

Designing sustainable city centre regeneration in Malaysia:
The case of Kuala Lumpur

by

NURULJANNAH ZAINAL ABIDIN
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Centre for Urban and Regional Studies
School of Geography, Earth and
Environmental Sciences
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ABSTRACT

The link between economic development and urbanisation has placed urban sustainability on national and city agendas. Designing sustainable city centre regeneration projects remains a crucial challenge, particularly in understanding the ways physical planning and social issues interact. Urban regeneration has been criticised for creating issues related to gentrification, displacement, social segregation, lack of coherent spatial planning, rising living costs, poor quality of life, etc. An optimum balance of state/market/civil society forces throughout the decision-making process is crucial to delivering sustainable cities, with policy, politics, governance and resources influencing the dynamics and types of (re)development.

This thesis investigates the strategies and processes of urban regeneration in the Malaysian context by exploring the connections between social sustainability and physical planning/urban design. Malaysian urban development is examined in the context of an aspiring world city, Kuala Lumpur, where models of regeneration operate at the intersection of developed and developing country models. Three case studies were selected within Kuala Lumpur to explore how these governance processes and design interventions have impacted on local communities and the urban environment.

For Mak & Ayah

To Aneil Hanafiah

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
1.2 RESEARCH FOCUS	4
1.3 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	4
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	7
2.1 THE EVOLVING NATURE OF URBAN PLANNING AND DESIGN	9
2.1.1 CITY CENTRE REGENERATION, SUSTAINABILITY AND DESIGN: THE HISTORICAL REVIEW	9
1. Post-war urban planning: context and key features	10
2. Planning theory in the 1960s and 1970s	11
a) Planning as a process of communication and negotiation	12
<i>Incorporating difference and diversity in social justice</i>	12
<i>Engaging the community in the planning process</i>	14
3. The process of contemporary urban development	19
a) Competitive city: world cities	20
b) Sustainable city: new urbanism and urban renaissance	22
2.1.2 URBAN SUSTAINABILITY AND SUSTAINABLE LIVING	25
1. Social justice, equity and inclusiveness	26
2. Place-making theory in creating a sense of place	28
a) Environmental design determinism	31
<i>Defensible space</i>	32
<i>Leisure space</i>	34
<i>Wellness space</i>	36
3. Quality of life and sustainable living	37
a) Well-being satisfaction level	38
<i>Urban fabric indicator</i>	39
<i>Street indicators</i>	41
<i>Design indicators</i>	42
b) Liveability	45
<i>The perceptions of quality of life</i>	45
<i>Happiness in community life</i>	47
2.1.3 ROLES OF DESIGN IN SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION	48
1. The importance of design sustainability in sustainable city centre regeneration	49
2. Criticisms and limitations of sustainable city centre regeneration	51
3. Elements of sustainable urban regeneration	53
a) Density and compactness	54
b) Brownfield reuse	56
c) Mixed-use	58
d) Open spaces	60
e) Integrated transportation	62
f) Governance and management	63
g) Money and cost	66
2.1.4 CONCLUSION	69
2.2 SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION: A STUDY OF DEVELOPED/DEVELOPING CAPITAL CITIES AND/OR WORLD CITIES	71
2.2.1 UNDERSTANDING SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION: THE WESTERN OVERVIEW	71

1. Design approach as drivers of urban regeneration	72
2. North America	76
3. Europe	78
a) Mainland Europe: Hamburg, Germany	78
b) United Kingdom: Birmingham, England	80
2.2.2 CONCEPTUALISING SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION	83
1. The implication of sustainable city centre regeneration	83
2. The balance of state/market/civil society	85
3. Policy, politics, governance and resources	87
2.2.3 DEVELOPMENT AND REGENERATION MODELS IN DEVELOPED/DEVELOPING CAPITAL CITIES AND/OR WORLD CITIES	89
1. Characterising capital and world cities	89
2. Case studies of the world/capital cities	90
a) East Asia: Seoul, South Korea	91
b) Middle East: Dubai, United Arab Emirates	94
c) South East Asia: Hong Kong SAR, China	96
d) Africa: Johannesburg, South Africa	97
2.2.4 CONCLUSION	100
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	104
3.1 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY	104
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN	106
3.2.1 CASE STUDY APPROACH	106
1. Justification and process for case study selection	108
3.2.2 DATA COLLECTION	110
1. Secondary Data	110
2. Primary Data	111
a) Key topics of investigation	112
b) Recruitment	116
3.3 ETHICS	118
3.3.1 CONSENT	118
3.3.2 PARTICIPANT FEEDBACK AND WITHDRAWAL	119
3.3.3 MORAL DUTY AND CONFIDENTIALITY OF THE RESEARCH	120
3.3.4 BARRIERS OF INTERACTION	120
3.4 DATA ANALYSIS	121
3.4.1 CODING	121
3.4.2 ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK	123
3.5 CONCLUSION	125
CHAPTER 4: SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION:	
A CASE STUDY OF KUALA LUMPUR, MALAYSIA, AN ASPIRING WORLD CITY	126
4.1 SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION IN KUALA LUMPUR, MALAYSIA	127
4.1.1 AN OVERVIEW OF MALAYSIAN URBAN DEVELOPMENT	127
1. Kuala Lumpur city centre development	130
2. Kuala Lumpur sustainable city centre regeneration: Key design issues	136
4.2 THE CASE STUDIES IN CITY CENTER OF KUALA LUMPUR	139

4.2.1	KAMPONG BHARU	141
4.2.2	KUALA LUMPUR CITY CENTRE (KLCC) – THE PETRONAS TWIN TOWERS	143
4.2.3	CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA	147
4.3 	CONCLUSION	151
<u>CHAPTER 5: CONFLICT-LED REGENERATION:</u>		
	<u>THE CASE STUDY OF KAMPONG BHARU REDEVELOPMENT</u>	<u>156</u>
5.1 	CONTEXT AND FACTORS IMPACTING KAMPONG BHARU DESIGN-LED REGENERATION	158
5.1.1	LOCATION AND LAND USES	158
5.1.2	DEMOGRAPHICS	162
5.1.3	GOVERNANCE	167
5.1.4	THE COMPLEX NATURE OF IMPACT OF CONFLICT-LED REGENERATION	173
5.2 	TRANSFORMATION: PROCESS OF SHAPING THE FUTURE OF KAMPONG BHARU	175
5.2.1	KAMPONG BHARU BEYOND 2035	175
5.2.2	STAKEHOLDERS' PERSPECTIVES AND PERCEPTIONS	179
	1. MAS (Special Anatomy Local Authority), CHKL (State Authority) and KBDC (Corporate Authority)	179
	2. Civil society point of view on the situation of Kampong Bharu redevelopment	184
5.2.3	PROBLEMATIC WAY FORWARD	190
5.2.4	SUMMARY	193
5.3 	THE SCOPE OF DESIGN SUSTAINABILITY IN KAMPONG BHARU REDEVELOPMENT	194
5.3.1	THE WAY FORWARD FOR QUALITY DESIGN-LED REGENERATION IN KAMPONG BHARU	194
	1. Density, compactness and mixed-use	195
	2. Brownfield reuse and open spaces	196
	3. Integrated transportation	198
5.3.2	COLLABORATIVE PROCESS (POLICY, POLITICS, GOVERNANCE AND RESOURCES)	199
5.3.3	KAMPONG BHARU IN THE BRODER CASE OF KUALA LUMPUR	202
5.4 	CONCLUSION	203
<u>CHAPTER 6: COMMERCIAL/BUSINESS-LED REGENERATION:</u>		
	<u>THE CASE STUDY OF KLCC – THE PETRONAS TWIN TOWERS</u>	<u>204</u>
6.1 	CONTEXT AND FACTORS IMPACTING KLCC DESIGN-LED REGENERATION	206
6.1.1	LOCATION AND LAND USES	206
	1. The first stage of KLCC master plan	208
	2. The second stage of KLCC master plan	214
6.1.2	DEMOGRAPHICS	216
6.1.3	ECONOMIC AND GOVERNANCE	219
	1. First stage of master plan	220
	2. Second stage of master plan	225
6.1.4	SUMMARY	227
6.2 	CORPORATE STRATEGIES IN SHAPING THE KLCC URBAN ENVIRONMENT	228
6.2.1	WORLD-CLASS URBAN DEVELOPMENT: THE WESTERN LIFESTYLE	228
6.2.2	COUNTERBALANCE OF THE VISION OF SUSTAINABILITY	230
6.2.3	SUMMARY	233

6.3 THE SCOPE OF DESIGN FOR SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY	234
6.3.1 THE WAY FORWARD FOR HIGH-QUALITY DESIGN-LED REGENERATION IN KLCC	234
6.3.2 COLLABORATIVE PROCESS (STATE-MARKET-CIVIL SOCIETY)	243
6.3.3 SUMMARY – DRIVERS OF URBAN CHANGE	245
6.4 CONCLUSION	246
<u>CHAPTER 7: SOCIO-CULTURAL-LED REGENERATION:</u>	
<u>THE CASE STUDY OF CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA</u>	<u>248</u>
7.1 CONTEXT AND FACTORS IMPACTING CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA DESIGN-LED REGENERATION	251
7.1.1 LOCATION AND LAND USES	252
7.1.2 DEMOGRAPHICS	260
7.1.3 GOVERNANCE AND ECONOMIC ISSUES	263
7.1.4 SUMMARY	266
7.2 A REVIEW OF SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA	268
7.2.1 PUBLIC CULTURAL PLACES FOR THE COMMUNITY	268
7.2.2 BUSINESS CULTURE	273
7.2.3 THE WAY LOCAL ECONOMIC REGENERATION SHAPES THE ENVIRONMENT IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA	276
7.2.4 SUMMARY	277
7.3 THE SCOPE OF DESIGN SUSTAINABILITY IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA	277
7.3.1 THE WAY FORWARD FOR QUALITY DESIGN-LED REGENERATION IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA	278
7.3.2 COLLABORATION PROCESS (STATE-MARKET-CIVIL SOCIETY)	290
7.3.3 SUMMARY	292
7.4 CONCLUSION	293
<u>CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION</u>	<u>295</u>
8.1 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE	297
8.2 ANSWERS TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS	303
1. To examine the process/strategy and the way that the role of design has been implemented	303
2. Does this case study model promote the restoration of a better living environment in the city centre?	306
3. How can the challenges and factors affecting sustainable city centre regeneration be addressed in shaping a successful regeneration agenda?	307
4. What are the typology of sustainable city centre regeneration?	309
5. Which aspects of the framework should and should not be pursued in empirical work?	310
8.3 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS	310
<u>REFERENCES</u>	<u>315</u>
<u>APPENDIX</u>	<u>358</u>
APPENDIX A	359
APPENDIX B	363

APPENDIX C	366
APPENDIX D	370
APPENDIX E	387
APPENDIX F	394

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Eight rung on a ladder of participation	15
Figure 2.2	Components of sustainable urban regeneration	53
Figure 2.3	The state-market-civil society relationships impact upon different types of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration	86
Figure 3.1	Analytical framework of Sustainable City Centre Regeneration	124
Figure 4.1	Map of the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur (pink) and the city centre boundaries (red)	131
Figure 4.2	Greater Kuala Lumpur extends beyond the boundaries of Kuala Lumpur (outer red boundary line)	134
Figure 4.3	The location of the three case studies in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur	140
Figure 4.4	Kampong Bharu areas	142
Figure 4.5	The KLCC site is built on a former colonial racecourse off Jalan Ampang and marks an eastward expansion of Kuala Lumpur's main commercial district, Golden Triangle (GTA) from Jalan Raja Chulan and Jalan Sultan Ismail	145
Figure 4.6	Central Market waterfront area location and ten nodes of redevelopment and beautified nodes as identified in River of Life project	150
Figure 4.7	Jalan Hang Kasturi a pedestrian-only area has been transformed into pedestrian shopping street (picture on the left during late 1990s). Kasturi Walk (right) was officially launched on 19 th February 2011.	151
Figure 5.1	The site location of Kampong Bharu case study	157
Figure 5.2	An urban village surrounded by high-rise and modern buildings within the city (view from the east)	158
Figure 5.3	Layout of Kampong Bharu and characteristic of neighbourhoods	159
Figure 5.4	Population growth and dwelling units in Kampong Bharu from 1991 to 2010	164
Figure 5.5	One of many abandoned plots of land in Kampong Bharu	164
Figure 5.6	Kampong Bharu beyond 2035 draft master plan as released on the 5 th April 2014	176
Figure 5.7	Proposed land use zoning for Kampong Bharu redevelopment	177
Figure 5.8	A comparison between the Kampong Bharu land use 2013 and future development	177
Figure 5.9	A protest banner by community regarding the KBDC establishment to redevelop Kampong Bharu	181
Figure 5.10	Cars blocking the entranceway for taxi lane and LRT feeder bus inaccessible to the Kampong Bharu LRT station	185
Figure 5.11	Unattractive flat at Kampong Periok (left) and Raja Bot (right) neighbourhood, which is located outside the MAS area	186
Figure 5.12	Sultan Suleiman Club House is one of the two biggest existing green spaces within Kampong Bharu	189
Figure 5.13	Kampong Masjid community engagement	190
Figure 5.14	Pedestrian walkway along Jalan Raja Muda Musa ('food haven' district)	193
Figure 5.15	Weekly market operating at the Pasar Minggu conceals the cultural stage leaving the	198

	structure overlooked	
Figure 5.16	Factors influencing Kampong Bharu redevelopment	201
Figure 6.1	The site location of Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) case study	205
Figure 6.2	The Kuala Lumpur City Centre district	208
Figure 6.3	The site is surrounded by vibrant districts	210
Figure 6.4	Land use characteristics within the KLCC surroundings	213
Figure 6.5	Visual illustrations of new skyscrapers in KLCC neighbourhood. The newly proposed buildings are rendered in blue.	215
Figure 6.6	Population by age group in the perceived KLCC area boundary	218
Figure 6.7	Corporate governance before the completion of the KLCC	221
Figure 6.8	Corporate structure after completion of KLCC	224
Figure 6.9	KLCC Stapled Group structure	226
Figure 6.10	A Panoramic view of KLCC	229
Figure 6.11.a	The interior of the elevated pedestrian walkway	232
Figure 6.11.b	Operating hours of KLCC-Bukit Bintang elevated pedestrian walkway	232
Figure 6.12	KLCC-Bukit Bintang elevated pedestrian walkway	233
Figure 6.13	Daily peak hour traffic at the outer side of the KLCC neighbourhood	237
Figure 6.14	Outdoor space between Suria KLCC and Mandarin Oriental Hotel	238
Figure 6.15	Scene at the children's pool and playground in the evening	242
Figure 6.16	Factors influencing the KLCC redevelopment	244
Figure 7.1	Location of Precinct 7 in the River of Life Project	249
Figure 7.2	Central Market waterfront area case study	251
Figure 7.3	Site location of the Central Market waterfront area	254
Figure 7.4	Central Market waterfront area land use district	254
Figure 7.5	Historical and cultural attractions in the Central Market waterfront area	255
Figure 7.6	1990s traditional shophouses: pedestrians use the covered pavements in front of the shops	256
Figure 7.7	Medan Pasar transformation	258
Figure 7.8	Total population by ethnicity during 1991, 2000 and 2010	261
Figure 7.9	Population by age group in the study area	261
Figure 7.10	A hidden urban village in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur	262
Figure 7.11	Governance structure for Greater Kuala Lumpur NKEA	265
Figure 7.12	Klang River (view facing south)	270
Figure 7.13	The confluence between Gombak and Klang River (the photo was taken from a bridge at Leboh Pasar Besar)	270
Figure 7.14	Kasturi Walk once a spot for people to sit, relax; a waiting and meeting point. The covered walkway which was completed in 2011, is now an open-air market. There are numerous kiosks selling local snacks, fresh fruits, souvenirs and retail goods at affordable prices. (In contrast with Chinatown in the next subsection)	271

Figure 7.15	The original Chinatown in the 1980s was centred on Market Square at Jalan Tun HS Lee (left). In 2003, the present Chinatown location at Petaling Street was transformed into a pedestrianised area and remains a famous bustling market for various bargains (top and bottom right).	274
Figure 7.16	Masjid India pedestrian malls attempt to emulate Kasturi Walk and Petaling Street design approach	275
Figure 7.17	Underutilised space between Central Market building and Klang River bank	281
Figure 7.18	Beautiful river sidewalk, yet most pedestrians indicated it is not safe especially at night	281
Figure 7.19	Unsustainable way of travelling and use of urban space in the city centre	286
Figure 7.20	Urban space (river walk, open space, square, etc.) within the neighbourhood	289
Figure 7.21	Factors influencing the Central Market waterfront area	290
Figure 7.22	This view of Medan Pasar facing towards Kasturi Walk at Central Market shows evidence of improved urban space and connectivity within the neighbourhood. This attempt has gradually encouraged a liveable and safe pedestrian- friendly environment.	292
Figure 8.1	The interconnectedness of key influences in shaping the development in Kampong Bharu	304
Figure 8.2	The interconnectedness of key influences in shaping the development in KLCC	305
Figure 8.3	The interconnectedness of key influences in shaping the development in Central Market waterfront area	305

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Process-oriented evaluation criteria	18
Table 2.2	Governance process: assessment criteria	19
Table 2.3	World cities ranking guide	21
Table 2.4	What Place-making is – and what it is not	30
Table 2.5	Seven attributes of sustainable communities relevant to crime prevention	33
Table 2.6.a	The overview of design approaches with examples of Sustainable City Centre Regeneration	74
Table 2.6.b	The overview of design approaches with examples of Sustainable City Centre Regeneration (Continued)	75
Table 2.7	The characteristics and specificities of world cities/developed/developing context	103
Table 3.1	Questionnaire survey for the general public of the KLCC and Central Market waterfront areas	115
Table 3.2	An overview of the total sample involved in the study	117
Table 3.3	Types of phenomena that can be coded (Gibbs and Taylor, 2010 adapted from Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Strauss, 1987; Gibbs, 2006)	123
Table 4.1	A summary of the Malaysian plan and policies	129
Table 4.2	Kuala Lumpur characteristics and specificities of an aspiring world city	136
Table 4.3	Summary of the development design approaches of the Kuala Lumpur case studies	153
Table 5.1	Comparison of management law in MAS area from 1987 to the present	170
Table 5.2	Summary of respondents' view on the current state of Kampong Bharu	184
Table 6.1	Land use type and building in the KLCC	209
Table 6.2	Summary of respondents' views on the current state of KLCC development	236
Table 6.3	Summary of respondents' view on sense of attachment with urban environments in the KLCC	236
Table 6.4	Summary of respondents' view on urban design quality in KLCC	239
Table 7.1	Summary of respondents' view on the current state of Central Market waterfront area (perception)	279
Table 7.2	Summary of respondents' views on sense of attachment with urban environment in the KLCC (interaction)	282
Table 7.3	Summary of respondents' view on current state of design quality in Central Market waterfront area (experience)	284
Table 8.1	Case study summary on way decision-making process shapes regeneration	301
Table 8.2	An overview of the interconnectedness between themes and impact on the condition of urban environment in Kuala Lumpur	302

ABBREVIATIONS

AECOM	Architecture, Engineering, Consulting, Operations and Maintenance (consultant firm)
APUDG	AJM Planning and Urban Design Group
CABE	Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment
CHKL	City Hall of Kuala Lumpur
DETR	Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions
EPP	Entry Point Project
ETP	Economic Transformation Programme
HCA	House and Communities Agency
HMSO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
KBDC	Kampong Bharu Development Corporation
KLCCH	Kuala Lumpur City Centre Holdings Berhad
KLCCP	Kuala Lumpur City Centre Property Holdings Berhad
KLSP 2020	Kuala Lumpur Structure Plan 2020
MAS	Malay Agricultural Settlement
NKEAs	National Key Economics Areas
ODPM	Office of the Deputy Prime Minister
PEMANDU	Government of Malaysia Performance, Management and Delivery Unit
PPS	Project for Public Spaces
UDC	Urban Design Compendium
UTF	Urban Task Force
WAMP	Western Australia Ministry of Planning

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 | BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The drive towards sustainable cities has called for new modes of planning over the past two decades. Professionals, environmental activists and politicians have all flagged up the importance of sustainable development; strategies, policy, planning projects and programmes have embraced the idea of constructing a more sustainable future. Extensive research in this field has been focused on the mechanisms of urban regeneration, which involved looking at how planning, architecture, urban design and landscape architecture have been addressing the ideal of building sustainable cities and neighbourhoods (Arida, 2002; Unsworth, 2007; Hudson, 2005). Debate continues about the best strategies for the management and delivery of sustainable urban regeneration. Models to achieve these goals have been circulating across the world and similar patterns have appeared from one country to another.

Urban regeneration is commonly defined as the process of enhancing the quality of life in urban areas through improvements in the vitality and viability of its activities related to social, economic, physical and environmental problems (Brown, 2006; Hudson, 2005). Healthy, attractive and economically successful environments are usually regarded as sustainable places. Hence, design mechanisms are used to encompass architectural treatment, landscaping, pedestrian circulation and traffic controls in order to create a better physical setting for sustainable city living. However, the relationship between the role of design and social sustainability is still under-examined, particularly in the developing world context. This lack of attention is problematic knowing the value of social sustainability for local communities. Paying attention to both social sustainability and urban design

means being concerned with improving living conditions and thus the creation of more diverse and socially inclusive places.

The increasing importance of community involvement within the planning process has been highlighted for its positive contribution towards the creation of sustainable communities (UTF, 1999, 2005). Several studies have argued that within the realm of urban renaissance and new urbanism (UTF, 1999, 2005; CABE, 2006; Punter, 2011) regeneration needs to be combined with strategies that bring sense of place, identity, quality and liveliness to the urban environment. Sustainable city centre regeneration is an increasingly important topic in applied urban planning. Thus sustainable city centre regeneration is likely to deliver more sustainable outcomes within its broader context if we integrate social sustainability into design practice.

Kuala Lumpur, the capital of Malaysia, underwent rapid development during its modernisation in the 1990s. The resulting urban fabric is poorly structured because many developments during this period and since have failed to take a holistic approach towards urban planning, design and regeneration (Acselrad, 2004). There are great concerns about contemporary development projects that have been focused on bringing international investors into the country and which have neglected local people's needs for change. The priority being given to planning for national economic growth has led to the neglect of social aspects, including rising living costs and poor quality of life. The Malaysian 2020 Vision, which was established in 1991, set the target for the country to become a fully developed nation by the year 2020. This has been driving the dynamics of development in Kuala Lumpur towards the provision of world-class developments. Consequently, major issues have emerged such as displacement, gentrification, acute car-based traffic congestion, conflict with existing residents and neighbourhood/social segregation. The city's development and regeneration so far has focused on the transformation of its material structure and still fails to really take into account considerations of environmental and social sustainability.

In Malaysia, attempts at implementing sustainable urban development through 'sustainable design' are seen embedded in economic, physical and environmental aspects. For example, the task is heavily based on the encouragement of iconic green architecture through low-impact materials and energy efficiency. However, within the context of designing urban space, there is inadequate understanding of what urban design really means and how this could play a significant role in sustainable development. In fact, urban design as a professional discipline is fairly new in Malaysia and normally positioned as part of unit in physical planning and architectural departments. There is a lack of attention in the scope of sustainable communities; how urban planning implications have directly impacted on the existing city inhabitants and other urban users in their everyday experiences as a whole (McGee, 2011; Ismail and Said, 2015; Chamhuri et al., 2015). Contemporary literature on urban planning and design emphasised the recognition of the community in the urban environment, particularly in the social dimension. Subsequently, this will influence the practice of a sustainable development that values the mutual quality of the physical and social environments (Madanipour, 1996; Jarvis et al., 2001). However, Perera (2007, p. 702) emphasise that the lack of culturally embedded bodies of urban theory presents a challenge to the local adaptation of planning practice. There is no current literature on urban design and social sustainability that analyses how these concepts translate across countries that operate at the intersection of developed and developing models. Research studies have shown more interest in analysing the debates around specific cases of developing and developed contexts (Dave, 2009; Peerapun, 2011). Kuala Lumpur as an aspiring world city is a good reference to explore the differing intersection of local, national and global force in shaping the state and development of the city.

1.2 | RESEARCH FOCUS

This thesis seeks to explore sustainable city centre regeneration through the scope of social sustainability and reflects on the role of design in promoting sustainable city centre regeneration in the context of Malaysia.

Urban design is at the interface between urban planning, landscape architecture, architecture and geography (Arida, 2002). The role of design in urban planning and regeneration is highlighted in many international cases and the implementation of sustainable design solutions are widely promoted as ways of (re)developing and regenerating the built environment. This study aims to investigate how social sustainability is addressed when designing city centre regeneration and hence how it can promote sustainable city living. This research draws upon international experiences to analyse the different ways in which types of (re)development and regeneration are constructed in Kuala Lumpur. By exploring, in different case studies, the diverse nature of urban development, the relationship between social sustainability and the role of design as the key to sustainable city centre regeneration is deciphered.

1.3 | STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The thesis comprises eight chapters.

Chapter 2, the Literature Review, lays out the conceptual and theoretical framework of the research. It looks at the theoretical evolution of urban planning and design throughout the twentieth-century and beyond. This includes a deconstruction of the relations between social sustainability and sustainable living and a thorough understanding of the connections between city centre regeneration, sustainability and design. Finally, it also brings more detailed insights of

sustainable city centre regeneration in the context of developed/developing capital cities and/or world cities.

Chapter 3 focuses on the Methodology of Data Collection employed for the research and its justification. It outlines the methodological direction of my study, including the case study approach based on the selection of three distinct case studies and their research design focused on the collection of mainly qualitative data produced through a variety of interviews and surveys.

Chapter 4, Sustainable City Centre Regeneration: A Study of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, an Aspiring World City, is my case study context chapter. The chapter presents the Malaysian/Kuala Lumpur context as well as the three case studies selected for the research. It stresses the similarities and differences between the three selected projects in terms of their types of development, challenges and problems.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 are devoted to the discussion of the empirical findings of the study. These chapters discuss more closely the different types of regeneration in Kuala Lumpur. Each chapter examines one specific case study. Building upon the analytical framework developed earlier on, each of these chapters explores, first, the way in which regeneration/redevelopment impacts the urban environment and local communities therein. This produces a better understanding of the relationship between social sustainability and the role of design. Secondly, the relationships between state/market/civil society are considered in how they shape sustainable regeneration. Finally, I examine the key influences of policy, politics, governance and resources, which affect the sustainable development of those places.

Chapter 8, Conclusion, summarises the main empirical findings of this research. To tie the empirical evidence to the theoretical contributions, I reflect on the implications of the case studies to

build a new understanding of how the design of sustainable city centre regeneration needs to be understood in the Malaysian context.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability has been a core though highly debated component of planning and urban policies over the last twenty years, particularly as 70% of the world's population will be living in cities by 2050 (Lewis, 2012). The need for greater effort to improve the condition of urban areas impels us to reflect on the capacity of regeneration strategies to meet social, political, economic and environmental goals. Whereas it could be argued that all dimensions of sustainability deserve attention, the angle of analysis of this research is social sustainability within the urban environment; social sustainability can be considered as a key directive in shaping a better quality of life to sustain the future of urban populations. Indeed, Littig and Grießler (2005) argue that approaches towards the concept of social sustainability should not be grounded in theory but rather on a practical understanding of plausibility and current political agendas. In addition, from a practical point of view, tools, instruments and metrics currently available to foster sustainable urban development are biased towards environmental and economic sustainability (Colantonio et al., 2009). Madanipour (1996) argues that urban design is a mechanism of the urban planning process and concerns the social process shaping urban areas. There is, therefore, a clear need for further research in this field, particularly by relating it to the role of design.

The objective of this chapter is to illustrate social sustainability and the role of design in shaping successful sustainable city centre regeneration projects. It also aims to position this joined discussion within a broader theoretical framework that will drive the whole thesis.

Social sustainability... is mainly concerned with the relationships between individual actions and the created environment, or the interconnections between individual life-chances and institutional structures... This is an issue which has been largely neglected in maintaining sustainable debates.

(Jarvis et al., 2001, p. 127)

These ideas put forward on the interaction between human actions and physical space are shared by Lewthwaite (1966) who argues that the qualities of the urban environment are the outcomes of such interactions. In addition, Colantonio et al. (2009, p. 4) also argue that:

Social sustainability blends traditional social policy areas and principles, such as equity and health, with emerging issues concerning participation, needs, social capital, the economy, the environment, and more recently, with the notions of happiness, well-being and quality of life.

This literature review chapter is divided into two sections. The first section discusses the evolving nature of urban planning and design throughout the twentieth-century and beyond. This section consists of three subsections. The first subsection explores the phenomena of planning system correlating social sustainability, urban planning policy, urban design and urban development while the second subsection refers to the need to take into account community participation specifically by looking at the sense of place. The second section focuses on analysing the extent to which key drivers identified in other parts of the world are relevant to the situation in Asia and developing countries; it particularly examines the scope of their influence and the implications for sustainable city centre regeneration. This section consists of three subsections and takes into account the specific context related to a study of Kuala Lumpur, an aspiring world city (this will be explored in Chapter 4). The first subsection explores and discusses examples of sustainable city centre regeneration from North America and Europe. The second subsection places emphasis on conceptualising sustainable city

centre regeneration. The third subsection subsequently discusses development and regeneration models in developed/developing capitals and/or world cities.

2.1 | THE EVOLVING NATURE OF URBAN PLANNING AND DESIGN

Over the last three decades, growing debates on sustainable urban regeneration have taken place in urban planning discourse among academics and practitioners around the world. The phenomena of planning on the evolution and the interaction of ideas is central to the process of urban planning and design. Moreover, the emphasis to secure better city centre development is closely connected with sustainability (Chanan et al., 1999; Tallon, 2009). Sustainable city centre regeneration can be defined as a way to promote city development enabling a broader quality of public realm and enhancing the urban environment through many processes (UTF, 2005; DCLG, 2009). Particularly in the UK, the agenda has focused on building better communities (see 2.1; Tallon, 2009; Rogers et al., 2012). A strand of policy focused on regeneration initiatives has developed various strategies on economic, environmental and social aspects for more sustainable development. Urban design has been strongly connected to it. This section briefly reviews the different generations, dimensions and theories of sustainable city centre regeneration in cities around the Western literature throughout the twentieth-century and beyond.

2.1.1 CITY CENTRE REGENERATION, SUSTAINABILITY AND DESIGN: THE HISTORICAL REVIEW

Throughout history, city planning has been principally directed towards improving the physical environment, and initially focused on planning for the people (Gans, 1969). However, corruptions of this ambition within the 1920s to late 1930s towards urban political and economic goals have created problems of social and spatial segregation. From the 1950s through the 1970s, there is clear

evidence that the physical environment solution in isolation does not play a significant role in people's lives to shape a sustainable social environment (Gans, 1969). As Peter Hall (2014) pointed out, during the post-war era, western city planning sought to address urban problems that responded to the growth of immigrant and migrant populations, as well as concerned with the rising importance of the automobile within the urban development. It witnessed an emerging attention about the health and well-being of urban populations, including an interest in new ways of thinking about space and place (Hall, 2014; Davoudi and Strange, 2009). Hence, transformation from land use planning tradition to a spatial planning practice began to take place by the end of the millennium (Davoudi and Strange, 2009, p.10).

1. Post-war urban planning: context and key features

After the Second World War, urban planning in the United States was specifically decreed to segregate residential from commercial and industrial developments. Urban planning also focused on the construction of low-density single-family detached houses as the preferred option for the growing middle class (Gordon and Vipond, 2005). This urban planning has progressively established into comprehensive land use planning through a heavily design-based approach. However, criticisms of urban renewal related to physical deterioration of central neighbourhoods and crisis of the everyday life over the production of urban space was a breaking point in the modernist planning models (Hall, 2014; Platt, 2015). In America, this process begun as local populations left the city centres for the suburbs in search of better living conditions. The same policy agenda also pertained in Europe and likewise drastically reduced the inner city population and caused its decay. The urban decline has affected the spatial structure, particularly in economic, environmental and social contexts in most cities across the world. Inner city centres have been the initial and primary area of attention. Stegman (1995, p. 1603) argues, "the tragedy of inner city affects everyone." In addition, urban sprawl was one of the urban issues that arose during that period (and is still in existence nowadays).

By the mid-twentieth century, urban sprawl had contributed to the emergence of automobile dependency for efficient transportation. Accordingly, this issue of transportation has appeared as very significant in transforming the urban environment, with strong implications towards sustainable development. The combination of these different issues was addressed in the new urbanism (smart growth) theories, as well as in the urban renaissance agenda. Additionally, all are correlated with the idea of a compact city. These different theories have emerged in the more contemporary period and thus will be explored later on.

2. Planning theory in the 1960s and 1970s

The 1960s and 1970s are characterised by a paradigm shift to postmodernist planning. The revolts of grassroots movements in the mid-1960s against the modernist planners and policy makers that spread from American and European cities sought to change dynamics of the state-society relations (Platt, 2015). However, following the great recession of the 1970s, Galloway and Mahayni (1977, cited in Hall, 2014, p.400) explain that “planning had reached the stage of a *paradigm crisis*”. Planning theory and practice witnessed two divergent paths. Firstly, the system view of planning and rational process that echoed in optimistic faith in technology on what came to be called a quantitative revolution. Secondly, the New-Left wing ideology maintains the anarchist, voluntarist, small-scale and bottom up roots approach to planning. For Davoudi and Strange (2009), a ‘top-down’ view of planning that focuses on the agendas of economic restructuring was criticised for its lack of understanding of how it works on the ground. As a consequence, by the mid-1970s, struggles over physical space and its social meaning has led to rising level of social inequality, high crime rates and social fragmentations. In the light of this, urban growth and change have moved planning from design-based methods of practice to the economic and socially based theories.

a) *Planning as a process of communication and negotiation*

Planning is seen as the process of development; the product from decisions made during this process being the built environment. In this, the development of communicative planning is grounded from planning responses to social conflict and economic decline in the 1970s. Harvey (1988, cited in Corubolo, 1998) emphasised that space rather contains social processes as much as social processes are inherently spatial. He has provided one of the most thorough and intellectually challenging accounts of the relationship between social justice, society and urban space (ibid, p. 4). His philosophy is influenced by Marx's view that the act of observing is the act of evaluation and to separate them is to force a distinction on human practice that does not in reality exist. Drawing on these debates, Young (1990, p. 240) has underlined that "the concept of social justice must consider not only distributive patterns, but also the processes and relationships that produce and reproduce those patterns." She proposed normative social justice, "openness to unassimilated otherness" as an ideal city life that necessitates democracy within the political structures (Young, 1990, cited in Cardoso and Breda-Vázquez, 2007, p. 388). Therefore, in this literature, it is important to access the state of social justice on social interaction, organisation and democracy through institutional conditions in the urban population. Coaffee and Healey (2003, p. 1982) have distinguished the institutional condition as "the rules, norms and practices, which structure areas of social endeavour, not formal organisations".

Incorporating difference and diversity in social justice

Coaffee and Healey (2003, p. 1980) recognise the demands for "greater consciousness of the diversity of people, basic needs and cultural identities, and a stronger awareness of environmental resource management and long-term environmental limits." A focus on knowledge of

the local inhabitants, on what different people value and resent about places and their qualities of daily life experience is also important (Healey, 2012). Therefore, it is essential to look back on the traditional aim of planning linked to its regulatory role at the intersection of political economy and intellectual history, and re-address physical development through community sensitivity and local knowledge (Fainstein and Campbell, 1996; Healey, 1998, 2012).

Social justice can be defined as a consciousness of the diversity of basic needs and cultural identities. It also outlines the distribution of society's benefits and burdens of which the nature of space evolves from a relationship between social process and spatial form (Coaffee and Healey, 2003; Abbot, 1996; Harvey, 2009, p. 14). In fact, moral values are always involved in the making of territory (Harvey, 1996; Corubolo, 1998; Lee and Smith, 2004). The diversity, distinctive urban characters, the opportunity for potential growth and more desirable living environments are a complex mix within the urban discourse. These characteristics have been acknowledged by Rogers (UTF, 1999, p. 47) to embrace cities that are "socially cohesive, avoiding disparity of opportunity, promoting equity and social solidarity." For that reason, identifying a diversity of views on how people perceive and function within their environment is relevant to the decision-making process.

Social interaction as Wirth (1964, p. 17) describes, refers to "the basic process in the formation both of human nature and of the social order." The context of social theory should not be neglected as Giddens (1984) stresses the valuable qualities of interaction. Similarly, Healey (2003, p. 107) remarks that "particular forms of collaborative process may have the potential to be transformative, to change the practices, cultures and outcomes of 'place governance'". Therefore, the promotion of balanced communities in spatial planning can reinforce broader conceptions of society, and the needs and the concerns of different communities. It improves the local environmental quality relating to activity and places on a local and spatial scale that challenges the characterless, dull and monotonous nature of the post-war suburban developments (Hall, 1998,

Schoon, 2002, cited in Raco, 2007; Dempsey et al., 2009). The discussion of diversity offers the potential and flexibility of mixing the local specificity in determining what generates greater social justice in urban life without being selective and segregated into pre-given categories (Healey, 2008). In this regard, understanding the communities in terms of diversity, vulnerability and isolation of particular groups of people into smaller entities of similar groups could possibly alleviate bad behaviour activities within the environment. As a result, the urban environment benefits as shared public space as social activities are increased when the security of a place is safe and secured. Therefore, a socio-spatial policy is constructed to promote a mix of different social groups, employment opportunities and accessible built environments to create a sustainable city (Madanipour, 1996; Raco, 2007; Fincher and Iveson, 2008; Dempsey et al., 2009). Accordingly, the way that the community participates and engages in the planning process is equally important.

Engaging the community in the planning process

The participation of communities at the beginning of planning development is relevant to deal with the problems of injustice and inequities in urban society. The principle of public participation as emphasised in the Skeffington report (The Skeffington Committee, 2013, p. 3) states:

People should be able to say what kind of community they want and how it should develop: ... It matters to us all that we should know that we can influence the shape of our community so that the towns and villages in which we live, work, learn and relax may reflect our best aspirations.

This consideration is vital to secure sustainable communities and development. At the same time, it encourages social integration within a more or less constraining environment with improvements in the quality of life (Polèse and Stren, 2000; Jarvis et al., 2001). Healey (2012, p. 31) suggests building a

participatory polity involves qualities within the culture of governance that “is richly informed by, responsive to and actively interacts, in fair and respectful ways, with the plurality of world of citizens.”

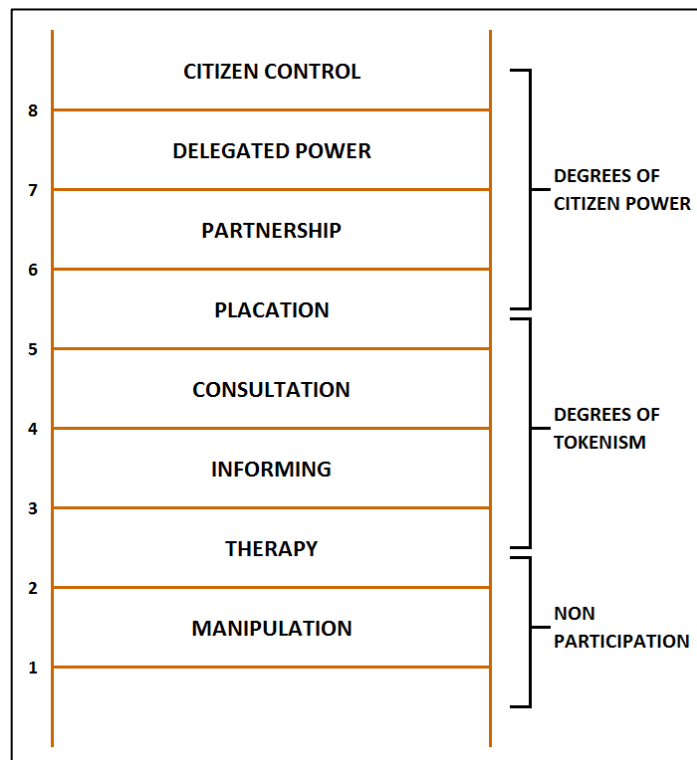


Figure 2.1 Eight rung on a ladder of participation

Source: Arnstein (1969, p. 217)

Arnstein (1969) has significantly illustrated the redistribution of power in a ladder of citizen participation (see Figure 2.1) to display the gradation of powerholders. Eight rungs on Arnstein’s ‘ladder of participation’ define the level of participation from powerless citizen to a powerful citizen control system. The ladder simplifies and highlights the division in the participation level that designates the degree of power sharing in planning by considering negotiations and engaging the community in the development of decision-making. As such, the community is acknowledged to have a voice, as well as give advice on planning development. The ideas put forward in both the Skeffington report and the ladder of participation prompted a growth of interest in the importance of openness and public involvement in urban planning development. The redistribution of power in

the planning stage deliberately increases the opportunity to bridge social and physical developments towards improving living conditions.

As the communities gave voice and learned more about the workings of governance processes, such initiatives generate transformative impacts that may be formed in all kinds of protests against 'authority', by individuals, spontaneously formed groups and wider movements and special interest associations (Healey, 2012, p. 23). Nevertheless, directing these protestations within the governance process practically becomes a culture of wider polity, which embedded the principle of equity. Managing the impact of these challenges on future development is essential to ensure social sustainability in the place-making. For example, the HCA in the UK has developed an integrated and collaborated approach to place-making through the Single Conversation process, to initiate the necessary changes for the area. This new governance and agency effectively works to ensure that the local authorities and partners reach most of the places and also allow growth in the regeneration process (Evans et al., 2007). The HCA aims to become the local government delivery partner by enabling a dynamic process that bridges local ambitions and national targets to deliver sustainable communities (HCA, 2009). Similarly through the Impact Assessment (IA) process, as argued by Glasson and Wood (2009), the impact of the proposed new project within the area and the relationship to the local community in improving social sustainability in the city is assessed.

The principle of equity is usually a powerful factor in political and policy issues in decision-making in the planning process, and centres upon a distributive notion of social justice (see Burton, 2000). Young (1990) points out that everyone who is involved in the process of planning development – from government, local authority, to architects, planners, urban designers and communities – have the capacity to cooperate in a collective communication that entails the “process-oriented understanding of society”. Hence, Fincher and Iveson (2008, p. 1) highlight the link with the redistribution of power:

The promotion of equity in the redistribution of resources and on 'social mix' in urban environments to prevent the kind of socio-spatial segregation that limits the access of some people and some groups to urban resources.

Harvey (2009, p. 96) also argues that "the mechanisms (institutional, organizational, political and economic) should be such that the prospects of the least-advantaged territory are as great as they possibly can be." Urban governance should reconcile policies concerned with social processes and undertake to accommodate the smallest degree of both physical and social dimensions to structure an effective urban planning framework (Harvey, 1988, cited in Corubolo, 1998; Fincher and Iveson, 2008). It therefore follows that the organisation of formal government should set out the culture of the governance without constraints on initiatives to develop and transform new projects, policies and practices for wider innovation growth (Flyvbjerg, 1988, McGuirk, 2001, Tewdwr-Jones and Thomas, 1998, cited in Coaffee and Healey, 2003, p. 1980).

However, a set of limitations has also been identified, especially in social control over spatial development, and how the role of design can shape the 'kind' of development for a socially just environment. The model of 'process-oriented understanding of society' by Cardoso and Breda-Vázquez (2007) based on Young's five faces of oppression (see Young, 1990, p. 41) and Harvey's (2002) interpretation of institutional conditions is worth reviewing in order to evaluate planning processes in terms of social justice (see Table 2.1). The process-oriented evaluation criteria in Table 2.1 identify authorised power which shapes and controls in disabling and dominating ways; recognition of the constraints identified, such as exploitation or marginalisation (see Table 2.1) allows the formation of new practices in planning decision-making processes (Coaffee and Healey, 2003). The interventions of these notions have shifted 'biases' in local government towards a new governance process framework (see Table 2.2). The model of governance processes in Table 2.2 has

equally positioned the local communities and issues of diversity in planning processes as initiatives towards the achievement of sustainable urban living. It addresses four dimensions to create a place and public place with a real sense of ownership. This will help to promote the principle of equity in the governance culture and also gives significant value to freedom of democracy in a diverse range of citizens' voices about the quality of their place (Coaffee and Healey, 2003). As such, public participation could equally reduce inequities in the city inhabitants. Within this context, there is a need to understand urban space within a socio-spatial context, which would lead to stressing the important roles that urban design can play to serve the urban users (Madanipour, 1996). And inevitably, these arguments link to contemporary issues in urban development and planning.

Table 2.1 Process-oriented evaluation criteria

Disabling Institutional Constraints	Key Characteristics
Exploitation	This refers to structural relations and social processes that bring about a transfer of energies to produce unequal distributional patterns, and to the way in which institutions and practices of policy and decision-making enables a few to accumulate, while constraining many more both in the workplace and at home.
Marginalization	This involves the deprivation of cultural, practical and institutionalized conditions for exercising capacities in a context of recognition and interaction, raising structural issues that concern the appropriateness of a connection between participation in social life and access to the means of consumption.
Powerlessness	This affects communities' ability to express political power through direct participation in public policy decisions, and people's capacity to engage in particular politics of self-expression, developing and exercising skills in non-hierarchical schemes of policy implementation.
Cultural Imperialism	This happens when the dominant means of interpretation and communication in a society render the particular perspective of a person's own group invisible, at the same time as they fail to recognize the perspective embodied in different cultural expression in a non-stereotyped, inclusive manner.
Violence	This relates to instances where social and institutional practices encourage and tolerate violent acts, enabling them to become systematic in character and allowing their perpetual existence as a social practice in the reproduction of relations of dominance and aversion through cultural images, stereotypes and the gestures of everyday life.

Source: Cardoso and Breda-Vázquez (2007, p. 390)

Table 2.2 Governance process: assessment criteria

Dimensions	Criteria
Networks and coalitions	Connections made to residents in many situations. Connections made to significant 'mainstream' areas and networks.
Stakeholder selection processes	Inclusive selection of who gets involved in area committees. Multiple 'voices' for place accessed
Discourses: Framing issues, problems, solutions, interests, etc.	Strong daily life emphasis Diverse experiences of place emphasised Distributive issues/conflicts over priorities recognised Knowledge resources enrich in rang and type
Practices: Routines and repertoires for acting	These are: accessible; diverse; facilitative; transparent; sincere

Source: Coaffee and Healey (2003, p. 1984)

3. The process of contemporary urban development

Multiple studies looked at the processes of urban regeneration examining causes of the decline in economic activities (Tyler, 2005; Biddulph, 2011), poor quality urban areas and loss of urban population (Cameron, 1992; Lees, 2008) as well as drawing out key aspects of the design process in delivering and managing the urban growth towards sustainable development (Colomb, 2007; Punter, 2007). Postmodern conditions resulted in the production of planning strategies that became disjointed, project-based, regeneration-focused and opportunistic. In 1980s, entrepreneurial style of development was influential both in the United States and Britain. Particularly in the UK, market forces influenced the transformation of many areas characterised by conservation and redevelopment concerns. Some issues, arising in the 1980s and 1990s raised fundamental questions about the connection between competitiveness and power relationships. In this regard, the growing integration of the global economic forces with pressures for new investments in inner cities have led to development among cities motivated to become 'world cities' (Sassen, 2000; Taylor, 2004; Cabigon, 2008; UN-HABITAT, 2010). Equally, in the 1990s, the new urbanism and urban renaissance have emerged in the urban regeneration strategy. These movements are correlated with urban

planning and architecture as a regeneration mechanism to add economic, physical, social and environmental sustainability in cities (Bell and Jayne, 2003; Tallon 2009).

a) *Competitive city: world cities*

Castells (1996) conceptualises cities as a global 'space of flows' of information, knowledge, people, money and commodities. Castells (1996, quoted in Beaverstock et al., 2004, p. 126) argues that "world cities are produced by relations of corporate networking activities and connectivity between cities based upon knowledge complexes and economic flexibility." Similarly, the world cities according to the Globalisation and World Cities Research Network (GaWC) are the most important cities in the global economy, interconnected on issues concerning international business, sustainability, urban policy and logistics. GaWC analysed connections and connectivity in city networks in two approaches: (1) global infrastructural networks: airports, ports and ICT and (2) office networks of global "advanced" producer services (APS) firms: law, banking/finance/insurance, accountancy, management consultancy and advertising (Wiltox, 2013). Table 2.3 shows the world cities ranking guide according to GaWc measures. Additionally, Krugman's (1994) and Taylor (2001), cited in Beaverstock et al. (2001, p. 16) argue that it is only firms that compete in the world market and not nations or, by extension, cities.

Table 2.3 World cities ranking guide

World City Level	Description
Alpha ++	London and New York stand out as clearly more integrated than all other cities and constitute their own high level of integration
Alpha +	Other highly level cities that complemented London and New York, largely filling in advanced service needs for the Pacific Asia.
Alpha and Alpha -	Very important world cities that link major economic regions and states into the world economy.
Beta	These are important world cities that are instrumental in linking their region or state into the world economy
Gamma	These can be world cities linking smaller regions or states into the world economy, or important world cities whose major global capacity is not in advanced producer services
Cities with sufficiency of services	These are cities that are not world cities as defined here but they have sufficient services so as not to be overtly dependent on world cities. Two specialised categories of city are common in this level of integration: smaller capital cities, and a traditional centres of manufacturing regions.

Source: GaWC (2014)

Hoiijertz (2013, p. 10) argues that the world-class development seen in the upper tier of cities (London, New York and Tokyo) is normally a result of demand rather than deliberate policy or a branding strategy developed by that city. Peca (2009) mentions that branding has to be unique, memorable, identified with the target market, and attractive, which is also regarded as one tangible part of the visions. Skyscrapers, urban flagships and megaprojects have been strategies used by to boost their development and global prominence (Hoiijertz, 2013). Increasingly, cultural buildings and important heritage sites have also “become important public symbols that instantiate a city’s global status” (Cartier, 1999, p. 186). In addition, waterfront developments all over the world are also part of this competition between cities to attract investment into previously rundown locations: London Docklands is considered as a successful model that cities such as Edinburgh (Edinburgh Waterfront) and Hamburg (HafenCity) have been seeking to emulate (Bagaeen, 2007, p. 175). Such large-scale urban projects are also about attracting capital (e.g. as foreign direct investment), talent (in business, engineering, software, etc.) as well as tourism (Douglass, 2002, Sassen, 2002, cited in Hoiijertz, 2013, p. 11). Cities that consist of talented, skilled workers are key drivers of the global economic growth,

scientific/technology discovery and cultural creativity (Findlay et al., 1996; Global Sherpa, 2011). Equally, the city regeneration mechanism might be in the strengths of culture, iconic architecture, headquarters of leading APS firms, innovative and creative industries or flagship developments, which offer the creation of potential new competitive assets, whether for business or tourism (Newman and Thornley, 2011). Overall, we can conclude that world cities often have political influence and hence power.

b) Sustainable city: new urbanism and urban renaissance

The new urbanism in the United States has emerged as an important alternative to synthesise a whole range of spatial patterns of urban development (Ellis, 2002). The movement embedded design-led interventions in planning goals to embrace growth management, environmental protection and urban revitalisation. In the UK, the associated urban renaissance approach has moved forward from discussing the city living agenda to focusing on a wider sustainable community strategy and design-led regeneration (ODPM, 2003; Raco, 2005; Raco and Henderson, 2006). Essentially, the design-led strategy is likely to foster a well-designed built environment for people to live, work, shop and spend their recreational time within a sustainable and adaptable urban environment (UTF, 1999).

New urbanism has been commonly used in North America. It focuses on physical design to facilitate environmentally responsible developments (Duany and Talen, 2002; Garde, 2004). New urbanism aims to control suburban sprawl and reduce car dependence contributing to less traffic congestion, reducing carbon emissions, and improving air quality as a consequence of trip reductions, decreasing infrastructure cost and improving environmental protection (Jun, 2008; CABE, 2011b; Ellis, 2002). The focus on design encourages taking advantage of compact and dense built

environment design in multi-uses and preserving open space for parks and recreation areas. The regeneration strategies are concerned with efficient land use as well as supporting the concept of neighbourhood and community to improve the urban social life (Harvey, 1997; Garde, 2004). Closely related to new urbanism is the smart growth theory. It is composed of three fundamental elements: the compact neighbourhood with traditional neighbourhood design, transit-oriented development (TOD), and pedestrian and bicycle friendly design. Smart growth supports compact neighbourhoods to encourage walking and cycling within transit-friendly hubs. In general, the design principles refer to traditional neighbourhood design (see urban fabric indicators in 2.1.2) and are closely linked to TOD. The Local Government Commission (Zykofsky and Corbett, 1991) defined that TOD links transportation and land-use policies, and uses the neighbourhood as the fundamental building block to promote walkable, mixed-use neighbourhoods, sustainable communities and healthier living conditions within a close proximity.

Meanwhile, the so-called Urban Renaissance in Europe relates to a movement aiming to repopulate and regenerate city centres towards providing better urban living conditions and an attractive environment for businesses. Both theories simultaneously shared the same common concepts and goals to improve the quality of the urban environment and to encourage the use of good quality urban design to aid sustainable growth. By responding to the need to address the issue of urban sprawl and focusing on efficient use of existing built areas, the urban renaissance drew upon the concept of the compact city as a 'liveable city'. In definition, Salzano (1997), quoted in Timmer and Seymoar (2006, p. 3):

Liveable city is a city where common spaces are the centres of social life and the foci of the entire community. A liveable city must be built up, or restored, as a continuous network – from the central areas to the more distant settlements – where pedestrian paths and bicycle-paths bind together all the sites of social quality and of the community life.

Indeed, these design interventions advocate less dependency on the car, increasing urban density with a greater mixture of land use and providing opportunities for social interaction within the neighbourhood base. It claimed to witness the social and economic upgrading of rundown areas of housing (Lees, 2002; Tallon, 2009). However, the issue around housing affordability also emerges within debates of these movements. Thus, sustainable design-led regeneration needs to be acknowledged to create a strong economic framework to develop sustainable cities.

In the UK, the urban renaissance has addressed the need to tackle the lack of urban design skills within local authorities. As stated in the urban renaissance approach, the principle of design excellence encourages social and economic productivity in city centres (UTF, 2005). The demands for greater attention to the design and management of the public realm are the foundation for public interaction and provide the sense of place for vital, safe and beautiful places in which to live (UTF, 2005). Likewise, Punter (2011, p. 2) argues that urban design is examined under four headings:

Design excellence, the national urban design framework and the pursuit of design excellence; housing supply, affordability, design quality and sustainability; the broader quality of the public realm and the urban environment; and the governance, resources, management and skills for local government place making.

The renaissance programme has continued to offer various joined-up initiatives combining the spatial planning, place-making and design quality agendas towards a strong urban renaissance (Punter, 2011, p. 32). The change in urban policy on specific problems such as urban economic competitiveness, anti-social behaviour and national security delivery of design quality has moved up the political agenda on 'public services' concerns. Indeed, research on quality of life indicators has led to the convergence of political leaders across the globe in considering ways to promote

sustainable development and collaborate with planners for more rational decision-making to create successful cities (Porta and Renne, 2005).

Over the last decade, researchers and policymakers are increasingly paying attention to urban health and well-being (Taylor, 2012) as well as to the role of urban design. Social and environmental determinants of health are noted to discuss how cities can be good to inhabitants and also to urge the creation of a built environment that promotes well-being by promoting healthy lifestyle choices (Taylor, 2012; PPS, 2012; Evans et al., 2012). Yet, there is much less knowledge developed on the understanding of the relationship between health, well-being and many aspects of social urban life. In the next section, we will explore quality in the urban environment and sustainable living through the scope of social sustainability in three dimensions of relevance to the planning process.

2.1.2 URBAN SUSTAINABILITY AND SUSTAINABLE LIVING

Social sustainability considerations sit within an integrated system allowing separate elements to provide balance and a mix of choices in catering for individuals' needs and practices within a more or less constraining environment. Social sustainability as defined by Polèse and Stren (2000, p. 1516) can be viewed as:

A development (and/or growth) that is compatible with harmonious evolution of civil society, fostering an environment conducive to the compatible cohabitation of culturally and socially diverse groups while at the same time encouraging social integration, with improvements in the quality of life for all segments of the population.

It is a means to achieve a symbiotic relationship between nature and civilisation in helping achieve current and future community needs. Therefore, it is necessary to deconstruct the theory of social sustainability in three dimensions with regard to developing and implementing projects, and planning policies aiming to promote better living conditions. It also provides an understanding of sustainable living concerning the provision of conditions that promote a friendlier neighbourhood, greater sense of safety and security, and overall better quality of life.

1. Social justice, equity and inclusiveness

Miller (1992) points out that recent developments in political science and sociology suggest that social justice discourse can and, in fact, should be influenced and reworked by considering how the decision-makers and communities they represent interpret social justice. This new dynamic in urban planning governance has allowed further investigation into the processes through which the concepts is adopted in the field of urban development. The transformation in social and spatial spaces can be seen as complementing each other: “spatial forms and social processes are two different ways of thinking about the same thing” (Harvey, 1988, quoted in Corubolo, 1998, p.6). Different meanings and values are attached to various types of social relations; this conflict of values and symbolic meanings determines the nature of many social relations (Corubolo, 1998, p. 6). With regard to urban design, these features have the potential to enhance the sense of place and also contribute to a healthy living environment for the inhabitants. Indeed, there is a range of voices that needs to be heard when moving towards more socially sustainable environments and engaging in the local conditions to secure a better design for city development.

For Colantonio et al. (2009), social sustainability is mainly explored through the scope of participation and inclusiveness of the local population. Anchored in the perspective of urban governance these concepts also relate to the ideas of dialogue and negotiation in a socially inclusive,

however complex society. As discussed in the previous subsection, the idea of social justice in the society is to take into account the experience of communities, who live within the diversity, spatial segregations and other urban problems in the city. Empowering social justice, equity and inclusiveness constitute the guiding foundation for planning, and initial efforts consisted in evaluating the core institutional arrangement of the planning system. Moreover, it provides a qualitative explanation of the new urban reality and also its impacts on physical transformations in future development.

By recognising the social problems and concerns of individual members of communities, improvements in their daily living environments could be addressed through socio-spatial processes in urban planning development. Such processes could be implemented by engaging with the community at the beginning of the planning by asking such questions as: “how people live, what they want, and what problems they need to be solved.” The planning process suggested plans for people first and subsequently the physical environment and buildings later (Gans, 1969; Fincher and Iveson, 2008). Gans (1969, p. 42) points out:

Planners are trained in aesthetics, and see the city from a perspective in which aesthetics goals rank high; indeed they often play the city as if it were a work of art, not a place in which people live.

Thus, when working in the areas of urban design control within the development process, planners pay attention to people “helping them solve their problems and achieve their goals” (Gans, 1969, p. 45). Essentially, it is important to initiate collaborative planning in planning development and in urban policy initiatives with good management for more sustainable urban development (Arnold et al., 2009, Healey, 2003, 2008, 2012). Tallon (2009, p. 4) says urban policy is viewed as spatial in that it relates to urban areas and urban processes and to the populations who live in urban areas and particularly the resolution of urban problems.

The inclusiveness of this notion can provide benefits and offer people a variety of solutions and programmes in the social, economic and political environments in which they live. Inclusiveness concerns the combination of ideas of social justice, equity, democracy and sustainability in the planning process. Through collaborative planning the governance process allows public participation in the political stand, so that the maximal benefits accrue to the people, interest groups and communities who are in greatest need of public interest. Therefore, there should be clear understanding in urban planning governance that involving the adjacent settled communities. Equally important is ascertaining the perspectives of stakeholders. In this way collaborative planning is achieved (Homes and Communities Agency (HCA), 2008; Glasson and Wood, 2009).

A mutually reinforcing network among many different groups is necessary in order to move towards the establishment of more liveable and sustainable urban regeneration in cities. Indeed, to improve the quality of life and the living environment, place-making theory will be the next to be assessed coexisting with this new relationship.

2. Place-making theory in creating a sense of place

The sense of place comes into existence when the perception, behaviour and experiences of any one individual in relation to a place give an insight into the psychological significance of such space for individuals and groups with the neighbourhood in which they interact (Tuan, 1990; Madanipour, 1996). Meanwhile, the principle of place-making is defined as a socio-spatial process that addresses the dynamism and change in human behaviour, particularly at the intersection of social interactions between space production and their everyday life routine (Xu, 1995; Madanipour, 1996). These interactions are seen as outcomes of the use of public space; in other words in how

those people who live, work and spend time in that space use the place and its neighbourhood in meeting the needs of their everyday life.

Their socio-spatial interpretations within the environment can enhance the sense of place that adds to the improvement of social sustainability. For instance, the impact of urban density does not have a linear relationship with deviant behaviour in space, yet the argument stands between the sense of pride/safety of place, social interactions and use of neighbourhood services (Bramley et al., 2009). The poor condition and maintenance of urban environments are claimed to adversely affect people's sense of safety. The diverse backgrounds of people migrating into the city also impacted on low personal responsibility and the desire to engage in the neighbourhood (Newman, 1972; Raco, 2007; Dempsey et al., 2009). Thus, sense of place is closely related to the built environment as it can be affected by the perceived quality of a place (Talen, 1999; Dempsey et al., 2009). The inhabitants who have a strong symbolic identity with the character of a place that is connected deeply within their neighbourhood are likely to create an environment in which the urban users have a positive sense of place. Likewise, fostering good urban design has the capacity to change inhabitants' perceptions and behaviour in shaping a better quality of places and sustainable urban living (Evans et al., 2007; House and Communities Agency (HCA), 2008).

