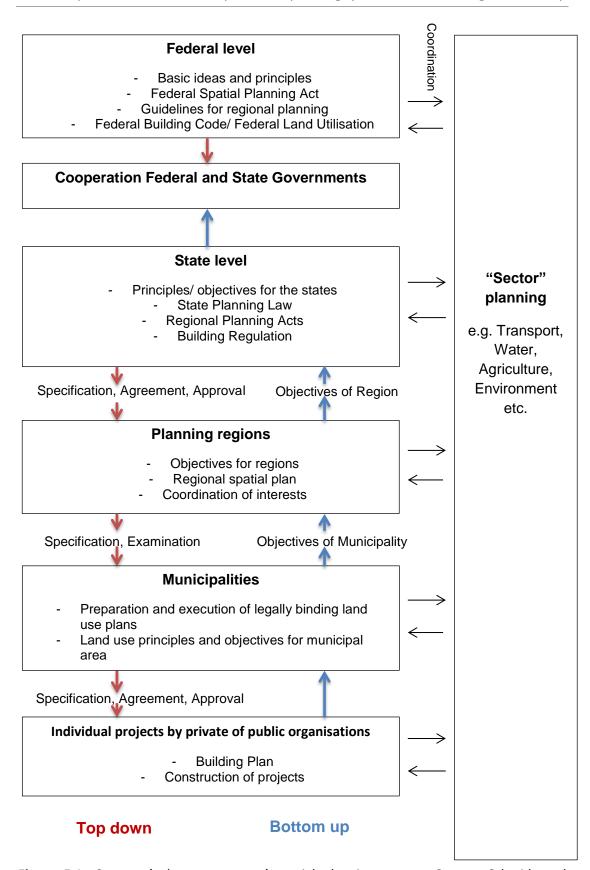


Figure 5.1. Germany's 'counter-current' spatial planning system. Source: Schmidt and Buehler, 2007.

These include the European Spatial Development Perspective of 1999, the Leipzig Charter on Sustainable European Cities (2007) and the Territorial Agenda of the European Union (2007, 2011). The relationship between European and German spatial policy 'is characterised by considerable contingency' (Reimer et al., 2014: 101). This first direction means that spatial policy debates in Germany are formed by European discourse. The second direction from below means that the German system is pressurised from bottom-up input, which occurs. 'when concrete challenges on the municipal or regional scale lead to the questioning of the effectiveness of conventional planning tools, and new procedures are tested that can, in turn, lead to a change in the institutionalised planning system' (Reimer et al., 2014: 101). The third direction means that the relationship between spatial planning and sectoral planning is a complex one (Reimer et al., 2014: 101).

Different levels in this system 'are interlinked by the mutual feedback principle as well as complex requirements of notification, participation, coordination and compliance' (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 38). It is noted that the German planning system is influenced by three main principles (Scholl et al., 2007, cited in Reimer et al., 2014: 84), detailed below:

- 1. The principle of subsidiarity, upon which the federal structure of the country is based: each political decision should be made on the lowest political level on which this is possible.
- 2. Closely linked local or municipal planning autonomy as part of the constitutionally guaranteed municipal self-government: this gives the municipalities the right to independently structure their local development in the framework of land use planning.
- 3. The mutual feedback principle, according to which the various planning levels have to take into account the requirements and conditions of the other levels.

One other principle of planning in Germany is the weighing of interests. According to Zaspel-Heisters and Haury (2015: 28), 'in all planning, the requirement to weigh interests must be observed to ensure that spatial planning and land reallocation is as

equitable and as socially accountable as possible while taking into account the largest possible array of interests'.

In order to ensure basic consistency for planning at different levels, the federal government sets the overall framework. However, the federal government does not create or implement plans (Newman and Thornley, 1996; Schmidt and Buehler, 2007) as there is a large degree of local autonomy. Spatial planning at the federal level is only providing guidelines, principles and legal basis for the states' spatial planning. Moreover, spatial planning at this level has the task of focusing on sectoral planning and public investment from the perspectives of the regional and national policies (Oxley and Brown, 2009: 24).

With regard to state planning, under the regulatory framework of the federal government, each Land government develops its own development programmes and agendas and therefore it is only for the issues of national importance that the federal institutions have the right to come into the process, and this cannot happen without the consensus of the *Länder* governments, which results from a consultation process involving both tiers (Kunzmann, 2001: 153). All *Länder* are obliged to set up comprehensive plans for their whole state. These plans normally contain broad statements of development intentions, covering issues such as population projections, settlement hierarchies and priority areas. Federal law requires that regional plans conform with the federal guidelines through the Federal Comprehensive Regional Planning Law (*Bundesraumordnungsgesetz - ROG*) (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 61). At the regional level, regional plans incorporate the mutual feedback principle by 'substantiating the specifications of the spatial plans' (Reimer et al., 2014: 85) at the *Länder* level, and therefore provide a framework for spatial developments of the municipalities (Reimer et al., 2014: 85).

Municipal responsibilities include tasks or services which directly affect the local community and local citizens, such as the provision of utilities, local public transport, road construction, and so on. The only areas excluded from the municipal remit are those 'which have been assigned to some other tier of governance, either due to the very nature of the task (e.g. national defence, foreign policy), or equally because the principles of equal treatment of all citizens and legal certainty call for uniform arrangements to be made either regionally or nationally' (Turowski, 2002: 9). There

are two types of legally-based plans at the local level: the *Flächennutzungsplan* (preparatory land use plan) and the *Bebauungsplan* (legally-binding land use plan). These plans are discussed in more detail in the next part of the chapter (Figure 5.2 illustrates the constitutional and administrative structure of Germany).

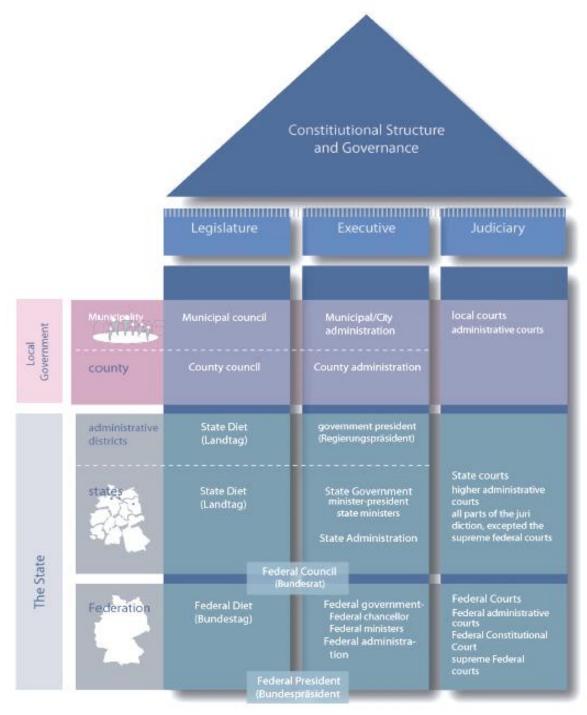


Figure 5.2. System of separation of powers and structure of administration of the Federal Germany. Source: Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 19.

General planning instruments with regard to developments in Germany

The states established their legal basis for state spatial planning within the framework of the Federal Spatial Planning Act (*Raumordnungsgesetz – ROG*), which was adopted in 1965 and extensively amended in 1998; moreover, the scope of this Act was extended in 2004 to cover the exclusive economic zones, as well as other subjects, such as the improvement of flood prevention and control (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 35). This Act has helped the *Länder* to develop their own spatial planning and thus provide detail at a local level, as well as the regulations for planning at a municipal level (Oxley and Brown, 2009: 24). The 1998 amendment of the Spatial Planning Act resulted in a new set of general principles for spatial planning, as 'it introduced the notion of sustainable spatial development as a paramount normative orientation of spatial planning' (Reimer et al., 2014: 90).

Planning tools for state spatial and regional planning are: spatial categories, central place systems, axes, functions, guideline values. For instance, the central place system, which is one of the planning instruments for the development of the embedded German case studies, is defined as a system which 'aims to provide the population with area-wide infrastructural amenities' (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 52). This system is discussed further in section 5.1.2.

In addition, at the state level, there are other instruments for spatial planning such as *LandesweiterRaumordnungsplan* (state-wide spatial planning plan) and Raumordnungspläne für die Teilräume der Länder (Regionalpläne) (i.e. regional plans for the sub-regions of the Länder). These plans carry a degree of detail as they have to serve as baseline for the lower tier of the planning administration (Sinn et al., 2008: 23). For larger states in Germany, there is another implementation level, and that is the regional level; in this level the regional plans are another element or tool that are developed by regional planning associations, together with the local authorities concerned (Sinn et al., 2008: 23). 'Regional plans have to conform to the state-wide spatial development plan and the guidelines of the Regional Comprehensive Planning Act (ROG). In those states without administrative regions, some form of regional planning exists nevertheless. Because regional planning is not mandatory, there are considerable differences in terms of development and elaboration between the German states' (Sinn et al., 2008: 23).

Planning instruments at the local level and in regards to the local land use plan, as mentioned before, are the *Flächennutzungsplan* (preparatory land use plan) which gives the plan for the entire territory of a municipality, and the *Bebauungsplan* (legally-binding land use plan) which gives binding use and plans for sections of the municipality (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 54). The federal building code (*BauGB*) provides the legal basis as well as the content and the procedure of preparing both the *Flächennutzungsplan* (preparatory land use plan) and the *Bebauungsplan* (legally-binding land use plan) (European Commission, 1999: 63). These plans are discussed in more detail in section 5.1.3.

In addition to those mentioned above, city development concepts are very relevant to the embedded German case studies in this research (Dortmund 2030 and Berlin 2030). Building plans are the other planning tools at the municipal level which guide the planning of developments at municipal and local levels.

The planning system in Germany can be viewed as a mixture of a plan-led and a development-led system; the permissibility of development in Germany is regulated and established by the federal building code (BauGB) and has divided the whole of Germany into three main zones (European Commission, 1999: 35). These three zones (which also represent the building permit methods in Germany) are as the following: first, areas with a B-Plan whereby the building and development in this area is allowed if the proposed project conforms to the content of the plan; secondly, existing built-up areas (Innenbereich) without a B-Plan, where a project is allowed to be built if the proposals are based on and fit into the land use and type of building in their surrounding areas. These areas can be defined by the municipalities and by the means of a local statute. Thirdly, in the surrounding undeveloped areas (Außenbereich) without a B-Plan, building in these areas, which are mostly countryside, is permitted only in the case when the proposed project belongs to the Auβenbereich and the local infrastructure is either available or its provision is possible; otherwise building on these areas is generally prohibited (European Commission, 1999: 35).

5.1.2. Planning culture in Germany

The cultural and traditional aspects of spatial planning in Germany particularly at the state and federal level, are involved in and concerned with 'equalising geographic access to infrastructure and services, and ensuring a balance of land uses between developed lands, agriculture and open space' (Beier et al., 2004 cited in Schmidt, 2009: 1914). These elements are accomplished by the hierarchical structure of the planning system in Germany, meaning that local planning decisions only function within the framework of state and federal frameworks, which indicate that the lower the level in this hierarchy, the detail of plans increases (Schmidt, 2009: 1915).

The planning system in Germany, as the EU Compendium of 1997 recognised, is under the category of regional economic systems (governments), as it targets the equalisation of opportunities, especially economic, and to some extent social, opportunities across its regions (European Commission, 1997: 36). This characterisation of the planning system reflects, and hints at, the planning culture. The reason for this statement could be justified by explaining the fact those German cities, according to Strubelt et al. (2000: 3), are the result of 'market forces and political desires to shape cities'.

One more tangible aspect of the planning culture in Germany is probably the adoption and application of the central place system by the regions and states. This theory, as explained before in section 5.1.1, has been used for allocating transport or other infrastructure and services as well as land uses in the territories of states and regions (Schmidt, 2009: 1917). This system, which was originally developed by Walter Christaller, forms a hierarchy whereby similar sized towns have similar functions, while fulfilling all the functions of the towns smaller than themselves (McCrone, 1969: 62). According to this system, services such as public and private services as well as employment situation are performed at different levels of central place; these levels include the basic centre, middle order centre and high order centre (Pahl-Weber and Henckel, 2008: 52). The states assign local levels to categorise their centres in accordance with the Central Place System. The Central Place system was very important in terms of rebuilding of Germany after the Second World War and today it is one of the main components that make important contributions to the development of the territory (Turowski, 2002: 18).

This theory has faced certain criticisms regarding its insufficiency for meeting the needs of shrinking regions, its inability to bridge long-term sustainability goals with short-term political decisions, its inflexibility for reacting to changing circumstances, and its failure to manage growth and development sustainably (Schmidt, 2009: 1917). Blotevogel (2006 cited in Schmidt, 2009: 1919) has argued that the scope and definition of a central place should expand and include inter-municipal agreements; moreover, as he suggests that in order for the central place to become an effective tool, especially during population decline, it should be more flexible in its goals and prescriptions.

5.1.3. Urban design instruments

Urban design has a long tradition in Germany, as is documented in the International Building Exhibitions, which are organized to showcase good practice in urban design since the early twentieth century (von Petz, 2012). The IBA (International Building Exhibition or *Internationale Bauausstellung*) programme had 'a transformative impact for regions across Germany' (Burgess, 2015: 9) and is considered to be one of the national programmes that was 'designed to fund temporary design interventions intended to serve as models for longer-term strategic and structural change in their host regions and further afield' (Burgess, 2015: 9). Moreover, the IBA 'represent[s] a microcosm of architectural history, showcasing each era's most innovative design philosophies'. Some recent examples of IBA programmes can be seen in the Emscher Park project in the Ruhr (Burgess, 2015: 9).

Urban design in Germany is being used in a different terminology. *Städtebau* is the term that would refer to urban development and therefore urban design in a broader sense. Urban development and urban policies in Germany have experienced periods of change. Table 5.1 presents a summary of these changes and problems before and after the unification of the two German states (Western and Eastern parts).

Table 5.1. Summary of the changes in urban development in Germany from 1950s to 1990s. Source: created by author based on Strubelt et al., 2000: 45-54.

periods	Western Germany	Eastern Germany
1950s	Housing shortage, unemployment and segmented and diversified city as well as social instability.	Housing shortage, unemployment and social instability.
1960s	Economic growth, increase in industrialisation, strong population growth, increased volume of transport and traffic, increase of urban settlements in urban fringe and hinterlands, design being overtaken by the dynamic of development of economy.	Economic problems, ambitions of housing target could not be met because of the priority of industrialisation, high rise buildings with the purpose of demolishing whole areas of old buildings gained popularity.
1970s	Energy crisis, economic decline, modernisation of urban fabric, improvements in the status of inner city urban district, rediscovery of urban density.	To find solutions for housing issues old stock was completely neglected, increase in density of residential areas and a reduction in urban quality, limited facilities in residential areas.
1980s	Automation of manufacturing industry has compounded considerable long term unemployment, concentration of policies on the inner urban developments of cities, ecology oriented urban development became very important, the changes in values and concepts.	Migration losses, demand of mobility increased with the changes in the working world, increases in transport volume, changes in values and concepts like west Germany, minimising the expenses of new construction and neglecting old buildings, reduced quality of housing and urban planning, numerous project districts remained unfinished.
1990s reunification	Increased globalisation of economic market, attempts to balance the living conditions in both parts of Germany, urban development characterised by tax incentives for investors, sustainable urban development gained more attention, and urban reconstruction given priority over new construction on greenfield sites, increases in urban sprawl in hinterland areas.	

Table 5.1 seeks to summarise the context for urban development in Germany, this helps to develop a better understanding of how different issues have shaped some parts of the planning culture and urban development cultures in Germany. It is evident from this table that the most tangible changes in values and concepts which reflect issues of planning culture, were happening from the 1980s onwards for both parts of Germany.

Urban design control in Germany is the responsibility of municipalities and the federal level only acts upon the planning law through BauGB. One way of controlling urban design in Germany is using land use and development control instruments. The main regulations for land use and development control are within the *Baugesetzbuch* which is contained in the Federal Building Law (*BauGB*). Local plans have to be consistent with plans above them. Moreover, in order to ensure a degree of transparency and consistency, the format, procedures and symbols employed in plan making are set by the federal government through the Federal Building Code (Schmidt, 2009: 1912). As mentioned before, there are two types of plans at the local level. The preparatory land use plan (*Flächennutzungsplan* or *FNP*) and the *Bebauungsplan* (B-Plan), which is a legally-binding plan, directs and regulates the land use of plots and contains an environmental assessment.

An *FNP* is essentially a zoning plan and the scale of it depends on the size of the municipality that prepares this plan; the preparation of this plan would take up to 5 to 6 years especially in the major cities as there is no fixed timescale for this. There is also no fixed duration for a *FNP*; in general most of these plans cover a period of 10 to 15 years (European Commission, 1999: 64). An *FNP* must conform and adhere to the objectives of its regional plan. The *FNP* needs to change each time a building plan or a project deviates from it. These changes, which are not uncommon, need to be approved by the municipal councils. An *FNP* is required to illustrate in basic form the expected land use development of the entire municipality. It is an abstract plan guiding urban developments (European Commission, 1999: 64). The following components should be included in the FNP to the necessary extent:

- Areas zoned for development, according to general land use types (e.g. general residential areas) and may include specific land use areas (e.g. residential only area). The general and specific land use areas are regulated in detail by the BauNVO (federal land use ordinance);

- The level of development, according to controls for site coverage, floor space index and building height (regulated in detail by the BauNVO);
- Public and private community, infrastructure and service facilities;
- The main transport and communication facilities;
- Open spaces (green areas) and areas of water;
- Areas for minerals and mining;
- Agricultural and forestry areas and areas for environmental and landscape protection;
- Other requirements, including protected monuments, areas which require protection against flooding, contaminated lands, etc.

(European Commission, 1999: 64).

Another type of control instrument which is very much related to the land, urban development and urban design is zoning. Current German zoning is guided by a federal land use statute called the Land Utilization Ordinance (Baunutzungsverordnung or BauNVO). The classes and subclasses of districts for the regulation of land and the permitted land uses are defined by the BauNVO (Hirt, 2007: 439). The *BauNVO* is flexible in that 'it allows localities preparing zoning plans to choose which of these federal categories to use' (Hirt, 2007: 439). However, it is noted that, once localities choose which categories to apply, they have to allow all the uses under those categories. The BauNVO lists four broad land use classes: residential, mixed, commercial, and special. There is no hierarchy amongst these classes. Each of these broad classes will later be divided into subclasses, numbering 11 in total (Hirt, 2007: 439).

As mentioned before, there is another instrument at the local level which is B-Plan, this is the second order in the hierarchy of land use plans at the local level. It is prepared out of the *FNP* and has its own preparation procedures, and provides the basis for the detailed and legally binding control of building developments (European Commission, 1999: 65). A B-Plan does not have a fixed duration and expires with a new amendment or replacement (European Commission, 1999: 65). A B-plan in a

local authority needs to respect the *FNP* of that local authority. The *Bebauungsplan* (B-Plan) carries most of the details of a development project and some details related to urban design. As mentioned before, this plan lists land use as one of many regulating criteria for each parcel.

There are a number of required categories within this plan. The *Bebauungsplan* defines design specifications (coverage type, height of building, required setbacks, etc.) and indicates to what degree and extent the developer or owner has got the permission to build. Therefore, it could be said that control over the form of development is carried by the municipalities (Schmidt and Buehler, 2007: 64). The B-plan provides a legal basis for building permission and therefore it must include the following:

- The type and extent of land use; comprising the specific land use areas and scale of development (as specified in detail in the BauNVO);
- The areas of land to be covered with building;
- The areas required for local traffic purposes.

(European Commission, 1999: 67).

The B-plan may also include legally binding provisions in relation to:

- The minimum dimensions of building plots, alignments, etc.;
- The maximum number of dwellings in residential buildings;
- Spaces for public thoroughfares (including pedestrian areas, car parking, etc.);
- Reserved sites for special housing purposes and other special uses;
- Planting and landscaping, including measures to compensate for the destruction of nature and landscapes which are to be expected on the basis of the plan;
- Other requirements as listed in the contents of an *FNP* above.

(European Commission, 1999: 67).

Legally the FNP needs to be checked by the *Länder* and get approval from *Länder*. Therefore, the planning permission process is an administrative task of checking conformity with plans (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 61; Reimer et al., 2014: 86).

Flexibility is allowed to a certain extent, for instance when no binding plan has been prepared, the development can be allowed if it conforms with the surrounding area (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 61; Reimer et al., 2014: 86). There is another instrument, which is called *Vorhaben- und-Erschließungsplan*. This means that planning permission can be given without the B-Plan if a developer guarantees to prepare a B-Plan, with the result that the planning process is faster (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 61; Reimer et al., 2014: 86).

Other types of urban design control are provided by the local building statutes (Ortsbausatzungen) and the urban development guidelines (Städtebaurichtlinien) (Poerbo, 2001: 90). There is a board of experts at the local level which is called the Koordinierungskomission (Coordination Commission), created by the local government to overview planning and implementation regulations (Poerbo, 2001: 90) one of the tasks of this commission is to review the design aspects of a certain project. Urban design is also controlled by three types of plans: the building plan (Bebauungsplan), the local building statute (Ortsbausatzung), and the Objektplanung (object planning or project design). There is also a more design-rooted instrument which is called a Gestaltungsatzung (building design ordinance). This instrument, like the Bebauungsplan, is at the municipalities' level and is another tool relevant to urban design which covers those details that are not within the Bebauungsplan (Poerbo, 2001: 90). The Gestaltungssatzung (building design ordinance) is a strong tool for urban design which formulates rules on architectural features such as façades, the building statics and so on. This instrument is often being used for existing urban fabric and some elements of it can be used in the B-Plan. However because it interferes in the property too much it is not commonly used.

A design brief is another guiding material and instrument in Germany, which gives detailed guidance on different aspects such as building materials, street furniture, etc. This document can be a binding document and used, for example, for conservation areas (Interview 11, 2015). It is worth noting that this instrument is not a legal instrument but a contractual instrument.

Building contract (*Städtebaulicher Vertrag*) is another important instrument which depending on the planning culture of a municipality or the cultural context of a developer, can be used for fixing some obligations with regard to urban design

details. An example of this instrument which is more like an agreement between the local authorities and developers is discussed in part 5.2.

In addition, one more instrument that is more related to land management and is important for a site in which urban design ideas are developed, is the mandatory land readjustment. The purpose of this tool is 'to create suitable building plots for the designated land use according to shape and size' (Hartmann and Spit, 2015: 732). It is a tool that helps to put land use plans into practice because it is an independent instrument with its own internal rationale that can operate across property, law, and land economics.

Today, land readjustment is used for reshaping agricultural sites urban ('Flurbereinigung') developing or areas ('Baulandumlegung'). A survey on the use of land readjustment in Germany by University of Hannover revealed that mandatory land readjustment is still an important instrument of land management, which is often applied in its conventional form, i.e. as a mandatory public procedure...The municipalities' land readjustment committees first designate an area and then merge all lands in this designated area in to one virtual bulk of land (Hartmann and Spit, 2015: 732).

The regulatory frameworks at the national and federal state levels have provided local communities a degree of freedom for adaptation to their specific problems, as well as for developing and introducing their own supplementary instruments. Therefore, the appearance and fabric (urban design) of the cities is affected by this freedom, which enables local communities to substantiate higher planning and development principles for their overall territory, sub areas and districts or single building projects. This fact would make all the available urban design tools and instruments legally applicable in every city in Germany (Brzenczek and Wiegandt, 2009: 249). However, the application of these planning and design tools depends upon political constellations and administrative structures, as well as all the actors involved and their knowledge of the effects and existence of these instruments (Brzenczek and Wiegandt, 2009: 250). Design quality, especially in the case of public places, is subjected to negotiation between the investors and municipalities. Planning and design competitions and urban design councils can be helpful instruments for engaging citizens in public cases. In private places, it is the responsibility of municipal administrations to try to induce these additional

qualification processes and urban design instruments. It means that they should convince the developer under the condition of economic prosperity that, only if they accept higher costs and longer planning process, there an add value to the building project would be created (Brzenczek and Wiegandt, 2009: 250, 251, 253).

In order to understand the embedded case studies in this chapter, it is important to note that the retail development regulations in Germany often embrace contemporary shopping trends and are aligned with the mind-set of creating opportunities for local economies, as well as protecting and conserving historic downtown centres and neighbourhood shopping areas (Gerend, 2009: 48, 49). Most cities in Germany have a municipal retail planning concept, and many have designated Zentrale Versorgungsbereiche or 'central areas for provisions'. These areas are protected areas within which new retailers need to locate. Retail developments are permitted only when they would not cause any negative impact on designated 'central areas of provisions' (Gerend, 2009: 48, 49). The regional levels in Germany must establish and conduct research to inspect the need for a retail centre in their region. In a municipality, 'effective control of retail development generally requires consistent exploitation of the full potential of the land use planning control options' (Blotevogel et al., 2014 in Reimer et al., 2014: 97). When there is a conflict and the problems of a development cannot be solved by any other informal instruments, the binding control tools of urban development law are applied. Two tools would then become important: the first is 'consultation at an early stage of development schemes' and the second tool is 'municipal retail and centre concepts'. Municipal control of retail development is not sufficient on its own and it needs to be supplemented by regional planning control, especially for large-scale retail developments (Hager, 2010 cited in Reimer et al., 2014: 97).

5.1.4. Planning process

Planning consensus and cooperation have been fostered in Germany's plan-making process in the form of informal exchanges before, during and after plan making. This degree of planning consensus is better understood by explaining a few points here: first, there is a long tradition of state intervention at the national and regional level; secondly the nature of democracy in Germany is that it is a proportional democracy

with different parties, in which 'coalition-building is not only paramount to maintaining power, but also fosters a spirit of cooperation' (Schmidt and Buehler, 2007: 59). The third reason is reflected in the relative demographic, political and economic homogeneity of Germany. The fourth and last reason for this consensus is non-competitive governmental access of recognised private interests and the role that they play in decision-making processes in Germany (Schmidt and Buehler, 2007: 59).

In Germany, a typical planning process at the local level, and when local authorities are preparing for a specific development plan, contains these stages:

- Initial preparation stage: this stage usually involves careful scientific research on the prospective project and its development area, as well as investigations and studies on different plans at different levels, such as land use plans, sectoral plans, regional plans, structure plans and ecological surveys.
- Resolution on the plan preparation stage: according to BauGB (§-2, para. 1) the responsible body for preparing the project plan and the B-Plan is the municipality. The public notification regarding the resolution on the preparation of the plan is made in accordance with the customs of municipalities.
- *Early public participation stage*: members of the public or any other public authorities are informed at this stage about the plans, strategies, aims and objectives of the prospective project. In the case of environmental assessments for the project, early public notification is very important.
- *Draft plan (making) stage*: based on materials from the public notification stage, at this stage responsible authorities and planners modify the plans for the proposed project, integrate any environmental assessments into this draft and make the draft plan ready for the next stage.
- Public notice and second public participation stage: according to BauGB (§-3, para. 2; §-4, para. 2) the draft of the project plan or the B-plan is put on public display for a period of one month and suggestions from public are collected at this stage. Those suggestions are examined and authorities inform the public of the results. The municipalities, at this stage, also inform any other public organisations that are affected by the proposed plan.

- Modification stage: after weighing, identifying and evaluating important public and private interests, which is one of the sub stages before modification stage, there might be a need for modifying the proposed plan according to the result of that sub stage. Therefore, the modification stage might involve another public notice, which this time can be of a shorter duration.
- Legislation and administrative control stage: at this stage the local parliament is responsible for any legislative procedures. In addition, the proposed plan normally needs the approval of higher administrative authorities, and therefore, the plan would be put into force if the higher administrative authorities do not raise any issues.
- Announcement stage: at this stage the B-Plan, or project plan, and all its supplementary reports, are made available for public inspection and investigation.
- *Implementation and Monitoring stage*: after the announcement stage, and after the plan is advertised, implementation takes place. At this stage, the municipalities and local authorities monitor the project and all of its possible implications, such as environmental issues. Then they take the required measures for reducing any negative impacts.

Most of these stages have been mentioned in BauGB, and it is therefore compulsory for municipalities to follow them. However, some of these stages might involve more sub-stages and some might happen at the same time. Some of these stages happen according to the custom of municipalities and are dependent on their nature. What is important to note is that: usually the planning process in Germany respects and pays attention to public interests, but, at the same time, after each public participation stage, there is a political decision making stage (at different levels of government), which makes the system a highly political system. The planning processes between regions vary considerably, mainly as a result of a strong regional level of planning (with its own laws, plans and sets of arrangements which create consensus between and within levels in the hierarchy) (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 72). These points about the customs of municipalities and regional levels imply an embeddedness of planning culture in the German plan making process. Sections 5.2 and 5.3 have represented embedded case studies in Germany to help to understand the

embeddedness of planning culture in the planning process; moreover, these sections facilitate an understanding of the urban design issues within the planning processes.

5.1.5. Summary

The planning system in Germany is a federal and multi-tier system. It was explained that planning in Germany is a mixture of plan-led and development-led systems. In this system, decisions are mostly made at the lower levels of government and therefore it is a decentralised system, in which municipalities and Land governments are the main bodies responsible for spatial planning and the federal government establishes only a general framework. The written constitution is very important in this system. The main structure and some principles of this system have remained relatively stable because of the high transaction costs of new institutional arrangements and the learning capacity of existing arrangements (Schmidt, 2009: 1908, 1919). The principles of social equality as well as mutual feedback are very important in this system, as it is a top-down and bottom-up system. The system in Germany has been recognised as regional economic system in the EU Compendium of 1997 as most of its cities have been shaped by market forces. This does not indicate, however, that the role of planning in shaping its cities was less powerful.