Place-making aims to strengthen the local identity; it focuses on key areas to support social sustainability: urban management and environment, particularly through the scope of improving living conditions. The Project for Public Spaces (PPS), an American non-profit planning, design and educational organisation embraces the insights of William Whyte, a pioneer in understanding the way people use public spaces. They have argued that one of the important key elements of place-making in creating great community places is to 'Create a Place, Not a Design' (PPS, 2009). Nonetheless, creating a place that has both a strong sense of community and a comfortable image with a setting, activities and uses that collectively add up to something more than the place is of

crucial importance. The understanding of characteristics of what is place-making and what it is not, with a view to improve the urban system and quality of places is simplified in Table 2.4. By looking at the table, it can be stressed that these characteristics promote social sustainability, particularly cultural vitality, greater civic pride, better security and less crime, more equitable and accessible environments, more inclusive public spaces, an improved sense of well-being and belonging, and better quality of life (Steuteville and Langdon, 2003; CABE/DETR, 2001).

Table 2.4 What Place-making is – and what it is not

Place-making IS	Place-making IS NOT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-driven • Visionary • Function before form • Adaptable • Inclusive • Focused on creating destinations • Flexible • Culturally aware • Ever changing • Multidisciplinary • Transformative • Context-sensitive • Inspiring • Collaborative • Sociable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imposed from above • Reactive • Design-driven • A blanket solution • Exclusionary • Monolithic development • Overly accommodating of the car • One-size-fits-all • Static • Discipline-driven • Privatised • One-dimensional • Dependent on regulatory controls • A cost/benefit analysis • Project-focused • A quick fix

Source: Project for Public Spaces (2008)

For Billingham (1994, cited in Madanipour, 1997), urban design becomes integral to the place-making process and is also embedded in the urban renaissance. Evans et al. (2007) and Richard Rogers in his Urban Task Force (1999) have discussed that the implementation of urban design with respect to local culture and form would provide the framework in achieving a measure of sustainability (Jenks, 2009, p. 69). Healey (2012, p. 35) states, by “re-thinking the substantive foci of governance attention and making a real and valued difference to people’s daily life experiences,” it brings the argument to explore the people’s sense of place in making more sustainable places. The challenge of place-making is to address issues on public concerns in finding ways to make a living,

accessing services and sharing the public realm (Madanipour, 1996; Healey, 2012). From this point of socio-spatial process, the Project for Public Spaces (PPS, 2011) mentions:

Place-making process has brought... the goal of improving shared public spaces; it's a process that strengthens existing ties, creates new ones, and invigorates communities with the knowledge of how they can make things happen.

Therefore, it is essential to incorporate into the design process local sensitivity and their diverse identities. Eventually, a strong sense of ownership in places collectively adds more sustainable social environments and also has a strong impact on the use of a particular space.

Urban design and place-making should be seen as a multidisciplinary planning approach because the physical environment influences the behaviour and activities of inhabitants (Madanipour, 1996). Jones et al. (2010, p. 8) have argued that "neurotic citizens are incited to change their behaviour not via calculating habits but by soothing, appeasing, tranquillizing, and, above all managing anxieties and insecurities." Thus evidences have shown that people's behaviours in the area are influenced by the experience and perceptions they have within that particular environment. The local conditions of communities such as happiness, social well-being, crime and safety are highly influential in determining outcomes. Therefore, in the next section we will be discussing environmental design determinism in the use of space.

a) Environmental design determinism

Environmental design determinism and use of space depend on how humans interact with the materiality (design features) and culture of the environment. Essentially, the environmental design determinism discusses how urban design can shape different forms of behaviour change.

Three theories of different uses of space are listed as approaches that demonstrate the connection between design and behaviour in order to stimulate sense of place into a capacity for strong predictive behaviour. These specialist uses of urban design theories provide considerable empirical evidence to support arguments on making sustainable places that are safer, healthier and good for the urban populace.

Defensible space

There has been growing criticism of urban design with regard to enforcing negative patterns of people's behaviour in spaces. Knox and Pinch (2014, p. 215) discuss the negative effect that "creates micro-environments which discourage 'normal' patterns of social interaction and encourage deviant behaviour of various kinds." This refers to the social processes, lifestyle and sense of place of the local community within their environment that are spatial expressions of uses in and around the space (Xu, 1995; Evans et al., 2007). The theory of defensible space discusses a design of crime prevention that will minimise conflict and enhance safety by making the areas user-friendly, easy to understand and enable use by a range of people (Newman, 1995; Evans et al., 2007). Accordingly, it also offers the freedom of public space that promotes healthy, safe, community-oriented, environmentally sustainable and responsible behaviours (Jones et al., 2010, p. 13).

The defensible space is focused on the needs of people in a community and their protective attitude towards the control of public places. Defensible space can thus be defined as a space to enhance control and protect the specific environments (Newman, 1972; Raco, 2007). Newman (1996, p. 30) notes that "...of all the factors in the predictive model, it is the socioeconomic characteristics of residents and building size that together predict most of the variation in fear, instability, and crime." In spite of that, the influence between city streetscape and the sphere of building environment is

also juxtaposed to incorporate the public realm in use of the area. Such positions stress that environmental design can steer the social environment by adopting building form in design interventions by manipulating particular groups of inhabitants (Raco, 2007).

Table 2.5 Seven attributes of sustainable communities relevant to crime prevention

Attribute	Link to Crime Prevention
Access and Movement	Places with well-defined routes, spaces and entrances which provide for convenient movement without compromising security.
Structure	Places which are structured so that different uses do not cause conflict.
Surveillance	Places where all publicly accessible spaces are overlooked.
Ownership	Places which promote a sense of ownership, respect, territorial responsibility and community.
Physical Protection	Places which include necessary, well-designed security features.
Activity	Places where the level of human activity is appropriate to the location and creates a reduced risk of crime and a sense of safety at all times.
Management and Maintenance	Places which are designed with management and maintenance in mind, to discourage crime in the present and the future.

Source: Raco (2007, p. 315) adapted from ODPM and Home Office (2004)

Raco (2007) in Table 2.5 summarises the relationships between sustainable communities and crime prevention. He argues:

Designers are called upon to use environmental tactics and practices to shape the form and character of public spaces and development areas so that they become less attractive to potential criminals and so-called undesirables.

(ibid, p. 315)

This is similar to Newman's (1972) theory, which discussed the control of security through the selected mobility of a group of people as a key to community design in social space. The attributes of sustainable communities are relevant to the use of environmental design and the role of sustainable planning is to ensure an appropriate level of human activity and mobility through public spaces to provide secure spaces and a sense of security (Raco, 2007).

Newman (1972) argues, “defensible space therefore is a sociophysical phenomenon” to ensure safety in the environment, ideas of social control and crime prevention through physical characteristics are key. He has established four fundamental factors of environmental design that make a defensible space; the idea of sense of ownership of a place and community (territoriality), the link between physical characteristics and the ability to see what is happening within their surroundings (natural surveillance), the role of urban design to convey a sense of security (image), and other features that contribute to security and safe living (environment). His approach towards socio-spatial processes in improving physical features aims to benefit most neighbourhoods as “they will be safe, well-connected, mixed-use, strong and vibrant communities with good access to shops, community facilities and public transport;” these also will improve the public realms of the place and increase economic performance (Evans et al., 2007, p. 119).

Leisure space

Recent research studies (Bramley et al., 2009; Dave, 2009) have developed evidence that the use of leisure, entertainment and cultural amenities are significant in an ‘urban way of life’. The importance of leisure space in encouraging a high quality of public realm is pointed out as such spaces encourage social relations and enhance better urban living for the community (Adams, 2009). Leisure space is defined as a desirable place where true sense of inclusion and belonging merge to achieve a public realm of a mixed and vibrant community in the city. This new way of life gives access to services and opportunities that allow social mixing in urban environments. It encourages social interaction within the communities who feel safe around the area they live in and work. These communities appreciate such a quality of life and participating in collective civic activities (Dave, 2009). There is thus a need to take into account leisure spaces, as well-designed spaces that function

well during the day and night to create a truly diverse and sustainable city have an impact on neighbourhood health and liveability (Barton et al., 2003; Eldridge and Roberts, 2008; Colantonia et al., 2009). The term liveability is here used to indicate good living conditions and explicitly refers to the quality of the environment.

Essentially, the health and well-being of the community is considered as a component of the quality of life and social sustainability as Michelson (1970) quoted in Dave (2009, p. 191) says that, “mental illness is often related to overcrowding in high density neighbourhoods.” Some research has suggested that medium density generated more productive social interaction in the neighbourhoods (Bramley et al., 2009). These authors argued that urban design and leisure spaces have the capacity to respond to people’s needs, particularly those who “favour lower density (pride/attachment, safety, environment, home satisfaction, stability), medium density (interaction and participation), and higher density (access to and use of local services)” (Bramley et al., 2009, p. 2138). Indeed it strongly connects to social sustainability. For Dave (2009), the perception of density mostly relates to both physical and perceived density (this will be explored in section 2.2.2). Thus, compromises between the arguments for high density and the social and quality of life with the built form, layout, design and amount of mix uses is needed in achieving social sustainability (Dave, 2008, cited in Dave, 2009; Bramley et al., 2009).

Based on the literature, applying environmental design planning in leisure spaces should promote a mix and balance of uses in a neighbourhood and contribute to the socio-spatial and demographic mix of a community. Sustainable cities always stand between city living, community, green spaces and nature in the idea to develop creative and vibrant cities (Comedia, 1991; UTF, 2005). Equally important, taking into account the wellness space could promote a healthy lifestyle in the community for more active city living (we will discuss this next).

Wellness space

The wellness space can be defined as an interactive environment for public health that encourages healthy and active lifestyles for more vibrant communities in the city. The theory is to orient people towards more active healthy lifestyle choices and ensure that inhabitants develop physical and social well-being as a result of the designated environment. Health and well-being are vital components of the quality of life and also of sustainable communities. Therefore, to enhance social integration in healthy lifestyles, it is essential to convey healthy behaviours to different types of individuals/groups in the community to create a better urban living environment.

Urban geographers and planners in the UK, drawing on an anti-obesity policy agenda, have been designing fatness/obesity recommendations to ensure that inhabitants are active and adopt healthy lifestyle activities such as walking, biking and eating healthy food (Evans et al., 2012). Urban design is productive in creating a built environment more convenient and fun that promotes well-being and healthy lifestyle choices. For example, designing better walking networks linking transportation systems, green spaces, healthy food hubs and markets, or even shared space initiatives, provide psychological prompts to urban users to facilitate more community engagement and social care (Jones et al., 2010; PPS, 2012; Evans et al., 2012).

Mixed urban forms in relation to health can be used to mitigate the negative impacts of density through urban planning and management. Yip (2012) argues that even in a highly dense environment such as Hong Kong, residents also suffer from social and physical isolation troubles: this is reflected in the city's high suicide rate, loss of street life and environmental problems (such as roadside air pollution, wall-like buildings and urban heat island effects). Therefore, there is a need to emphasise the role of social well-being in reducing spatial and social disparities in the city to

incorporate more open space, diversity of uses and feasible social environments that promote social interactions. It is crucial to explore new ways of design to avoid the problems associated with overcrowding in high-density areas.

Wellness space theory aims to rethink city development in improving the daily living conditions through more effective planning, urban design and management. In this regard, Sennett (2012) also mentions that “a healthy city can embrace and make productive use of differences of class and of ethnicity and lifestyle it contains”; this suggests how design and planning might shape health outcomes and at the same time foster social sustainability. Moreover, aspiring to provide a good quality of life requires in-depth understanding of different people for a sustainable community (Fothergill and Gudgin, 1982, Healey and Baker, 1993, cited in Rogerson, 1999). Therefore, we will discuss the concept of quality of life and sustainable living in the next subsection.

3. Quality of life and sustainable living

Kitchen and Muhajarine (2008, pp. 1–2) consider that quality of life includes different components such as:

Access to wide variety of services and amenities such as parks, recreational and green spaces, opportunities to learn, and even a sense of attachment or belonging to a place or group of people.

These determinants of quality of life are correlated with social sustainability (they are the core components of sustainable neighbourhoods); they are also related to urban design with regard to the quality of life indexes. Quality of life can be seen as a set of attributes to life satisfaction of places and living environments, which is targeted towards human needs and secure growth of development aspirations as a whole. It is a standard international goal on the quality of life indicator, which relates

to the evaluation of well-being and is generally connected to liveability and happiness. Moreover, improving well-being has been a key governmental goal towards the civil society particularly in the UK and in Australia.

Whereas, in practice a lot of indicators and measurements have been introduced to evaluate the level that meets explicit standards of a good quality of life, the concept of quality of life remains unclear even though many scholars have tried to define it. For instance as cited by Veenhoven (2000, p. 2):

McCall (1975) defines quality-of-life as ‘necessary conditions for happiness’, while Terhune (1973) defines it as subjective satisfaction itself. Likewise, Colby (1987) describes wellbeing as ‘adaptive potential’, whereas Jolles & Stalpers (1978: 31) define it as ‘basic commend to life’.

These definitions focus on two key dimensions: well-being satisfaction and happiness of the people in their everyday life. Tatakiewicz (1975, quoted in Veenhoven, 2000, p. 13) has defined happiness as the “...justified satisfaction of life.” Therefore, measuring happiness, satisfaction and well-being is crucial to improve the inhabitants’ living conditions (Rogerson, 1999).

a) Well-being satisfaction level

The term well-being is more commonly used to describe quality of life in conveying the idea of sustainable urban living. Thus, analysing perceptions of the inhabitants’ lives and living environments that initiate effective community action plans are evidence of an inclusive policy approach to quality of life.

In 2006, the UK Government cross-departmental Whitehall Well-Being Working Group defined well-being as:

A positive physical, social and mental state; ... It requires that basic needs are met, that individuals have a sense of purpose, that they feel able to achieve important personal goals and participate in society

(Abdallah et al., 2008, p. 7)

This means well-being as so defined enhances strong, secure and inclusive communities as well as healthy attractive environments. Well-being satisfaction level indicators are presented as factors influencing the patterns of urban growth and development. On that account, indicators are important to bring together urban design and social sustainability. Three indicators influencing the pattern of urban growth and development are explored: (a) urban fabric indicators, (b) street indicators and (c) design indicators. These indicators help the urban governance attempts on policy-making to stimulate satisfaction within the shared environment in which people live (Helburn, 1982, cited in Rogerson, 1999; Porta and Renne, 2005).

Urban fabric indicator

In 2001, the Western Australia Ministry for Planning (WAMP) developed urban fabric indicators to promote sustainable planning. It underpinned the 'traditionally' designed town centres and the scale of community neighbourhoods both "in respect of social equity, economic stability and the protection/enhancement of the environment" (WAMP, 2001, quoted in Porta and Renne, 2005 p. 52). The traditional town centre as defined by the Ministry for Planning is a place consisting of:

A range of community facilities, a mix of housing, a good public transportation system that retained a safe, attractive and well-defined public realm of interconnected streets fronted by buildings, and well-used public open space.

(ibid, p. 52)

On this account, WAMP (ibid, 2005) have outlined eight urban fabric indicators to measure the representation of the spaces: accessibility (walkable catchment), land-use diversity, public/private realm, natural surveillance, permeability/street connectivity, employment density, number of buildings, and number of lots.

When planning for future development, an in-depth understanding of some formal characteristics of the urban fabric and of correlating strategies of design values can be undertaken for better social sustainability of places. For example, diverse land uses may increase consumer choices within a walkable catchment area without increasing the need for motorized movements. This will provide an enhanced urban lifestyle and better natural surveillance with active building frontage. As a consequence, it enhances security and safeness for pedestrians and inhabitants due to the feeling of 'eyes on the streets' and 'defensible space' (Jacobs, 1961; Newman, 1973, 1996). Identifying the public/private realm gives an indication of how legible an area is for an individual to understand how to get around the city easily¹. It also increases the opportunity to value the area in terms of a better sense of attachment or belonging to a place or group of people for sustainable urban living (WAMP, 2001, cited in Porta and Renne, 2005; Kitchen and Muhajarine, 2008).

¹ Further reading on how to assess legibility image of the city, refer to Lynch (1960)

Street indicators

Street indicators help planners to measure the quality of the urban environment and particularly the vitality of street life (WAMP, 2001). It helps to understand “the building blocks of a successful or unsuccessful street” (WAMP, 2001, quoted in Porta and Renne, 2005, p. 53) in relation to urban design interventions. The indicators are seen as an adaptation of Cullen’s (1961, back cover synopsis) concept of townscape that is defined as “the art of giving visual coherence and organisation to the jumble of buildings, streets and spaces that make up urban environment.” Critically observing the urban landscape is thus key to promoting socially sustainable places. Urban designers then correlate it to communities’ senses of intimacy, liveability security, and orientation, as well as to the overall sense of space diversity.

WAMP (2001, cited in Porta and Renne, 2005), in their study used photographs and graphic representations to analyse the measurements of the street indicators, which included: sky exposure, façade continuity, softness (transparency and transitional space), social width and visual complexity, number of buildings, sedibility (the number of seating opportunities – i.e. benches, low walls, café chairs, etc.), and detractors are examined. These characteristics are significant in measuring the subjective elements and allow much detailed observations on the principle design issues related to local conditions. For an example, detractors indicate “any element that can be viewed as having a negative effect on the streetscape potential to provide a good scene for the flourishing of urban social life” (WAMP, 2001, quoted in Porta and Renne, 2005, p. 58). In doing so, it helps to highlight the strength and weakness of each street or cluster of streets for better understanding of the street form and the overall character of the whole space. Simultaneously, the detailed description of existing streets provided is then used to take into account more effective urban design that “target the right policies to the right places” (WAMP, 2001, quoted in Porta and Renne, 2005, p. 59).

Overall, street indicators are influential as they help to emphasise areas that need crucial planning and design considerations. Moreover, they also identify the features that affect the sustainability of places and patterns of human behaviour in such urban environments.

Design indicators

Design indicators aim to merge urban fabric and street indicators to refine the quality of life indicators through design intervention. Whereas urban fabric and street indicators identify social and spatial problems and are aimed to target the right policies to the right places for designing sustainable cities of the future, the design indicators focus on quality of life by taking into account five themes: building form and mass, streetscape design, space and setbacks, mix of uses, and visual and sensory richness.

Firstly, the building form and mass are defined as the physical dimension and character of the building blocks that shape the whole area. The mass of a building: its size, scale and the identity of the building itself influences the activities within the space around it. For example, the building block in a dense and compact area with good active frontage encourages natural surveillance and also interactive social environments. Hence, human behaviour may be enhanced by the sense of well-being endowed by aesthetic pleasure of the designed integrity. For that reason, in situations where both elements work together with simple and well-designed integrity, they create the sense of place that attracts people into the area. This design indicator examines spatial and circulation patterns within urban living environments.

Secondly, the streetscape design focuses on the perception of street design in a space. In general terms, streets are seen as the connections between spaces and places, as well as being spaces themselves. The city of Tshwane in South Africa has stipulated that streetscape design should be guided by four principles: legibility, comfort and safety, attractiveness, and liveliness (for further details see City of Tshwane Council, 2007). Moreover, it is also considered as the measurement of “all uses and users of streets and spaces in the design process, not focussing on vehicle movement alone” (Southwark Council, 2011). Therefore, design of streets and the spaces in-between affects the pattern of people’s movements and behaviours towards the environment. In this way, designs that consider streets as shared spaces are more sustainable as they encourage a sense of place that increases people’s engagement with the neighbourhood’s surroundings. A well-designed pedestrian street favours a sense of intimacy and awareness amongst users.

Thirdly, the space and setbacks indicator measures the continuity of façade and space between buildings and streets that provide a transition to activities in urban settings. This indicator assesses how both those elements relate to the sense of space and activity of an area. A poor sense of place, such as a derelict space, allows no control on deviant behaviours and activities in the area. By assessing the weakness and opportunity from this condition, there could be potential for urban design to improve the sense of place. As a consequence, the form of public space makes better and higher quality of life in the city (Urban Design, 2001; PPS, 2008; CABE, 2011c). For example, designing grand central plazas, avenues, squares and neighbourhood parks as places where people come together to enjoy the city and each other is considered as a good practice to follow (Urban Design, 2001).

Fourthly, the mix of uses measurement helps planners to ensure effective spatial design that allows, to a greater degree, people to meet their basic needs in ordinary daily life. A responsive design concerning the nature of space needs to be measured in terms of the distribution of mixed

land use with the diversity of groups of people. This indicator considers the relationship between social process and spatial form, and its mutual benefits to the inhabitants (Coaffee and Healey, 2003; Abbott, 1996; Harvey, 2009). Accordingly, the varieties of choices in places where people can live, work and play have the capacity to add value to the overall quality of life.

Finally, the visual and sensory richness measurement refers to design elements that give sense to an urban environment. Elements such as lightning, urban and street furniture, softscapes (planting arrangements) and sedible arrangements have the capacity to create livelier and friendlier environments. It is important to find innovative and effective ways to achieve visual interest that protect and enhance the quality of the place. For example, fully integrated public art design with buildings, streets and spaces not only provides visual delight, it also adds activity and character into the environment. Furthermore, lighting also has an important role in safety and security and allows more enjoyment of the overall design.

These design indicators focus on the promotion of better urban design, particularly throughout the development process, with relationship to better quality of life with the aim of potentially improving the future living conditions of the inhabitants. However, to stimulate a positive environment it is essential to assess the degree of social perceptions in the urban environment and spatial problems that affect the social sustainability of places. Thus, there is as well, connection to positive feelings like happiness and liveability in the environment leading to better well-being overall (Michaleson et al., 2012).

b) Liveability

Liveability in the environment refers to the degree of good living conditions that sustain the qualities of the environment of good society (Veenhoven, 1999). For Veenhoven (2000, p. 1) the term quality of life “refers in some contexts to the quality of society and in other instances to the happiness of its citizen.” In his view, two key aspects are distinguished: (a) the perceptions of quality of life and (b) happiness in community life. Both components are focused on individuals’ appreciation of life and the degree to which they enjoy life subjectively.

The perceptions of quality of life

The perception of quality of life affects people’s behaviours. Their moods influence their overall adaptation of life and also shape other senses towards the environment as a whole. Humans are capable of evaluating their lives in different ways and appraise the situation affectively as they instantly reflect on their personal life experience (Veenhoven, 1999). Veenhoven (2000, p. 10) mentions that “our mood level signals overall adaptation in life”; this suggests that an individual’s appreciation of life describes life as a whole. Such human perceptions depend on how challenging their life is and whether there is any meaning given to their present and future. In a sociological view, the “classic concept of the ‘good society’ stresses material welfare and social equality” and their “current notions emphasize close networks, strong norms and active voluntary associations” (Veenhoven, 2000, p. 9). In this regard the concept of liveability refers to important criteria in the quality of living such as safety/crime, health care, environment and recreation, quality of architecture, political-economic stability and public transportation. In addition, the aspects of liveability in the built environment, the availability of goods and services, low personal risk and

effective infrastructure, are also considered as key features definitely connected to both social sustainability and the role of designs.

Overall evaluation of life is rather important for judging the quality of life in the city. There are three vital factors influencing the perception of quality of life. Firstly, the adjustment and adaptation factor refers to how individuals deal with life and their needs through their social and physical activities within the environment. The appreciation of social interaction and self-responsibilities contribute to their perception of a sense of stability and safety in a place (McMahon, 2002).

Second, the art of living is parallel to a person's ability in meeting their quality of lifestyle. According to Veenhoven, (1999, 2000) the level of life satisfaction is not the same for everybody; freedom appears to add more happiness and also creates opportunities; such opportunities contribute to the enjoyment of life and involve aspects such as the wealth of the nation, peace within neighbourhoods, internal stability and democracy. All of them boost the liveability of the environment.

Thirdly, the deprivation and deficiency in meeting basic human needs and satisfaction in life refers to the mental well-being of the people living in the environment. The perception of life is influenced by past experiences and future expectations as well as feelings and emotions. For example:

The feelings you have when you are sad only feel really sad right now because you are comparing to a feeling of happiness you had or to a feeling of joy you are looking forward to in the future

(Lim, 2012)

These emotions interfere with how people perceive the meaning of life in the environment in which they live, work and play. Paying attention to better design is thus expected to alleviate people's feelings of deprivation; particularly anxiety, dissatisfaction, and depression (Veenhoven, 1999; Abdallah et al., 2008).

The overall appraisal of the quality of life relates to the subjective enjoyment of life and how satisfied and happy people are (Rogerson, 1999; Kitchen and Muhajarine, 2008). These are the emotions that contribute to social wellness in a place that leads to social sustainability. Therefore, ensuring happiness in community life is vital to improve the quality of life.cab

Happiness in community life

The term 'happiness' denotes individuals' perception of their desirable living conditions and overall evaluation of life as a whole in a shared environment (Rogerson, 1998; Veenhoven, 1999). Recent research by Michaleson et al. (2012, p. 6) mentions happiness:

...often refers to how people are feeling moment-to-moment and does not always tell us about how they evaluate their lives as a whole (although it can do), or about how they function in the world.

Nonetheless, they suggest that positive feelings like happiness can actually lead to better well-being. Being happy raises the chances of life satisfaction as both elements are combined (Lim, 2012; Desmet and Pohlmeier, 2013). As such, success in life satisfaction is a feeling of complete engagement in a creative, healthy and lively activity in meeting your daily life task and routine.

Therefore, happiness is seen as a way of increasing people's potential for doing well at personal and social levels.

Veenhoven (2001) proposes that happiness exists in two forms. Firstly in and of itself, being happy can be construed as a person having their basic needs met. But secondly too, happiness involves an individual having the capacity to use their opportunities. Lim (2012) notes, "the experience of creating and sharing positive emotions holds numerous social, intellectual and physical benefits for the individual." For that purpose, focusing on the experience of everyday life benefits the social sustainability of the place. Analysis of people's experiences is an indicator of quality of life that measures the physical environment and well-being to improve the planning policy and design of the development.

Indeed happiness and well-being are subjective notions that cannot be bought or sold and cannot be physically touched. Therefore, it is through the modification of the physical environment that the stimulation of interactive social well-being as well as quality of living and happiness in the community may be achieved. The built form, layout, design and amount of mix of uses in this regard have an important role in achieving social sustainability. Thereby, design process that emphasise social well-being enhances the strong form of attachment between the people and the neighbourhood.

2.1.3 ROLES OF DESIGN IN SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION

As discussed in the previous subsections, addressing social sustainability helps to address issues of the locality; it has the ability to reconnect the local context for sustainable city/urban regeneration. This subsection examines the roles of design in sustainable city centre regeneration

and elements of sustainable urban regeneration. It also discusses criticisms raised concerning its implementation.

1. The importance of design sustainability in sustainable city centre regeneration

Urban regeneration aims to improve the general appeal of the social and physical urban environment by fostering quality and good design as well as promoting economic growth. Essentially, when looking at the issues of urban growth and sustainability, it is important as well to examine the essential components necessary to achieve a high-quality design-led urban regeneration. How can design encourage the growth of economic, social and cultural activities, and attract people to visit/live/work/invest in the city? Equally important, factors such as location, regional economic conditions, previous land-use patterns and building forms, together with the nature of local land markets, administrative structures, tools and mechanisms of intervention, are all shown to be important in shaping local differences in urban regeneration across the world (Couch et al., 2003; Porter and Shaw, 2009).

Morris et al. (1993, cited in Bell and Jayne, 2003) suggest that creativity, innovation, flexibility and entrepreneurialism are linked to inward investment and economic development. In conjunction with other urban regeneration strategies, the growing debates on design-led regeneration have proposed this 'culture of design'² as initiatives to add values in sustainable regeneration projects. The aim to stimulate these planning goals through the attraction of design-led urban regeneration on lifestyle, identity, everyday life and forms of sociability have placed emphasis on integrated urban policy development. Accordingly, Bell and Jayne (2003) argue these sites and

² Further reading for the definition in 'The Culture Of Design' (Guy Julier, 2000)

activities provide symbolic and fertile images for virtual and physical urban characteristics to stimulate social and economic regeneration. In addition, the design features in everyday life also have the capability to contribute to crime prevention, facilitate community interaction, and enhance sociability in relation to infrastructure improvements (housing, commercial and businesses, public space and transport).

In general, creating and sustaining diversity and vitality in cities are more in demand from developers and investors who are looking forward to investing for market potential. It improves the longer-term 'liveability', management and maintenance of the built environment. The cityscapes such as cafes, shops and boutiques, restaurants, clubs and other transitory events (like festivals and sporting events) nourish local economic development. These images are attractive to bring post-industrial employers, middle-class citizens and tourists into the city (Florida, 2002). A focus on socio-spatial relations and improvements in city centre development enhances better social values and aspects. For those reasons, Bell and Jayne (2003, p. 132) have argued that design-led regeneration demands a complex and full cooperation between:

Key institutions, a high level of joint planning and the development synergies that maximise the economic, socio-spatial and cultural impact of individual and strategic decisions.

Thus, sustainable city centre regeneration has the ability for economic competition and highlights issues on better understanding for integrated design aspects in the economic, social and cultural life of urban areas.

2. Criticisms and limitations of sustainable city centre regeneration

Criticisms and limitations have indeed been widespread with regard to new urbanism³ and urban renaissance⁴. In terms of decisions on planning development, new urbanism is criticised for lack of social equity; it asserts universal principles in design solely on the basis of professional judgement instead of involving community participation in voicing local conditions and needs. This section will only look at those criticisms through the scope of sustainability and urban design in four issues of relevance to the planning process.

Firstly Colomb (2007) has questioned whether social mix and community could be delivered in urban regeneration. The notion of 'sustainable local communities' in the idea of a compact city is seen as undesirable as people do not want to live in an even denser neighbourhood (Gripaios, 2002; Colomb, 2007). In general, busy, compact complexities in the city centre are perceived as not suitable for a sustainable living condition. The character of social life depends on the kind of surroundings people live in. Failure to take into account the existing communities' needs and aspirations results in a poor sense of place and identity as well as conflict and controversy related to social justice. Therefore, from the imbalance of this element will emerge issues such as inequality, and insecurity within the neighbourhood.

Secondly, gentrification has been stressed as another critical issue in redevelopment/regeneration particularly towards more dense and compact city centres (Lees, 2008). Moreover, the idea of the urban renaissance aiming to attract the middle class back into the inner city and simultaneously addressing social and economic development inequalities is challenged. The housing prices have been driven up as there is limited dwelling space in central urban areas. They

³ See Harvey (1997) and Ellis (2002) for other comprehensive critiques.

⁴ For more comprehensive review on key failures of the urban renaissance, refer to Punter (2011).

result in limited affordable housing choices for lower-income groups. Additionally, excessive design on the street network will impose fragmented socio-spatial space, impact green spaces and lead to inefficient transportation modes (CABE, 2011a, 2011b). This is typical in the case of flyovers, elevated inner city ring roads, traffic underpasses and the pedestrian subway crossings. In essence, paying attention to brownfield land reuse can promote aims to achieve a sustainable urban form particularly in land use management (Andres, 2012).

Thirdly, critics feel the privatisation of public sector regeneration projects has given rise to developments that looked like public space was privately owned (Minton, 2009). The increasing involvement of private sectors is slowly giving public spaces to business rather than for the public good (e.g. Canary Wharf, London). Minton (2009) has criticised that the using of CCTV within such public spaces has created a situation where behaviour is controlled. People ought to have the flexibility to do what they want freely, but at the same time the variety of activities imposes the feeling of a safe and lively environment. Hence, consideration for freedom of movement, particularly in open spaces, allows diversity into the neighbourhood. It also stimulates vibrant social and economic activities that are good for economic and social development.

Finally, there is growing criticism of privatisation involvement particularly in money and costs aspects. For instance, the UTF (2005) underlines the importance of targeting private sectors to invest in cities for better design quality. It involves collaboration in the planning process between developers, key stakeholders, and local authorities, as well as community participation to contribute to the regeneration of urban sites. Although funding is crucial in financing the project, the joined-up synergies required good leadership and allow public participation along with the regeneration process. It is debated that a model of sustainable city centre regeneration needs to be reinforced by urban social movements and proactive public actor planning and be rooted in growing public desire for environmental protection, place-oriented community and quality of life (Wheeler, 2003). Thus,

careful consideration is required to ensure the success of these joined-up synergies. Likewise, arguments on shared vision, aspirations and targets need to be assessed comprehensively within the evaluation risk, management processes and impact of the decision-making.

3. Elements of sustainable urban regeneration

The strategy towards a good quality design is an important aspect to ensure long-term and more sustainable outcomes. An in-depth analysis of the elements of sustainable urban regeneration (see Figure 2.2) which contribute towards successful social and economic regeneration follows.



Figure 2.2 Components of sustainable urban regeneration

Source: Author Construct

a) *Density and compactness*

The physical term of density means the ratio of population and/or of built space to a given area of land (Dave, 2009). In general, the concept of compactness in urban development can be defined as a having a close-knit proximity for better access and more efficient services, facilities, utilities and infrastructure provision. In this regard, density and compactness refer to the density of urban form, which is taken to mean: “A relatively high-density, mixed-use city, based on efficient public transport system and dimensions that encourage walking and cycling” (Burton, 2000, p. 1969). The relationship between the land uses, the form of the cities and travel patterns are key elements bringing density and compactness together.

In conjunction with a sustainable city centre regeneration strategy, density and compactness principles advocate limitation of the urban sprawl and encourage energy efficiency in particular with the range of transportation modes. Thus, this concept has advantages to contribute to the objective of more sustainable development. In general, density and compactness embedded development concerns an equitable distribution of economic, social and environmental costs and benefits between people and the city (Mullaney and Pinfield, 1996; Burton, 2000). Equally important, it addresses improvement in public transport use, reduced social segregation and better access to facilities.

In Europe and the UK, the key features of compact urban development are intensification of existing urban areas (Haughton and Hunter, 1994; Burton, 2002). In essence, intensification of high densities and mixed uses increases the urban density; a greater mixture of land uses encourages opportunities for social interaction within a neighbourhood. It aims to achieve balance between diverse groups of people and counter social injustices in the city centre. However, Dave (2009) notes

that the perceptions of the presence of too many people or too much built up in a given area has an affect on mental health, behaviour and social relationships⁵. For example, an emphasis on high density, in the form of apartment accommodation with little provision of gardens, is unlikely to produce happy, well-functioning communities; gardens in this regard have a positive role, not just in relation to environmental benefits but also in terms of outcomes such as social interaction (Bramley et al., 2009).

The compact city theory is criticised for not being justified by indicators, particularly concerning its relation to quality of life (see 2.1.1). Compactness can thus affect the life-chances on social equity in a variety of ways (Burton, 2000). The density and compactness are likely to result in less domestic living space, less affordable housing, increased crime levels and poor, unhealthy living (Burton, 2000). These issues lead to the risk of gentrification particularly in the clash between the high-density aspirations of the compactionist and the desires of local communities to protect their quality of life. Eventually, low-income people tend to live in the most populated and cramped areas (Burton, 2000).

It is argued that a more sophisticated control on density and compactness is needed to develop an appropriate local infrastructure and amenities, to respond to housing needs and to ensure opportunities for economic growth (UTF, 2005; DCLG, 2006a; Punter 2010). Jacobs (1961) and Alexander et al. (1977) in their debate on the principle of urban design and the density of buildings in the city indicate that windows directly overlooking streets is an example of the function of detailed urban design. They illustrate the role of design in setting the natural surveillance, which allows the creation of an active frontage at the building street level and a mix of uses with comfort and safety (Evans et al., 2007; Dempsey et al., 2009). High quality in designing built-up areas is required to

⁵ Further reading see Dave (2009, pp. 192–193).

attract people to live, work, invest and spend time for leisure in the city centre (Yeang, 2000; Evan et al., 2007). Therefore, it is essential that density and compactness principles be implemented to achieve maximum benefits for social equity. In addition for environmental aspects, the process of achieving urban compactness is usually involved in the reuse of brownfield land as a way to encourage revitalisation and regeneration of inner urban areas.

b) Brownfield reuse

In general, brownfield sites can be defined as any land or premises, vacant, derelict or contaminated, underused and not readily available for immediate use without some form of intervention (Alker et al., 2000; Andres, 2012). In England, Planning Policy Statement 3 (DCLG, 2006b) has defined brownfield land as:

Land that was previously developed that which is or was occupied by a permanent structure, including the cartilage of the development land and any associated fixed surface infrastructure.

Sustainable regeneration in the area of dereliction is common practice and aims to promote new economic growth as well as social revitalisation. In addition to matching the imperatives of compaction and intensification, reusing brownfield sites has broader outcomes on local communities and environments. The focuses on making better use of derelict, vacant and underused sites are to re-establish and maximise the potential of the sites for more sustainable activities and development. Tallon (2009) argues there are cycles of deprivation; the existence of brownfield sites is paired with a loss of community pride, which creates a negative perception that deters potential investment within these areas of decline. Improving the quality of such environments contributes to the recreation of a

strong sense of place and creates public safety. Importantly, it will reduce the pressure for new development on the greenfield sites outside urban areas (Tallon, 2009).

There are a wide variety of different features associated with brownfield development, such as economic development, environmental concerns or urban containment policies (Andres, 2012). For example, in the United States, brownfield development is mainly driven by economic development. However, national action and policies have changed the focus towards environmental concerns. Meanwhile in the UK, reuse of brownfield space aims to promote urban containment and provide development to meet housing needs (DETR, 2000). Additionally, industrial brownfield (e.g. Emscher Park, Germany) is commonly found in Europe and the definition given to such sites is dependent on the former use of the site (factory, manufacturing, commercial, rail, port, etc.).

Sherwood Energy Village in Nottinghamshire, UK is an example of 'eco-renovation' that is slightly different from the widespread British approach. It includes a diversification extending consideration to economic and social regeneration; environmental concerns and sustainable design-led regeneration. It aims to improve the quality of both the physical and social fabric of local communities by increasing resource efficiency, reducing pollution, and through the provision of jobs, education and leisure facilities alongside housing. This is related as well to the eco-neighbourhood concept (e.g. Vauban, Freiburg) that targets appropriate resource-management techniques and embraces the principle of distinctiveness, quality, accessibility and safety in the local environment (Barton, 1998; Georgiadou, 2010).

The reuse of brownfield regeneration needs to embrace the balance between development and environmental sustainability. The process should allow for adaptation potential and flexibility when considering how to approach sustainable development (Thornton and Felleman, 2008). Incorporating environmental sustainability within the context of a social and economically viable

development which is associated with its heritage value, simultaneously achieves a high-quality design in sustainable brownfield regeneration. Essentially, the interest to encourage urban regeneration, city centre revitalisation, high densities and mixed-use development was broadened to include urban brownfield sites.

c) Mixed-use

The mixing of urban uses within the concept of living, moving and working is part of a wider strategy for sustainable development (Commission of the European Communities, 1990). Whereas the concept is ambiguous, mixed-use can be defined as a composition of environmental, social, design and institutional contexts (Rowley, 1996; Grant 2002). The mixed land use and development concept is multi-faceted and closely intertwined, especially within cultural priorities and lifestyles (Rowley, 1996). Essentially, mixed-use in urban form is a good theory for use as a significant tool to create and maintain an attractive, liveable and secure public realm for sustainable urban environments (Rowley, 1996; Hoppenbrouwer and Louw, 2005).

Mixed land use occurs when residential/urban areas are built within a development which provides spaces for facilities and services like small business, retail, leisure, culture, educational, day care nurseries, amenities, and tourism within the neighbourhood district. The setting of this environment occurs within the urban fabric, street pattern and design as discussed in the previous section (see the discussion on well-being satisfaction level and its indicator). This socio-spatial process has the potential to advocate diversity of activities in the area. Equally, such development increases liveability, perceptions of safety and aids the reduction of crime levels (Jacobs, 1969; Poole and Donovan, 1991; Burton, 2002). The revitalisation in the city centre proposes greater cultural and leisure attractions in classic ideas of social interaction. In this regard, the role of design in mixed land

use is interconnected with the compact city and social sustainability. It provides employment, services and recreational facilities in appropriate proximity (Burton, 2002). Likewise, mixed-use development reduces the need to travel.

Successful sharing of space (see the discussion on environmental design determinism) needs careful management to maintain the kind of diversity, vitality, and life between buildings and a general sense of community (Jacobs, 1964, cited in Rowley, 1996; Gehl, 1987). Hoppenbrouwer and Louw (2005, p. 969) state that design features in mixed-use development need as well to “compromise with non-design features such as the urban experience, the nature of uses, definitions of public and private, conflict and security.”

Rowley (1996) has acknowledged basic approaches to maintaining and promoting mixed-use settings: (1) conservation of established mixed-use settings, (2) gradual revitalisation and incremental restructuring of existing town areas, and (3) comprehensive development or redevelopment of larger areas and sites. For instance, in the Dutch context, land improvement in the design of spatial quality is seen as an essential condition to mixed land use and intensive land use. Mixed-use often refers to the multiple functions of uses within space (Priemus et al., 2000; Harts et al., 2003; Hoppenbrouwer and Louw, 2005). A network of attractive public spaces and routes provide mobility, connect places together and support walking and cycling for a healthy urban lifestyle (CABE, 2011b). Indeed, the link between these relationships is associated with the integration of open space and transport.

d) *Open spaces*

Thompson (2002, p. 70) has defined open space in cities as “places to celebrate cultural diversity, to engage with natural processes and to conserve memories.” In particular, urban open space is defined as publicly open space such as parks, plazas, streets, community gardens and greenways (Carr, 1992; Lynch, 1972; Gehl, 1987; Francis, 2003). Variations in emphasis of the community benefit encourage the quality and liveability of urban environments and lifestyles. It is an integral part of the character, economy and uniqueness of place that attract people to live in the urban settlement. Thus, the quality of public space plays a major role in the economic, social and environmental qualities of the communities. A well-designed and well-managed public space can enhance social interaction and encourage the opportunity for a healthy neighbourhood (UTF, 2005; GreenLINK, 2011).

Francis (2003) states that successful public spaces are ones that are responsive to the needs of users for good accessibility, serving the public good and are meaningful for the larger community and society. In a way, open space is promoting socio-spatial relationships, by providing social space for recreational and social meetings. In this way, people benefit from more outdoor lifestyles, attracting more liveliness into places, reducing stress, promoting relaxation and enjoyment of the urban experience (CABE, 2011a). Additionally, Rogers (1999) in the Urban Task Force says:

To achieve urban integration means thinking of urban open space not as an isolated unit – be it street, park or square – but as a vital part of urban landscape with its own specific set of functions.

Although public open space is designed for its primary role, it needs to be multi-functional as well. For instance, it should encourage a variety of uses and users of the space throughout the day and

evening. Provision should also be made for the varying needs of users, and potential conflict between different groups and individuals, the desirability of different levels of urban density and the importance of different qualities in open space provision (Francis, 2003; Thompson, 2002).

In land-use planning, open space is always related to green spaces in urban areas. Corraliza (2000, cited in Thompson 2002) argues that the street should be truly representative of public open space. There are many more opportunities to engage with other people and with the environment in streets (shops, cafe, shady boulevards, etc.) than in parks or plazas. Therefore, the open spaces in-between buildings are equally important as public open space in urban areas (CABE, 2011c). In essence, open spaces are places where people can be 'private' (such as intimate, anonymous) and also belong to the place (such as a park, outdoor cafe terrace, urban crowd), and yet have elements of freedom and wilderness in the environment (Thompson, 2002; Worpole, 2000). Public open space must, as well, value 'loose' space that allows for rich urban experience and free use of space in ways that are much more intermediate, local and often shifting in quality and space (Dovey, 2000).

Open space should be looked at as a network of spaces in order to encourage walking. For example, there should be local interchanges of public transportations, cycling, walking, pick up and drop off, to support easy and attractive use of public transport networks. Equally, open space networks offer equity for all urban aspects as well as mobility within the neighbourhood. For example, linear parks, sidewalks, squares, everyday and neighbourhood spaces, promenades and corridors allow an opportunity for better connectivity between mixed land uses, open space and transport and will promote more productivity and growth in city centres. Therefore, good quality open space is partly aesthetic and vital to ground urban design in social understanding.

e) *Integrated transportation*

Integrated transportation is a network of public transport based on efficient public transportation that encourages an integration of different transport usage within larger urban areas and provides appropriate proximity for employment, services and recreational facilities. Well-planned cities are made up of identifiable neighbourhoods where services, housing and community resources are integrated and served by public transport. The concept can be defined as a way of designing and implementing human settlement patterns that encourages a high level of connectivity and mobility other than single-occupant vehicle usage (Moudon et al., 1997). Essentially, it supports greater opportunities for connected areas in pedestrian-friendly systems and increasing transit use to maximise the capacity of connectivity in urban areas.

Land-use planning plays a vital part to provide clearer policy options and to specify targets for urban land use and transport. Access to transportation provision helps to decrease total vehicle trip making, reduce the length of the typical automobile trip, and encourage the use of transportation modes other than the single-occupant vehicle (Murray et al., 1998; Moudon et al., 1997; Cera, 2002). In addition, increasing the density of development, mixed land use, and providing pedestrian-friendly facilities have the potential to enhance economic viability. Equally, integrated transportation responds to demands to make local facilities and services viable. It is favourable to provide a higher quality of life and is more energy efficient for sustainable living. As consequence, this sustainable and high-quality urban design specifically addresses the needs and aspirations of urban communities.

Development concentrated in existing urban areas and well related to its surroundings encourage sustainable travel. Moreover, the design that is based on networks of streets tends to

make walking and cycling easier for people. For example in Europe, the quality of compact urban form is typically more dense, more socially diverse and turned towards more mixed use with integrated regeneration strategies relating to the transportation network. However, there is no evidence of a significant relationship between changing modes of travel behaviour and high-density development. The travel behaviour remains as an individual preference or influenced by other factors (e.g. status of income, healthy lifestyle).

Jun (2008) argued that investment decisions for public transit should be made to reflect the extent of the mode shift from automobile to other forms of transit and be the result of comprehensive cost-benefit analyses. All-round affordability, including travel costs, is one of the factors affecting people's choice of home environment. In general, people would prefer urban living if they could afford the quality they seek. In this way, sustainable city centre regeneration addressed issues of social equity of people with low income, no car ownership and cost affordability. Moreover, better accessibility to services will reduce travel demand and control environmental impact. Altogether, this would result in more productive economic activities and sustainable city centre living and growth.

f) Governance and management

Governance and management can be defined as a systematic way of government actions to guide development, and running and controlling the quality and timing of development (Bengston et al., 2004; Atkinson, 2004). Essentially, it provides roles in managing development and coordinating national, regional and local growth management efforts (Bengston et al., 2004). On that account, a better understanding of the range of policy instruments available in the wider social, environmental and economic context is desirable.

In the UK, the growing importance of sustainability, communities and the governance of policy delivery are the core concerns of contemporary urban regeneration policies (Atkinson and Helms, 2007; Imrie et al., 2009). The goals and ambitions that address and resolve issues of vacancy, poor quality housing and affordability are crucial as well in making a sustainable living for urban dwellers. In the context of developing high-quality design as a key in the regeneration agenda, there is a necessity to adopt strategic measures to address design success in the early stages of regeneration development (Li, 2004). Hence, such processes would need to take a wide range of actors and stakeholders into account to ensure the effectiveness of regeneration strategies. In addition, Alington (1998, quoted in Thompson, 2002, p. 67) comments that:

Whilst we can attempt to design for desired process, we can never be sure that our intention will be realised. We can only really control pattern and hope that process will follow.

Thus, the new form of urban governance offers major benefits for the public, private, voluntary and community sectors. The change in governance is to include participation and cooperation between the professionals and the residents in the urban planning process. In particular, public-private partnership (PPP) offers well-managed developments and ensures high-quality urban environments.

Since the late 1980s, the PPP has emerged to be an important force in urban regeneration policy (Friessecke, 2004). The PPP can lead to better policy coordination and facilitate a multidimensional approach using shared knowledge, skills, and resources of different actors. The partnership represents a fundamental basis for future urban policy as an alternative to ongoing top-down policy. Boxmeer and Beckhoven (2005, p. 3) defined the term 'public-private partnership' as:

An institutionalised form of co-operation between government and one or more private partners in a project with common interest via a distribution of decision rights, cost and risks.

PPP has the potential to distribute the risk to the party who is best able to manage it. Nevertheless, each party has motives, priorities and ways of working as well as rational decisions for rational reasons (Barnet, 1982, cited in Rowley, 1996). The UTF (2005, p. 15), emphasises that:

Public and private sectors must recognise their shared interest, understand their complementary abilities and know the different frameworks within which each makes decisions. Institutional attitudes to investment in regeneration areas are changing, but continued investment relies on providing appropriate fiscal encouragements and removing inappropriate legal deterrents.

They have been useful in placing the issues on the public agenda, turning general policies into specific strategies, providing oversight and review of project development, and negotiating differences among conflicting stakeholders (Bengston et al., 2004, p. 282).

Accordingly in the UK, the partnership scheme is set to promote the best practice in urban design and also to improve regeneration skills. In British cities most often the private sectors have more power in regeneration projects. The PPP for urban regeneration implies a loss of management control by the public sector resulting from the transfer of responsibility to the private partner. Through the PPP, the regeneration process managed to bring about cooperation on issues such as lack of community involvement, an excessive emphasis on economic and property development, and insensitivity to local needs (Healey et al., 1992; Robson et al., 1994). On the other hand, the involvement of more actors may result in a delay of the processes.

As mentioned in the report of HM Treasury (2000, cited in Li et al., 2005, p.460):

The whole concept PPP is underpinned by a government desire to resolve financial constraints in the provision of public facilities and services by calling upon private management skills to increase the efficiency, effectiveness and quality of facilities and services delivery.

In this way a changing balance of government spending and increased costs of monitoring has been prioritised (Gripaios, 2002). However, in many cases it also depends upon the creation of a coherent, consistent and transparent approach to the financing of infrastructure (Punter, 2007). In this regard, the aims of the PPP are to attract investment and business activities to renovate the urban fabric and end city centre blight by providing public services (Ysa, 2007, p. 40). Likewise, the investment in funding combined with skills in design-led regeneration through PPP improve the delivery of focused and successful regeneration strategies at the city level. However, there is another factor to consider in the operation of the different demands that affect it – finance and investment, construction, land and property.

g) Money and cost

The matter of money and costs are crucial for more investment in the management and maintenance of sustainable development. Money and costs can be defined as the fundamental basis for finance of the project delivery and operation. Therefore, it is important to ensure the interest groups (government, local authorities, public, private and community sectors) have sufficient funds and resources to deliver long-term regeneration schemes. Porter (2009, p. 241) has argued, “urban regeneration as spatial economic restructuring of city neighbourhood through reinvesting disinvested spaces.” This reinvestment has consequences of rising land values that underpin the

strategy within issues of urban forms, the existence of struggle within city inhabitants; and cultures of policy-making related to sustainable urban planning (Porter and Shaw, 2009). This means that planning and design for sustainable development must take into account the wider costs and benefits linked to a scheme over its lifetime (CABE, 2011a). This, however, is correlated with land value, real estate and property development mechanisms.

The Building Research Establishment (BRE) and the Cyril Sweett building consultancy (BRE and Cyril Sweett, 2005, cited in Ratcliffe et al., 2009, p. 310) have essentially argued that:

One of the principle barriers to the adoption of more sustainable design and construction solutions is the perception that these incur substantial additional cost. A costing analysis, using real cost data for a broad range of sustainability technologies and design solutions, contradicts this assumption. ... Significant improvements in building sustainability performance can be achieved with very little additional cost. In addition, more sustainable buildings can offer major in-use cost savings.

Eventually, the cost implications need to be seen within the context of their value by assessing the value of sustainable buildings, if developers are to be convinced. Ratcliffe et al. (2009) have clearly stated that sustainable issues in the property world stand around actors in the circle of owners/end users, designer and constructors, developers and investors. Rowley (1996) has recognised four forms of property development: (1) profit-seeking development – as investment, (2) profit-seeking development – for sale, (3) non-profit-seeking development – statutory and (4) non-profit-seeking development – voluntary. These are where the most important stakeholders drive the dynamics of sustainable development.

In addition, it is necessary for the developers to understand and respond better to the occupier's requirements and needs (Ratcliffe et al., 2009). Equally, investors' and regulators' demands and wishes need to be heeded. Royal Institute of Chartered Surveyors (RICS) (2015) research in case studies in North America and the UK have evidence that the relationship between the market value of a development activity and its sustainability features would probably increase overall viability. They have highlighted four potential outcomes: (1) command higher rents and prices, (2) attract tenants more quickly, (3) reduce tenant turnover and (4) cost less to operate and maintain.

The Western world over the period of economic recession has faced the general withdrawal of central urban government from local government for available finance in regeneration (Punter, 2007). The bank and investors that paid for it in the past are unlikely to do so in the same way in future. Accordingly, the credit crunch has had an impact resulting in a loss of momentum, confidence, investment, skills and capacity. The local authorities have had to become ever more entrepreneurial to achieve funds to maintain the quality of development.

Parkinson et al. (2009) argue that long-term financial partnerships between the public and private sectors will be the best way to create sufficient resources for regeneration. They pointed out that the public sector has physical resources and the private sector has many of the skills needed to deliver sustainable regeneration development. Essentially, it is recommended to establish local government funding for the support system on strengthening regeneration strategies. It is predicted that sustainable design or buildings will cost significantly more to build (Ratcliffe et al., 2009). The capital cost includes all construction works, as well as preliminary works, overheads, profits and contingencies. It does add greatly to the overall cost of the amended scheme if sustainability is to be added to existing designs.

The local authorities are well placed to investigate funding mechanisms to meet the upfront costs and maximise the environmental, economic and social benefits that can be achieved by working at the community level (Atkintoye et al., 2003). Consideration of the existing nature of the neighbourhood could boost potential stimulus to local economies and support sustainable development in city centres. Careful review of components for integrated sustainable regeneration is vital for the long-term run in the future. Tallon (2009) argues that sustainable urban design delivers value for money, and design cost is a small percentage of construction costs. The regeneration and development of declining areas also offer to attract more people and investment to stimulate the local economy.

2.1.4 CONCLUSION

This section has contributed to the debate on the growing literature on social sustainability with relation to the role of design and urban planning policy in a city environment. It offers a comprehensive look at the theoretical evolution of urban planning and design throughout the twentieth century and beyond, as well as how these have impacted or be interpreted in planning. Clearly, issues related to economic and society aspects have greatly triggered the phenomena of urban planning. The discussion is important in exploring ideas that shaping sustainable city centre regeneration agendas around the concept of urban design that has approached the balance between physical and economic development while addressing the diverse needs of urban populations. In essence, three dimensions linking social sustainability and urban design have been decrypted: (1) social justice, equity and inclusiveness, (2) place-making theory in creating a sense of place, and (3) quality of life and sustainable living. Reflecting on these three dimensions, it can be argued that a balance between the different dimensions of sustainability may be required to ensure that social sustainability does not come at the expense of economic or ecological sustainability.

With regard to sustainable urban regeneration and development, it is through the design process that greatest impact can be made on the quality, efficiency and overall sustainability of a city centre environment. Three theories (1) defensible space, (2) leisure space and (3) wellness space have emphasised the value of more flexible arrangements and ideas of shared public spaces. As such the use of environmental design determinism, particularly through these theories, is noticeable. A specialist use of urban design helps improve social behaviours and creates sustainable places. It highlights the benefits of the locality and spatial sensitivity of the sense of place, the influence of design integrity and planning management on the quality of places as part of the quality of life indicators (Evan et al., 2007). Moreover, three design sustainability indicators (1) urban fabric indicator, (2) street indicator and (3) design indicator, helped to highlight the urban quality and spatial pattern of the place; they also point out practical problems like derelict space, diversity and mix of land uses that if solved contribute to a better design and management of the planning process.

There are seven essential elements for sustainable urban regeneration: (1) density and compactness, (2) brownfield reuse, (3) mixed-use, (4) open spaces, (5) integrated transportation system, (6) governance and management, and (7) money and costs. Each element in the regeneration project has important roles to relate to the quality of the design and is important in shaping the urban environment; they are also mechanisms for sustainable urban regeneration. It helps us to analyse regeneration/development areas in a more systematic way (Hoppenbrouwer and Louw, 2005). However, there is a limitation in this component; for instance, appropriate density should be applied and compatible with the character of the existing local area. A functional aspect that focuses on the perception of the users has positive impacts on the perception of the area. The Western countries have excellent experience in creating such environments and have also encouraged such practice in sustainable city centre development. However, there are distinctions between different drivers, which come together to inform and approach the local context of the

urban areas. In the next section, before we look at the case of developed/developing and/or world cities, I will analyse various influences to conceptualise sustainable city centre regeneration through some examples in North America and Europe.

2.2 | SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION: A STUDY OF DEVELOPED/DEVELOPING CAPITAL CITIES AND/OR WORLD CITIES

The phenomena of regenerating city centres became a key issue in Europe, and typically, in the UK from the 1980s. It also moved to Asia and developing countries in the early twenty-first century. This section will examine the specific context of capital cities and additionally world cities, or aspiring world cities that will drive the whole thesis. The section is set out to highlight some of the key sustainable urban regeneration issues of relevance in the city and case study areas and then considers the extent to which they may relate (or not) to the influences defined in other parts of the world.

2.2.1 UNDERSTANDING SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION: THE WESTERN OVERVIEW

As discussed in 2.1, the theoretical concepts for this literature are strongly embedded in the western context. This subsection briefly reviews the different features of sustainable city centre regeneration in North America and Europe to assess policy on the regeneration agenda (on which goals and ambitions are set), the planning transitions and the level at which the concept is implemented. The assessment of these examples will give explicit understanding of city centre regeneration interventions for more sustainable city centre development.

1. Design approach as drivers of urban regeneration

There are three types of design approach to be summarised in order to explore the examples from North America and Europe: (1) smart growth policies on the basis of environmental protection, (2) inclusive sustainable urban regeneration, and (3) entrepreneurialism urban renaissance. The design approach can be defined as a planning strategy driving design innovation to achieve a long-term vision of sustainable development. Table 2.6 summarise the examples from North America and Europe concerning important issues related to the direction of the development; planning process; impact on the environment and the community therein; and reflections on the use of urban design to promote sustainable city centre regeneration. Each selected city/project has different planning agenda relating to the prevailing urban problems and decline and concerning its future sustainability. These design approaches provide the key drivers of urban regeneration on different factors/components and the nature of local development in managing regeneration challenges.

Fundamentally, the discussion of these examples also considers the elements of sustainable city centre regeneration (as discussed in the previous section). Simultaneously, this helps to scrutinise the inherent complexities in the city and decrypt the drivers of urban regeneration that shapes the experience of the cities (further assessment will be discussed next). Portland, Oregon in the United States, is an example of the first type of design approach. The city has demonstrated statewide growth management through smart growth policies. The regeneration interventions focus on the emphasis on land use management in urban areas for a compact and liveable neighbourhood (Nelson and Moore, 1993). This design approach prevails throughout North America in efforts to control urban sprawl and reduce automobile dependency (Wheeler, 2003; Jun, 2008). The drivers of regeneration development are particularly focused on the role of land use, transportation, urban management, and environmental values.

Both the second and third design approaches share the urban renaissance objectives to attract people/residents back into the city centre, promote design excellence to achieve social sustainability and enhance the quality of city centre living. HafenCity, Hamburg in Germany is an example of the second design approach that places emphasis on more inclusive design innovation. Thus, sustainability is achieved through a common goal for high quality of the urban environment as well as the social and cultural development of better well-being of the local community. Finally, Birmingham in the UK, the third design approach for urban entrepreneurialism is centred on generating a strong economic framework and on restoring the quality of the urban areas (Punter, 2011).