Urban design has a long tradition in Germany (von Petz, 2012); the terminology that refers to this concept in a broader sense is *Städtebau* or urban development. One of the most influential programmes that have impacted design innovation in Germany was the IBA Programme, which was helpful for transforming cities and regions across Germany, as well as changing the attitudes of planners and urban designers towards urban design in Germany. In addition, as was evident in Table 5.1, the changes in the urban policies and urban development during the 1980s, for both West and East Germany, were very important, particularly for urban design, as during this period values and concepts started to change, which meant that there was a greater focus on certain issues in both parts of what would become a reunited Germany. For example, in West Germany, ecologically-oriented developments became important, while in East Germany, there was an awareness of past mistakes. With regard to urban design control, it was explained that there are various tools and instruments that can be helpful for guiding urban design and land use principles. Most of these

tools are prepared and applied by the municipalities, as they are the bodies responsible for urban design.

In enforcing urban design, the most influential tools, especially within the planning process, are: urban design studies and assessments that are done as part of developing the plans for a project, urban design codes and parameters and uses that are usually set by the local authorities and regional authorities, and different spatial plans such as the B-Plan, the master plan, the functional plan, the land use plan; and different types and means of design review such as design review boards. Moreover, the B-Plans in Germany are usually the result of planning processes and though they have many details they are not the place where urban design ideas are being shaped. Rather, developing urban design details usually takes place at the initial stages of the planning processes as shown later.

In Germany some of the characteristics of the planning system are included as cultural aspects. Many cities in Germany have adopted central place systems as part of their planning processes. In terms of urban design and urban development; the attitudes of authorities for urban design in Germany also reflect the embeddedness of planning culture in the planning system and the ways in which the planning system enforces and controls urban design. The holding of urban design and architectural competitions for most development projects along with the conducting of studies on the effect of a development on its surrounding area are examples of this.

The planning process in Germany is a highly political process that seems to work for most developments. However, as a result of strong regional levels, the planning process can be different at each region and is dependent on the character and customs of decision making in individual regions. This point is also reflecting the planning culture in Germany. The planning making process in Germany as discussed in this part of thesis, can also be in the form of informal exchanges during, or after, plan making (such as planning consensus and cooperation).

5.2. Thier Galerie (Dortmund)

The city of Dortmund is located in the metropolitan Rhine Ruhr area of North Rhine Westphalia (NRW). The Ruhr area was the former 'industrial heartland' of Germany (Couch et al., 2003: 149; Kunzmann, 2001: 158; Bömer, 2005: 20) and has experienced a period of decline in its coal mining and steel industries. As a result it has suffered from population loss and out migration; 'in-migration has become a crucial component of efforts to minimise population decline' (Reuschke et al., 2013: 4). All these factors have changed the urban landscape (Franz et al., 2007: 317). Dortmund was destroyed in 1945 and its initial survival and rebuilding started from 1945 – 1949 (Bömer et al., 2010: 414).

In the modern urban history of the city, probably one of the most important projects was the Dortmund Project. After the decision to close steel work in 1997, and as a way of pushing the city forward in terms of economic and development growth, a partnership between the Thyssen Krupp (steel company), the state government of North Rhine-Westphalia, the Chamber of Industry and Commerce, and the various trade unions was formed. This resulted in the Dortmund Project (Bömer, 2005: 19). This project was a 10 year programme (2000-2010) and its leading sites were mainly Phoenix West and Phoenix Ost (see Figure 5.3), Stadtkrone Ost, Technologiepark, the port and the old airport (Bömer, 2005: 23).

The Dortmund Project aimed to 'produc[e] the first study, in which it identified the status quo in Dortmund and the measures needed to make the city well again' (Jonas, 2014: 2124). For new Dortmund, the Dortmund Project acted as a catalyst (Jonas, 2014: 2124).

The purpose of the above background section for the city of Dortmund is to provide a basis for better understanding the urban and historical contexts of the city that Thier Galerie is located in, although some of the presented information is not relevant to Thier Galerie but it does provide a view on urban transformation and urban regeneration in Dortmund. For instance the Dortmund Project 'represent a significant potential in urban regeneration and development which is used by the city' (Tata, 2005: 3). And in this sense is relevant to Thier Galerie.



Figure 5.3. Pictures from Phoenix site which is a part of the Dortmund Project programme (this site was the former site of steelwork of Thyssen-Krupp-Hoesch, which was transferred into a lake and waterfront housing). Source: The author, 2016.

5.2.1. Thier Galerie and its immediate environment in Dortmund centre

The project of Thier Galerie was a retail led regeneration programme that has transformed parts of the centre of Dortmund. Thier Galerie offers a diverse range of retail offerings to the city. It opened in 2011 and comprises 33, 000sqm of retail space with 160 shops and 4 Anchor stores (H&M, New Yorker, Primark, and Rewe). It also has 4,800sqm of leasable office space. This centre offers entertainment, restaurants, café areas and office spaces. Since its opening it has also created 1000 jobs (ECE, 2016). Thier Galerie sits on the edge of the egg shaped town centre of Dortmund (Figure 5.5). The precise boundary of Their Galerie is shown in figure 5.4.

The site of Thier Galerie before intervention

The city centre of Dortmund was destroyed during the World War II which led to significant change in the urban core (Bömer et al., 2010: 414). In the following thirty years the centre followed the *Neuordnungsplan* of 1948 and was rebuilt according to this plan's guidelines. 'Dortmund ended up with a new but generally mediocre townscape similar to that in many German towns destroyed in the war' (Bömer et al., 2010: 414).



Figure 5.4. Precise boundaries of Thier Galerie and the Dortmund city centre. Source: the author, 2016.

The site of Thier Galerie in the Westenhellweg area is the former site of the Thier brewery (ERCO, 2016). Westenhellweg or the Hellweg has always been the main

retail and traditional market area in the centre since Medieval times (all Interviews of Dortmund, 2016). In 1995 there were plans for reusing the site as a shopping mall, but because of investment plans for the Central Station, the investors for Thier brewery site found it too risky to compete with the proposed plans for the Central Station (all Interviews of Dortmund, 2016). The plans for the Central Station, which was meant to be a shopping mall were, however, never realised. The planning process of Central Station went on for 10 years to the extent that the authorities made a complete B-Plan (local binding plan) for it; however things changed when the investors left this project one by one. In the end the planning for the station did not happened and the Thier brewery site was left as a brownfield site for quite a long time (Interviews 17 and 18, 2016).

A timeline of planning and decision-making for the site of Thier Galerie

In 2007 the ECE Company notified the city council of its interest in developing a retail centre at the Thier brewery site. The first official decision to start the planning process was made in April 2008, while in June 2008 public presentations and final jury about the architecture and design competition were held. In July 2008 the first longer public presentations and participation started and in December 2008 second public presentation and participation occurred. Finalising the plan and looking if there were any objections to the plan then took place. April 2009 was another important date for this project as an urban development contract was signed. Moreover in May 2009 the building permit was issued and the construction of Thier Galerie began in September and November 2009. Finally in September 2011 Thier Galerie was opened (Stadt Dortmund, 2012: 26).

5.2.2. Planning and urban design (policy context and instruments)

This section aims to introduce the relevant policy context and instruments of planning, urban development and urban design at three levels of the Ruhr region, the Dortmund city and Thier Galerie.

Dortmund is located in the Government District of Arnsberg/Ruhr. It has only recently been part of Ruhr and the prevailing plan is still the regional plan which was drafted in 2004. Administratively the Ruhr region is covered by the state government of North Rhine Westphalia (NRW), various local authorities and the regional

organisation (Couch et al., 2003:153). In addition, the Ruhr Regional Association (RVR) is the responsible body for regional planning (Metropoleruhr, 2016). There are 11 independent municipalities and 4 districts in the Ruhr Metropolis. The Ruhr Regional Association is also responsible for decision relating to development planning within the region (Metropoleruhr, 2016).

The RVR creates a framework for the land use in cities by means of regional plans. The regional plans are set up for 10-15 year periods and aims to oversee future regional development and urban developments within the planning area (Metropoleruhr, 2016). The RVR produces recommendations for area usage in the Ruhr and then 'the draft of this recommendation is coordinated with the participant cities and regional authorities (Metropoleruhr, 2016). The regional plans are finally decided by the Ruhr Parliament. The regional plan for Dortmund-west section has been binding since 2004, and its territorial scope includes Top Centre Dortmund, District Unna (with the cities and municipalities of Selm, Werne, Lünen, Bergkamen, Kamen, Bönen, Unna, Holzwickede, Fröndenberg and Schwerte), City of Hamm (Dortmund.de, 2016). Planning applications of substantial size such as Thier Galerie are tested against this regional plan.

Policy context and instruments of urban design and planning for the city of Dortmund and its city centre area

The main planning body in Dortmund is the City Council and its Department of Building Control and Planning. The City of Dortmund includes 12 districts and the Department of Planning and Building Control at the City Council not only includes planners but also other experts and administrators.

At the city council level the preparatory land use plan (*FNP*) is regulated by the Building Code (*BauGB*) and shows the intended development plans for the municipality. The land use plan in Dortmund shows different uses for different areas within the city for the next 10 to 15 years (Dortmund.de, 2016). The current land use plan in Dortmund was produced in 2004. This plan serves the whole city, as well as defined designated areas. Thier Galerie is recognised as a retail space whilst the city centre is seen as the top retail centre (central place of highest category) within this plan (Interview 17, 2016). These issues are explained later in this chapter.

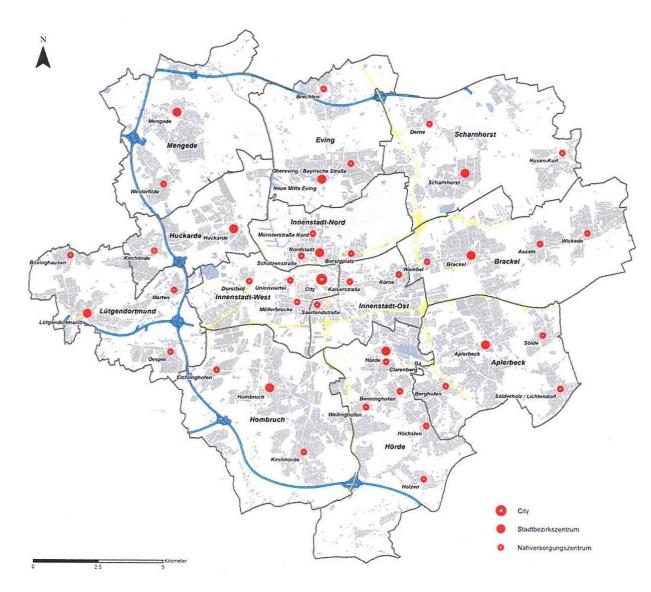


Figure 5.5. A Map showing the Hierarchy of urban centres In Dortmund. Source: Stadt Dortmund, 2013: 65.

Since 2001, there have been 6 master plans produced by the department of planning and environment. These master plans related to environment, mobility, retail, commercial space, housing and amusement parks (Dortmund.de, 2016). The City of Dortmund is responsible for the development of the Mobility Master Plan, the Retail Master Plan and the Amusement Parks Master Plan (Dortmund.de, 2016). The City of Dortmund was one of the first municipalities in Germany to have a detailed retail concept. The objectives of the master plan for retail are: strengthening the upper centre of Dortmund, maintaining and developing the city and its secondary centres,

and securing a comprehensive local supply (Dortmund.de, 2016). The 2004 master plan for retail trade was updated in 2014 by the council and is the base plan for all retail projects and plans in Dortmund. This master plan has helped the implementation of projects to be quicker and faster. It has also resulted in sale increases (Dortmund.de, 2016). According to central place theory, there are, with reference to retail in Dortmund and Ruhr area, 3 levels of hierarchy of centre structure concepts or 3 functions: Top centre (*Ober zentrum*), middle centre (*Mittel zentrum*) and basic centre (*Grund zentrum*) (see Figure 5.5 and Interviews 17 and 18, 2016). The regional level specifies which functions belong to what place within their jurisdictions. For Dortmund, one of the objectives of the retail master plan was to strengthen the top centre or upper centre (Interviews 17 and 18, 2016). Figure 5.6 shows the retail location or (*Lage*) of Thier Galerie which was assessed in a collaborative report by the Council and ECE, this report is discussed in section 5.2.3.

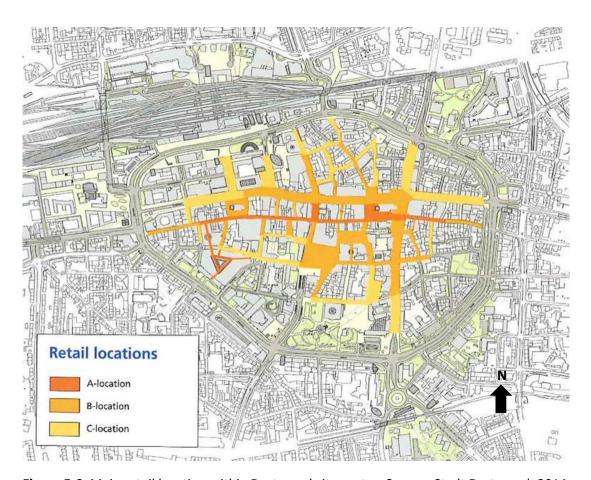


Figure 5.6. Main retail location within Dortmund city centre. Source: Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 16.

In terms of design within the City there has been a Design Advisory Board since 2001 which is responsible for consulting and assessing the construction or design of any projects that have significant implications for the cityscape or quality of architecture within the city (Dortmund.de, 2016). This board does not make any decisions; it only provides recommendations to promote the quality of urban design. The management of this advisory board is located at the Department of Planning in City Council and works directly with the planners. In addition to this advisory board there is a public forum for urban culture within the city which provides opportunities for a variety of experts and citizens to state their interests. Meetings of this forum are held regularly and, according to the website of Dortmund City Council, this forum 'has established itself as an important part of the city development discussion and is recognized as a medium of the Dortmund planning culture' (Dortmund.de, 2016).

One other relevant document at the city level is the "City 2030 - the development concept for Dortmund city centre" (Stadt Dortmund, 2014). The previous version of this document was the "City Concept 2000", which was set out for the development of the city of Dortmund and it was meant to have a prognosis for plans until the year 2000. One of its aims was for 'the retail trade in centre to establish and strengthen the range of products it offers' (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 16). According to City 2030 these ideas 'have already been implemented and contribute to the city centre fulfilling its role within the region' (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 16). The City 2030 aims to enhance urban structure and land use in the town centre in Dortmund. It thus has considered to apply this enhancement into areas such as the city centre's central core, the city centre's outer core, the wall ring and its outer edges and what is known as the City Crown East (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 37). According to this document 'not only are the city's zones, but also its different functional segments, are intended to be more closely integrated with one another' (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 37). This document notes that its tasks for future include initiatives to improve the function and quality of individual areas. These tasks are being developed into targets for the future of the city and include: 'adding floors on underexploited plots, modernising buildings and attracting new users and driving forces. Any temporarily underused properties at prime central locations are to be revitalised according to quality redevelopment concepts in combination with architectural and

improvements' (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 39). Figure 5.7 shows the city 2030's target concept map of the city centre.

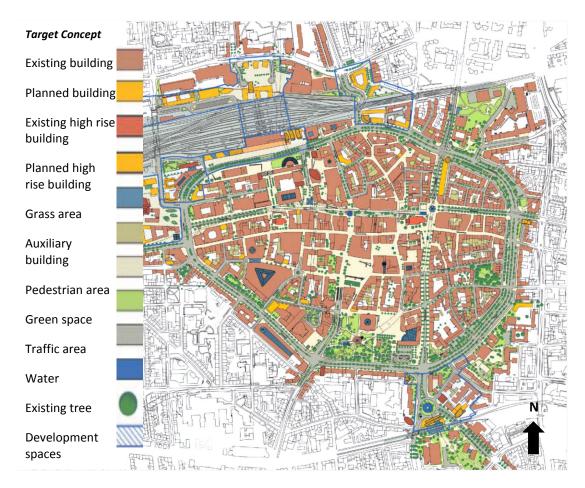


Figure 5.7. Target concept map (city 2030). Source: Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 40.

The city of Dortmund plans 'to improve its organisational unit through centralisation' (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 39) and also plans to achieve high standards of architecture and design in the centre; in addition, it aims to develop and complete the axes for the centre as it has divided them into two parallel east-west axes and three north-south axes (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 39). This document also introduced 8 fields of action and guidelines for an attractive urban living within the centre:

1. Drawing more attention to public paths and squares, 2. Produce design guidelines and work out the guidelines in order to get the right look, 3. Paying attention to city centre street furniture and equipment and make them more user friendly, 4. Developing a design catalogue for street, cafes and restaurants, 5. Ensuring

cleanness and safety of the city centre which would lead to an increased attractiveness in the centre, 6. Adopting and making the city centre, and its different types of spaces, suitable for all generations, 7. Produce a lighting concept to make the centre more attractive, 8. Bringing art to the centre (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 62-67).

According to the City 2030 document, the city of Dortmund has further targets with regards to increasing the housing supply, and therefore, aims to strengthen the centre as a residential area and plans to launch some residential initiatives within this area (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 70).

Policy context of urban design and planning for Thier Galerie

For Thier Galerie, the functional plan, which was set by the developer ECE and was produced in parallel with the *Bebauungsplan* (or the B-Plan), is probably the most important plan. In this plan the traffic, the entrances to the centre, the connection points, spatial levels and elevations, parking, food sections, delivery issues, facade, and other associated aspects were considered (Interview 25, 2016). The urban design studies and details were discussed and were put into this functional plan (Interview 25, 2016). After discussions with the Council with reference to functions, the *Bebauungsplan* (or the B-Plan) was produced and the functions were put in it (Interview 25, 2016). The design objectives of these plans are discussed in section 5.2.3.

In the B-Plan of Thier Galerie (Figure 5.8) the use class (*Sondergebiet*) were very important as it is a retail project therefore the B-Plan has given a textual statement in which it has explained what percentage or what area of this centre must be used for which use (as has been illustrated in Box 5.1).

One of the relatively important documents for Their Galerie was the City Concept 2000 which was published for the whole city centre of Dortmund. In addition to this document there was, for the future development of Thier Galerie City 2030. According to the City 2030, the City of Dortmund plans 'to construct a 4 to 5 floor commercial/residential building on the plot at the corner of Silberstraße-Martinstraße' the development of this scheme is one of the target concepts for Thier Galerie (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 28). The other supporting documents for this project were the Design Guideline for the historical Westenhellweg area which provides

guidelines for public spaces and is set by the Council, and the Heritage Protection and Conservation Programme but also included other heritage sites within the centre (Interviews 25 and 27, 2016).

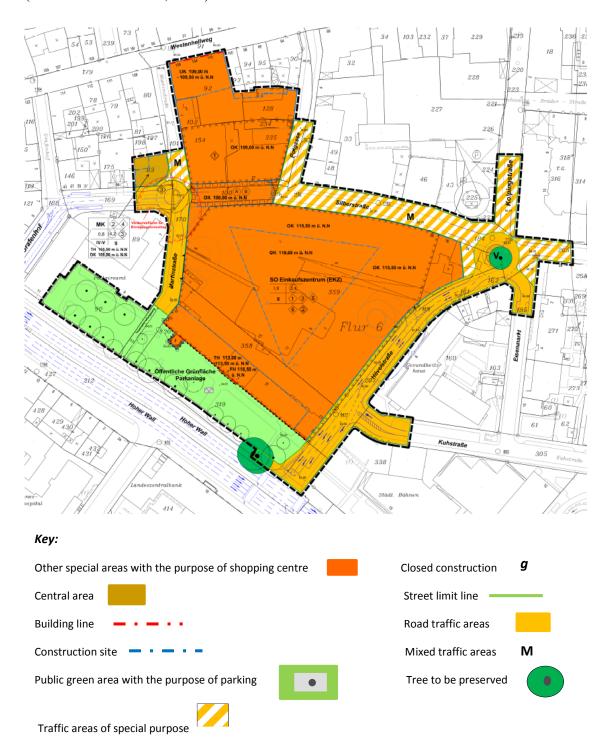


Figure 5.8. The B-Plan of Thier Galerie. Source: Stadt Dortmund, 2009.

The developer and city authorities made a *Städtebaulicher Vertrag* (urban development contract) in order to fix certain obligations, rather than using alternative instruments. In this contract there were a number of things that were fixed such as: architectural design (all plans of the facades and materials for example), opening hours, gastronomy issues, parking costs, proportions of fashion to food outlets and the issue of services (Interviews 18 and 26, 2016).

* • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Industry type	Sales area upper limit
Food and beverage	3500 sqm
Health and body care	2000 sqm
clothing	19500 sqm
Shoe, leather goods	3000 sqm
Equipment requirements	800 sqm
Household, glass, china	1000 sqm
Electronic appliances, lights, entertainment	
electronics, information technologies,	7000 sqm
telecommunication	
Photo, optics	600 sqm
Watches, jewellery	650 sqm
Books, stationary	2100 sqm
Toys, hobby	1000 sqm
Sport, camping	1700 sqm

5.2.3. Planning and urban design process for Thier Galerie

The planning process of Thier Galerie followed the same planning process pattern explained in section 5.1.5.

Master plan, design objectives and issues

One of the most important objectives for the Thier Galerie project was to develop a high quality and attractive retail centre for Dortmund and its surrounding area (Interview 18, 2016). Moreover one of the key concepts for Dortmund city centre was to establish its position as a retail led town centre with the function of *Ober zentrum* (upper centre), thus there was a need for a retail and shopping centre to upgrade the area of Westenhellweg and attract more visitors to this part of the city (All Interviews of Dortmund, 2016). The location of this shopping and retail centre was specified by the City Council and at the regional level many years ago (see section 5.2.1; Interviews 17 and 18 and 25 and 27, 2016; ECE, 2016). The idea developed by the City Planning Department was to redevelop the area with a mix of uses for retail (Interview 25, 2016).

One of the key issues for both the developer and the council was how to integrate this centre with the existing shopping streets and retail structures around it. To address this problem they held a design competition for the façade that was facing the Westenhellweg area (All interviews of Dortmund, 2016) (see Figure 5.9). Because of the historical connections of the site to the former brewery factory as well as the Silver Road (Silberstraße; which was a medieval road in the old Hellweg area), the questions of how to maintain the historic feel of the area and link the past to the site were important. As was noted in the interviews, 'for these matters the topography also became important, as the main shopping district was 5 meters lower than the centre and the topography from west to east were different from each other, which resulted in the creation of split levels in the centre (Interviews 17 and 18 and 25, 2016; Figure 5.9).





Figure 5.9. Shows the façade and the main entrance to Thier Galerie from the Westenhellweg. Source: the author, 2016.

There were some discussions as to whether to connect the two building with a connecting bridge or whether it would be better to let Silver Street stay in its original form. The decision was ultimately made to have an inside connection (Figure 5.10; Interviews 17 and 18, 2016). Another issue that arose concerning the need to connect with the history of the site was the question of whether to maintain the old brewery office building. According to the conservation office of the council it had to be maintained and conserved (Figure 5.11; Interviews 17 and 18, 2016). These issues of conservation which were established by the City Council were also mentioned in the heritage protection programme and the design guidelines of Westenhellweg (Interview 25, 2016).



Figure 5.10. Left pictures show the split levels on the Silver Street from inside of Thier Galerie, Right picture shows the main entrance to Thier Galerie from outside of Silver Street. Source: the author, 2016.

The interior of Thier Galerie (Figure 5.12) has a house within a house concept with a glass roof for letting the light inside, (ECE, 2016). The interior design of Thier Galerie was developed by ECE, and they only held a competition for the outer façade.





Figure 5.11. Pictures showing the façade of the old brewery factory office building and the main entrance of Thier Galerie from the Hoher wall. Source: the author, 2016.

One of the most important targets for the city of Dortmund was to create a shopping and retail centre that would not cause any problem for the suburbs and all the small sized cities around it. Scientific research was undertaken to prove that this centre would help the economy and retail sector (Interviews 17and 18, 2016). One of the key findings of this research was a retail index measurement for the retail development of the centrality. This index indicated the total amount that was being spent on retail compared to the income of Dortmund's inhabitants. This index showed that people could afford to spend more on retail as the retail index was over 1.0 (Interview 18, 2016). This finding helped to convince people that there was a need for the new retail centre.



Figure 5.12. Different pictures from the interior of Thier Galerie. Source: the author, 2016.

Position of urban design within the planning process

Urban design for the Thier Galerie project was considered at the same time as the functional plan, the master plan, and the master plan's vision were being made. During the development of the initial ideas for the shape and urban form of the centre so many of the design aspects such as: conducting an urban design study for understanding the location of the centre and how to integrate the centre to its wider area of Dortmund city centre, developing the details and other relevant aspects of urban design; were involved (Interview 25, 2016). The urban design issues which were parts of the master plan were fixed into the functional plan. Later, after negotiation with the council, these issues together with other details relevant to the project were put in the *Bebauungsplan* (or the B-Plan) (Interview 25, 2016). The B-Plan for Thier Galerie was one of the end results of the planning process and it acted as a carrier of the design and architectural details which were considered and developed before the B-Plan was prepared and finalised (all Interviews of Dortmund, 2016).

There seems to be a consensus from all the interviews of Dortmund, that The B-Plan preparation involved many discussions and consultations with the Design Advisory

Board and other experts. Although one might think that the planning process in Germany is a fixed process, the case of Thier Galerie illustrates there were some spaces left for the developer in terms of design creativity and innovation. Therefore, the fixed laws and codes and guidelines directed the developer but they did not block their creativity.

The role of the Design Advisory Board in pushing design principles into the project was very important (Interviews 17 and 27, 2016). Moreover, the City Council, and different lobbying bodies were also involved, and affected the planning process and pushed design principles as positive factors into the project. The Chamber of Commerce was also involved in the planning process and the preparation of the plan as a party that reflected the views of merchandisers and other retailers in the area (Interview 26, 2016). One more actor that affected the design and planning of this scheme was the strong planning administration office (i.e. the Chief of Planning Department at the City Council who played a crucial role in pushing design principles in to the project) (Interviews 17 and 18, 2016).

The planning and decision making processes for Thier Galerie was in the form of informal talks and negotiations as well as the usual formal processes which were outlined in section 5.1. These processes which were political in nature also involved the Lord Mayor as the head of administration, other politicians, and the Administration Board of Dortmund City Council (Interview 27, 2016).

Evaluation of the project

Thier Galerie won an award for the most innovative new shopping centre in Europe in 2012 (ECE, 2016). The centre has been successful in increasing retail trade and has helped the economy of the city centre and the city in general (Interview 17, 2016). The success of Thier Galerie has also been assessed by a report carried out by the ECE and the city of Dortmund (Called *Auswirkungen der Thier Galerie auf die Dortmunder Innnenstadt*) as one of the compulsory condition in the contract of Thier Galerie. The findings of this report confirm the success of Thier Galerie in assisting to improve the retail sector (Stadt Dortmund, 2015: 1-18). The report also measured the frequency of passers-by at seven different locations in the city centre. According to these measurements there were 386,000 people in 2011 and 405,000 visitors in 2014 (Schnitzler, 2015).

The area of Thier Galerie, as shown in Figure 5.6, was A location or *A Lage* in 2014 in terms of retail, as well as the number of visitors. Thier Galerie has shifted and lifted the shopping district of Westenhellweg from a C location (*C Lage*) to A location (*A Lage*) in 2014 while the Ostenhellweg lost its position and status from A location to B location (*B Lage*) (Thiel, 2015). These factors were according to the findings of the report that was mentioned above and indicate that since the opening of Thier Galerie, the Westenhellweg area has improved with regards to retail and number of visitors. While Ostenhellweg compared to Westenhellweg declined a little with regards to both retail and number of visitors.

According to City Concept 2030, Thier Galerie 'has not had any noticeable impact on the rent prices, but it has acted as a magnet for follow-on investments in the immediate neighbourhood, such as the Lensing Caree' (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 17). This statement is another indicator of success for this project.

Thier Galerie has also been successful as it sits well in the Westenhellweg area and has been able to integrate with the whole shopping street of Westenhellweg. It has also upgraded this area and made it a more attractive area to visitors. Along with the other retail areas in the Westenhellweg, Thier Galerie has also been successful in increasing the amount of footfall within the area. As a result of Thier Galerie 'areas that were not attractive before now look different' (Interview 17, 2016).

Issues such as permeability, legibility and pedestrian movements were important in this project as it is located within a highly dense city centre (Figure 5.13). Enhancing and maintaining an accessible and permeable route from the main train station to the building of Thier Galerie were also important to the designers and developers (all Interviews of Dortmund, 2016). As Figure 5.13 illustrates the Thier Galerie has certainly increased the number of nodes and pedestrian routes. The centre has enhanced the permeability of the Hellweg area, and it has created a new landmark for Westenhellweg particularly in regards to its façade facing Westenhellweg (Figure 5.14). Moreover one of the objectives of the centre which was to create a path to the main train station (see Figure 5.13) has also resulted in enhancement of the permeability.