Table 2.6.a The overview of design approaches with examples of Sustainable City Centre Regeneration

COUNTRY	DESIGN APPROACH	DENSITY & COMPACTNESS	BROWNFIELDS UTILITIES	MIXED LAND USE	OPEN SPACES	INTEGRATED TRANSPORTATION	GOVERNANCE & MANAGEMENT	MONEY & COST
<u>North America</u> Portland, Oregon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Smart growth policy and environmental protection: - Land use management - Land use protection - Social and environmental impacts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not always high densities (medium) - Reduce Compactness (medium) - Promoting efficient land use: > Compact urban form > Cluster development around transit hub 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relatively little infill development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mixed-use in residential neighbourhood - Public facilities and services: > Waterfront district > University district > Transit Oriented Development (TOD) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Urban land is separated from rural land: > Exclusive farm zone - Preserve open spaces to protect the environment: > Green infrastructure > Green space plans > Greenspaces network 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Public transit services (light rail system & bus services) - Fully integrated transport system - Internal street connectivity - Green street & corridors (cycling & pedestrian friendly) - Street patterns - Transport corridors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> State-wide growth management (Public Institutions) - The Urban Growth Boundary (UGB) - Department of Land Conversation and Development (DLCD) Smart growth policy effort: - Restricted land use - Integrated planning - Public acquisition of open spaces The 2040 Growth Concept: High Quality Development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Public sector funded (Semi-public investment) - High investment in public transit provision - Impact of urban containment > Land prices > Housing affordability > Land shortage for future development

Source: Author's construct

Table 2.6.b The overview of design approaches with examples of Sustainable City Centre Regeneration (Continued)

COUNTRY	DESIGN APPROACH	DENSITY & COMPACTNESS	BROWNFIELDS UTILITIES	MIXED LAND USE	OPEN SPACES	INTEGRATED TRANSPORTATION	GOVERNANCE & MANAGEMENT	MONEY & COST
<u>Europe</u> Hamburg, Germany	Urban Renaissance: Inclusive sustainable urban regeneration - Innovation - Social and Economically sustainable - High-quality environmental sustainability - High quality urban design	Extend the inner city: - Close-knit network of foot and bicycle lanes - Compact urban form - Relatively high Building densities	Heritage Brownfield sites: Former Port Area - Vacant spaces - Underused land	- Business 50% - Residential 30% - Leisure, commercial and educational 20%	- Seafront experience, promenade - The green strips with integrated pedestrian route system - Park - Plaza	- New subway line U4 - Wider pedestrian and bicycle lanes - Internal street connectivity - Green transport system - Bridges linking HafenCity to the districts around it - Promenade & green corridors	Transparent multi-stakeholder balance: - Independent development agenda - Public directed project - Long term achievability - Promotion of private initiatives in urban development - The Local Authority	Public-private partnership investment
Birmingham, United Kingdom	Urban Renaissance: Inclusive sustainable urban regeneration - Flagship development - High quality urban environment - Remaking of central urban spaces	- New urban districts link closely - Compact within pedestrian linkages	Industrial Brownfield sites - Vacant Land - Derelict industrial land - Neglected canal network	High quality neighbourhood in multi-use complexes - Homes - Offices - Leisure facilities - Urban spaces Massive increase in high rise residential development	High quality public spaces: - Green park - Canal-side waterfront - New traffic-free public squares (outdoor shopping experiences) - Plaza	- National rail network - Metro (Tram) - Pedestrian walkways - Bus services - Canal-side walkways - Pedestrianisation (New Street) - High connectivity within new urban district (pedestrian linkages)	A Classic top-down leadership: - Partnership between public and private sector interest - Property market intervention - Integrated key stakeholders - Birmingham City Council and political interest	- Public-Private Partnership - Public sectors fund for basic infrastructure - Investment in land and property intervention

Source: Author's construct

2. North America

Portland, Oregon, United States Of America

Portland is often regarded as one of the most environmentally friendly cities or 'green cities' in America (Sheppard, 2007). The city is well known as a representative example of smart growth and new urbanism policies. The design approach aims to ensure economic vitality and enhance people's quality of life in the city centre. The development based on 'green initiatives' has enacted public acquisition of land for green infrastructure, green space plans and a regional greenscape network (Bengston et al., 2004; Wheeler, 2003). As a consequence, the high-quality open spaces provide 29,000 acres of green space and more than 74 miles of hiking, running and biking trails (Austin Chamber, 2013). Metro, the regional government, is responsible for managing Portland's urban growth boundaries (UGBs). In strong land-use planning controls, the Portland metropolitan area boundary (Portland's UGBs) encompasses 24 cities and the urban portions of three counties (Washington, Multnomah and Clackamas).

The UGBs adopted in 1979 have three objectives: to plan for and promote a compact and efficient urban form, improve the efficiency of public facilities and services, and preserve prime farm and forest lands outside the boundary (Arrington, 2005). These design features have highlighted statewide concerns to manage urban growth impacts, particularly between social and environmental aspects central to land-use management. Accordingly, Metro must ensure to maintain a 20-year supply of development land in UGBs regions. The capacity of urban activity and growth rates are re-examined by Oregon's law every five years for progressive planning. Although Portland has demonstrated proactive public sector planning that is rooted in enhancing equity and improving community vitality, yet it is difficult for this management strategy to yield successful results in practice. There is evidence of class and racial segregation within minority ethnic groups, which

require environmental protection for a better quality of life (Wheeler, 2003, p. 332). Thus, new design values will have to be reinforced by urban social movements.

The downtown development has a large number of medium- and high-rise developments and a general increase in housing and business density. The development also enhances public facilities and services for more mixed uses (e.g. waterfront districts and university districts). Also, the UGBs along with the efforts of the Portland Development Commission have created an economic development zone in downtown development to encourage compact and liveable neighbourhoods. Wheeler (2003) argues that specific urban form can promote sustainability in urban areas. Portland offers the most significant example of city centre regeneration on public transportation networks and efficient land use planning to counter urban sprawl. In 1991, the Land Conversion and Development Commission, policies included a combination of measures to improve the availability and convenience of alternative modes.

Portland's environmentally friendly public transit network has indeed focused on built environment design and planning strategies. The extensive public transit service has stressed the balance of highways within public transit, including walking, cycling and transportation demand management measures, and parking management plans. The TriMet operates light rail and bus services in most of the urbanised portion of the Portland Metropolitan area. Portland has placed emphasis on proactive land-use planning, TOD and a high degree of connectivity in the street pattern within the UGBs. The city advocates an efficient way to minimise the expansion of urban land. Therefore, the fully integrated transport system results in this compact, mixed-use, and pedestrian-friendly development.

Portland has evidence (Jun, 2008) of a moderately higher increase in population density, a significant reduction in automobile dependence and rapid increase in public transit use relative to

other metropolitan areas in the US. Jun's (2008) empirical studies suggest that the provision of public transit service and mixed land use implemented in residential zones were more efficient in reducing automobile dependence than those implemented at places of work. Equally, it also has potential to limit infrastructure cost and to assure affordable housing is provided. Miller et al., 1996, quoted in Jang et al. (2011, p. 188) defined this kind of spatial structure "as a combination of land-use formation, its densities and the spatial design of infrastructures such as transport and communication." Nevertheless, making settlements compact via the UGB and TODs has no clear relationship with reducing the choice to drive alone.

Environmental values are at the core of the Portland approach in governing urbanisation and the preservation of natural areas, forest and farmlands. The implications of density and compactness in mixed-use development appear to comply with social and environmental values to ensure a high level of connectivity and mobility within the urban areas. Huber and Currie (2007) point out that design-led interventions need to consider the functional aspects of the production of space within the perception of the area. Therefore, the social environment is an integral part of an urbanised society to attract potential economic growth.

3. Europe

a) Mainland Europe: Hamburg, Germany

Over the last decade, Hamburg has become the setting for an intense debate around urban policy and creative cities (Jacob, 2013). Hamburg is the second largest city in Germany and has suffered from the decline of shipbuilding. HafenCity is one of Hamburg's recent remarkable urban projects that aims to create socially and economically viable structures. It is located between the centre of Hamburg and the River Elbe at the former port area (the largest port in Germany). By mid-1990s, Hamburg City Council decided to recover the area for the new city centre with the objective

of preserving the image and history of the port as well as providing an expansion of Hamburg's city area by 40% (Jang et al., 2011).

The HafenCity work began in 2001 and is currently Europe's largest inner city development project. The total area of the development area is 157 hectares, divided into ten different districts and featuring a dense mix of offices, homes, education, culture, business, trade, tourism and leisure within six different phases of development. These districts are independent and have local identities in harmony with the urban environment. The mixed-use development and urban district that is closely connected will simultaneously implement high-quality environmental sustainability and stimulate urban growth with a lively city maritime lifestyle. The development planned for 45,000 jobs and 6,000 homes for around 12,000 residents. In particular, it assigned 30% for residential, 48% for offices and 22% for other service businesses. The overall distribution of the land area of 126 ha is designated as 31% for building, 25% for transport, 24% for public open space (public squares, parks, promenades) and 20% for private open space (7% not publicly accessible). The built environment ratio is fairly balanced to allow an inclusively and integrated sustainable city centre development. By respecting the historical and existing context, making the best use of resources, and being able to respond to change, the regeneration process contributes to the achievement of sustainable development.

HafenCity reinforced sustainable accessibility and mobility with various facilities in consideration of movement emphasising pedestrian and bicycle mobility. It is also adopted green transport systems such as job-housing balance and pedestrian and bicycle lanes. A high level of connectivity is promoted based on the design for a fully integrated transport system within good proximity of transit hubs and networks. Fundamentally, it shows that in high-density, oriented development urban regeneration projects, planning factors and policy should be applied in

consideration of regional characteristics and transport through the integrated approach of land use and transport (Jang et al., 2011).

The development process will take over 25 years, yet has successfully displayed the importance of heritage brownfield sites, identity, culture, creative economy, sustainability and public spaces. Although HafenCity is a public-directed project, the development was generated from an interdisciplinary result to inclusive sustainable regeneration. The idea of the development process was influenced by the outcome of international competition, public planning dialogue and political decisions. However, there are emerging debates on the risk of attracting high-income residents into the city and the long-term sustainability of affordable housing and housing co-ops could add up to 'new built gentrification'.

b) United Kingdom: Birmingham, England

Birmingham is a capital of the West Midlands region and second largest city in the UK. As a multicultural city, Birmingham is home to the second most ethnically diverse population in Europe. It is located in a strategic location at the centre of main transportation networks (national motorway and UK rail). Despite this fact, it is shameful for the city to be regarded as "the ugliest city in England" (Gravelaine, 2006). Birmingham urban regeneration was described as a two-fold crisis: both urban and economic (Gravelaine, 2006; Barber and Eastaway, 2010). The quality of the urban environment and infrastructure were obsolete and of poor planning standard. In the 1970s, the severe de-industrialisation affected half of the manufacturing jobs (Graveline, 2006; Barber and Eastaway, 2010). Birmingham city areas have suffered major urban decline reflecting low economic activities and close of industrial land (derelict and vacant sites).

The Birmingham regeneration plan is viewed as one of the pioneers of the urban entrepreneurialism approach in Western cities. In the mid-1980s, an extraordinary renaissance was initiated by Birmingham City Council through flagship projects and associated investment in the urban environment (Barber and Hall, 2008). The agenda aims to regenerate the economic activity and revitalise decline/derelict areas. This initiative has stimulated a momentum around the regeneration process for further private sector investment. The development of major planning proposals and strategic decisions in the projects were based on classic top-down leadership (Barber and Eastaway, 2010). The key emphasis of regeneration was on land and property intervention with leading business interests to secure funds with other public-sector services (European Union Commission, 1998). Hence, flagship projects were designed to lead Birmingham's move into international business tourism and related leisure sectors through the local economy (Barber and Hall, 2008).

Since the early 1990s, Birmingham has enjoyed significant growth in financial and professional services. Barber and Hall (2008, p. 288) argue that "Birmingham has benefited from substantial central government investment in area regeneration and neighbourhood renewal." The removal of the concrete collar has given a new image to Birmingham city. The inner ring road downgrading enhanced more connectivity as more traffic gets distributed deliberately within urban areas (Barber and Hall, 2008). The city advocates for high-quality public spaces. The design-led interventions focus on compact and mixed-use development to link new urban districts closely as well as to encourage pedestrian linkages. The Birmingham series of regeneration projects have provided the best examples of the transitions in UK based urban regeneration policies and governance on high-quality design: (1) the policy drive of city centre regeneration, (2) flagship development and (3) the re-making of central urban space for new economic activities.

Brindleyplace, in Westside and Ladywood quarter, is among the success stories of the projects in Birmingham (Big City Plan). The regeneration project is evidence of the partnership between private sector interests in urban design strategies. In 1993, the 7.2 ha area of the derelict and neglected canal site around the publicly funded facilities (International Conference, Symphony Hall and National Indoor Arena) was bought from another private developer for a low price (£3m). Regardless of the risks associated with the middle of the property recession of that time, plans for this brownfield site invested in innovation that placed emphasis on business and public realm development: “The development plan aims were to create pedestrian links and activity within the city’s fabric, rather than showcase the architectural style of individual building” (Midlands Architecture and the Design Environment (MADE), 2012).

Accordingly, in 1994, a limited competition to design the Central Square and Oozells Square was held to select the winning design for the area. The redevelopment of Brindley has emphasis on the value of public spaces to create attractive, desirable and ‘liveable’ places. The public realm plan brings together homes, offices, leisure facilities and public spaces with a strong sense of identity. In the planning process, focusing on social/community dimensions has been addressed within the tight-knit coalition of political and business interest (Heaney and Lorenz, 2013). The decisions in the project were achieved through collaborative planning between the public sector, private developers, and professionals in architecture and landscape architecture. In essence, the city also advocates brownfield development to revitalise new economic, housing and community infrastructure.

Overall, the integration of diverse key stakeholders has been successful in property market intervention and has produced a high-quality urban environment. The city is now playing a greater role as a regional centre. However, the latest regeneration project in the Eastside quarter was first discussed in 1999 as an initial proposal to regenerate the historic inner city district of Digbeth and has not yet been realised. There have been major delays and disruption to the proposal, as well as

funding problems with the park. The lack of an articulated vision of Eastside's future functions and complications with some private sites have been problematic even before the 2007 economic downturn (Barber and Eastaway, 2010).

2.2.2 CONCEPTUALISING SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION

This subsection examines a number of influences to conceptualise sustainable city centre regeneration. In doing so, it will firstly look at the implications of sustainable city centre regeneration; then assess the balance of state/market/civil society; and finally, analyse the connection between policy, politics, governance and resources. Along the discussion, the key issues and drivers that influence regeneration per se will thus be outlined.

1. The implication of sustainable city centre regeneration

Across the world, urbanisation and globalisation have produced greater demands on services relating to urban growth and needs to sustain human well-being and quality of life (Grimm et al., 2008). Both drivers have provided equal impetus and resulted in generating changes in urban form and structure. Batty (1996) argues that the effects of urban change could be much more problematic considering it ultimately adds up to economic and social change, and vice versa. The implication of sustainable city centre regeneration is concerned with the relationship between two dimensions: detailed design and planning guidance. It explores how both are interconnected in shaping the type of design we can see and contribute to the way that people who are living in the city respond to changes in their environment.

Clearly, as discussed in 2.1.3, there is a set of components that need to be used in designing sustainable city centre regeneration. Five components regarding urban design and planning – density

and compactness, mixed-use, brownfield reuse, open spaces and integrated transportation – are relevant to shape the physical characteristics of sustainable city centre regeneration. For instance, the following need to be taken into account i) close-knit and relatively compact urban form to allow good pedestrian linkages; ii) intervention on brownfield sites; iii) diverse mixed-use development to bring people back into city centre; iv) quality of open and green spaces; and v) environmentally friendly, transit-oriented, and good transport provisions for better accessibility in the city. Therefore, design values can play a key role in the marketing of the places, especially on how they interpret urban design to make it desirable for people to live, learn, play, visit and work (Muratovski, 2011).

The sustainable city centre regeneration process views the prospects for addressing urban issues not only in the realm of urban planning and management, environmental sustainability, economic growth and life-chances of the city inhabitants, but also state-civil society relations. As aspects of design roles gained respective importance in sustainable city centre regeneration, it is vital to include various levels of government, local authorities, local communities and other community-based organisations throughout the regeneration process. In turn, it also assists to indicate possible ways for potential flexibility to improve/restore the city centre environment for the sustainable city (Boyko and Cooper, 2009). Together these influence how the economic, social and environmental contexts impact on the consequences that matter in terms of the type of design we can see.

The type of design we can see in built environment will vary in different places. To a certain degree, it will signify distinction in urban character whether it is driven by commercial, business, tourism, cultural, socio-cultural, historical, residential or statewide requirements. Therefore, the balance of state-market-civil society relationships is also interrelated with its impacts on which, who and what are their main concerns for regeneration strategy. Hence, in the following section, the way these relationships impact upon shaping specific types of sustainable city centre regeneration are examined.

2. The balance of state/market/civil society

As specified in the western case studies, there are three types of sustainable city centre regeneration: (i) urban environmental management, (ii) urban renaissance for sustainable communities, and (iii) urban entrepreneurialism, which have impinged in particular ways in shaping sustainable city centre regeneration. These types of regeneration can be considered as common drivers across the world. Figure 2.6 has illustrated the way the balance of state-market-civil society relationships impact upon different types of sustainable city centre regeneration. By looking at the regeneration drivers highlighted from the Western case studies, it can be seen that specific types of sustainable city centre regeneration are influenced by challenges and issues which drive the development such as:

- (i) Urban environmental management – environmental concerns and sustainable urban growth;
- (ii) Urban renaissance for sustainable communities – socially, economically and environmentally sustainable; and
- (iii) Urban entrepreneurialism – political interest, market and built environment force.

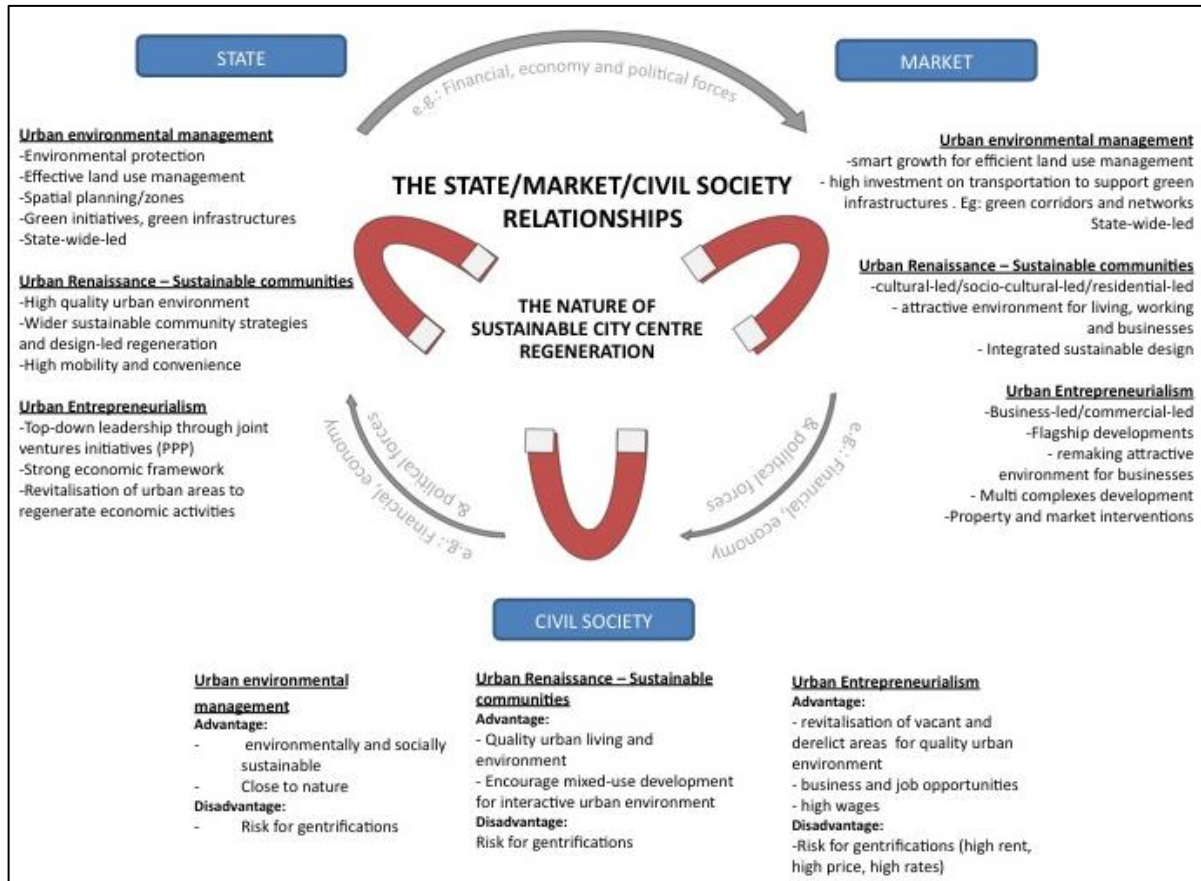


Figure 2.6 The state-market-civil society relationships impact upon different types of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration

Source: Author's construct

The diagram has identified the state, market and civil society interests, needs and goals in shaping sustainable design-led city centre regeneration. Although it appears that the underlying balance between this relationship would vary according to the extent of the power of the state, or the market is influential or community driven, the common interests and demands between state-market-civil society have formed a cycle of shared value (i.e. financial, social, cultural, economy and political influences) that highlight similar aspirations on city centre regeneration. Therefore, the balance of state-market-civil society relationships impacts upon shaping the specific type of design-led regeneration.

Essentially, the balance between the state, market and civil society draws attention to the distinctions between them and gives a better understanding of the direction of sustainable city centre regeneration. Nevertheless, this will vary in importance in different places. Squires and Huerkens (2014) argument on the institutional model in real estate development puts forward the rationale that the forces and dynamics of development processes and relationships could influence the very nature of different institutional levels, in particular, place and time. According to Keogh and D'Arcy (1999, cited in Squires and Huerkens, 2014), the institutional model of real estate development focuses on institutional structures such as the real estate 'environment', 'market' and 'organisations'. Firstly, the real estate environment is defined by the political, social, economic and legal rules by which society is organised. Secondly, the real estate market involves a network of rules, conventions and relationships to create a more stable environment for the real estate market. Finally, the real estate organisations, which can also consist of users, professional bodies, investors, property service providers, financial service providers, governmental and non-governmental agencies and developers are influential in shaping the real estate development. Likewise, the nature of the sustainable city centre regeneration play roles that shape the specific type of sustainable city centre regeneration. In this regard, policy; politics; governance and management; and resources and finances are also key influences in shaping the sustainable city centre regeneration. Thus, in the next section we will be discussing these key influences.

3. Policy, politics, governance and resources

The nature of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration is interconnected between four key influences: (1) policy, (2) politics, (3) governance and (4) resources. Firstly, the policy can be defined as "a course of action adopted and pursued by government; it is an approach, method, practice and code of conduct" (Roberts, 2000, quoted in Tallon, 2009, p. 4). The policy outlines the fundamental structure and influences the direction of sustainable city centre regeneration. Secondly,

the power relationships between political, economic, social and environmental contexts influence drivers and the regeneration ideology. Thirdly, governance and management are systematic guides in shaping sustainable city centre regeneration (see the discussion in section 2.2.2). It helps to establish an effective strategy on the governance structure and regeneration process. Finally, in terms of the influence of resources and finances, it is necessary to scrutinise the availability of; access to; and limitation of project delivery and operation as well as to explore the use of resources.

Policy and politics are important to provide recommendations on benchmarks, targets, policy goals, ideology and inspiration for sustainable regeneration. However, there are constraint factors that influence the way urban issues may be resolved. Bevir (2007) argues that governance by its nature involves politics, processes and mobilisation of resources. Urban governance is one of the key successes of any regeneration development and it is also evident that regeneration applies when it involves money. Not only because of the financing and funding of the project delivery and operation but it also can offer opportunities for business and investment. For instance, in Birmingham, UK, the regeneration driver of urban entrepreneurialism has taken place through PPP investment on flagship projects. Importantly, the discussion in previous sections argued that sustainable city centre regeneration needs to be reinforced by an urban social movement and proactive public actor as well as be rooted in a growing public desire for environmental protection, place-oriented community and quality of life. The institutional setting of power relationships with the public depicts the politics of urban development (Coaffee and Healey, 2003, Healey, 2008; Sandcock, 2003; Tallon, 2009). Thus the extent to which power and politics, governance and institutional arrangement, and available use of resources are different is crucial to understanding how sustainable city centre regeneration is happening.

2.2.3 DEVELOPMENT AND REGENERATION MODELS IN DEVELOPED/DEVELOPING CAPITAL CITIES AND/OR WORLD CITIES

This section will examine four different cities, which emphasise the ideas of world and capital cities. These are Hong Kong, Seoul, Johannesburg, and Dubai. The section subsequently seeks to analyse which mechanisms are used explicitly or implicitly in these cities to shape the sustainable city centre regeneration in the context of capitals and/or world cities and reflect on how they resolve tensions in the way regeneration takes place.

1. Characterising capital and world cities

In the developing world, UN-HABITAT (2010, p. 92) states that, “aspiring ‘world-class’ cities take advantage of improvements in global connectivity that have facilitated dramatic expansion in cross-border networks and flows of good services and finances”. Assessment of the specificities of capital and world cities offers significant scope to understand the differences between world cities and aspiring world cities. By doing so, we will further talk about the developed and developing world cities in the next section.

Knoll (2014) identifies that the three key differences between cities in the developing and developed world are the labour market (i.e. a large informal sector alongside the formal sector), land markets (land issues related to small land parcels, ownership and illegal squatters), and the provision of infrastructure (mainly road infrastructure). Thus, these are aspects which hinder cities in the developing world from reaching their full economic growth and development. However, Cabigon (2008) notes that capital cities tend to be privileged as the centre of attention of the state’s new centralisation of power. Capital cities, as the national capital, are unique not only because they are highly attractive to investors, which is profitable for the market and tax benefits associated with

those cities and regions (Slack and Chattopadhyay; 2009). However, the way the city is designed also conveys national aspirations. In this particular, the overlapping role of political and economic forces appears to bring about the impact of globalisation for capital cities to become world cities. In contrast, Curitiba in Brazil is an excellent example of the developing world city that is not a capital city. The high-quality leadership of the former mayor has significantly provided amenities and services in an environment in which both citizens and businesses can prosper, and that many First World cities fail to deliver (Linden, 1996). To some extent, this healthy mix of functions to improve and sustain urban living has established the difference between world cities and aspiring world cities in the developing world.

Therefore, the model of development of capital cities and world cities can be seen in both the developing and developed world. Accordingly, three models of development, namely (1) world cities in the developed world, (2) world cities in the developing world and (3) aspiring world cities in the developing world will be analysed in the next section.

2. Case studies of the world/capital cities

Four cities are chosen of a position relevant for comparison with Kuala Lumpur (which will be discussed in Chapter 4). The first two of these are both cities in the developed world: 1) Seoul, an 'Alpha -' world city and Dubai 'Alpha +' world city. The third case study, Hong Kong, an 'Alpha +' world city represents a model of a world city in the developing world. Finally, Johannesburg, an 'Alpha -' world city is a model of aspiring world cities in the developing world (see table 2.3 for GaWC world cities rank guide).

a) *East Asia: Seoul, South Korea*

Seoul, which is the capital of South Korea, has 10 million residents, where over one-fifth of the total national population lives in Seoul (Kim and Han, 2012). The city has one of the highest population densities in the world within an area of 60,500 hectares. There are 25 local government districts in Seoul, and all areas are urbanised. Approximately 39% of the total area cannot be used for development because of geographical features such as rivers and mountains (Seoul Metropolitan Government, 2006, cited in Kim and Han, 2012). Accordingly, a large amount of farmland has been converted for urban use within the capital region. The state-led urban development has supported continuous physical expansion and economic prosperity for middle and upper-middle income households rather than low-income households (Kyung and Kim, 2011). Also, high-density redevelopment was undertaken to solve the housing shortage in urban regeneration policy.

In the last 40 years, Seoul has focused on transportation including roads within the city and expressway, which has caused a rapid increase in the number of private cars (Son, 2003, cited in Kim and Han, 2012). Due to rapid urbanisation, over-concentration of the population results in poor services and inequality in the city. The idea of gentrification embraced by the state-led urban development for the past decades brings gaps in financial capability and housing affordability. To some extent, the quality of urban living related to social aspects is subordinated by financial, economic and political interests to improve Seoul as an important global city.

Kim and Han (2012, p. 151) have listed four main urban problems in their research:

First, the rapid growth has caused problems such as pollution, poor landscape, traffic congestion and uneven development. Second, the lack of identity is another problem as the desire for economic growth has overwhelmed cultural development. Third, consideration for the disadvantaged is lacking, and public participation in decision-making is absent. Finally, poor competitiveness is acknowledged as a problem at the global level.

Despite that, the city has well-developed high-tech industry and infrastructure. The urban regeneration policy is targeted to attract new investments, event and tourism business to improve the city competitiveness and image. At the city level, decentralised urban development was promoted through the building of sub-centres. From 1990 to 2005, Seoul's population was reduced by decentralisation efforts to slightly below 10 million. For instance, Gangnam was developed in the 1970s as new residential areas with well-established infrastructure such as wide roads, subways, bus terminals and highways. Gangnam is former rice field land, located at the South of River Han it is the third largest district in Seoul with an area of 3,950 hectares (Wikipedia and wikitravel). As the fourth most populated district in Seoul, Gangnam serves as a commercial centre and provides a significant number of jobs, which were made possible by attracting a large number of migrants into the city. Nevertheless, Gangnam is widely known for its heavily concentrated wealth and high standard of living. Ha (2007) argues that the regeneration projects were not designed to help ordinary poor people, rather they promised quick profits for private sectors.

The urban planning has poor design considerations for sustainable city living in a socially and healthy urban environment. There is no integration; it was focused on expanding the city rather than on reorganising within the city. Thus, income inequality and housing varieties have brought about social polarisation and segregation in Seoul. In 2006, The Seoul Metropolitan Government

published its 2020 Seoul Urban Plan (SUP). It includes designation and/or alteration of the zoning plan and the installation of infrastructures such as green belts, urban parks, development projects and District Unit Planning areas. The zoning plan, which was introduced in 2003, has been an important planning tool in Seoul to manage urban land use through components such as, infrastructure layout, building height, the shapes of individual buildings, an environmental plan, a transport plan as well as land use and density (Kim and Han, 2012, p. 150). Accordingly, the 2020 SUP has five objectives: to develop Seoul into a world city, a cultural city, an eco-city, a welfare city and the capital city in a united Korea in the future. This global competitiveness and the global image are aligned towards the financial benefits of private investors and the political interest of the city administration prevailed over the needs of the citizens (Uršič and Križnik, 2012). Not only do the urban regeneration aims focus on a more balanced and socially inclusive urban development, but also the distinct architecture and urban landscape of Seoul have significantly influenced real estate development in the city (Kin and Han, 2012; Križnik, 2013).

Additionally, Seoul investment in high-tech industry and infrastructure are key criteria for being an 'Alpha -' world city. Its infrastructural network has attracted major headquarters related to financial, business and manufacturing services. Furthermore, mega-events such as Olympic events and FIFA World Cup also provided a means for urban regeneration mechanisms, which result in transformation of the built environment concerning the infrastructural improvements, flagship development and tourism businesses. These equally shape the global image and characterise Seoul in the context of world cities (see Table 2.7).

b) Middle East: Dubai, United Arab Emirates

Dubai is an extreme example of a rapidly emerging global city and one of the fastest growing cities in the world (Katodrytis, 2005). The city is indeed a luxury playground and has been massively driven by real estate growth. Dubai Properties, a member of Dubai Holding, is the world's fastest growing global real estate development investment firm (Bagaeen, 2007). Two types of authorities, the Dubai Municipality and the free-zone developers, manage the city of Dubai. Dubai is the second largest emirate of the United Arab Emirates by population and land area. In 2006, the population was approximately 1.2 million, and 75% were expatriates. Their demographic diversity characterises global cities, and this is no different in the case of Dubai (Bagaeen, 2007). At the beginning of the twentieth century, the city began to grow into a trading hub. In essence, the port and airport, the trade, real estate, financial services and tourism are the most significant contributors to the Dubai GDP (Catchpole and De, 2012).

Dubai's buildings as a global branding icon changed the way that architecture, urban planning and design came to be perceived within the Middle East countries. Both quotes below comment on the drastic urban development and landscape that we see in Dubai:

Ambitious mixed-use urban developments featuring luxury residences, hotels and office blocks, huge shopping malls and imaginative entertainment complexes are rapidly changing the face of Dubai emirate and are putting the Dubai property market on the world stage.

Bagaeen (2007, p. 173)

Urban design in Dubai would appear to be the art of laying out a land development framework and public realm that can attract development of the highest quality.

(Catchpole and De, 2012, p. 133)

Therefore, the real estate boom has had a significant impact on the cost of living in the city over the last couple of years. For example, residential rents rose between 20% and 40% in the first half of 2005 (see Westley, 2005). Dubai's formula for development included several components: visionary leadership, high-quality infrastructure, an expatriate-friendly environment, zero tax on personal and corporate income and low import duties. Nevertheless, Bagaeen (2007, p.180) argues that "the challenge for Dubai is to retain its attractiveness for investors and expatriate residents as not just an attractive place to live and work, but also as a cost-effective location."

Despite this, development in Dubai has ignored fundamental environmental factors and sustainability problems (i.e. traffic, energy efficiency, construction is reportedly damaging the marine habitat etc.). Tomorrow's Dubai has carefully worked out strategically planned economic proposals concerning urban planning and heritage conservation such as Strategic Urban Growth. This includes the Plan for the Emirate of Dubai (2000–2050), the Structural Plan for Dubai Urban Area (2000–2020) and the First Five Year Plan for Dubai Urban Area (2000–2005). In accordance, Dubai has launched infrastructure projects – ring roads, double-decked highway flyovers, new bridges, a metro and monorail system, and even air-conditioned bus stops.

Certainly Dubai has engaged highly in features of global cities networks in terms of the iconic architecture, ports, airport, headquarters of leading firms in business and financial services, as well as a friendly-environment for expatriate professionals (see Table 2.7). These attributes have caused the city to be positioned as an 'Alpha +' world city.

c) *South East Asia: Hong Kong SAR, China*

Even though Hong Kong is a part of the China mainland, which is in the developing world, the city is seen as a developed city. Hong Kong is the third most connected business city of the world, surpassed only by New York and London (Sassen, 2012). Evani Au-Yuen (2012), who is a spokesperson of Brand Hong Kong, concluded that Hong Kong has a competitive position as “a natural, vital and multicultural gateway not only to and from China but also to the rest of Asia and beyond.” In Hong Kong, the land price is extremely high. Therefore, redevelopment is often an attractive economic proposition (Yau and Chan, 2008). The then Chief Secretary for Administration observes that Hong Kong is considered as having achieved world city status, particularly in the areas of financial services, infrastructure, communication technology and tourism, (Tsang, 2005, cited in Kong, 2007, p. 389). The city’s aspiration to be ‘Asia’s world city’ has been identified in the Hong Kong’s strategic development commissions report (2000, cited in Kong, 2007, pp. 388-389) as “enhancing Hong Kong’s competitiveness, improving the quality of life and reinforcing Hong Kong’s identity and image.” However, there is criticism that derelict buildings within the city’s high-density high-rise development pattern not only ruin the cityscape but also affect the health and safety of the community as a whole (Yau and Chan, 2008, p. 272).

The Urban Renewal (URA), which was established in May 2001, was a transformation of the Land Development Corporation (LDC). The URA works through a holistic ‘4Rs’ strategy, comprising Redevelopment, Rehabilitation, Reservation and Revitalisation. In addition, a “people-centred” approach was adopted to implement the urban regeneration policy (Yau and Chan, 2008, p. 275). As an independent statutory body, URA is equipped with the statutory power to purchase land for redevelopment in the public interest (Planning, Environment and Lands Branch, 1996).

Hong Kong's approach to cultural icons, while uncomplicated by national agendas, is burdened instead by its singularly economic focus and the underlying global ambition. For instance, the West Kowloon Cultural District (WKCD) project has been delayed from the start by multiple civil society voices, variously championing social goals, community participation, and cultural identity (HKADC, 2000; Kong, 2007). The project, which covers a 40 ha waterfront area at West Kowloon for an integrated arts, cultural and entertainment district, would be a 'landmark development' that would 'enhance Hong Kong's position as a world city of culture'. In Hong Kong, where the governance is mostly democratic, the public outcry over the WKCD, in fact, stopped the original project and forced a government rethink and the opening of wider channels of consultation and public expression. The objections were concerned with fear and worry that this was a real estate enterprise that would benefit developers rather than the city's cultural infrastructure that will help to build community identity in creativity and artistic creation (HKADC, 2000).

Hong Kong as a financial and business hub has leading characteristics of the world city context and this is summarised in Table 2.7. In order to accomplish the national aspiration to be Asia's world city, the city growth and infrastructural development have made Hong Kong an 'Alpha -' world city in the global network.

d) Africa: Johannesburg, South Africa

Johannesburg is recognised as the financial and commercial hub of sub-Saharan Africa. Bremner (2000, p. 188) mentions Johannesburg was marketed to the world through its location advantages, communications infrastructure, and mature financial dominance, as a launch pad into the hinterland of Africa (see also Rogerson, 1996). The problems of inner city decay in Johannesburg were accompanied by physical decline and racial stereotyping of new residents (Morris, 1996, cited

in Bremner, 2000, p. 186). Consequently, the construction of a defensive, ethnically defined spatiality resulted from increasing xenophobia, assaults and conflicts over space and access. According to Encyclopaedia (2008) xenophobia is defined as:

Discrimination against and hatred of foreigners, targeting outsiders and strangers or more often those who are in effect part of one's own society but are perceived as incommensurably different from the majority of the population.

The immigrant communities are blamed for the overcrowded informal trading sector, the growth of the narcotics trade and deterioration of the physical environment (Simone, 1998). The growth of the informal commerce and catering sector is by far the most rapid transformation. Hence, management and development of street trading, the taxi industry and other forms of micro-business activity are seen as high priorities for confidence building and stabilising the inner city's economic environment (Rogerson, 1996).

Two local economic development (LED) initiatives were introduced to transform, re-image and reformulate its inner city landscape (Bremner, 2000). Since 1990, Johannesburg's local authority has spearheaded the LED through an inclusive partnership between government, civil societies, labour and the private sector, known as the Johannesburg Inner City Development Forum. Bremner (2000, p. 191) suggests that the first LED, which took place before the democratic elections (1991–93) “relied on an aesthetic, property-led development programme to rebuild the local economy, re-image a city tarnished by its oppressive, racist past and position Johannesburg as a ‘world city’ as it entered the global economy.” In terms of mobilisation of resources, major public/private investment has gone into infrastructure for the relief of environmental or social problems (ibid, p.190). The project strategic has included inner city housing, an R200 million light rail link, the establishment of markets for inner city street trading, an R200–300 convention centre, the development of an R100

million commercial theme park (Jewel City) and a series of projects using culture and sports as vehicles for LED.

The second LED after the democratic election (1995 onwards) advocated an environmentally-led programme of stabilisation and neighbourhood development to address the rapid 'greying' of the inner city, as a precursor to growth. Whereas the aspiration to global status is maintained, the focus of development is not primarily directed at the attraction of foreign investment, but rather at local upliftment (Bremner, 2000). Taylor and Walker (2001) identify Johannesburg as the most isolated world city as it has a continent to itself and no clear similarities with other world cities. As such, Fit (1995, pp.7–8 quoted in Rogerson, 1996, p. 139) argues that:

It had very little to do with the economic, social and physical changes which had taken place in the city over time, instead seeking to capitalise on South Africa's imminent re-entry into the world as an opportunity for re-imaging and regenerating the city. Typically, this approach involved glossy plan preparation; public sector infrastructure investment; partnership development of flagship schemes in retailing, leisure and commercial development; an emphasis on arts and culture; and strong marketing to reverse or alter existing poor images of the city.

Rogerson (1996) argues attempts were made to style the city as attractive, inviting and integrated, not through investment in social or service infrastructure, but through an emphasis of the importance of culture and urban design. For instance, Joubert Park (the largest inner city park in the Central Business District) pilot project to improve and upgrade the public environment has established the shift from a high-profile, leisure industry driven public/private regeneration strategy to one focusing on people's living and working environments, employment creation and social equity (Bremner, 2000, p. 190). The project covering seven city blocks is perceived as having a poor environment due to congestion of streets and overcrowding of apartments.

As an 'Alpha -' world city, the financial and commercial hub linked the city with major economic regions as well as positions in the world economy. Johannesburg is the vibrant heart of South Africa, and has modern buildings, which are Africa's tallest structures. Similar to the Seoul case study, investment in infrastructure, and event and tourism business are also a mechanism of urban regeneration in the context of world cities (refer to Table 2.7).

2.2.4 CONCLUSION

It has been demonstrated in this chapter that sustainable city centre regeneration is likely to improve the physical environment, quality of life, urban and social services, economic prospects and urban governance. The case studies from Portland, Hamburg and Birmingham have stressed that a successful city centre regeneration involves coordinated actions by many levels of government. The design approach is influenced by different factors (economic, social and environmental aspects) and the nature of the local development (political interest, strategy and action). Institutional factors play an important role in driving sustainable development initiatives towards more efficient effort. These concerns are situated within broader perspectives of urban regeneration, economic development, urban competitiveness and liveability. Thus, the sustainable city centre regeneration process engages with the wider community in economic, social and cultural, physical, environmental and governance-related elements.

Sustainable city centre regeneration highlights the different uses of design roles in shaping the urban environment and guiding regeneration. The analysis of the various influences allows a better understanding of the complexity associated with urban development and sustainable city centre regeneration. In turn, the state/market/civil society relationships and the interdependency and challenges of the policy, politics, governance and resources, by their nature, are interrelated to

specify the types of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration. They can also influence the nature of drivers, their effects and the outcomes as we have seen. As noted by Boyko and Cooper (2009), the design, on the other hand, offers in-depth understanding of development issues relating to sustainability.

Table 2.7 summarises the characteristics of world cities/developed/developing contexts. There is a clear picture of the world-class development characteristics and mechanisms experienced in Seoul, Dubai, Hong Kong and Johannesburg. In all models, world city aspirations are apparent, but there are different degrees of significance according to local and national ambitions, and differing intersections of local, national and global scales, reflecting different geopolitical situations (Wilbanks et al., 1997; Rahman, 2010). Additionally, the differences remain dissimilar in the way the detailed design responds to issues relating to sustainability, in particular places. Thus, the type of design we can see in the built environment by essence vary.

The areas of discussion explored in this chapter are crucial for exploring the case of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Although Kuala Lumpur is in the developing world, there has been a deliberate policy in Kuala Lumpur (see 4.1.1) to position the city as a world city and invest considerable amounts of money to fulfil this ambition. Therefore, it is arguable that Kuala Lumpur may be an aspiring world city in the developing context. To assess the Kuala Lumpur case, it is also worth pointing out that the city is in the 'Alpha' world cities rank (GaWC). The key research questions in this literature are therefore to examine the process/strategy and the way that the role of design has been constituted. Does this model promote the restoration of a better living environment in the city centre?; how can the challenges and factors affecting the sustainable city centre regeneration be addressed in shaping a successful regeneration agenda?; what are the typology of sustainable city centre regeneration?; and which aspects of the framework should and should not be pursued in empirical work? These questions have helped to identify the research gap and thus guided the development of the aims and

objectives of the study. The broad aim of this research is to generate better understanding and reflection on the use of design roles to promote sustainable city centre regeneration in the context of Malaysia.

The aim of the study is therefore developed through the following objectives:

- To explore the role of design and the value of social sustainability in sustainable city centre regeneration.
- To explore how developed countries' models of sustainable regeneration intersect with the developing countries context.
- To obtain better understanding of the interdependency and challenges of policy, politics, governance and resources in sustainable city centre regeneration.
- To develop an understanding of how sustainable city centre regeneration is designed in Malaysia.

Table 2.7 The characteristics and specificities of world cities/developed/developing context

	SEOUL	DUBAI	HONG KONG	JOHANNESBURG
Model of Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capital and world cities in the developed world • 'Alpha -' world city 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • World cities in the developed world (emerging global city) • 'Alpha +' world city 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • World cities in the developing world (highly developed cities) • 'Alpha +' world city 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aspiring world cities in the developing world (Largest city in South Africa) • 'Alpha -' world city
National Aspiration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global competitiveness: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – A world city – A cultural city – An eco-city – A welfare city • Financial and business hub 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ambitious mixed-use development • High-quality infrastructure • Financial and business hub 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global ambition: Asia's world city • Financial and business hub 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The financial and commercial hub of sub-Saharan Africa • To position as a world city
Labour Market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial and business services • Manufacturing • Major headquarters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial services • Major headquarters • Expatriate-friendly-environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial services • Communication and technology • Major headquarters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial services • Commercial • Industrial and mining
Land Market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real estate development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Luxury real estate development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real estate development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inner city housing
Provision of Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Well-established infrastructure: wide roads expressway subway and bus terminals • The airport 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ring roads • Double-decked highway flyovers • Metro and monorail system • Air-conditioned bus stop 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mass transit rail • Railways and tramways • Bus • Ferry • Airport 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Light rail link • Metro bus • Freeways • Minibus taxi • Airport
Mechanism of Urban Regeneration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business-led, commercial-led and tourism-led development • Flagship development (waterfront development) • Heritage sites • Olympics and FIFA World Cup 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visionary leadership • Real estate • Tourism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism: World city of culture • Flagship development (waterfront development) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flagship development • The importance of culture and urban design • FIFA World Cup
Global Image	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technology and ICT hub: The mobile capital of the world • Skyscrapers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skyscrapers and iconic architecture • The port and airport • Financial and trading hub 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial hub • Skyscrapers • The port 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modern and Africa's tallest structures • FIFA World Cup

Source: Author's construct

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY OF DATA COLLECTION

INTRODUCTION

The research process provides an inductive approach and a development of hermeneutics interpretation as a philosophical approach to human understanding. This philosophical approach is closely linked with relativism and associated with qualitative research methods. The objective of the chapter is to define the key methods and approaches used to conduct the study. This chapter discusses the way that multiple methods of data collection were used to capture and construct the data. It also provides justification for the appropriateness of this study, the challenges it entails and the problems with related research models. In doing so, the first section will discuss the research philosophy; then it will continue to the research design; ethics; and finally, data analysis.

3.1 | RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

This study adopts a constructivism view, following the criteria of interpretivism epistemology. For Grix (2002, p. 177), constructionism can be defined as “an ontological position which asserts that social phenomena and their meaning is continually being accomplished by social actors.” As the literature review demonstrates, this thesis draws attention to the interaction between the role of design and social sustainability in providing sustainable city centre regeneration. The basic principles of quality of life, social mixing, connectivity, higher density, walkability and high-quality streetscapes have been incorporated in city centre regeneration with the aim of restoring a suburban lifestyle and attracting new urban dwellers back to the city centres. These strategies are a considered approach meeting the main objectives of improving urban vitality with a noticeable impact on the environment (e.g. reduction of energy demands, road congestion and air pollution). In

this context, sustainable city centre regeneration has been identified as a way to promote more integrated sustainable development. The theoretical belief is constructed on subjective reality that is negotiated within different cultures, social settings, and relationships between different groups of people with different language, consciousness and shared meanings (Myers, 1997; Cohen and Crabtree, 2006). This study attempts to reflect on constructivist viewpoints that advocate the nature of reality is actually a social construction, which can accommodate multiple perspectives and interpretations from different individuals in different groups (McQueen, 2002; Willis, 2007). The research seeks to investigate how planning and regeneration impact on the interaction between human actions and physical space. I consider the characteristics of this philosophy to be a highly appropriate choice for this study as it usually seeks to understand a particular context through gaining insights into the backgrounds and lived experiences of human beings (Creswell, 2003).

In order to collaboratively construct meaningful reality, Duberly and Johnson (2016, p. 72) highlight that the “hermeneutic circle focuses upon the iteration of interpretation where pre-understanding informs understanding and so on, leading to a greater understanding of both.” This analysis develops its truth based on social interactions (between the researcher and respondents) to get a clear understanding (interpretations) about what shaped and controlled the conditions of sustainable city centre regeneration in the study area and be clear about the meaning of existence. Graham (2005, p. 25) suggests that “people are capable of being creative (or destructive), reflective (or not) and, above all, they are moral beings, which is to say that there is a moral dimension to their actions.” The complexity of experiences, needs and behaviours must be explored to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the situation (Klein and Meyers, 1998; Whitton, 2007, p. 48; Morehouse, 2011). In doing so, the research process makes assumptions on the way the argument of social problems and organisational factors have been interpreted in relation to planning and regeneration (Clarke, 2015). Thus, the study also informs the humanist position, which is concerned with the study of people and understanding of human behaviour within its wider context.

Although primary data generated from interpretivism studies tend to be trustworthy and honest, which might be associated with a high level of validity, the primary data is empathetic in nature (Dudovskiy, 2014; Duberley and Johnson, 2016). It is perceived to have a low level of reliability because the researcher may have a bias in interpreting real-life situations. Therefore, careful consideration and awareness of the drawbacks must be maintained in order to make this approach valid and concise.

3.2 | RESEARCH DESIGN

This section provides an overview of the research design used to analyse the objectives and aims of the study as well as justification of the technique used.

3.2.1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The emerging attentions to 'urbanism' are associated with the ideas exploring the challenges of complex relationship between design/planning ambitions and how these are experienced at various scales and by different actors. Here, the work of Leonie Sandercock (2003) on insurgent perspectives was pivotal. Drawing on Sandercock's view, Healey (2012, p. 31) suggests building a participatory polity involves qualities within the culture of governance that "is richly informed by, responsive to and actively interacts, in fair and respectful ways, with the plurality of world of citizens." Furthermore, in the discussions of diversity and spatial development on the matter of place qualities, an emphasis has been placed on urban design giving an increasing role to diversity in space production and its roles in everyday life. Harvey (1988) argues that space rather contains social processes as much as social processes are inherently spatial. This view of socio-spatial process is similar to the work of Ali Mandinapour, and both have its roots in Lefebvre's theory of the

social production of space (1991). Another author, Loretta Lees (2008) explores the quality of life and experience of high-rise residents through Latour's actor network theory (2005). This emphasises a strong rhetoric on claims about 'reality'. Some issues in this literature is addressed by referring to De Certeau's sociological work on everyday practices of city dwellers (1980). De Certeau offers similar concepts of 'strategies', 'tactics', and 'belief' – all which help to re-interpret the ways in which social sustainability plays out in Kuala Lumpur.

3.2.2 CASE STUDY APPROACH

This study uses a case study approach as it allows the research to draw connections between the role of design and the nature of sustainable city centre regeneration that are informed by a number of influences:

- 1) The balance of state/market/civil society relationships
- 2) The nature of policy/politics; governance/management structures; and availability of financial and other resources.

Essentially, this study considers multiple case studies to allow us to answer research objectives and aims. Yin (2003, p. 47) comments that multiple case studies can be used to either, "(a) predict similar results (a literal replication) or (b) predict constraining results but for predictable reasons (a theoretical replication)." To develop a robust means of methodology and data collection, a variety of sources incorporating multiple perspectives, data collection tools and interpretive strategies (Ramírez, 2014) are used to obtain an in-depth knowledge of the whole context of the research object (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Bukvova, 2009; Creswell, 2011). According to Yin (2003, p. 13), a case study is documented "as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident." Flyvbjerg (2011, p. 313) and Thomas (2010) describe case study research as a means

to construct practical knowledge that is responsive to its environment with 'practical wisdom, common sense' and an understanding of actual conditions.

Nonetheless, Flyvbjerg (2006) indicates five common misconceptions in case study research that can be summarised into three categories, which are theory, reliability and validity. Common criticisms for case study research are usually that it is lacking in rigour, has bias, is generalised, taking too long and typically comprises lengthy documents (Yin, 2003; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Wedawatta et al., 2011). For this reason, it is important that the case study design put forward must include the following tests to enhance the validity and reliability of the research strategy used (Yin, 2003):

- Construct validity: use of multiple sources of evidence and review of draft case study reports by key informants
- Internal validity: pattern matching and explanation building
- External validity: use of replication logic
- Reliability: use case study protocol and develop case study database.

The following section will explain justification and processes for the case study selection.

1. Justification and process for case study selection

A multiple case study design is chosen to promote richness, depth and complexity to enable one to understand the conditions and reflect on the use of design elements to promote sustainable city centre regeneration in the context of Malaysia. The study focuses on factors affecting the sustainable city centre regeneration and how the examples of models from developed countries guide the regeneration. In order to have a better understanding of the topic, a case study methodology of international experiences will be drawn upon for analysis, and to inform the analytical framework used to assess the case of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia (as the literature review

demonstrated). In order to achieve this, the remainder of the study will look at three distinct case studies of redevelopment, which are taking place within the city centre of Kuala Lumpur. These case studies are Kampong Bharu, Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) – the PETRONAS Twin Towers, and the Central Market waterfront area (which will be explored further in Chapter 4).

These case studies are very important because they will support the discussion in the literature review. The rationale is that the selection of these case studies will highlight the different features of design-led regeneration as well as different models for the development in Kuala Lumpur, which is spearheaded by the state. Kampong Bharu shows us aspects of social sustainability issues and the challenges for development in commercial-led regeneration. The conflict within the community highlights the development crisis and difficulties. Moreover, as the oldest settlement in Kuala Lumpur and the largest residential area in the heart of the city, this case is unique in its nature. The KLCC project shows us aspects of aspiring world cities in sustainable city centre regeneration. The case is selected because of the development emphasis on the importance of high-quality design. Similarly, reflecting on the examples of Birmingham and Dubai, they demonstrate the use of design as a vehicle in driving change in the city with regard to urban landscapes. In contrast, the Central Market waterfront area shows us aspects of socio-cultural-led regeneration. This case is intended to explore the latest regeneration projects spearheaded by the state and the way that the role of design, with reference to the international examples, has influenced its shape.

In addition, there is limited literature documenting urban regeneration in Kuala Lumpur. Although the concepts in my literature have been mainly focused in parts of the industrialised West (Global North), they are actually applicable and useful in a Malaysian context. Watson (2007, p.2260) mentions that in the cities of the global south the planning systems have either been inherited from previous colonial governments or have been adopted from the North to suit particular local, political, and ideological ends. Indeed, these are the situations in Malaysia and the plan for the study is to

focus on the urban regeneration in the case study of Kuala Lumpur, urban development models operate is at the intersect of developed and developing context. Thus, drawing on the capital and narrative debate is appropriate, rather than concentrating on the broader debates around the developing context. However there are set of papers that have discussed how the ideas of communicative planning have been used in the developing context (Watson, 2002; Dave, 2009; Harpham and Boateng, 1997).

3.2.3 DATA COLLECTION

The fieldwork for the study took place from 22nd August 2013 to 31st January 2014. Various techniques and approaches to compile the data from the field were used for the research. My methods involved in-depth interviews (nature of the planning process), focus group discussion (to access awareness of the current community) and questionnaire surveys (used for the urban components to access and explore how these issues reflect on sustainable planning). Therefore in mixed methods research, the survey will be useful to understand the perceptions of the local community in a city centre development in the neighbourhood, which helps build a pattern for such assumptions. In this instance, the interviews and focus group discussions will help to verify some of the survey findings and increase the validity for theory building whilst identifying local considerations during the data analysis. These techniques are described in more detail in the subsections that follow, along with its limitation and the difficulties encountered during field research.

1. Secondary Data

The main form of documentary data used for this study was from the government's city centre planning for Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. In addition, census data of the 1990–2010 demography was also obtained from the Malaysian statistical department. The main challenges of this document

were its capital requirements that cost extensive monetary sums and time constraints in order to gather the data for the specific study boundary. Other secondary data used are books, articles, newspapers, magazines, reports and journals on urban design, social sustainability, and sustainable regeneration across the world. The secondary data used aided in providing the framework and contextual issues or questions that will be pursued in my primary research.

2. Primary Data

According to Hox and Boeije (2005, p. 539), “primary data are data that are collected for the specific problem at hand, using procedures that fit the research problem best.” The study adopts a combination of qualitative semi-structured interviews, and non-participant observation methods as well as surveys. The interviewing stage involved in-depth interviews and the conduction of focus group discussions. In-depth interviews were organised with local authorities and key stakeholders (planners, architects, developers) associated with the urban development of Kuala Lumpur city centre. Focus group discussions were conducted with local communities in the city centre. A survey was carried out on the general public. These methods were supplemented with archival records on city centre planning in Kuala Lumpur. The necessary archival data was gathered during the fieldwork period. The data collected includes the Kampong Bharu redevelopment booklet, pamphlets, KLCC Master Plan update report (Jan 2011), Traffic Assessment Report (1995), Draft of KL2020 Plan, the map layouts of the study areas, photographs of the River of Life Precinct 7 concept plan, etc. In addition, field notes and photos arising from the researcher’s personal observation of the condition of the city centre environment, the existing quality of urban design and how people use urban spaces in their everyday life, supplemented the analysis for the three case studies.

a) Key topics of investigation

To analyse the connection between the nature of sustainable city centre regeneration and the role of design, in-depth interviews were undertaken with the local agencies and key stakeholders including planners, architects and developers. Participants from the Kuala Lumpur city centre authorities consisted of government agencies and local authorities such as the Federal Department of Town and Country Planning; Performance Management and Delivery Unit (PEMANDU); Kuala Lumpur City Hall; Physical Planning Department, Project Implementation and Building Maintenance Department, Urban Planning Department, Physical Planning Department, and the Economic Planning and Development Coordination Department; Malay Agricultural Settlement; and Kampong Bharu Development Corporation. Enquiries about the current situation for the case studies were based on semi-structured interview questionnaires that consisted of six key themes to elicit information on the following topics (see Appendix A):

1. The interviewee's personal background and context
2. Power relationships (including aspects of authority and resources)
3. Negotiation processes (what, how and who was involved?)
4. Institutional design
5. Consensus building
6. Factors affecting the development of sustainable design-led regeneration

Thus, it facilitates the exploration of the balance between state/market/civil society relationships and other key influences shaping the specific type of sustainable design-led regeneration. The analysis was also supplemented with a substantial volume of archival records on regeneration plans and draft reports collected during the interviews.

In order to assess the aspects on civil society, focus group discussions were held with the community of Kampong Bharu to explore insights into their needs, expectations, attitudes and perceptions on sustainable design-led regeneration and the current regeneration plan. To obtain detailed information from the participants, the questionnaires consist of four key themes on the following topics (see Appendix B):

1. General information on sustainable design-led regeneration
2. Condition/state of design-led regeneration (survey questionnaires)
3. Collaborative planning (specific enquires on the policy, governance, involvement and how effective it is or has been?)
4. Factors affecting the development of sustainable city living.

A survey questionnaire is also included in the focus group discussions to explore the urban planning and design as well as community concerns on issues relating to the current design quality in the neighbourhood. According to Hox and Boeijs (2005, p. 594), “the strong point of survey is that it can provide information about subjective and objective characteristics of a population”. The standards used to quantify the condition of each indicator are: ‘Excellent’, ‘Average’ and ‘Poor’ including an optional column for the respondents to include a reason. The survey indicators are listed on the following aspects:

1. Accessibility
2. Comfort (sense of place)
3. Safety
4. Environment
5. Transportation facilities and services (including pedestrian and cyclist)
6. Recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square, etc.)
7. Maintenance
8. Community participation in regeneration process

Such information is relevant to generate patterns on issues that relate to the connection between city centre regeneration, urban design and social sustainability. Unfortunately, for the KLCC and Central Market waterfront area, only survey questionnaires were undertaken with the general public. The justification for this was due to KLCC being a highly exclusive area, which made it difficult to gain the participation of residents; whilst the Central Market waterfront area has a fairly low number of residents in the neighbourhood.

The survey questionnaires for the KLCC and Central Market waterfront area consist of three parts and may have taken a longer time to complete. However, the questions were simplified, short and straightforward. Images were shown to describe the design terms and guide participants to complete the questionnaires more effectively (see Appendix C and D). The standards used to quantify the condition of each indicator are: 'Excellent', 'Average' and 'Poor' including an optional column for the respondents to include a reason. Three essential criteria were identified to analyse people's satisfaction on the quality of design-led regeneration. Each theme has its indicator/s and these are listed in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1 Questionnaire survey for the general public of the KLCC and Central Market waterfront area

Justification of the Criteria	Theme	Indicators
<p>Part 1: Perception</p> <p>To examine the overall perception of urban fabric in the study area.</p>	Urban Fabric	<p>Consists of 8 indicators:</p> <p>Accessibility, building density and compactness, land use diversity, comfort, safety, physical barriers, transport facilities and services, and recreational and amenity facilities</p>
<p>Part 2: Interaction</p> <p>To examine the everyday life interaction related to the sense of attachment with the urban street design in shaping the social environment and activities.</p>	Streetscape	<p>Consists of 7 indicators:</p> <p>Sense of intimacy, façade continuity, softness, active frontage, safety, sedibility and street connectivity</p>
<p>Part 3: Experience</p> <p>To examine the quality of urban design and its impact/significance to the everyday life experience.</p>	<p>i) Building form and mass</p> <p>ii) Street design</p> <p>iii) Space and setbacks</p> <p>iv) Mixed-use</p> <p>v) Visual and sensory richness</p>	<p>Consists of 5 indicators:</p> <p>Density, compactness, building orientation, active frontage, and accessibility.</p> <p>Consists of 7 indicators:</p> <p>Accessibility, security, comfort, safety, pedestrian walkways/paths, cyclist lanes, and maintenance.</p> <p>Consists of 5 indicators:</p> <p>Continuity of space, sense of security, social activities, open space, and green space.</p> <p>Consists of 6 indicators:</p> <p>Land use diversity, community facilities, transport services and facilities, employment density, shared place and outdoor social space.</p> <p>Consists of 5 indicators:</p> <p>Lighting, urban and street furniture, softscapes, sedible arrangements, and space integration.</p>

Source: Author's construct (2013), adapted from WAMP (2001), the City of Tshwane Council (2007), Southwark Council (2011).

b) Recruitment

Purposive sampling was used to select participants for the study. All the participants are based in Kuala Lumpur and Putrajaya in Malaysia. The interviews and focus group discussions involved a range of key stakeholders: local authorities, architects, planners, developers and local communities. Appointments with key stakeholders were arranged by formal emails or through phone to request their participation. Appointments were then agreed and scheduled to enable active participation in the study. In addition, snowball sampling was used to gather other important individuals who are key and relevant for the study. Table 3.2 gives an overview of the total sample involved in the study. More than 50 hours of transcriptions were collected from 22 in-depth interviews and six focus group discussions for the three case studies. A total of 78 participants were involved in the study, 26 from city authorities including non/government agencies and professionals, 22 from local communities, and 30 participants from the general public.