The architecture, facades and urban design of the centre made some attempts not to disturb the rest of the urban fabric of city centre. The architecture and urban design of the centre according to an interviewee 'is semi successful' (Interview 27, 2016) because of two reasons: it is built over a public road, and therefore has closed the public space (silver road or Silberstraße) and because it is in some parts ordinary looking (Interview 27, 2016). This fact has also been criticised by Schnitzler (2015) who noted that the urban integration of Thier Galerie has received some harsh criticism especially the fact that the centre 'overbuilt' the Silberstraße and meant that the city had to give up public space (Figure 5.10).



Figure 5.13. Visual map of Thier Galerie inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of image of the city. Source: The author, 2016.

The centre has been criticised in terms of its effects on retail in the Ostenhellweg (eastern side of Hellweg) area, as some of the retailer in this part of the city have closed. An example of this, is the a retailer called Olymp & Hades which since the opening of Thier Galerie saw their sale's figures decline to a level whereby they had to close (Laurenz, 2013). The change in the business outlook for premises in Ostenhellweg after the opening of Thier Galerir is evident by looking at the decrease in the number of visitors to this area (Laurenz, 2013).



Figure 5.14. Left top picture shows a 3 dimensional model of Thier Galerie from the junction of Hovelstraße and Silberstraße; Bottom left picture is the initial sketches for the internal design of Thier Galerie; Right picture is a 3 dimensional model of part of the façade of the Centre in Westenhellweg and Martinstraße. Source: Stadt Dortmund and ECE, 2008: 9, 16, 17.

Compared to the English case studies, Thier Galerie is not a mixed use development. However, it is worth noting that one of the targets of the City Concept 2030 for the future of Thier Galerie are to add some residential units to it and therefore bring more of a mixed use flavour to the scheme (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 17).

5.2.4. Summary

Perhaps the Dortmund Project, which also aimed to develop the city centre, was a starting point in the history of the city which later influenced the development of regeneration schemes within Dortmund such as Thier Galerie. The highly dense centre of the city has been successful in establishing itself as a retail-led place and has been able to attract visitors not only from Dortmund but also from its neighbouring towns and cities. The city centre also has maintained its image as a traditional market place and has been able to connect to its past and history. The project of Thier Galerie, which is 14 percent of the total sales floor area in the city centre (Stadt Dortmund, 2014: 17), has been able to maintain and upgrade the image of the Westenhellweg area and Dortmund city centre as a whole.

In the planning process (see Figure 5.15) and urban design development of Thier Galerie, there have been many instances of voluntary cooperation, and many consultations with the Design Advisory Board, members of public, practitioners and experts (all interviews of Thier Galerie, 2016). In addition, the planning process for Thier Galerie has involved many interactions between the City Council and the developer, ECE. It has been recognised that the roles of these actors were important for pushing and pursuing urban design principles into this project. The position of urban design within the planning process of Thier Galerie is identified as in parallel with the stages of developing the functional plan and master plan, and development of the master plan's vision. These design ideas were developed in the form of design studies and details and were put into these plans with other technical and development concepts and ideas. The design ideas were developed by the developer and in some parts, such as the façade of the building; the design ideas were the result of design competitions.

The main design objectives for this project were: establishing and strengthening Dortmund city centre as a top level retail centre (*Ober-zentrum*) by developing the centre and having a mixture of uses within the scheme; enhancing permeability, legibility and other urban design principles such as connectivity for the project and Dortmund city centre; integrating Thier Galerie to the existing fabric of the city centre, particularly the Westenhellweg area; making a connection to the history of the site of Thier Galerie by integrating it into the old Thier brewery; making a

connection path from the centre to the main central train station; and creating an innovative internal design (the 'house within a house' concept).

There were a number of instruments and measures that were effective for controlling, managing and handling urban design within the planning process. Documents evidencing this are: at the regional level, the regional plan; at the City Council or municipality level, the *FNP* for Dortmund 2004, Dortmund Retail Master Plan 2013, the City Concept 2000 and the City Concept 2030; and, at the project level, the functional plan, master plan, B-Plan, Westenhellweg design guidelines, heritage and conservation programme, urban development contract, and design competition.

It is worth noting that the *Bebauungsplan* is only a carrier of relevant issues to urban design and the details of a project, describing the things that are seen in projects, so in this respect it is the last result of the planning process (Interview 25, 2016). During this process, first the design studies, ideas and concepts were developed, and usually the developers make sure that whatever they are doing in master planning is fixed in the functional plan, while negotiating these functions with local authorities. Thus, after agreement with the local authorities, these functions would go into the *Bebauungsplan*. This was more evident and tangible for Thier Galerie (Interview 25, 2016). There are some requirements by law for the *Bebauungsplan*, which impact the design, but, in the end, the real drawing of the B-plan comes out of the design that has been previously developed (Interview 25, 2016). In the B-plan, 'the borders are very limited and there is no flexibility. In this plan the three-dimensional ideas of the building or projects are very clear' (Interview 25, 2016).

It seems that the project of Thier Galerie is now at a stage where it focuses more on the context in which it is located. This means that Thier Galerie now is trying to work along with the main shopping street, as well as the whole city centre of Dortmund.

With regard to the enforcement of or shaping the urban design by the planning system, although the planning system is a prescriptive one and there are many laws, guidelines and codes that have been set by the land government and municipalities, there is some scope for the developers, urban designers and architects to be creative and innovative in developing their own design concepts and ideas. This is evident in Thier Galerie.

The planning culture and its embeddedness in the planning process of Thier Galerie, is evident in issues such as the history of planning and decision making for Dortmund city centre, whilst the issues of retail planning and establishing the city centre as a top retail centre resulted in the initial proposals for developing Thier Galerie. Other examples of the embeddedness of a planning culture in the Thier Galerie planning process are: the engagement of the Lord Mayor as the administrative head in the planning process (Interview 27, 2016); the development of design ideas and studies in parallel with the development of the master plan's vision as well as the functional plan; the closing of the public road (Silver Street or Silberstraße) by the ECE, which reflects the culture of privatization of public space by private developers. Moreover the fact that both the developer and the city authorities sought to create a scheme which did not disturb the city centre's urban fabric as well as the existing retail district of Westenhellweg, is another example that reflects the issue of a planning culture.

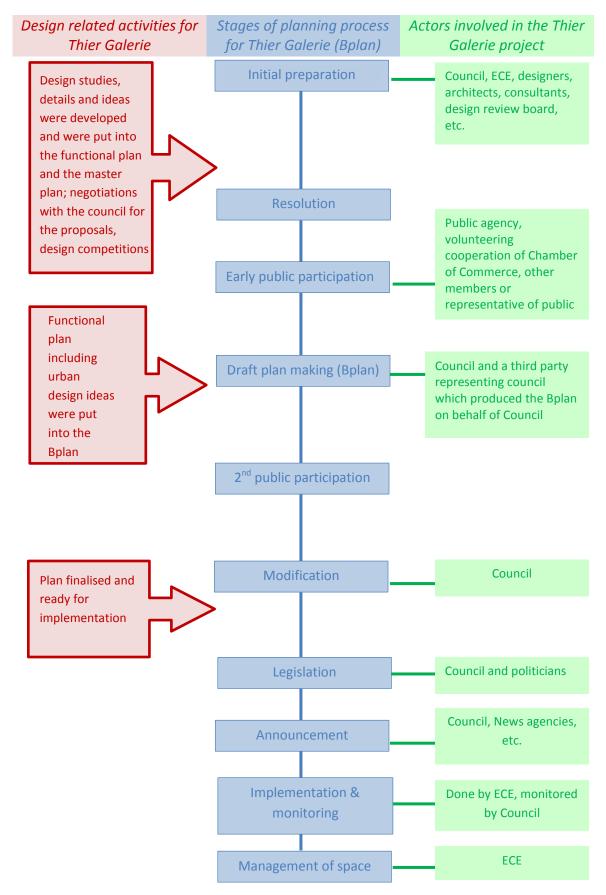


Figure 5.15. A simplified summary of the planning process of the Thier Galerie project. Source: the author.

5.3. Mall of Berlin (Potsdamer Platz, Berlin)

The Mall of Berlin, which is a new phase of development in Potsdamer Platz, is a recently developed retail centre and has a mixed use sense to it, as it has some residential and other types of uses in it. The previous phases of developments in the Potsdamer Platz were developed a long time ago. Potsdamer Platz today is an office and entertainment complex. The reason for including the Potsdamer Platz developments here is to try to understand the context in which the Mall of Berlin is sited. Other details pertinent to both developments have been explained in Section 5.3.1.

Berlin has experienced lots of transformations in its image over the last few decades and its political attitudes towards urban planning and governance have also changed dramatically. One of the most important transformation phases in the recent history of Berlin was probably the fall of the Berlin Wall, in 1989, and the reunification of Germany in 1990. The urban structure of the western part was different from the eastern part of the city, mainly because of the division that existed between West and East Berlin. West Berlin eliminated most of the sites that were destroyed during the war, having received very substantial economic aid and therefore created various large-scale building projects (Berlin.de, 2016a). East Berlin did not receive such economic support and the reconstruction of large-scale developments only began after the construction of the wall in 1961 (Berlin.de, 2016a). Following reunification and a vote in the national Parliament, the status of being the capital of Germany came back to Berlin again after it had belonged to Bonn for some time. For the new governmental district in Berlin, the overall solution agreed 'involved a pragmatic mix of new construction, minim [al] demolition and extensive refurbishment (and sometimes partial concealment) of existing buildings' (Colomb, 2012: 169). One of the important documents for this new district was a framework titled the Development Programme for the Capital City Berlin – Parliament and Government District, which was established by Berlin's Senate in 1993 and consisted of development programmes of the district from 1993 to 2013 (Berlin.de, 2016b).

In the 1980s, the International Building Exhibition (IBA), which was funded at the time when West Berlin was still the 'subsidised showcase of the West' (Ladd, 1997: 228), was the start of a change in the attitudes of planners and architects. This

programme concentrated on inner city areas, especially those near the wall. As a result of this programme, some prominent architects and planners were attracted to the city to design new buildings (Ladd, 1997: 228). The IBA has helped the existing structure and function of the city to be more understandable to the planners, designers and architects (Ladd, 1997: 229). Probably one of the most important objectives of urban planning and urban design movements within the city was in the fragmented areas in the city centre, which were the result of the pre- and post-war urban fabric, mostly left as derelict lands or wastelands. The potential of such areas attracted investors to these forgotten parts of Berlin's centre (Balfour, 1995; Ladd 1997). Examples of these areas (which had attracted investors, bankers and developers from various places such as Sweden, Japan, USA, UK, etc.) are places like Potsdamer Platz, Friedrichstadt and Alexander Platz (Balfour, 1995: 50). Although these places performed well in economic and political respects, 'these projects posed many problems in terms of urban planning. There was a clear need for regulations governing the availability of sites and for general guidelines on urban planning and development' (Balfour, 1995: 51).

5.3.1. Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz

The Mall of Berlin is located in Leipziger Platz, Berlin-Mitte and is very close to Potsdamer Platz. The mall, which opened in 2014, was developed by a private company named HGHI Holding GmbH. The Mall of Berlin consists of 270 shops, 12,000 sqm of hotel space, 4,000 sqm of office space, 30,000 sqm of apartments, approximately 1,000 parking spaces and totals 210,000 sqm (Mall of Berlin, 2016; HGHI, 2016). Apart from retail, the mall also offers a range of different leisure activities such as entertainment, restaurants and cafes, and so on.

To understand the context in which the Mall of Berlin is located, it is important to note that Potsdamer Platz, which was opened in 1998, comprises 17 buildings, 10 streets and 2 squares. It consists of offices, apartments, 2 hotels, a cinema, 3 theatres, a casino, and a shopping mall with 130 shops and restaurants and cafes, and so forth. The whole area of Potsdamer Platz attracts a large number of visitors every day (Potsdamerplatz, 2016). Figure 5.16 shows the boundaries of the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz developments.

The site of the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz before the intervention

The site of the Mall of Berlin was previously the Wertheim department store, which turned the area into a trade and retail centre as well as a fashion hub for Germany (Mall of Berlin, 2016). The department store building, which was partly destroyed during war, was demolished in 1956 (Berlin.de, 2016c). For a long time and before the building of the new development in 2012, the site of the Mall of Berlin was left derelict (Interview 22, 2016).

After the erection of the Berlin Wall, according to Lehrer (2003: 384) Potsdamer Platz had become 'a non-place in most Berliners' mental maps'. This area was a massive wasteland and was neglected for many years, but after the fall of the Berlin Wall a new opportunity for this large area had arisen (Potsdamerplatz, 2016). By 1995 the inner city of Berlin, including the site of Potsdamer Platz, was turned into a large size construction site (Lehrer, 2003: 384).

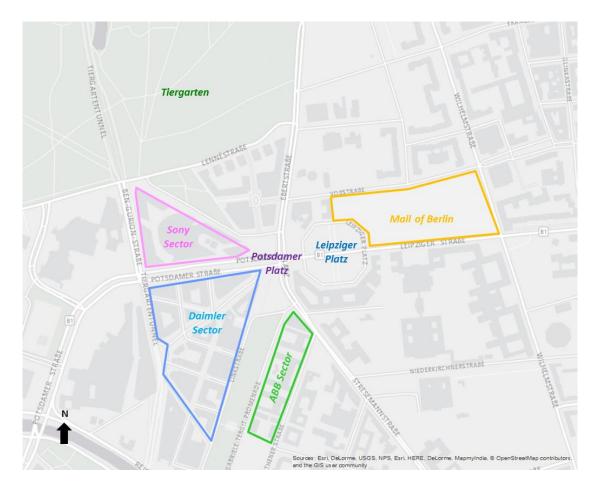


Figure 5.16. Boundaries of the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz developments. Source: the author, 2016.

A timeline of planning and decision making for the site of the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz

In 1990 the land owners and investors of the site of Potsdamer Platz (Daimler Benz, Sony Berlin, Hertie and ABB) hired Richard Rogers to develop a proposal map for the whole area; later, in 1991, the Senate of Berlin held an urban design competition for the whole south of the Tiegarten area, which was won by Hilmer and Salter (Miller and Reed, 2008: 3). The area consists of three developments, being Daimler City (opened in 1998), the Sony Centre (opened in 2000) and the Beisheim Centre (opened in 2004) (Berlin.de, 2016d).

In 2007, the RCO Company bought the land for the Mall of Berlin, after the original landowner was bankrupted. In 2007-2008 RCO held a design competition and invited different designers to this competition. In 2008, the architect Kleihues won the design competition. Based on this design, the land use plan was prepared in 2008. However, because of the financial crisis, in 2010 the land was sold by RCO to HGHI Holding GmbH, but the original concept by Kleihues was kept in the project (All Interviews of Berlin, 2016). From 2012 to 2014 the realisation and opening of the Mall of Berlin took place (HGHI, 2016).

5.3.2. Planning and urban design (policy context and instruments)

This section intends to introduce the relevant policy context and instruments of planning, urban development and urban design at three levels of the Berlin-Brandenburg region, the city of Berlin and Berlin Mitte and the selected case study of Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz.

At the regional level of Berlin-Brandenburg, there is a Regional Planning Council (*RPR*), which is the responsible and cooperative body for regional planning (Berlin-Brandenburg.de, 2016). In terms of the land development plan, there are three basic plans, which are State Development Program 2007, *LEP-ro* 2007, State Development Plan Berlin-Brandenburg *LEP BB*, National Development Plan Airport site development LEP *FS* (Berlin-Brandenburg.de, 2016). This section does not discuss these further.

Within the regional level of Berlin-Brandenburg, there is a spatial planning procedure which is 'a test and voting procedure prior to the approval procedure' (Berlin-Brandenburg.de, 2016a). This procedure verifies whether a certain project is in accordance to the regional planning requirements and conditions. The legal basis for the planning process includes the Spatial Planning Act (*ROG*), the Spatial Planning Ordinance of the Federal (*ROV*), the country's planning contract (*LPIV*), and the joint regional planning procedure Regulation of Berlin and Brandenburg (Berlin-Brandenburg.de, 2016a).

Policy context and instruments of urban design and planning for Berlin and Berlin-Mitte

At the city level, the land use plan and the local development plans are the formal planning documents based on federal planning legislation. The land use plan for Berlin has an outline planning framework for the future of the city. Box 5.2 lists the strategic objectives of the Berlin land use plan. The local development plans indicate the zoning land use plans for the whole city and contain site-specific plans for smaller areas and land plots within the city (Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 8). In terms of spatial planning, there are documents that contain Berlin-specific planning regulations, and documents such as Sectoral Development Plans and Intermediate Area Plans. Regarding Berlin-specific environmental legislation, there are the Landscape Programme and Local Landscape Plans (Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 8).

All of these plans 'are supplemented by a great number of informal planning concepts for specific areas or subject matters' (Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 8). Figure 5.17 shows different plans with regard to spatial planning in Berlin.

One of the other useful documents for guiding the city's development is the Urban Development Concept Berlin 2030 (Berlin 2030) which was produced in 2013 and aims to promote quality of life and strengthen the image of the city both internally and globally (Senate Department for Urban Development and the Environment, 2015: 24). The strategies within this document include: 'strengthening the economy with smart knowledge, strengths through creativity, safeguarding employment through education and skills, reinforcing neighbourhood diversity, city and green

growing together, laying the groundwork for a climate friendly metropolis, improving accessibility and city friendly mobility, and shaping the future together' (Senate Department for Urban Development and the Environment, 2015: 25). This document has set priorities and introduced 10 areas for transformation; the potential that these areas offer in terms of future developments will help Berlin to change and increase the city's influence internationally (Senate Department for Urban Development and the Environment, 2015: 58). One of These areas is: Berlin Mitte in which Mall of Berlin is located.

Box 5.2. Strategic objectives of Berlin's land use plan

Source: Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 16.

- 1. Priority of internal development, urban diversity, improved usage of existing built-up areas.
- 2. Balanced mix of urban land uses in all parts of the city.
- 3. Improvements and well-planned additions to the existing housing stock in built-up areas.
- 4. Provision of additional employment, particularly in areas well served by public transport.
- 5. Strengthening of the polycentric structure of the city through integrated development of existing centres.
- 6. Protection of open spaces, provision of recreational areas, a well-balanced urban ecology.
- 7. Provision of adequate locations for public services of city-wide importance.
- 8. City of short distances, efficient public transport, intelligent solutions for commercial traffic.

Berlin Mitte (where the case study is located) has been categorised, in the "Berlin 2030" document, as one of the central areas within the city to develop. It is hoped that it will be transformed into a pulsating and multi-functional centre. The transformation of this area will be realised by turning it into an attractive area within the city for living. As "Berlin 2030" suggests, this area will offer more green spaces and recreation areas and will be a scientific, cultural and business centre for Berlin. It will be, 'a place to live thanks to its high percentage of affordable urban flats, as a

centre of culture and creativity, as a future-proof workplace and as a tourist starting point for Berliners and visitors from all over the world' (Senate Department for Urban Development and the Environment, 2015: 60).

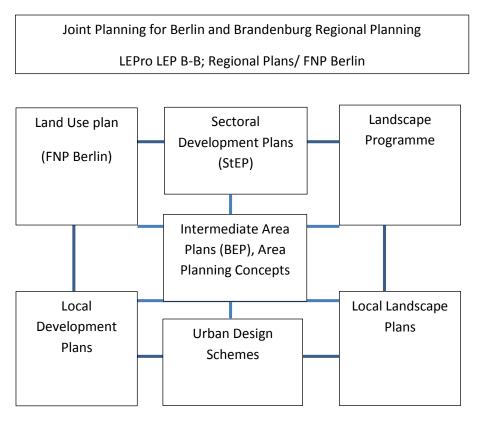


Figure 5.17. Different plans at different spatial levels and their relationships for Berlin. Source: Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 8.

The concept of integrated urban areas within the land use plan of Berlin introduces a hierarchy of urban centres (central place concept). The land use plan would provide a general background for any developments within the urban centres while the sectoral development plan provides a policy framework as well as planning objectives (Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 12). With regard to retail developments the sectoral development plans for urban centres defines a hierarchy of urban centres in Berlin. These plans set 'limits for the growth of retail floor space and identifies the type of action needed to strengthen individual urban centres' (Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 12). According to this concept of urban centres hierarchy, most areas in Mitte have been identified as

central areas of city wide importance as well as medium and high density central areas. This is also the case for Potsdamer Platz and Leipziger Platz (the case study). Figure 5.18 shows the hierarchy of urban centres in Berlin.

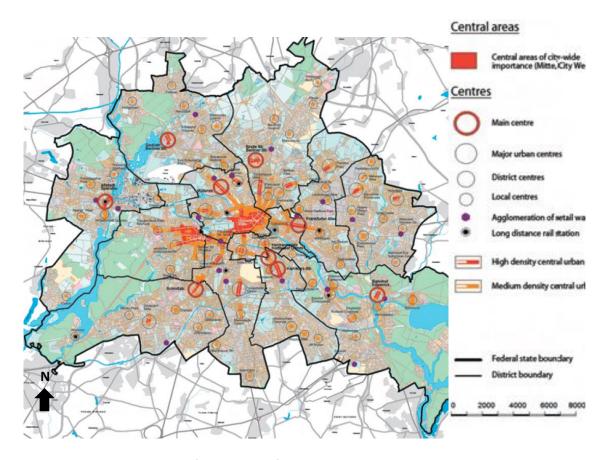


Figure 5.18. The concept of hierarchy of urban centres in Berlin. Source: Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, 2009: 12.

With regard to urban design review, the Urban Design Board of Experts (*Baukollegium*) is a committee (in Berlin) responsible for reviewing urban design and the general design aspects of important urban projects. The Chairman of this panel is a Senate Building Director, whilst other members are external people with architectural, design and planning backgrounds (Berlin.de, 2016e; Interviews 22 and 24, 2016). The result of their discussions and consultations would be reflected into the plan and the building permit (Berlin.de, 2016e).

Policy context of urban design and planning for the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz

For the Mall of Berlin project there was a land use plan which was produced in 2008 and a master plan which was produced specifically for the whole Mall complex. The aims and objectives of these plans are discussed in 5.3.3. For the whole developments of the Potsdamer Platz, including Leipziger Platz (Mall of Berlin) the master plan was developed by Hilmer and Sattler who won an urban design competition. The main themes of this plan are introduced in 5.3.3.

5.3.3. Planning and urban design process for Mall of Berlin (Potsdamer Platz)

Master plan, design objectives and issues

The main design objectives within the master plan and land use plan of Mall of Berlin are noted. First, the Senate of Berlin demanded that the mall has to be compatible with the rest of the area of Leipziger Platz and Potsdamer Platz (Interview 22, 2016). Secondly in terms of building design the Senate asked that it should fit into its wider area of Potsdamer Platz and Leipziger Platz. As a result of this the developer was convinced by the Senate of Berlin to hold a design competition and look for a moderate and ordinary looking building design (Interviews 16, 22 and 24, 2016). The reason for asking for a moderate and ordinary looking building was that the developer and authorities thought that this kind of design would be more sustainable, and better, for the whole city, as well as the project itself (Interview 22, 2016). One of the important issues for the façade of the building was that both the Senate of Berlin and the HGHI group as the developer, demanded a design that would not make the building look like one block (Interviews 16 and 22, 2016). The third objective was that there should be a path through the blocks of building and that the building structure along the Leipziger Platz should be fixed. As shown in Figure 5.19 this meant that the original geometric form (octagonal) and structure of Leipziger Platz would remain untouched (Interview 22, 2016). In addition, the developer aimed to deliver a 'modern and elegant building which did not lose its connection to its previous history of being the location of former Wertheim department stores' (Interview 16, 2016).

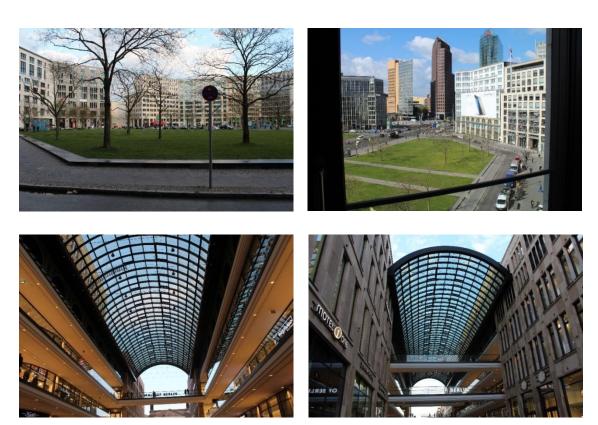


Figure 5.19. Top pictures showing the octagonal structure of Leipziger Platz, bottom pictures show the glass roof over the plaza which is located in between two building blocks of the Mall of Berlin. Source: the author, 2016.

The land use plan for the project of the Mall of Berlin was based on the design concept and ideas of Kleihues (all interviews of Berlin, 2016). These design concepts were requested from the previous developer of the project, the RCO, and contained ideas such as having the shopping mall inside, and having the residential parts on the rooftop with playgrounds and a courtyard (Interview 22, 2016). These design concepts shaped the foundation of the land use plan and were also used in the later designs by HGHI group. The latter also incorporated the conditions of using 30% of the building for housing, offices and hotels, and tried to make the whole project a mixed use development (Interview 22, 2016). One thing to note here is that the HGHI group wanted to make the project bigger (in size) than the original land use plan which was produced for the previous owner (Interview 24, 2016).

One other design objective that was mainly part of the master plan for the Mall of Berlin was that it should contain functions such as retail, housing and offices (Figure 5.20). Other design criteria and objectives within the master plan of the Mall of

Berlin considered the urban fabric and looked at the kind of scale to have around the Leipziger Platz. This latter point was important in terms of entrances to the building by pedestrians and cars, and in terms of elevation. It resulted in the decision to split the big site block into smaller parts (Interview 24, 2016). The master plan of the Mall only made a few changes to the elevation of the original master plan that was created by Kleihues (Interview 24, 2016).



Figure 5.20. A 3 dimensional model of the master plan of the Mall of Berlin and Leipziger Platz. Source: Berlin.de website, 2016f.

For the internal design of the Mall of Berlin, (Figure 5.21), the HGHI group had a war time theme for the building (Interviews 16 and 22, 2016). The HGHI group 'created an exclusive design with the help of historic photographs, ornaments, wooden panels and benches, Italian tiles, etc. which would reflect and hints on the history of the mall but in a modern way' (Interview 16, 2016). For the developer the highlight of this complex project is the 23 meters high glass roof which covers the plaza and the pathway in between the two main blocks (Interview 16, 2016). According to an introduction to this project in the December 2014 edition of *The Journal of the American Institute of Architects*, the façades of the Mall of Berlin at

the Leipziger Straße, Wilhelmstraße and Voßstraße, as well as the piazza, 'borrow elements from the original Wertheim building and reinterpret them in a contemporary manner' (Journal of the American Institute of Architects, 2016).

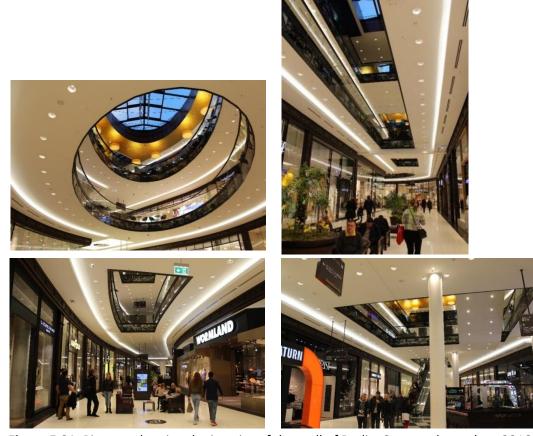


Figure 5.21. Pictures showing the interior of the mall of Berlin. Source: the author, 2016.

The Potsdamer Platz development (Figure 5.22), once the biggest construction site in Berlin, was based on the master plan developed by Hilmer and Sattler. This master plan (Figure 5.23) could not constrain the Sony Corporation's development mainly because it came too late (Balfour, 1995: 69). Potsdamer Platz has been developed within the constraints of Hilmer and Sattler's master plan for most of its parts (Balfour, 1995: 183). Their ideas for the master plan were based on 'the compact, spatially complex model of the European city, with urban life centred in streets and squares' (Balfour, 1995: 231).













Figure 5.22. Pictures of different development sectors at Potsdamer Platz. Source: the author, 2016.

In their plan, there were some indicators for the proportion of street widths and building heights, as they were trying to create 'a cohesive street network' (Balfour, 1995: 231). The building structures in this master plan were designed to feature shops on the ground floor, offices on the middle floors and residential spaces on the top of each structure. This master plan has also relied on 'the predominance of public transport' (Balfour, 1995: 231) for attracting people into the area. As mentioned before, the master plan establishes the whole concept of Potsdamer Platz and, with

some exceptions; most of the investors followed the principles that were set in this plan. The plan also provided a basic platform for negotiations between investors, the Senate and the district of Tiergarten (Colomb, 2012: 148).

The Hilmer and Sattler master plan was condemned by investors for being 'dull and provincial' (Strom, 1996: 471). Despite this, the investors had to follow these principles and guidelines for their individual sectors. The Daimler officials accepted the guidelines while they tried to negotiate their own preferences into their section quietly (Strom, 1996: 471). The Sony officials, however, were in a constant battle with the Building Department at the Senate as they resisted the principles of the master plan and wanted to develop their own ideas, which resulted in delays in the start of construction for this sector (Strom, 1996: 471). The Building Department at the Senate of Berlin has collaborated with private planning agencies for monitoring and drawing up detailed building plans for the site, thus the planning process of the whole Potsdamer Platz development has involved many public presentations and exhibitions showing these detailed plans to the members of public (Strom, 1996: 471).

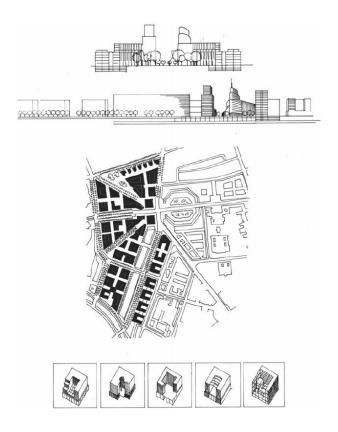


Figure 5.23. Hilmer and Sattler winning design and master plan for Potsdamer Platz. Source: Nowobilska and Zaman, 2014: 17.

Position of urban design within the planning process

The planning process for the Mall of Berlin was a collaborative process in which there were lots of interactions and discussions between the developer (HGHI) and Senate Department for Urban Development and Environment of Berlin (all interviews of Berlin, 2016). With regard to urban design, the Senate of Berlin, or to put it in other words the planning system has fixed and established a set of parameters for the developer to follow. However the developer was mainly the responsible body for pushing and putting urban design principles as positive factor into the project (Interview 22, 2016). These parameters were prepared by the Senate; were more in regards to the geometric (octagonal) structure of Leipziger Platz, the percentage of housing and other usage as well as the façade of the building on the Leipziger Platz and the pathway in between the blocks. There were lots of negotiations between the Senate and the developer with regard to design issues (Interview 22, 2016). One important factor for the project of Mall of Berlin is that the Senate played a crucial role for convincing the developer in holding a design competition (Interview 22, 2016).

As part of the planning process before the project started the Senate of Berlin asked the developer to provide evidence that the creation of this complex would not have any negative effect on the surrounding environment or other centres within Berlin with specific regards to retail (Interviews 22 and 24; 2016).

Evaluation of the project

The success of the Mall as one interviewee argued was justified by the followings factors: the central location of the Mall, close distance to tourist attraction, good access for the public, long opening hours as well being open on Sundays, attractive services, variety of shops and tenants (Interview 16, 2016).

With regard to urban design principles such as connectivity, permeability, and legibility; as is evident from Figure 5.24, the Mall of Berlin has increased the number of nodes and pedestrian routes, and it has also enhanced the permeability of Leipziger Platz. The glass roof path has created better views for the mall as well as from the pedestrian point of view as it is opened to the residential areas behind the Mall and at the front it is opened to one of the existed landmarks in the area (Figure 5.24).

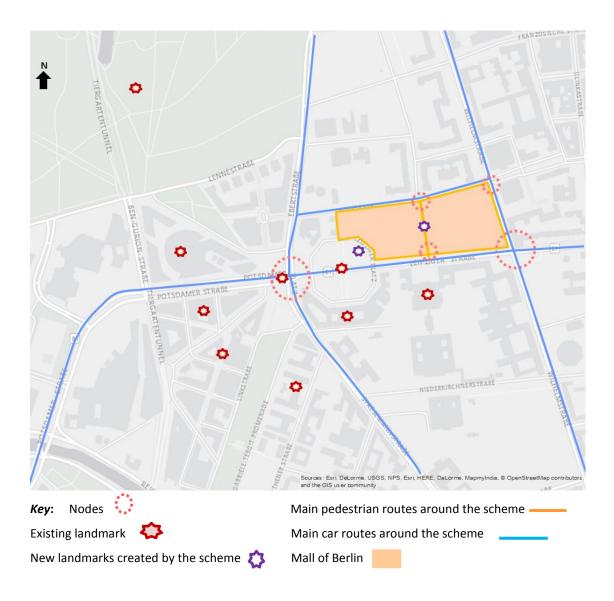


Figure 5.24. Visual map of Mall of Berlin inspired by Kevin Lynch's ideas of image of the city. Source: the author, 2016.

The architecture of the Mall has been also criticised by some experts, for instance Novy (2014) who criticised the Mall as a place which made a disappointing impression, with hopeless and an insignificant façade. It was, he suggested, an 'architectural non-event' building (Novy, 2014). In addition, some of the flats and houses at the rooftop of the Mall and where the residential units are located seem to have been created for the sake of feasibility and might not even deliver a convenient and liveable space (Figure 5.25 shows the residential unit on the rooftop). The effect of the whole complex on its neighbouring residential areas from a pedestrian perspective is also questionable.

Furthermore, and according to an article by O'Sullivan (2014) customer footfall has been lower than expected. There were also some protests in 2014 from Eastern European workers whom claimed that they were not paid their wages even though that the Mall was opened in the same year. The Mall has been labelled "the Mall of Shame" (O'Sullivan, 2014). There were some allegations that the Mall was not fire safe (O'Sullivan, 2014).

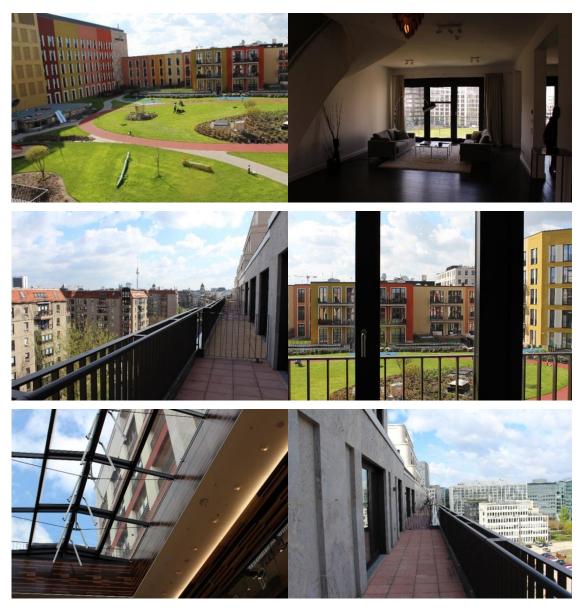


Figure 5.25. Shows some (internal and external) pictures of the residential units at the top of Mall of Berlin and its surrounding neighbourhoods. Source: the author, 2016.

Another interviewee argued that the Mall of Berlin is not very successful in terms of urban design as the internal design is 'cheaply done'. In addition, the interviewee suggested that 'the mall became so big, as requested by the developer, and because

of the size of it does not work in terms of volume and 3D' (Interview 24, 2016). However, the Mall is considered to make a positive contribution to the street profile of Leipziger Platz (Interview 24, 2016).

For a better understanding of the context in which the Mall of Berlin is located, it is necessary to evaluate the Potsdamer Platz developments. These developments have been successful in attracting tourists into the area, and have transformed the image of the whole area. This area has also been successful in reflecting the global image goals that Berlin dreamed of. However, the developments of Potsdamer Platz have been criticised for the following reasons: the area of Potsdamer Platz is a busy traffic intersection but is a 'victim of failed traffic planning' (Miller and Reed, 2008: 6). Potsdamer Platz developments have also initiated tourists into an optical mode of consumption (Rossi, 1998: 47). Moreover, there has been little attention to 'other ways of engaging the urban environment that are not visual' (Rossi, 1998: 47). Rossi (1998: 47) also asked the question of what possibilities there are to enjoy the district in anything but a visual way. What openings are there for small entrepreneursretailers, artists, shopkeepers? With regard to visitors attraction and their freedom of activities and movements, Allen (2006: 441) suggested that privatising public spaces such as Potsdamer Platz is a seduction of power, and that 'the layout and design of the complex represents a seductive presence that effectively closes down options, enticing visitors to circulate and interact in ways that they might not otherwise have chosen'. Moreover the Potsdamer Platz development has been also criticised for its 'selective deployment of historical detail' (Lehrer, 2003: 397) as it has omitted the 40 years of German Democratic Republic (Rossi, 1988: 47; Lehrer, 2003: 97).

The Potsdamer Platz has also been criticised for being far away from 'the traditional public spaces of an European city' and is more like 'a postmodern version of an urban centre' (Colomb, 2012: 167). Sewing (cited Miller and Reed, 2008: 6) has also wondered why this place followed and looked up to the American models of high rise buildings of 1930s in places like New York. In so doing the author further suggests that buildings at Potsdamer Platz are 'too small and too few to be a downtown or to make an effective skyline' (Miller and Reed, 2008: 6). One further criticism that has been made is that Potsdamer Platz was developed by non-local, global architects (Cochrane and Passmore, 2001: 351). The issue of the privatisation

of public space was also mentioned as one that might cause a limitation of public access (Cochrane and Passmore, 2001: 351).

5.3.4. Summary

The International Building Exhibition (IBA) of 1980s in Berlin was the beginning of an era which brought a large number of transformations to the city. The IBA also changed the attitudes of architects and planners in the city. One of the other most important events for Berlin was the fall of the Berlin's wall and the reunification of Germany, as well as creation of the new Land Government which consists of a joint spatial planning office between Berlin and Brandenburg.

The whole Potsdamer Platz development including the Mall of Berlin represents and plays a symbolic role for a new Berlin and shows it as a 'new service metropolis of aspiring global status' (Colomb and Kalandides, 2010: 7).

The planning process of the Mall of Berlin (for a summary see Figure 5.26) was a collaborative process in which the Senate of Berlin set some parameters for urban design control from the early stages. These parameters were primarily focused towards function, building structure, and keeping the geometric structure and street profile of Leipziger Platz. The master plan of the Mall of Berlin was based on the concept that was developed in 2008 for its previous developer and owner. This concept aimed at creating a shopping centre with residential buildings on the top floor and retail functions on the lower floors. Later, when the new developer started their development of a master plan, this idea was kept. They only made some changes with regard to the elevation of the whole Mall, and also made the Mall bigger than the previous plans. This resulted in developing two smaller blocks on the site which are connected through a glass roof path in the middle.

With regard to enforcing the design principles, the Senate made sure to monitor the design aspects of the Mall of Berlin while the developer was mainly responsible for pushing design ideas into the project. There were a number of tools and means to ensure urban design control and management. The most effective of these tools at the project level were the land use plan and the master plan that were produced by, and for the, previous developer of the Mall of Berlin, and the Hilmer and Sattler master

plan for Potsdamer Platz. At the city level these tools were in the form of the Berlin land use plan and the Urban Development Concept Berlin 2030. In addition to this document, the concept of integrated urban centre was very important for Berlin. According to this concept the area of Potsdamer Platz and Leipziger Platz are located within central areas of city wide importance. The other important means of urban design control in Berlin is the Design Review Board (*Baukollegium*) this design review team are also responsible for reviewing the design aspects of the highly important projects in Berlin.

The issue of planning culture in the planning process of the Mall of Berlin is reflected in the history of the city from before the fall of Wall of Berlin onwards. This has affected the urban development and urban design in Berlin, and the history of the Mall of Berlin itself. The issue of planning culture in the project is reflected in the attitudes of the Senate of Berlin for setting parameters for the developer as well as for convincing the developer to hold an urban design competition for the urban design and master plan of the Mall. This issue is also related to the planning culture at the Potsdamer Platz in the sense that the new development section in Potsdamer and Leipziger Platz continued to be inspired by the Hilmer and Sattler master plan. Moreover, the development of the Mall of Berlin and its urban design ideas aimed to create retail led, mixed use regeneration project which was very similar to the other regeneration schemes that were developed in the Potsdamer Platz. Indeed, this point reflects the fact that the whole planning culture of Potsdamer Platz area, was looking to strengthen this area with regards to retail, global competitiveness and commercial issues.

This Chapter of the thesis has looked at the planning system of Germany by presenting the national context and the two embedded case studies of Thier Galerie (Dortmund) and Mall of Berlin (Berlin). The next Chapter present a comparative study for England and Germany based on the findings of Chapters Four and Five.

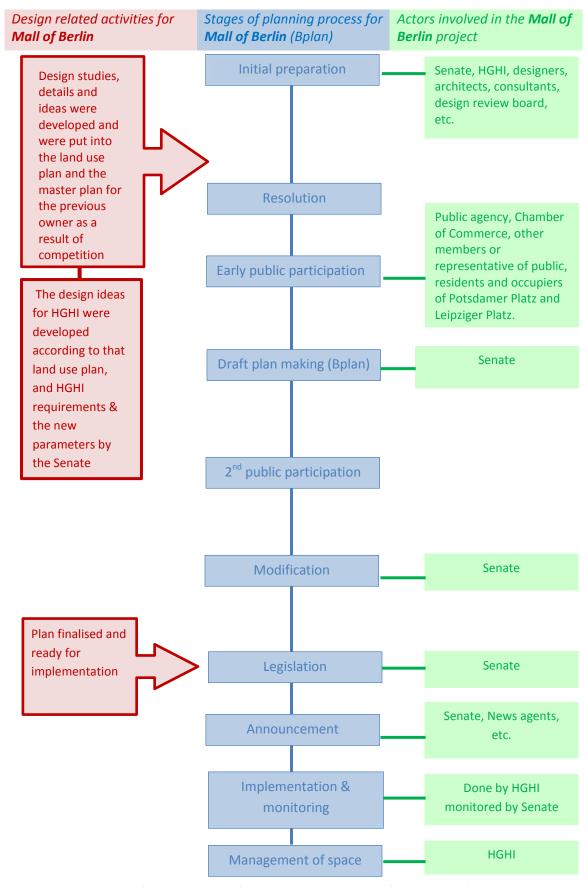


Figure 5.26. A simplified summary of the planning process of the Mall of Berlin project. Source: the author.

Part three

Chapter Six: Comparative perspectives and Synthesis

This chapter is a response to the last objective of this research, presenting a comparative perspective on the national England and Germany case studies in 6.1; it compares the English cases in 6.2. This chapter then compares the German cases in 6.3 and the embedded case studies together in 6.4. At the final stage, this chapter presents a general synthesis in 6.5.

This chapter addresses the following main questions of this thesis:

- How do planning systems control design?
- How are the principles of urban design managed in planning processes and systems? Where is the position of urban design within planning processes?
- What is the role of planning culture for shaping and determining urban design within planning processes?

6.1. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and planning systems at national levels: England and Germany

This section looks at the relationship between planning and urban design in England and Germany, through a comparative lens.

6.1.1. Administrative and legal systems in England and Germany

The planning system in England is a plan-led and discretionary system with some degree of flexibility. The local levels are responsible for the preparation and implementation of their own local plans which, in a way, increases the level of discretion within English political and planning system (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006: 10). The system of government in England is classified as a unitary governmental system by the EU Compendium of spatial planning systems and policies and seen as having varying degrees of decentralisation (European Commission, 1997: 39). The English system is characterised by features that may be seen as short term rather than strategic or responsive (Morphet, 2013: 48), because of its centralised parliamentary government where Parliament exercises hierarchical powers and controls its bureaucracy at different government levels (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 107). It is a dual system in which central government supervises local

government and sets the legal constraints for them (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 31). This dual system would also indicate that both levels are largely self-contained as there is little movement between the professionals or politicians at each level, while in some other countries in Europe this is different because the professionals and politicians in those countries would have at least one office at each level (Newman and Thornley, 1996: 31). Therefore, unlike England, there is less separation between levels and more integration between them (e.g. Germany). This fragmentation and separation between the levels was discussed in Chapter 4.1. The planning system in England is one of the systems in the EU that has experienced constant reforms and changes. These changes in the system have brought some periods of close attention to urban design and some periods in which the importance of urban design declined. Attitudes regarding urban design for both systems are discussed in 6.1.2 and partly in 6.1.3.

In Germany, the planning system is a multi-level, regulatory, federal system. It is a system in which feedback needs to be filtered from the bottom level (local or municipality level) to the upper level (federal level), and objectives need to be passed from the upper level to bottom level (counter-current principle and mutual feedback principles). The federal system in Germany means that power is shared between the federal and regional levels (European Commission, 1997: 39). The national or federal level is responsible for making laws and regulations while the Land governments at regional levels are responsible for administration and therefore planning and administration is a task that is shared between different governmental levels (European Commission, 1997: 40). The strong constitution and the federal system have resulted in strong regional planning governments 'with their own laws and plans and a set of arrangements for creating consensus between and within levels in hierarchy. This results in considerable variation in the planning processes, between regions, but within a strong national framework' (Newman & Thornley, 1996: 72).

The planning system in Germany is both a plan-led and development-led system (European Commission, 1999). Whilst the planning system consists of three levels of government in the form of federal government, Land government and municipalities, planning authorities operate at four levels: federal spatial planning (federal level), state spatial planning (Länder), regional planning, and local authority planning (municipal level) (Zaspel-Heisters and Haury, 2015: 15; Reimer et al., 2014: 85).

The local governments in both countries have the responsibility of plan making for their developments but within a framework that is formed and shaped at their respective national levels. Therefore, both countries are decentralised governance to some extent; however the degree of decentralisation is more in Germany. Table 6.1 summarises the features of each administrative system.

Table 6.1. A comparative summary of the administration and legal and planning systems in England and Germany. Source: the author.

Administration and legal system in	Administration and legal system in Germany	
England		
Decentralised Unitary system	Decentralised Federal system based on written constitution	
Strong local or lower governmental levels regarding decision making for their local developments	Strong lower governmental levels regarding decision making for their developments	
Central government gives a general framework, within which local authorities act	Federal government and regional government give a framework within which local authorities act	
Dual system (Central and local)	Multi-level system (federal, regional and local)	
Plan-led	Plan-led and development-led	
Administration usually is the responsibility of local levels (for their territories)	Administration is a shared task between levels	
Discretionary (more flexibility regarding development control rules)	Regulatory (less flexibility regarding development control rules)	
Separation and fragmentation between the local and central levels	Each level is integrated and well connected with the others, mutual feedback and counter - current principles are reflected in the system	

6.1.2 Planning cultures and attitudes regarding urban development and urban design in England and Germany

The planning system in England has experienced many reforms, especially from the post-World War Two era until the present day. In order to establish a better understanding of planning culture in England, it is necessary to understand some of the most influential reforms in planning practice and system. In comparison, the planning culture in Germany is particularly reflected in the traditional tools and instruments for developments; and less reflected in the reforms of the system. As discussed in Chapter 5.1, this is partly because most of the cities in Germany are shaped and formed by applying these instruments and planning elements. Moreover, the main structure of the planning system and some of the principles and planning instruments in Germany have not changed that much (Schmidt, 2009: 1908, 1919) which can justify the embeddedness of a planning culture in the traditions and tools rather than within a reformed system. However, as this thesis later discusses, some of the changes in the attitudes toward the planning system were very influential in transforming urban development and design, and were reflected in the planning culture in Germany.

Urban design in England has seen periods of decline and rise after the Second World War. Planning in England during the 1950s and the 1960s was concerned with its physical and aesthetic aspects, thus one of the main concerns of planning was urban design (see Chapter 4.1). The Planning Act of 1968 had, in a way, raised the importance of social and economic issues for planning (Taylor, 1988). English planning during the 1970s and 1980s lost the focus on urban design, as it was more engaged with the economic problems of the 1970s and social and political issues of the 1980s. However, the policies and attitudes of planners towards urban design during these periods saw changes in the 1990s. Urban design during the 1990s experienced a new beginning (Punter, 2010). The 1991 Planning Act, for instance was very influential as it made local authorities make decisions based on reasoning while making reference to the development plans. Additionally, in 1994, John Major's reforms and introduction of new government offices for the regions, the recognition of sustainability concepts, and the establishment of English Partnerships was very influential for urban transformation, regeneration and urban design (see Chapter 4.1).

Probably the most influential reform in urban design during the 1990s was the establishment of *Urban Task Force Report* in 1999, by the renaissance regime of the late 1990s (Punter, 2010). In line with the recommendation of the Urban Task Force Report, the government created the *Planning Policy Statement 1: Delivering Sustainable Development (PPS1)*, one of the aims of it was promoting urban design quality and developing projects which have excellent urban design. Later, in 2003, the government introduced a document called *Sustainable Communities: Building for the Future*, which encouraged high quality urban design, the mixture of uses, and the creation of liveable, inclusive and sustainable places (Hall and Tewdwr-Jones, 2011: 159). The current attitudes of the planning system concerning urban design encourage good quality urban design and clearly reject bad design ideas.

In comparison with Germany, it is noted that the 1980s and 1990s were also the start of change in the values and concepts of planning in regards to urban development (*Städtebau*) and urban design (in a general sense) in Germany. The example of these changes in the values and concepts are: the introduction of ecological oriented developments and sustainable settlements (Strubelt et al., 2000: 45-54).

As mentioned before, one of the differences in the planning culture between England and Germany is that Germany maintains the traditions, customs and instruments that have shaped its cities and urban developments over the years. For example, one of these traditional instruments is the central place concept, which aims to allocate transport or other infrastructure and services as well as land uses in the territories of states and regions (Schmidt, 2009: 1917). This has been very important in rebuilding Germany after the World Wars and has been applied to and shaped many of its cities (Turowski, 2002: 18). In addition, German planning principles such as mutual feedback, the counter-current principle, as well as that of subsidiarity, weighting of interests and local self-government, are all components that form and reflect the planning culture. Other traditional instruments are land use planning and zoning and land readjustments, which are also important in shaping urban developments and have formed part of the planning culture in Germany. In Germany, the IBA (International Building Exhibition or *Internationale Bauausstellung*) programme was one of the most influential changes in the planning discourse on urban development, urban transformation and urban design (Burgess, 2015: 9). Moreover, the reunification in 1990 was also another influential factor which was effective in transforming the planning discourse.

The neoliberal and market-led approaches have influenced both countries and therefore have shaped a part of planning culture in both countries; however, the degree to which England's planning system has turned towards neoliberalism is more radical than Germany, which has resulted in the planning system being less powerful (Waterhout et al., 2013: 157). Moreover, in England, the market ultimately decides and shapes a development and the planning system acts as a secondary force. In contrast, in Germany, the planning system is more directly involved with the design of urban environment and it creates rules for economy and market to work through the urban environment, having said that, of course the market and developers still have an important role in Germany. Understanding the embeddedness of neoliberalism in England's plan making and policies is important for urban design, as so many of these policies and plans shape and affect planning culture and urban design in a general sense (see Chapter 4.1).

One issue related to the planning culture in both countries is that the terminology that is used to refer to urban design is different. In Germany, there is no precise terminology or precise word for urban design. While conducting interviews in Germany, it was evident that interviewees were often confused by the term 'urban design', but they used the same principles for creating successful places in terms of design and planning. This statement has been shaped and formulated by the experience of the researcher during the empirical study in Germany. These issues about terminology were not unexpected, as they were partly discussed in Chapter 3. In addition, in England, all the interviewees were clear about urban design, whereas in Germany the interviewees answered the questions by asking questions from researcher about the meaning and definition of urban design and then they provided their answer.

This is due to issues of awareness of urban design and the integration of urban design within the planning system of Germany, suggesting that urban design is an integrated part of the planning system in Germany and is both a substantive and procedural phase within the planning system. It probably implies that there has always been an awareness of urban design issues and principles within the planning system, and

although the degree of this awareness has varied, it was a consistent one compared to England. In England, urban design was an integral part of the system during the 1950s and 1960s but largely forgotten in the 1970s and 1980s. During the 1990s, greater awareness of urban design issues was one of the important aims of the planning system. This period was probably one of the most influential times in which urban design concepts and profession gained new definitions and urban design boundaries with other disciplines were more clarified than in the 1970s and 1980s. This issue about terminology would perhaps also indicate that there is a separation between urban design and planning disciplines in England, while urban design is more integrated and less separated from the planning discipline in Germany.

6.1.3. Urban design and planning systems

In history, the consistency of achieving good urban design within the English planning system has been like a roller coaster, and one of the major causes of this attitude within the system is probably because of the constant reforms that were briefly discussed in 6.1.2. Moreover, there are other factors, such as the lack of knowledge of urban design that existed due to none (urban design or architecture) professionals being in charge of developments, especially during the economic problems and social problems of the 1970s and 1980s. Urban design issues and quality in the current system in England are an integrated part of the planning system, but this does not mean that the system is always good at achieving good quality; rather, it means that the awareness of the importance of urban design qualities as well as urban design standards in the planning system in England has increased.

In comparison, the consistency of achieving good urban design and its importance in Germany was less changeable and more stable than England, as so many of the fundamental elements in the system hardly changed. As was discussed in 6.1.2, the basic structure and traditional instruments in Germany have remained the same. This is not to say that the system has not faced any reform, particularly with regard to urban development and urban design. Instead, there has always been an awareness of these issues within the planning system, although the degree of focus and concentration on this issue has varied, whereas in England there were periods in which urban design was almost forgotten. Achieving good urban design is important

in Germany and perhaps the system is more powerful for enforcing urban design than in England.

The differences and similarities between the two countries for achieving urban design quality as well as for enforcing urban design can be understood by discussing the instruments, the aims of the systems for urban design, and the planning processes of the two countries, and to some extent by understanding the outcome of the planning processes related to urban design, which can be a reflection of the urban design outcomes of their planning systems.

Urban design control instruments and tools

The discretionary nature of planning in England (Punter, 2007: 169) have resulted in attempts to avoid being over-prescriptive in guiding urban design. Due to the nature of the planning system, there are some degrees of flexibility, which perhaps has led to using a general language for guiding urban design in the National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF) and in the National Planning Practice Guidance (NPPG). Urban design in England is handled by the local authorities and is project-based.

Project-based instruments for controlling urban design in England are design outlines, which are one of the instruments that help the local authorities in decision making; design and development briefs; master plans; and project-specific design codes. Design guidance and design frameworks as well as local plans, supplementary planning guidance documents and core strategies are urban design control instruments at the local level. Greater London (see Chapter 4.3) is an exception, as it has one more governmental institution or one more level, which is the Greater London Authority (GLA); every local and project plan within different London boroughs has to be shaped within the framework of the London Plan.

In comparison, the regulatory nature of planning system in Germany (Punter, 2007: 169) has resulted in more precise, sharp and detailed policies and instruments for handling and controlling urban design. Urban design, which is the task of municipalities, is developed based on the preparatory land use plan (*FNP*), the functional and master plans, design guidelines and heritage and conservation guidelines, and urban development guidelines. Urban design is also controlled through site-specific functional and master plans, design briefs and local building statutes (*Ortsbausatzung*). Moreover, at the regional level in Germany, which is

missing from England, regional plans or regional land use plans as well as different regional master plans (e.g. retail master plans) are the most effective tools for controlling urban developments within the regions. Table 6.2 shows the current and the most influential planning instruments for controlling urban design in England and Germany.

Table 6.2. Current instruments for urban design control and development management in England and Germany. Source: the author.

Levels	England's instruments for Urban	Germany's instruments for Urban
	design control and development	design control and development
	management	management
	National Planning Policy framework	Building Federal Law (BauGB),
National	(NPPF),	Land Utilisation Ordinance (BauNVO)
	National Planning Policy	
	Guidance(NPPG)	
		Regional Land Use Concept/Regional
Regional	None exist with the exception of	Plan,
(Länder in	Greater London	Retail Master Plans
case of Germany)		
Local	Local Plans,	Preparatory Land use plan
	Core Strategies,	(Flächennutzungplan),
	Supplementary Planning Guidance	Site Development Plan
	Plans,	(Bebauungsplan),
	Urban Design Frameworks	Urban Development Guidelines
		(Städtebau Richtlinien)
Project	Master Plans for projects,	Functional plan, master plan, Local
	Design Statements,	Building Statue (Ortsbausatzung),
	Development Briefs,	Project Design (Objektplanung),
	Design Codes	Design Briefs, heritage conservation
		guidelines, public space design
		guidelines, urban development
		contracts

Planning systems' aims in regards to urban design

The aims of both planning systems are reflected in the importance of quality in urban design despite their changes in nature, England being a discretionary system and Germany being regulatory (see Chapter 2) (Punter, 2007: 169). In both countries, the appropriateness of a proposed development within its wider urban context is also very important. For instance, in Germany, urban design is part of a bigger picture and it works together with other components and regulations to create a high quality place, as well as to enhance the positive features of an area such as its urban fabric, urban profile, etc. (this was the case for Thier Galerie and the Mall of Berlin). There are certain things within the German planning system and regulations that would ensure the achievement of this, such as conducting comprehensive research at the initial stages of the planning process. These issues are discussed in the next part of the chapter. The appropriateness of a development within its wider context is also important in England; urban design control, which is based on a project-by-project basis, to some extent determines the quality of urban design by the different instruments that were mentioned before. In addition, while both systems aim at good quality urban design, they aim at increasing economic activities as well as fulfilling other gaps, such as housing, and tackling social problems by improving public spaces and other facilities. Therefore, urban design for both countries is a means that would help governments improve their social economic problems. Design principles such as legibility, permeability, etc. are embedded within the attempts of both planning systems to achieve better quality in urban design. Moreover, in both planning systems, the issue of sustainability for urban design and urban developments is important.

Urban design within planning processes

In England, compared to Germany, the planning system at the central level gives less direct and more general guidelines regarding planning processes and urban design through the National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF) and National Planning Practice Guidance (NPPG), and therefore design activities and so many of the urban design aspects of developments in planning processes are shaped and are created by local authorities, and other main actors of that development such as designers, planners, etc. These urban design aspects of developments are also the result of formal and informal negotiations between these actors.

In Germany federal level guidance is less general and more direct and implicit, particularly as to the main principles of the stages that are included in the planning process. A general outline of the stages of the planning process is included in the Federal Building Code (*BauGB*) (see Chapter 5.1). The guidelines that are set at the federal level, as mentioned before, provide only a general basis for local authorities to act, but urban design activities and urban design control within a planning process are the main responsibilities of municipalities and, to a lesser extent, the regional level. Therefore, many of the design activities and urban design aspects of a project depend on local authorities and the main actors of that development.