Participation from local communities and the general public emerged from personal observation within the study areas, which allowed identification of potential key informants; community representatives, and when possible to establish first contact. I also randomly stopped people on site and requested their participation. There were some risks, such as the participant may have limited time to respond to the questionnaire survey because they might be on their lunch break or waiting for someone. Whilst the participant might have gone through half of the questionnaire, due to these circumstances the survey was left incomplete. In the end, the respondent had no choice but to withdraw from the study.

Table 3.2 An overview of the total sample involved in the study

City Authorities and Government Agencies	Other Key Stakeholders	The General Public and Local Communities of City Centre of Kuala Lumpur
Federal Department of Town and Country Planning – 1	2 planners	Kampong Bharu (22 participants: 6 youths, 10 adults, 6 elderly)
Malay Agricultural Settlement (MAS) – 1	2 architects	KLCC (15 respondents: 7 youths, 8 adults)
Kampong Bharu Development Corporation (KBDC) – 1	2 urban designers	Central Marker waterfront area (15 respondents: 7 youths, 6 adults, 2 elderly)
Performance Management and Delivery Unit (PEMANDU) – 1	1 project manager	
City Hall of Kuala Lumpur:	1 management and services general manager	
• Urban Planning Department – 4	1 developer	
• Physical Planning Department – 6		
• Project Implementation and Building Maintenance Department – 2		
• Economic Planning and Development Coordination Department – 1		

Source: Fieldwork (2013)

Initially, focus group discussions for Kampong Bharu cases comprised of 30 participants, divided into six different sessions of age groups to provide various demographic inputs. The sessions were planned to include age groupings of 1) 16–24 years, 2) 25–34 years, 3) 35–44 years, 4) 45–54 years, 5) 55–64 years, and 6) 65+ years, and each group to consist of 5–6 participants. Nevertheless, due to the limited fieldwork duration and commitments with the other two case studies, there were difficulties in gathering the participants by age group, as some of them may not be available on the same date or preferred to be interviewed individually, or arrived later because they had to travel from afar or have other commitments. As such, eight participants withdrew their participation at the last minute. The focus group discussions managed to have 22 participants of various ages from 17-year-old to 80-year-old. For this reason, I have simplified the categories of age groups to youths (16–24 years), adults (25–60 years) and elderly (61+ years). However, only 19 out of 22 participants completed the survey questionnaires. The data samples recorded that 12 of the participants are

residents in the neighbourhood, two of whom are immigrants who have lived in Kampong Bharu for almost 50 years, seven of the participants are landowners who used to live in the neighbourhood and three of the participants are both residents and landowners.

Although, many of the participants willingly contributed their insights for the study, there were challenges encountered during the fieldwork. The problem was getting the right feedback from the participants that relates to the intention of the research. For example, the focus group discussions with Kampong Bharu local community mainly express their worries on land purchase for the redevelopment. They are more concerned about issues on land ownerships. To overcome this, I have made a short presentation demonstrating a few examples and images to help them understand and reflect on the use of design to promote sustainable city centre regeneration. I also had issues with a particular interviewee who was from a high position. I was not able to obtain much information from the participant as a few key questions were classified as confidential and the session became uncomfortable when the discussion ended quickly rather than being allowed to probe deeper on the answers given. Nonetheless, more in-depth interviews were sought with other interviewees to provide insights from different viewpoints.

3.3 | ETHICS

This section discusses the ethical issues that were considered while undertaking this research, along with the decisions made and the implications from those decisions.

3.3.1 CONSENT

Participants in the focus groups, interviews and surveys were asked if they would like to voluntarily participate in the research study and where consent was granted, it was logged as a

signature on the consent form. The consent form also details that an outline of the research was provided to ensure the participants in focus groups, interviews and surveys have a general understanding of the research. A brief description of the researcher and supervisors were also included in the form. Consent and signatures were sought prior to the commencement of any form of data collection and/or interview. With regard to informed consent, the ethical guidelines of the British Sociological Society were adhered to. The paper document presented to the participants also includes essential information regarding anonymity, data storage and procedures for withdrawal from the study.

Data from in-depth interviews, surveys and focus group discussions were stored as digital audio recordings supported by notes. Personal observation was recorded within a field diary. Digital photos of physical (built) environments were taken in relation to exploration on urban design aspects of the research. As these photographs were undertaken in public places, no consent was required. However, any captured images, which inadvertently contained human subjects were blurred using digital manipulation.

3.3.2 PARTICIPANT FEEDBACK AND WITHDRAWAL

Participants were thanked for their time and involvement in the research. At the end of each data collection exercise, participants were informed on how their contribution to the research would be used in full confidentiality and anonymity. Non-technical summaries of the research will be made available to participants for personal reference. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw in the consent form and this was repeated again verbally at the start of each data collection exercise. The contact details of the researcher and supervisors on the consent form could be used at any time if the participant decided to withdraw from the research. If a participant

withdraws, any information that he/she provided would be destroyed. No records were kept of the number of participants that withdrew from the study.

3.3.3 MORAL DUTY AND CONFIDENTIALITY OF THE RESEARCH

In protecting the anonymity of the participants, all forms of identification such as names, telephone numbers and addresses of the participants were not collected during the data collection exercise. However, certain characteristics such as age, gender, employment and 'community background' have been collected. All data has been treated as confidential and stored in password-protected files. For participants in key positions such as government or high-ranking officials who may be easily identifiable to third parties, a copy of their transcripts were provided for approval and further consent so that they can be used in future publications. All paper-based data is stored in a locked cabinet. Data will normally be preserved and accessible for ten years and at all times, the Data Protection Act of 1998 regarding the use of personal data in research will be adhered to.

3.3.4 BARRIERS OF INTERACTION

In general, there is no critical risk attached to this research. I am a Malaysian citizen and have adequate knowledge about Kuala Lumpur's city centre areas. Interviews were conducted within a secure and safe environment. Appointments with key stakeholders were arranged in advance to enable me to plan my fieldwork schedule. Any unforeseen circumstances such as delays or reschedules were managed within the fieldwork period. Some participants were very accommodating and expressed their willingness to be contacted about the topic at any time, whenever necessary. Essentially, frequent updates (at least every two weeks), either by email or through Skype, were made with my supervisors during fieldwork to keep them updated on the

progress and field findings. Their highly appreciated guidance and advice were sought to ensure any issues faced were addressed accordingly.

3.4 | DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, the conceptual arguments on the series of driving factors (drivers of urban change; state/market/civil society; the key influences – policy, politics, governance and resources) are put forward to consider how urban design is delivered between these contexts and the extent to which they shape the types of sustainable city centre regeneration. Sustainable city centre regeneration together with sustainable urban design components transform and promote a better environment for sustainable city centre living. Thus, the types of design we can see in a built environment will vary between different places. But first, the coding process will be discussed.

3.4.1 CODING

Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Codes are usually attached to ‘chunks’ of varying size – words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs.

(Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 56)

Specific steps were followed to analyse the data in this study. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that qualitative data analysis consists of three phases. These phases are data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification. The process involves organisation of data in the data reduction phase. In the first phase of coding, I looked for a distinct concept then categorised it in relation to the research question. This forms the basic units of the analysis. This is known as ‘open coding’ and the categories list of codes helped to identify major issues that emerged in the data set.

Table 3.3 summarises a list of the general items that can be coded. Essentially, when coding, Charmaz (2003, pp. 94–95) suggests looking for questions about what is going on?; what are people doing?; what is the person saying?; what do these actions and statements take for granted?; and how do structure and context serve to support, maintain, impede or change these actions and statements?

Then, in the second phase, axial coding was developed by repetitive reading of the qualitative data, then ideal categories or themes were identified. Similar data that can be categorised were compiled together under the same theme. Once categorised and compiled, the interpretation of data was carried out analytically for a better understanding of their content and context. This helped to enter the second phase of data display to draw conclusions from the codes accordingly in the form of tables, charts, networks and other graphical formats. Subsequently, identification of trends, patterns and explanation in the codes were supported with theoretical views. Finally, an analysis of the findings from different data sources was included in the secondary data and was integrated at the conclusion drawing/verification phase to demonstrate trustworthiness in the analysis. Under this phase, the validity of the analysis was also examined through references on my field notes. In analysing data in case studies, the study used an analytical framework to provide a more helpful approach to develop a conclusion to this study. This is discussed in the following subsection.

Table 3.3 Types of phenomena that can be coded (Gibbs and Taylor, 2010 adapted from Bogdan and Biklen, 1992; Strauss, 1987; Gibbs, 2006)

No.	What can be coded	Example
1	Behaviours, specific acts	Seeking reassurance, bragging
2	Events – short once in a lifetime events or things people have done that are often told as a story	Wedding day, day moved out of home for university, starting first job
3	Activities – these are of a longer duration, involve other people within a particular setting	Going clubbing, attending a night course, conservation work
4	Strategies, practices or tactics	Being nasty to get dumped, staying late at work to get promotion
5	States – general conditions experienced by people or found in organisations	Hopeless “I’ll never meet anyone better at my age” settling for someone who is not really suitable
6	Meanings – a wide range of phenomena at the core of much qualitative analysis. Meanings and interpretations are important parts of what directs participants’ actions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. What concepts do participants use to understand their world? b. What norms, values and rules guide their actions c. What meaning or significance it has for participants, how do they construe events, what are the feelings d. What symbols do people use to understand their situation? e. What names do they use for objects, events, persons, roles, setting and equipment? 	The term ‘chilling out’ is used by young people to mean relaxing and not doing very much Jealousy “I just felt why did she get him” A PhD is referred to as ‘a test of endurance’ (because finishing a PhD is a challenge)
7	Participants’ adaptation to a new setting or involvement	About new neighbours “In my new house I have to keep my music down at night as the neighbours have young children”
8	Relationships or interaction	Seeing family “Now my sister lives in the next road she visits more and we’ve become much closer”
9	Conditions and constraints	Loss of job (before financial difficulties), moving away (before lost contact with old friends)
10	Consequences	Confidence gets dates, positive attitude attracts opportunities
11	Settings – the entire context of the events under study	University, work place, housing estate
12	Reflexive – researcher’s role in the process, how intervention generated the data	Probing question “How did you feel when he said that?”

Source: Gibbs and Taylor (2010)

3.4.2 ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Based around the theoretical foundations highlighted in the literature review chapter, the diagram developed in Figure 3.1 illustrates a set approach and steps towards a sustainable city centre regeneration. It describes that a sustainable city centre regeneration is informed by a number of influencing factors, particularly 1) drivers of urban changes; 2) types of sustainable design-led

regeneration and 3) sustainable urban design components. Firstly, drivers of urban change are steered by globalisation, urbanisation or a combination of both. Secondly, there are two distinct aspects shaping each specific type of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration. The first aspect focuses on the balance of relationships between the state/market/civil society. It grasps the fundamental development driver on which momentum is more influential in shaping regeneration aspiration. The second aspect will look at a set of key influences that affects the development of sustainable design-led regeneration: 1) policy, 2) politics, 3) governance and 4) resources. Both are significant because they influence the nature of regeneration in the city. Subsequently, these will also reflect on the planning and the urban character we see in a built environment.

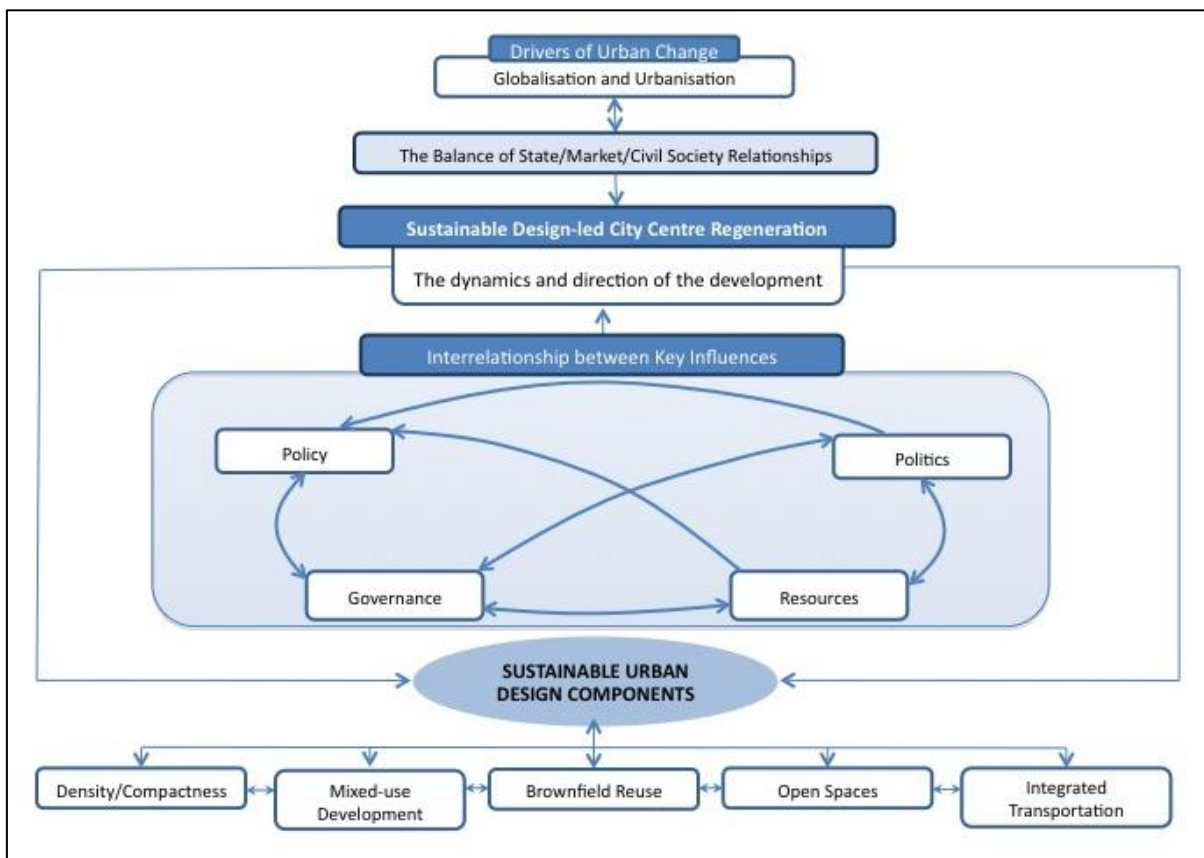


Figure 3.1 Analytical framework of sustainable city centre regeneration

Source: Author's construct (2013)

Finally, there are five sustainable urban design components: 1) density and compactness, 2) mixed-use, 3) brownfield reuse, 4) open spaces and 5) integrated transportation. These components are the key principals and the ideal way forward in creating a desirable urban environment for living. As we highlighted these key drivers, influences and issues it appears that the Kuala Lumpur case study may relate to the influences/drivers defined in this discussion. Nevertheless, there is obvious differentiation in the way the detailed design responds on issues relating to sustainability in a particular place. Despite relative influences on the design, approaches varied according to drivers of urban change and the nature of different settings; the emergence of high-quality urban design was motivated by the desire to be one of the best cities in the world. The situation of the city as a whole is very important in attracting people to visit/live/work/invest in the city. By looking at the case studies from abroad, the different uses of urban design in shaping the urban environment have been identified with recommendations for sustainable city centre regeneration of the future.

3.5 | CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have provided definitions and justification of the various techniques and approaches used for the analysis of this study. I have defined the research philosophy and discussed the approach used for the case studies that guides this research. The case study analysis was founded on interviews with local authorities and key stakeholders (including planners, architects and developers); data collection of archival records on city centre planning of Kuala Lumpur and draft reports; and includes focus group discussions with the community of the neighbourhood as well a survey to evaluate the impact of urban development on the quality of environment therein; and the researcher's field dairy of observations on the condition of the city centre environment, the quality of urban design and how people use urban spaces in their everyday life. A detailed analysis and discussion of the data obtained in the three case studies will be provided in the next chapter, preceded by a discussion of their context.

CHAPTER 4

SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION: A STUDY OF KUALA LUMPUR, MALAYSIA, AN ASPIRING WORLD CITY

INTRODUCTION

Many urban developments in Kuala Lumpur appear to have been designed without understanding of what sustainable planning really means. Developments to date mostly include projects aiming to provide world-class urban infrastructure, and have been focused on the material built form, with less emphasis on local community needs and ideas of social sustainability. Little consideration has been given to the physical environment with regards to the urban population who live and work in the city on an everyday basis. Indeed, as discussed in Chapter 2, issues of social diversity and spatial segregation can be related to other urban problems in the city.

The aim of this chapter is thus to present the Malaysian urban context and indeed the case of Kuala Lumpur; it will also analyse the extent to which key drivers identified in other parts of the world have influenced sustainable city centre regeneration in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. This chapter consists of two main sections. The first section explores the development of Kuala Lumpur city and critically analyses the different features of sustainable city centre regeneration. The second section subsequently explores three case studies of the research in Kuala Lumpur city centre: (1) Kampong Bharu, (2) the Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) project – the Petronas Twin Towers and (3) the Central Market waterfront area.

4.1 | SUSTAINABLE CITY CENTRE REGENERATION IN KUALA LUMPUR, MALAYSIA

As in many big cities in developing countries, rapid city centre development has resulted in little consideration of social and local contexts. The design of the built environment that centred on the development of physical infrastructures pays less attention to social and environmental aspects for the inhabitants. The situation in Malaysian urban development as defined by Siong (2008, p. 22) is “unique due to its rural-urban migration, ethnic polarisation and economic disparity”. This section will provide an overview of Kuala Lumpur sustainable city centre regeneration with the objective of looking at it through the lens of an aspiring world city.

4.1.1 AN OVERVIEW OF MALAYSIAN URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Since Malaysia became independent in 1957, rapid economic development and urbanisation has taken place mainly in inner city and new growth areas in the country (Ahmad et al., 2009). The Malaysian administrative system is divided into three levels: the federal government, state government and local government. As a top-down organisation, the responsibility for implementing policy is shared by various ministries, departments and agencies. The Malaysian government has implemented various policies such as National Economic Policy (1970–1990), National Development Policy (1991–2000), National Vision Policy (2001–2010) and Economic Transformation Programme (2010–2020) to strengthen social and economic growth in the country. Table 4.1 below summarises the objectives of the Malaysian plan and policies. By and large, these policies have gradually guided the national targets and agenda to become a fully developed country by the year 2020 (Somun, 2003).

The Vision 2020 was introduced in 1991 as a longer-term goal for the nation of Malaysia; the main aims are to modernise and develop along all dimensions: economically, politically, socially,

spiritually, psychologically and culturally (Mohammad, 1991; Somun, 2003). Along with the long-term perspective plans such as Outline Perspective Plans (OPP1, OPP2, and OPP3), the five-year Malaysia development plans (2nd–10th Malaysia Plans) help to monitor and establish an efficient, equitable and sustainable national framework guide towards becoming a developed nation by 2020. In essence, the 8th Malaysia Plan (2001–2005) and 9th Malaysia Plan (2006–2010) have emphasised the need to guide and coordinate planning and urban development to handle the increase in the urban population by 2020 (Federal Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia, 2006). In 2006, the National Urbanisation Policy (NUP) was established with the aim to create an environment that offers a peaceful community and living environment through sustainable urban development (Abdul Rashid, 2010). The policy is crucial to improve the effectiveness of urban service quality to provide safe, systematic, modern and attractive cities (Abdul Rashid, 2011).

Siong (2008) argues that through the implementation of the Town and Country Planning Act 172 (amended Act A1129), development policies, strategies, programmes and economic activities proposed under the Structure Plans and Local Plans have brought a wider transformation to the urban centre and urban system as a whole. Equally, the National Physical Planning (NPP1, NPP2) introduced in 2001, have provided a long-term strategic framework for federal and state governments to control development and land administration. Accordingly, the Kuala Lumpur Structure Plan 2020 (KLSP 2020) drafted by the government has put more emphasis on social, economic, physical, traffic, environmental and other issues with a view to minimise or solve issues and problems faced by the city inhabitants (Zerin Properties, 2003; Omar and Hoon Leh, 2009). The KLSP 2020 sets out policy for urban development for the next 20 years.

Table 4.1 A summary of the Malaysian plan and policies

	National Policies	Descriptions
1970–1990	The National Economic Plan (NEP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">•The policy has two objectives (Siong, 2008, p. 15):<ul style="list-style-type: none">(i) Poverty eradication and(ii) Elimination of economic disparities between and among the various ethnic groups and geographical areas
1991–2000	The National Development Policy (NDP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">•The policy continued to pursue most of NEP policies and aims to fulfil the objectives of Vision 2020
2001–2010	National Vision Plan (NVP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">•The aim of the policy is to establish a united, progressive and prosperous Malaysian nation that lives in harmony and engages in full and fair partnership (Izad, 2012)•The NVP was launched with a focus on building a resilient and competitive nation, which incorporates past strategies of eradicating poverty irrespective of race, promoting an equitable society and pursuing balanced development (Izad, 2012)
2010–2020	Economic Transformation Programme (ETP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">•The policy aims to push Malaysia towards becoming a high-income developed nation by 2020•The ETP consists of two parts:<ul style="list-style-type: none">(i) The twelve National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs), which will provide focus for economic growth, and(ii) The six Strategic Reforms Initiatives (SRIs), which enable policy reforms to ensure competitiveness in the global arena

However, urban (re)development in Malaysia fails to acknowledge fully the local community's needs and demands particularly on the aspects of social and environmental quality (Mohammad, 1991; FDTC, 2006). Although Malaysian policies have firmly emphasised the importance of it, the development does not take into account the balance of state/market/civil society relationships. The Federal Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia (FDTC) has included in their report that:

Non-compliance with the existing development plans has also contributed to this problem. This situation has given rise to various urbanisation related woes such as environmental pollution, traffic congestion, brownfield areas, loss of inner city attractions, infrastructural decay, lack of social amenities and green areas; ultimately resulting in degradation in the quality of urban living.

(FDTC, 2006, p. 16)

The development forces between the state and the market are driven by urban entrepreneurialism and a global competitiveness type of regeneration. A massive improvement in economic growth and urban service quality in modern cities can be seen under this urban governance. Yet, the city environment does not fully cater to encourage a higher quality of life in the city. In particular, the development needs to focus on social and environmental sustainability.

1. Kuala Lumpur city centre development

The Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur is the national capital and the largest urban region of Malaysia. Its surrounding urban areas form the most industrialised in Malaysia and economically are among the fastest growing regions (World Capital Institute, 2013). The Kuala Lumpur metropolitan (see Figure 4.1) covers an area of 243 km² and had a population of approximately 1.7 million in 2010 and population density with 6,891 persons per square kilometre (Malaysian Census, 2010). The ethnic groups in the Kuala Lumpur populations are comprised of 44.2% of Malays (also known as Bumiputera), 43.2% of Chinese, 10.3% of Indians and 1.8% others (Malaysian Census, 2010). The city centre total area of 18.13 km² covers the hills of *Bukit Nenas*, *Bukit Ceylon*, *Bukit Tunku* and the river valleys of the Klang River and Gombak River (see red area for the city centre boundary in Figure 4.1). It is anticipated that the city centre population will increase from 128,721 in 2000 to 245,600 by 2020 and employment will increase from 396,036 in 2000 to 438,010 by 2020 (CHKL, 2004). In essence, the city management is business-oriented towards city competitiveness (Abdul Rashid et al., 2010). The

City Hall of Kuala Lumpur (CHKL), an agency under the Ministry of Federal Territories and Wellbeing of Malaysia, is the local authority that is responsible for the administration and development of the city. The CHKL is accountable for town planning; environmental protection and building control; social and economic development; and general maintenance functions of urban infrastructure in the city (Alhabshi, 2010).

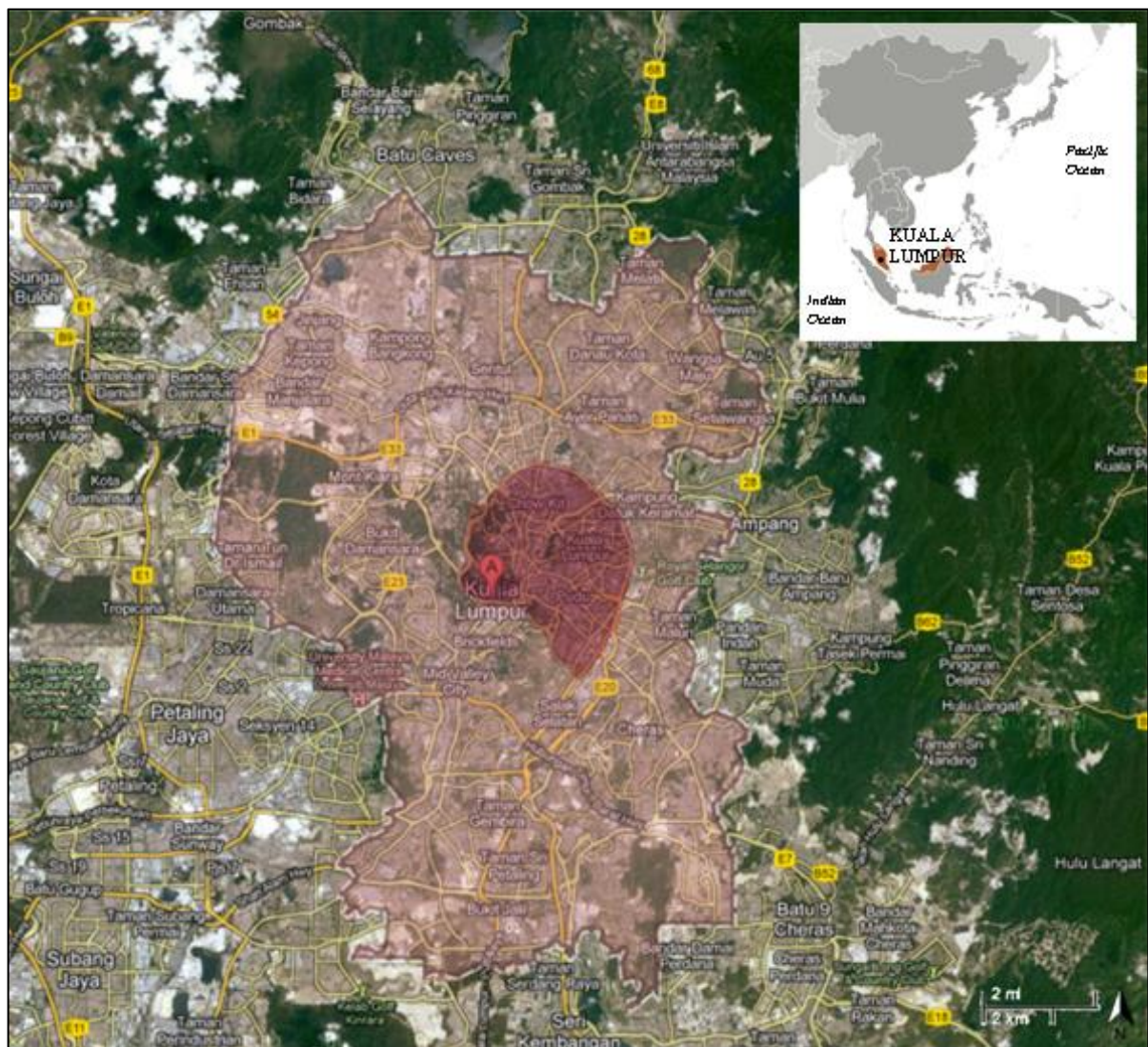


Figure 4.1 Map of the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur (pink) and the city centre boundaries (red)
Source: Google Map (2012)

Historically, Kuala Lumpur was a former mining settlement, where the rivers Klang and Gombak converge. In the later years of the nineteenth century (1868 to 1885), a Chinese Kapitan

named Yap Ah Loy, who administered the Chinese settlement, had a crucial impact on Kuala Lumpur growth and development as a commercial and mining centre. Following the early stages of its existence as a growing village, Kuala Lumpur became a modern town when the British representative, Frank Swettenham, developed the first city plan in 1880. They were the two most prominent figures in shaping the beginning of the Kuala Lumpur development. Kuala Lumpur was the former capital of Selangor (one of Malaysia's thirteen states, which now surround the Federal Territories of Kuala Lumpur). After the departure of British rule in 1957 and later the formation of Malaysia in 1963, Kuala Lumpur became the capital of Malaysia.

Urban development in Kuala Lumpur can be divided into three phases. The first phase began during post-independence years (1957–1970s), when the modern town underwent a rapid process of economic growth and urbanisation. Kuala Lumpur became the administrative centre and took centre stage in national development (Ahmad et al., 2009; Yeoh and Hirschman, 1980). In 1972, Kuala Lumpur was given city status; two years later it separated from Selangor and then became the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. The city instantly became the centre for many socio-economic activities including business, finance, administration, education, religion, culture and sports (CHKL, 2013). The process also included major changes, particularly in the National Economy Policy (NEP), which aimed to promote and prioritise Malay economic development (Hing, 1997; Thompson, 2007).

The second phase of development ranged from the mid-1980s until the 2000s, during the leadership of the former Prime Minister of Malaysia, Tun Dr Mahathir Mohamad (also known as the Father of Modernisation). Rapid industrialisation and the establishment of new growth areas took place throughout this period. Developments in Kuala Lumpur remarkably underwent a policy shift involving privatisation and economic liberalisation (Global Cities Research Institutes, 2009). There were major transformations and dramatic landscape changes; the city also undertook a reorientation in its positioning from the federal capital to aspiring to be a national 'node' in global networks

(Bunnell et al., 2002; Global Cities Research Institute, 2011), marking the preliminaries of trying to position it as a world city. The Global Cities Research Institute (2011) argues that the centralisation of political authority had made Kuala Lumpur the focus of spectacular mega-projects involving government-link conglomerates and tycoons (i.e. Petroliaam Nasional Berhad (PETRONAS), Genting Group, Yeoh Tiong Lay (YTL) Corporation, Air Asia, etc.). Consequently the city socio-cultural setup and demography started to change rapidly. The KLSP 2020 was initiated in the early 2000s to revise the 1984 Kuala Lumpur Structure Plan in response to these unprecedented physical growths and changes in the city.

Finally, the third phase of development is characterised by the current government agenda (2010 until present), as part of the Economic Transformation Programme (ETP) on National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs) in particular for Greater Kuala Lumpur/Klang Valley (Greater KL/KV). In Greater KL/KV, the Kuala Lumpur metropolitan area extends beyond the boundaries of the city (see Figure 4.2). The combined population total of this area was approximately 6 million in 2008 and is expected to increase to 10 million by 2020. The dynamics of the development are central to economic growth; the improvement of liveability in the light of the Vision 2020 aspirations are also made priorities testifying to growing concerns for society. The primary objective is to be among the world's top 20 in terms of economic growth and liveable cities. In 2015, Kuala Lumpur ranks 74th on the Economic Intelligence Unit Liveability Index survey outperforming cities such as Seoul (ranked 58th), Singapore (49th), and Hong Kong (46th). Greater KL/KV is the only geographical focus out of the twelve NKEAs. Interestingly, NKEAs were jointly established by private and public sectors from a series of workshop conducted over a two month period in 2010 by the Performance Management and the Delivery Unit (PEMANDU), an agency supervised by the Prime Minister's Department of Malaysia (Abdullah Sani, 2010; Zalkapli; 2010). The workshops were undertaken with 80 invited stakeholders from government agencies and ministries, 18 from non-governmental organisations

(NGOs) and 327 from the private sector to ensure that the state invested in areas generating the highest possible income (Zalkapli, 2010).

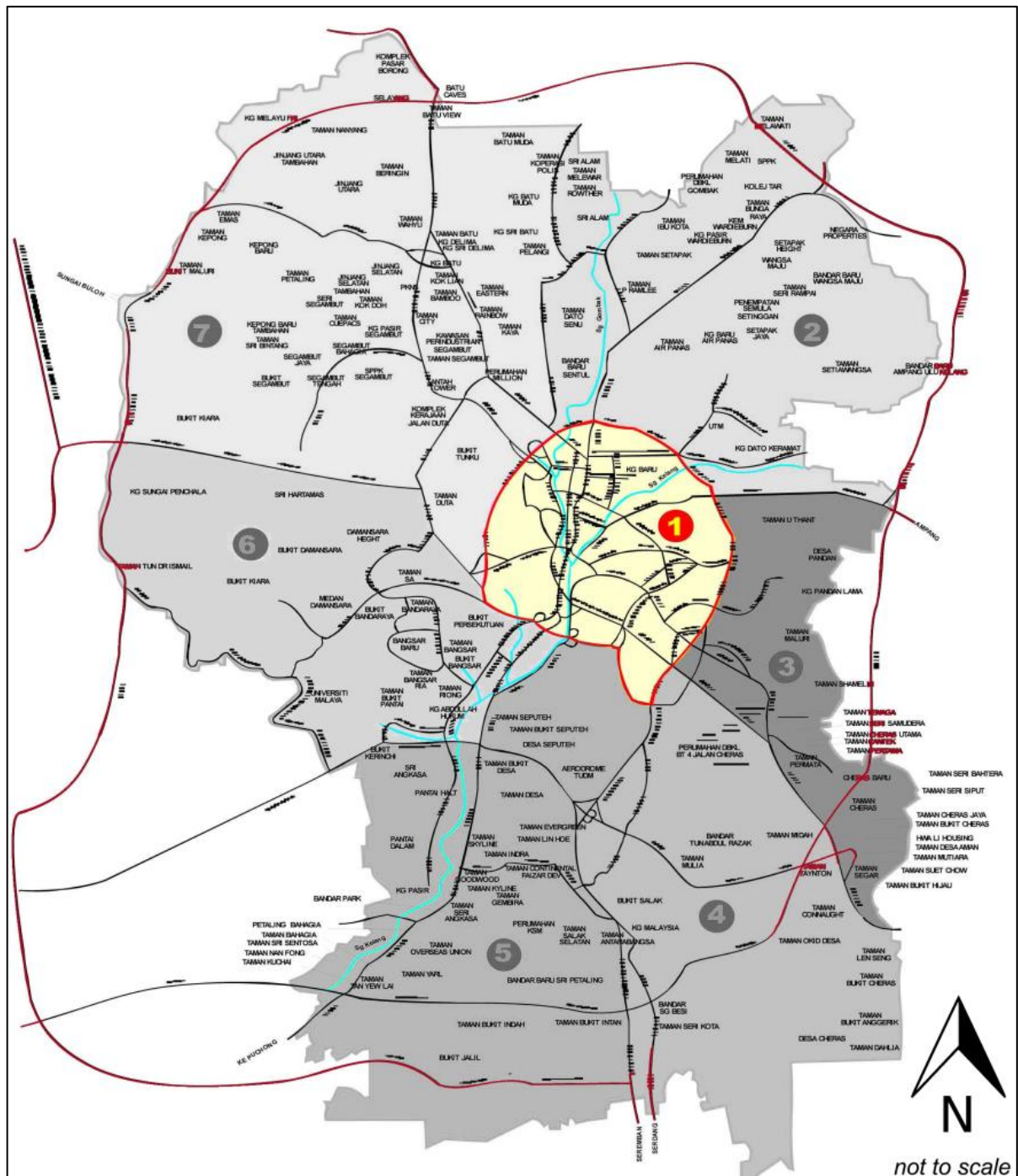


Figure 4.2 Greater Kuala Lumpur extends beyond the boundaries of Kuala Lumpur (outer red boundary line)

Source: Economic Transformation Program (2010)

In summary, the phases of urban development in Malaysia highlight that urbanisation has always been one of the key drivers of economic growth. As a developing country, Malaysia has initiated a number of high-intensity infrastructure and commercial developments to facilitate Vision 2020 for a modern and developed nation (Ibrahim and Leong, 2015). Likewise, the national aspiration 'towards a world-class city' has identified "urban regeneration as one of the urban planning mechanisms that can help achieve the target" (CHKL, 2004, 2008; Rosly and Abd Rashid, 2013, p. 4). Table 4.2 summarises the Kuala Lumpur characteristics and specificities of an aspiring world city. More importantly, there has been an escalating shift from state to market provision. The first and second phase has established urban economic opportunities, which have mainly attracted people from the rural areas to migrate to the cities and new growth centres. As a consequence, overcrowding of the population prompted housing and social issues as well as difficult access to services and facilities. Other than the expected population increase, spatial expansion and economic growth, the striking nature of infrastructural change has been a primary aspect of the development of Kuala Lumpur (Global Cities Research Institute, 2009): massive road infrastructure work in the first phase, local rail services (Light Rail Transit [LRT], Keretapi Tanah Melayu [KTM] Komuter and Kuala Lumpur Monorail) during the second phase and in the latest phase, Mass Rapid Transit (MRT) construction and LRT extension projects. There are certain issues in sustainable city centre regeneration identified in the Kuala Lumpur case study, which also highlight the importance of the balance between state/market/civil society relations. The state and market forces depict the power relationships, which influence the kind of development we see in Kuala Lumpur. Next, we will evaluate key design issues of relevance to the planning process, as well as the impact on the urban environment and the community therein.

Table 4.2 Kuala Lumpur characteristics and specificities of an aspiring world city

	Kuala Lumpur
Model of Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capital and an aspiring world city in the developing world • ‘Alpha’ world city
National Aspiration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Towards a world-class city (CHKL, 2008): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – World-class working environment – World-class living environment – World-class business environment – World-class governance • World’s top 20 in both economic growth and liveable cities (summarised as 20-20 by 2020)
Labour Market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commercial, financial and business services • Tourism • Major headquarters
Land Market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real estate development
The Provision of Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Airport • KL Monorail, LRT, KTM Komuter
Mechanism of Urban Regeneration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visionary leadership – modern and developed nation • Business-led, commercial-led and tourism-led development • Flagship and mega-event developments (Commonwealth Games, Sepang F1 Circuit) • Infrastructural improvement (extending the LRT network, High Speed Rail Kuala Lumpur-Singapore, building an integrated Mass Rapid Transit system) • Heritage and cultural sites: creation of a distinctive city image and identity
Global Image	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Iconic architecture: Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) – Petronas Twin Towers • Kuala Lumpur International Airport • International commercial and financial centre

Source: Author’s construct

2. Kuala Lumpur sustainable city centre regeneration: Key design issues

Rapid urbanisation in Kuala Lumpur led to many related urban development issues such as physical infrastructures, built environment, space, social and cultural as well as safety and security. The key design issues are often poor on aspects for integrated design that give priority to connectivity, accessibility, social inclusion, high-quality public space and sustainability (UTF, 2005). The nature of city centre development focusing on business and economic growth has neglected the social aspects and local context. This has resulted in high living costs and low quality of life in the city. Madanipour (2006) argues that the role of design is significant in the process of major structural development and the changing context of cities. He adds:

Even when visions are developed for the future of a place, they have tended to be variations on global trends, rather than establishing local distinctions, and imposed from above, rather than being decided in consultation with people.

(Madanipour, 2006, p. 187)

The future of the city is the responsibility of the City Hall and of the related stakeholders (i.e. the government, NGOs, developers, financiers, etc.) to spearhead the city region's economy. The state maintains its role as an enabler but continues to monitor the performance of private developers in constructing and delivering the city projects (Abd Aziz et al., 2007). This top-down initiative is not only between public-private sectors but also between public-public organisations. The joint-venture project or, as it is widely known, the public-private partnership (PPP), has aimed to release the financial burden on the state as well as demonstrate serious commitment from the state to expedite the supply to the market.

Although public participation was part of the process and to some extent represents state/market/civil society relationships, Abdullah et al. (2015, p. 72) criticise that planning consultants and local authority officers would be likely to "listen and note opinions and suggestions forwarded by people who tend to be community and business leaders." Whereas, the public were only involved in negotiation processes through methods of 'public exhibition' and 'public hearing' after the draft KLSP 2020 was completed and within a specific and limited timeline (Omar and Hoon Leh, 2009). The public were not included in participation in the process of preparing a development plan and also the information of the development was not, for the most part, accessible to the public view. Hence, public participation must aim to engage with other issues on equality, environment, safety, power and governance by establishing a partnership between the planner, the local community and related agencies (Peerapun, 2011, cited in Abdullah et al., 2015).

Urbanisation that took place in pre and post modernisation has pushed urban land uses to extend to the conversion of more rural lands into urban-industrial complexes and buildings. The government has taken the initiative to provide low-medium cost housing, particularly in the outskirting areas of Kuala Lumpur. Consequently, car dependency has become dominant in transport in Malaysia. This scenario has impacted in massive traffic congestion in the city areas, especially Kuala Lumpur city centre. Inadequate transport provisions, inefficient urban transport systems and poor urban design for pedestrian-friendly environments do not give inhabitants other choices rather than to adapt to the city nature. The development is too focused on physical infrastructure that strives towards high-density commercial and business facilities. However, there is uncertainty this would encourage liveability and quality of life in the city centre. Healthy and sustainable environments will be promoted by focusing on car dependency issues, including the conversion of parking space for other uses and addressing the issues on security and safety.

The demand for land in Kuala Lumpur has led to a diminishing of green areas and open spaces to cater for various urban uses. Therefore, the social and physical changes in the city landscape have resulted in a dense and congested urban environment along with poor living conditions for the inhabitants. Also, any provision for healthy and sustainable living within the urban environment is often poorly laid out. The quality of life survey in 1998 has revealed a high level of dissatisfaction in respect of accessibility to recreational facilities (CHKL, 2003, cited in Azwar and Ghani, 2009). The city has a low level of integration to encourage social interaction and high-quality urban living. In fact, limited urban space in the city centre has resulted in housing decline and shortages of affordable housing for the low-income households in Kuala Lumpur (CHKL, 2004).

The industrialisation of the city has brought a rapid shift in migration of people from rural to urban living as the city offers greater economic and job opportunities. Moreover, it also attracted illegal immigrants from neighbouring countries (i.e. Indonesia, Nepal, Bangladeshi, etc.). These

immigrants soon became a part of the society and the local people perceived that the immigrant groups damaged the place identity. As such, issues of crime, safety and security are main concerns to both local authorities and the city inhabitants. The literature review chapter has discussed that sense of place and the urban environment are affected by the diverse conditions of the urban population (Hutter, 2007, cited in Maidin and Mohamad, 2011). Most forms of crime involve human interaction and take place when there are vulnerable people and environments, high population densities, rapid changes in social environments and poor living conditions (Che Soh, 2012). Hence, redevelopment of dilapidated, unused and abandoned sites should take into account social and cultural aspects to enhance the character and uniqueness of the neighbourhood (Rosly and Abd Rashid, 2013, p. 11).

While Kuala Lumpur has benefited from improved infrastructure, the city has been suffering from a lack of resource efficiency. On this account, it is important to explore alternative ways of what design can do to overcome the limitations of resources available in the area. The design and built environment in the city lack sensitivity of the local community and disregard the mutual value of physical and social environments. A place that promotes the welfare of, and opportunities for, all users in terms of ease of living, working and travelling is likely to foster more positive feelings. Thus, to improve social sustainability new relationships between urban design need to be established for sustainable city centre regeneration in Kuala Lumpur.

4.2 | THE CASE STUDIES IN CITY CENTER OF KUALA LUMPUR

The three case studies selected for this research sit within the city centre which is divided into eight sectors (see Figure 4.3) known for their distinctive urban identity and character: Parkland Sector, Urban Valley Corridor, Northern Special Character Area, Golden Triangle and Eastward Linkage, Pivotal Bukit Sector, Southern Ridge, Southern Urban Corridor, and Eastern Corridor (CHKL,

2004). Figure 4.3 shows the location of the three case studies. Furthermore, these case studies also take place at different times scales.

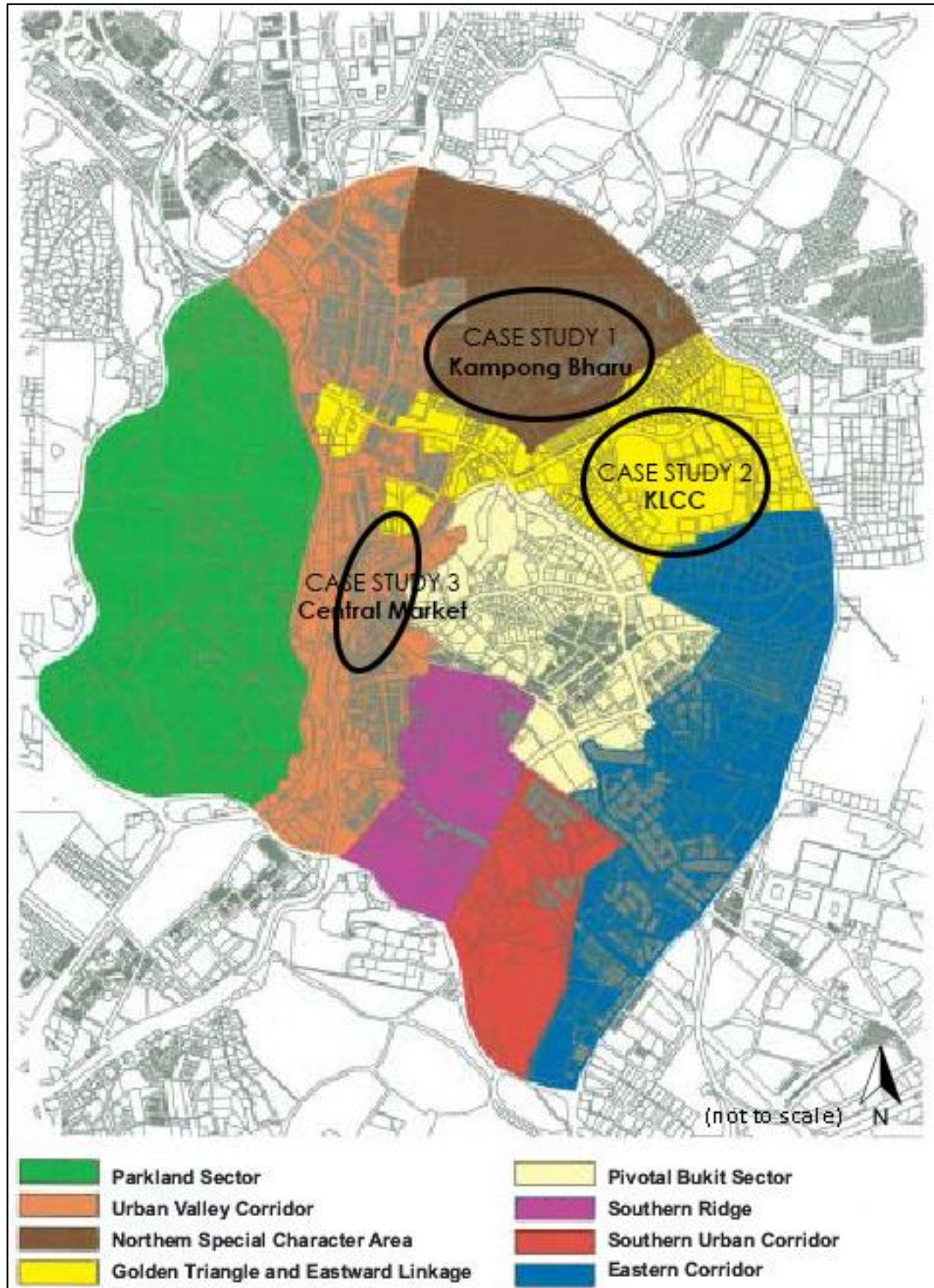


Figure 4.3 The location of the three case studies in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur

Source: KLSP 2020 (CHKL, 2004)

4.2.1 KAMPONG BHARU

The first case study is Kampong Bharu, a 110-year-old Malay urban village redevelopment challenge highlighting the need for residential-led regeneration. Kampong Bharu, located approximately 1 kilometre away from the KLCC, remains the only indigenous land within the city centre of Kuala Lumpur but due to its location, the pressure and interest to redevelop Kampong Bharu is intense. It is feared that new modern and high-rise development would result in the displacement of this unique and historic neighbourhood. The development in Kampong Bharu is slightly slow to progress and has faced many failures since it was first proposed in 1971. Kampong Bharu land is estimated to be worth up to RM4.2 billion (The Malaysian Insider, 2013). The total area of the Kampong Bharu Malay Reserve is approximately 222 acres and consists of seven villages. Each village has a village representative known as headman of the village. In 1990, Kampong Bharu was announced as Malay Reserved Areas (MRAs) under the Malay Reservation Enactment of 1913 and the Land Enactment of 1987 (CHKL, 2004). The land may not be sold or leased to, be transferred to, or occupied by non-Malays. Thus, the potential development plan for converting Kampong Bharu into a modern commercial area has to be the “most complex and problematic project” due to this legal status (for further reading see Omar and Md Yusof, 2002).

Kampong Bharu characterized by relative tranquillity and neat layout of traditional Malay villages, has relatively been retarded in its development with poor roads and sanitation even though the rest of the capital city and Malaysia was enjoying a boom in economic growth and prosperity.

(Alhabshi, 2010, p. 280)

The Kampong Bharu layout plan comprises individual dwelling units as well as compact and relatively small lot sizes (see Figure 4.4). Many landowners of single dwelling units have converted

value (Zerin Properties, 2003). The strategy is to develop integrated mixed developments of residential, commercial and industrial uses and to improve community infrastructure, facilities and services that meet demands of the existing dwellers. Essentially, the federal government is struggling to lease land from the owners to non-bumiputeras/foreign companies for investment. This market limitation results in lower valuations for compensation and a lower potential for any ambitious development. Fang (2011) argues that there is reasonable scepticism about the redevelopment proposal, thereby little progress has been achieved and matters remain unresolved. The project is expected to be ready by 2017. In an effort to expedite progression, in 2011, the federal government established the Kampong Bharu Development Corporation Act (733) to address regulations in matters relating to the Kampong Bharu context and ensure smooth progress of the redevelopment.

Overall, the Kampong Bharu development requires effective governance to achieve the aspects of sustainable city centre regeneration. Unlike the KLCC development (see 4.2.2), this regeneration needs to deal with the existing community and the restrictions of the Malay special land order. Issues between the local community and government development plans need to be resolved to allow for better understanding of the development. Most importantly, the conflicts in Kampong Bharu have gradually facilitated public participation in the process to negotiate on the regeneration plan. The uniqueness and challenges of the case study encompass numerous aspects related to the state, market and civil society relationships in shaping a regeneration that preserves a Malay identity in the city – historical, cultural and architectural.

4.2.2 KUALA LUMPUR CITY CENTRE (KLCC) – THE PETRONAS TWIN TOWERS

The second case study is Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC), an urban redevelopment project, which has been regarded as a success story for Malaysia. It includes the Petronas Twin Towers – the world's tallest twin buildings. Certainly, KLCC is the most prominent point of reference in the Kuala

Lumpur urban landscape and is a symbol of Malaysia's international status (Ibrahim and Leong, 2015). Unveiled by the former fourth Prime Minister, Tun Dr Mahathir Mohamad in September 1992, KLCC was a top-down visionary idea in realising the Vision 2020 (Bunnell, 1999). The KLCC has illustrated unique and high-quality mixed-use redevelopment, which reflects similar strategies used by developed countries. This project of national significance took place between the mid-1990s to mid-2000s driven by commercial and business-led regeneration and has seen the development of a new city centre in Kuala Lumpur (Bunnell, 1999). The KLCC set a trend for large-scale infrastructure projects with a plan to achieve creative and innovative multiple redevelopment objectives.

The project occupying a 100-acre piece of land of a former colonial racecourse, Selangor Turf Club in the heart of Kuala Lumpur is located around *Jalan Ampang, Jalan P.Ramlee, Jalan Binjai, Jalan Kia Peng* and *Jalan Pinang* (see Figure 4.5). In the era of globalisation, the regeneration strategy aimed at world-class provision of urban infrastructures and services, and sustainable urban development (Hassan and Hanif, 2010). It was designed to develop an integrated mixed-used development where people can work, live, visit, shop, and enjoy leisure and cultural activities to enhance the quality of living in the city of Kuala Lumpur. The project development was focused on seven primary land uses that provide more than 18 million sq. ft. of integrated mixed-used development: offices, hotels, retail, convention centre, residential, recreational facilities and infrastructures and 50 acres of green areas for public parks. Thereby such diversity of uses adds vitality and benefits to attract economic activities as the basis for the social and economic development of the city. The development advocates integrated transportation such as LRT, bus, taxi and pedestrian-friendly areas to cater for people's ease of movement within the urban vicinity.

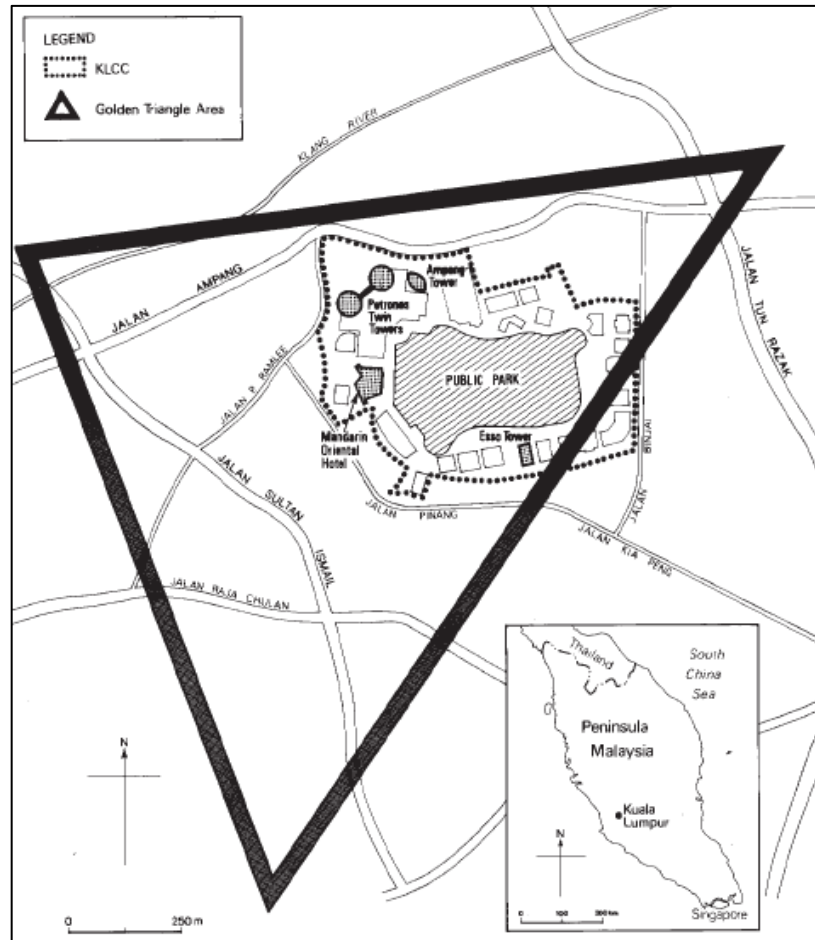


Figure 4.5 The KLCC site is built on a former colonial racecourse off Jalan Ampang and marks an eastward expansion of Kuala Lumpur's main commercial district, Golden Triangle (GTA) from Jalan Raja Chulan and Jalan Sultan Ismail

Source: Kuala Lumpur City Centre Holding (KLCC, 1996, adapted from Bunnell, 1999)

The redevelopment of the former Selangor Turf Club site made available a 100-acre piece of available land in the heart of Kuala Lumpur for redevelopment, which inspired the KLCC regeneration project. Initially, the plan was to turn the colonial racecourse into a 'park for the public' (New Straits Times, 1989 cited in Bunnell, 1999). Even though public participation was not included in the process, the developers responded very well to public demands and needs for green and recreational parks. Designed by the Brazilian landscape artist, the late Roberto Burle Marx, the park's provisions of adequate green areas for high-quality urban spaces and living would benefit the public rather than highly commercialised development (Hassan and Hanif, 2010). The privatisation of open public park land is vital as Bunnell (1999) identified that the KLCC Park is contributing to KLCC's

international real estate appeal as well as affecting the value of its development. Therefore, the developer upholds the maintenance of the park, unlike other public open space provided in the development scheme, to be surrendered to the local authority upon completion. Equally, Cheah and Tan (2002) argue that due to the prestige of the KLCC landmark, the adjacent residential and commercial properties have benefited ultimately from the premium value of real estate.

Although the KLCC project is privately led and thus profit driven, the vision of KLCC regeneration was fully backed by the government and CHKL. There were powerful people involved in making decisions to achieve this national vision: Tun Dr Mahathir (the former Prime Minister), Ananda Krishnan (Sri Kuda – the land owner) and Petroliaam Nasional Berhad (PETRONAS) funder of the KLCC development and anchor tenant of the development. The collaborative development process has ensured close cooperation between the developers of KLCC and regulatory authorities. KLCC Holdings (KLCCCH), who owned the project, undertook the responsibility to design, develop, maintain and manage the project while upholding the city's national interest. Joint ventures with other key stakeholders have proved beneficial as the site clearance and the start of infrastructure development were funded by shareholders' equity (Cheah and Tan, 2002). Initially, the public sector reduced the cost of infrastructure provision, especially relating to the proposed development. The government and CHKL were specifically involved in planning matters regarding the procedures, standards and contribution requirements in developments. In addition, there were potential economic profits to be realised from commercial investment through private sector joint ventures. Collaboration in the process has been necessary to ensure the project proceeded smoothly for the benefit of all parties including private parties, public bodies and the people (Hassan and Hanif, 2010; Bunnell, 1999). The KLCC project also highlighted the importance of joint ventures to resolve the funding issues for projects.

Overall, the KLCC development has presented an effective and well-structured governance system to accomplish the project success (Hassan and Hanif, 2010). Numerous aspects of the development were proven to engage with aspects of urban sustainability, but at that time the sustainability discourse was uncommon in Malaysia and lagged behind in advanced technology. The project included the elements of sustainable urban regeneration (see 2.2.2) to provide benefits to all parties. In this case, not only that the strong vision has driven the agenda, but the quality of design as a whole has shaped the KLCC development. The end results of the forward thinking to some extent, have remarkably achieved the balance of state-market-civil society relationships.

4.2.3 CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA

Finally, the Central Market area is the third case study about the latest regeneration in the River of Life project under the Greater KL/KV NKEA. The redevelopment and river beautification identified in the project located in a heritage and conservation area, is an example of socio-cultural-led regeneration. Moreover, the project has learned from examples of design practice adopted in international projects beneficial measures appropriate for use in revitalising the derelict river corridor in the city. The Central Market established in 1888 was originally a wet market for Kuala Lumpur dwellers. The River of Life project is still at the early stage of the development process as it was recently proposed in late 2010. Fundamentally, the proposals to develop Greater Kuala Lumpur concentrate on four key dimensions: under *magnet* (providing job opportunities), *connect*, *new places* and *enhanced services*. Firstly the aim for Greater Kuala Lumpur as a *magnet* is that it will become a location of choice for companies and professionals. Secondly, Greater Kuala Lumpur *connect* aims for well-connected public transport both externally and internally. Thirdly, proposals for Greater Kuala Lumpur *new places* aim to enhance liveability for residents and attract tourists and migrants looking to visit or relocate to the city. And finally, *Greater Kuala Lumpur Enhanced Services*

aim to ensure a high standard of services in the city – such as pedestrian networks, solid waste management, sewerage and city cleanliness (see Chapter 7.1; PEMANDU, 2012).

The key regeneration strategy for the River of Life is to encourage liveability and enhance the city's overall quality of life through integrated urban design, landscapes, transportation, environmental and economic solutions along a 10.7 km stretch of the Klang and Gombak River corridor (PEMANDU, 2014; AECOM, 2013). Under the ETP, ten nodes were identified as redevelopment and beautification areas through the River of Life project in aspiration to deliver *new places* in the Greater Kuala Lumpur (see Figure 4.6). The aim of these nodes was to revitalise the Klang River into a heritage and commercial centre for Greater Kuala Lumpur (PEMANDU, 2012). AECOM (Architecture, Engineering, Consulting, Operations and Maintenance), who is the developer of the River of Life, won the RM4 billion project contract in July 2011 through a master planning competition (Hopkirk, 2011). Although the project was spearheaded by the government through joint ventures, the project developer was given 98% involvement to develop the project scheme further.

Figure 4.6 shows the boundary of the designated case study at the Central Market neighbourhood. The area covering approximately 60.54 acres is located adjacent to the convergence of River Gombak and River Klang, where Kuala Lumpur was founded. The neighbourhood retains the character of Kuala Lumpur's older urban areas even it has undergone many commercial developments over the past forty years. Currently, the neighbourhood consists of a range of building heights; high density and compact commercial development (both outdoor and indoor); a mix of land uses; good transportation facilities and hubs (i.e. taxi services, Kuala Lumpur rail transits and central bus terminal); and well-interconnected streets fronted by buildings. Such design elements encourage a vibrant and lively environment as many people come to live, visit, work and shop as well as using

the area for congregating or meeting points. Therefore, the surroundings became overcrowded with local residents and illegal immigrants who also seek business opportunities, better jobs and life.

There is limited open space to serve the community as many of the urban spaces have been transformed into retail spaces. For example, *Jalan Hang Kasturi* (known as Kasturi Walk), which is located next to the Central Market, was rich with street life culture such as street performances, busking and meeting points for people before the facelift project took place in 2010 (see Figure 4.7). The pedestrian-only area is now covered with a roof and consists of 55 units of kiosks selling arts with Malay concepts, handicrafts, apparel, food and beverages. The cultural aspect of the area is heavily commercialised to attract more tourists and businesses into the area. On the other hand, a traditional shopping street for over a decade at *Jalan Petaling* (also known as Chinatown) has a completely different narrative though similar to the Kasturi Walk transformation. In 2003, the street that is a famous bustling market for various bargains was transformed to better fit with its commercial purpose. Although these attract many locals and tourists, such an environment is still perceived as unsafe.

The hustle and bustle of the city and heavily congested traffic are likely to be unsustainable for high-quality urban living. Rapid urban development in the neighbourhood has brought about housing decline as many dwellings are converted into commercial uses. There are only a few members of existing communities who are still living in shophouses within the neighbourhood. Despite this, the government has taken the initiative to redevelop and regenerate dilapidated areas and privatise the project to attract people and investment into the neighbourhood. As a consequence, the existing community has been neglected and the cultural aspect has been seen as potential for commercial growth. It appeared that the development demonstrated poor integration between social and environmental aspects. Thus, the state and market need to be aware of these issues with the civil society to ensure longer-term sustainability in the area.

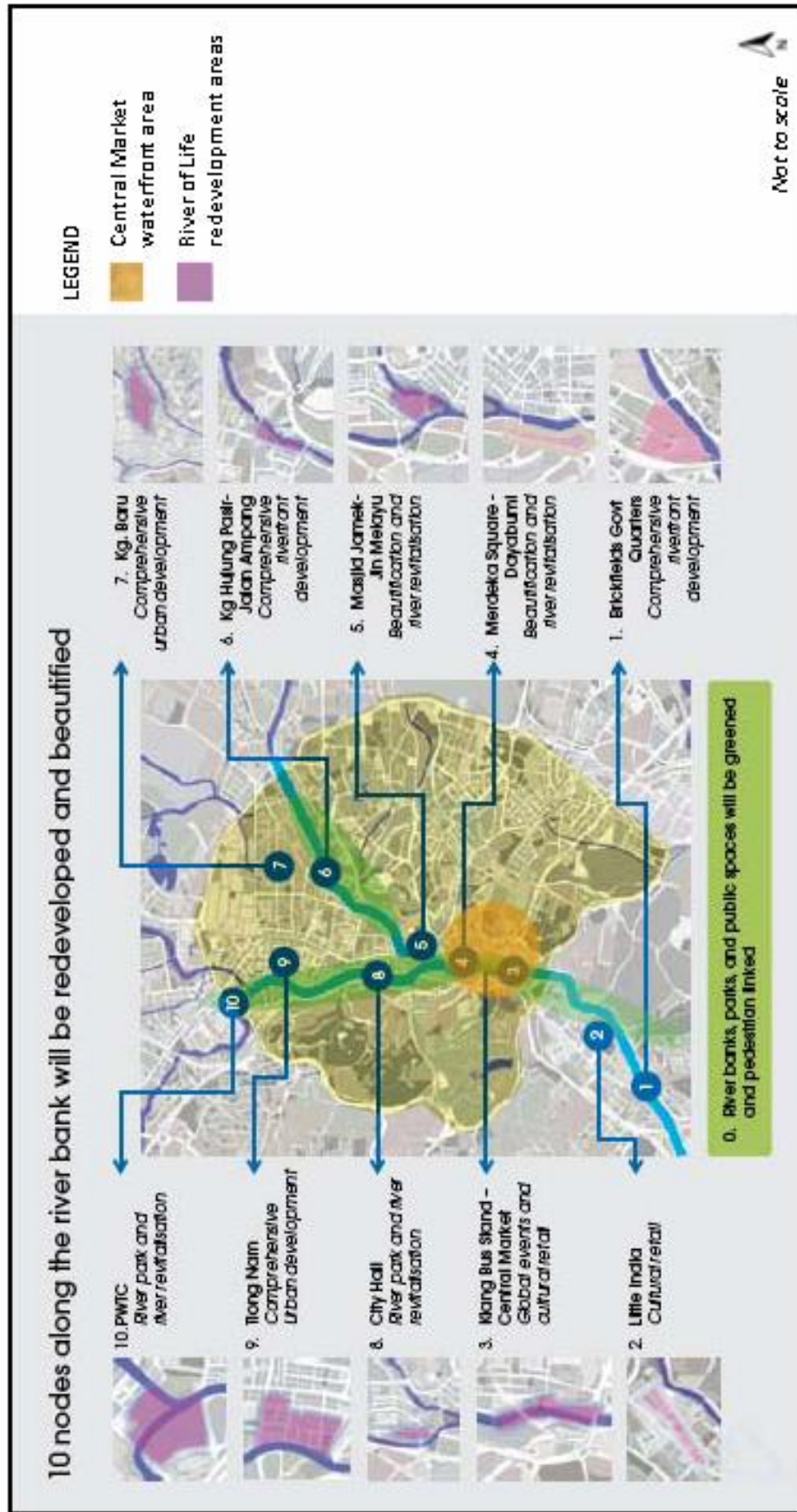


Figure 4.6 Central market waterfront area location and ten nodes of redevelopment and beautified nodes as identified in River of Life project
Source: *Economic Transformation Programme (2010)*

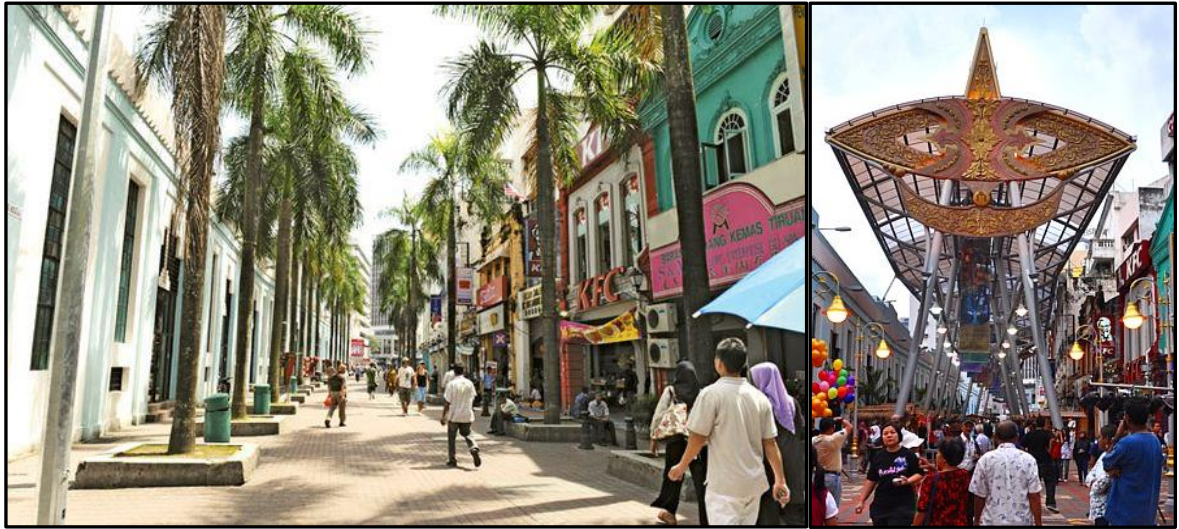


Figure 4.7 Jalan Hang Kasturi a pedestrian-only area has been transformed into pedestrian shopping street (picture on the left during late 1990s). Kasturi Walk (right) was officially launched on 19th February 2011.

Source: Hogan, 2015 (left) and Samir, 2012 (right)

4.3 | CONCLUSION

This chapter has demonstrated that market forces, political interest and urban competitiveness have influenced redevelopment and regeneration in Kuala Lumpur. The three case studies spearheaded by the government have illustrated the context of an aspiring world city redevelopment/regeneration in the country. There is clear similarity throughout the three case studies in Kuala Lumpur, where the design thinking focuses on requirements to reproduce a Malaysian/national identity. It can be argued that the design we see has built a generic Malaysian symbology concerning the iconic and modern architecture. Table 4.3 below summarises the three case studies in Kuala Lumpur. As the oldest residential area in Kuala Lumpur, Kampong Bharu fears that the redevelopment would cause loss of the Malay cultural and architectural heritage. The interest to develop it into a modern commercial area has led to on-going conflict between the communities of this 'urban village'. Its location neighbouring areas of prime location has made the site desirable for real estate development. On the other hand, the chaos and ad hoc development in the neighbourhood have gradually resulted in overcrowded uses and run-down neighbourhoods. The KLCC project is an urban catalyst, visualised by a visionary former Prime Minister to map Malaysia as

a 'globally recognised city' (Ibrahim and Leong, 2015). The notable Petronas Twin Towers has set the trend for modern and iconic building in urban development in Malaysia. The project was driven by urban economic regeneration and building a competitive nation. Although the KLCC design approach focused on commercial and business-led development, the features of the development appeared to have values in urban and design sustainability. The Central Market waterfront area design approach is driven by its heritage and commercial context. This social-cultural-led regeneration project aims to focus on beautification of the area to improve the physical environment and add vitality to attract more businesses into the area. Moreover, the revitalisation of the derelict river at the heart of Kuala Lumpur can be seen as having a similar outlook to other successful sustainable city regeneration (i.e. Cheonggyecheon River in Seoul and Brindley Place in Birmingham). Overall, the three case studies have highlighted that sustainable urban design components are a vital part of the urban landscape and play a pivotal role in shaping the built environment. However, how design sustainability and regeneration come together in Kuala Lumpur is also connected with the promotion of social sustainability. In-depth analysis of these three case studies is required to understand these relationships and the complexity of the urban issues related to the governance and delivery process in making a sustainable city (see the next three chapters).

Table 4.3 Summary of the development design approaches of the Kuala Lumpur case studies

CASE STUDY	DESIGN / DEVELOPMENT APPROACH	DENSITY & COMPACTNESS	BROWNFIELDS UTILITIES	MIXED LAND USE	OPEN SPACES	INTEGRATED TRANSPORTATION	GOVERNANCE & MANAGEMENT	MONEY & COST
Kampong Bharu	<p>Commercial vs. Residential-led Regeneration</p> <p>Drivers: Malay Reservation Area (MRA)</p> <p>Challenges</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Legal (land use restriction) - Physical environment - Financial - Close to flood prone area (Bunus River) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low to medium density - Compact and high density development > Density: 446 people per ha > Ad hoc individual developments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Storage of available land for new development - Local community converted neglected and waste land for parking uses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inadequate community facilities - Single dwelling unit converted to multiple dwelling unit or even converted to incorporate shops, garages and light industries (informal sector) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Most available land is developed for parking space - Beautification plan is largely accepted by residents of the village - Shortage of public open space (Taman Tasik Titiwangsa is the closest green and open space) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Widened internal roads - Lack consideration on pedestrian-friendly environment - LRT station is not supported with good pedestrian facilities - Inefficient transportation in terms of accessibility, integration and linkages 	<p>Public & private sector initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - KL City Hall (CHKL) - Federal Territory & Wellbeing Minister - Department - Malay Agricultural Settlement (MAS) - Kampong Bharu Development Corporation (PKB) <p>Government spearheaded through joint ventures</p> <p>Workshop involving 20 stakeholders & village representatives (negotiation process)</p>	<p>Government propose to lease land from the owner to non-bumiputera/foreign companies for investment</p>

Source: Author's construct

Table 4.3 (Continued)

CASE STUDY	DESIGN / DEVELOPMENT APPROACH	DENSITY & COMPACTNESS	BROWNFIELDS UTILITIES	MIXED LAND USE	OPEN SPACES	INTEGRATED TRANSPORTATION	GOVERNANCE & MANAGEMENT	MONEY & COST
KLCC (The Petronas Twin Towers)	Commercial and business-led regeneration drivers: Urban economic regeneration - World class provision of urban infrastructure and services - Sustainable development	- High-rise development - Relatively compact and low-medium density development	Former colonial racecourse (Selangor Turf Club)	An integrated mixed-use development - 32 acres of commercial business related facilities (including the Petronas Twin Towers, Petronas Philharmonic Hall, Kuala Lumpur Convention Centre, 634 rooms of 5-Star hotel, high-end housing, As-Syakirin Mosque, 2 district cooling centres, Aquaria, etc.) - 63 acres of public areas consist of 50 acres of beautifully landscaped park	- Largest park in the city > Park maintained by private sectors >Green areas with high-quality urban spaces and living	High-quality urban services and infrastructure: - LRT, bus, taxi and pedestrian path/ walkways	Collaborative Development Process: - Heavy government involvement through CHKL and joint ventures with other key stakeholders - Close cooperation with regularity authorities	Public and Private Partnership to reduce cost of infrastructure provision by public sector especially relating to the proposed development

Source: Author's construct

Table 4.3 (Continued)

CASE STUDY	DESIGN / DEVELOPMENT APPROACH	DENSITY & COMPACTNESS	BROWNFIELDS UTILITIES	MIXED LAND USE	OPEN SPACES	INTEGRATED TRANSPORTATION	GOVERNANCE & MANAGEMENT	MONEY & COST
Central Market Waterfront Area	<p>Socio-Cultural-led Regeneration</p> <p>Drivers: Heritage and Commercial Centre</p> <p>- Aligned with the River of Life beautification project</p> <p>- Socio-cultural areas</p> <p>- City centre for tourism and business</p>	<p>- Mixed building heights</p> <p>- Compact and relatively mid-high density development</p>	<p>Heritage and Conservation areas:</p> <p>- Former wet market</p> <p>- Most land used has been converted to commercial usage</p> <p>- Historical site: KL Old City</p>	<p>- Commercial, business, financial and tourist nodes</p> <p>- Rich with building architectural value and landmarks for tourist attraction</p> <p>- Adequate public transportation provisions</p> <p>- Housing type: Shophouses and Public Housing</p> <p>> Poor quality housing environment</p> <p>> Housing decline</p>	<p>- Lack of social spaces within pedestrian linkages</p> <p>- Public square (Merdeka Square) neighbouring the site tends to encourage more social problems</p>	<p>- KL rail transits (LRT lines, Monorail and KTM commuter)</p> <p>- Central and inner KL bus terminals</p> <p>- Poor quality pedestrian design and disconnected linkages</p> <p>- Heavily congested with motorised traffic</p>	<p>Spearheaded by government through joint ventures</p> <p>- Private developer is given 98% involvement</p>	<p>Public and Private Partnerships</p>

Source: Author's construct

CHAPTER 5 CONFLICT-LED REGENERATION: THE CASE STUDY OF KAMPONG BHARU REDEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to analyse the Kampong Bharu redevelopment in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. It presents a case study of on-going conflict-led regeneration. Fundamentally, conflict has arisen between two regulatory agencies and a corporate authority in managing land re/development in the neighbourhood. Thus, the case study is interesting because the design of the development is shaped by forces of conflict rather than driven by sustainable urban regeneration. However, while the focus of the case study is the design-led regeneration, many issues highlighted by the local community regarding the condition of the neighbourhood also require consideration. Therefore, the conflict-led redevelopment has repercussions on design to a certain extent. On the whole, the complexity of the redevelopment plan is rooted in land and political issues which influence the regeneration plan being shaped towards state-wide and commercial-led regeneration.

The chapter consists of three sections. The first section of the chapter will explore the context and factors impacting Kampong Bharu design-led regeneration. It discusses three dimensions that firstly will look at location and land uses (1), and then at demographics (2), and finally governance (3). Within these dimensions, there is a need to consider the past, the current situation and what is happening about on-going conflict in the neighbourhood.

The second section will analyse the process shaping the future of Kampong Bharu. It presents the draft master plan and its vision beyond 2035. Then, the discussion will explore the way in which the regeneration is perceived from the perspectives of the stakeholders. The purpose is to reflect broader concerns about possible impacts linked to the future of the neighbourhood.

Finally, the third section will review lessons from conflict-led regeneration on the scope of design sustainability. The approach in this section is to reinterpret the analytical framework presented in Chapter 3 in a reverse direction. Firstly, the implementation of sustainable urban design components in Kampong Bharu will be explored. In this particular, the components are put forward in three groups: 1) density, compactness and mixed-use, 2) brownfield reuse and open spaces, and 3) integrated transportation systems. Secondly, the issue of collaboration related to the conflict-led redevelopment will be positioned within the broader framework of city centre regeneration. It assesses all issues regarding community participation and takes into account the balance of interest (state-market-civil society) including four key influences that shape/affect the development of sustainable design-led regeneration: policy, politics, governance and resources. Lastly, it will analyse the way in which factors such as urbanisation influence urban changes and how they impact a small case study in Kuala Lumpur. Figure 5.1 shows the location of Kampong Bharu in relation to the other two case studies.

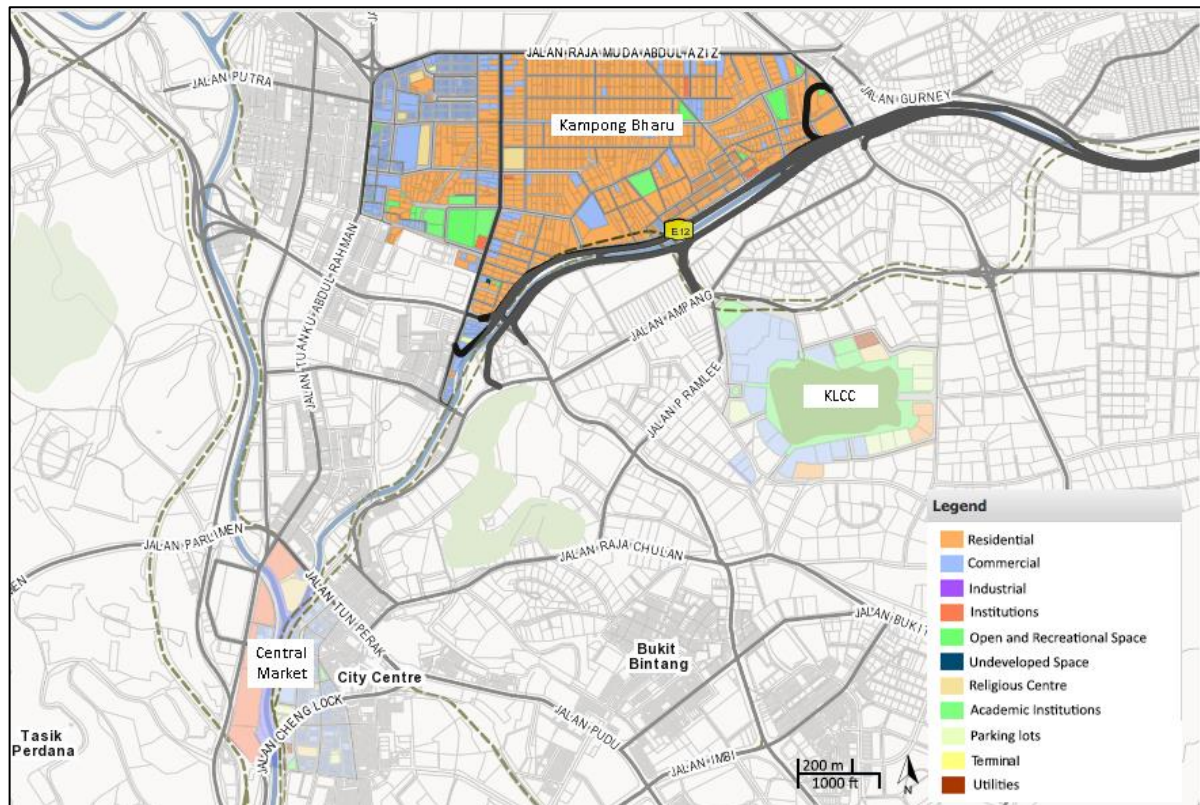


Figure 5.1 The site location of Kampong Bharu case study

Source: Author construct, adapted from KUL Submission GIS (CHKL, 2014)

5.1 | CONTEXT AND FACTORS IMPACTING KAMPONG BHARU DESIGN-LED REGENERATION

While Kampong Bharu is infamous for the complexity involved in re/developing the land, its commercial potential makes it attractive for dynamic urban growth. The reasons are linked to economic, social and political factors. This section will explore challenges and conflicts concerning the redevelopment process. In this particular, we will be looking at three aspects – 1) location and land uses, 2) demographics and 3) governance – to comprehend the situation in the neighbourhood.

5.1.1 LOCATION AND LAND USES

Kampong Bharu is located in the northern part of the city centre of Kuala Lumpur. Its boundary is formed by *Jalan Raja Muda Abdul Aziz* (north), *Jalan Tunku Abdul Rahman* (west), *Jalan Tun Razak* (east), *Jalan Dang Wangi*, *Ampang-Kuala Lumpur Elevated Highway* and *Klang River* (all at the south boundary line). Kampong Bharu, meaning ‘new village’, is a rural Malay enclave, which is surrounded by high building densities, skyscrapers, transportation infrastructure and other modern urban construction in the city of Kuala Lumpur (Alhabshi, 2010). Figure 5.2 shows the panorama of the existing urban village within the city.

Click to view image

Figure 5.2 An urban village surrounded by high-rise and modern buildings within the city (view from the east)
Source: Ezry Abdul Rahman (Flickr, 2012)

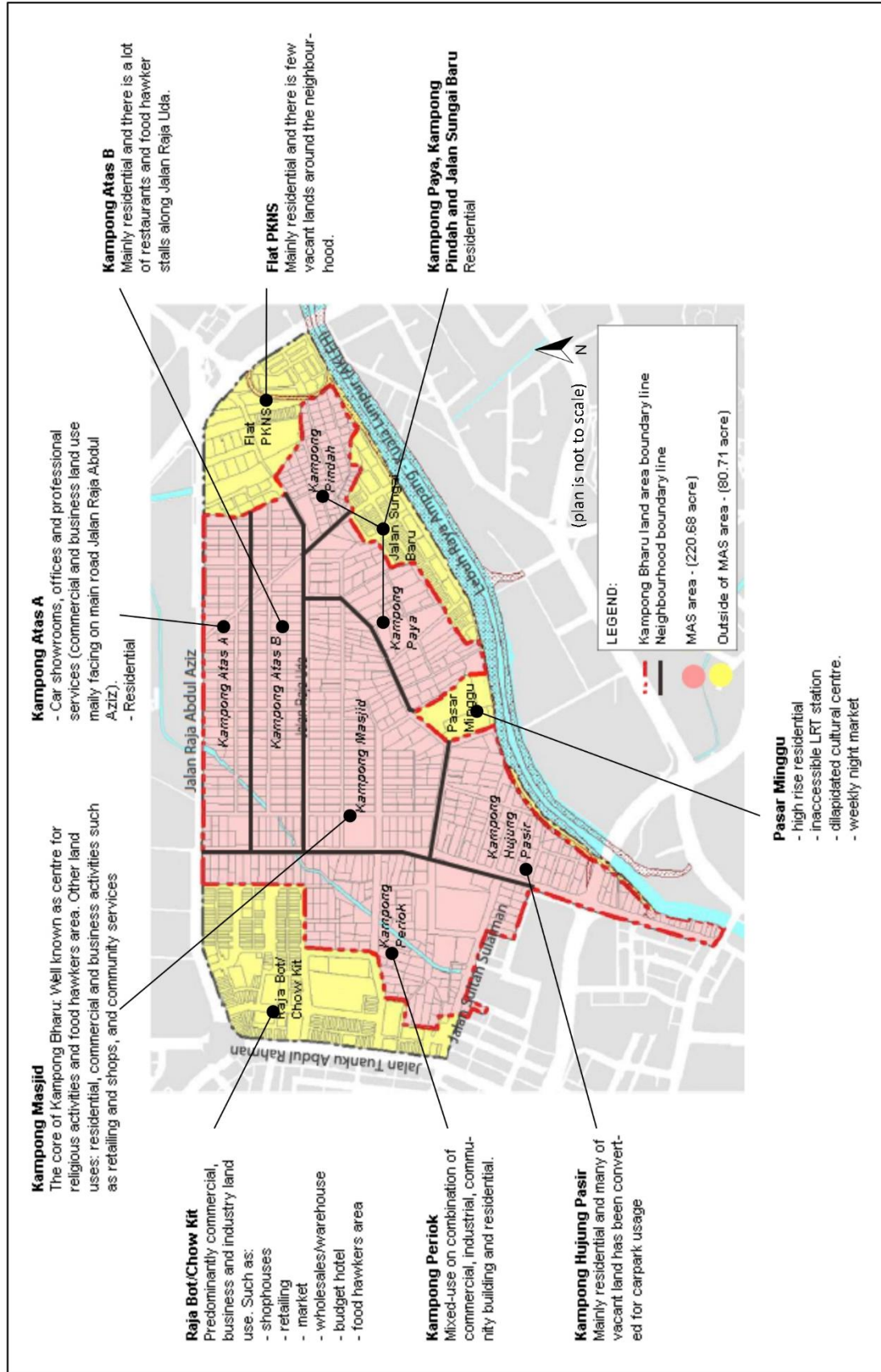


Figure 5.3 Layout of Kampong Bharu and characteristic of the neighbourhoods
Source: Author construct adapted from *AJM Planning and Urban Design Group (APUDG)*, 2014

The 301.38 acre site consists of two main areas: 1) the Malay Agricultural Settlement (220.68 acres) – also known as MAS – and 2) outside of the MAS (80.71 acres). Kampong Bharu, in particular the MAS area, is attached to two administrations mandated by two different laws (this will be discussed further in 5.1.3). Figure 5.3 shows the layout of Kampong Bharu and its land use characteristics. As can be seen from the figure, there are eleven neighbourhoods in total. The MAS area consists of seven neighbourhoods while four neighbourhoods lie outside the MAS area. From data in the figure, it is apparent that land use in Kampong Bharu is classified into three main categories: residential, commercial, and mixed-use combinations of commercial and industrial units (to compare with proposed future land use development discussed in 5.2.1). Although, this Malay urban settlement, in particular the MAS area, has a relatively neat layout and is planned carefully through design of the rural traditional residential landscape, increased economic activities within the neighbourhood have caused a haphazard development. The surrounding rapid urbanisation partly explains this change in its characteristics.

There are three factors that have impacted on Kampong Bharu's urban development. Firstly, the nature of the layout has created problems and limitations in developing the area. Many of the small and individual developments that took place between the 1960s and 1970s were not planned and designed properly. For instance, there were substantial conversions of dwelling units to multiple dwelling units or incorporated with small or light industries. One landowner (female, 62 interviewed on 15/01/2014) commented that "poor development has made Kampong Bharu look like a slum; it is an Indonesian slum." Thus, such ad hoc development has resulted in overcrowded activities and conflict of uses in the neighbourhood. In this regard, it is necessary to understand the context of the Kampong Bharu land administration. In accordance with the special land enactment of MAS (the 1897 Selangor Land Enactment), any plans for any building; rebuilding; renovation and extension of any existing dwelling houses submitted by occupants have to be approved by the Board of MAS. However, MAS does not have technical expertise and allowed the formation of spontaneous

and informal land use patterns. As the City Hall of Kuala Lumpur (CHKL) begun slowly to take part in the administrative affairs of Kampong Bharu in 1974, the law then required the occupants to declare building proposals to the CHKL. Unfortunately, the enforcement seems rather poor, to the extent that building and renovation increasingly went out of control.

Secondly, as there were more economic opportunities in Kuala Lumpur during the mid-1980s, various small-scale and individual developments within the neighbourhood have embraced entrepreneurial activities. Raja Bot/Chow Kit (outside the MAS area) is mainly known for its market and wholesale activities. Hence, the neighbourhood is slightly busy during the daytime and the building density is much more compact in comparison to the MAS which is relatively low density. Although the MAS area as a whole remains under-utilised, it can be observed that individual landowners and business corporations have built commercial and office buildings and a few high-rise residential units along major roads such as *Jalan Raja Abdullah* and *Jalan Raja Muda Abdul Aziz*. It appears that most of the land has been purchased by corporate owners for development or for their own use (Omar and Yusof, 2002, p. 519). In addition, Kampong Bharu's reputation, as a 'food heaven' in Kuala Lumpur, has attracted more people to set-up business, especially as hawker food stalls. This situation has further impacted on other urban problems relating to quality of life and environmental concerns as a whole. It is observed that hawker and restaurant businesses in the MAS area have led to more congestion within the neighbourhood, particularly during lunch hour and in the evening. For instance, those people who come to Kampong Bharu to eat at restaurants or hawker stalls often park their cars in inconvenient places. In terms of arrangements, orderliness and cleanliness, a landowner who used to live at *Jalan Raja Alang* (male, 51 interviewed on 29/11/2013) said, "commercialised activities and immigrants have changed the area. They did not respect us and made it their own area." The majority of landowner participants are frustrated with this situation and this is one of many reasons that determined them to move out. Although overcrowding in Kampong Bharu has led

to a poor environment, low sense of place and poor quality of sustainable living, the neighbourhood is not entirely in decline nor dilapidated.

Finally, it appears that various problems in the neighbourhood emerged from car dependency issues. Although Kampong Bharu has adequate physical and transportation infrastructures, they were inefficient and inaccessible for the public to make full use of them. Furthermore, it is observed that many vacant plots of land have been converted to provide parking space for visitors and some landowners do make money by charging parking fees. All these three factors without proper maintenance and management have a large impact resulting in haphazard and uneven development in the neighbourhood. Simultaneously, Kampong Bharu has to deal with these kinds of issues along with conflicts and constant pressures to develop in parallel to the surroundings of Kuala Lumpur. Altogether, its strategic location close to the city centre is the key factor which makes Kampong Bharu a centre for urban dwellers.

An urban planner (interviewed on 28/10/2013) commented that “our urban centres have to deal with more spaces to support commercial activities.” This means the redevelopment and regeneration of the Kampong Bharu area will unlock the potential for expansion of the economy of Kuala Lumpur. In fact, this oldest Malay residential area in Kuala Lumpur consists of a large number of populations, which contribute a significant range of activities that shape the environment and socio-economic patterns. We now turn to discuss the demographic trends and their impact on Kampong Bharu in the next subsection.

5.1.2 DEMOGRAPHICS

Kampong Bharu has a total population of 18,372 people (Census, 2010). Out of the population, 72.76% (13,368) are Malay, 3.86% (710) are Chinese, 1.15% (212) are Indian, 0.92% (169)

are other Bumiputera, 2.18% (400) are others, and 19.12% (3,513) are non-Malaysians. Essentially, economic opportunities in Kuala Lumpur during the mid-1980s contributed to the emergence of change in socio-economic patterns in Kampong Bharu. It is observed that the shift is marked by the rising standard of living and other needs of the population therein. Figure 5.4 shows a summary of population growth and dwelling unit statistics in Kampong Bharu from 1991 until 2010. Unfortunately, due to the limitation of the data, there is no projection of statistical data up to 2020 which would have justified a 10-year milestone. As can be seen from the graph, it appears that the population decreased 17.5% from 20,215 in 1991 to 16,688 in 2000; the population then increased by 10% reaching 18,372 in 2010. From the data in this graph, we can see that dwelling units in Kampong Bharu gradually decreased from 5,064 units in 1991 to 4,393 units in 2000 and 3,840 in 2010. If we look at 2010 data, although the population has increased, there is a serious decline in residential units. It is obvious that there are increasing numbers of vacant and derelict sites (see Figure 5.5). It seems that many properties have been left abandoned and demolished as the landowners intended to get buyers for their land. Another reason for this is correlated to conversion of land uses and its impact on quality of living as a whole.

Some of the stakeholders claimed during interviews that the population at present is approximately 44% of the 2010 population. Interestingly, this is related to numbers of landowners whom have left the neighbourhood; they are part of the community and stakeholders of the Kampong Bharu redevelopment (Sam, 17/09/2013; an architect/former resident, 18/09/2013; Saiful, CHKL urban planner, 17/10/2013). In general, the community felt that Kampong Bharu is no longer suitable to raise a family because the environment in the neighbourhood is poor and also getting worse. At present, the community of Kampong Bharu is at fourth generation since their first settlement in 1900 (Sam, interviewed on 17/09/2013). Those people who still reside in Kampong Bharu are mainly from the second and fourth generations. The third generation (between the ages of 40 to 64 years old) who are mostly the landowners, have moved outside of Kampong Bharu. Some

have allowed their relatives to live there and others have rented out their property for rental income, while many of the landowners have sold their properties during the 1980s (Kimberg, 2010). Most of the genuine Kampong Bharu people mainly live in *Kampong Paya*, *Pasar Minggu*, *Kampong Atas A'*, *Kampong Atas B'* and *Kampong Hujung Pasir*. Since the 2000s, students who study at educational institutions within the city centre of Kuala Lumpur contributed as a seasonal migrant population.

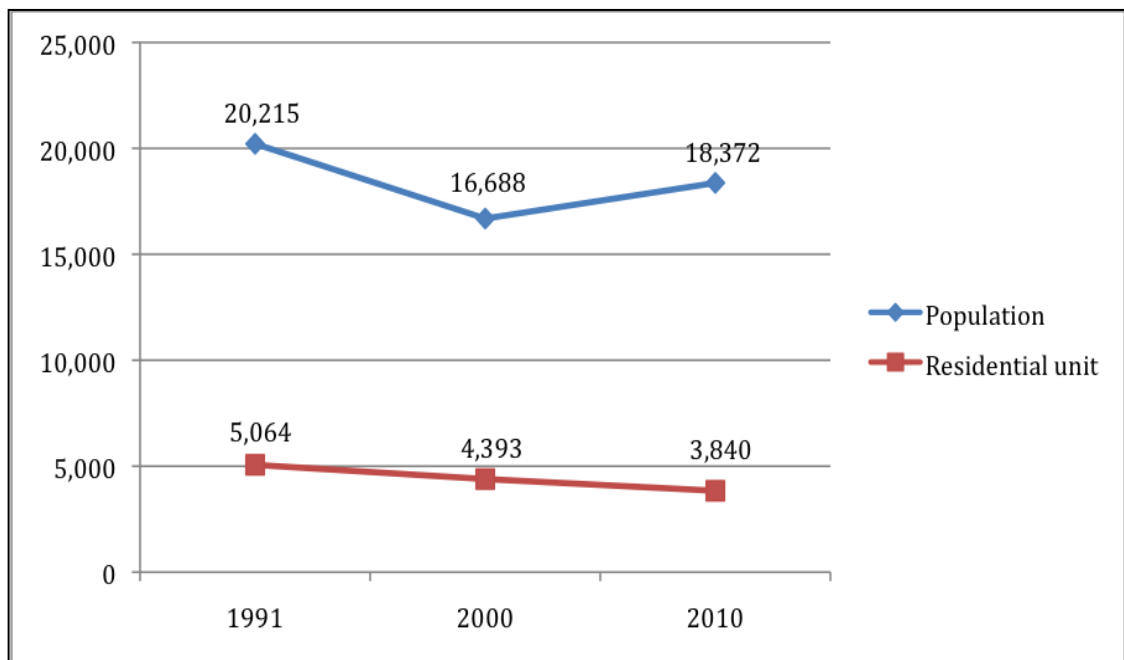


Figure 5.4 Population growth and dwelling units in Kampong Bharu from 1991 to 2010

Source: AJM Planning and Urban Design Group (APUDG), 2014



Figure 5.5 One of many abandoned plots of land in Kampong Bharu

Source: Author's archive

Apart from its original community, in the 1960s and 1970s, Kampong Bharu experienced immigration of migrants from rural to urban areas including from neighbouring countries, especially from Indonesia, Southern Thailand and Bangladesh. As described earlier in this section, the non-Malaysians were the second highest population group in Kampong Bharu. Rapid urbanisation looks to attract outsiders and foreigners rather than the existing community to remain in the neighbourhood. Students, foreigners (who work in construction sites nearby) and hawker communities (mainly from Indonesia and Southern Thailand) are perceived as the 'outsider', not considered as part of the larger community. As Corubolo (1998) identifies, this issue of social relations is because of conflicts of values and symbolic meanings attached to it. The impact of changes of population with regard to types of people therein is affecting the conditions in the neighbourhood. The diverse mixture of people has significantly impacted Kampong Bharu, particularly in three aspects that are linked with social sustainability and sustainable living dimensions – overcrowding of people (1), sense of place (2), and perception of safety and security (3).

Firstly, overcrowding of people has resulted in poor quality of environment related to well-being, hygiene, and cramped urban spaces. A landowner, who is also a resident, pointed out that the outsiders and newcomers show a lack of responsibility in term of cleanliness of the area (male, 53, 28/10/2013). Another landowner (female, 70, 11/10/2013) mentioned that "many houses are rented to outsiders and this has resulted in a dirtier environment." Thus, poor living conditions are quite likely related to low sense of attachment to the neighbourhood. It could be seen that different kinds of people have different kinds of attachment to the place. On the other hand, the rental price hikes force lower-income people to live in even poorer conditions. For instance, there are 10–14 households in three-bedroom houses/apartments and the most common reason for this is to reduce the cost of living. A student (male, 26 interviewed on 15/01/2014) stated that "renting a house here is not really cheap. There are other places that are cheaper and have better environments. But if I

were to work out of the city centre of Kuala Lumpur, I possibly would not live in Kampong Bharu.” Accordingly, for the second factor, sense of place is related to sense of attachment and ownership in the neighbourhood. Norliza (APUDG, interviewed on 19/12/2013) shared her experience of the public meeting with the community. She recalls that one resident mentioned that “I am in transit in the population, I don't live here, I just work here, and therefore I stay there.” It seems like the words 'stay there' indicate a disconnection with the neighbourhood, the transitory nature of his stay providing him with a low sense of place of where he lives.

Finally, people's perceptions of safety and security, to a certain extent, are related to social and cultural norms. Sam (MAS, interviewed on 17/09/2013) expressed his disappointment and describes that “the chaos and the people” are the main factors that created a disorganised settlement and community. The occupants who moved out of Kampong Bharu have done so mainly because the neighbourhood no longer conveys a sense of security and safety of living. In sum, it can be concluded that the conditions of neighbourhood attractiveness, good well-being and good maintenance, in turn contribute to individual perception, behaviour and experiences of places where people live, work and spend time (Tuan, 1990; Madanipour, 1996; Dave 2009). The social and environmental values of the place should be the main concern to ensure sustainability.

Most importantly, it is apparent that Kampong Bharu has an important social impact on the development of Kuala Lumpur; the living population and the neighbourhood equally support economic activities in Kuala Lumpur. However, conflicts in governance of Kampong Bharu have caused the management and control of any development plans in the area to become extremely complex. This will now be discussed in the following section pertaining to its impact on the physical environment in Kampong Bharu.

5.1.3 GOVERNANCE

There are two known regulatory bodies that are responsible for the administration of Kampong Bharu: 1) the Board of Management of MAS and 2) the City Hall of Kuala Lumpur (CHKL). Additionally, there is a corporate body, Kampong Bharu Development Corporation (KBDC), established in 2011 under the Ministry of Federal Territories. KBDC has officially operated since September 2012 and is responsible for the implementation of policies, directions and strategies in relation to development, redevelopment or improvement within the Kampong Bharu area. These three key organisations/institutions are all concerned with Kampong Bharu redevelopment. But the fact remains that conflict in governance is the key factor that affects the development of Kampong Bharu and causes difficulties in managing the neighbourhood.

Historically, the Malay Agricultural Settlement (MAS) in Kampong Bharu, which was introduced by the British, was intended to reserve a special area for Malays (who typically lived in rural sectors) staying in the urban area in Kuala Lumpur (Chee, 1991; Mohamad and Kiggundu, 2007). There are restrictions that protect the land from being transferred to, or occupied by, non-Malays which constrain the supply of MAS land and limit the market for development purposes (Omar and Yusof, 2002). This matter is linked with a general perception that there are few Malays who can afford properties in the urban areas of Kuala Lumpur. Nonetheless, there is a need to preserve this indigenous land to redress the imbalance of ethnic groups in city-centre based jobs and businesses that are predominantly Chinese. The Board of Management of MAS established in 1900 has been responsible for the administrative affairs of the Malay Agricultural Settlement under its jurisdiction. As gazetted under Section 6 (Land Enactment Act 1897⁶), the Board these days is more likely seen as the local government that managed the MAS area in Kampong Bharu. Generally, their roles were

⁶Selangor State Government Gazette, number 20, January 12, 1900 (see Appendix E).

similar to the current local authority charged for the administration of Kuala Lumpur, which is the CHKL, an agency under the Federal Territories Ministry of Malaysia. Following the declaration of Kuala Lumpur as a Federal Territory in 1974, the MAS area was drawn into the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur after the Kuala Lumpur separation from Selangor state (see Chapter 4; Alhabshi 2010). Subsequently, the administration of Kampong Bharu was put under CHKL through an act of parliament without amending the law binding upon the MAS area (Yassin, 2009; Alhabshi, 2010). Accordingly, the Mayor of Kuala Lumpur, who is also head of CHKL, replaced the Chief Minister of Selangor as the Chairman of MAS.

There are several issues at the root of the conflict. The question of responsibility for governing the neighbourhood remains extremely perplexing to the community because there are two land enactments for the area. First, Section 6 of the 1897 Selangor Land Enactment Act as administered by the Board of Management of MAS and second, the National Land Code (NCL) as managed by the CHKL. Sam (interviewed on 17/09/2013) who is an Honorary Secretary of MAS, and both landowner and resident argues that “we must have a death certificate saying that MAS has been dissolved. So, that is my argument and for that reason we still continue doing our job.” He emphasised that the Federal government has failed to address MAS’s special autonomy status and it became ‘a tale of two cities’. Nevertheless, Sam also comments that “Kampong Bharu folks do not care about MAS. However, when they are in trouble, they will look for us.” As a result, the MAS has been focusing on acting as a mediator between the community and government. MAS functions these days as a community-based organisation that is in a more likely position to bring the community together. Table 5.1 shows a comparison between the MAS management laws of 1897 and the current management profile as summarised by Alhabshi (2010).

Unlike other developments in Kuala Lumpur, up to date, the State had limited power to control the development and the land administration of Kampong Bharu. In 2008, the third draft of

the Kampong Bharu redevelopment plan, which is also a special volume in the Kuala Lumpur Local Plan, was a starting point for the State to get involved in Kampong Bharu redevelopment. One of the CHKL officers elaborates that:

In that plan, there is a proposal to establish a development corporation for Kampong Bharu. We discussed this idea with the Kampong Bharu wiseman, but they did not agree. They suggested CHKL to present it to the parliament for Ministers to debate instead.

(Saiful, Urban Planning Department, 17/10/2013)

This explains that the community of Kampong Bharu generally have doubts about CHKL competency to spearhead the redevelopment. 'Wiseman' is a group of representatives of non-governmental organisations (NGOs), from the original community of Kampong Bharu or Malays who have an interest in the redevelopment of Kampong Bharu. There are nine NGOs and the chairman of each entity is a member of the advisory council of KBDC. Accordingly, the State organised special meetings involving the general public in 2010. As a result, an interim team was formed in 2011 and the Kampong Bharu Development Corporation (KBDC) was then established as gazetted under Act 733 in the Laws of Malaysia. In essence, one of KBDC's tasks is to produce a masterplan and ensure that it is in accordance with the local and structure plan under the Federal Territory (Planning) Act 1982.

Table 5.1 Comparison of management law in MAS area from 1987 to the present

Rule	1997 Management	Current Management
3	"The settlement shall be under the management and control of a Board which shall consist of a President, Vice-President, Honorary Secretary and eight other members who shall be appointed by the Menteri Besar (Chief Minister) from time to time..."	The settlement is managed by CHKL together with the Board (Malay Agricultural Settlement) which consists of a President who is the Mayor of CHKL, Vice-President who is the Deputy Mayor of CHKL, honorary secretary represented by individual from the MAS community and eight members also representatives from the MAS community.
4	"The Board shall have powers to frame by-laws not inconsistent with these Rules for the effectual control and management..."	No longer in effect
5	"The Board may authorise any approved Malay applicant irrespective of his vocation to occupy an allotment on such terms and conditions as it may consider fit and proper..."	No longer in effect
6	"It shall be the duty of the beneficiary or beneficiaries to inform the Board within six months of the death of any registered occupant of the fact of such death..."	No longer in effect
7	"The Board shall keep a Register in which shall be entered the names of approved applicants, deletions and substitutions of occupants, together with all the necessary particulars relating to them and to the allotments which they are authorised to occupy..."	Is still in practice
9	No registered occupant, shall extend, alter or rebuild his dwelling house without first submitting a plan for the approval of the Board	No longer in effect
10	Without the express permission of the Board, no occupant shall: (a) Permit any person, other than Malay, in his house or other part of his allotment. (b) Let, or permit his house to be sub-let	Is still in practice No longer in effect

Source: Alhabshi (2010, pp. 209-291)

On the other hand, conflicts in governance have opened an opportunity for the state-led management to demonstrate strong commitment to realising the redevelopment plans. In terms of finance, it can be argued that not many investors and banks would be willing to invest/finance the development due to development risks related to challenges, uncertainty and assurance. Thus, the local authority becomes more entrepreneurial to achieve funding for the implementation of the development. Saiful gave the opinion that:

To produce a masterplan we need to know the business plan. There is therefore, KBDC as a special agency which is responsible to manage Kampong Bharu development has to discuss this matter with their stakeholders, future investors and developers.

(CHKL, Urban Planning Department, 17/10/2013)

It can be argued that the nature of the development is directed towards a profit-seeking development, whereas, there was a statement which insisted there was no continuity to redevelop Kampong Bharu until a solid idea came from the state. The state-led management depicted an initiative to ensure the regeneration process is continuous and approaching the balance between state/market/civil society relationships. Although there are the CHKL and KBDC who have taken over to initiate strong leadership to redevelop and regenerate the area, the redevelopment plan still met with community resistance. In general, the resistance appeared due to the absence of clear implementation programmes (Omar and Yusof, 2002). There are two main aspects to this community resistance.

Firstly, there are pressures for the State to resolve issues related to MAS land complications. Because of the MAS special land enactment, the land matters are a sensitive topic among the community of Kampong Bharu. The majority of residents are worried that on account of its strategic location neighbouring the KLCC and potential rising land values, the State are planning to take away their land and put it into the federal bank. In addition, the complexities of land ownership have made the highly emotive issues even more complicated. For instance, there is a small piece of land that has 143 ownerships and most of the plots of land have an average area of 9000 square feet. Datuk Khay (interviewed on 10/10/2013) who is among one of successful developers in Kampong Bharu, a committee member of the KBDC advisory board, landowner and an original member of the community explained that:

The government or/and KBDC doesn't want to take the land. That is one of the things we have agreed. We are also not going to acquire. Taking the land and acquisition are two different things. The KBDC task is to facilitate the redevelopment of Kampong Bharu and taking a lot of action as well as assisting CHKL to redevelop Kampong Bharu. They are concentrating on land matters by trying to work together with neighbouring lots, so that all landowners can participate and we can develop together. However, whatever we want to do, it still has to go through the parliament.

This comment shows that they are building on a new policy discourse because of the constraints of land, which are key resources in terms of availability and access. Thus, it can be seen that CHKL responsibility in this redevelopment is to provide services in terms of technicality such as approval of developments, building layouts and plans. While KBDC will be assisting in matters that involve power relationships between political contexts to influence and drive the regeneration.

Secondly, with regard to KBDC public engagement sessions, a landowner (male, 51, 29/11/2013) criticised that:

I have not seen any favourable outcome yet and they were not helpful. I feel that they have not done enough to approach people. They should come down and see the people in the neighbourhood. The session is unfriendly as not everyone has a chance to voice out opinions. They are controlling the session to their agenda. KBDC is so-called people with power.

Another participant commented that:

People are protesting because there is a lot of a speculation on transparency aspects. How is KBDC established? Does the development benefit the community? Or is it for outsiders? Or is it for you (KBDC)? We cannot accept that when we inquired a few heated or 'sensitive' questions, KBDC did not answer. Hence, we are sceptical of their intentions.

(Landowner/resident, male, 49, 04/12/2013)

It is apparent that lack of concern for the community sensitivity, poor dealing in conflict situations, too ambitious and too complex land matters have caused suspicion and delusion about the redevelopment plan. Coaffee and Healey (2003) have outlined four dimensions in governance process assessment criteria to promote the principle of social justice and equity in the governance culture. They (Coaffee and Healey, 2003; Healey, 2012) suggest a strong participatory process through inclusive and collaborative approaches must consider the dimension of networks and coalitions, stakeholder selection process, discourses (framing issues, problems, solutions, interests, etc.) and practices (routines and repertoires for acting) in order to direct protestations within the governance process.

5.1.4 THE COMPLEX NATURE OF IMPACT OF CONFLICT-LED REGENERATION

In summary, the complex nature of Kampong Bharu redevelopment emerges from past and present factors. The opportunities and the predicted value of Kampong Bharu land in the future has made it desirable to redevelop. Kampong Bharu as indigenous land (specifically the MAS area) in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur has significantly attracted urban dwellers of those from Malay ethnicity. However, the overcrowding of people and the nature of the neighbourhood layout has created a physical setting in which environment is closely tied to a negative perception. Hence, the neighbourhood is often regarded as squatter and Indonesian slums. In essence, there are two key attractions in Kampong Bharu. First, the local attraction of food, especially its position as 'food

heaven' for Malaysian cuisine. Secondly, the appeal for tourists who are interested to see different sides of Kuala Lumpur: those who want see the Malay architecture, to experience and discover the Malay culture. Even with the current conditions of the neighbourhood, these people still come to Kampong Bharu.

In view of the fact that Kampong Bharu is difficult and complex to manage, there is a lack of coordination among various agents in the redevelopment of the area. Conflicts between different regulatory governance have made the regeneration plan even more difficult to manage. As a consequence, diverse issues relating to the poor development and history of MAS in the neighbourhood remain unsolved since the first proposal for the redevelopment of Kampong Bharu in 1971. Haphazard and ad hoc development in the neighbourhood has further impacted on other urban problems relating to quality of life and environmental concerns as a whole. Steinberg (1996, p. 464) criticised the strategy, expecting that the area would continue to generally decline, with its physical economic function disrupted and its present potential as the city's overall commercial land stock unfulfilled. Thus, issues of unattractive conditions and disparity from modern Kuala Lumpur appeared to present a case for redevelopment of Kampong Bharu. A landowner (male, 64, 30/11/2013) blamed the media for giving such false information to the public. He explained, "it is not true, we have stakeholders and landowners. The 60% of the population who have left Kampong Bharu are actually the well-educated community."

Political influences and involvement in the KBDC establishment were found to be significant in an attempt to ensure its smooth operation as well as to expedite the regeneration plan. Of course there is limited capability to develop the land in Kampong Bharu. However, a policy change by the government could lead to a course of action that may or may not work in order to achieve the balance between state/market/civil society. In the next section, it is vital to analyse the future transformation of Kampong Bharu to comprehend proposals, and the nature of the regeneration.

5.2 | TRANSFORMATION: PROCESS OF SHAPING THE FUTURE OF KAMPONG BHARU

Kampong Bharu redevelopment proposals began in 1971 and since then four draft master plans have been launched (CHKL, 1975, 1985, 2008; APUDG, 2014). This section will analyse the latest Kampong Bharu draft master plan and reflect on stakeholders' perspectives and perceptions with regard to concepts of regeneration and sustainability. In doing so, the analysis draws attention to the implications of conflict-led regeneration on the urban setting and environment in a broader context.

5.2.1 KAMPONG BHARU BEYOND 2035

The Kampong Bharu redevelopment is the second largest project out of approximately 24 proposed regeneration sites in the whole of Kuala Lumpur. The project aims to create a modern development precinct of Islamic Malay culture and new economic activities of Kuala Lumpur in this Malay enclave. Naha (Chief Executive Officer of KBDC, interviewed on 21/10/2013) stresses that the development project includes two elements: 1) the redevelopment of the region outside the MAS area and 2) the regeneration of the MAS area. Under the guidance of KBDC, the programme will extend beyond the initial plan of 2020 and its completion is expected by 2035. This new proposal is targeting to create a population of 77,000, 17,500 dwelling units and 46,237 job opportunities (up from 10,560 in 2000). Figure 5.6 shows the Kampong Bharu draft master plan, which was launched on April 2014. As can be seen in the figure, it is obvious that the neighbourhood will be facing radical changes in its character compared to the existing layout. This ambitious master plan makes it clear that many existing buildings will be bulldozed to make way for an entire new landscape and environment. Figure 5.7 shows proposed land use zoning for Kampong Bharu redevelopment to give an insight of the draft master plan. Interestingly, there are many aspects, particularly in the dimension of social sustainability, which deserve attention because of substantial impacts on the neighbourhood as a whole.

According to the draft master plan, only a few existing residential units will remain, including 11 Malay traditional houses, which were identified for preservation as a Malay heritage. Unfortunately, it is proposed to relocate these traditional houses to one location (possibly close to Sultan Sulaiman Club House) where they will become a tourism spot. Thereby, displacement will be a controversial issue because this kind of development just seems to want to remove the people who are already living there. As a consequence, the development is receiving huge resistance from the community. Sam expressed the opinion that the redevelopment so far is biased towards a profit-oriented kind of development that does not benefit the community, suggesting that “the redevelopment must cater to the needs of the people here, one of them being the need to preserve the identity of this area but so far, what we see now is just profit-oriented.” (cited in Teng, 2014).



Figure 5.6 Kampong Bharu beyond 2035 draft master plan as released on the 5th April 2014

Source: APUDG (2014, p. 41)

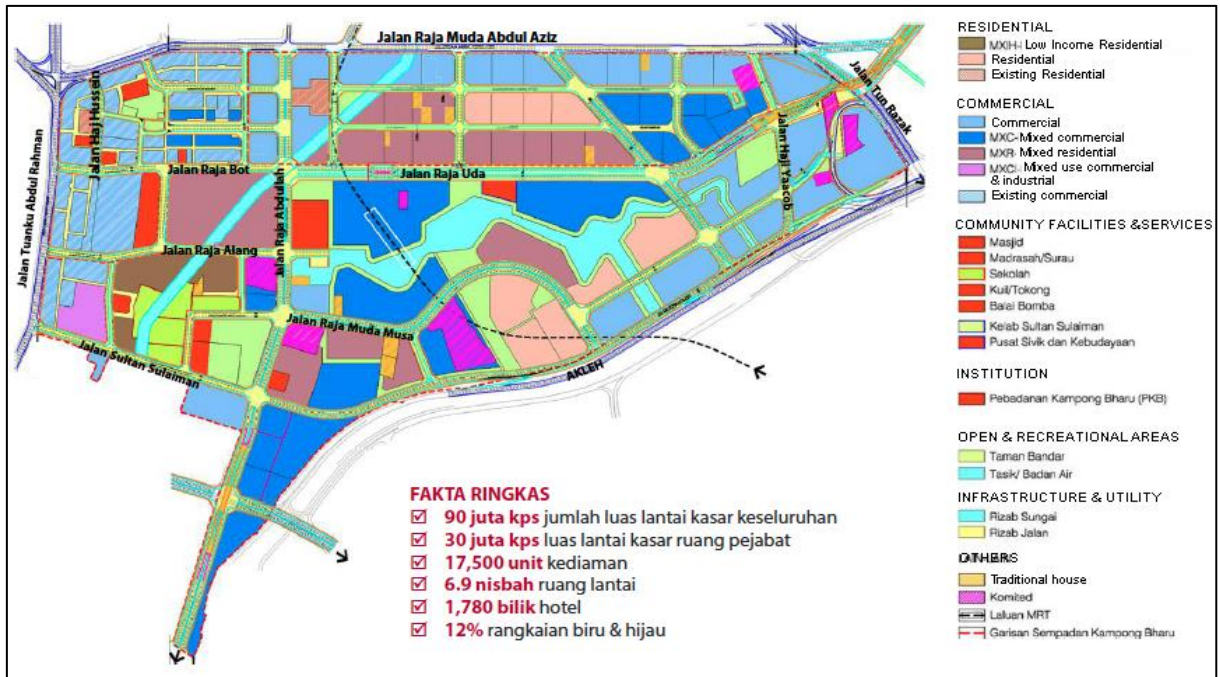


Figure 5.7 Proposed land use zoning for Kampong Bharu redevelopment

Source: APUDG (2014)

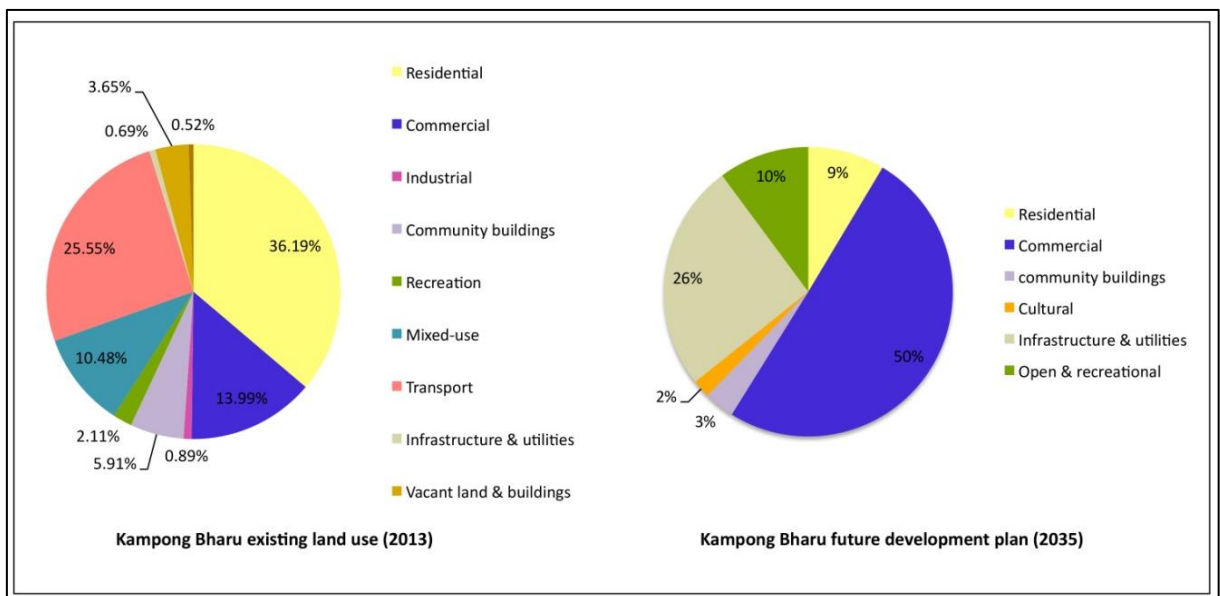


Figure 5.8 A comparison between the Kampong Bharu land use 2013 and future development

Source: Author construct, adapted from APUDG (2014)

Pie charts in Figure 5.8 provide a comparison between the current and the future land use in Kampong Bharu. It is apparent that the residential land use percentage is much smaller (9%) than the existing percentage (36.19%), while the commercial land use for future development is increased

to 50% from 13.99% in 2013. Despite the target to increase population to 77,000 with 17,500 dwelling units, it is almost certain that the proposal radically changes the type of dwelling in residential use (i.e. high-rise residential). The development does not seem to have a lot of interest in accommodating the desires of the people who currently live in the neighbourhood. Thus, it is creating a huge conflict over this development. One resident (male, 26, 27/11/2013) commented that:

Their agenda on redevelopment has never met our requirements. I don't think their plan does make any sense. In terms of temporary replacement for the community, we don't know where they will move us while waiting for this development to be completed

Despite the politics in how the people's needs are defined, met or denied for different kinds of people in different cultural contexts, it is crucial to take the specifics of local situations more fully into account and identify what is distinctive to particular settings and what is common to all (Gammon, 2004, p. 9). Nevertheless, this kind of commercial-led regeneration at some point has overlooked the physical and social dimensions needed in order to advocate social sustainability. For that reason, an in-depth understanding of the process is essential to comprehend that this kind of development is indeed a conflict-led regeneration. The way in which detailed planning and design respond to the context of a particular place will reflect on the urban character we see in the built environment. In addition, Madanipour (2006, p. 181) argues, "urban design is a major vehicle in helping develop such infrastructure that creates both symbolic and practical dimensions to a changing city." Therefore, rebranding and making a new city image need to advocate qualities of design and social sustainability as they also give significance to the urban character in the immediate vicinity. The next section will put forward discussion of the stakeholders' perspectives and perceptions to establish understanding of the context of regeneration and sustainability.

5.2.2 STAKEHOLDERS' PERSPECTIVES AND PERCEPTIONS

In terms of the future of Kampong Bharu, the findings observed in this study mirror those of the previous studies that have examined effects of failure to seek recognition of the local needs in the new vision of city planning (Gans, 1969; Sandercock, 2003; Healey, 1998, 1999, 2012). This section explores stakeholders' perspectives and perceptions of the on-going Kampong Bharu redevelopment. The discussion will first look at the three key authorities in Kampong Bharu, and then, the civil society point of view on the current condition of Kampong Bharu.

1. **MAS (Special Anatomy Local Authority), CHKL (State Authority) and KBDC (Corporate Authority)**

Unfortunately in Malaysia, a lot of regeneration projects started in commercial and private projects. So it does not go well with communities because the community do not understand the need to regenerate and redevelop. They always have a mindset that they are losing all the time. However, when we talk about Kampong Bharu, it is probably the most difficult project not only Kuala Lumpur will experience but the whole country.