In both countries, local authorities are highly influential actors in determining the result of the planning process. In England, local authorities are flexible and less determinant for urban design and for enforcing, developing and pushing design ideas; instead, they rely on the developer (for example, see Liverpool One and Westfield London). In Germany, local authorities or municipalities are more precise in terms of urban design; the enforcement of urban design issues in planning processes is more like collaboration and negotiations between the authorities and developers as the two main actors.

For both countries, the function, context and characteristics of a proposed development are important, as these issues partly shape the urban environment or a development. For instance, in England, if the context of a development is a retail centre, the design aspects and functions and usage of the development are mostly decided by the developers and owners (e.g. Liverpool One and Westfield London). In contrast, in Germany, if a development is a retail centre, functional and usage issues are identified and established by the authorities; developers have to develop their ideas based on these functions (e.g. the Mall of Berlin and Thier Galerie).

One major difference in the planning systems and the planning processes of both countries is that in England the regional level does not exist anymore, while in Germany the regional level produces many general but effective plans regarding different aspects of a development, such as the regional land use plans or retail master plans, which might not explicitly be related to urban design issues but are more relevant to urban development. Having said that it is worth noting that the Liverpool One project was proposed and the plans for it were shaped at the time when a regional tier of planning existed for the city.²

Table 6.3 shows the planning stages in England and their equivalent stages in Germany. Within the planning processes in Germany, urban design is usually handled at the initial stage of the planning process. Urban design in this stage is handled in the shape of studies or other formats and then after negotiations with the local authorities it is put into the draft plans, which advance for preparation, resolution and public participation. Normally, after the first public participation, the plans, including any urban design ideas, are modified and made into a draft. Therefore, urban design ideas and control are developed first and then the decisions are made after (e.g. Thier Galerie). It can be concluded that the position of urban design and most urban design-related activities take place at the initial stage of the planning process in Germany, and perhaps to some extent during the modification of the draft plan of a development.

In comparison, in England, urban design issues and urban design control within planning processes are normally handled during the master planning stage (e.g. in Liverpool One, urban design issues were the main part of the master plan) and decision making stage (e.g. in Westfield London, some of the design issues were developed and controlled in parallel with the planning application and decision making stage). The development of urban design ideas as well as the control of urban design in England, depending on the scale of the project, its sensitivity (e.g. heritage or conservation site), could be in the form of a design outline and design statement,

_

² This regional tier was the Northwest Regional Assembly which produced a regional plan in 2003 (*Regional Planning Guidance for Northwest RPG13*). Policy DP3 in this document encouraged local authorities to prepare a design brief for their proposed developments. This document has also encouraged the good quality of design within the Northwest region. In addition, one of the key objectives within this document with regards to urban design was to establish well design, mixed use, mixed tenure and compact neighbourhoods with good linkages and facilities in the Northwest region (see table 6.4) (Office of The Deputy Prime Minister, 2003).

and the planning permission and planning decision could be based on these outlines, without requiring the whole master plan (e.g. most of the developments at the White City area as well as the extension part of London Westfield presented urban design outlines for getting planning permission, see Chapter 4.3).

Table 6.3. Stages of planning processes in England and Germany. Source: the author.

Planning process in Germany
Initial preparation(negotiation,
discussions, etc.) stage
Resolution on plan preparation stage
First public participation
Draft plan making stage
Second public participation
Modification stage
Legislation and administrative control
stage
Announcement stage
Implementation and monitoring stage
Management of space stage

The planning process in Germany involves conducting formal research for the effect of a development project on its surrounding as well as neighbouring town and cities, particularly if that development is a retail centre. There is a requirement by law to prove that the proposed centre would not affect the other retail centre within the city and region. This stage in the planning process is one factor that brings more certainty for the result of a development.

Whilst in England there might be some general and informal research, the planning process is missing a cohesive, comprehensive and formal research for the implications of a certain development on the region or surrounding towns and cities. Conducting such research in England is more in the form of identifying the potential sites for a certain type of development; for example, the shopping provision research of Liverpool was conducted by Healey and Baker in 1988 (see Chapter 4.2), or 'needs' studies which are in informal shapes and are not official parts of planning processes. In other words this means that the conducting of a research does exist in England however it might and might not be an official part of the planning process.

Public engagement and public participation within the planning processes of both countries is an important component and is being put into the schemes as modifications and amendments. In England public engagement mostly takes place during the planning application and decision making processes. In Germany, public engagement and public participation are normally in two stages: the first public participation is after the resolution of the plan and the second public participation, which is shorter than the first, is before the modification and the administration stage. Two stages of public participation, which reflects the principles of the planning culture and planning system in Germany, are another contributing factor that brings certainty and assurance, and determines the outcome of urban developments and urban design issues in general.

Holding urban design competitions is another factor that is shared between the two countries during the planning process. It was detected that urban design competitions for both countries are dependent on the planning culture and planning context. For instance, in the case of Liverpool One, the Council held a competition at the start because they were the owner of the site and then they selected Grosvenor as a developer. Later, Grosvenor invited lots of architects and urban designers and they held design competitions for developing each individual building, as well as the whole master plan for Liverpool One. This reflects the planning culture of the City Council as well as the characteristics and culture of the developer. However, the case of Liverpool One does not represent the attitude of England as a whole, because urban design competitions in English planning processes depend upon the actors that are involved in the projects and the fact that, for private owners, holding urban

design competitions is a question of their desires and whether they want to use this approach or not.

In Germany, the situation slightly differs, as urban design competitions are normally a part of planning process, especially for the facades of buildings that are part of public spaces. This is evident in the case of Thier Galerie and its façade facing the Westenhellweg area, and the Mall of Berlin façade. It can be concluded that urban design competitions are taking place mostly for the external designs of a privately invested developments. This perhaps is one other point in the German planning process that brings greater certainty and determines the result and outcome of urban design and urban developments.

In both countries, urban design principles, urban design control, and the evaluation of urban design can be monitored by a collaborative approach. In other words, the monitoring of urban design ideas, activities and control can be done in a collaborative process in which most, or all other actors, are involved, however, for both countries this depends on the planning culture of local authorities as regulators, as well as developers for private investments. For instance, in the case of Liverpool One, the design ideas and control were monitored by an urban design team which was established by the developer and included urban designers, an architect, consultants, a representative of the City Council, etc., which ensured and monitored urban design issues and was one of the determining factors for urban design in the planning process. In addition, for both countries, there is one design review committee at the local level. Many urban design proposals go through a review in these teams and, after that, the decision making on proposals is normally based on their recommendations. The use of these committees becomes more or less important depending upon the planning culture of a locality for both countries. For instance the use of such a committee was more evident in the case of Mall of Berlin where all ideas and plans were reviewed by the Baukollegium (the urban design board of experts), and as mentioned before, the result of their discussions would be reflected into the approved plans and building permits.

Actors' involvements within the planning processes of both countries depend on the planning culture, context of the project, the characteristics and nature of developers and cities themselves. As mentioned above, two of the most influential actors, particularly for private developments, are the developer and the local authorities. These two actors determine and enforce urban design; moreover, both of these actors are very influential with regard to the degree that other actors could get involved in a project, such as urban designers and architects. Both developers and local authorities are involved in almost every stage of planning processes, whereas other actors such as designers and architects are involved mostly during the development of design ideas or during negotiation periods (for examples, see Figure 4.16, Figure 4.28, Figure 5.16, and Figure 5.27).

Perhaps one of the obvious differences in the planning processes of England and Germany is that in England the speed and the time that it can take for planning processes and planning applications to be concluded are much greater than in Germany. In England, the planning system focuses on making planning processes speedier while in Germany the planning process might take longer.

One more thing that is reflected and depends on the planning context is the number of decision making stages in Germany. In the case of Thier Galerie, the planning culture of Dortmund City Council had two decision-making stages, one after the first public participation stage, and the other after the second public participation (Interview 17, 2016). As was mentioned before, across different regions and cities in Germany, the issue of planning culture, particularly with regard to decision making stages can be different. Nevertheless the main principles of the planning processes, established by law, are the same across the country.

As noted already, certain components within the planning process in Germany determine urban design and give more certainty and assurance for a development, such as formally conducting research that is required by the law, or two stages of public participation, etc. Although having these components might lead to better results, this is not always the case. For example, the planning process for the Mall of Berlin followed these patterns but, as noted in Chapter 4.3, it did not end with good results. Therefore, it can be concluded that these components in Germany are influential in attaining a better outcome in terms of urban design and planning.

However, inevitably there is no guarantee that this will be achieved. In both countries, there are so many factors that determine the outcome of urban design and consequent urban environment that lie outside the planning processes and planning systems.

This indicates that the planning culture and understanding urban design and planning processes within the planning culture are very important, but only a part of the whole, when it comes to understanding the outcomes of planning and urban design processes.

Urban design and planning processes outcome

Because of the importance of the quality of urban design in both countries, the awareness of urban design principles (and the benefits of applying these into projects) has increased in both countries. It was argued that there are some factors and tools that are effective for determining the result of a planning process, planning systems and urban design. Despite the fact that these factors in Germany might be bolder and stronger in determining an urban design outcome than in England, this is not to say that better outcomes are always guaranteed, nor does this mean that urban design outcomes are better in Germany.

The influences of planning cultures and urban design issues within planning processes on the outcome of the development are discussed further in the next sections by referring to the embedded case study projects.

6.2. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and the English planning system for the selected English case studies

Planning culture (reflecting the projects and their respective local and national levels)

The urban transformation of Liverpool city and its centre were more tangible after the election of 1997 of the New Labour government. This transformation started just when the English planning system was changing during the course of the constant reforms in the system. In addition, this transformation in Liverpool was also due to an issue of right timing and market opportunities.

The government response to the urban problems of the 1990s was to establish the Urban Task Force report on urban renaissance (1999) and the Commission for Architecture and Built Environment (CABE 1999). These two steps have promoted and changed attitudes towards urban design and urban life in general in England (Biddulph, 2011: 74). According to Biddulph (2011: 75), the Urban Task Force report 'marks a significant moment in how Liverpool dealt with urban design and development issues within its city centre, and the attention given to the physical environment started to be reflected in both guidance and emerging developments'. As discussed in Chapter 4.2, other movements at the city level, such as the change in the political leadership and the creation of an Urban Regeneration Company, also set the context for these transformations in the centre. These changes and reforms of the city as well as the national level were reflected in the planning culture in the English system and the city of Liverpool. For instance, by going back to the culturised planning model, these changes in national attitude and Liverpool City attitudes refer to the planning environment and societal environment of this model. It is worth noting that these transformations combined with other changes in the local culture such as Liverpool Vision and later Capital of Culture, have made important changes for the city.

To understand planning culture during the development of Westfield London, it is necessary to discuss that, since the revision of Planning Policy Guidance Note 6, the dynamics and pattern of large-scale retail development have changed from out-of-town regional centres to the inner parts of the cities (Lee, 2013: 75). Therefore, policy makers use 'mega retail-led regeneration' as a strategy for regenerating places (Lee, 2013: 75). Westfield London is a mega retail-led regeneration scheme (Lee, 2013: 75), as it has improved different aspects of public life in the area of Shepherd's Bush town in West London and helped the regeneration and transformation of this area. Westfield London is one of the factors which attracted various investors to the White City Opportunity Area (Interview 7, 2015). The change in the UK's urban governance in terms of urban entrepreneurialism has incorporated retail development in inner cities with urban regeneration, which could be reflected into the planning

culture of Westfield London and its respective London Borough, as well as its respective English planning system (Lee, 2013: 75).

Both the Liverpool One and London Westfield projects were retail-led regeneration projects for town centres and they came as a result of different attitudes within their respective local planning contexts, which were both embedded within the wider English system. The urban design of these projects was a reflection of general urban design attitudes within the UK government. These perspectives of English government, which happened during so many reforms and transformations, were shaped gradually.

By mid 1990s, design was consolidate as a major concern in planning (Punter, 2007: 169). This attitude toward urban design continued later in the mid-2000s as achieving excellence in urban design was a key issue for the planners, developers and authorities. These values and perspectives coincided with the design and development phase of the Liverpool One, which interesting was concluded before the financial crisis could have any real effect. From 2010, with the change in government, the general principle remained to reject bad design and to achieve good design. This is evident from the National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF) and National Planning Policy Guidance (NPPG), which show that the government is concerned about good urban design and has given general instructions for assessing developments based on good urban design issues. It is worth noting that the NPPF and NPPG were planning tools which predated both Liverpool One and Westfield London developments, excluding its extensions.

Liverpool's urban design agenda, as Biddulph (2011) contends, 'was driven from a concern of prosperity'; he cautiously argues that assuming urban design was merely a tool in a wider global competitiveness agenda is too simplistic (White, 2016: 4). Biddulph suggests that the objective of attracting investment is often aligned with improvements in the design of the public realm; the two are not always dependent. 'The people working to secure urban design qualities ... [in Liverpool] ... have done so in the understanding that such work is in the general public interest' Biddulph (2011: 101, cited in White, 2016: 4).

More relevant to planning cultures, the economic and bargaining regimes of each local level or city level were also a reflection of the situation for the national level, as

well as both the Liverpool One and Westfield London projects. To position these projects within the English National planning context, it is important to consider the extent of the powers of cities and local levels for attracting investment and how they would apply and use urban design and planning as tools for their proposed developments.

Liverpool, during the 1980s, had been identified by Savitch et al. (2007: 181) as a radical regime (within the context of bargaining regimes) with the elected Labour Party taking control of the City Council. The Labour Council tried to take a militant approach against the Conservative central government which, according to Savitch et al. (2007: 182), meant that, 'in effect, Liverpool's strategic development was driven by the internal struggles of the Labour Party and by efforts to score ideological victories rather than by an effort to recruit private investment'. After the 1980s, it seems that the regime in Liverpool changed its pattern of working and sought to improve its image and the quality of public spaces within its centre by attracting private investors. These changes in attitudes of the City Council resulted in their inviting different investors (mostly private) for the Paradise Street development (Liverpool One) and holding competitions between them in the 1990s. Later, after this competition, Grosvenor was selected as a suitable developer for the Liverpool One project.

Westfield London, as discussed before, emerged during the time when the national government was changing to an entrepreneurial government (Lee, 2013: 75) and therefore, as is evident from Chapter 4.3, the Hammersmith and Fulham council attracted private investors for this project, which is located within one of the densest areas of London. Thus, bargaining regime theory has shaped, and is one of the factors, reflected in the planning culture of the local and national levels of Liverpool One and Westfield London.

Urban design in the Planning processes (Liverpool One and Westfield London)

Liverpool One and Westfield London opened in the same year (2008). Both projects were developed by a private sector developer; the Grosvenor Group for Liverpool One and the Westfield Group for Westfield London. The master plan for Liverpool One contained different buildings but was done in one phase, whereas in Westfield, the shopping centre was developed first and the extension of the shopping centre is

still under development. The planning processes in the case of Liverpool One and Westfield London both followed similar stages (see Figures 4.16 and 4.28). However, there were differences in the ways the actors (involved in planning processes) acted; moreover there were some other differences in urban design issues in the planning processes of each project.

From all the evidence presented in Chapter 4.2, in Liverpool One the planning process was a collaborative one in which most of the actors involved played important roles. This is mainly because of the developer (Grosvenor), as they understood the concept of the development site and appreciated the history and urban fabric of Liverpool city, and city centre in particular. In addition, their acknowledgment of the culture of the city led their proposal for this development to be an open-street, retail-led regeneration. The developer monitored and pushed design principles into the project and was involved in constant conversations and negotiations with the City Council as well as the designers, architects and other actors. Furthermore, they reflected public opinion into the scheme by following feedback from public presentations, workshops and displays.

Liverpool City Council also played an important role in the planning and urban design processes of this project. One of the crucial things that they did was to appoint an urban designer to work on their behalf with the development team. This development team, which included other professionals and experts, continuously held meetings during the course of development to assess and test the design and master plan ideas and proposals. The guidelines for directing this development were flexible and therefore resulted in the creation of different design ideas; these ideas were integrated and inserted in the project. The role of the City Council in producing a high quality design brief for this development was also very important.

In terms of positioning urban design within the planning process of Liverpool One, based on the evidence gathered in Chapter 4.2, it transpires that urban design was an inseparable part of the master plan. Thus urban design principles were considered an important part of the development, which was an ethos that flowed throughout all the stages of planning process, from the initial stages to the implementation of the project. The position of urban design, however, was more tangible at the master planning and decision making stages, as most design-related activities took place at

these stages. Building design in Liverpool One did not rely on one or a few architects; these designs were the result of competitions and thus the developer worked with multiple architects from different firms. These design ideas are based on consensus and agreement between the key actors, such as the City Council, the developer and the designers/architects.

The planning process in Westfield London (see Figure 4.28) was divided into two parts: the first part involved the planning process for the development of the Westfield centre and the second part, the planning process for the (ongoing) extension development of Westfield London. There were some factors that played important roles in the London Westfield and its extension and affected their planning processes. These include: the character of Westfield group and their demands and requirements for the project as they usually develop inward-looking shopping malls; the requirements of John Lewis, especially for the extension plans; and the change from the previous investor and land owner of the Westfield London site to the Westfield Group, which resulted in changing the design of the development site.

As is evident from Chapter, 4.3 during the planning process of the whole Westfield site (including its extension) discussions and conversations between the land owner/developer, the Greater London Authority (GLA) and the Hammersmith and Fulham Council created an atmosphere based on consensus between these actors. The developers have played a more dominant role in the planning process of the whole of the Westfield scheme, compared to other actors who were involved in these planning processes. With regards to the development of design ideas, many of these ideas were created when some parts of construction were already underway. In terms of the urban design position within the planning processes of whole Westfield site, urban design was considered mainly during the master planning and decision making stages.

Despite the fact that both projects are shaped by private developers, it can be concluded that the planning process for Liverpool One was more collaborative than for Westfield London. During the planning process for Liverpool One, the chances for engaging and involving other actors such as urban designers, architects, consultants, etc. were greater than for Westfield London. This platform for more engagement of actors in the Liverpool One planning process was provided by the

developer and supported by the City Council. In the planning process for Liverpool One, design activities such as urban design competitions, and design meetings and reviews were held during different stages of the planning process. At Westfield London, the process was more a collaboration between Hammersmith and Fulham Council and the developer. Urban designers or other actors were involved and acted according to the demands and requirements of developers; this has shaped so many of the design-related activities for Westfield London.

In terms of the urban design control and management tools or instruments in the planning processes for Liverpool One and Westfield London, most of the major and effective tools were at project level, or local level. There are two differences between the instruments that have been used in these projects: first, the themes of the documents are different; and, secondly, in London there is another decision making tier, which is the Greater London Authority (GLA) and in a sense they act like a regional body for the Greater London area. At this level the London plan plays a crucial role for guiding developments in each borough of London, in this case Hammersmith and Fulham. Table 6.4 outlines the urban design instruments that were used for Liverpool One and the London Westfield project.

Table 6.4. Urban design control and management instruments for Liverpool One and Westfield London. Source: the author.

	Urban design control	Urban design control	
Levels	instruments and policies for	instruments and policies fo	
	Liverpool One and its	London Westfield and its	
	immediate environment	extension plans	
	UTF, By design, PPS1,		
National	National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF)*, National Planning Policy Guidance (NPPG)*		
	Regional Planning	(GLA) London Plan (for the	
Regional	Guidance for the	London Borough of	
	Northwest [RPG13]**	Hammersmith and Fulham	
	Liverpool Unitary	the Core Strategy of the	
Local	Development Plan 2002,	borough, the Developmer	
	Supplementary Planning	Management Local Plan,	
	Guidance Note(SPG),	the Planning Guidance	
		Supplementary Planning	
		Document (SPD)	
	Paradise Street	White City opportunity	
Project	Development Area Master	Area Planning Framework	
	Plan, design statement and	2013,	
	design brief	Unitary Development Plan	
		for London Borough of	
		Hammersmith and Fulhan	
		2003,	
		Master plans, design brief	
		and design statements	

^{*}Only for Westfield London extension as well as the current planning at the national level. These national level instruments were not in place at the time Liverpool One and Westfield London were planned.

Urban design and master plan aims and outcomes (Liverpool One and Westfield London)

In Liverpool One, the urban design aims and objectives were very similar to the philosophies of most of its main actors. Moreover, the aims and objectives of this project were an inseparable part of the master plan; this is why these objectives were close to planning objectives and the planning aims of the project.

^{**}The Northwest Regional Assembly produced a statutory regional plan in March 2003 at the time when Liverpool One was being developed; with regard to urban design, this document established some general policies for the Northwest region such as policy DP3.

Liverpool One's aims and objectives were as follows: regenerate Liverpool city centre by developing a retail-led and mixed use project, creating a hub and destination for the city of Liverpool; connect the fragmented parts of the city centre together (including a connection to Albert Docks and the waterfront); develop six characteristic areas for the master plan; and connect and make permeable paths and routes through the main three anchor stores (M&S, John Lewis, Debenhams); improve the quality of place and public realm, making sure that this scheme fits within its wider context in Liverpool's city centre.

With regard to the physical urban design outcomes, the Liverpool One project contains many pedestrian routes and nodes, created new landmarks and has brought new views of the landmarks in the city, mainly because its nature as an open shopping centre (see Figure 4.14). This project has also increased the legibility, permeability and connectivity of the city centre area in Liverpool. Moreover, Liverpool One has some mixed use features, such as a hotel, park, restaurants, and flats, which make it different from the current situation of London Westfield. The Liverpool One project does not have a signature architectural design; however, it has several positive features which have helped Liverpool One to be an attractive place from a pedestrian point of view; such as the park, water features, and lighting, as well as the arcade breaking through from Church Street (see Figure 4.9).

For the Westfield London project, most of the actors involved had similar philosophies and values for urban design like the Liverpool One project, but there seems to be a slight gap between actors' philosophies and what they have achieved because of two reasons. First, the aim of the project was to serve as a shopping mall, and secondly, the nature of the Westfield Group and its demands and requirements in terms of urban design. The extension plans for Westfield London seem to have filled these gaps to a reasonable extent; for instance, the new proposals include some residential schemes as well as public spaces with improved urban quality as part of the public realm for the site.

The main objectives of the urban design and master plan for this development were to create a premium shopping centre, to improve transport infrastructure and connectivity in the area, to make the scheme contribute to the success of the wider area of Shepherd's Bush and White City.

Westfield has made some physical improvements to the wider area: improved public transport infrastructure and increased pedestrian routes (Figure 4.24). In addition, Westfield has increased the public realm and accessibility around the centre. However, from a pedestrian point of view the centre does not sit well into the wider area. To alleviate this, improvements are being made. The future of the centre and its extension are more promising in terms of public realm as well as urban design features and principles.

Internally the Westfield London centre has produced features such as the luxury village and the glass roof. From a pedestrian point of view, these features have divided users because brand retailers have been divided from high-street retailers. The centre has performed well with regard to footfall and has also acted as a catalyst for further regeneration and investment in the wider area. The role of anchor stores, and especially John Lewis, for the extension plans of Westfield London are very important because the urban design and master plan principles, and in a way the outcome of the project, is shaped by their requirements and demands.

It is concluded that both Liverpool One and Westfield London (including its extension plans), had generally similar aims for urban design; for instance, the appropriateness of both schemes within their wider context were important for both developers. Enhancing and improving public realm, issues of accessibility, improving transport infrastructure, and other relevant urban design principles were also important for both. However, with regard to urban design and master plan outcomes; the scale of achieving better outcomes, as discussed in this part is not the same for Liverpool One and Westfield London.

6.3. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and the German planning system for the selected German case studies

Planning culture (reflecting the projects and their respective local and national levels)

As discussed in Chapter 5.2, the planning culture of the city of Dortmund is reflected and shaped partly by its history, its national traditional planning instruments, and its

recent development regulations and frameworks particularly at a regional level. The city was rebuilt after the destruction of the Second World War and saw a period of economic growth in the 1950s. However, it suffered from the decline and closure of its two main industries: coal and steel in the 1960s, 1970s and the 1980s (Bömer et al., 2010: 414). Perhaps the most transformative stage in the history of city was started by the Dortmund Project. This project emerged as a result of the closure of the steel industry in 1997 as well as the collaboration between Thyssen Krupp (steel company), the state government of North Rhine-Westphalia, the Chamber of Industry and Commerce, and various trade unions. The Dortmund Project acted as a catalyst for urban regeneration and helped the economic growth in the city (Jonas, 2014: 2124). The Dortmund Project regenerated the city and transformed its image All of these factors could be reflected in the planning culture of the city by considering the culturised planning model, these changes in the attitude, image and history of the city is reflected in the planning environment, societal environment, whilst the regeneration of the city could be reflected, in the planning artefacts component of this model.

Thier Galerie was a retail-led regeneration located in part of Dortmund City centre and was the result of the Dortmund Project as discussed in Chapter Five. 5.2. One of the most significant contributing factors which influenced this project was the cancellation of the plans to regenerate and transform the central station of Dortmund with a large retail scheme. This later resulted in attracting investors to the site of Thier Galerie.

The planning culture in Dortmund is also reflected in the central place theory as a traditional planning instrument in Germany, as well as the regional plan and the retail master plan which indicated a retail-led focus for the city centre for Dortmund as well as establishing it as a top centre within the hierarchy of urban centres (or central place theory).

Cumulatively, these changes in the attitudes of the city in terms of urban development and regeneration led to economic and political advantages in Dortmund and helped to attract further investments and developments which reflect on the bargaining context of regimes which have been developed by Savitch et al. (2007). The bargaining regime theory, which is also reflected in the planning culture of the

city, has provided a platform for the city authorities to regenerate and transform the city by getting help from private investors.

The IBA programme of 1980s was one of the national programmes in Germany which was one of the influential factors for changing the attitudes of planners and architects in Germany and in Berlin. This programme attracted designers, planners and architects to the inner parts of the city especially areas close to the Wall to design new developments for the city (Ladd, 1997: 229). Later one of the most transformative stages in the city started with the fall of the Berlin Wall; this resulted in lots of investors being attracted to inner parts of the city such as the Potsdamer Platz area. Such areas were selected for development because they were derelict for many years and that is why after the fall of the Wall their potential for development increased as they were in a central location.

The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the reunification of Germany in 1990 had two direct results for the city of Berlin and its government; the first was the creation of the new joint regional level of Berlin-Brandenburg and the second one was the change in the status of the city to the single capital of Germany. The reunification of 1990s was also a major step towards changes occurring within the planning discourse of Germany.

The transformations of the Potsdamer Platz and the Mall of Berlin are the result of the fall of the Berlin Wall and the reunification of Germany as well as the changes in the attitudes of planners and designers in the city. The whole Potsdamer Platz area including the Mall of Berlin acted as a symbol of 'the new service metropolis of aspiring global status' (Colomb and Kalandides, 2010: 7). Moreover, Berlin-Mitte, the district in which the Mall of Berlin and Potsdamer Platz are located, has been identified as a central place which aims to promote investment and improve the function of centrality (see Chapter 5.3).

The issue of planning culture is reflected in all of these factors, which together have provided opportunities for this area of Berlin to benefit from both the political system and the economic interests at the national and project level (and attract private investors). This fact again would reflect the kind of bargaining regime context described by Savitch et al. (2007).

Urban design in the Planning processes (Thier Galerie and Mall of Berlin)

For both projects the planning process and the stages involved in them were similar (see Figures 5.16 and 5.27). As part of the planning processes at their respective local authority levels and national level, research was conducted at the initial stages of the planning process which assessed the implications of these projects for their surrounding areas and neighbouring centres. Moreover, both projects held urban design competitions and both were retail-led regeneration schemes developed by private landowners or developers. The internal design and some aspects of the external design of these projects were also undertaken by the developers. For the Thier Galerie the design of internal parts and some external parts, were done by the developer (ECE) while for other parts of the external façades there were architectural and urban design competitions. For the Mall of Berlin, the internal design was developed by HGHI group while the façade of the building was the result of a design competition.

In the Thier Galerie, Dortmund City Council and the developer (ECE) played important roles in pushing urban design principles into the scheme. Similarly, in the Mall of Berlin the department of urban development and planning of the Senate and the developer (HGHI group) were very influential in enforcing and determining urban design.

For both projects the initial stage in their respective planning processes was very important and most of the design related activities took place at this stage. For Thier Galerie (see Figure 5.16), the initial stage involved negotiation between politicians, the City Council and the developer. At this stage most of the design ideas were developed in the shape of studies and details of buildings and later they were put into the functional and master plans. These activities were discussed and the plans were negotiated with the city authorities, and they occurred in parallel with the development of the *Bebauungsplan* (B-Plan). The Thier Galerie B-Plan was the final result of the plan making process which was presented to public and then modified according to the result of first and second public participation stages. In the planning process of this project there were two decision-making stages; one was before the draft plan making stage and the other occurred after the second public participation.

For the planning process of the Mall of Berlin (Figure 5.27), the initial discussion and negotiation stage was based on the previous land use plan which was developed by the site's previous owner. The design ideas in this land use plan were the result of a competition. These design ideas and concepts formed the basis of the ideas put forward by the HGHI group. One of the most obvious changes that HGHI made to the original master plan was making the Mall bigger. Other ideas such as developing the residential area on the rooftop of the Mall were the same as the land use and master plans that were developed for the previous owner. After the development of these design ideas, they were forwarded to the Senate for discussion. Thereafter, the ideas were put into a draft B-Plan. The B-Plan of the Mall of Berlin went through the public participation stages and was modified and prepared for implementation. For both projects, the position of urban design within their planning processes was located at the initial negotiation stage.