(Norliza, APUDG urban planner, interviewed on 28/10/2013)

On the subject of power and authority, one major criticism of MAS, CHKL and KBDC is that all these three authorities are trying to take control the neighbourhood and concurrently become redundant. The Kampong Bharu redevelopment conflict stems from matters related to land value, real estate and property development mechanisms. Sam (MAS, 17/09/2013) suggested that in order to redevelop Kampong Bharu, these three authorities should work collaboratively to complement each other. Talking about this, one landowner (male, 64, 30/11/2013) stated "the corporation try to ride roughshod over the people. 'This is what we have, you take it.' In my opinion, at best they could

have talked intensively with MAS because they have been here for a long time.” Other residents stated that they are still uncertain about the identity of the redevelopment authority in charge now, whether it is CHKL or KBDC. They also do not know the extent of power MAS holds. For example, one resident who is also a landowner (male, 53, 28/10/2013) said:

There is running development. Yet KBDC displayed their master plan. What will happen to that running project? Are they going to demolish the building? That is not right. Where is their consistency (administration and orderliness)?

As one landowner (male, 51, interviewed on 29/11/2013) commented, “it seems there is poor communication between institutions.” These findings prove that there is a serious conflict of power in governing the neighbourhood. Another landowner, who is also a resident, expressed the point of view that:

Before you make any structure, you have to form an understanding. What is the function of MAS? Why there is CHKL as Yang di-Pertua (the chairman) in MAS? That is well enough. Get that picture right; it is still a blurred area at the moment. Why is KBDC established? If you read and compare the KBDC Bill with the MAS enactment; in MAS enactment there is no saying that the staff’s children will receive scholarship. You only serve your community; your children’s benefit should not be mentioned. The federal is introducing corporate things. Do this in banks, not here.

(Male, 51, 30/11/2013)

Frustrations with the redevelopment authority were evident within the community participants. This frustration derived from many proposed developments in the past that had resulted in ineffective service delivery coupled with corruption and abuse of funds (Alhabshi, 2010).

The community is fairly sceptical about the governance provided by KBDC as a special vehicle to manage the Kampong Bharu redevelopment. The majority felt that the KBDC approach is wrong, and therefore the community perceived them as being dishonest. As one landowner (male, 59, interviewed on 29/11/2013) put it “they (KBDC) want top-down, ‘I tell you, you follow.’ But the moment you say ‘No’, they do not take note and forget it.” While one landowner said:

Personally, I feel at the best CHKL should co-operate with MAS. Or if they want to establish KBDC, it should be part of MAS as the technical team. They cannot be above MAS. In my opinion, the MAS view will want balance for the community.

(Male, 64, interviewed on 30/11/2013)



Figure 5.9 A protest banner by community regarding the KBDC establishment to redevelopment Kampong Bharu

Source: Author's archive

Figure 5.9 shows a protest banner put up in front of a house in the *Kampong Atas B* neighbourhood in Kampong Bharu. The protest message, which was written in Malay, stated that: “we will not

willingly give our land to Kampong Bharu Development Corporation.” The majority of the people commented that Sam as a leader has done a good job and put in a lot of effort for the community, but MAS is not strong enough in terms of finance, technical knowledge and power. They collectively said that: “in our opinion, without MAS, there will be no longer the Kampong Bharu that we used to know.”

Nonetheless, despite this criticism, the KBDC establishment is a positive transition for a more bottom-up process in planning. Norliza (interviewed on 28/10/2013), an urban planner who was involved in the Kuala Lumpur 2020 local plan commented that: “it is actually a continuous process before KBDC and after KBDC. Before KBDC, it was more CHKL doing the work.” Datuk Khay (successful developer and an original member of the community, interviewed on 10/10/2013) said that:

This is not an empty land and easily starts building a new township. About 80–90% of the community want to develop the land. If we do development together with them, it solves many other social problems. But you cannot force the owners, if we did there will be a lot of political issues. Yet we are going to persuade them without forcing.

According to Healey (1997, 1998), the participatory process is intense and therefore, developing collaboration among stakeholders is important to build on improving the quality of places. Sam (interviewed on 17/09/2013), when asked whether institutions involved in the redevelopment of Kampong Bharu are top-down or bottom-up organisations, said:

From top to bottom is big. It is not functional and there is indecisive decision-making. There is a lot of hesitation and many of the decisions are based on recommendations. This is nothing new about the situation. KBDC should first develop one phase or part of the land. If this succeeds, this can be a model to develop other parts of Kampong Bharu.

Sam further explained that the community fears that this development plan will be another failure. A landowner and resident (male, 53, interviewed on 28/10/2013) says:

We are not confident with the proposed redevelopment plan. We are worried if the project has problems and is left abandoned, what will happen to us? My mindset at the moment, I want to sell the land. But the price must be reasonable.

Another landowner (female, 70, interviewed on 11/10/2013) reported her disillusionment with the redevelopment proposals:

I questioned the KBDC about the master plan at the community engagement meeting. They answered that is actually not our masterplan. What do you mean??? I told them they are giving wrong impression to the community by showing all those boards at the back. In my opinion, the community won't trust them, until they have seen the development. All this while, a few master plans were launched but nothing has happened, just empty talk.

The extract shows evidence of manipulation, with a confusing response from the powerholders and where the community were not offered any assurance. Overall, it is apparent that there is a lack of articulated vision of Kampong Bharu's future functions and complications with landowners have been more problematic.

2. Civil society point of view on the situation of Kampong Bharu redevelopment

Interestingly, when asked to specify any urban design element in Kampong Bharu, the majority of the focus group participants often linked this with development change related to modern, high-rise buildings and density. A survey was conducted during the focus group discussion to analyse the community perceptions about the conditions of current development in Kampong Bharu. The results from the fieldwork included feedback from 19 out of 22 participants. As described in Chapter 3, eight indicators were used to understand the way that design quality may or may not affect their everyday life. Table 5.2 shows an overview of the overall respondents' assessment of the current state of Kampong Bharu. Most respondents rated their satisfaction with four out of eight indicators as 'average': these were accessibility (10), comfort, (10), safety (10), and environment (13). The results also indicated a fairly good level of satisfaction with transportation facilities and services (including pedestrian and cyclist): six (31%) of the respondents rated it as 'excellent', seven (37%) as 'average' and another six as 'poor'. The reason for these relatively even ratings is that the provided public transport systems are inaccessible. The other three indicators were rated as 'poor': these were recreational and amenity facilities (nine), maintenance (nine) and community participation (eight).

Table 5.2 Summary of respondents' view on the current state of Kampong Bharu

Indicator	Response
Accessibility (walkable catchment)	Average
Comfort (public realm)	Average
Safety (natural surveillance)	Average
Environment	Average
Transportation facilities and services (include pedestrian and cyclist)	Fairly good
Recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square etc)	Poor
Maintenance	Poor
Community participation (Redevelopment process)	Poor

Source: Fieldwork (2013)

The neighbourhood has overcrowded streets, not only for car usage but also economic activities. Even though Kampong Bharu is very accessible as the location is within the city centre, access and movement is slightly poor due to these activities. Seven (37%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with accessibility as 'excellent' and two (10%) as 'poor'. One respondent (male, student, 19) stated that "there is no such integration between one another to support the system and therefore it is not entirely effective." Furthermore, inconvenient parking obstructs the accessibility and people usually will try to avoid entering internal roads in the neighbourhood. Figure 5.10 (a) and (b) shows the condition of traffic around the surroundings of the LRT station in Kampong Bharu; in (a) cars are parking along the roadside near the LRT station, and in (b) cars are parking on single yellow lines and also blocking the entranceway for taxi and the LRT feeder bus. One respondent (male, landowner/resident, 51) has given the opinion that a one-way street should be considered to reduce congestion on the road. Another (male, landowner, 59) commented that "the neighbourhood is accessible as there is road, bus and LRT services." However, there is no policy and implementation of pedestrian and cyclist facilities. Many respondents perceived the area is not pedestrian friendly; they had very little awareness of any walking accessibility.



Figure 5.10 Cars blocking the entranceway for taxi lane and LRT feeder bus inaccessible to the Kampong Bharu LRT station

Source: Author's archive

The findings above and the response on the accessibility indicator suggest residents have an obvious notion of motorised movement as a way to access the area. Nevertheless, despite the fact that the area is not highly accessible, the majority of the respondents when asked to rate the comfort (public realm) indicator commented that there are a lot of facilities nearby, such as a school, medical centre, college, religious centre, community hall, public transportation and market. It seems that transportation provisions in Kampong Bharu have potential to be improved. In this regard, the lack of accessibility and connectivity has impacted on the efficiency of these infrastructures and facilities. The concept of smart growth, compact city and transit-oriented development has demonstrated the importance of these two aspects in reducing the carbon footprint and delivering sustainable places through the creation of a pedestrian oriented environment.



Figure 5.11 Unattractive flat at Kampong Periok (left) and Raja Bot (right) neighbourhood, which is located outside the MAS area

Source: Author's archive

Seven (37%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the comfort indicator as 'excellent', ten (53%) as 'average' and two (10%) as 'poor'. Some respondents indicated that Kampong Bharu is a lovely and pleasant neighbourhood apart from the area with flats. Figure 5.11 shows the condition of flat and tower blocks in the Kampong Periok and Raja Bot neighbourhoods,

which are located outside the MAS area. Indeed, these neighbourhoods are busy with economic activities (e.g. retailing, hawker stalls, small-scale industry and shophouses). It appears that the surroundings are of poor safety quality and very crowded, which in turn gives a negative perception regarding places with a risk of crime and lower sense of security (Raco, 2007). The community usually perceives that the area is dangerous when there are no locals around and shops and business are mostly run by foreign migrants. Five (26%) of the respondents rated safety as 'excellent', ten (53%) as 'average' and four (21%) as 'poor'. Some respondents indicated that there are adequate community and police patrolling the neighbourhood. In comparison with the comfort and safety results, there is clear evidence that physical protection and visual enhancement impact on the people's perception of the place. Against this background, people's sense of safety will be low and there will be fewer opportunities for social interaction.

Looking at the environment indicator, one respondent (5%) rated their satisfaction as 'excellent', thirteen (68%) as 'average', four (21%) as 'poor' and another one respondent decided not to respond. The Kampong Bharu area is perceived to have a poor quality of life and environment. As already mentioned, overcrowding by people and cars are among the key reasons for this. However, the majority of respondents mentioned also the lack of green vegetation in terms of tree plantings and green spaces. Some respondents commented that there was insufficient tree planting and that many trees have been cut down. One landowner (male, 51) suggested that "green lungs should be considered in future development" One landowner (male, 59) commented that "many community activities are usually religious based, but there are no activities such as cultural shows to promote the aesthetics of the Kampong Bharu." Overall, these results demonstrated that the community also associated the quality of physical environment with the value of cultural and social aspects.

Results for the recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square, etc.) indicator reported that three (16%) of respondents rated their satisfaction as 'excellent', seven (37%)

as 'average' and nine (47%) as 'poor'. The younger group of respondents seem to be much in favour of more indoor sport facilities. Almost a quarter of respondents (21%) indicated that there are insufficient public fields and parks in the neighbourhood. They also want more playgrounds for children to play. One landowner (male, 51) commented that:

We here have different needs. We have limited recreational facilities and many of these have been fully commercialised. Previously you just come to the field without having to pay anything. Where are the public facilities? There is only one field near Juara Tom Yam (restaurant) which is still available for free.

Another respondent (male, landowner, 51) commented that "most open and vacant spaces were taken up for parking spaces and businesses." The conversion of land use for these uses revealed that such demands and the nature of place itself are reasons why there is an inadequate space for green and recreational spaces. Figure 5.12 shows Sultan Suleiman Club House, with its field and hall rented to the public for sports activities. This club house is one of Kampong Bharu's buildings of historical and heritage value. The surroundings of the property are bounded by schools, office buildings and nearby residential units. The findings suggest that it is important for the new redevelopment plan to reflect on the need for leisure and wellness space for the diverse needs of different groups of people. Thus, people could benefit from more outdoor lifestyles and the attraction of more vibrant activities for more sustainable city living.

With regard to the maintenance indicator, this study found that the regulatory authority enforcement to monitor, control and manage maintenance in Kampong Bharu is poor and weak. Nine (47%) of the respondents indicated that the maintenance of the neighbourhood is poor. One individual (male, 59) stated that "the maintenance is reactive rather proactive." Another (female, 57) commented it is "poor and not controlled by MAS but instead by CHKL". Seven (37%) of the respondents reported average conditions with the majority commenting that maintenance was not

efficient even with a schedule. Three (16%) rated the maintenance as 'excellent'. The overall response to the question about the function of MAS and KLCH in governing the neighbourhood indicated that the community would rather believe MAS than the local authority.



Figure 5.12 Sultan Suleiman Club House is one of the two biggest existing green spaces within Kampong Bharu
Source: Author's archive

In terms of community participation in the regeneration process, five (26%) respondents rated their satisfaction with this process as excellent, six (32%) as 'average' and eight as 'poor'. Figure 5.13 shows one of the meetings for community engagement held by KBDC to discuss land matters and the future of the Kampong Bharu redevelopment. In general, respondents indicated that the forum is a good platform for them to address their concerns, opinions and suggestions. Some participants indicated that MAS is more approachable than KBDC. One resident (male, 51 interviewed on 02/11/2013) commented that a flow of information is required to ensure the community is up to date with the Kampong Bharu regeneration process. He expressed his belief that knowledge, education and informative are equally important. Only one respondent (female, 41)

indicated that she has not participated in the process and is not fully aware of the KBDC programme. Overall, the enforcement to monitor, control and manage Kampong Bharu also appeared to be very poor and weak. Thereby, the development in the neighbourhood is not well-structured and of poor quality.



Figure 5.13 Kampong Masjid community engagement

Photo credit: Shamsul Rizal

5.2.3 PROBLEMATIC WAY FORWARD

Understanding the sensitive context of a given community is key to achieving strategic sustainability that builds on the notion of a greater sense of place as well as managing the risk associated with departing from the status quo (Raco, 2007; Healey, 1996, 2006; Tonkiss, 2013). Norliza (APUDG urban planner, interviewed on 28/10/2013) commented that “a lot of people when they judge any kind of development, they judge by what they see today because they have very little

understanding of future plans.” In another interview, a CHKL officer (Urban Planning Department, interviewed on 17/10/2013) commented that the community have the perception that they are going to lose their land. The findings in this study mirror the recognition in several studies that senses of community identity are being lost among residents in neighbourhoods of major urban areas (Porter and Barber, 2006; Matsuoka and Kaplan, 2008; Golberg et al., 2012).

Zakaria (landowner, interviewed on 30/11/2013) expressed the view that the many proposed plans for Kampong Bharu failed because they did not consult with the public. That being the case, the community felt that they are losing and not benefiting from the future development. With regards to the Kampong Bharu redevelopment plan, Zakaria stated that:

this is a not brownfield area, where there is open land which belongs to the government; they target an area and gave out a fantastic plan of a new city, then people will be staying in high rise.

One landowner commented that:

The development lacks forethought on services required, and the aesthetic quality is poor, as in high-rise development and development driven by investment return rather than quality of life driven. How do you define quality of life? It is so subjective. Not everyone wants to live in a high-rise building. In my opinion, it all matters to living environment and services. There are so many ways to design and I don't think it is necessarily to have to go up [high-rise buildings]. They will create another urban hell.

(Male, 59, interviewed on 02/11/2013)

In that context, the redevelopment is typically not trying to accommodate the desire of the people who are currently living in Kampong Bharu. The majority of the community are concerned that the

development is neglecting the cultural identity and heritage that ought to be preserved (Alhabshi, 2010). When they are talking about the future of Kampong Bharu, they are referring to the Malay future in the city. This neighbourhood is their civic pride, which represents the social, cultural, architectural and town planning history of the Malay people. These are significant values and unique to the character of the neighbourhood.

When asked about the CHKL upgrading and beautification of Jalan Raja Alang and Raja Muda Musa, which was completed in 2008 at a cost of RM33 million, one landowner, who is a resident (male, 49 interviewed on 04/12/2013) commented that:

It is good, but there is no education for the people who live there. Then hawkers started setting up stalls on the pavement and the seating is convenient for them to sit. Some use the walkway to dry their clothes or business equipment. All these have spoiled the initial plan. There is also no follow up on the maintenance after its completion. They should do some enforcement to ensure the success of the project

The community appeared to show lack of awareness and appreciation about the streetscape design capability. Figure 5.14 shows a narrow pedestrian walkway and overcrowded streetscapes along *Jalan Raja Muda Musa*, which is particularly famous as a 'food heaven' district. This is an example of unsuccessful design due to lack of consideration on sensitivity of the context. It is observed that the bollards unnecessarily obstruct pedestrians' ease of movement and any motorcycle could easily park in between the gaps because the bollards seems to 'indicate' available space for parking. One resident (male, 21, interviewed on 20/09/2013) commented that "people do not often use the provided seating on the pavement because there is nothing to watch." The arrangement of the streetscape element is in an inappropriate position. Not only is the design impractical function wise, but it also does not properly control/educate people's behaviour in space. Saiful (CHKL urban planner, 17/10/2013) explained that the people who use this area "maybe they

don't have sense of belonging to the place. It was meant to add value to their surroundings. We cannot control their mentality.”



Figure 5.14 Pedestrian walkway along Jalan Raja Muda Musa ('food haven' district)

Source: Author's archive

5.2.4 SUMMARY

Overall, the people are concerned and assumed that the neighbourhood will be losing its identity and values as a consequence of the regeneration plan. There is a tension between protecting large-scale tracts of land and constraints on planning possibilities for future regeneration. KBDC, which links directly with the Federal government, appeared to be seen as being concerned with a political agenda rather than providing a 'strong' leadership. The redevelopment is necessary for improvement providing sustainable city living and environment. In doing so, Shaw and Robinson

(2010, p. 143) suggest that “the way forward for urban regeneration should be to combine progressive vision and leadership with the resources of the state and the insights of local communities.” However, there are too many political factors that have resulted in conflict-led regeneration. There is a necessity to take this further by critically reflecting on their applicability in a context of sustainable urban development and regeneration.

5.3 | THE SCOPE OF DESIGN SUSTAINABILITY IN KAMPONG BHARU REDEVELOPMENT

The results in this chapter suggest that there are various design and planning issues affecting the way people behave and use the urban space in Kampong Bharu. In this section, the discussion will reflect on some lessons from conflict-led regeneration on sustainable city centre regeneration from a conceptual and theoretical point of view. Thus, this section reviews how design addresses the outcomes of social sustainability. In particular, it draws discussion on how it may facilitate the changes of urban landscape and life at the regenerated sites (Madanipour, 2006).

5.3.1 THE WAY FORWARD FOR QUALITY DESIGN-LED REGENERATION IN KAMPONG BHARU

Essentially, a balance between the different dimensions of sustainability are required to ensure that social sustainability does not come at the expense of economic or ecological sustainability. Madanipour (2006, p. 176) argues that: “urban design contributes to the task of adjusting the city to this structural change, by creating new spatial organization and projecting a new image that befits a new society.” Given that physical and cultural infrastructures are developed to help make the city a more attractive place for living and working, sustainable urban design components are equally important in sustainable city centre regeneration and fundamental in the creation of a desirable urban living environment. Specific to the Kampong Bharu context, these

components will be discussed in line with three principles: 1) density, compactness and mixed-use; 2) brownfield reuse and open spaces; and 3) integrated transportation systems.

1. Density, compactness and mixed-use

Urban villages promote the idea of medium – to high density (not high-rise) mixed-use redevelopment. Such proposals offer redevelopment within the existing urban fabric and appear to minimise commuting by providing for both employment and housing within an area limited to approximately 40 ha (100 acres), with most parts of the urban village within a walking time of around ten minutes

(Ratcliffe et al., 2009, p. 256)

This view is supported by Goldberg et al. (2012) who suggest neighbourhood design that encourages a sense of place and that is pedestrian oriented is more likely to affect positive perception than car-oriented design models. Density is used to describe, predict and control the use of land (DETR, 1998; Berghauser-Pont and Haupt, 2007; Cooper and Boyko, 2011). The findings observed in this study mirror those of previous studies that have examined the effect of density, compactness and mixed-uses on the notions of social justice and equity, sense of place and quality of life (Burton, 2000; Punter, 2010; Cooper and Boyko, 2011). It is apparent that there is a complete lack of orientation in the neighbourhood. Some of the issues emerging from this finding relate specifically to inaccessible infrastructure, congested uses/activities and lower sense of attachment to the place. According to Dumreicher and Kolb (2008, p. 317), the local space is a dynamic entity which undergoes constant changes, and it is the rapid social and material processes within the given local situation that is a challenge for the neighbourhoods and people's well-being, attitudes and behaviours. Thus, neighbourhoods which enable access to a variety of services and activities with ease, will promote healthy places, sustainable living and generate vitality into places. By improving the physical enhancement and incorporating the concept of eyes on the streets to make a socially

sustainable environment, the local population are encouraged to maintain emotional links with their environment (Jacobs, 1961; Newman, 1972; Madanipour, 2006; Raco, 2007).

2. Brownfield reuse and open spaces

The reuse of brownfield sites and spaces is almost a pre-requisite, given that there are not many open and green spaces left in Kampong Bharu for recreational and leisure activities. This is related as well to issues on the limited urban space available. In Singapore, land consists mostly of open and green spaces with less than a third subject to man-made structures. Surprisingly, from that one-third, more than two-thirds consist of mostly high-density residential, commercial, institutional and industrial development with the remaining spaces for roads (Transitmy, 2011). Such a setting does provide an attractive city in which to live and work.

The findings from respondent feedback in Kampong Bharu are consistent with those from people in urban areas elsewhere, who express a desire for access to relationships with the environment and each other, attractive environments, outdoor lifestyles to enjoy, reduce stress and relax, and places for recreation and play. Therefore, reuse of brownfield sites and cultivation of open spaces should be looked at to maximise their potential for sustainable activities and development that encourage liveability in the environment as a key to promote positive feelings and attachment to a place (Veenhoven, 1998; Yeang, 2000; Evans et al., 2007). For instance, in New York, open space intervention in street transformation efforts created attractive and social public places. Open spaces offer equity and opportunity for better connectivity within the neighbourhood and promote contact with the environment and other people (GreenLINK, 2011). Thus, redevelopment/regeneration should target appropriate resource-management techniques. In doing so, it also allows improvement of the quality of the urban fabric in the neighbourhood and dismisses negative perceptions by developing formerly abandoned, vacant and derelict sites.

However, the situation in Kampong Bharu is in striking contrast. For example, in 2008, the launch of the *Pasar Minggu* redevelopment caused outcry among its residents and hawkers. One advantage that makes this area desirable for redevelopment is the LRT station, which is located behind Pasar Minggu. Hence, the site has a high potential for regeneration to create a good linkage of integrated transportation systems, as it is adjacent to the LRT station. The cultural stage that is located in Pasar Minggu is another heritage building that has become obsolete over the years (see Figure 5.15). The structure has significant heritage value and should be conserved and retained as part of the Malay heritage and a cultural asset. Aziz (24/12/2012) described that:

The main cultural stage which in my childhood hosted weddings, children's competitions, '*majlis bercukur*', meetings, sports events, political rallies, saw violence and humanity and resilience of the human spirit before, during and after 13th May 1969 – all that was at the centre of the Malay community will be gone.

Throughout the redevelopment process, there has been a lack of transparency and these people have little knowledge of where are they going to be relocated. The land of 3.707 acres, is owned by CHKL and the development proposed will build a 60-storey condominium tower that houses 392 residential units, a 40-storey office building and a three-storey shopping mall. This suggests that the given redevelopment is targeting an incoming middle-class population and not benefiting the existing community and businesses.

This finding is in agreement with Madanipour (2006, p. 182) who showed “the tension between development and society, whereby the government and industry see the need for change and society does not.” The future transformation of the neighbourhood is linked to rebranding and a new city image that commonly focuses on remaking an attractive environment for living, working and business through property and market intervention to stimulate potential investment and attract

future investors in Kampong Bharu. Thus, such development thereby leads to the spread of processes of displacement and gentrification.

Click link to view image online

Figure 5.15 Weekly market operating at the Pasar Minggu conceals the cultural stage leaving the structure overlooked

Source: Riskybudiman, 2015

3. Integrated transportation

The results in this study support that Kampong Bharu has a high potential to advocate transit-oriented development and smart growth theories into its local context for improved regeneration. Integrated transportation that incorporates elements of density and compactness, mixed-uses and open spaces could enhance quality of life and economic vitality as well as stimulate the urban vitality. That in turn creates a network of space on the basis of the traditional planning layout, a pedestrian-friendly system and increasing transit use to maximise the capacity of connectivity. It is observed that accessibility in Kampong Bharu is highly reliant on motorised movements. Hence, parking issues seem one of the main problems and a priority to tackle. The mindset of design thinking is generally to focus on a design solution that is likely to favour the

motorised user for smooth traffic. However, it does not resolve issues of congestion by motorised vehicles, which is one of the issues voiced by the community. The future development should target more sustainable solutions.

Planning for sustainability must also be linked directly to planning for infrastructure; otherwise there is a risk of recreating unsustainable community development patterns and it will miss the opportunity to reshape our communities to be prosperous, competitive, and resilient in the decades ahead

(Connelly et al., 2012, p. 147)

If we look at higher densities and compactness from the integrated transport perspective, there will be greater occurrence of travel behaviour and walking for transportation; more walking, cycling and public transport use, non-work trips, walking for leisure purposes, travel walking and travel to work (Cooper and Boyko, 2011, p. 49). It is important to ensure that residents benefit from the choice of a non-car-based transport mode. Equally it is beneficial to make local services and facilities viable.

5.3.2 COLLABORATIVE PROCESS (POLICY, POLITICS, GOVERNANCE AND RESOURCES)

Any regeneration project requires three things: first, the vision; second, the plan and third must be the leadership. It almost like one-third, one-third. You can say urban design is part of the vision and the plan. But the leadership, commitment and community engagement are just as important.

(Norliza, APUDG urban planner, 28/10/2013)

The diagram in Figure 5.16 shows the way in which drivers, factors and key influences have shaped conflict-led regeneration in the Kampong Bharu area. The evidence from this study concludes that governance and politics have the greatest effect on decision-making in the development. The evidence from this study suggested that conflicts of governance have been driven by political involvement. As highlighted in the diagram, the arrows indicate the various ways different influences impact on policy, politics, governance and resources: interestingly, coupled with resource limitations, a policy change is seen as a way to expedite and solve the problems that obstruct the Kampong Bharu redevelopment.

An interview with Datuk Khay revealed that:

We are about to change a clause of the land title, to open the lease to '*non-bumiputera*' (Chinese, Indian, etc.). Only lease. Not ownership. The lease is planned for 60 years. At the end of the lease, the building will be given back to the Malays. By then, the inheritance will provide benefits in the future. As a consequence, we managed to raise the standard of the Malays, as they will become multibillionaires.

(Developer and member of advisory committee of KBDC, interviewed on 10/10/2013)

Elsewhere, Tonkiss (2013, p. 24) has argued that:

Thinking critically about city design goes beyond seeing this as task of architects, planners, engineers; it is equally the work of politicians and developers, landlords and householders, buyers and sellers, comers and go-ers.

In efforts to move towards better practice in sustainable city centre regeneration, there are three basic approaches to meet the balance of state/market/civil society: knowledge, leadership and awareness (Connelly et al., 2011; Rosales, 2010). Critiques about Kampong Bharu redevelopment are

connected to the way that key influences on political interest, the surrounding market and built environment forces have shaped the regeneration plan towards a modern commercial-led regeneration. Although the redevelopment aims to provide an improved economic status and better living environment in the neighbourhood, it is obvious the future vision of Kampong Bharu ignores the existing residents. It is apparent that the political interest of the city administration has prevailed over the needs of the citizens.

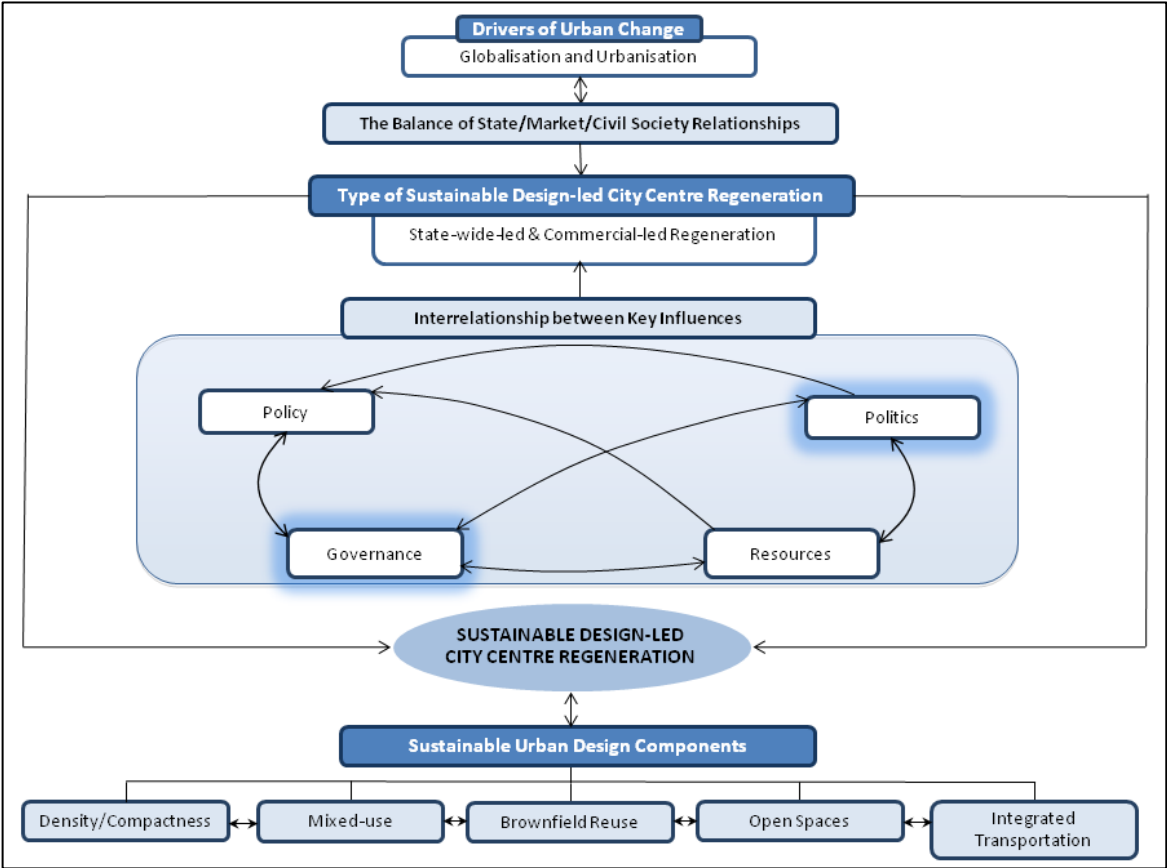


Figure 5.16 Factors influencing Kampong Bharu redevelopment

Source: Author's construct

This radical transformation appears to bring about the possibility of gentrification, displacement and loss of the Malay urban village. The findings suggest that the redevelopment is lacking a deep understanding of the values of social sustainability. One landowner (male, 64, 30/11/2013) commented that:

They know Kampong Bharu is double the size of KLCC. So, they get greedy and see many opportunities to develop, but they forgot there are living residents, there are people. We still want the heritage to be retained and at the same time build new development around it. All great architects are competing to develop beautiful structures but we are unique because of the modern Malay enclave

The redevelopment plan in Kampong Bharu shows similarities with the regeneration in Birmingham. However, although it is acknowledged that KBDC receive their funding from the federal level, the financial source of the Kampong Bharu redevelopment is as yet unclear. The idea to bulldoze the entire site for that ambitious master plan is not cost-effective. Such development might involve billions of funding and therefore, the financial matter is crucial. So far, the governance for the redevelopment has yet to deliver good governance to ensure that the complexity of the redevelopment is associated with sustainability.

5.3.3 KAMPONG BHARU IN THE BRODER CASE OF KUALA LUMPUR

As a living heritage, Kampong Bharu continues to struggle over redevelopment issues. The conflict has emerged from political influence and interest in redeveloping the area and this has led towards uneven development in the neighbourhood. Plans to redevelop the area prioritise mega-projects and large high-profile developments which have embraced entrepreneurialism (Beazley et al., 1996; Yeoh, 2005). The ambition to redevelop Kampong Bharu into a modern precinct of Islamic Malay culture with new economic activities of Kuala Lumpur seems to target Muslim investors, especially those from Arab countries who have so much money. As with other neighbourhoods that are located close to city areas, the regeneration tends to draw on the new city image and rebranding to put forward its potential to expand to accommodate the city economic growth. Against that background, drivers of state-wide-led and commercial-led regeneration are stimulating urban

entrepreneurialism and expand design approaches associated with global competitiveness. Such thinking has been highly influential on urban regeneration policy framework and urban transformation in Asian cities – resulting in the reclamation of land for commercial and other urban uses; iconic buildings; and flagship projects to attract investors. Therefore, there is a lack of certainty the regeneration will be beneficial for the existing community.

5.4 | CONCLUSION

Overall, the study in this chapter demonstrated that the state and civil society are more influential in affecting regeneration. The underlying reason for this is that the tensions are deeply rooted in conflict between different groups and individuals (including key authorities). In the case of Kampong Bharu, the on-going redevelopment is criticised on account of the absence of a coherent, consistent and transparent approach, particularly on financing and the regeneration. It also highlights the importance of urban governance and a strong planning framework to reconcile policies concerned with social processes as well as both physical and social dimensions. The situation of Kampong Bharu conflict-led regeneration reveals the implications for sustainable city centre regeneration in the way that design process/strategy are delivering the balance between physical and economic development while addressing the diverse needs of urban populations. It is obvious that social sustainability is affected by the current and future condition of the urban environment. In this context, the urban setting seems likely to influence how people look, feel and experience the reality of their everyday life. The relationships people have with one another, their access to cultural, leisure and shopping amenities and public transportation, the attractiveness of the city, a healthy environment and the quality of government services they receive, can make urban living pleasurable or dissatisfying (Matsuoka and Kaplan, 2008; Rosales; 2010; Goldberg et al., 2012). In the following chapter, the thesis will also be discussing two other distinct case studies of regeneration projects in Kuala Lumpur. The next chapter will discuss the distinct case study of KLCC.

CHAPTER 6 COMMERCIAL/BUSINESS-LED REGENERATION: THE CASE STUDY OF KUALA LUMPUR CITY CENTRE (KLCC) - THE PETRONAS TWIN TOWERS

INTRODUCTION

Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) is one of the flagship models of Malaysian sustainable urban development. The project which includes the Petronas Twin Towers is instantly well known by many from around the world. Despite being recognised as a national building and providing a high-quality urban infrastructure and services for the public, KLCC to some extent appeals more to expatriates and corporate elite. The goal of this chapter is to analyse the case study of KLCC redevelopment as well as to present a case study of business/commercial-led regeneration. The project is interesting because it provides a multistage development with a unique governance structure. The development of KLCC took place in two stages: 1) the first stage of the master plan, which was completed in 1998 and 2) the second stage of the master plan updated in 2011. More importantly, KLCC development has made a radical transformation in the urban landscape of Kuala Lumpur. This chapter explores the way urban design affects social sustainability and how this is shaping the city centre environment.

The analysis of this chapter is structured into three sections, which repeat a similar framework to that found in the previous chapter. First, the context and factors impacting KLCC design-led regeneration will be discussed based on three subsections: 1) location and land uses 2) demographics and 3) governance and economic factors. In the second section, the discussion focuses on corporate strategies involved in shaping the KLCC urban environment. There are two subsections to assess here: 1) world-class urban development: the Western lifestyle, and 2) the counter balance of the vision of sustainability. Finally, the scope of design sustainability will be explored. In this

particular, the relationship between the development and urbanisation will be explored regarding how this has shaped business/commercial-led regeneration.

By the end of the chapter, one will have a good overview concerning the value of sustainable urban design and planning, the connection between key influences of policy, politics, governance and resources in shaping the type of design-led development and how factors influencing urban changes such as globalisation are impacting KLCC. Figure 6.1 shows the location of KLCC in relation to the other two case studies.

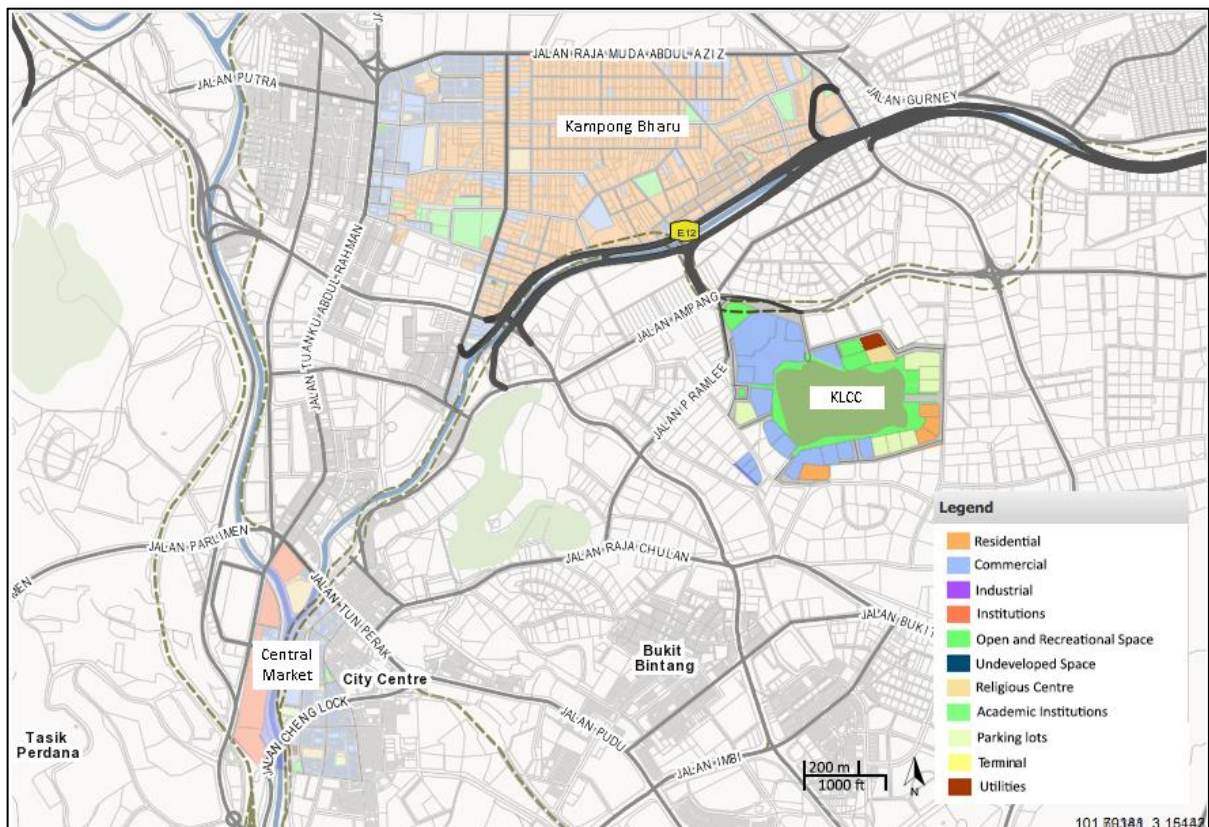


Figure 6.1 The site location of Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) case study

Source: KUL submission GIS (CHKL, 2014)

6.1 | CONTEXT AND FACTORS IMPACTING KLCC DESIGN-LED REGENERATION

KLCC is an integrated mixed-use development, which was conceptualised by the vision of the former Prime Minister of Malaysia, Tun Dr Mahathir Mohammed. The case study is fascinating because it is not a typical model for a developing country. This project of national interest has successfully created a built environment that brings diversity into the area without compromising its quality of sense of place. Unlike Kampong Bharu, pressure of competitive globalisation led to the redevelopment of an urban area in Kuala Lumpur and this development was achieved thanks to state, market and civil society forces working in harmony. This section will explore the context and factors impacting KLCC design-led regeneration based on three aspects – 1) location and land uses, 2) demographics and 3) governance and economic factors. These aspects would then be discussed in the next section in relation to change in urban environments and the way it impacts on the city lifestyle.

6.1.1 LOCATION AND LAND USES

The KLCC land area of 105.88 acres is situated in the Golden Triangle Area of Kuala Lumpur main commercial district. It was originally an eastward expansion of the Golden Triangle from *Jalan Sultan Ismail* and *Jalan Raja Chulan*. The site is located in the vicinity of *Jalan Ampang*, *Jalan P Ramlee*, *Jalan Binjai*, *Jalan Kia Peng* and *Jalan Pinang* and was a former colonial racecourse (see Figure 6.2). In 1988, the City Hall of Kuala Lumpur (CHKL) had ordered the Selangor Turf Club to be relocated outside the city area to solve the traffic congestion that resulted from Kuala Lumpur urbanisation (Hassan and Hanif, 2014). The local authority made a case for redeveloping the area based on two urban challenges, which were to redevelop more suitable land uses and counterbalance the pressure for urbanisation. Bunnell (1999, p. 3) quoted an article, which was published in a local newspaper (New Straits Times, 1989, p. 8) that, “the announcement to relocate

the racecourse took place as far back as August 1982 and was intended to turn the site into a ‘park for the public’.” It appears that CHKL was inclined to address public demand for a convenient and accessible green park for all members of the public. Nonetheless, the significance of land values and the market for future economic growth also made it desirable to develop the area for commercial purposes.

Previous studies of KLCC development have reported that the idea was driven by national vision in order to minimise or solve issues and problems faced by the city inhabitants (Bunnel, 1999; Zerín Properties, 2003; Omar and Hoon Leh, 2009; Hassan and Hanif, 2014). The KLCC involves two stages of development: the first stage of the master plan took place from 1993 until 1998 and the second stage of the master plan was updated in 2011. In 1995, the CHKL approved the original KLCC master plan for a total Gross Floor Area (GFA) of 18, 339,764 sq ft consisting of 22 individual lots ranging from 0.84–6.96 acres. The first stage of the master plan advocated a development of a ‘city within a city’, where people could work, live, shop and visit, and enjoy all aspects of life in a convenient and pleasant environment (Abada, 2004). Thirteen out of 22 lots (12,198,430 sq ft) were developed during this stage (RNL, 2011). The Light Rail Transit (LRT) station set adjacent to the site has improved the public transit system in terms of its efficiency and viability. The station is located at the underground of Jalan Ampang, right in between the basement of Suria KLCC and Avenue-K (please see Figure 6.2). The second stage of the master plan vision was the development of ‘KLCC a vertical city’, which aimed to further position KLCC as an iconic world-class development. Set in the heart of the commercial district, the goals of the current phase are to develop undeveloped lots and address a number of issues that emerged at KLCC. In particular, these are related to coordination of future development around the site, to facilitate new stronger connections to the park and access to transit stops, and improve the public realm.

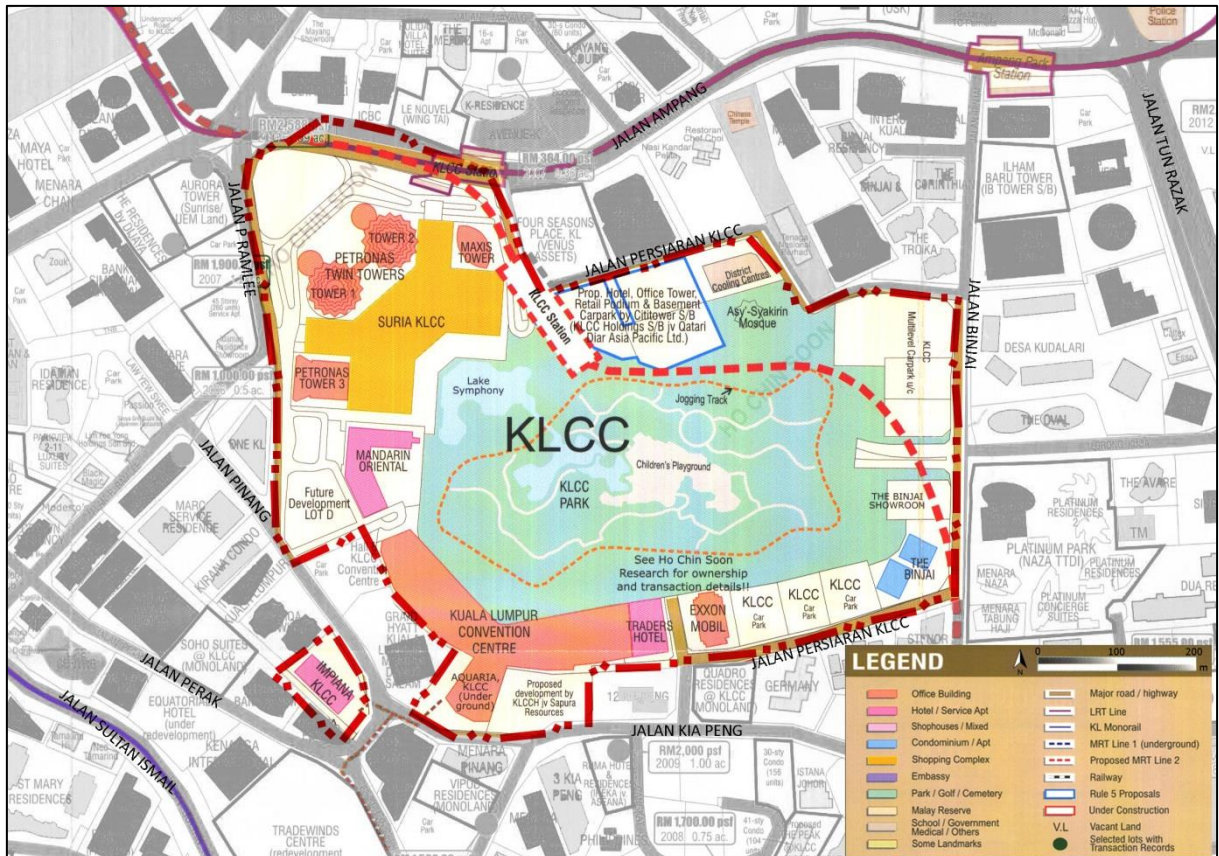


Figure 6.2 The Kuala Lumpur City Centre District

Source: Ho Chin Soon (HCS), 2013

1. The first stage of KLCC master plan

The KLCC is marked by high-density development with 50 acres of a public park at its core. The project consists of seven primary land uses that are all built to a high international standard which make up a world-class living environment (Abada, 2004; Hassan and Hanif, 2014). Its total GFA of 12,198,430 sq ft comprises 59% of office use, 15% of retail use, 11% of hotel use, 7% of convention centre use, and 8% of residential use. Table 6.1 shows the components in the KLCC, and reveals the development carried out a substantial commercial establishment including the provision of infrastructure. Its prime location in the Kuala Lumpur central district is one of its key features that attracts many multinational corporation headquarters to be based in the KLCC. As can be seen in Figure 6.3, the site is surrounded by various land use districts including the retail-hospitality-tourist

(at the south to south-west boundary line), financial (at the south-west boundary line), the embassy (at the east boundary line) and residential districts (scattered around north, east and south-east boundary lines). The establishment of LRT on the site offers more opportunities for connectivity and linkages supporting urban development relating to growth and productivity. With these features working hand in hand, the increase in proximity helps in the creation of a vibrant city environment.

Table 6.1 Land use type and building in the KLCC

		Land Use Type	Building Name
1		Office Building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Petronas Twin Towers • Maxis Tower • Petronas Tower 3 • Exxon Mobil Tower
2		Hotels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mandarin Oriental Hotel • Traders Hotel
3		A Retail centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suria KLCC
4		Convention Centre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kuala Lumpur Convention Centre
5		Residential	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Binjai Residence
6		Recreational facilities and infrastructures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As-Syakirin Mosque (located in KLCC Park) • Petrosains (Science Discovery Centre) • Petronas Art Gallery • Philharmonic Hall • Aquaria • LRT line • KLCC District Cooling
7		Green areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • KLCC Park

Source: Author's construct

Since 2010, the rents and property values at KLCC have escalated and continue to attract high-end residential development. For example, it is reported that, “the recently built Binjai condominiums are the most expensive residential estate in Malaysia...” (RNL, 2011, p. 2). The presence of the Petronas Twin Towers as a global icon and the greenery of the KLCC Park have uniquely added value to the real estate market in the KLCC. The Binjai is located on the corner plot diagonally across from the Twin Towers, thus it is guaranteed that the value remains high because the spectacular view will be permanently unblocked. Previn, CEO of Zerin Properties Sdn. Bhd., who

was interviewed by the Star newspaper mentioned that, “property values in the Kuala Lumpur city centre start from RM1,000 to RM1,300 per sq ft for commercial units and at least RM2,500 per sq ft for residential units” (Kok, 2014). Although there are debates about oversupply of residential properties, some newly launched luxury apartments and condominiums, especially those with smaller areas and a good proportion of units, have been received well (KLCC Condominium, 2013; Kok, 2014). It appears that developments with bigger units tend to have lower occupancy rates. Nonetheless, this suggests that commercial-led development is greatly desirable due to its profitable return on investment.

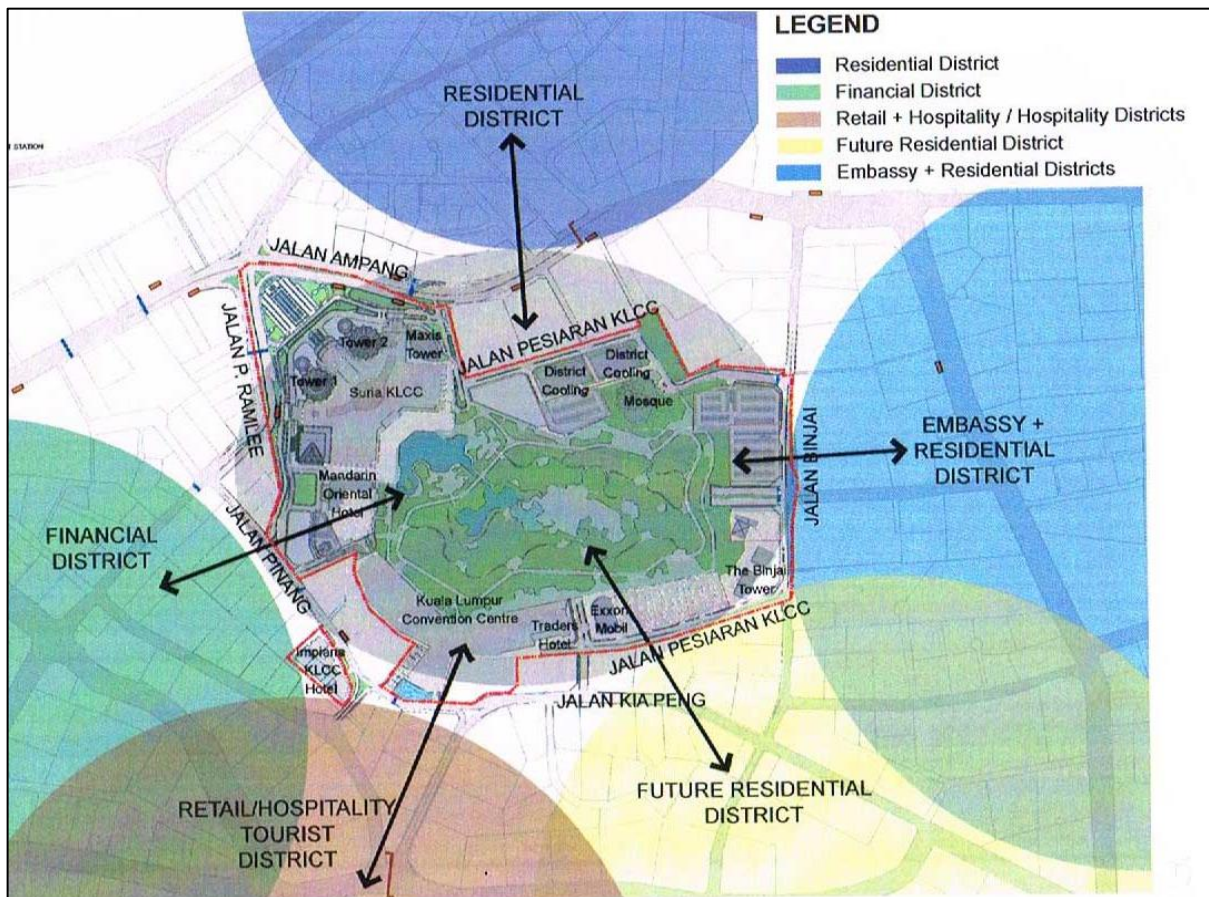


Figure 6.3 The site is surrounded by vibrant districts

Source: KLCC Masterplan Update (RNL, 2011, p. 22)

The map in Figure 6.4 identifies the level of activities, which signifies the interrelationships of elements and the KLCC project’s relationships to the surrounding environment. These are

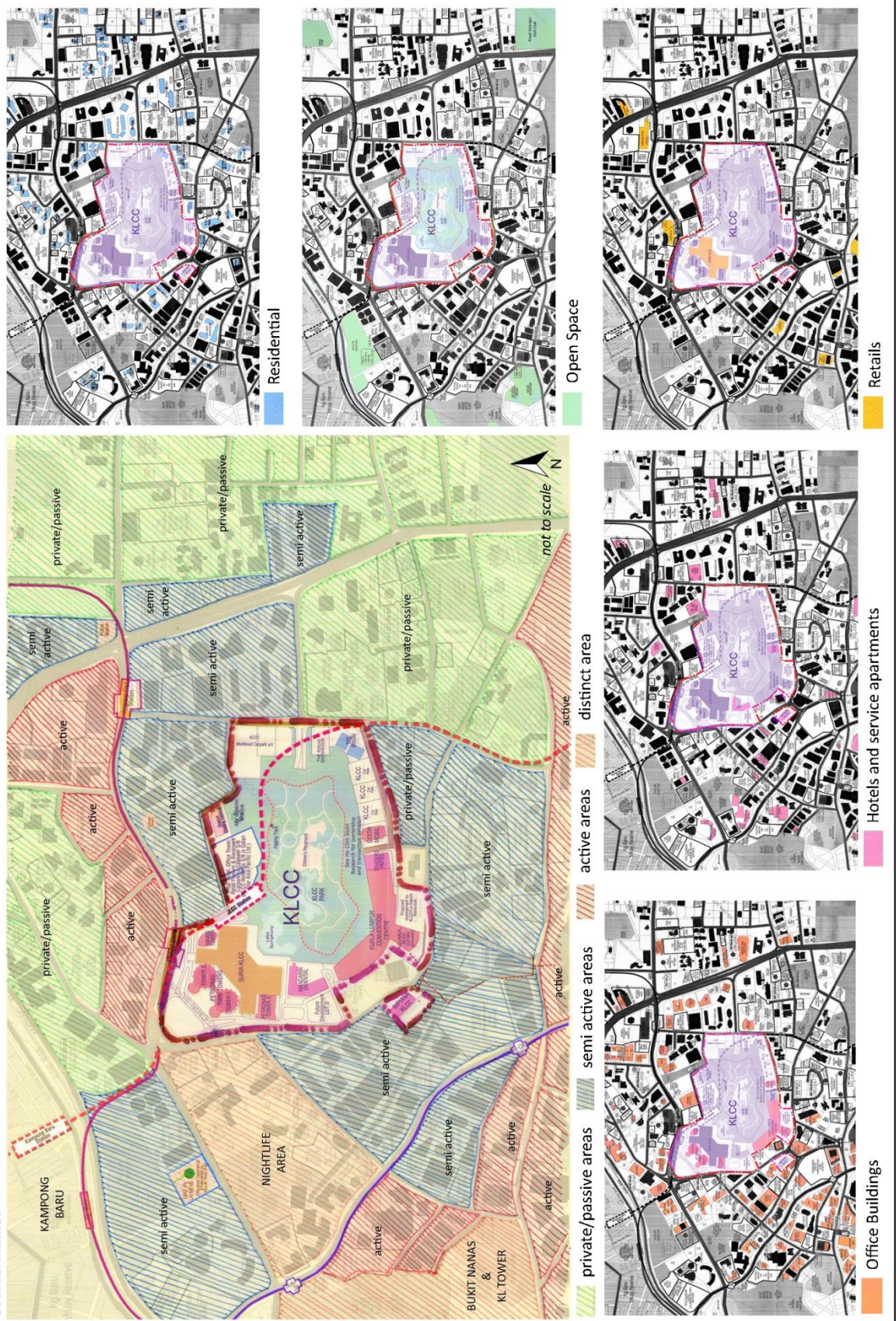
highlighted in four different areas. Firstly, red areas indicate active activities, which focus on commercial areas associated with office buildings, shopping malls, hotels and mixed usage of shopping areas with apartments/condominiums. Secondly, blue areas indicate semi-active activities, which focus on commercial areas that are primarily for business purposes. This type of use includes office buildings, hotels and service apartments. Thus, the areas will be generally busy during peak hours due to the volume of traffic congestion. This explains why there are only a few residential units within such areas. Thirdly, green areas indicate private/passive activities that focus on residential areas. These areas consist of private land and high-end residential units, usually known as the exclusive part of Kuala Lumpur. Moreover, the area also has substantial numbers of embassy buildings including nine official city-residences for the royals of the monarchies of Malaysia. Finally, orange areas indicate distinctive areas that focus on tourism, leisure and recreation areas. The area between *Jalan Ampang* and *Jalan P Ramlee* has a few numbers of interesting nightlife spots such as bistros, bars, and clubs. Kuala Lumpur Tower, which is located at the top of the hill of Bukit Nanas, a forest reserve area, is one of the tourist attraction spots. The tower is the highest viewpoint in Kuala Lumpur and just approximately one mile away from the KLCC.

Over the years, there have been massive developments around the site that impact directly on many changes involving broader economic prosperity, changing lifestyle and land pressure in the city (Abada, 2014). For example, in March 2010, Lai Meng Primary School and Lai Meng Kindergarten located on prime land in *Jalan Ampang* were bought for RM148.2 million, in exchange for a piece of 2.2 ha land at Bukit Jalil in the outskirts of Kuala Lumpur. Magna Prima, a property developer who bought the land, will be developing an RM1.8 billion luxury property at a 1.05 ha site of the former school. There was no objection to the relocation of the school as its original location was deemed no longer suitable due to noise, adverse environment and parking problems for parents. Therefore, the important considerations for the headmaster and parents were that the new location has a bigger compound and better facilities, giving a better environment for the students to study in. While this

seems to denote a win-win situation, the fact that there are decreasing numbers of schools in the city to make a way for more commercial developments are rather worrying. A planner (interviewed on 13/11/2013) commented that the reason for many school relocations is that they are one of the factors that caused congestion and traffic problems in the city. It can be argued that finding a better design alternative would actually provide a much more sustainable solution than relocating the schools elsewhere.

Figure 6.4 Land use characteristics within the KLCC surroundings

Source: Author



2. The second stage of KLCC master plan

As the project developed, diversity of uses in the KLCC has greatly facilitated interconnectivity between the neighbouring surroundings to capture the maximum potential of the site. Hence, the second stage of the master plan focuses on providing new, stronger connections to the KLCC, developing undeveloped lots and coordinating future development with development around the site. The illustration shown in Figure 6.5 is a bird's eye view of the updated master plan, the concept of which was to create KLCC, a vertical city. The vision is to emphasise the continuity of tall buildings and towers surrounding the KLCC Park. It seeks to enhance the skyline while incorporating ideas to strengthen KLCC's position of leadership and innovation. The updated master plan proposed a broader range of uses inclusive of more residential and cultural uses with a total GFA of 25, 500, 998 sq ft (including the existing development). A total of 30% of the proposed GFA is identified as residential (high-end condo + service apartments), 47.1% as office space, 7.47% as hotel, 10.55% as retail and 4.93% as a convention centre. With regard to this new total GFA, a couple of potential impacts need to be considered.

Firstly, oversupply of high-end residential development has become obvious. Figures from the Census 2010 show that the total number of households in the area was 482, while the number of living quarters recorded was higher, at 613. This indicates there is a relatively significant number of unoccupied residential units. Khai Yin, who is the founder of KLCC Condominium Database and GoodPlace.my, an online entrepreneur for a property deal matching service, comments that, "there have been perpetual signs of oversupply in the KLCC area, with some developments registering low occupancy rates – some as low as 50%" (KLCC Condominiums, 2013). On the contrary, developers claimed that there is a high demand for high-end condominiums (Global Property Guide, 2014). Fernandez, who is a managing director of Khong and Jaafar argues that, "Malaysia's economy is expanding. There will be demand for various forms of properties in time to come as long as the

country is on the right growth track” (Kok, 2014). This means, oversupply of properties would not be a long-term scenario. Presumably as the economy expands, so will demand for residential units increase, particularly for the more expensive residential units. This aspect will be further discussed in the section on economic factors and governance (see 6.1.3).



Figure 6.5 Visual illustrations of new skyscrapers in KLCC neighbourhood. The newly proposed buildings are rendered in blue.