With regard to the involvement of actors (as shown in Figures 5.16 and 5.27), both planning processes have ensured the involvement of different actors at different stages. For both projects the developers and the local authorities were two of the most influential actors that determined the outcome of urban designs within the planning processes. These two actors were also mostly responsible for pushing urban design principles as positive factors into the project. The best example of local authorities pushing the urban design principles into the projects is the Mall of Berlin project. In this project, the Senate of Berlin set physical design parameters for the project and made the developer meet those parameters (namely, maintaining and keeping the original shape of the Leipziger Platz and its street profile).

The planning process for these two projects was a collaborative one between local authorities and many actors. While the developers were the main actors for developing, implementing and managing the projects; the local authorities were one of the most influential actors that choreographed the framework of the planning processes as well as framing most of the rules and regulations that controlled the developments. Table 6.5 summarised the urban design (control and management) instruments that were used within the planning processes and master planning of Thier Galerie and Mall of Berlin.

Table 6.5. Relevant Urban design control and management instruments for Their Galerie and Mall of Berlin. Source: the author.

	Relevant Urban design	Relevant Urban design	
Levels	control instruments and	control instruments and	
	policies for Thier Galerie	policies for The Mall of	
	and its immediate	Berlin	
	environment		
	Building Federal Law (BauGB),		
National	Land Utilisation Ordinance (BauNVO)		
	the Spatial Plar	nning Act (ROG)	
	The Regional Plan of Ruhr –	The country's planning	
Regional (Länder)	Dortmund West section	contract (LPIV) and the joir	
	(2004)	regional planning procedur	
		Regulation of Berlin and	
		Brandenburg	
	Preparatory Land use plan	Preparatory Land use plar	
Local	(Flächennutzungsplan) of	(Flächennutzungsplan) for	
	2004,	Berlin, Sectoral	
	The master plan retail trade	Development Plans and	
	of 2004,	Intermediate Area Plans,	
	City Concept (2000) and City	the Urban Development	
	Concept (2030), Site	Concept Berlin 2030 (Berli	
	Development Plan or the B-	2030) Site Development	
	Plan (Bebauungsplan),	Plan or the B-Plan	
		(Bebauungsplan),	
	Functional plan, Master	Hilmer and Sattler Master	
Project	plan, Project Design	plan of Potsdamer Platz	
Troject	(Objektplanung),	area, previous owner land	
	Design Briefs	use and master plans,	
	Westenhellweg design	Project Design	
	guidelines, Heritage	(Objektplanung),	
	conservation programme	Design Briefs	
	for Dortmund City centre		
	Urban development		
	contract		

The planning system under which the Thier Galerie and the Mall of Berlin were constructed set clear guidelines and regulations. The most effective instruments for

both projects were carried out at the local level and, to a lesser extent, the regional (Länder) level.

Urban design and master plan aims and outcomes (Thier Galerie and Mall of Berlin) For Thier Galerie, enhancing the city's retail offering, upgrading the Westenhellweg area, and establishing Dortmund city centre as a top retail centre (Ober zentrum) were very important priorities. Fitting this project into its wider context and integrating it within the existing structure of the city centre was also important. The project has been successful in attracting more visitors to the city centre of Dortmund, and it has also enhanced the retail features of the city centre. The success of the project in terms of retail was assessed by a report produced by ECE and the City Council, and indicated that after the opening of Thier Galerie the whole Westenhellweg area has been upgraded to upgrade into A location (A Lage) (see Figure 5.6).

The outcome of this project in terms of urban design and the master plan has been the topic of many discussions in the city's local newspapers. The ordinary-looking design and architecture of Thier Galerie, and its attempts to integrate into the rest of the urban fabric of the city centre have been criticised. This centre has been also criticised for blocking a public road and developing this public space into a private space (Silver Street /Silberstraße). In comparison with the Mall of Berlin project and the English cases, this centre is missing the mixed use feature; however, the future plans for the city centre, according to City Concept 2030, include the enhancement of some residential units into Thier Galerie. Positive features of this project from a pedestrian perspective are the internal design, which is based on a house-in-a-house concept; its connection to the history of the site; and the external façade on the Westenhellweg area. Moreover, this centre has created some new nodes, and increased the pedestrian routes around the building. One of the most positive features of the centre with regard to urban design principles is that it has created a connection to the central train station; Thier Galerie has to some extent also enhanced the permeability and legibility of Westenhellweg area and improved the connectivity of the city centre in general (see Figure 5.14).

In comparison, the Mall of Berlin, which was a retail-led regeneration project, sought to enhance the retail offering of Potsdamer Platz and Leipziger Platz; moreover, in terms of urban design, the aim of this centre was to maintain and enhance the street profile and structure of Leipziger Platz. These issues were very important for the Senate of Berlin as their parameters were based on these issues. The main design theme of the developer, HGHI Group, was shaped by, and similar to, the previous master plan for the site, on which it had been intended to build a retail centre with residential units at the top.

With regard to the outcomes, the Mall has faced lots of criticism in many respects (see Chapter 5.3). For instance, it was criticised for its ordinary-looking and boring urban design and architecture (internally and externally). It was also criticised for its big size as well as for not being able to attract more people into the area. On the positive side, the relevant urban design outcomes of the mall (see Figure 5.24) include: the enhancement of permeability and legibility around the site of the mall; integration with the urban structure of Leipziger Platz; the improvement of the street profile of Leipziger Platz; the creation of a (glass roof) path between the two building blocks; and the inclusion of mixed used features such as residential areas and a hotel.

6.4. A comparative perspective of the relationship between urban design and planning systems in the embedded case studies in England and Germany

All of the projects studied have aimed to regenerate their wider area by the use of retail-led regeneration schemes. Meeting aims such as integrating with the existing structure and urban fabric of their wider areas, as well as the appropriateness of these schemes for their wider areas, was also important for these projects. All four projects have been or continue to be developed by private developers. Urban design control and the most influential urban design control instruments, for all of these projects, were provided at the local level and to a lesser extent at higher governmental levels.

The developer and local authorities were the most influential actors in determining and enforcing urban design (development, control and management); however, all of the planning processes of these projects were collaborative processes in which the degree of involvement of other actors differed. The planning processes of the Mall of

Berlin and Thier Galerie, reflecting their respective planning culture in Germany, have ensured the involvement of different actors at different levels. This is partly because in Germany the general outline of stages and the main principles that should be included in planning processes were introduced by the national planning framework, whereas for Liverpool One and Westfield London, the involvement of different actors was very dependent on the developer and to some extent on local authorities. For instance, the Liverpool One developer did ensure the involvement of different actors, particularly urban designers, architects, landscape designers, consultants, and so on, by holding design competitions for different parcels of the development. Therefore, the developer has ensured, and maximised, the opportunities for the involvement of different actors within the planning process of Liverpool One.

With regard to the outcome, all four projects have been able to upgrade the urban structure and urban form of their wider context in general. In addition, they have produced some positive urban design features for the areas in which they are located. One of the issues that has been raised for all of these projects is the issue of the privatisation of a public space. For example, in the case of Liverpool One, the space has been rented to Grosvenor from the City Council for 250 years (Interviews 5 and 6, 2015). There are certain issues in this regard; for instance, privatising public places could raise questions about community involvement and the freedom of people to use the space, as all of these schemes (with the exception of Liverpool One) open and close at certain times of the day. One example of the privatisation of public space is the Potsdamer Platz development. In Potsdamer Platz, privatising public spaces is referred to as 'a seduction of power', whereby 'the layout and design of the complex represents a seductive presence that effectively closes down options, enticing visitors to circulate and interact in ways that they might not otherwise have chosen' (Allen, 2006: 441).

With regard to the retail outcomes, Thier Galerie, Westfield London and Liverpool One have been successful and performed well for retail purposes, whereas the Mall of Berlin has been criticised for not doing well in terms of retail performance.

6.4.1. Liverpool One and Thier Galerie

It is worth noting that the ideas of a closed shopping centre and an open shopping centre were not within the criteria of selection for the case study projects of this thesis. Liverpool One is an open retail centre and Thier Galerie is a closed and internal-looking retail centre. Despite of this fact, both projects fit well in their wider context and urban structure within the city centres of Liverpool and Dortmund; mainly because they do not disturb too greatly the existing urban fabric of both city centres. The urban design principles in both projects (despite their differences, with one being open and other being closed) have increased permeability, legibility and connectivity and have been able to create new landmarks and new public nodes around their structures (see Figures 4.14 and 5.14).

For the planning process of Liverpool One, the urban design aspects and issues were important and formed as an inseparable part of the master plan. In terms of urban design concerns, and urban design activities, the Liverpool One planning process was very active, because of three factors: first, by having an urban design team and holding urban design meetings frequently; secondly, in having a developer who respected and understood the city context as well as the value of urban design; and thirdly, because the City Council was very supportive as it produced clear design guidelines, as well as appointed an urban designer to negotiate and attend design meetings with the developer and other actors (All interviews of Liverpool One, 2015 and 2016).

Both Thier Galerie and Liverpool One have used urban design and master planning to make a connection with history. Liverpool One was able to connect different historical parts of the city centre with each other whilst Thier Galerie makes reference to the old brewery previously on the site by integrating the old administrative office of this factory into its current building. One of their obvious differences is the lack of mixed use features in Thier Galerie.

6.4.2. Westfield London and Mall of Berlin

The Mall of Berlin and Westfield London projects are inward-looking retail centres; these projects have a mixed use feature which, like Liverpool One, makes them different from Thier Galerie.

Because of the parameters that were set by the Senate of Berlin for the Mall of Berlin, the structure and façade of the building is in balance and is appropriate for its wider context; in other words, these parameters made sure the street profile of the Leipziger Platz was enhanced and kept the geometrical shape of Leipziger Platz, despite the fact that the urban design and architecture of the Mall have been criticised for looking ordinary.

The Westfield London centre itself is less integrated than the Mall of Berlin; however, the whole Westfield project, together with the extension, plans to increase and enhance the public realm, legibility, permeability and other principles of urban design.

6.5. General interpretations and synthesis

Generally, the differences between Germany and England in terms of the aims and outcome for urban design, as well as how urban design is handled in the planning process, are ultimately less significant than their similarities. Although the planning systems are two different systems and the urban design control and management instruments are different, perhaps due to the fact that as much as urban design is dependent on planning and administrative systems, it also depends on the values and philosophies of actors and those who are involved in the development or the planning process, there are also many similarities. The reason for making this statement is because the actors who were involved in the planning and urban design processes of the case study projects appeared to have the same principles for urban design and presented similar definitions of good urban design and a successful urban space and urban environment. Therefore, this resulted in their taking similar approaches to design, although these actors might have used different routes due to their own local and regional (in German cases) planning cultures. The common values and principles that were considered by the main developing actors in the planning processes of the four selected embedded case studies were mostly as follows: putting people at the heart of development purposes and making places for people; urban design values such as permeability, legibility, physical attractiveness and quality; mixture of uses; robustness; connectivity; creating an environmentally friendly place; richness; and fitting into the wider context and urban fabric.

Many of the things that determine the outcome of urban design are outside planning systems. Therefore, to understand the enforcement of urban design by planning systems, one should also consider the planning culture, environment and the atmosphere in which design related decisions are being made. The urban environment is a product of politics, as different political approaches can lead to urban outcomes (Mentz and Goble, 2015: 158). Thus, the result of the urban design product is very dependent on politics, philosophies and the regulation frameworks. Moreover, this end product is often a result of negotiations and conversations between the planning authorities and the developers/investors. Figure 6.1 shows these factors which affect the outcome of urban design.

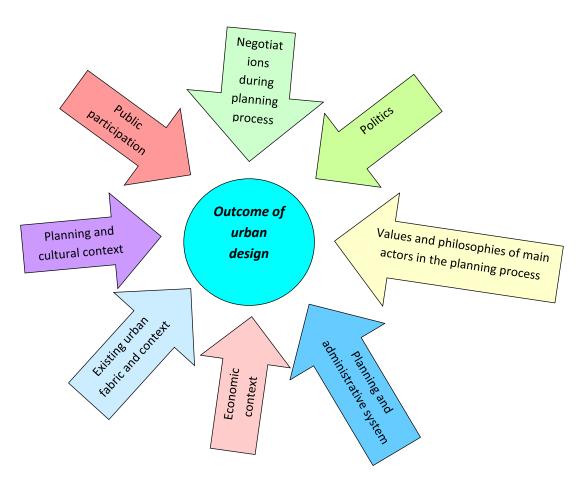


Figure 6.1. The factors influence the outcome of urban design. Source: the author.

One factor that is evident from the planning processes in both countries is that sometimes, what has been envisioned for a place by its designers is different from the reality that has been achieved and delivered in a place. In other words, there is a gap

between the designer's initial ideas and the outcome of a place. This is mainly because the designers alone are usually not the main actors who make decisions as they want. The process of urban design and planning normally involves so many other actors that are more powerful than urban designers alone. The main actors for pushing urban design ideas and principles into the planning processes for both countries are local authorities and developers or investors, and urban designers or architects normally act within the boundaries that are set by local authorities, as well as the requirements or demands of the developers/investors. According to the concept by Adams and Tiesdell (2013) that was presented in Chapter 2, urban design in England and Germany is a second-order activity in which it frames the acts of first-order design activity. This indicates that urban design ideas as developed by designers and architects in both countries are being regulated and shaped by second-order design activity, such as administrative systems and urban design governance. In addition to these, urban design is also very dependent upon the cost or price which means that a part of design ideas is influenced by economic factors.

Another reason for the gap between the reality and visions of designers is due to the technical challenges that they may face in the development period, and also sometimes economic factors, such as issues with project funding. One of the most important challenges of urban design is 'at the intersection of three categories of producers, regulators and users. Each group's interests and expectations may threaten to rule out the interests and expectations of others' (Madanipour, 2006: 189). Therefore, the challenge is to create a balance 'so as to achieve a particular aim but not at the expense of others' (Madanipour, 2006: 189).

According to Carmona (2016: 719), urban design governance as a second-order design activity means that 'the more one moves away from designing actual things (buildings, roads, landscape features, etc.) the more considerations are with the way that decisions are made than with the making of design decisions'. Urban design governance should be considered a continuous activity and, if 'seen in this way, design governance has the potential to shape all stages of the journey of projects from inception to completion: shaping the decision-making environment within which they are conceived, influencing their passage through design and development processes, and guiding how they continue to mature after they are completed' (Carmona, 2016: 719). Moreover, according to the model Carmona presented (see

Figure 6.2) the decision making environment in urban design is an ongoing process in which the key and critical interventions for any development project happen from its early stages and before the decision making (2016: 719). This 'will also help to avoid conflicts, tensions, delays and abortive work by ensuring that public aspirations are clearly known prior, during and after the design process, and can thereby be factored into the development process' (Carmona, 2016: 719).

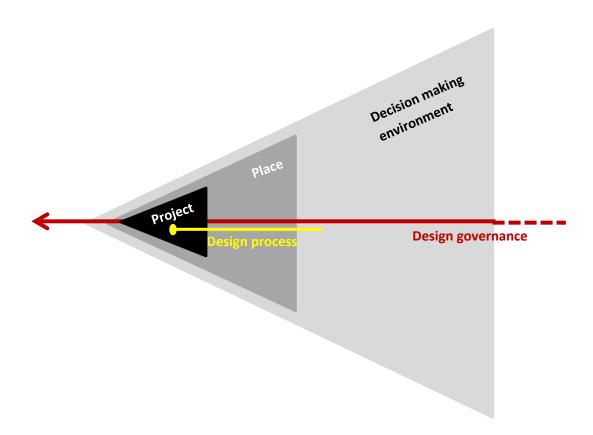


Figure 6.2. The design governance field of action. Source: Carmona, 2016: 719.

Reflecting on both countries and their planning cultures, systems and processes, it is important to leave planning matters to the lower tiers of government, such as local authorities or municipalities, and allow them to be one of the key players in decision making because these lower tiers know their local context and local area better. This understanding of context might actually help to achieve better results. However, the planning process should not rely solely on local authorities and it should entail cooperation between all the actors. It is also important for local authorities to set the

boundaries and guide the developments, but they should not impose their own ideas as standards for the projects.

This point about driving the power from regions and local governments rather than central governments is also supported by Morphet (2008: 108), who notes that

Locally based initiatives are being seen to be desirable across the world for a number of reasons: wider ownership of decision making, increasing interest in voting thus improving the democratic accountability of decision making, efficiency by reducing layers of bureaucracy, effectiveness in delivery-smaller areas for delivery can provide more targeted approaches, greater efficiency, smaller government.

The context and purpose of developments are also very important for shaping the outcome of urban design in the planning process. For the embedded case studies of this study, one of the purposes of these developments was to become places that serve as retail projects in town centres. In this case there are two consideration points: first, the regulations and policy framework for retail centres. The example of this point in England is the National Planning Policy Framework (NPPF), which has outlined some general guidelines for developments in town centres (see Chapter 4.1). In Germany, this first point applies to the German concept central place theory, which was adopted for both Thier Galerie and the Mall of Berlin to some extent.

The second point of consideration is that the urban design principles for these projects were a combination of the common principles that were mentioned before, as well as some other slightly different principles due to the nature and character of their local context. An example of the second point in England could be seen in the case of Liverpool One, in which, apart from the common values that were mentioned before, an understanding of the context of Liverpool city centre and its potential by the developer (Grosvenor) played an important role. An example of this point in Germany could be seen in the Mall of Berlin where one of the purposes and principles of the master plan was to follow the same street structure, urban structure and pattern of the existing surrounding environment.

High design quality has become one of the main concerns for both regulatory and discretionary planning systems such as those that exist in, respectively, Germany and England (see Chapter Two). This growing focus on quality has resulted in the

distinctions between these two systems to become 'blurry' (Punter, 2007 cited in White, 2016: 5). In addition, 'a convergence of design control and management practice has taken place as governing authorities have adopted various measures to suit local political contexts, development cultures and bureaucratic procedures' (White, 2016: 5). This also supports and explains the first statement that was made at the beginning of this section in relation to the similarities that exist between the urban design principles, and the systems of urban design control and management in the planning processes and planning systems of the two countries. Both systems have increased their focus on high quality urban design and increasingly there are more similarities between the systems than differences. The efficiencies and effectiveness of the control and management tools or instruments is affected and influenced by not only their own qualities but also by local politics, financing and the wider regulatory regime; thus the impact of these tools would change according to the changes in urban governance and its context (White, 2016: 5).

There are certain parts of the planning systems and planning processes in each country that are advantageous with regard to issues of urban design and urban environment. For example, holding urban design and architectural competitions in both countries allow more innovation and creativity into the design ideas. One of the positive features in Germany for instance, is that the planning process normally contains two formal public consultations (one at the end of each stage) and this provides an opportunity for people to provide feedback to decision makers as to how they might modify the plans and proposals. Although the planning process might turn into a highly political process, it does not seem to have bad implications for the end product as can be seen, for example, in the case of Thier Galerie.

The issue of culture is very important for the ways in which:

- The systems plan and act;
- The standards as well as quality of a place are set;
- Urban design is being negotiated;
- Urban designers, architects and planners understand the context;
- The processes of urban design and planning is being shaped;
- An urban space or environment is being developed; and,
- The urban design concept is being interpreted and put into terminology.

The planning culture of each local authority is a crucial factor in shaping place. The planning culture of the local authorities in Dortmund and Berlin was to get help by holding design competition while the planning culture for Liverpool One and London Westfield was to promote urban design strategies as a way of attracting investors to the wider areas in which they are located (i.e. Liverpool city centre and the White City area).

Perhaps the concept of bargaining regimes, developed by Savitch et al. (2007) in which it was argued that the cities with clear supportive authorities and strong economies could be more assertive in bargaining with outside investors whereas some other cities with weak economy and less supportive governments could have less bargaining opportunities and rely more on private investors, is relevant. This concept could fit into the outcome of urban design as well. For the outcome of urban design the understanding of this concept is important because sometimes the outcome might be the result of relying on the private investors too much with the support of authorities just for the sake of economic improvements. The end product of urban design is highly dependent on the economical and bargaining situation of the cities they are located in as well as on the character, culture of their main actors such as local authorities and their developers.

This chapter has provided a comparative analysis of the national and embedded case study projects. Moreover, this chapter has translated some of the findings into general themes and context. The next chapter reviews the research objectives of this thesis and thereafter answers the main questions posed by the thesis.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions

This chapter of the thesis presents overall conclusions and has addressed the last objective which was outlined in chapter One. The main components of this chapter consist of: evaluating the research objectives by reviewing them; examining the research questions; and discussing some of the answers to those questions. Moreover, this chapter considers some of the contributions of this research to the wider field and develops directions for further research.

7.1. A review of the objectives

Objective One: to critically examine the relationship between planning practice and urban design and to develop a contextual basis & Objective Two: to shape a conceptual framework model based on the previous contextual basis

These objectives were addressed in Chapter Two, which provided a review of the relevant literature. Moreover, this chapter also created a conceptual and theoretical framework for the thesis. Chapter Two presented international ideologies from famous urban designers and planners such as Kevin Lynch (image and place studies), Camillo Sitte (picturesque studies) and Gordon Cullen. The chapter also examined various definitions of both urban design and planning in order to understand them better.

With regard to the relationship between urban design and planning, there are two views: one which focuses on the professional and disciplinary boundaries of design which could fit into architecture and landscape design (see Figure 2.1); and the other, which views urban design as one aspect of planning (Van Assche et al., 2012: 178). This chapter discussed Madanipour's ideas of urban design, whereby urban design is both a product and process. Madanipour (1996: 155) explains that 'the production of built environment occurs within a political economy' and argues that the state and market are its two main components. It was also argued that the common grounds of both planning and urban design are in the place-making process. Carmona's model of the place-making process was represented, in which there are four key place shaping processes: *Design, Development, Space (or place) in use* and *management* (as shown in Figure 2.2). Carmona (2014: 11, 33) argues that what shapes the experience of

space is not just design or even the development process, but instead the combined outcomes and interactions between these four components.

Moreover, Chapter Two illustrated the theory of opportunity space for both developers and designers. This theory posits that the larger the space, there is more room for manoeuvre by developers and designers. In this model the space for these actors' performance is created in the middle of the three main components: the site, market and regulations. In other words, these factors press this space in the middle and define the development for both the developers and designers (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013: 158) (as shown in Figure 2.5).

Chapter Two argued that urban design can be divided into two categories: first order design; and second order design activity. The scholarly review by Adams and Tiesdell (2013) later reflected some of the discussions in Section 6.5 by explaining that urban design as a second order design activity shapes and creates a frame for the act of first order design activity.

Chapter Two also focused on the market and its relationship with urban design, its outcome and the planning practice. It was argued that the quality of the urban and built environment was not the result of economic development but was a prerequisite for economic development. Thus, quality is used as an element to attract investment to a place and can help to attract higher value industries to that place (Biddulph, 2011: 65). Within this chapter it was also argued that, in order to improve an understanding of planning systems, it is necessary to understand the issue of a planning culture. Arguments that understanding the planning culture are important for understanding variations between places and differences in the style, practices, and outcomes of planning were also explored (Taylor, 2013: 683; Stead et al., 2015: 2127). The three-level, culturised planning model which was developed by Kneiling and Othengrafen (2009: 304; 2015: 2137), is an important models for understanding planning cultures. This model introduced three main elements: planning artefacts (visible planning products, structures and processes); the planning environment (shared assumptions, values and cognitive frames that are taken for granted by members of the planning profession); and the societal environment (underlying and unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings which affect planning) (Knieling and Othengrafen 2015: 2137). These elements provide a connection between planning practices and planning systems. This may include issues such as the influence of 'legal and administrative traditions, patterns of market relations and ways of life, which are seen as ultimately determined by culture' (Taylor, 2013:688). Chapter Two therefore also discussed the legal and administrative regimes in Europe and highlighted some of the main features of planning systems in Europe.

The conceptual framework for the research also responded to the second objective, and was based on the findings of the literature review. Therefore, the conceptual framework of this thesis was grounded in a broad field of planning culture and focused on the planning and development processes and position of urban design within these processes. The main components of this conceptual framework were: planning and legal administrative systems; the politics, power, philosophies and roles of the actors who are involved with planning and development processes; and the stages and type of design-related activities of planning and development processes (see Figure 2.7).

Objective Three: to introduce the methods for comparative planning studies through the use of planning culture as an approach for such studies,

The Third objective was addressed in Chapter Three, as this chapter discussed some of the relevant issues for comparative planning research. This Chapter has also presented the methods and methodologies of this thesis.

Objective Four: to develop an in-depth and practical understanding of how urban design is being handled and controlled in a planning process. In addition to find out the position of urban design in the planning and development processes

This objective was addressed in Chapters Four and Five; each of these chapters was divided into three parts. The first part of each discussed and established a national basis for understanding the embedded cases. The second and third parts developed practical evaluations of the relationship between urban design and planning systems of the selected case study projects by looking at their planning processes.

Chapter Four discussed the varying levels of importance that have been attached to urban design in the planning system in England over time, as the planning system has experienced many reforms. It was noted too that this was relevant in understanding

the context for the different case studies; for example, Liverpool One was developed during the 1990s and early 2000s, when the national and local governments were changing their attitudes towards urban design. Contextual factors also played a role in the setting for Westfield London which reflected broader changes in the attitudes of English government, from urban governance to urban entrepreneurialism.

Chapter Four established that both Liverpool One and Westfield London were aiming at regenerating a town centre (Liverpool, and part of Shepherd's Bush town and White City, respectively). With regard to planning processes, it was emphasised that the planning processes of both projects were shaped by the collaboration of local authorities and developers as well as other actors; however, the degree of each actor's involvement varied. Moreover, in terms of planning culture, it was argued that the attitudes of developers and local authorities in the planning processes were important, as they reflected the context of the planning culture and were important for determining the outcome of planning processes with regard to urban design. For instance, in Liverpool One, a combination of these factors resulted in a collaborative process: the establishment of clear design guidelines by the City Council and a designated urban design team, as well as urban design competitions. Chapter Four also discussed the planning process of the Westfield London, and underlined that much of the design activity and the involvement of other actors was very dependent on the developer, and that the local authorities were less influential and more flexible.

It was argued in Chapter Four that, in terms of outcome, Liverpool One achieved urban design qualities partly because these principles were an inseparable part of the master plan. It was also observed that the case of Westfield London brought further regeneration into its wider area and, together with its extension plans, enhanced the public realm as well as permeability, embedding other urban design principles in and through the whole scheme.

Chapter Five discussed the administrative and legal system in Germany. It argued that the planning culture in Germany is partly reflected and shaped by the main principles of the federal system, such as mutual feedback, as well as by some traditional planning tools, such as central place theory. The general term which referred to urban design in Germany was urban development (*Städtebau*). Urban

development in Germany experienced some changes with regard to values and concepts transformation during the 1980s. One of the most influential policy programmes which transformed the attitudes of planners and architects was the IBA. All such elements can be seen as constitutive of the planning culture in Germany. For instance, the principles of the federal system can be referred to as the planning environment of a culturised planning model; in addition, changes in values and concepts could be referred to as both planning artefacts and the planning environment of the culturised planning model. Chapter Five presented the case of Thier Galerie within Dortmund city centre and the Mall of Berlin within Potsdamer Platz and Leipziger Platz, Berlin. Both of these projects aimed at regenerating a part of the city centre in which they were located; moreover, both projects also sought to upgrade and enhance the retail offering within their contexts. There were certain dimensions within the planning processes of both cases that determined the outcome of these processes in terms of urban design, which, as was argued in Chapter Six, were reflective of their national context. These were: holding design competitions, conducting scientific and formal research, and the setting of (design) parameters by local authorities e.g. the Mall of Berlin.

Chapter Five also made an evaluation of the outcome of the planning processes of these cases. It was discussed that both projects were rather ordinary in aesthetic and architectural terms, but in urban design terms were able to integrate into their context.

Objective Five: to form a comparative planning study by addressing the three components of the culturised planning model - planning artefacts, planning environment and societal environment

This objective was addressed in Chapter Six. It was argued that the planning culture in England is heavily shaped by frequent reforms of the planning system which change the artefacts (e.g. urban design outcomes), planning environment (e.g. attitudes and values in regards to urban design), and societal environment (e.g. unconscious choices, beliefs and values of planning for urban design). This could mean that in England planning culture with regard to urban design is expressed more through the planning environment of the culturised planning model. In contrast, the planning culture in Germany is shaped by and reflected in traditional planning tools,

as well as the principles of the federal system, which would imply that there is more stability and less frequent change in Germany. And therefore could mean that the ways planning handles urban design issues is expressed through planning artefacts such as traditional planning tools. Chapter Six established that England, as a discretionary system, and Germany, as a regulatory system, both aim to achieve a high quality of urban design. With regard to planning processes, Chapter Six also concluded that, in England, the system would try to make the planning process faster by, for example, giving permissions and deciding on a proposal based on outline planning, design briefs, or plans, rather than a whole and complete master plan. In Germany, planning processes might take longer because so many of the stages that are involved in the planning processes are established by law. In addition, there are certain things within the planning processes of Germany that could be helpful for determining the outcome of urban design, such as conducting a formal and scientific research.

Chapter Six also indicated that the terminology for urban design in Germany is different from England. This perhaps indicates that urban design is more integrated within the planning system in Germany and it is difficult to draw clear boundaries for urban design in Germany. Urban design in England, however, is seen as a separate field which could fit within many professions and is a multidisciplinary subject. After a certain period, the issues of urban design became important in England, the issues of urban design in Germany experienced less reform, and therefore there was always awareness of the importance of urban design within the planning system, although the degree of this awareness varied.

In Chapter Six, it was also argued that, despite the differences between the planning systems and planning cultures of both countries, the similarities between the two countries in terms of urban design aims and outcomes and the handling of urban design within the planning processes, were actually more significant in practice than their differences, partly because of the shared values and philosophies and common principles of urban design, which were influential for both countries. It was concluded that the outcome and end result of urban design is very context-dependent and that the actors involved in the planning process and their philosophies have an undeniable influence, but outcomes are also dependent upon the political system (negotiations and power structures), the local planning culture of each city, and the

planning system and regulation at the local and upper levels. It was suggested that the bargaining powers of cities for attracting investment were also very important for the selection of a developer and as a result for the ways in which a place is being developed and consequently how urban design is processed.

7.2. A review of the research questions

The review of the research questions aims to understand some of the logic behind the design, order and structure of the previous chapters. This section addresses research Objective Six.

What is the relationship between urban design and planning systems?

The answer to this question, which is the main question of this research, is a complex one mainly because it is not possible to explicitly and directly discuss and understand this relationship. Therefore, this thesis has tried to answer this question by focusing on the following more specific questions:

What is the relationship between urban design and planning practice?

As discussed in Chapter Two, the common grounds between urban design and planning practice are found during place making, development and planning processes. It was argued that it would be shallow and short-sighted to state that urban design is a part of, or an extension of, just one field. Urban design is a concept that could fit within many disciplines and could also be viewed as an indivisible part of planning (Schurch, 1999: 24). To understand better the relationship between urban design and planning practice, it is necessary to consider urban design as both a process and a product (Madanipour, 1996: 155). Understanding this point about urban design indicates that urban design, as a component of the built environment, is shaped by a politico-economic setting in which the market and the state are very important. Moreover, it was contended that urban design could be categorised as a first-order, as well as second-order, activity (Adams and Tiesdell, 2011); a secondorder design activity such as policy making and urban design governance provides a frame for first-order design activity, which is developed by designers and their initial ideas. Planning and urban design are the wider context in which second-order design activity or design governance is performed.

Both of these fields therefore have very close relationships with each other and, depending on the development contexts as well as concepts, sometimes differentiating these two fields from each other is difficult. Moreover, drawing on the culturised planning model represented in Chapter Two, in order to understand both urban design and planning, the physical and more tangible parts of these activities – such as the outcome of the urban environment – could be characterised as planning artefacts. In contrast, some of the specific local cultures that have significant influence for the ways both fields work are categorised into the planning environment and societal environment. This indicates that this model provides a useful way of reflecting back on this question in a structured way.

What constitutes good urban design? What are the key components for creating successful places? What is the role of the market for producing good urban design and a successful place?

Chapter Two argued that good urban design is based on firmness, commodity, and delight (Adams and Tiesdell, 2013). Moreover, a good urban design puts people at the heart and centre of its aims and strategies and seeks to create a place that is meant for people. A successful place could be a result of good urban design.

There are certain principles for achieving good urban design. These principles, which were mentioned in Chapter Two and regrouped in Chapter Six, are: permeability, legibility, connectivity, robustness, physical attractiveness and quality, mixture of uses, creating an environmentally friendly places, richness, fitting into the wider context and urban fabric. In addition, in Chapter Two the key principles of attractive places were expressed, which were internal accessibility, nature and landscape, mix of architectural styles, sense of order to streetscapes, lighting, high quality housing, adaptable buildings, sustainable urban design, sense of safety and security, structure and movement, character and identity, cultural quarters and public squares, mixed use development, and high quality local services and amenities (Mulliner and Maliene, 2011: 151).

With regard to the role of the market and economy in shaping good urban design and successful places, it was argued that the market and economy could be like a two-way street, meaning that high quality urban design might be a prerequisite for

attracting investors and having a successful economy, and high quality urban design could be the result of a successful economy and market.

How are urban design and its principles being managed and controlled in planning systems?

Urban design and its principles are managed through planning tools and instruments; the clarity and flexibility of each tool is very dependent on characteristic of planning systems as well as planning cultures.

In England, the answer to the above question could be partly shaped by understanding the planning system is discretionary and there is more flexibility in controlling urban design compared to Germany. Moreover, whilst the general attitude of England's central government towards urban design is to aim for good urban design, the language of the two main documents at national level is very general. Germany's regulatory system has less flexibility than England in terms of urban design and development control. In both planning systems, because they aiming to achieve high quality for urban design, their differences and boundaries are blurring (Punter, 2007) (i.e. disappearing). One reason for this could be that the core activities are quite similar, although there are differences for when planning stages and design tasks are accomplished.

It is also important to note that both the literature reviewed and the empirical work undertaken underline the fact that there are many other factors that are outside the planning process environment and the respective planning systems of England and Germany which are influential in determining, enforcing and managing urban design.

How can planning systems be effective in influencing good outcomes for urban design?

Planning systems can influence the outcome of urban design through planning instruments, establishing supportive regulatory frameworks (e.g. establishing clear urban design strategies, goals and guidelines and by integrating all of these into the main plan such as the master plan), by having positive attitudes about urban design, and by putting certain elements within the planning process which would be helpful for determining its outcome.

In addition, planning systems can influence the outcome of urban design by formally involving and engaging some design-related activities within planning processes, such as urban design competitions, conducting research, and use of urban development contracts.

How is urban design handled in planning processes? What is the position of urban design in the planning process?

Urban design within planning processes is handled by two main dimensions of planning culture: the regulatory framework (as planning artefacts of a culturised planning model), and by the attitudes of the main actors that are involved in these processes (as the planning and societal environments within a culturised planning model). The position of urban design within the planning processes of Germany was primarily in the initial stages, while for England this position was within the later master planning and decision making stages.

Understanding this position within the stages of planning processes helps in developing a better understanding of the processes themselves, as well as in gaining an appreciation that key urban design activities take place at different stages of planning processes.

What are the roles, objectives, philosophies, values and powers of the actors that are involved in planning processes?

In all of the embedded case studies in this research, which were developed by private developers, the two most influential actors were the local authorities and developers. The involvement of other actors was dependent upon the planning culture and attitudes of both the regulatory authorities and developers.

In Germany the involvement of different actors within stages of planning processes were ensured by the *BauGB*, which gives a general outline of the stages and principles within the planning processes. For these projects, the power of developers and local authorities was greater. However, depending on the local planning culture, in the first case, in England (Liverpool One and Westfield London), the local authorities have relied on developers, whether they were either supportive or clear (e.g. Liverpool One), or flexible and less bold (e.g. Westfield London) in guiding the development.

Similarly, the second case that was observed, relating to power while depending on the local planning culture, was seen in Germany (the Thier Galerie and Mall of Berlin projects), in which the authorities were more regulatory but relied on the developers to a certain degree, for example, by setting particular parameters (e.g. the Mall of Berlin) or by establishing functions (e.g. both Thier Galerie and the Mall of Berlin). Therefore, in this case, the developers were given the freedom of designing the developments within the planning authorities' framework.

What is the role of planning culture in practical terms?

By understanding the planning culture and urban design culture within planning processes, the answer to the main question of this study can be addressed (see Figure 7.1). It was argued in this thesis that planning culture issues (in practice) are reflected in:

- Actors' philosophies, characters, attitudes and performance for urban design. This means that actors' involvement, attitudes and performances in planning processes are influential, either in shaping a part of planning culture or in reflecting on the planning culture. Within the culturised planning model, these issues with regard to actors could be put under the category of planning environment and societal environment.
- The stages that are involved in planning processes and the urban design related activities that take place at each stage; which could be put under the category of planning artefacts within the culturised planning model.
- The ways in which the aims and outcomes of urban design are shaped and realised. The urban design aims could be put within the planning environment of the culturised planning model and the outcomes fit within the planning artefacts category, as well as the societal environment, because the outcome of urban design is also dependent on perception and what the users of that space perceive of it.
- The ways in which urban design is enforced and determined within planning processes and the planning systems in England and Germany. This is within the planning environment of the culturised model but also, because it involves processes, could fit within the planning artefacts category in this model.

The ways urban design is understood and phrased, as well as the ways in which the concept of urban design is shaped. This point could fit the culturised planning model under the category of the planning environment, as some cultural and contextual factors are relevant to planning systems and planning practices (e.g. the reforms in England's planning system); and the societal environment, as some of the attitudes within planning systems are relevant to this component.

It is also clear that understanding planning culture in practical terms, particularly in the selected embedded case studies of this research, made an important contribution to understanding the way in which the negotiations, planning traditions, political atmospheres, planning processes, and the perceptions and values of urban design, take place and shape a development. This finding could be put under the category of the societal environment of the culturised planning model. This section now tries to answer the above question by shifting attention towards the embedded case studies of this thesis.

In the case of Liverpool One, the issue of planning culture is reflected in the change in attitudes at the Liverpool City Council, especially after their radical attitudes in the 1980s against the national government. In a sense, this meant that the Council has attempted to reduce the gap and the fragmentation that existed between it and national government in the following decades. Moreover, the issue of planning culture is reflected in the changes at the national level in England, with regard to establishing an Urban Task Force Report and urban renaissance. In addition, the changes in attitude regarding regeneration and image transformation in Liverpool and establishment of the first regeneration company in Liverpool (Liverpool Vision) were also of high importance. The issue of culture is also reflected in the attitudes of the developer of Liverpool One (Grosvenor), as their role in understanding the city and its context was very important. Further, the nature of this development group and their traditional mind-set (which means that they were prepared to commit to a place and expect longer term returns rather than expecting to make quick profit), as well as wanting to develop something in Liverpool that would be close to the concept of the development in London Mayfair, was also important. The collaboration of the Council and the developer, as well as the right timing, were key issues for creating a highly legible and permeable place in Liverpool city centre.

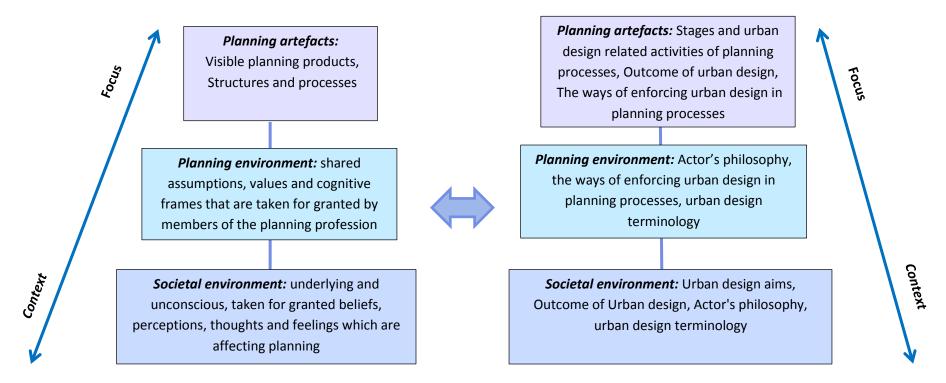


Figure 7.1. The culturised model of planning and urban design. Source: The author.

Left figure shows the culturised planning model from Knieling & Othengrafen, 2015: 2137, right figure shows the urban design issues within planning processes while reflecting on the culturised planning model adapted from and inspired by Knieling & Othengrafen, 2015: 2137.

The issue of a planning culture in London Westfield is reflected in the fact that the developer came from a background that would only aim for developing shopping malls. Moreover, the issue of culture is reflected in the attitudes of the GLA and Hammersmith and Fulham Council for developing such a place and for using this place as a reason to attract further investments to the wider White City Opportunity Area.

The planning culture for Thier Galerie is first reflected in the aims of Dortmund city council to expand and upgrade its retail centre and make the Dortmund city centre the primary retail area according to Germany's Central Place Theory. Secondly, the planning culture is reflected in to the planning process of Thier Galerie, for instance, in having two political decision making stages, and two public participation opportunities, and design competitions. This was also the case for the planning process for the Mall of Berlin, and is the same for most of the planning processes across Germany, because these are principles that are set by national regulations. Perhaps what makes the processes of Thier Galerie and the Mall of Berlin, or any other processes in Germany, different is the insistence or focus of the actors on one principle within the planning processes, more than others. For instance, in the Berlin case study, the urban design competition is a part of the 'culture of [the] city of Berlin for any big project' (Interview 22, 2016). The issue of a planning culture for both Thier Galerie and the Mall of Berlin is also reflected in the attempts of the developers to make a connection to the history of the site by designing the buildings in particular ways.

The planning culture of the Mall of Berlin reflects the whole development of Potsdamer Platz and the fact that the responsible actors for the planning processes were looking at the concepts inherent within Potsdamer Platz and were trying to create something that would not endanger or contradict this development. Moreover, the other issue that reflects the planning culture in practice is the principle that the Berlin Senate and developer had in mind: to keep the geometrical shape of Leipziger Platz. The local history of the site and the attempts to make a connection to its history are additional factors that reflect the planning culture and could be put into the planning environment or the societal environment categories.

For all cases, as discussed in Chapter Six, the issue of bargaining regimes and the power to attract investors to these projects were important. These are also connected to the planning culture, as it is relevant to the societal environment category of the culturised planning model.

7.3. Contributions of this research

This research has sought to address and establish an understanding of the relationship between planning systems and urban design by focusing on planning and development processes, and urban design within those processes. The conceptual framework of this thesis has proved to be a useful model for understanding the role of culture and the position of urban design within the planning and development processes. The model has helped this study to find comprehensive answers to its main questions i.e. what is the relationship between urban design and planning system in practice? And how is urban design being handled, managed and controlled in planning system?

One contribution of this research is that it revealed that, in both England and Germany, although the instruments and aspects of the planning systems and planning cultures differ, the same basic stages or elements need to occur in the planning process. It was also evident that there are differences when diverse planning stages and design tasks are accomplished, but the core activities are quite similar.

In other words, as mentioned before, the findings of this research suggest that despite the formal differences in categorisation of the two planning systems, in practice there are many similarities regarding how urban design aims and outcomes are delivered within the planning processes. Therefore the comparative analysis in this study revealed a first insight, that whilst planning approaches may appear very different 'in theory' between one national setting and another, there may be many similarities in terms of how things work 'in practice'. For instance the similarities between the planning stages, mind-sets, philosophies, aims and to an extent outcome of the planning processes in relation to how they handled urban design issues.

In addition this study has also revealed a second contrasting insight that things that might have been assumed as being rather the same 'in theory', in practice were different. For instance, it emerged that one of the main differences between the two countries relates to interpretations of the terminology used in relation to the concept of urban design itself. In Germany for example, it is seen as being part of the traditional definition and 'work' of planning. Whereas in England it is seen as a more separate and specialist field and activity which may come under the remit of a number of built environment professionals, not solely planners.

This thesis has also observed that at a general level the planning culture in terms of how planning in Germany handles urban design issues is rather stable and expressed through planning artefacts such as 'traditional' planning tools. In contrast the study revealed that planning culture as regards to urban design in England is shaped by more frequent reforms. These can be characterised as modifying what the culturised planning model terms 'the planning environment'. Through its research into the relationship between urban design and planning systems, this thesis thus illustrates how planning culture is embedded within the planning processes and respective planning systems of England and Germany.

This research has also sought to move beyond the traditional and classic comparative planning studies (which focussed primarily on formal and administrative systems) and instead of focusing only on planning artefacts, it has tried to consider all the components of the culturised planning pyramid (see figure 2.6) in conducting its comparative planning study. In other words the use of planning culture in this research has helped to reveal the whole picture as a more complete and comprehensive one which includes all three components of the planning culture pyramid (i.e. planning artefacts, planning environment and societal environment) and not just one (the formal artefacts of the system). In addition the research has also considered comparative planning knowledge and urban design knowledge in a combined way and not as separate areas or fields. The work undertaken thus makes a distinctive contribution to a growing body of work (Othengrafen and Knieling, 2015) which suggests that using planning culture as an approach to conducting comparative planning studies is useful as it considers other factors such as the planning environment and societal environment. The beneficiaries of this work could thus include scholars who are seeking to undertake comparative planning study that goes beyond a more 'traditional' focus solely on legal and administrative or formal systems, and looking for examples of how this approach can be operationalised to investigate specific planning issues.

The conceptual framework of this thesis which was developed in page 55 figure 2.7, can also be useful and beneficial for a variety of other stakeholders such as urban design and planning theorists, as well as those individuals who are trying to develop an in-depth understanding of the planning and development processes and the ways urban design issues are being handled and controlled in practice. Moreover the conceptual framework model could be useful for urban design practitioners who wish to study examples to improve the projects or the area they are working on, especially because the conceptual framework provides a platform of expression for the main actors involved in planning processes (see Box B of Figure 2.7, p.55).

7.4. Avenues and directions for future research

The directions that future research on this topic could follow are:

Clarifying the boundaries of urban design and planning practice. One element missing from this research is the role of education and how urban designers and planners are trained and educated in both Germany and England. The consideration of this factor would provide a better scope for comparison between these two countries. This issue became evident during the interviews, as most of the interviewees raised this issue while they were asked to assess the general framework of thesis. According to most of the interviewees, planning and urban design education is a critically important factor that affects how urban designer and planners act.

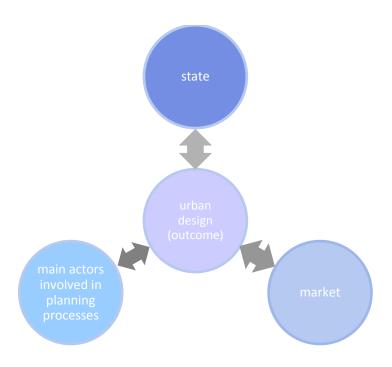


Figure 7.2. Basic model for future urban design studies. Source: the author.

- One model for discussing urban design and urban form for future research could be based on the three main components that influence them, and are influenced by them: the state (planning systems, politics, legal systems, policies, etc.), the market and the main actors and stakeholders. This model, which is illustrated in Figure 7.2, is originally based on Madanipour's model, presented in Chapter Two. This study has added another component to Madanipour's model: that of the main actors and stakeholders. An appreciation of their powers, philosophies and values is important for understanding an urban environment and urban design.
- Issues relating to the privatisation of public spaces have been partly covered by this research but possibly need to be explored further.

Bibliography

Adams, D. and Tiesdell, S. (2011) *Urban Design in The Real Estate Development Process*. Blackwell Oxford.

Adams, D. and Tiesdell, S. (2013) *Shaping Places*. Routledge London and New York.

Adams, D. and Watkins, C. (2014) 'The Value of Planning', 5 RTPI. pp.1-94.

Alexander, C. (1979) The Timeless Way of Building. Oxford University Press.

Alexander, E. (2009) 'Dilemmas in Evaluating Planning, or Back to Basics: What is Planning for?', *Planning Theory and Practice*, 10 (2), pp.233-44.

Allen, J. (2006) 'Ambient Power: Berlin's Potsdamer Platz and the Seductive Logic of Public Spaces', *Urban Studies*, 43 (2), pp.441-55.

Allies and Morrisson (2016) *Westfield White City, London [Online]* Allies and Morrisson. http://www.alliesandmorrison.com/project/2312/ (accessed July 2016).

Allmendinger, P. (2009) *Planning Theory*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Anderson, J. and Ramchurn, R. (2013) 'Liverpool: A Tale of Two Cities', *Architecs' Journal*, 238 (11), pp.12-5.

Bahrainy, H. and Bakhtiar, A. (2016) *Toward an Integrative Theory of Urban Design*. Springer International.

Balfour, A. (1995) World Cities Berlin. Academy Editions.

Banerjee, T. (2011) 'Response to "Commentary: Is Urban Design Still Urban planning?": Whither Urban design? Inside or Outside Planning?', *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 31 (2), pp.208-10.

BDP (2015) *Liverpool One Project [Online]* BDP. http://www.bdp.com/en/projects/f-l/Liverpool-ONE/ (accessed November 2015).

Belchem, J. (2006) *Liverpool 800: Culture, Character and History*. Liverpool City Council, The University of Liverpool and Liverpool University Press.

Bently, I., Alcock, A., Murrain, P., McGlynn, S. and Smith, G. (1985) *Responsive Environments: A manual for designers*. Elsevier Ltd.

Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development, (2009) 'Land Use Plan Berlin (Background- Contents)', Berlin Senate Department for Urban Development. pp.1-24.

Berlin.de (2016a) 06.07 Urban Structure / 06.08 Urban Structure - differentiated (Edition 2008) overview [Online]

http://www.stadtentwicklung.berlin.de/umwelt/umweltatlas/edc607_01.htm (accessed October 2016).

Berlin.de (2016b) Capital City Berlin Parliment and Government District 20 years of Development Programme [Online]

http://www.stadtentwicklung.berlin.de/planen/hauptstadt/entwicklungsmassnahme/en/entwicklung.shtml (accessed October 2016).

Berlin.de (2016c) *Wertheim – Europe's Biggest Department Store* [Online] http://www.berlin.de/2013/en/open-air-exhibitions/urban-memorials/10-potsdamer-platz-a-popular-attraction-in-the-heart-of-terror/wertheim-europes-biggest-department-store/ (accessed October 2016).

Berlin.de (2016d) *Potsdamer Platz [Online]* https://www.berlin.de/en/attractions-and-sights/3560662-3104052-potsdamer-platz.en.html (accessed October 2016).

Berlin.de (2016e) *Baukollegium Berlin [Online]* http://www.stadtentwicklung.berlin.de/staedtebau/baukultur/baukollegium/index.sht ml (accessed October 2016).

Berlin.de (2016f) *Leipziger Platz Wohn- und Einkaufszentrum Mall of Berlin [Online]* Berlin Senate.

http://www.stadtentwicklung.berlin.de/planen/stadtmodelle/de/datenbank/ausgabe.php?modus=liste&ProjektID=966&pl=_15 (accessed October 2016).

berlin-brandenburg.de (2016) *Regional Planning [Online]* http://gl.berlin-brandenburg.de/regionalplanung/ (accessed October 2016).

berlin-brandenburg.de (2016a) *Spatial Planning Procedures (ROV) [Online]* berlinbrandenburg.de.

https://translate.google.co.uk/translate?hl=en&sl=de&u=http://gl.berlin-brandenburg.de/ueber-die-gl/bund-laender-zusammenarbeit/&prev=search (accessed October 2016).

Biddulph, M. (2010) 'Liverpool 2008: Liverpool's Vision and the decade of cranes'. In: Punter, J. (ed.). *Urban Design and The British Urban Renaissance*. Routledge London and New York. pp.100-14.

Biddulph, M. (2011) 'Urban Design, Regeneration and the Entrepreneurial City', *Progress in Planning*, 76 (2), pp.63-103.

Birmingham City Council (2011) 'City Centre Master Plan', Birmingham City Council.

Black, I. (2008) "With 265 shops and 50 restaurants, an impossible city is reborn" The Guardian, https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2008/oct/18/westfield-mall (accessed July 2016).

Blaikie, N. (2000) Deaigning Social Research. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Blunden, M. (2014) 'Westfield shopping centre neighbours 'waiting for repairs five years after opening" Evening Standard,

http://www.standard.co.uk/news/london/westfield-shopping-centre-neighbours-waiting-for-repairs-five-years-after-opening-9469565.html (accessed January 2017).

Bömer, H. (2005) 'Modern local and regional economic development policies in times of mass-unemployment –the example of Dortmund', Dortmund: IRPUD.

Bömer, H., Lurig, E., Utku, E. and Zimmermann, D. (2010) *Stadtentwicklung in Dortmund seit 1945: Von der Industrie- zur Dienstleistungs und Wissenschaftsstadt.* Dortmund: IRPUD Tu Dortmund.

Booth, P. (2011) 'Culture, Planning and Path Dependence: some reflections on the problems of comparison', *TPR*, 82 (1), pp.13-28.

Brzenczek, K. and Wiegandt, C. C. (2009) 'Peculiarities in The Visual Appearance of German Cities - About Locally Specific Routines and Practices In Urban Design Related Governance ', *Erdkunde*, 63 (3), pp.245-55.

Burgess, K. (2015) 'From Wettbewerbe to Quartiersmanagement: Lessons Learned from German Urban Planning Policy', Robert Bosch Foundation.

CABE, DETR,. (2001) 'The Value of Urban Design: A research project commissioned by CABE and DETR to examine the value added by urban design', Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment. pp.1-113.

Caliskan, O. (2012) 'Design Thinking in Urbanism: Learning from the designers', *Urban Design International*, 17 (4), pp.272-96.

Carmona, M. (2014) 'The Place-shaping Continuum: A Theory of Urban Design Process', *Journal of Urban Design*, 19 (1), pp.2-36.

Carmona, M. (2016) 'Design Governance: Theorising an Urban Design Sub-field', *Journal of Urban Design*, 21 (6), pp.705-30.

Carmona, M. (2016b) 'The Formal and Informal Tools of Design Governance', *Journal of Urban Design*, DOI: 10.1080/13574809.2016.1234338 pp.1-37.

Carmona, M. and Wunderlich, F. M. (2012) *Capital Spaces: The Multiple Complex Public Spaces of a Global City*. Routledge London and New York.

Childs, M. (2010) 'Spectrum of Urban Design Roles', *Journal of Urban Design*, 15 (1), pp.1-19.

Clawson, M. and Hall, P. (1973) *Planning and Urban Growth: An anglo-american comparison*. Baltimore and London: The John Hopkins University Press.

Cochrane, A. and Passmore, A. (2001) 'Building A National Capital in an Age of Globalization: The case of Berlin', *Area*, 33 (4), pp.341-52.

Collins, G. R. and Collins, C. (1986) *Camillo Sitte: The Birth of Modern City Planning*. Mineola, New York: Dover Publications.

Colomb, C. (2012) *Place Marketing and The Politics of Urban Reinvention Post 1989.* Routledge London and New York.

Colomb, C. and Kalandides, A. (2010) 'The 'be Berlin' campaign: old wine in new bottles or innovative form of participatory place branding?'. In: Ashworth, G.J.; Kavaratzis, M. (ed.). Towards effective place brand management. Branding European cities and regions. Edward Elgar: Cheltenham. pp.173-90.

Communities and Local Government (2012) 'National Planning Policy Framework', Department for Communities and Local Government, Crown copy right.

Communities and Local Government (2016) *Planning Practice Guidance (Design)* [Online] Department for Communities and Local Government. https://www.gov.uk/guidance/design (accessed July 2016).

Couch, C. (2003) City of Change and Challange: Urban Planning and Regeneration in Liverpool. ASHGATE.

Couch, C. (2016) Urban Planning: An Introduction. Palgrave (macmillan education).

Couch, C., Fraser, C. and Percy, S. (2003) *Urban Regeneration in Europe*. Blackwell Publishing.

Couch, C., Sykes, O. and Bo¨rstinghaus, W. (2011) 'Thirty Years of Urban Regeneration in Britain, Germany and France: The importance of context and path dependency', *Progress in Planning*, 75 pp.1-52.

Cowan, R. (2002) *Urban Design Guidance: Urban design frameworks, development briefs and masterplans.* Urban Design Group.

Cowell, R. (forthcoming), 'Where now for the UK? The EU referendum, planning and the environment', *Town Planning Review*, Vol. 88/2.

Cullen, G. (1961) *The Concise Townscape*. Routledge London and New York.

Cullingworth, B. and Caves, R. W. (2003) *Planning in the USA: Policies, issues and processes*. Routledge London and New York.

Cullingworth, B. and Nadin, V. (2006) *Town and Country Planning in the UK*. Routledge London and New York.

Cuthbert, A. R. (2006) *The Form of Cities: Political economy and urban design*. Blackwell.

Dale, A., Arber, S. and Procter, M. (1988) *Doing Secondary Analysis*. London: Unwin Hyman.

Davidoff, P. (1965) 'Advocacy and Pluralism in Planning', *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 31 (3), pp.331-8.

Davidoff, P. and Reiner, T. A. (1962) 'Achoice Theory of Planning', *Journal of American Institute of Planners*, 28 (3), pp.103-15.

Davidoff, P. and Reiner, T. A. (1962) 'A Choice Theory of Planning', *Journal of American Institute of Planners*, 28 (3), pp.103-15.

Denscombe, M. (2008) The Good Research Guide. McGraw-Hill Companies.

DETR, CABE,. (2000) 'By Design: Urban design in the planning system, towards better practice', Commisson for Architecture and the Built Environment. pp.1-99.

Dortmund.de (2016) Stadt Dortmund. https://www.dortmund.de/de/index.html (accessed October 2016).

ECE (2016) *Thier Galerie [Online]* ECE. http://www.ece.de/center-projekte/shopping/?tx eceprojects detail%5Bproject%5D=20&tx eceprojects detail%5Baction%5D=index&cHash=cc 9aa96382306c95fe6e76a2361db6e6 (accessed October 2016)

ERCO (2016) *ECE centre Thier Galerie [Online]* http://www.erco.com/projects/retail/ece-center-thier-galerie-5265/en_us/ (accessed October 2016).

European Commission (1997) 'The EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policies', European Communities.

European Commission (1999) 'Regional Development Studies: The EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policies Germany', European Communities.

Fairfield park.com (2017) *Fairfield park project [Online]* FPRA. http://fairfield-park.com/ (accessed June 2016).

Falk, N. (2010) 'Westfield Report (Draft Summary Report of the Third Meeting in the Seventh Series of TEN)', TEN. pp.1-8.

Faludi, A. (1987) *A Decision Centred View of Environmental Planning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006) 'Five Misunderstandings About Case- Study Research', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12 (2), pp.219-45.