Source: KLCC Masterplan Update (RNL, 2011)

Finally, issues related to traffic and parking generated by the proposed development should be considered. Former surface parking which had once dominated the parcel of land at the eastern part of the site will be replaced by multiple underground levels of parking; and a ‘Parking Loop’ strategy introduced. Access to and from the site is made efficient by linking all parking lots on the site. As a result, this will reduce the traffic because the parking lots are connected underneath the development lots, which create an internal loop and reduces traffic on the main roads enclosing the

site. However, it remains unclear whether such strategy will only maintain the current level of traffic or potentially worsen the traffic congestion, especially during peak hours.

One of the major drawbacks of living in the KLCC area is the daily heavy traffic flow, albeit provided with a premium quality of life. However, this is common and similar to conditions experienced in big cities like New York and London. Being located within a closely crowded and high-density urban development, the compact and integrated mixed-use development is still able to encourage a socially and environmentally sustainable environment. The significance of the layout provides the convenience of having amenities and facilities that are within walking distance. Thus, as a whole, it stimulates positive feelings with the associated place in which there is a mix of pedestrian-oriented and transit-oriented approaches in balance with the built environment.

6.1.2 DEMOGRAPHICS

The KLCC area has a total population of 1,732 people (Census, 2010). Out of the population, 20.09% (348) are Malay (including other Bumiputera), 40.13% (695) are Chinese, 7.27% (126) are Indian, 0.12% (2) are others and 32.39% (561) are non-Malaysian citizens. There is a need to discuss the type of people living in KLCC as the development seems likely to target the high-income portion of the population. An interviewee (interviewed on 26/12/2013) argues, “Right now, here in Kuala Lumpur is very constraining and to live in the city itself is very expensive. Unfortunately, people like us cannot afford to stay in this area. Tenants here are mostly from overseas.” In broad terms, the types of people who live in the KLCC area are mainly from two groups: expatriates and the affluent members of society. Census data of the total population by age group on the graph in Figure 6.6 shows there are typically a diverse group of people living in the area. Although there is a relatively low number for the age group between aged 20–39 years old, there are a large number of the population who are aged 50–54 years (382) and 15–19 years (302). The highest population in the age

group is generally those who are stable in terms of finance. It can be seen from the graph that second highest group is the group aged 15-19. This significant number of youths are believed to be the children of those who are aged 45 years and above because they are not yet able to support themselves, especially living in this high-end neighbourhood. Then, next in order of size are the groups aged 10–14 years (200), 40–44 years (184), 45–49 years (158), 0–4 years (126), and 55–59 years (118). The graph in Figure 6.6 below would appear to indicate that the majority of the population are grouped into a family households compared to a single person household. A Scottish expatriate mentioned that:

The facilities in the Binjai helped seal the deal after their hearts were won by the view and with the tennis court complemented by a large swimming pool that the girls love to play in. The condo delivers everything the family sought and Jane continued that this is the securest place we looked at and that makes a huge different when you have two little ones.

(Rees, ExpatGo, 2012)

Despite of the norm, where most families prefer to live in the suburb for better living environments, KLCC has proved that a city can also provide a high quality of living for all groups of people. This further supports the idea of Raco (2007) on seven attributes of sustainable communities, which are also relevant to crime prevention. These attributes include access and movement, structure, surveillance, ownership, physical protection, activity, and management and maintenance.

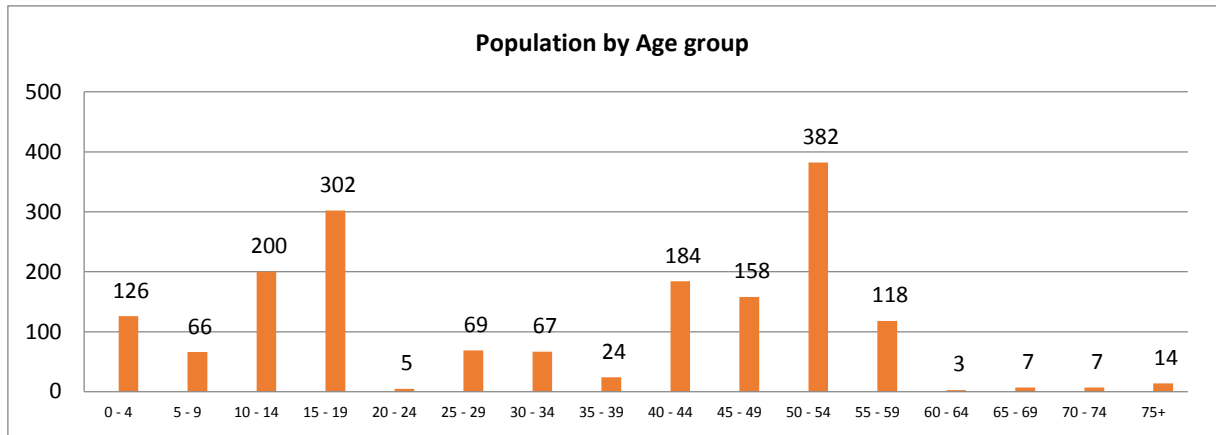


Figure 6.6 Population by age group in the perceived KLCC area boundary

Source: Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010

The area is indeed ideal for upper high-income people who desire high-quality city living and enjoy a modern business district lifestyle. There are a fairly large number of expatriate populations who are typically on short leases on international assignments. The area attracts expatriates because many of them are working in the area and it offers them better security. The fact that the LRT station stops underneath Suria KLCC makes it efficient to travel within the city centre. KLCC access to an array of services and activities also attracts diverse groups of people to come and visit the area easily.

Apparently, the change of demographics involves a broader social and cultural process. With regard to the demographic factor and its connection to social sustainability, the redevelopment has progressed as a significance form of cultural and economic development due to its proximity to businesses and employment. It identified the need for good quality social infrastructure and local services, shared social spaces and activities that have a contribution to building vibrant and inclusive communities. It has been argued that these features offer opportunities for all people to be socially included and have similar life opportunities (Fainstein, 2012; Woodcraft et al., 2012). Equally important, it works socially as well as economically and environmentally.

6.1.3 ECONOMIC AND GOVERNANCE

Abu (interviewed on 17/12/2013), who is a [REDACTED] stated that, “governance is not a problem if it is a national interest development.” An urban planner officer also commented that:

KLCC is an injection development. Usually, when the Ministry decides to do development, it goes through immediately... We cannot say anything and when the Ministry decides that is it. No questions asked.

(Interviewed on 17/12/2013)

These suggested that the nature of regeneration is very much in the ‘governance-by-government’ mode. On the contrary, it is unlikely because in fact, there is more of a two-way street between the state and the developers, rather than the state saying “*do it*” and it gets done. There is considerable evidence that a collaborative development process has ensured close cooperation between the developers of KLCC and the regulatory authorities. A principal architect for the KLCC argues that:

KLCC is a corporate company. In my opinion, it is a very open discussion between all collaborators. It is all about balance. When it comes to this big project, the authority people are actually open to new ideas but they are very strict... We have a goal to achieve and as long as there is a goal to achieve and all work together, then it is great.

([REDACTED], interviewed on 21/01/2014)

Therefore, it is critical to discuss the key relationships in the governance of the KLCC project. The project involves three governance transitions: firstly, before completion of KLCC, secondly, after the

completion of KLCC – both are in the first stage of the master plan – and finally, in the second stage of the master plan.

1. First stage of master plan

Fundamentally, there are powerful people involved in making a decision to achieve this national vision – Tun Dr Mahathir (the former Prime Minister), Ananda Krishnan (Sri Kuda – the land owner: land as a form of investment) and Petronas (funder of the KLCC development and an anchor tenant of the development). Abu, [REDACTED], comments that:

Yes, it is a top-down organisation because money controls everything. No matter how good you are in technical, if you do not have the budget, you cannot implement. Also, you are not the budget, just like me, a town planner, we are a designer. We plan we give advice, but they are the one who hold the money. This is a corporate world.

(Interviewed on 17/12/2013)

With regard to funding matters, Abu (interviewed on 17/12/2013) explains that:

Petroliam Nasional Berhad (Petronas) is a government owned company, 100% owned by Ministry of Finance. So Tun Mahathir tried to instruct Petronas: this piece of land work out with Sri Kuda and let's develop it.

It is remarkable to sum up that once the state (Dr Mahathir) has made the decision, the 'corporate world' then calls the shots. Previous study (Cheah and Tan, 2002, p. 4) argues that the development of KLCC is: "...a joint venture between the developer and major tenant in the mixed-use development that wants to have the building associated as part of its corporate identity." There were potential

economic profits to be realised from commercial investment through private sector joint ventures. This explanation highlights that these key powerful people seized the opportunity of its potential by collaborating in the process. In this way, they work closely together to deal with many challenges/problems/limitations of this ambitious national vision project. From there they have the capacity to move forward on the master plan.

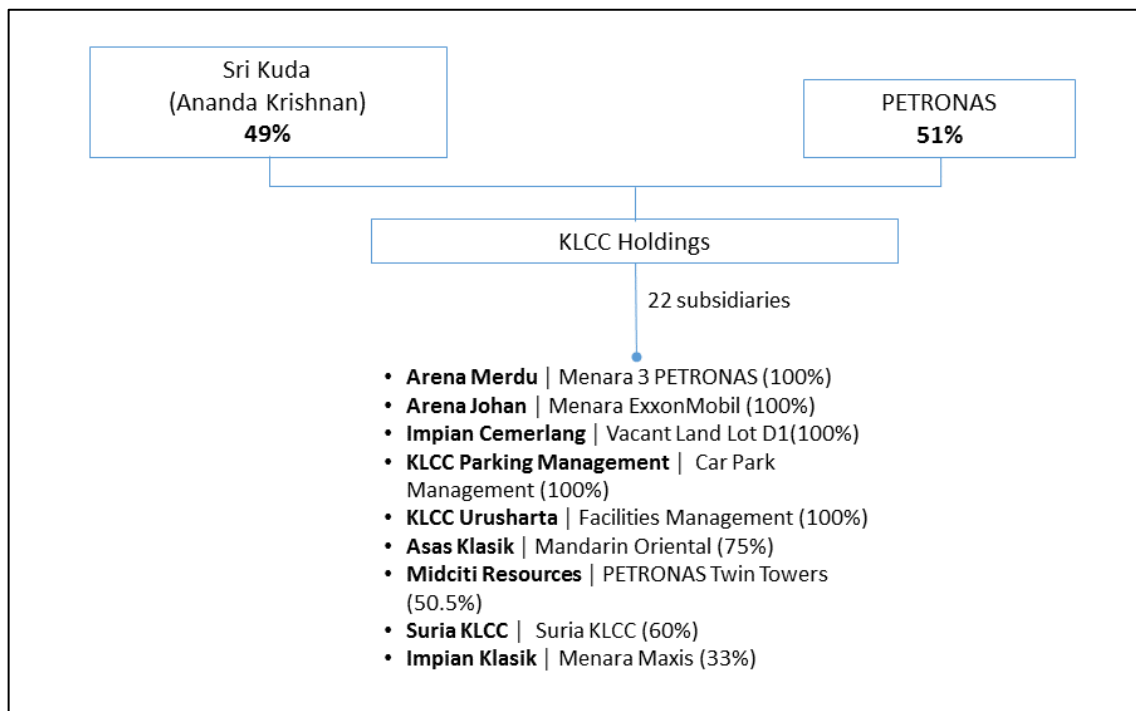


Figure 6.7 Corporate governance before the completion of the KLCC

Source: Fieldwork (2013)

Before completion of the KLCC, the corporate structure was based on two major development groups; Ananda Krishnan owned 49% and Petronas owned 51% (see Figure 6.7). These two groups then formed KLCC Holdings, of which there are 22 subsidiaries, and is also the owner of the 22 lots in the KLCC area. KLCC Holdings Bhd. (KLCCH), who is the owner of the project, has undertaken the responsibility to design, develop, maintain and manage the project while upholding the city's national interest. The proposal to transform the redevelopment site into an integrated mixed-use project was a winning entry by a US based architectural firm (Hassan and Hanif, 2014). In

1990, the master plan competition was made open to international consultants after initiatives to call submissions from local consultants did not pose any interesting concepts. Following the winning of the original master plan by Klages Carter Vail and Partners, Caesar Pelli then won the competition for the Petronas Twin Towers design in 1992. Eventually, his master plan of the Petronas Twin Tower and KLCC was a departure from the original master plan (RNL, 2011).

After completion of KLCC, the corporate structure had undergone a transition, which to some extent shifts to public private partnership mode. This transition of the second corporate structure is shown in Figure 6.8. KLCC Holdings (under Petronas) has bought 44% of Sri Kuda shares through its subsidiaries (Abu, interviewed on 17/12/2013). In the year 2004, KLCC Property Holdings, a partly owned subsidiary of Petronas (51% shares) was incorporated. The company operates through business units such as commercial properties, retail properties, hotel property, and asset and facilities management (GlobalData, 2013). Usually, after completion of any project in Malaysia, the park and open spaces will be handed over fully to the council. Uncommon to any other development in Kuala Lumpur, there was a negotiation between KLCC management and the City Hall of Kuala Lumpur (CHKL) to arrange the privatisation of KLCC Park maintenance. Both parties agreed that the land belongs to CHKL, but the KLCC management is the party who maintains the area (Abu, interviewed on 17/12/2013). The reason behind this is that the park requires an expensive budget to maintain it in good condition. Nonetheless, it is crucial for the area to serve as high-quality urban spaces and the involvement of KLCC management guarantees that maintenance of the area continues in a way that leaving this function to the state might not achieve. The KLCC property management imposed a maintenance fee and Abu (interviewed on 17/12/2013) explained that:

We formed a task force called 'Urusharta' to maintain the park, road, street lighting, road repair and anything within the KLCC area. Also, this has been going on for the last 20 years. For instance, there are 22 subsidiaries in KLCC and every lot has one name... Urusharta (Facilities Management) consultant will charge the owner based on their GFA. For example, this one building has 1 million per sq ft of net able space. We calculate and charge the building because we maintain the path etc. Thus, the owner of the building will have two types of tax: one to Urusharta (management fees) and second to CHKL (assessment rate).

An anonymous person (interviewed on 26/12/2013) further adds that:

In commercial buildings like the Twin Towers or Maxis Tower, they construct and build and they rent it out to lease. As they lease, they are paying rentals and on top of that paying a service charge. The service charge is for the maintenance of all the common areas – such as the toilets, corridors, the plant room and substations. We manage these costs. Those service charges are for all these.

With regard to the commercial buildings there is a criticism regarding transparency in the cost management of the maintenance/service fee. One of the challenges in Malaysia that facilities management particularly has to face is that many people/organisations want to make a profit from this function. On the other hand, people do not ask how this cost has been spent and some of the building owners would opt not to disclose the cost. The assumptions are associated with the attitude that the subject matter is unnecessary as long as the organisation delivers a fairly good service. Some of the issues emerging from this relate specifically to the code of conduct. In the UK, CBRE, a commercial real estate company with headquarters in Los Angeles, requires a commercial property to produce a monthly report on the expense of the maintenance.

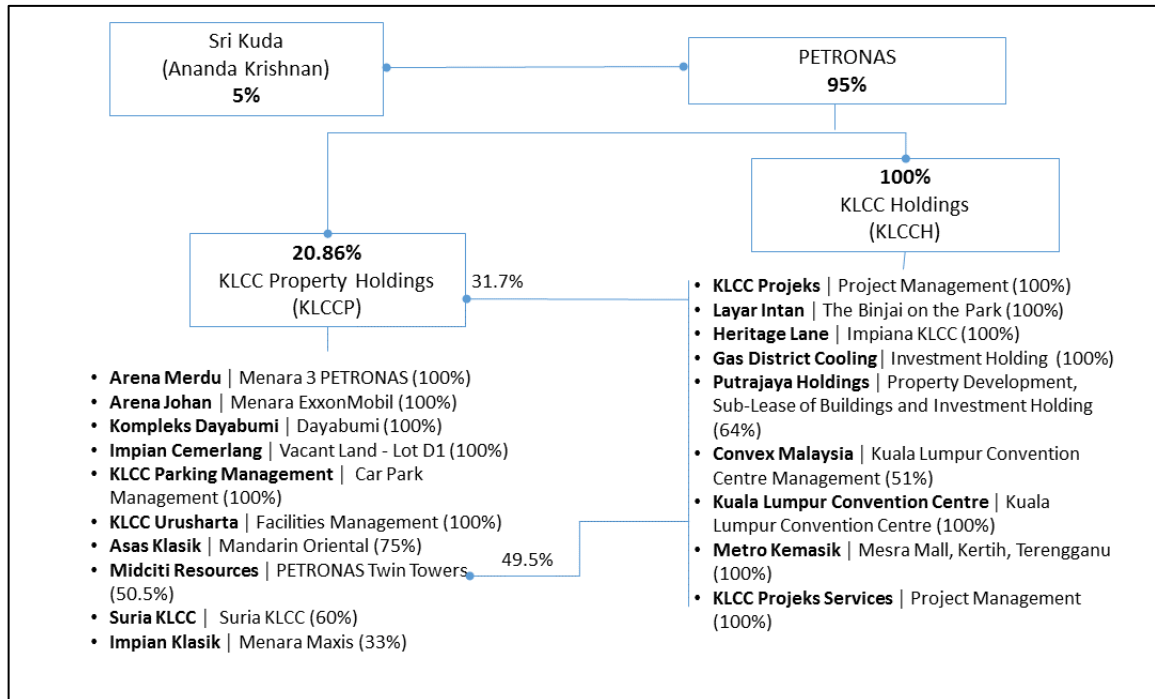


Figure 6.8 Corporate structure after completion of KLCC
 Source: KLCC Group 2013 dairy and organiser (KLCCP, 2013)

Furthermore, Cheah and Tan (2002, p. 4) mention that:

Each separate development within KLCC is responsible for discerning and meeting its financing need. To date, construction and end finance facilities have been predominantly by way of equity finance and traditional bank borrowing. KLCC's agreement that each respective development partner mandates a maximum 60:40 debt to equity ratio in which any cost overrun is paid for through advances from shareholders.

Certainly, funding is vital in the KLCC project and it has cost RM4 billion only to build the Petronas Twin Towers. Since completion of the KLCC in 1998, few developments have been constructed on the site in the progression of the first stage of the master plan. The Kuala Lumpur Convention Centre was completed in 2005, the Traders Hotel completed in 2006, the Binjai (residential) completed in 2008 and Menara 3 Petronas completed in 2012.

2. Second stage of master plan

In the year 2013, KLCC Property Holdings Berhad (KLCCP) undertook a corporate restructuring exercise which involved the restructuring of the KLCCP Group into a stapled structure known as 'KLCCP Stapled Group' where the existing ordinary shares of KLCCP are stapled together with units in KLCC Real Estate Investment Trust (KLCC REIT) forming the resultant KLCCP Stapled Securities (see Figure 6.9). Upon completion of the course, KLCCP Stapled Group now comprises:

- The KLCCP Group, being the Company, its subsidiaries and associate company; and
- Its controlled entity, KLCC REIT

Accordingly, it is worth reflecting on the Malaysian government programme, Malaysia My Second Home (MM2H) which is related to further foreign investment in Malaysian property. In the KLCC area, the numbers of non-Malaysian citizens increased to 561 in 2010, from 164 in 2000 and 83 in 1991 (Malaysian Census, 2000, 2010). According to the Global Property Guide (2014), from 2002 to 2012, the MM2H programme attracted 19,488 foreign buyers. It appears that numbers of application approvals increased to 3,277 in 2012, from 2,387 in 2011, and 1,499 in 2010. In parallel, the government's Economic Transformation Programme (ETP) has helped to assist in increased demand for luxury condos that mainly cater to foreigners (Global Property Guide, 2014).

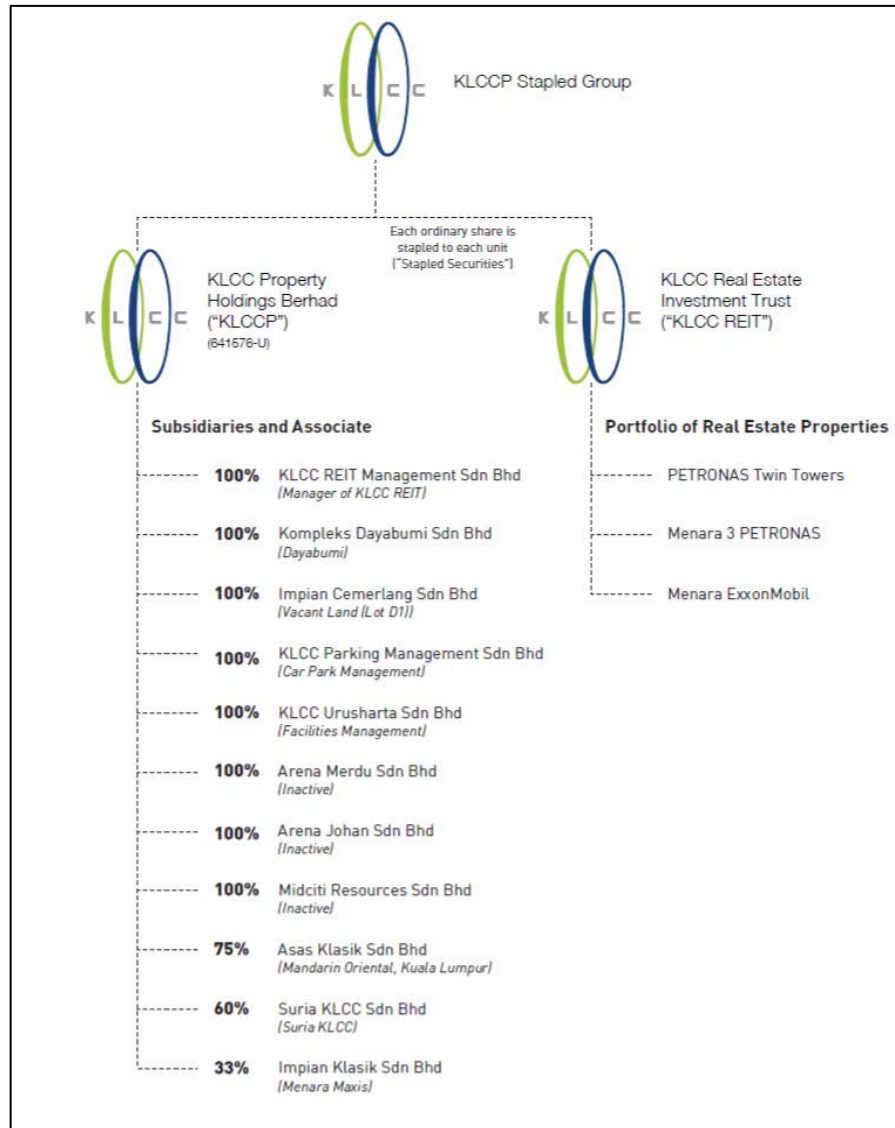


Figure 6.9 KLCC Stapled Group structure
 Source: Annual report 2014 (KLCCP, 2015)

The gap between the first stage of the master plan (completed in 1998) until the master plan update (2011) has put in question the reason behind the process. It is presumable that KLCC (now KLCCP) are looking for developers who would offer what the market desires in terms of further positioning KLCC as an iconic world-class development. For instance, a new tower, which will consist of retail space, an office block and a hotel is currently under construction on the site. This RM8 billion project is jointly developed by KLCC Holdings with Qatari Diar Real Estate Investment Co., in a 50:50

venture. The development is situated between Petronas Twin Towers and the As-Syakirin Mosque and expected to be completed by 2017.

6.1.4 SUMMARY

In short, the existing area of KLCC is located on premium urban land. The societies that live in the neighbourhood are among the affluent people in Malaysia (royalty, expatriate and high-income groups). Thus, the shape of the environment based on its existing character and context relatively shows a reflection of the area. Unlike Kampong Bharu, the relocation of the racecourse has defined the localities; the role and function, and intrinsic value nurture possibilities within the local existing fabric. As such, these factors shape the neighbourhood based on the character and context of the place. KLCC Holdings establishment was a part of the project and this was initiated at an early stage, involving three important stakeholders: Tun Dr Mahathir (state), Sri Kuda (the landowner) and Petronas (the project finance). The nature of the development took place on the basis of area-specific agreements, which have proven to be useful for the project to build on existing knowledge. Initially, the state had foreseen the market opportunity of the land available in the city centre for new development. Although the project received early criticisms from the public, the so-called national interest on the rapid economic development has successfully developed a place for people. The well-planned KLCC development is driven by a combination of urban entrepreneurialism, global image and competitiveness type of regeneration. As a consequence, high-quality designs come at an expense, which attract many investors. The following section discusses how the project has contributed to the urban way of life.

6.2 | CORPORATE STRATEGIES IN SHAPING THE KLCC URBAN ENVIRONMENT

The KLCC project is regarded as a symbol of the globalisation era and the new city image of Kuala Lumpur. During the early days, the public opposed the development, putting forward complaints that the iconic building would overshadow their properties. These people owned the surrounding properties and were concerned that their property value would drop as a result of the development. Over the years, the KLCC project has significantly enhanced economic growth enabling more opportunities to attract business. The urban transformation relating to the physical and economic development is very likely to influence the social environment. This section attempts to untangle how the nature of the regeneration has shaped the KLCC environment. This section comprises of two subsections to discuss corporate strategies in shaping the KLCC environment; firstly, world-class urban development – the Western lifestyle – and finally, the counterbalance of the vision of sustainability.

6.2.1 WORLD-CLASS URBAN DEVELOPMENT: THE WESTERN LIFESTYLE

The social and economic character of the area shaped by the KLCC development has uniquely created a sense of place in a way that embraces strong interrelationships between people, nature and the built environment. Figure 6.10 shows a scenic panoramic view of the KLCC Park taken in front of the Suria KLCC entrance to the park. Despite being a high-end neighbourhood for the rich, it is interesting to note that KLCC is encouraging diversity in the area. The park provides a sanctuary of tropical landscaping in the central part of KLCC and is one of the favourite spots for relaxation, a meeting point, sightseeing and recreational activities. These are clear evidence that the place is promoting socio-spatial relationships. The green area at the KLCC core benefits from acting as a hub and the impact of the big park is similar to Central Park in New York.



Figure 6.10 A Panoramic view of KLCC

Source: Author's archive

Though KLCC is a project of a developing country, there is a clear influence of the Western lifestyle. For instance, over the last decade in the UK, policy documents relating to the importance of creating space to promote well-being have become key in city regeneration (UTF, 2005; Abdallah et al., 2008; Michaleson et al., 2012; Evans et al., 2012). The KLCC Park set a trend of a modern city lifestyle and establishes a healthy culture in the city. It is observed that the park is serving the good of the public as a leisure and wellness space. Such a space offers an escape for the urban dwellers from strains and stresses. It appears to have become a favourite spot for joggers and many of them willingly travel to KLCC although they live some distance away from the area. The KLCC Park is well equipped with many amenities and facilities, such as a playgrounds and pool for children, toilets and running track/path. Moreover, a huge green space offers something for everyone; walking in the park to enjoy fresh air, a family trip to the playground or picnic with friends, exercise or just enjoyment of the surroundings (GreenLINK, 2011).

It appears that buyers are willing to pay a significant premium for such a quality of life in the KLCC area. At this price, they expect healthier environments, prettier landscapes, improved infrastructure, top-notch services and more amenities. Hence, the changing lifestyle, market expectation and adaptation to the change have shaped a premium quality of urban living in the area. An architect (interviewed on 21/01/2014) comments that “KL does not have a sea front or nice river so we have to create something to increase the value of each property.” In this regard, not only is a park for the public a key component in creating an engaging environment for all, but it also increases

the aesthetic value of each real estate unit that faces it. This is in accordance with the CHKL policy documents on urban design, which highlighted the requirement for prettier landscape and high standard design in UD20 and UD21 (see Appendix F). Many cities in developed countries have shown that high-quality green space aids the regeneration of an area while adding value to the adjacent properties (GreenLINK, 2011). The presence of an attractive well-maintained park is vital to attract people and new businesses. To ensure this, as mentioned in 6.1.3, the development has privatised the management of the KLCC Park.

6.2.2 COUNTERBALANCE OF THE VISION OF SUSTAINABILITY

When KLCC was built, sustainability issues were never directly linked to the project. In fact in Malaysia, discourse on urban regeneration and sustainable development only occurred in the mid-2000s (Sani, 1993; Kaur and Hitam, 2010). Thus, this explains why many in Malaysia still lack in understanding of the meaning of the term sustainable urban development and its relation to social sustainability. For example, Abu expresses his criticism that:

When you talk about this, you need to talk about category of income. You know that there is high income, middle income and lower income. If you look at these three, if you want to provide sustainability, tell me which group do you want to include? You cannot put sustainability in lower income group. The reason behind that is the cost. You cannot build sustainable building for them – only ordinary development. The spoiler would come from this group. You may plan something nice and beautiful, but they are the one who would vandalise it. Middle income would be 50/50. If the development caters for 70% high-income group, 20% middle income and 10% lower that would be yes. The mix and total ratio must be right.

(Planner, interviewed on 17/12/2013)

The developers are sceptical about the viability of sustainable urban development for all groups and concluded that lower-income groups are prone to bring in negative behaviour and vandalise their environment. Nevertheless, if we look at the KLCC context, even though the development focuses on world-class urban development and mainly aims at high and middle-income groups, the park for the public has counterbalanced this narrow focus and introduced diversity into the area. Despite the development targeted for commercial purposes, the KLCC regeneration strategy has remarkably achieved a balance between physical and economic factors in the development while addressing the diverse needs of the wider urban populations. The park at the KLCC core is the favourite space for everyone, albeit located in the high-end urban areas. The environment of the park has proven that the space is contributing to improving people's lives as it provides easily accessible recreational opportunities. In addition, the LRT station located right underneath Suria KLCC has created an effective transport network. As highlighted in the literature review, both these elements, open space and integrated transportation, along with mixed uses have successfully stimulated vitality, growth and productivity within the area.

Juminan, [REDACTED],

who is also an architect, mentioned that:

When KLCC is being created, it became the third downtown. The first downtown is the old city (Central Market areas). Second is the Bukit Bintang area and third is the KLCC area. Also, these downtown areas are not connected. So, now we are trying our very best to connect all these three. Hence, Petronas contributed in the development of the pedestrian bridge connecting KLCC to the Pavilion, which is located in the Bukit Bintang area.

(Interviewed on 07/01/2014)

Additionally, PETRONAS has funded an RM100 million project that linked KLCC and Bukit Bintang with an elevated pedestrian walkway. The 1.173 km long pedestrian bridge links two major retail areas (Suria KLCC and Pavilion) and tourism spots in Kuala Lumpur; it takes approximately 20 minutes to walk across the five-metre wide and air-conditioned bridge. KLCC-Bukit Bintang pedestrian walkway is a comfortable and convenient alternative to the city's busy roads for pedestrians (see Figure 6.11 a). However, crime and safety issues are also a consideration, hence the limited opening times could point to a fear of crime at night (see Figure 6.11 b). Against this background, it is arguable whether such design innovation demonstrates quality and sustainable design. This bridge links destinations, where it is connected between buildings and people are travelling above the street level (see Figure 6.12). Thus, not only do motorised vehicles still dominate the streets but also create a more crowded and dense built up area. The 'skywalk' shows poor engagement with the surroundings and discourages shared spaces in the urban streets. Furthermore, it is expensive to maintain, and is not available at all times due to the limited operating hours.



Figure 6.11.a) The interior of the elevated pedestrian walkway **b)** Operating hours of KLCC-Bukit Bintang elevated pedestrian walkway

Photo credit: Author's archive



Figure 6.12 KLCC-Bukit Bintang elevated pedestrian walkway

Source: Author's archive

6.2.3 SUMMARY

This case study of KLCC thus shows the development is, to a great extent, similar to that of a developed country model. Focusing on the cityscape transformation, KLCC has contributed to the creation of the city and communities in a development that is socially, economically and environmentally sustainable. Despite it being considered as a high-end area, the national monument, KLCC Suria shopping mall and urban sanctuary in the city have created a sense of welcoming, which has brought more activities and people into the area. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research that has found better design can influence people's behaviour (Corubolo, 1998; Jones et al., 2010). In turn, better living environments in the city are linked with sustainable cities. To discuss social sustainability aspects concerning overall quality of life, the following section explores the scope of design and its relationship with the regeneration process.

6.3 | THE SCOPE OF DESIGN FOR SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

There is widespread understanding of the effect of local identity and social networks on people's feeling of attachment and belonging to places. It is widely accepted that in order to create socially and environmentally sustainable surroundings, it is necessary for planners, local agencies and developers to consider and respond to local needs. The discussion in this section reflects on people's overall perception of the urban fabric in the neighbourhood. By taking into account the results of the survey, the analysis illustrates the interactions of everyday life and experience as a basis for understanding how an integrated sustainable urban design development is affecting social sustainability. The section is divided into three parts: (1) the way forward for high-quality design-led regeneration in KLCC, (2) collaborative process – state/market/civil society – and (3) drivers of urban change.

6.3.1 THE WAY FORWARD FOR HIGH-QUALITY DESIGN-LED REGENERATION IN KLCC

The impact of KLCC on socio-economic development has greatly improved the surrounding area and the wider society. The way that the created environment contributes to ordinary everyday life is another successful story of the KLCC development. This is in part due to physical factors related to land use diversity, building density and compactness, accessibility (i.e. connectivity and walkable catchment), transport provisions and public spaces (i.e. green and open space). Hence, it is essential to assess the design elements in order to comprehend how the principle of urban planning may have affected the quality of life. The results from the fieldwork survey included 15 responses.

The first part of analysis examines the overall perception of the urban fabric in the KLCC area. In all, the urban fabric of urban development in KLCC was considered excellent because

widespread satisfactory survey results were obtained on many aspects of the urban fabric themes (Table 6.2). In this study, all of the respondents were satisfied with six out of eight urban indicator features: none of the following were rated as 'poor' – accessibility, physical barriers, transportation provision, recreational and amenity facilities, public realm and natural surveillance. Even though the created environment has been given a business and corporate feel, a wide variety of activities are taking place. A total of 13 (87%) of the respondents have rated their satisfaction with two urban fabric indicators – recreational and amenity facilities, and public realm – as 'excellent', proving that the development supports community well-being. Also, 11 (73%) of the respondents have rated satisfaction with the transportation provision as 'excellent'. This suggests that these three features support strong social networks. Ten (67%) of the respondents rated the land use diversity as 'excellent', four (27%) as 'average' and one (7%) as 'poor'. Most of the respondents agree that the area demonstrates a good quality of land use diversity as the area has many business and commercial uses. However, the fact that the nearest school is located about 3 km (1.8 miles) away from the KLCC refutes that the land uses conform to the society who live within the area. KLCC is surrounded by residential uses and the majority of those who live there are family households. Nine (60%) of the respondents have rated the natural surveillance as 'excellent' and six (40%) as 'average', confirming that the environment and public spaces within the KLCC influence the perception of personal safety. Regarding building density and compactness, eight (53%) of the respondents have rated them as 'excellent', six (40%) as 'average' and one (7%) as 'poor'. Eight (53%) of the respondents have rated accessibility as 'excellent' and seven (47%) as 'average'. The development provides alternative sustainable transport to minimise the impact of cars. Thus, this clarifies that even though the traffic in the area is highly congested KLCC can be easily accessed via LRT. On the other hand, the results also reflect the updated master plan, which highlighted that the site has poor wayfinding and visibility, especially on the south and east of the KLCC (RNL, 2011). Five (33%) of the respondents have rated their satisfaction with the physical barrier as 'excellent' and 10 (67%) as 'average'. Interestingly, some of the respondents commented that the high-rise buildings

surrounding the KLCC Park have created a physical and visual barrier from the hustle and bustle of the city. Many respondents indicated that the park blended in very well with the built environment and was in harmony with nature, people and the city.

Table 6.2 Summary of respondents' views on the current state of KLCC development

Urban Fabric Theme	
Indicator	Response
Accessibility (walkable catchment)	Excellent
Building density and compactness	Fairly good
Land use diversity	Excellent
Comfort (public realm)	Excellent
Safety (natural surveillance)	Fairly good
Physical barrier	Average
Transportation facilities and services	Excellent
Recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square etc.)	Excellent

Source: Fieldwork 2013

Table 6.3 Summary of respondents' view on sense of attachment with urban environments in the KLCC

Street Theme	
Indicator	Response
Sense of intimacy (sky exposure)	Fairly good
Façade continuity (building and space orientation)	Average
Softness (design and landscape element)	Excellent
Active frontage (social width and visual complexity)	Average
Safety (natural surveillance)	Average
Sedibility (number of seating opportunities)	Excellent

Source: Fieldwork 2013



Figure 6.13 Daily peak hour traffic at the outer side of the KLCC neighbourhood

Source: Author's archive

The second part of analysis examines the interactions of everyday life related to the sense of attachment with urban street design in shaping social environment and activities. An overview of the results in the second part of the survey indicate that respondents were generally satisfied (see Table 6.3). None of the respondents have rated all features of street indicators as 'poor'. Although the KLCC is surrounded by a dense urban area of Kuala Lumpur, the perception of a dense environment decreases as people get into the KLCC Park. Figure 6.13 shows daily traffic during peak hours at Jalan Ampang, which is located at the boundary of KLCC. A total of 12 (80%) of the respondents rated the softness (soft nature of design and landscape elements) as 'excellent' and three (20%) as 'average'. Nine (60%) of the respondents have rated the sense of intimacy (such as space between buildings, sky exposure, building height, tree canopy, etc.) as 'excellent' and six (40%)

as 'average'. A total of 14 (93%) of the respondents have rated the 'sedibility' (availability of objects to sit on) as 'excellent' and only one (7%) as 'average'. Six (40%) of the respondents have rated the continuity of façade (strong and continuous building line) as 'excellent' and nine (60%) as 'average'. Six of the respondents have rated the natural surveillance as 'excellent' and nine as 'average'. Finally, four (27%) of the respondents have rated the active frontage as 'excellent' and 11 (73%) as 'average'. Although there are many activities in the park, the street frontage at the boundary of KLCC and between buildings is still lacking in terms of vitality within the public realm. Figure 6.14 shows an example of outdoor space between the Suria KLCC and Mandarin Oriental Hotel, where space is unable to provide a sense of activity, by offering any interesting activities and experiences.



Figure 6.14 Outdoor space between Suria KLCC and Mandarin Oriental Hotel

Source: Author's archive

Table 6.4 Summary of respondents' view on urban design quality in KLCC

Building Form and Mass Theme	
Indicator	Response
Density	Average
Compactness	Average
Building orientation	Fairly good
Active frontage (liveliness)	Fairly good
Accessibility	Excellent
Streetscape Design Theme	
Indicator	Response
Accessibility	Excellent
Security (traffic and crime)	Average
Comfort	Excellent
Safety (natural surveillance)	Fairly good
Pedestrian walkways/paths	Excellent
Cyclist lanes	Average
Maintenance	Average
Space and Setbacks Theme	
Indicator	Response
Continuity of space	Fairly good
Sense of security	Fairly good
Social activities	Excellent
Open space (plaza, avenue, square etc.)	Excellent
Green space (park, pocket garden, green areas etc.)	Excellent
Mix of Uses Theme	
Indicator	Response
Land use diversity (liveliness)	Excellent
Community facilities	Excellent
Transport services and facilities	Excellent
Employment density	Excellent
Shared place (social mixing)	Excellent
Outdoor social space	Excellent
Visual and Sensory Richness Theme	
Indicator	Response
Lighting	Excellent
Urban and street furniture	Excellent
Softscapes (planting arrangements)	Excellent
Sedibility arrangements	Excellent
Space integration	Fairly good

Source: Fieldwork 2013

The third part of the analysis examines the quality of urban design and its impact/significance to the experience of everyday life. This final part of the survey is divided into five themes. Table 6.4 shows an overview of respondents' assessment of the state of urban design quality in KLCC, from which it may be seen that there were satisfactory results for all themes. Firstly, we will discuss the results obtained for the theme of building form and mass. All of the respondents were satisfied with three out of five features: building orientation, active frontage and accessibility, none of them being rated as 'poor'. A total of 13 (87%) of the respondents rated accessibility as 'excellent' and two (13%) as 'average', confirming that the design connects people to local facilities and jobs. Eight (53%) of the respondents rated the building orientation and active frontage as 'excellent' and seven (47%) as 'average'. Six (40%) of the respondents rated the density as 'excellent', eight (53%) as 'average' and one (7%) as 'poor'. With regard to satisfaction with the compactness, six of the respondents rated this as 'excellent', seven as 'average' and two as 'poor'. The reason behind this is that the east of KLCC has only a few developed sites compared to the west of KLCC, which is much more densely developed.

Secondly, turning now to the streetscape design theme, all of the respondents were satisfied with five out of seven features: accessibility, security, comfort, safety and pedestrian walkways/paths, none of which were rated as 'poor'. This acknowledges that these features are essential in sustaining the environment. A total of 12 (80%) of the respondents have rated accessibility and pedestrian walkways/paths as 'excellent' and three (20%) as 'average'. Eleven (73%) of the respondents rated their comfort as 'excellent' and four (27%) as 'average'. A total of 53% of the respondents rated safety as 'excellent' and 47% as 'average'. However, 47% of the respondents rated the security as 'excellent' and 53% as 'average'. These results prove that even though there are security officers patrolling the area, it does not guarantee a sense of safety and security to the users. Thus, such perceptions may vary between different individuals. Three (20%) of the respondents rated the cyclist lane as 'excellent', nine (60%) as 'average' and three (20%) as 'poor'. Despite the KLCC

maintenance being privatised, five (33%) of respondents have rated their satisfaction with the maintenance as 'excellent', seven (47%) as 'average' and two (13%) as 'poor'. The results may have been influenced by the fact that some parts of the park adjacent to the mosque were closed temporarily to carry out the second phase of the updated KLCC master plan. Based on the results for this theme, well-maintained public spaces influence perception of personal safety.

Thirdly, all of the respondents were satisfied with three out of five features on the space and setbacks theme: open space, green space and social activities, none being rated as 'poor'. A total of 13 (87%) of the respondents rated the green space as 'excellent' and 13% as 'average'. Twelve (80%) of the respondents rated the open space as 'excellent' and 20% as 'average'. A total of 67% of respondents rated the social activities as 'excellent' and 33% as 'average'. In terms of the continuity of space, seven respondents rated it equally as 'excellent' and 'average' and only one as 'poor'. Finally, 53% of respondents rated their sense of security as 'excellent', 40% as 'average' and 7% as 'poor'.

Fourthly, all of the respondents were satisfied with all features of the mixed-use theme: none of the features were rated as 'poor'. A total of 80% of the respondents rated the shared place and community facilities as 'excellent' and 20% as 'average'. A total of 73% of respondents rated the employment density as 'excellent' and 27% as 'average', while 67% of respondents rated the land use diversity and outdoor social space as 'excellent' and 33% as 'average'. Figure 6.15 shows an evening at the children's pool and playground, where it can be seen that the park is highly accessible for family leisure. This proves that the park is a mechanism that is promoting health and well-being as well as providing opportunities for high-quality city living. A total of 60% of respondents rated the transport services and facilities as 'excellent' and 40% as 'average'. Overall, these results support Dr Azmizan's way forward for desirable sustainable urban living and environment, when he proposes that, "For green spaces and economic factors a compact liveable city should encourage people to use

public transport and provide access to public transport near residential areas.” (as interviewed on 06/12/2013).



Figure 6.15 Scene at the children’s pool and playground in the evening

Source: Author’s archive

Finally, the fifth theme is visual and sensory richness. The results obtained show that all of the respondents were satisfied with three out of five features: lighting, sedibility arrangement and space integration, none being rated as ‘poor’. A total of 73% of respondents rated the lighting and sedible arrangement as ‘excellent’ and 27% as ‘average’. A total of 73% of respondents rated the softscapes as ‘excellent’, 20% as ‘average’ and 7% as ‘poor’. A total of 67% of respondents rated the urban and street furniture as ‘excellent’, 27% as ‘average’ and 7% as ‘poor’. Finally, 53% of respondents rated the space integration as ‘excellent’ and 47% as ‘average’.

An urban planner from CHKL (interviewed on 27/12/2013) indicates that “in terms of urban regeneration, the key initiative is landscape beautification. In terms of redevelopment, the key initiatives are mainly connectivity.” However, taken together, these results suggest that landscape beautification and connectivity are both important for high-quality urban design and environment.

6.3.2 COLLABORATIVE PROCESS (STATE-MARKET-CIVIL SOCIETY)

KLCC is more about commercial elements and the environment. When we do the KLCC development, we have to improve a lot of the areas surrounding it. We have to expand the roads, the constructions of the LRT, MRT, public transport, commercial buildings, increase the capacity of water supply and electricity around the area... We have to look around not only in terms of market demands but also retails. We have to look at the market catchment, our target audience, etc. We have to be different.

(Ar Zainal, Architect, interviewed on 21/01/2014)

If we look at policy, politics, governance and resource factors, and how they function in this kind of situation, everything is connected to commercial/business-led regeneration. Dr Mahathir has a particular interest to position Kuala Lumpur globally by developing a world-class provision of infrastructure and services. In short, by promoting economic growth, he desires that the nation becomes fully developed in the year 2020. As a consequence, the federal government has been heavily involved in the urban transformation process, from the strategic level down to details (Bunnell et al., 2002; Fainstein, 2012; Höijertz, 2013). This form of state interventionism seems likely to be a major factor in the case of KLCC. The power structure and vision enable Dr Mahathir to maintain full control and ensure such a smooth progress compared to the regeneration of other cities in the developing country. For instance, Abu (interviewed on 17/12/2013) emphasises that “if it is not because of Petronas, any other developer will not dare to become involved in the development.” He concludes that funding is critical and vital for this ambitious mega project. In this context, Petronas became a key player to fund the cost of the KLCC development and build Dr Mahathir’s visionary project. This whole process applies collaborative planning in order to find ways to address shared problems and opportunities. Nevertheless, a collaborative process that integrates

the leadership of Dr Mahathir in working closely with experts, developers and city officials facilitated the relationship between urban planning and sustainable design-led regeneration.

The diagram in Figure 6.16 below distinguishes how design-led regeneration in the KLCC has been shaped. The evidence from this study suggests that the politics have greatly pressured decision-making in the development. As highlighted in the diagram, the arrows show one-way and two-way impacts between policy, resources and governance. The powerful leader had a strong vision, which drove the regeneration strategy in the KLCC development. In this particular, the flagship development design approach is remaking a new city centre in Kuala Lumpur and advocating well-designed architecture and infrastructure. Therefore, the aim of the development emphasises advantages of economic growth.

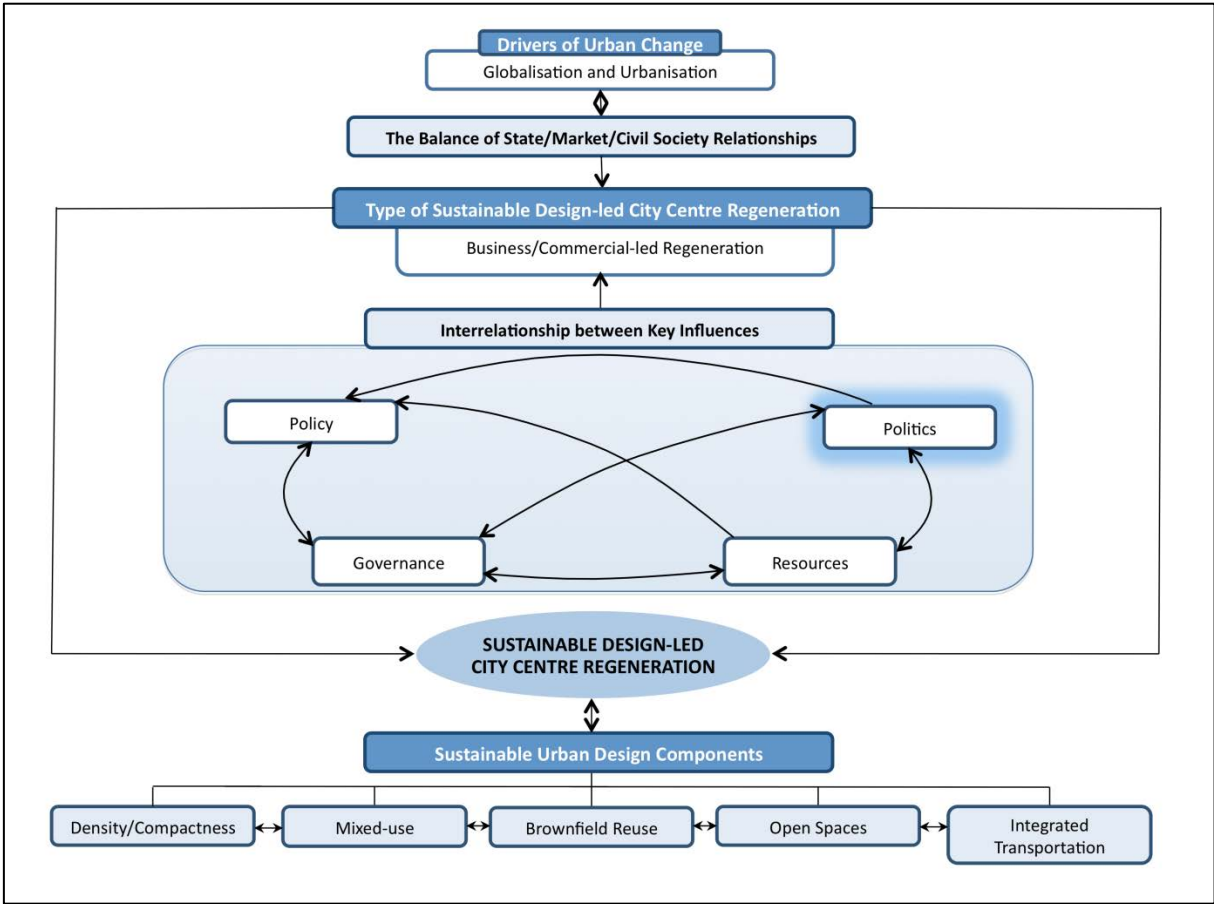


Figure 6.16 Factors influencing the KLCC redevelopment

Source: Author's construct

Critiques about the politics of the KLCC development are connected to the peculiarity of the governance itself. In broad, the project demonstrates the power of a couple of men who provide a vision for the whole country. Ar Zainal (interviewed on 21/01/2014) comments that “it is the politics of the whole thing I could not stand”. The politics throughout the process have applied pressure and affected decision-making. Nonetheless, he reveals that “when it comes to these big projects, the authority people are open to new ideas but they are very strict.” In such a way, the project proves that the developers involved practice a very open discussion between all collaborators. This also identifies that the value of leadership is vital in executing the project. Mahadi (interviewed on 22/11/2013), who is a director of the Development Coordination and Urban Planning Development in the CHKL agreed the reason KLCC was able to become a reality today is due to strong leadership. In fact, another CHKL architect (interviewed on 07/01/2014) has acknowledged, “That is why we need a Mayor that is daring, a Prime Minister, who is daring, and Ministers, who are also daring on the right track.”

6.3.3 SUMMARY – DRIVERS OF URBAN CHANGE

Above all, factors of urban change such as urbanisation and modernisation are impacting KLCC. The high-quality urban environment resulting from development outlines the value of sustainable urban development and sustainable urban design components. The KLCC demonstrates an excellent and well-defined development in terms of its infrastructures, amenities and open spaces all of which are made available to public access. As such, mixed-use development and successful public spaces facilitate high-quality and liveability of the environment (Francis, 2003; Fainstein, 2012). The influences of the KLCC redevelopment spread outside the boundary of the site, promoting sustainable city centre living in its wider environment.

Although there is an obvious political power involved, the product of the development is beneficial to the city and nation. Ar Zainal (interviewed on 21/01/2014) remarks that:

The KLCC project is very much detected by our market forces and the board decision. The 100 acres is about 18 million sq ft but our development land that we can cover is only about 37.05 acres. This land can be developed into commercial buildings and the rest are roads and the park.

Against that background, the regeneration policy is meeting the balance between the private, public and the people. Not only is the KLCC development creating economic activities and jobs, but it is also bringing together the life they have created in one place. The KLCC in the broader case of Kuala Lumpur has taken advantages of improvements in transport and infrastructure that is important for the connectivity of the city. Subsequently, the development as a hub for businesses has attracted many international businesses in the same way that has appeared in the cases of Hong Kong and Dubai as aspiring world cities. The KLCC development can be seen as the beginning of sustainable city centre regeneration in the country.

6.4 | CONCLUSION

Overall, the KLCC development is outstanding in the way it addressed sustainable urban development. The development has demonstrated significant support in terms of encouraging physical, economic and social growth throughout the development and its surrounding site. Instantly the urban spaces within the urban vicinity became available they became the starting point of change for Kuala Lumpur. Similar to common urban problems in developing countries, inefficient urban transportation systems, inadequate recreational facilities, piecemeal development, and rapid urban population growth are the key planning issues for the project. The KLCC project was financed by Petronas, which covered capital cost included in all construction works, as well as preliminary

works, overheads, profits and contingencies. This national-oriented development driving a collaborative approach was a joint result of strong leadership and strong vision. Despite its exploratory nature, this study offers some insights to governance.

Malaysia is not considered as a developed country, but this case study shows the KLCC model of development has placed Malaysia on a par with developed countries. This mixed-use development has impacted on the creation of an integrated public space that is quite similar to any model from a developed country. Although the KLCC development is very interventionism, the fact it is addressing diversity has illustrated the imperative of balancing economic, cultural and social factors to ensure more sustainable growth. The project to some extent created a social mix by building a balanced society at the high-end neighbourhood. Since then, demands for better design have increasingly become a fundamental brief in urban development in Malaysia. The importance of high-quality design in the elements of urban regeneration should take into account its sustainability in the wider context. In the next chapter, the Central Market waterfront area explores socio-cultural-led regeneration, which includes landscape as a part of the primary infrastructure.

CHAPTER 7

SOCIO-CULTURAL-LED REGENERATION: THE CASE STUDY OF CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREAS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on analysing the river beautification taking place at the Central Market waterfront area, which is also identified as 'Precinct 7' in the River of Life project. Essentially, the beautification works encompass eleven precincts along a 10.7 km stretch of the Klang and Gombak Rivers (see Figure 7.1). Both rivers have become underutilised natural assets, which are polluted and overlooked in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur. The River of Life is the latest large-scale urban regeneration in Kuala Lumpur, which is one of nine entry point projects (EPP) named in the Greater KL National Key Economic Area (NKEA) under the state Economic Transformation Programme. The River of Life comprises three components: 1) river cleaning, 2) river beautification and 3) river development. The project was launched in 2011 with an anticipated completion date of 2019. The aim is to revitalise the Klang and Gombak rivers and transform the overall appeal of the area into a heritage and commercial centre. The case study will also discuss the Iconic Places project, which is included in the case study boundary. Iconic Places is also an EPP under the Greater KL NKEA. The regeneration seems to be quite grounded in the developed country model because not only does it demonstrate bold leadership, it also emphasises environmental sustainability and acknowledges the link between economic growth and urban design in the pursuit of sustainable urban regeneration. This case study represents a socio-cultural-led model because the regeneration contributes to the retention of the distinctiveness of place by integrating cultural and historical elements. Moreover, the area is significant because the location is in the old city of Kuala Lumpur, where there is a strong heritage value that is rich with the Malaysian unique multicultural history, architecture and identity.

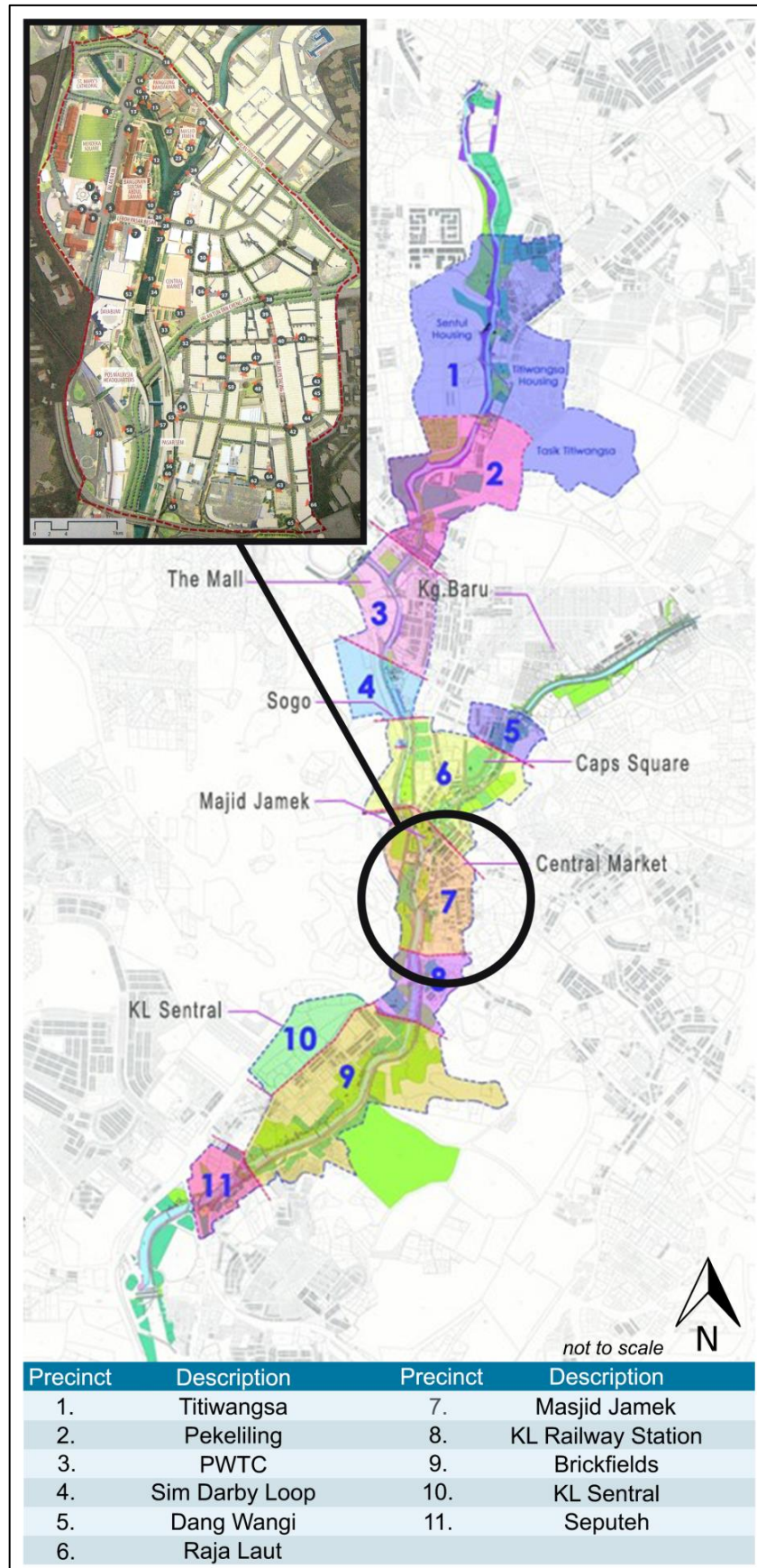


Figure 7.1 Location of Precinct 7 in the River of Life Project

Source: *River of Life* (PEMANDU, 2014); Top left (AECOM, 2013)

As in the previous two case studies that look into a specific area, the development of the Central Market waterfront provides a model that seeks to revitalise the area while retaining features of local identity and the natural landscape. The analysis in this chapter is structured into three sections which repeat a similar framework to that of the previous chapter. First, the context and factors impacting the Central Market waterfront area design-led regeneration will be discussed based on three subsections: 1) location and land uses, 2) demographics and 3) governance and economic factors. Then, the second section will discuss social sustainability in the Central Market waterfront area. There are three subsections in this section: 1) public cultural place for the community, 2) business culture and 3) the way local economic regeneration is shaping the environment in the Central Market waterfront area. Finally, the scope of design sustainability will be explored. In this particular, the relationship between the development and urbanisation will be examined in terms of how this is shaping the socio-cultural-led regeneration.

By the end of the chapter, one will have a good overview concerning the value of sustainable urban design and planning, the connections between key influences of policy, politics, governance and resources in shaping the type of design-led development and how factors influencing urban changes such as urbanisation impact the Central Market waterfront area. More importantly this area captures most of Kuala Lumpur's street culture that has had a strong impact on the physical characteristics of the neighbourhood. In particular, this also highlights the similarity with the case studies in Chapters 5 and 6. The regeneration in the neighbourhood is targeted to attract commercial and tourism businesses. While urban entrepreneurialism drives the development, the issue of sustainability has become acute as the current conditions do not reach the quality of sustainable city centre living. This research will take into consideration the examples of design practice from the two previous case studies in the evaluation of urban design in the last case study. Figure 7.2 shows the location of the Central Market waterfront area and the other two case studies.