Franz, M., Gules, O. and Prey, G. (2007) 'Place Making and Green Reuses of Brownfields in The Ruhr', *Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie*, 99 (3), pp.316-28.

Garside, P. L. (1984) 'West Ende, East End: London, 1890-1940'. In: Sutcliffe, A. (ed.). *Metropolis* 1890-1940. London: Mansell. pp.221-58.

Gerend, J. (2009) 'The Logic Behind Germany's Retail Development Regulations', ICSC Research Review,

Gero, J. S. (1990) 'Design Prototypes: A knowledge representation scheme for design', *AI Magazine*, 11 (4), pp.26-36.

Getimis, P. (2012) 'Comparing Spatial Planning Systems and Planning Cultures in Europe: the need for a multi-scalar approach', *Planning Practice and Research*, 27 (1), pp.25-40.

Glancey, J. (2008) 'Westfield mega mall: the death of city architecture', *The Guardian*, https://www.theguardian.com/artanddesign/2008/nov/03/westfield-shopping-centre (accessed January 2017).

Greater London Authority. (2004) 'The London Plan: Spatial Development Strategy for Greater London', Greater London Authority and Mayor of London. pp.1-420.

Grosvenor (2014) *Liverpool One : An innovative urban regeneration project* [Online] Grosvenor. http://www.grosvenor.com/featured-locations-and-properties/asset/liverpool-one/ (accessed November 2015).

Gunder, M. (2004) 'Shaping The Planner's Ego Ideal: A Lacanian Interpretation of Planning Education', *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 23 (3), pp.299-311.

Gunder, M. (2006) 'Sustainability: Planning's saving grace or road to perdition?', *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 26 (2), pp.208-21.

Gunder, M. (2011) 'Commentary: Is Urban Design Still Urban Plannig? An Exploration and response', *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 31 (2), pp.184-95.

Gunn, S. and Hillier, J. (2012) 'Processes of innovation: Reformation of the English Strategic Spatial Planning System', *Planning Theory and Practice*, 13 (3), pp.359-81.

Hague, R., Harrop, M. and Breslin, S. (1998) *Comparative Government and Politics:* an introduction. Macmillan Press.

Hall, P. (2002) Cities of Tomorrow An Intellectual History of Urban Planning and Design in the Twentieth Century. Blackwell Publishing.

Hall, P. and Tewder-Jones, M. (2011) *Urban and Regional Planning*. Routledge London and New York.

Hall, T. (1997) *Planning Europe's Capital Cities- Aspects of 19th Century Urban Development*. London: Chapman & Hall.

Hammersmith and Fulham Council (2011) 'Core Strategy: Local Development Framework', London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham.

Hammersmith and Fulham Council (2013) 'Development Management Local Plan', London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham.

Hammersmith and Fulham Council (2013a) 'Planning Guidance Supplementary Planning Document', London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham.

Hammersmith and Fulham Council (2016) *Westfield Planning [Online]*Hammersmith and Fulham Council. https://www.lbhf.gov.uk/planning/planning-applications/major-planning-applications/westfield-planning-application (accessed July 2016)

Hammersmith and Fulham Council (2016a) *Local Development Framework [Online]* Hammersmith and Fulham. https://www.lbhf.gov.uk/planning/planning-policy/local-development-framework (accessed July 2016).

Hammersmith and Fulham Council (2016b) *The Unitary Development Plan 1994* [Online] London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham. https://www.lbhf.gov.uk/sites/default/files/section_attachments/fitzgeorge_fitzjames_part_4_tcm21-20031.pdf (accessed July 2016).

Hantrais, L. (1999) 'Contexualization in Cross-national Comparative Research', *INT.J. Social Research Methodology*, 2 (2), pp.93-108.

Harris, J. (2008) 'Hard Sell_ "It took 10 years to build and cost £1.6bn - but as London's vast new Westfield shopping centre prepares to open, the economy is heading into recession. How can it - and the growing number of giant malls around the country - survive? John Harris reports "'The Guardian, https://www.theguardian.com/business/2008/oct/24/retail-recession-westfield (accessed January 2017).

Hartmann, T. and Spit, T. (2015) 'Dilemmas of involvement in land management – Comparing an active(Dutch) and a passive (German) approach', *Land Use Policy*, 42 pp.729-37.

Healey, P. (2010) Making Better Places: The planning project in the twenty-first century. Palgrave macmillan.

Healey, P. and Williams, R. (1993) 'European Urban Planning Systems: Diversity and Convergence', *Urban Studies*, 30 (4/5), pp.701-20.

HGHI (2016) *HGHI retail areas* (*Mall of Berlin*) [Online] HGHI Holding Group. http://www.hghi.de/en (accessed October 2016).

Hirt, S. (2007) 'The Devil Is in The Definitions', *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 73 (4), pp.436-50.

Imrie, R., Lees, L. and Raco, M. (2009) *Regenerating London: Governance, Sustainability and Community in a Global City.* Routledge London and New York.

Inam, A. (2002) 'Meaningful Urban Design: telelogical/ catalytic/ relevent', *Journal of Urban Design*, 7 (1), pp.35-58.

Inam, A. (2011) 'From Dichotomy to Dialectic: Practicing Theory in Urban Design', *Journal of Urban Design*, 16 (2), pp.257-77.

Jarvis, R. K. (1980) 'Urban Environment as Visual Art or as Social Settings? A Review'. In: Anonymous (ed.). *Urban Design Reader*. Carmona, M.; Tiesdell, S. Edition. Elsevier Ltd. pp.24-32.

Jonas, M. (2014) 'The Dortmund Case — On the Enactment of an Urban Economic Imaginary', *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 38 (6), pp.2123-40.

Journal of the American Institute of Architects (2016) 'Architect: Mall of Berlin nps tchoban voss' *Journal of the American Institute of Architects*, http://www.architectmagazine.com/project-gallery/mall-of-berlin-6200 (accessed October 2016).

Keller, D. A., Koch, M. and Selle, K. (1996) "Either/ or' and 'and': First Impressions of a journey into the Planning Cultures of Four Countries', *Planning Perspectives*, 11 (1), pp.41-54.

Kitchen, T. (2007) Skills for Planning Practice. Palgrave macmillan.

Knieling, J. and Othengrafen, F. (2009) *Planning Culture in Europe: Decoding Cultural Phenomena in Urban and Regional Planning*. ASHGATE.

Knieling, J. and Othengrafen, F. (2015) 'Planning Culture- A Concept to Explain the Evolution of Planning Policies and Processes in Europe?', *European Planning Studies*, 23 (11), pp.2133-47.

Korn, A. and Samuely, F. (1942) 'A master plan for London', *Architectural Review*, 91 pp.143-51.

Krier, L. (1992) Architecture and Urban Design 1967-1992. Academy Editions.

Krier, R. (1979) Urban Space (Stadtraum). Random House Incorporated.

Kunzmann, K. R. (2001) 'State Planning: A German Success Story?', *International Planning Studies*, 6 (2), pp.153-66.

Ladd, B. (1997) *The Ghosts of Berlin: Confronting German History in the Urban Landscape*. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

Larice, M. and Macdonald, E. (2007) *The Urban Design Reader*. Routledge London and New York.

Larkham, P. J. and Adams, D. (2011) 'The Post-War Reconstruction Planning of London: a wider perspective', [working Paper (Centre for Environment and Society Research)]. 8 Birmingham City University.

Laurenz, N. (2013) 'Olymp & Hades schließt: Thier-Galerie zu stark für Ostenhellweg-Konkurrenz', *ruhrnachrichten.de*,

Lee, J. K. (2013) 'Mega Retail Led Regeneration and Housing Price', *disP-The Planning Review*, 49 (2), pp.75-85.

Lehrer, U. (2003) 'The Spectacularization of the Building Process: Berlin, Potsdamer Platz', *Genre*, 36 (3-4), pp.383-404.

Littlefield, D. (2009) *Liverpool One: Remaking A City Centre*. Wiley & Sons Publications.

Liverpool City Council (2012) 'Submission Draft Liverpool Core Strategy', Liverpool City Council.

Liverpool City Council (LCC). (2016b) *Unitary Development Plan 2002 [Online]* Liverpool City Council. http://liverpool.gov.uk/council/strategies-plans-and-policies/environment-and-planning/plan-making-in-liverpool/current-local-plandocuments/unitary-development-plan/ (accessed November 2015).

Liverpool City Council (LCC). (2016c) *The Liverpool Local Plan [Online]* Liverpool City Council. http://liverpool.gov.uk/council/strategies-plans-and-policies/environment-and-planning/plan-making-in-liverpool/current-local-plandocuments/ (accessed November 2015)

Liverpool City Council (LCC). (2016d) *Planning Aplication Process [Online]* Liverpool City Council. http://liverpool.gov.uk/planning-and-building-control/make-a-planning-application/ (accessed November 2015)

Liverpool City Council (LCC). (2016e) *The Planning Process Explained (Steps)* [Online] Liverpool City Council. https://liverpool.gov.uk/planning-and-building-control/guidance-and-policies/the-planning-process-explained/ (accessed November 2015)

Liverpool City Council (LCC). (2016a) *The Supplementary Planning Guidance Note* (SPG) [Online] Liverpool City Council. http://liverpool.gov.uk/council/strategies-plans-and-policies/environment-and-planning/plan-making-in-liverpool/current-local-plan-documents/unitary-development-plan/ (accessed November 2015)

Liverpool City Council Planning Services and Chapman Robinson Consultants. (2003) *Liverpool Urban Design Guide*, Liverpool City Council.

London Borough of Hammersmith and Fulham,. Mayor of London,. (2013) 'White City Opportunity Area Planning Framework', GLA.

London Government (2016) *The London Plan 2016 [Online]* Greater London Authority. https://www.london.gov.uk/what-we-do/planning/london-plan (accessed July 2016).

Lord, A. and Tewder-Jones, M. (2014) 'Is Planning "Under Attack"? Chronicling the Deregulation of Urban and Environmental Planning in England', *European Planning Studies*, 22 (2).

Lynch, K. (1960) *The Image of The City*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London, England: MIT Press.

Lynch, K. (1981) *Good City Form*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London, England: The MIT Press.

Lynch, K. and Hack, G. (1984) *Site Planning*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London England: The MIT Press.

Madanipour, A. (1996) Design of Urban Space: An inquiry into a socio-spatial process. John Wiley & Sons.

Madanipour, A. (2006) 'Roles and Challenges of Urban Design', *Journal of Urban Design*, 11 (2), pp.173-93.

Mall of Berlin (2016) *Mall of Berlin (LP12) [Online]* http://www.mallofberlin.de/en (accessed October 2016).

Markusen, A. R. (2000) 'Planning as Craft and Philosophy'. In: Rodwin, L.; Sanyal, B. Edition (ed.). *The Profession of City Planning*. New Brunswick, NJ, CUPR-Rutgers The State University of New Jersey.

Marshall, S. (2011) Urban Coding and Planning. London: Routledge.

Marshall, S. (2016) 'The Kind of Art Urban Design Is', *Journal of Urban Design*, 21 (4), pp.399-423.

Marshall, S. and Caliskan, O. (2011) 'A Joint Framework for Urban Morphology and Design', *Built Environment*, 37 (4), pp.409-26.

Masser, I. (1984) 'Cross National Research: some methodological considerations', *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, 11 pp.139-47.

McCrone, G. (1969) Regional Policy In Britain. London: Allen and Unwin.

Mentz, K. and Goble, S. (2015) 'Urban Economics by Design Down Under', *Local Economy*, 30 (1), pp.149-62.

Metropoleruhr (2016) *Ruhr Regional Association (RVR) [Online]* Metropoleruhr. http://www.metropoleruhr.de/en/home/the-ruhr-regional-association.html (accessed October 2016)

Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994) *An Expanded Sourcebook Qualitative Data Analysis*. SAGE Publications.

Miller, R. and Reed, A. (2008) 'Potsdamer Platz Renzo Piano Workshop Berlin, Germany', *precedent design study*, pp.1-8.

Morphet, J. (2008) Modern Local Government. SAGE Publications.

Morphet, J. (2011) *Effective Practice in Spatial Planning*. London and New York: Routledge.

Morphet, J. (2013) *How Europe Shapes British Policy*. Policy Press University of Bristol.

Mulliner, E. and Maliene, V. (2011) 'An Introductory to the Special Issue: Attractive Places to Live', *Urban Design International*, 16 (3), pp.147-52.

Mumford, E. (2009) *Defining Urban Design: CIAM Architects and the Formation of a Discipline, 1937-69.* New Haven and London: Yale University Press.

Mumford, L. (1968) *The City in History: Its Origins, Its Transformations, and Its Prospects.* Harcourt Brace International.

Nadin, V. and Stead, D. (2008) 'European Spatial Planning Systems, Social Models and Learning', *The Planning Review*, 44 (172), pp.35-47.

Neuman, W. L. (2007) *Basics of Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Pearson Education.

Newhall Project. (2016) *Newhall [Online]* Newhall Project Ltd. http://the.newhallproject.co.uk/ (accessed January 2017).

Newman, P. and Thornley, A. (1996) *Urban Planning in Europe: International competition, national systems and planning projects.* Routledge London and New York.

Novy, J. (2014) 'Mall of Berlin: Und noch eine Konsumhölle Städtebaulich ist Berlin auf dem besten Weg, sich der Lächerlichkeit preiszugegeben. Die Eröffnung der "Mall of Berlin" markiert einen neuen Höhepunkt dieser Entwicklung. 'ZEIT ONLINE, http://www.zeit.de/kultur/2014-10/mall-of-berlin-architektur-johannes-novy (accessed October 2016).

Nowobilska, M. and Zaman, Q. M. (2014) *Potsdamer Platz: The reshaping of Berlin*. Springer.

Office of the Deputy Prime Minister. (2003) *Regional Planning Guidance for the Northwest (RPG13)*, The Stationary Office (Crown Copyright). http://www.knowsley.gov.uk/pdf/PG19_RegionalPlanningGuidance-fortheNorthWestRPG13.pdf (accessed July 2017).

O'Sullivan, F. (2014) 'In Berlin, a Shopping Mall's Flop Leads to Schadenfreude: A group of Berlin nightclub owners are now joking about turning the failing Mall of Berlin into a "techno temple." Here's why.' From the Atlantic CITYLABE, http://www.citylab.com/design/2014/12/should-the-failing-mall-of-berlin-become-a-techno-temple/383811/ (accessed October 2016).

Othengrafen, F. (2010) 'Spatial Planning as Expression of Culturised Planning Practices: The examples of Helsinki, Finland and Athens, Greece', *Town Planning Review*, 81 pp.83-110.

Othengrafen, F. and Reimer, M. (2013) 'The Embeddedness of Planning in Cultural Contexts: Theoratical Foundations for The Analysis of Dynamic Planning Cultures', *Environmental and Planning A*, 45 pp.1269-84.

Oxley, M. and Brown, T. (2009) 'Review of European Planning Systems', De Montfort University Leicester. pp.1-72.

Pahl-Weber, E. and Henckel, D. (2008) *The Planning System and Planning Terms in Germany: A Glossary*. Hanover, Germany: ARL.

Parker, C. and Garnell, C. (2006) 'Regeneration and Retail In Liverpool: A new Approach', *Journal of Retail and Leisure Property*, 5 pp.292-304.

Paterson, E. (2012) 'Urban design and the national planning policy framework for England', *Urban Design International*, 17 pp.144-55.

Pierre, N. J. (1999) 'Models of Urban Governance: The institutional dimensions of urban politics', *Urban Affairs Reviews*, 34 (3), pp.372-96.

Poerbo, H. W. (2001) *Urban Design Guidlines As Design Control Instrument: with a case study of the Silver Triangle Superblock, Jakarta,* (doctoral degree), Universität Kaiserslautern,.

Potsdamerplatz (2016) *History [Online]* Potsdamer Platz. https://potsdamerplatz.de/en/history/ (accessed October 2016).

Punter, J. (2007) 'Developing Urban Design as Public Policy: Best Practice Principles for Design Review and Development Management', *Journal of Urban Design*, 12 (2), pp.167-202.

Punter, J. (2010) *Urban Design and The British Urban Renaissance*. Routledge London and New York.

Punter, J. (2010a) 'Planning and Good Design.Indivisible or Invisible? Acentury of design regulation in English town and country Planning', *TPR*, 8 (20), pp.343-80.

Punter, J. (2011) 'Urban Design and The English Urban Renaissance 1999-2009: A review and preliminary evaluation', *Journal of Urban Design*, 16 (1), pp.1-41.

Punter, J. and Carmona, M. (1997) *The Design Dimension of Planning*. E & F SPON.

Rae, A. (2013) 'English Urban Policy and the Return to the City: A decade of growth, 2001-2011', *CITIES The International Journal of Urban Policy and Planning*, 32 pp.94-101.

Reimer, M., Getimis, P. and Blotevogel, H. H. (2014) *Spatial Planning Systems and Practices in Europe: A comparative perspective on continuity and changes.*Routledge London and New York.

Reuschke, D., Salzbrunn, M. and Schönhärl, K. (2013) *The Economies of Urban Diversity: The Ruhr Area and Istanbul*. Palgrave macmillan.

Ritchie, I. (2016) *White City Commercial Developments [Online]* Ian Ritchie Architects. http://www.ianritchiearchitects.co.uk/projects/white_city/ (accessed July 2016).

Rodwell, D. (2014) 'Urban Regeneration and the Mangement of Change', *Journal of Architectural Conservation*, 14 (2), pp.83-106.

Rossi, A. (1984) The Architecture of The City. MIT Press.

Rossi, R. (1998) 'Times Square and Potsdamer Platz:Packaging Development As Tourism', *The Drama Review*, 42 (1), pp.43-8.

Rozee, L. (2014) 'Cooment, A New Vision for Planning-There must be a better way?', *Planning Theory and Practice*, 15 (1), pp.124-38.

Savitch, H. V., Kantor, P. and Vicari, S. (2007) 'The Political Economy of Urban Regimes'. In: Anonymous (ed.). *The Urban Politics Reader*. Strom, A.; Mollenkopf, J.H. Edition. Routledge London and New York. pp.175-88.

Schein, E. H. (2004) *Organisational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schmidt, S. (2009) 'Land Use Planning Tools and Institutional Change in Germany: Recent Developments in Local and Regional Planning', *European Planning Studies*, 17 (12), pp.1907-21.

Schmidt, S. (2009) 'Land Use Planning Tools and Institutional Change in Germany: Recent Developments in Local and Regional Planning', *European Planning Studies*, 17 (12), pp.1907-21.

Schmidt, S. and Buehler, R. (2007) 'The Planning Process in the US and Germany: A Comparative Analysis', *International Planning Studies*, 12 (1), pp.55-75.

Schnitzler, M. (2015) 'Bilanz nach vier Jahren: Was die Thier-Galerie Dortmund gebracht hat' ruhrnachrichten.de,

Schurch, T. W. (1999) 'Reconsidering Urban Design: Thoughts about its definition and status as a field or profession', *Journal of Urban Design*, 4 (1), pp.5-28.

Senate Department for Urban Development and the Environment,. (2015) 'Berline Strategy: Urban Development Concept Berlin 2030', Berlin Senate.

Shaw, D. and Lord, A. (2009) 'From Land-use to Spatial Planning: Reflections on the reform of the English Planning System', *TPR*, 80 (4-5), pp.415-35.

Shaw, D., Sykes, O. and Fischer, T. (2009) 'Culture, Regeneration and Urban Renaissance: Reflections of Liverpool's Experiences as European Capital of Culture', pp.122-7.

Sinn, A., Haase, D. and Walde, A. (2008) 'Analysis of Regional Spatial Planning and Decision Making Strategies and Their Impact on Land Use in The Urban Fringe', D3.3.6 Leipzig PLUREL.

Sitte, C. (1889) 'City Planning According to Artistic Principles'. In: Anonymous (ed.). *Camillo Sitte: The Birth of Modern City Planning*. Collins, G.R.; Collins, C. Edition. Dover Publications.

Stadt Dortmund (2004) 'Das Neue Dortmund Brochure', Dortmund: Stadt Dortmund.

Stadt Dortmund (2009) 'Bebauungsplan In W 125n -ehem. Thier-Brauerei', Stadt Dortmund.

Stadt Dortmund (2012) 'Dortmund - Das Neue Thier- Areal in der City: Stadtentwicklung durch das Zusammenspiel von Stadtischer Planun und privatem Invest', Dortmund: Stadt Dortmund. pp.1-27.

Stadt Dortmund (2013) 'Master Plan Einzelhandel: Einzelhandels - und Zentrenkonzept der Stadt Dortmund', Dortmund: Stadt Dortmund and Junker+ Kruse.

Stadt Dortmund (2014) 'City 2030: The development concept for Dortmund city centre', The City of Dortmund.

Stadt Dortmund (2015) 'Auswirkungen der Thier- Galerie auf die Dortmunder Innenstadt', Band 3 Stadt Dortmund.

Stadt Dortmund, and ECE (2008) 'Dokumentation der Ergebnisse des archtektenwerrbewerbes', Hamburg/ Dortmund: ECE and Stadt Dortmund.

Stead, D. (2012) 'Convergence, Divergence, or Constancy of Spatial Planning? Connecting Theoretical Concepts with Emprical Evidence from Europe', *Journal of Planning Literature*, 28 (1), pp.19-31.

Stead, D., Geerlings, H. and Meijers, E. (2004) *Policy Integration in Practice: The Integration of land use planning, transport and environmental policy-making in Denmark, England and Germany.* DUP Science.

Stead, D., Vries, J. and Tasan- Kok, T. (2015) 'Planning Cultures and Histories: Influences on the Evolution of Planning Systems and Spatial Development Patterns', *European Planning Studies*, 23 (11), pp.2127-32.

Sternberg, E. (2000) 'An Integrative Theory of Urban Design', *Journal of American Planning*, 66 (3), pp.265-78.

Strom, E. (1996) 'In Search of the Growth Coalition American Urban Theories and the Redevelopment of Berlin', *Urban Affairs Reviews*, 31 (4), pp.455-81.

Strubelt, W., Gatzweiler, H. P. and Kultenbrunner, R. (2000) 'Urban Development and Urban Policy in Germany: An Overview', Bonn: Federal Office for Building and Regional Planning.

Sutcliffe, A. (1981) Towards the Planned City. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Sykes, O. and Booth, P. (2015) 'The Potential and Perils of Cross-national Planning Research', *Town and Country Planning*, pp.98-103.

Sykes, O., Brown, J., Cocks, M., Shaw, D. and Couch, C. (2013) 'A City Profile of Liverpool', *CITIES The International Journal of Urban Policy and Planning*, 35

Tata, L. (2005) 'Learning in Urban Regeneration The Case of Phoenix in Dortmund ', In "Regional Growth Agendas" Conference at the Aalborg University, Aalborg, Denmark 28/05/05 - 31/05/05, University of Dortmund, Department of Spatial Planning in Europe.

Taylor, D. (2009) Liverpool: regeneration of a city centre. BDP.

Taylor, N. (1998) Urban Planning Theory since 1945. SAGE Publications.

Taylor, N. (2009) 'Legibility and Aesthetics in Urban Design', *Journal of Urban Design*, 14 (2), pp.189-202.

Taylor, Z. (2013) 'Rethinking Planning Culture: a new institutionalist approach', *TPR*, 84 (6), pp.683-702.

The City of Liverpool (2002) 'Liverpool Unitary Development Plan', The City of Liverpool.

Thiel, T. (2015) 'Weniger Leerstände: Studie: Thier-Galerie tut Dortmunds City gut' ruhrnachrichten.de,

Tibbalds, F. (1992) Making People- Friendly Towns. London: Spon Press.

Tosics, I., Szemzo, H., Illes, D. and Gertheis, A. (2010) 'PLUREL deliverable report: National Spatial Planning Policies and Governance Typology', 2.2.1 PLUREL. pp.1-269.

Turowski, G. (2002) *Spatial planning in Germany : structures and concepts.* Hanover: ARL.

Van Assche, K., Beunen, R., Duineveld, M. and Jong, H. (2012) 'Co-evolutions of Planning and Design: Risks and benefits of design perspectives in planning systems', *Planning Theory*, 12 (2), pp.178-98.

Van Dijk, T. (2002) 'Export of Planning Knowledge needs Comparative Analysis: The Case of Applying Western Land Consolidation Experience in Central Europe', *European Planning Studies*, 10 (7), pp.911-22.

von Petz, U. (2012) 'Städtebau-Ausstellungen in Deutschland 1910–2010 (City Planning Exhibitions in Germany 1910-2010)', *disp- The Planning Review*, 44 (174), pp.24-50.

Wall, E. and Waterman, T. (2009) *Basics Landscape Architecture: Urban Design*. Lausanne: AVA Publishing.

Waterhout, B., Othengrafen, F. and Sykes, O. (2013) 'Neo-liberalization Processes and Spatial Planning in France, Germany, and the Netherlands: An Exploration ', *Planning Practice and Research*, 28 (1), pp.141-59.

Westfield London (2016a) *Sheme 2 A [Online]* Westfield Shopping centres. http://westfieldlondon-plans.co.uk/scheme-2a/ (accessed January 2017).

Westfield London (2017) *Westfield London [Online]* Westfield Shopping Centres. http://westfield.completelyretail.co.uk/shopping-centres/scheme/Westfield-London-Shepherds-Bush.html (accessed January 2017).

White, J. T. (2015) 'Future Directions in Urban Design as Public Policy: Reassessing Best Practice Principles for Design Review and Development Mangement', *Journal of Urban Design*, 20 (3), pp.325-48.

White, J. T. (2016) 'Pursuing design excellence: Urban design governance on Toronto's waterfront', *Progress in Planning*, 110 pp.1-41.

Wiles, W. (2009) 'Westfield London' *ICON Magazine*, (067), https://www.iconeye.com/component/k2/item/3898-westfield-london (accessed January 2017).

Williams, R. H. (1984) 'Cross-national Research: Translating theory into practice', *Environment and Planning B: Planning and Design*, 11 pp.149-61.

Williams, R. H. (1984) *Planning in Europe: Urban and Regional Planning in ECE*. Allen & Unwin Ltd.

Winter, G., Smith, L., Cave, S. and Rehfisch, A. (2016) 'Comparisons of The Planning Systems in the Four UK Countries', *Research Paper*, *House of Commons Library*, 713 pp.1-42.

Wray, I. (2016) *Great British Plans who made them and how they worked*. Routledge London and New York.

Yin, C. (2008) Comparative Research of Spatial Control in Urban Detailed Planning In China and Germany, (Doctoral degree), Universität Stuttgart.

Yin, R. K. (2003) Case Study Research: Design and Methods. SAGE Publications.

Yin, R. K. (2009) Case Study Research: Design and Methods. SAGE Publications.

Zaspel-Heisters, B. and Haury, S. (2015) 'Synoptic Overview of Spatial Planning in Germany', *City Safety Energy (CSE) Journal*, (2), pp.15-30.

Zweigert, K. and Kötz, H. (1998) *An Introduction to Comparative Law*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Appendix

Interview List

- 1. A senior planning officer and urban design manager of Liverpool One at the City Council (27/04/2015).
- 2. The writer of Liverpool Design Guide in the late 1990s (06/05/2015).
- 3. The Urban design consultant of Liverpool One who was appointed by the city council to assist The Grosvenor (07/05/2015).
- 4. The architect of Liverpool One from BDP (22/05/2015).
- 5. The main designer and architect of Liverpool One from BDP (17/06/2015).
- 6. The development director of Liverpool One at Grosvenor (27/05/2015).
- 7. A senior planning officer at the Hammersmith and Fulham council (27/05/2015).
- 8. One of the architects of Westfield London at Benoy Architects (24/06/2015).
- 9. A landscape designer responsible for designing the Chavasse Park (09/07/2015).
- 10. The estate manager of Liverpool One (18/06/2015).
- 11. An Academic member of staff at the University of Liverpool department of Civic Design (09/07/2015).
- 12. Another architect responsible for the architecture team of Westfield London at Benoy Architects (28/07/2015).
- 13. The estate manager and developing manager of Kings Cross developments in London (19/08/2015).
- 14. An academic member at the University of Liverpool department of Sociology (25/08/2015).
- 15. The urban design manager of Westfield London at Westfield group (11/03/2016).
- 16. A representative from HIGH group as the developer of Mall of Berlin (15/04/2016).
- 17. A senior planner at the Stadt Dortmund who had a good knowledge of the planning process of Thier Galerie (city council of Dortmund) (10/04/2016).
- 18. A planner at the Stadt Dortmund who was engaged in the planning process of Thier Galerie (10/04/2016).

- 19. An academic member at the Heseltine Institute and University of Liverpool who had a good knowledge of Liverpool One (03/06/2016).
- 20. A planning officer responsible for the extension part of Westfield London at the Hammersmith and Fulham Council (02/06/2016).
- 21. An urban designer at the Allies and Morrison as the main master planner of London extension part (16/06/2016).
- 22. A planner at the Berlin Senate who was involved in the planning process of Mall of Berlin (21/06/2016).
- 23. An urban design consultant of the extension part of Westfield London (15/07/2016).
- 24. The master planner and architect of Mall of Berlin who was employed by the previous owner and made the land use plan which the current plans of Mall are based on it (01/11/2016).
- 25. An urban designer responsible for Thier Galerie at the ECE, the developer of Thier Galerie (28/11/2016).
- 26. A representative of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry in Dortmund (29/11/2016).
- 27. A planner and urban designer at the design review team of Dortmund city who had some good knowledge of Their Galerie (01/12/2016)
- 28. An Architect of the Mall of Berlin (19/12/2016).