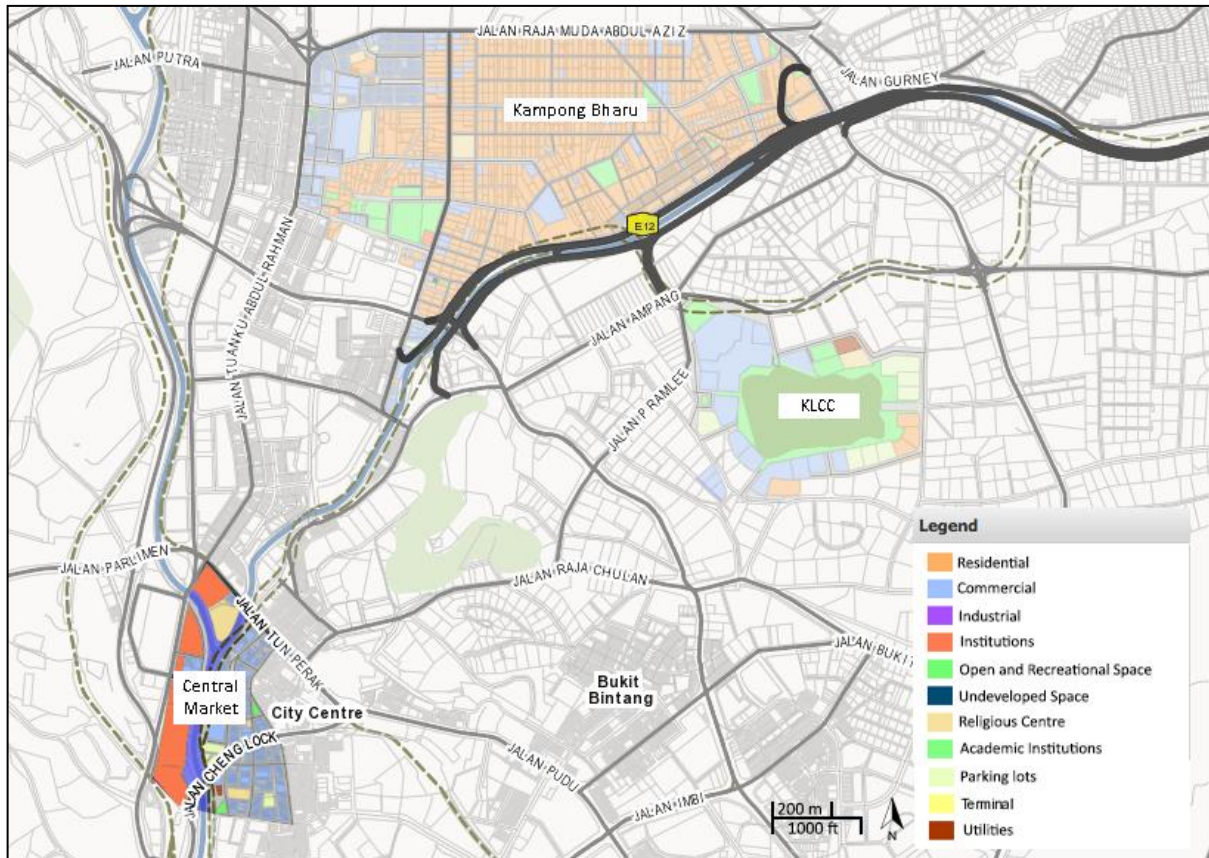


Figure 7.2 Central Market waterfront area case study

Source: Author, adapted from KUL submission GIS (CHKL, 2014)

7.1 | CONTEXT AND FACTORS IMPACTING CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA DESIGN-LED REGENERATION

As mentioned in Chapter 4 (see 4.2.3), there are four key dimensions in shaping Greater KL. The River of Life and Iconic Places are two out of three EPPs, which were identified under the third dimension of proposed developments for Greater KL – to revitalise areas as ‘new places’ (this will be discussed further in 7.1.3). The objective of this dimension is to enhance the liveability and attractiveness of the city. Both EPPs are involved in the revitalisation project at the Central Market waterfront area. The strategy aims to increase the economic viability of the area by revitalising the river into a vibrant and liveable waterfront. Furthermore, the area has an interesting urban fabric that represents the old city of Kuala Lumpur, which retains a distinctive character in terms of the cultural heritage and historical value of the area. The Iconic Places EPP was carried out in 2013 as an

early work package to create iconic landmarks and attractions. Meanwhile, the beautification works commenced in May 2014 and are expected to be completed in 2016. Precinct 7 is the first phase of the river beautification for the River of Life EPP. This section discusses the context of the Central Market waterfront area in three aspects – 1) location and land uses, 2) demographic and 3) governance and economic factors. Finally, it will then analyse how these have impacted and shaped the Central Market waterfront area.

7.1.1 LOCATION AND LAND USES

The Central Market waterfront land area is approximately 60.54 acres (24.5 ha), which covers *Jalan Sultan Hishamuddin, Jalan Raja, Jalan Tun Perak, Jalan Tun H S Lee, Jalan Petaling* and *Jalan Sultan* (see Figure 7.3). The area is in proximity to the confluence of the Gombak River and Klang River, where Kuala Lumpur was established. Also, both rivers are derelict and neglected river corridors in the city; the Gombak River runs for approximately 237 m and the Klang River for approximately 794 m within the boundary of the case study area. The site is strategically located close to major public transportation links, namely *Pasar Seni* City Bus Hub and LRT Station in the South, Kuala Lumpur Komuter Station in the south-west, *Masjid Jamek* LRT station in the north and Pudu Central in the east. Hence, it has excellent transportation provision as various infrastructure and amenities are within close proximity.

The map in Figure 7.4 shows that the site land use is classified into three primary districts – 1) heritage, 2) office and financial and 3) retail and commercial. The surrounding area mostly consists of retail and commercial buildings such as hotels, office lots, banks, Bureaux de Change, private colleges, hostels, tourism agencies, shophouses, bazaars, restaurants, book stalls and local art galleries. The site is remarkable because it contains a fairly large number of Malaysian architectural, historical and cultural attractions. For instance, the *Masjid Jamek, Medan Pasar* (Old Market Square)

and *Panggung Bandaraya* (City Theatre) in the north; Dayabumi Promenade and the Sultan Abdul Samad Building Promenade in the west; Chinatown (*Jalan Petaling*) in the east; and Sri Mahamariamman Temple in the south (see these in Figure 7.5). By cross-referencing the map in Figure 7.4 with the image of the heritage buildings in Figure 7.5, it can be seen that these attractions are clearly located near one another. Hence, the site is the centre of attraction among the public, as well as local and foreign tourists and is significantly known as the city centre for tourism and business. The distinct character of the site and its tremendous potential makes it desirable for regeneration.

Although both the rivers Klang and Gombak are flowing through the heart of the city centre, their potential has not been utilised to date. An urban planner from AECOM (interviewed on 08/11/2013) critiques that, “the river bank is now the backyard for the city.” A riverside walkway on both sides of the river from the Central Market leading towards *Masjid Jamek* is a passive area as there is no building frontage onto the river. The waterways have become a dumping ground for residents and business owners due to drainage and water waste being channelled directly into the river. Even worse, this situation has been neglected for a very long time. The rivers are composed of murky water with a pale brown colour of milky tea and look like a drain rather than a river. Hence, one of the River of Life aspirations is to improve the water quality from Class IV to Class IIB, which is safe for body contact and recreational use. As evident from international experience, it is highly probable that river beautification will impact on economic and liveability appeal along the river.

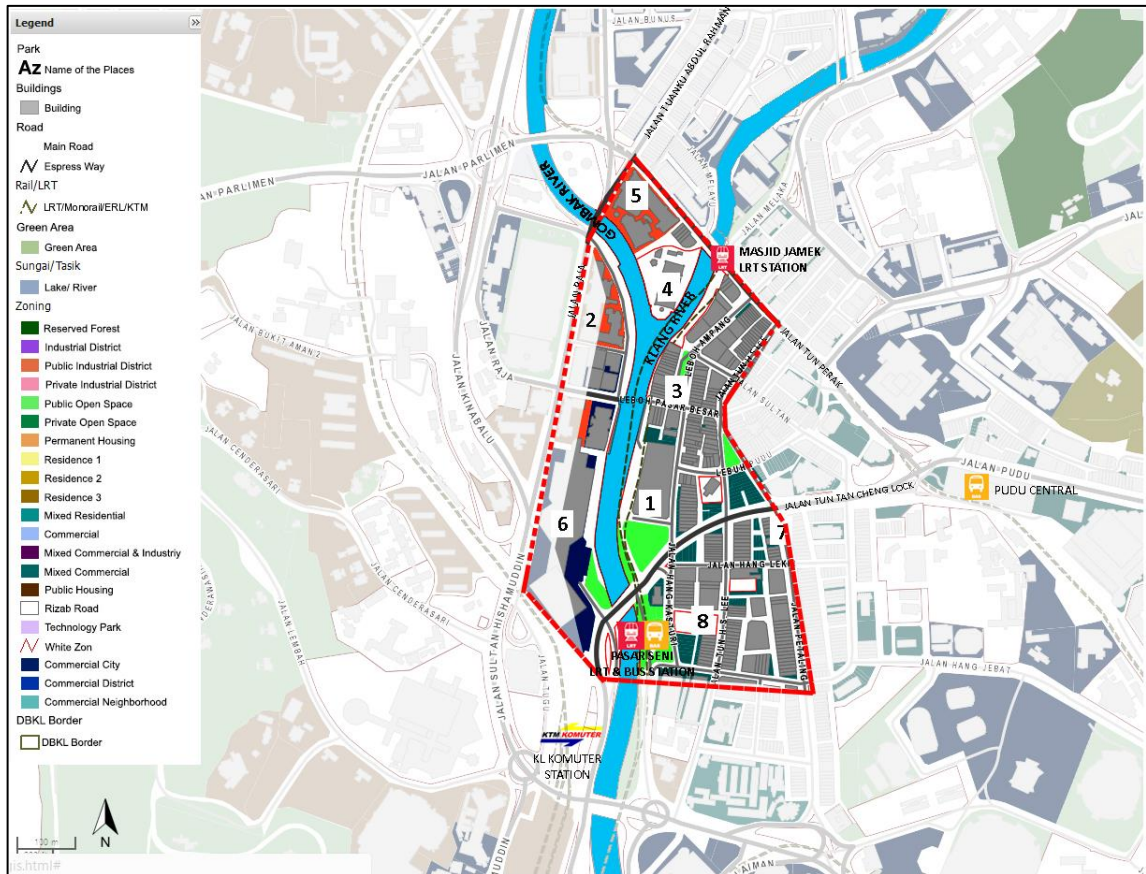


Figure 7.3 Site location of the Central Market waterfront area
 Source: Author, adapted from KUL submission GIS (CHKL, 2014)

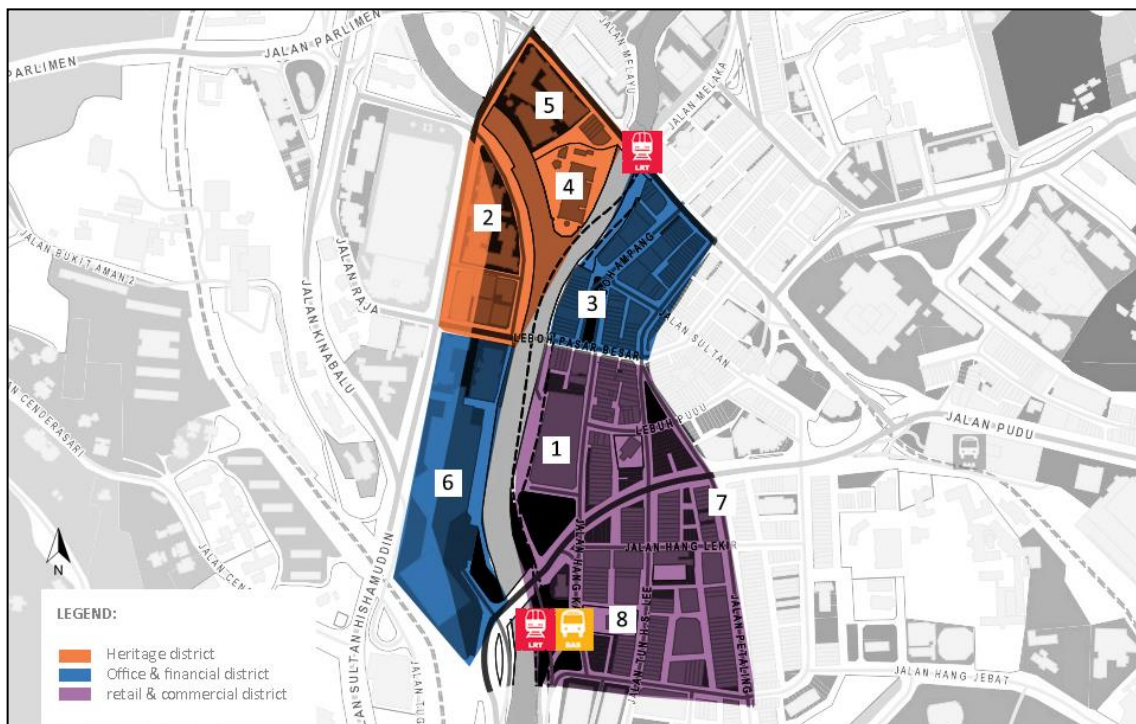


Figure 7.4 Central Market waterfront area land use district
 Source: Author, adapted from KUL submission GIS (CHKL, 2014)



1|Central Market

Source: Emma Decent, 2013

Click link to view
image online

2|The Sultan Abdul Samad Building

Source: Henry and Tersia, 2008



3|Leboh Pasar Besar

Source: Author, 2014



4|Masjid Jamek

Source: Richard Seaman, 1994

Click link to view image
online

5|Panglung Bandaraya

Source: Anthony Gurr, 2013

Click link
to view image
online

6|Dayabumi

Source: thedizonsblogs, 2011

Click link to view
image online

7|Chinatown in Petaling Street

Source: Auswandern, 2012



8|Sri Mahamariamman Temple

Source: Google, 2015

Figure 7.5 Historical & cultural attractions in the Central Market waterfront area



Figure 7.6 1990s traditional shophouses: pedestrians use the covered pavements in front of the shops

Source: Fee (1998)

In terms of urban fabric, the site is compact and has relatively high densities accompanied by a mix of building high-rises. Although the neighbourhood access and movement is excellent, certain parts of the area do not promote a sense of safety and security. The site is lacking in a pedestrian-friendly environment as it is heavily congested with motorised vehicles and has very few open spaces. As there is limited space, the surrounding environment is unlikely to encourage safe pedestrian movement. In addition, traffic flow is a major issue due to various activities around the site (i.e. loading and unloading activities, security for bank activities). These issues have resulted in a conflict of use for users of urban spaces. Therefore, it is important as well to improve connectivity and provide adequate urban space (i.e. pocket parks and plazas) to encourage a good public realm into the place. Nonetheless, the building character has had a strong influence on the historical background of the area. For example, Figure 7.6 shows that the traditional shophouses had a narrow frontage and pedestrians used the covered pavements in front of the building (Fee, 1998). Most of the architectural styles were built in the late 1800s and early 1900s. Interestingly, the architecture

represents a mix of cultures with a blend of old colonial, Moorish, Islamic, Tudor, Neo-gothic, Art Deco and Neoclassical (KL tourism master plan, 2014).

In the 1970s, rapid urban change in Kuala Lumpur put pressure on appropriate urban uses. The Central Market (also known as *Pasar Seni*), one of landmarks in Kuala Lumpur, was built in 1928 and was a former wet market for the city dwellers since 1888. The building was converted into a centre for Malaysian culture, art and handicrafts in the early 1980s. Mahadi, who is a director of the Urban Planning Department at CHKL (interviewed on 22/11/2013), argues that:

Government has the policy to preserve the historic building. However, the market is no longer suitable because activities in urban areas have changed so much. So when we preserved [the building], we instructed the traders to move out to the new location away from the city centre.

Displacement of activities has indeed affected the way people use the urban space. Bachok et al. (2004) highlight that most of the areas have been developed into office and retail premises. In an interview (22/11/2013) with a CHKL officer it was acknowledged that large numbers of shophouses have been converted to budget hotels because of tourism potential. Shophouses, especially around Chinatown, were once living quarters for business owners and shopkeepers alike.



Figure 7.7 Medan Pasar transformation

Source: 1950s (Taurus064, 2011), 2012 (Joe_contennial, 2013), 2013 (Borneo, Falcon, 2013)

Another example is *Medan Pasar*, which was well known as a newspaper distribution centre and a major bus interchange in Kuala Lumpur (see the transformation in Figure 7.7). For a period of 100 years 600 newspaper distributors operated between 4.00am until 7.00am in the area. Both activities were relocated to an alternative site to make a way for reviving *Medan Pasar* under the Iconic Places EPP. The project was completed in 2013 and transformed into a car-free square. Historically, *Medan Pasar*, an old market square, was built during British Colonialism in the early 20th century. The area is approximately 0.32 ha, and comprises two rows of buildings/shophouses and a clock tower at the centre of the square. The square was among the earliest trading places with facilities like banks, textile shops, grocers and traditional medicinal halls.

Under Iconic Places, the heritage trail is another initiative to enhance and improve the area related to CHKL preservation efforts. A series of trails involving combined landmarks and attractions within the site were established as a guided walking trail for tourists. In such a way, the historical and cultural aspects largely influenced the regeneration strategy. An architect, who works with CHKL (interviewed on 05/12/2013), mentions:

To encourage a return of the original activities that took place in the area, heritage trails focus on improving the urban envelope, pedestrian network and façade treatment. We want tourists to feel what Kuala Lumpur has apart from the modern landscapes.

It is obvious that the role of design plays an integral part in attracting tourism businesses. The architect's explanation has put forward a perspective on how the character of the site is being manipulated in terms of integrating economic activity and contributes to the creation of global cities. The next part will discuss the demographic context to consider how the current conditions effect populations in the neighbourhood.

7.1.2 DEMOGRAPHICS

The Central Market waterfront area has a total population of 780 people in 2010 (Census, 2010). Out of the population at that time, 93.97% (733) are Chinese, 3.46% (27) are Indian, 0.26% (2) are other Bumiputera and 2.31% (18) are non-Malaysian citizens. The graph in Figure 7.8 shows a summary of population growth in the area during 1991, 2000 and 2010. It appears that the population decreased from 497 in 1991 to 119 in 2000 and then dramatically increased to 780 in 2010. Census data of total population in 2010 indicated that the majority of the population who live in the area are unmarried/single (598 people) and male (577 people). Interestingly, the population by age group in Figure 7.9 has highlighted a surprising finding, where there is a large number of the population in the age groups aged 0–4 years (125) and 5–9 years (384). The graph shows that the adult age group has a low number in comparison to the children. Although there might be an explanation for the situation, instead of making any assumptions, I would prefer not to offer an explanation as this is secondary data. Despite this peculiarity, the area has quite a low residential population.

It appears that the preferences of people or changes of circumstances (i.e. family house, studying, job opportunity, etc.) could be influential factors in a decrease in population. Mahadi (interviewed on 22/11/2013) argues:

Even though there is a movement of population from the city centre moving out, they are not necessarily following the market... It could be because they do not want to live in the city or have been forced to move out.

Despite that, he predicts that redevelopment near public transport would attract a middle-income group to live in the city centre as they would be able to commute easily to their destination. To some extent, this may lead to gentrification as may be seen in the case of Kampong Bharu in Chapter 6.

Miles and Paddison (2005, p. 834) critique the way in which the development of cultural forms of urban tourism can accelerate processes of gentrification.

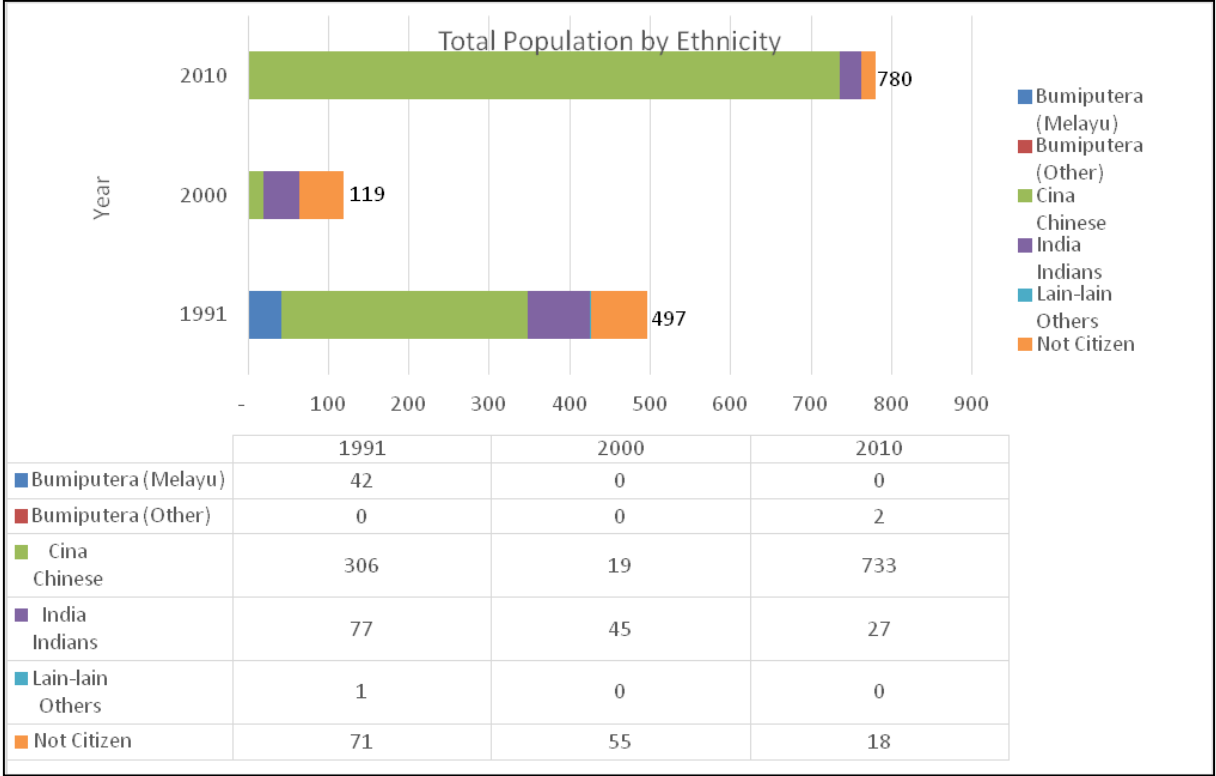


Figure 7.8 Total population by ethnicity during 1991, 2000 & 2010
Source: Department of Statistics Malaysia (1991, 2000, 2010)

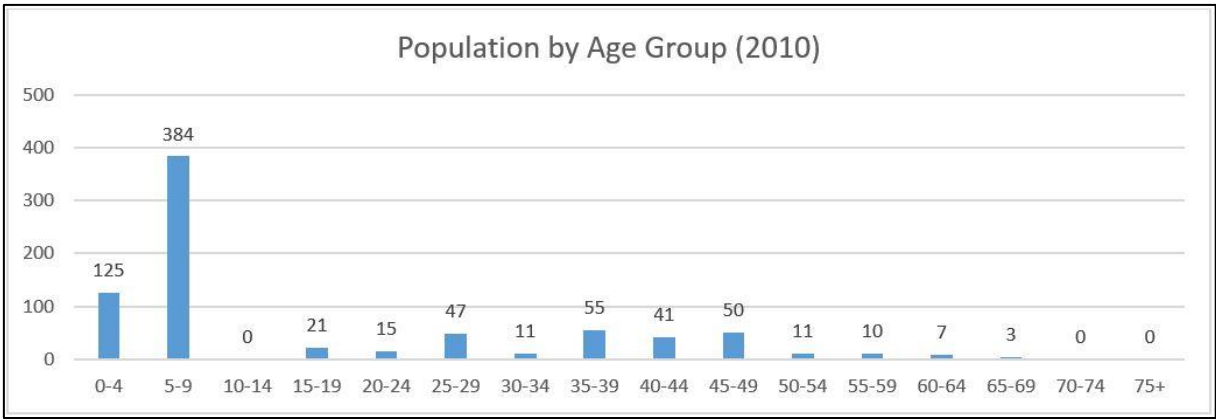


Figure 7.9 Population by age group in the study area
Source: Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010



Figure 7.10 A hidden urban village in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur

Source: Author's archive

According to Census 2010 data, there are approximately 60 living quarters within the area. The figures prove that there is an extremely low number of housing dwellings. An architect, who works with CHKL (interviewed on 05/12/2013) comments that “local people stay away from these places due to health and safety reasons.” A decline in the social environment had made the Central Market waterfront area less attractive and no longer suitable to live in. Several issues related to physical and environmental attributes have an impact on poor-quality living environments and development of conflicted urban spaces (i.e. crowded, overly congested and unorganised space). The characterful nature of these streets does, however, mean that the area remains attractive for a variety of cultural activities. Figure 7.10 shows that the community continue their daily life in local economic activities such as evening tea at local food hawkers and grocery shopping at the wet market. This spatial expression of uses in and around the area gives an insight into the psychological significance, where we can see and experience a small urban village in the city centre of Kuala Lumpur.

On the other hand, it is worth paying attention to homeless issues in the neighbourhood. In 2014, the Federal Minister banned soup kitchen activities within a 2 km radius of Kuala Lumpur city

centre. He condemned the activities as encouraging homeless people and resulting in littering. This deliberate action provoked a public outcry as the Minister seems to address the issue as an eyesore to the image of the city and the volunteers were to be held accountable and fined should the activity remain. The minister then proposed relocation, and, in fact, transferred the problem elsewhere rather than finding more sustainable solutions. This issue also relates to the Kampong Bharu case in Chapter 6 as the location neighbours the area. Essentially, the ideal way would be to focus on improvement of the area; the homeless are likely to disperse once the redevelopment takes place. In the next part, the context of governance and economic issues will be explored.

7.1.3 GOVERNANCE AND ECONOMIC ISSUES

Initially in 1998, there was a proposal for Kuala Lumpur Linear City involving the Klang River near the KLCC from Kampong Bharu to the Central Market. Abu, who was one of the urban planners for the KLCC project (interviewed on 17/12/2013) comments that the reason why the project failed to go ahead is that, “at that time, Malaysia was not ready for this kind of development due to the environmental issues.” Another author, Aini and Sayce (2010) concludes that there is evidence the sustainability agenda related to environmental issues is extremely low and inclined more towards the notion of corporate philanthropy. At this point, it is important to understand that during the past ten years there has been growing awareness of environmental issues in Malaysia. For example, the Melaka River rehabilitation project which started in 2002, is the benchmark for river beautification projects in Malaysia. Melaka is a Malaysian state and located in the southern region of the Malay Peninsula. The river was one of the dirtiest rivers in the country and has now turned into a fascinating tourism attraction offered in Melaka. Interestingly, in the work undertaken by the Melaka government, the Federal Government allocated RM285 million (under the 10th Malaysia Plan) for flood mitigation works in Melaka.

In 2010, the state launched the Economic Transformation Programme (ETP) as a detailed plan to make Malaysia a high-income nation. Under the ETP, the NKEAs offer a focus for the state to provide assistance in the form of policy and changes in the regulatory framework, as well as incentives for such high impact projects. Special allocation for the EPP is nationally funded, directly from the Malaysian Ministry of Finance and thus, the decision-making is largely top down. An urban planner from CHKL (interviewed on 16/12/2013) clarifies that “since we are the local authority, our source of finance comes from taxes itself. For the River of Life project, the fund comes from Federal Government.” This is similar to the Birmingham case, which benefitted from central government investment. Ameri (interviewed on 26/12/2013), who works with the CHKL reveals that “the River of Life was founded from CHKL Strategic Directions under the Kuala Lumpur City Plan 2020 (released in May 2008). However, at the time the plan has not been gazetted.” He concluded that the research conducted by the Performance Management and Delivery Unit (PEMANDU) provided the opportunity and from there it became a potential project. The reason behind this is that the Kuala Lumpur economy contributes more than 30% of the national GDP (a project manager, interviewed on 19/12/2013). Presumably Kuala Lumpur could generate significant economic growth for the nation by attracting both local and foreign investors to the Malaysian property sector.

The diagram in Figure 7.11 shows the overall governance structure for Greater KL NKEA. It can be seen that the Prime Minister will act as the ultimate sponsor, supported by the Minister of Federal Territories, who leads the Greater KL Steering Committee. The Greater KL Steering Committee members include key influential ministers (e.g. Minister for Economic Performance Unit, Minister of Finance and Minister for Housing and Local Government), Kuala Lumpur’s Mayor, Selangor Chief Minister as well as several prominent people from the community, private sector, federal and state agencies (PEMANDU, 2012). PEMANDU serves as Secretariat to the Steering Committee that would control and coordinate the implementation of the EPPs. There are nine EPPs under the Greater KL NKEA. This initiative involves multiple agencies, which includes CHKL, Ministry

of Federal Territories and Wellbeing, PEMANDU, Ministry of Tourism, National Water Services Commission etc. As listed in the diagram below, nine EPPs have been classified under four dimensions to deliver the Greater KL 20-20 by 2020. The River of Life (EPP5) is led by CHKL's Physical Planning Department; while, Iconic Places (EPP7) is led jointly by CHKL and the Ministry of Federal Territories and Wellbeing.

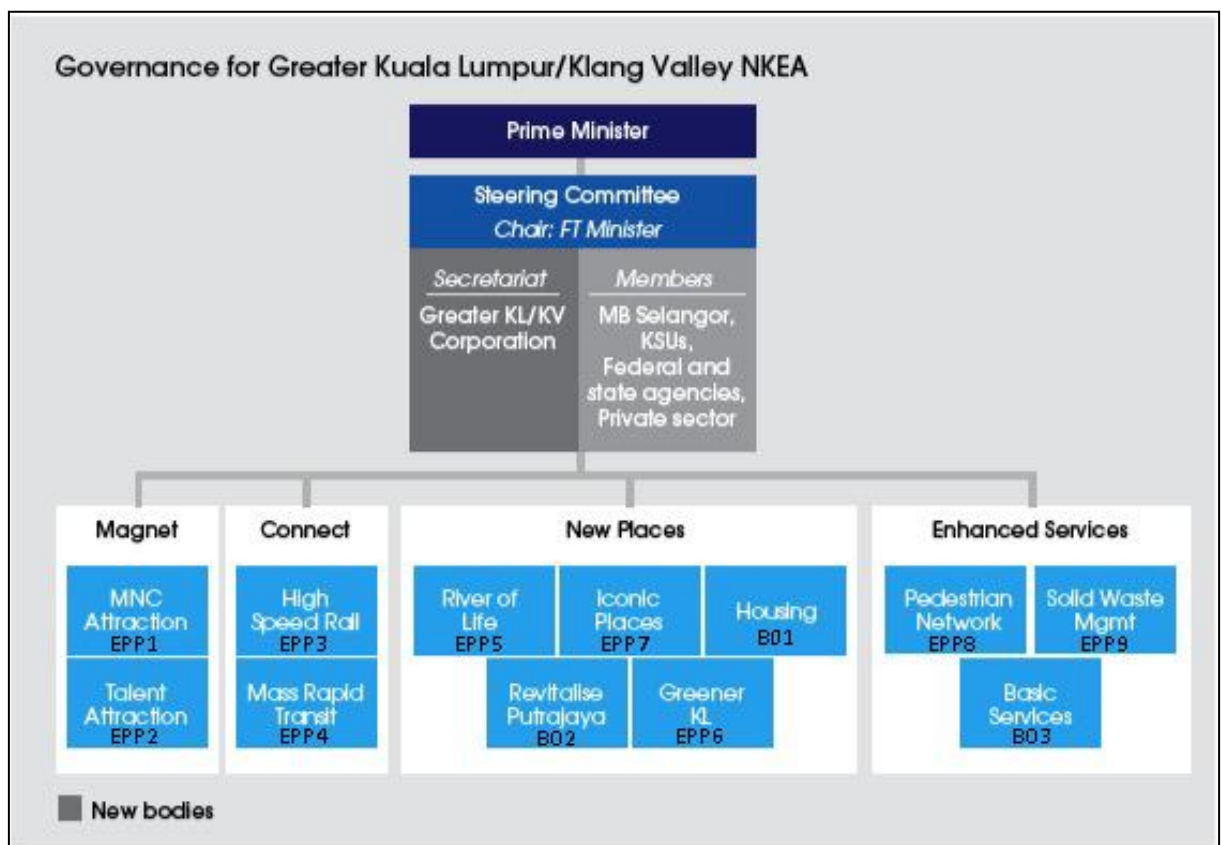


Figure 7.11 Governance structure for Greater KL NKEA

Source: Chapter 5, *Economic Transformation Programme Handbook* (PEMANDU, 2012)

The entire cost of the River of Life project is estimated at RM4 billion and total beautification cost is estimated at RM1 billion. AECOM, an urban planning firm based in the US, which is the external consultant for river beautification, was appointed by CHKL in July 2011 after their design was announced as the winning master plan design. Similar to the KLCC case in Chapter 7, an international competition was organised to find an excellent and unique design. This

demonstrates how important the flagship redevelopment model has been within the wider strategy to create an iconic image for the city. The Precinct 7 beautification contract is worth RM130 million and was awarded to a joint venture of Ekovest Bhd and Malaysian Resources Corp Berhad. In Dec 2011, the Ekovest-MRCB JV was appointed as the project delivery partner to manage and coordinate the project. Although the project is spearheaded by the government through a joint venture, the project developer is given 98% involvement to further develop the project scheme. The total funding for Iconic Places is RM240 million with the Heritage Trails project estimated to cost RM30 million (ETP, 2010).

Unlike in any other city in the world (Dunkerley and Whitehead 1983; Williamson, 2001), much of the land in Malaysia does not belong to the state. Therefore, the projects rely greatly on private developers and collaboration with the stakeholders. For an example, a partnership between DBKL (Government) and the stakeholder was the main key to success and effective community-based planning in the *Medan Pasar* project. Four sessions of public engagement were held, which started on 19 March 2012. The fourth session that took place on March 2014 was a re-evaluation after its completion in 2013.

7.1.4 SUMMARY

If we look through the lens of social sustainability, the location and land uses within the area have an excellent quality of sustainable city centre living. The mixed land uses in the neighbourhood along with effective public transportation links have a tremendous potential to encourage diversity and increase economic vitality in the area. Some change of use in the Central Market waterfront areas was incorporated on a small scale to provide space for essential infrastructure and open space. However, plans for urban transformation during the early years were not always clear on what should be done to achieve urban sustainability in the city centre. It can,

therefore, be assumed that many of the design attempts paid little attention to the need to treat the environment sensitively and constructively. The majority of residents in the shophouses decided to move out into suburbs because of the unsafe environment and low quality of living. Smith (1984) states that density is shaped by culture, tradition and people's attitudes and perceptions. Consequently, social integration in the city is likely to depend on social encounters and exchanges among people. Thus, we must consider designing with management and maintenance in mind to discourage crime in the present and future (Raco, 2007).

Despite this, the river asset, cultural heritage value and its strategic location make the Central Market waterfront area desirable for regeneration. The Federal Government is integrating a few standalone projects as a part of the EPP initiative under the Greater KL NKEA. The key regeneration strategy for river beautification is to encourage liveability and the city's overall quality of life through integrated urban design, landscapes, transportation, environmental and economic solutions along a 10.7 km stretch of the Klang and Gombak River corridor (AECOM, 2011). Together with the Iconic Places plan, enhancement of heritage and cultural components has played a key role in transforming the urban landscape and buildings in the city's economic growth. Both have equally implied the importance of economic and liveability appeal to increase property value. This regeneration is in agreement with the findings of Miles and Paddison (2005), which distinguish a clear redefinition of the role of culture to include new uses particularly to meet social, economic and political objectives. In the next section, the discussion will reflect on aspects of social sustainability and how socio-cultural-led regeneration has/may develop new social spaces.

7.2 | A REVIEW OF SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA

The sociocultural background to the Central Market waterfront area is unique because the historic site offers a reflection of Malaysia multicultural, multi-ethnic and multi-religion identity. In fact, issues of ethnic segregation and economic inequality are evidently embedded in distinctive districts within the vicinity. For example, even though the economy in Kuala Lumpur is largely dominated by the Chinese, Petaling Street is marked as a Chinese community district; the Central Market signifies the Malay community district and *Masjid Jamek* is generally perceived as a combination of Indian Muslim and Malay communities. These distinctive characters encompass a diversity of race and activity within the area. Miles and Paddison (2005, p. 836) emphasise that “the impact of cultural-led regeneration is closely tied up to a localised sense of place.” Equally, this is linked to the quality of urban life and the built environment on the degree to which it works for diverse social groups. The purpose of this section is to comprehend how socio-cultural-led regeneration has shaped the urban environment as well as impacted social sustainability. Discussion in this section is outlined in three parts – 1) public cultural places for the community, 2) business culture in the neighbourhood and 3) the way local economic regeneration shapes the environment in the Central Market waterfront area. Essentially, the first and second parts of the section will analyse the current conditions in the neighbourhood. The final part will then focus on reflection on the regeneration aims and strategy.

7.2.1 PUBLIC CULTURAL PLACES FOR THE COMMUNITY

Rapid urban changes involving heavy development and infrastructure changes caused drastic urban problems related to social change and deterioration of the environment in the vicinity. Although the Chinese community is dominant, culturally diverse groups and activities in the neighbourhood arise from the hawkers’ community, public and service sectors, along with the

historic city centre. Issues of safety and security are the main concern as there is vulnerable and dead space that leads to negative activities. Previous studies (Harvey, 1988, cited in Corubolo, 1998; Young, 1990 Polèse and Stren, 2000; Sandercock, 2003) have reported urban regeneration can/should incorporate a mix and balance of different communities to improve the quality of living environments and shape sustainable social spaces. Figure 7.12 shows the view to the south of the Central Market waterfront area facing towards *Pasar Seni* LRT station. The photo was taken from the pedestrian bridge that connects Dayabumi promenade to cultural and commercial activities at the Central Market. While the quiet and calming riverside walk next to the Central Market is rather isolated from any presence of public activities, many passers-by would not opt for this route unless they are walking in a group and during daytime. This emphasises that the experience and perception of the particular environment influences the way people may or may not use the space. Predictably, the area turns out to be a perfect spot for homeless people. On the other hand, a view facing north towards *Masjid Jamek* has a much more appealing landscape. Few combinations of physically and visually well connected settings and activities are required to add vitality in the area (see Figure 7.13). This socio-spatial process is linked to environmental design determinism related to crime prevention, and managing anxieties and insecurities (Raco, 2007; Jones et al., 2010) as discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2.



Figure 7.12 Klang River (view facing south)

Source: Author's archive



Figure 7.13 The confluence between Gombak and Klang River (the photo was taken from a bridge at Leboh Pasar Besar)

Source: Author's archive

Kasturi Walk, which is located next to the Central Market, used to be vibrant with various local street life. The space was a by-product of social occurrences, where users of urban spaces had opportunities for sitting, walking, chatting, meeting point usage, people watching, street performance and arts (i.e. busking, sketching, painting). Figure 7.14 shows the transformation of space, where pedestrians now experience limitation of public space to meet and socialise. Although, the pedestrianised area is improved with a fully covered roof for the 'convenience' of the pedestrians, the shopping street activities proved to be rather heavily commercialised. The outstanding structure has overshadowed the overall character of the place and to some extent, the newly developed space shows bias in favour of outdoor economic activities. In Europe, the streets equally provide an important dynamic scene in the urban environment. For instance, La Ramblas in Barcelona is a pedestrian promenade that connects the central city main square with the waterfront at Port Vell. In essence, the harmony between building height, landscaping and its social quality advocates a diverse and pleasant pedestrian experience (Campbell, 2002; Alexander and Tang, 2010).



Figure 7.14 Kasturi Walk once a spot for people to sit, relax; a waiting and meeting point. The covered walkway which was completed in 2011, is now an open-air market. There are numerous kiosks selling local snacks, fresh fruits, souvenirs and retail goods at affordable prices. (In contrast with Chinatown in the next subsection)

Source: 1998 (Azreey, 2005), 2014 (Author's archive)

An AECOM urban planner (interviewed on 20/11/2013) comments:

Malaysians are not ready yet to appreciate open spaces. It is different with other countries, if people have an open space, they will go there and do their activities. Malaysians are unlike them; we are heading there, but not yet.

Another interviewee, Juminan, who is an urban planner (interviewed on 07/01/2014), argues, “In Asian culture, the street is important rather than square. We are used to street life. Square is like ‘alien’, it does not work here.” Both criticisms suggest that values and norms of the community influence how people use the urban space. Nevertheless, the open space/square provides a significant impact on leisure activities and aesthetics of the urban landscape. Thereby, it potentially gives identity to whole communities and encourages social integration (see Chapter 3).

According to Yeoh (2005), reorientation of the city towards tourists will come at the expense of locals, and, therefore, older uses are likely to make way for commercially viable buildings. The local authority has attempted to convince the stakeholders to let their premises for hire for commercial and alfresco activities such as boutique hotels, budget hotels, restaurants/cafes, shops and coffee houses. As a consequence, the old businesses formerly run by local residents that were unsuitable for the new image of the place were displaced in an attempt to minimise tensions between different groups and control elements that could undermine the comfort and safety of the public. Against this background, the next part will discuss aspects of business culture.

7.2.2 BUSINESS CULTURE

The vicinity is vibrant and crowded. The only thing that expands is economy from hawkers. The area is congested, and there is no place to walk. We need to give some alternative to the public... the area is strategic, which is in the middle of the city, and they also have the neighbourhoods that have vibrant areas.

(Architect, interviewed on 27/12/2013)

The Central Market waterfront area is quite busy and overcrowded with retail and commercial activities. In contrast to Kasturi Walk, Chinatown is well known for its historical significance as one of the earliest traditional shopping streets in Kuala Lumpur. Figure 7.15 shows Chinatown in the 1980s, where hawker activities create a festive mood along the street. In today's Chinatown, the modern scene is not much different except that the two perpendicular streets (*Jalan Petaling* and *Jalan Hang Lekir*) are transformed into a pedestrianised area. The design is mainly targeted to ensure that the hawkers meet standards of orderliness, cleanliness and safety, which comply with fire and safety hazards. It is revealed that in late 1998, the Hawkers Association of Petaling Street proposed a face-lift upgrade to the Kuala Lumpur Mayor (Juminan, urban planner, interviewed on 07/01/2014). It is observed that the business culture and attitude is different among hawkers of different ethnicities. Especially in Chinatown, the hawkers often intimidate members of the community and local authority and are dominated by their chief/gangster, who controls the area. This kind of culture results in conflicts, in which the local authority has no power to regulate the area. Juminan mentioned that the proposal had opened up an opportunity for the CHKL to carry out a development change after many failed attempts to convince the chief of the hawkers community. A long dragon-like canopy, which was installed at *Jalan Petaling*, was the idea of the hawkers community as they wanted an identity to represent the Chinese community.



Figure 7.15 The original Chinatown in the 1980s was centered on Market Square at Jalan Tun HS Lee (left). In 2003, the present Chinatown location at Petaling Street was transformed into a pedestrianised area and remains a famous bustling market for various bargains (top & bottom right).

Source: Left (Taurus064, 2011); top right (Auswandern, 2012); bottom right (Author's archive)

After the success of the Chinatown development, CHKL started to emulate the same design concept at Kasturi Walk and *Masjid India*. However, the operation of the hawkers, especially in *Masjid India*, has caused more activities leading to overcrowding (see Figure 7.16). Unlike the Chinese, the Malay hawkers are not entirely controlled by their leader. They are likely to be seen as opportunists, who are taking advantage of the situation that fits their personal goals. The overcrowded covered walkways became used for the ease of the hawkers rather than the convenience of pedestrians. The value of the area was exploited and the hawkers' activities impacted in shaping the environment to take on a different sense of cultural and social value than its previous form. Instead, plans should have been put in place to make problematised social spaces more sustainable (Raco, 2007). It seems that the scope of both building and economic activity evolve and

adapt to new conditions. Thus, the use of design must be interpreted and used with caution because a different area has a different context and people's attachment to places varies. It is also important to consider the attitude of the people in order to achieve a socially sustainable outcome. Yeoh (2005, p. 945) Identifies that "cities are 'going global' on the basis of integrating economic and cultural activity as an urban regeneration strategy." At the same time, urban regeneration also advocates conversion of the urban fabric and building uses, which results in the gentrification of the traditional areas. The next part of this section will discuss the way that socio-cultural-led regeneration has shaped a thriving community of artistic and creative businesses.



Figure 7.16 Masjid India pedestrian malls attempt to emulate Kasturi Walk and Petaling Street design approach
Source: Author's archive

7.2.3 THE WAY LOCAL ECONOMIC REGENERATION SHAPES THE ENVIRONMENT IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA

Socially and culturally-led regeneration often influences the shape of a new social space for creative industries such as the artistic community and cultural projects. In terms of regeneration, the river has tremendous potential to make a liveable waterfront as in cities like Singapore, Seoul, Vancouver and Melbourne. Moreover, the Central Market has a vibrant waterfront, historical importance, is a heritage centre and has a location within the city centre with enormous economic and liveability potential to be realised. The new river corridor development aims to restore the ecological and social value of the river and transform it into a positive urban space (PEMANDU, 2014). Dr Azmizan (interviewed on 06/12/2013) asserts that “I think the Central Market was one of the good models to attract tourists when it comes to urban regeneration.” The regeneration is obviously shaped to position Kuala Lumpur as a global city and heritage centre and provide a ‘one of a kind cultural experience’ to mark the site as a new tourism place and product. By transforming existing attractions and building new attractions, it is expected to give a different perspective and landscape – located in a beautiful area (Ameri, interviewed on 26/11/2013). Thus, the physical and cultural infrastructures are developed to help make the city a more attractive place for living and working.

In fact, neighbourhoods within the area had a mix and match of economic development and social development. Steinberg (1996, p. 464) argues:

Such an asset is not only limited to cultural perspectives, but could become an economic asset with good potential for economic exploitation, for instance through tourism, for culturally-based image building of local economic development or the promotion of corporate enterprises.

Thus, gradual revitalisation and incremental restructuring of existing town areas take place within the context of social and economic viability to maximise the potential of the site for more sustainable activities and environments (Rowley, 1996; Thornton et al., 2008).

7.2.4 SUMMARY

In general, diversity in the Central Market waterfront area has interestingly offered potential and opportunity to generate greater social justice and equity in the community. Apart from incorporating cultural heritage value, it is important to take into account the sensitivity and needs of the public to re-introduce/enhance the sense of belonging and attachment of the public to space. Criticisms of social sustainability in the neighbourhood are related to the unsafe environment and poor quality of life for sustainable living. The coordination between building, symbolic space of the functional group, and the cultural and economic resources of the locality are essential to preserving the activities and culture in the area. Madanipour (2006, p. 181) defines that, “Urban design is a major vehicle for helping develop such infrastructure that creates both symbolic and practical dimensions to a changing city.” There are fascinating facets of life, which unfold in this neighbourhood every day. Hence, the scope of design sustainability will be analysed to discuss how urban design uses have shaped the environment in the Central Market waterfront area.

7.3 | THE SCOPE OF DESIGN SUSTAINABILITY IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA

There is a need to consider the interactions of everyday life and experience of the general public to understand better their perception regarding the built environment in the neighbourhood. This section aims to analyse the current conditions of the urban environment and the process of socio-cultural-led regeneration in the Central Market waterfront area. Similar to the previous two case studies, the third section is structured into three parts; 1) the way forward for high-quality

urban design in the Central Market waterfront area, 2) collaborative process – state/market/civil society and 3) drivers of urban change. Firstly, urban design elements are identified to discuss the way they have an influence on the environment and quality of life in the neighbourhood. Secondly, discussion of the collaborative process will look at the balance between state-market-civil society. In this particular, it helps to scrutinise the basic impetus that drives the regeneration design approach. Finally, analysis of the drivers of urban change will draw attention to reflect on how governance, policy, politics and resources play their roles in shaping the socio-cultural-led regeneration.

7.3.1 THE WAY FORWARD FOR QUALITY DESIGN-LED REGENERATION IN CENTRAL MARKET WATERFRONT AREA

Although the Central Market waterfront area demonstrates Burton's (2000) characteristics of compact city design features (see Chapter 2, in 2.2.2), little has been achieved particularly on traffic circulation improvement and minimising cars on the road. An AECOM urban planner (interviewed on 20/11/2013) highlights that the main urban issues in Malaysia are that: "We tend to develop a development without considering other factors such as the road network, accessibility, requirements of the people coming to the development." Another interview (05/12/2013) with an architect, who works at CHKL describes, "It is chaotic and wasn't well thought out during the early stage of development in terms of traffic control, circulation... it is like an urban jungle." Consequently, the traffic congestion has directly impacted the way that people use the urban space. Hence, this is then linked to patterns of people's movement and social behaviour at a place.

Table 7.1 Summary of respondents' view on the current state of Central Market waterfront area (perception)

Urban Fabric Theme	
Indicator	Response
Accessibility (walkable catchment)	Excellent
Building density and compactness	Excellent
Land use diversity	Fairly good
Comfort (public realm)	Fairly good
Safety (natural surveillance)	Average
Physical barriers	Average
Transportation facilities and services	Excellent
Recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square etc.)	Fairly good

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

A survey on three sets of aspects was conducted for the study to analyse the satisfaction of the general public on the current situation in the neighbourhood. The results from the fieldwork survey included feedback from 15 respondents. The first set of analyses examined the overall perception of city centre development. In all, Table 7.1 summarises that there was a wide spread of satisfaction on many aspects of the urban fabric themes. Most of the respondents rated their satisfaction with three out of eight urban fabric indicators as 'excellent': these were building density and compactness (10), accessibility (8) and transportation provisions (11). Nonetheless, some respondents expressed the belief that, "tall buildings make the area look a mess and too complex, thus not safe." The results also indicated a moderate satisfaction with the land use diversity: seven (47%) of the respondents rated it as 'excellent', another seven as 'average', but the response from one person (7%) was unrated. This demonstrates that activities and the presence of people within the built environment play significant roles in perceived density (Bechtel et al., 2003; Dave, 2009). Nine (60%) of respondents rated their satisfaction with the physical barriers as 'average', three (20%) as 'excellent' and another three as 'poor'. The results suggest that there is no evidence of a physical or social barrier that divides districts and communities within the neighbourhood. For recreational provision and amenities, five (33%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction as 'excellent', another five as 'average' and four (27%) as 'poor'. A minority of respondents (three) indicated that "there are

many built up areas but no place to sit and relax.” Seven (47%) of respondents have rated their satisfaction with the public realm as ‘excellent’, six (40%) as ‘average’ and two (13%) as ‘poor’. One respondent (female, student) stated that “at night the neighbourhood could be a black area.” Moreover, another (male, safeguard) commented, “There are too many immigrants who hang out and gather at the place”.

Figure 7.17 shows an underutilised space located in between the riverside walk and the Central Market building. This dead space has created a void between the areas, whereas it has potential to connect (physical and visual) with the riverside walk and add activities that encourage a good public realm. On the other hand, nine (60%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the natural surveillance as ‘average’, three (20%) as ‘excellent’ and another three as ‘poor’. Figure 7.18 shows an example that is commonly viewed as an unsafe environment by urban users due to a lower level of natural surveillance for crime prevention. Regardless of the paved riverside walk, the area has a slight lack of activities for ‘eyes on the street’. The river walk is quite enclosed with barriers (fence, wall and high landscaping), especially where pedestrians are uncomfortable to walk along such an unobserved area. In addition, the engagement between users of urban space and environment in this part of the area is extremely low. Porta and Renne (2005, p. 58) argue that ‘detractors’ such as blank walls, aggressive automobile facilities and rejecting objects may “detract from having the sense of security, hospitality and friendliness on the street.” These results suggest that the level of comfort and safety is related to the quality of the public realm. In this regard, the friendly character of the public space is likely to create a pleasant environment and place to meet for users of urban spaces (Dillon, 2005). However, this sense of attachment may vary with a different group of people. Raco (2007) outlines seven attributes of sustainable communities relevant to crime prevention. He suggests that a higher level of human activity creates a reduced risk of crime and a greater sense of safety.

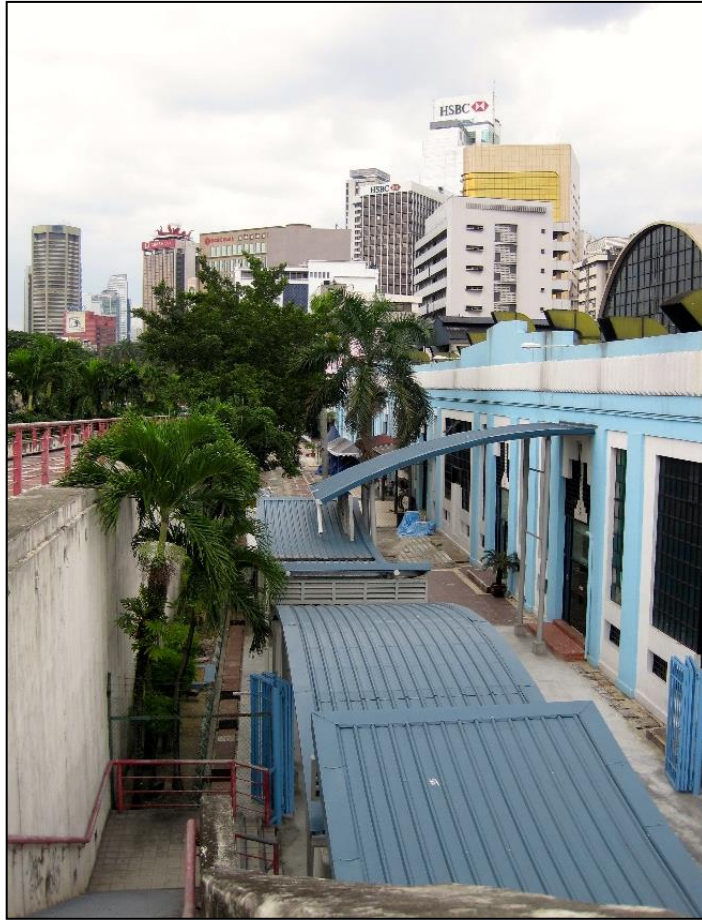


Figure 7.17 Underutilised space between Central Market building and Klang River bank
Source: Author's archive



Figure 7.18 Beautiful river sidewalk, yet most pedestrians indicated it is not safe especially at night
Source: Author's archive

Table 7.2 Summary of respondents' views on sense of attachment with urban environment in the KLCC (interaction)

Streetscape Theme	
Indicator	Response
Sense of intimacy (sky exposure)	Fairly good
Façade continuity (Building and space orientation)	Average
Softness (design and landscape element)	Average
Active frontage (social width and visual complexity)	Average
Safety (natural surveillance)	Poor
Sedibility (number of seating opportunities)	Poor

Source: Fieldwork (2013)

The second set of analyses focused on the interactions of everyday life, particularly of the way that design effects people's sense of attachment as well as shaping social environment and activities. Interestingly, the overall response indicated a quite consistently low number of respondents who rated satisfaction as 'excellent' in this set, except for the active frontage (six respondents). Table 7.2 shows an overview of the results of respondents' assessment of satisfaction. Most of the respondents rated their satisfaction as 'average' with four out of six street indicators: continuity of façade (seven respondents), softness (seven), active frontage (seven) and sense of enclosure (ten). The respondents feel there is a discontinuity between space and building orientation. As a consequence, this effects pedestrian wayfinding and their perception of the immediate surroundings. Cullen (1961, p. 29) states that "enclosure, or the outdoor room, is, perhaps, the most powerful, the most obvious, of all devices to instil a sense of position, of identity with the surroundings...It embodies the idea of here-ness." It therefore follows the street atmosphere is one of the factors that influences people's sense of attachment. Their behaviour and activities will then shape the character of the place. This also accords with earlier observations, which showed that design and landscape elements in public space are highly probable to provide a comfortable and stimulating public realm that encourages social interaction (as discussed in Chapter 2.2 and 2.3). Seven (47%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with sedibility comfort as 'poor', six (40%) as 'average' and two (13%) as 'excellent'. One respondent (female, sales person) stated,

“there are quite limited seats provided to sit, rest and relax.” Other respondents commented, “Not every place is comfortable.” In terms of natural surveillance, eight respondents (53%) rated their satisfaction with the natural surveillance as ‘poor’, four (27%) as ‘average’ and three (20%) as ‘excellent’. Primarily, it seems clear that the state of the environment in the neighbourhood needs to be improved and good urban design may create a sustainable social environment.

The third set of survey analyses examines the quality of design and the way it impacts directly on the everyday life experience. This final section consists of five themes to examine the detail of urban design quality in the neighbourhood. Table 7.3 shows an overview of respondents’ assessment of the current state of urban design quality in the Central Market waterfront area, which provided ratings of almost average for satisfaction with design quality except in the theme of mix of uses. Firstly, in the built form and mass, the overall response from respondents provided ratings of average. Only a small number of the respondents (one) rated compactness, building orientation and accessibility as ‘poor’. Moreover, none of the respondents rated the density and active frontage as ‘poor’. However, one respondent who rated the active frontage as ‘excellent’ argued that, “Except at the Kasturi Walk, space is too tight for pedestrians to walk.” While others considered that the density and compactness are okay, yet still lacking in provision for pedestrian wayfinding. As observed in the previous two sets of survey results, a comparison of these results reveals that pedestrians’ abilities on wayfinding are helped by not only proximity shaped by the density and compactness, but accessibility also.

Table 7.3 Summary of respondents' view on current state of design quality in Central Market waterfront area (experience)

Building Form and Mass Theme	
Indicator	Response
Density	Average
Compactness	Average
Building orientation	Average
Active frontage (liveliness)	Average
Accessibility	Average
Streetscape Design Theme	
Indicator	Response
Accessibility	Fairly good
Security (traffic and crime)	Average
Comfort	Average
Safety (natural surveillance)	Average
Pedestrian walkways/path	Average
Cyclist lane	Poor
Maintenance	Average
Space and Setbacks Theme	
Indicator	Response
Continuity of space	Fairly good
Sense of security	Fairly good
Social activities	Fairly good
Open space (plaza, avenue, square etc.)	Average
Green space (park, pocket garden, green areas etc.)	Poor
Mix of Uses Theme	
Indicator	Response
Land use diversity (liveliness)	Excellent
Community facilities	Excellent
Transport services and facilities	Excellent
Employment density	Excellent
Shared place (social mixing)	Excellent
Outdoor social space	Fairly good
Visual and Sensory Richness Theme	
Indicator	Response
Lighting	Average
Urban and street furniture	Average
Softscapes (planting arrangements)	Average
Sedible arrangements	Average
Space integration	Average

Source: Fieldwork (2014)

Secondly, in the streetscape design theme, most of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the following elements as 'average': security (eight respondents), comfort (seven), safety (seven), pedestrian walkways/paths (eight), and maintenance (nine). Some respondents indicated, "too many hawkers has resulted in limited movement and activities for us – pedestrians." It can, therefore, be assumed that the standard of the street design environment somewhat lacks in visual interest that instils a friendly environment for the pedestrians (this will be discussed further in the visual and sensory richness theme). Some of the issues emerging from the findings relate specifically to the regeneration strategy, in which one proposal for improvement could be to include cycle paths around transit stops so that people could cycle to the station and park their bicycle there and go off to work. Figure 7.19 provides evidence of the unsustainable use of space and way of travelling of the city dwellers. It is possible to transform this motorcycle parking into a shared space, where instead bicycle-parking racks are introduced to encourage people to cycle. Furthermore, the area is just within a minute walk to *Masjid Jamek* LRT station. Nearly two-thirds of the respondents (nine) rated cycle lane provision as 'poor'. An AECOM urban planner (interviewed on 20/11/2013) gives an opinion:

I think now the main strategy is to bring people to the city. One of the ways is improving the connections of the road; another thing is to encourage people to cycle because now countries around the world are really encouraging a healthy lifestyle by encouraging cycling.

In Malaysia, the existing trend for cycling is more of recreational use rather than a way of commuting. This lifestyle corresponds with discussion of wellness space in the literature review (see environmental design determinism in 2.1.2). In developed countries, transit-oriented development effectively advocates a balance between a compact, mixed-use and pedestrian-friendly development. In turn, this progressively generates a sustainable growth and strives to minimise motorised vehicles on the road.



Figure 7.19 Unsustainable way of travelling and use of urban space in the city centre

Source: Author's archive

Thirdly, in the space and setback theme, a range of responses was elicited. Ten (67%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the open space as 'average', four (27%) as 'excellent' and one (7%) as 'poor'. With concern to the green space, seven (47%) respondents rated their satisfaction as 'poor', five (33%) as 'average' and three (20%) as 'excellent'. The map in Figure 7.20 identifies urban spaces within the neighbourhood and shows that there are a considerable number of available open spaces to be found in the proximity of the neighbourhood. Open areas such as parking, vacant and dead space are labelled as underutilised space because they can be optimised to incorporate well-used public open space. On the contrary, six (40%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the social activities as 'excellent', eight (53%) as 'average' and one (7%) as 'poor'. One individual states, "certain space is easy to access." Moreover, another commented, "There is no security. Some urban spaces are dirty and poorly observed. Space is narrow and some too crowded." If we refer to the sense of security, most of the respondents rated their satisfaction as between

‘average’ (seven respondents) and ‘poor’ (seven). These findings are consistent with Cooper and Boyko (2012, p. 37) in their study of density, who suggest:

It is crucial to get the right mix of amenities (e.g., services, infrastructure) – as well as amenities that are profitable, open during convenient times and are perceived as safe to use and get people to/from – so that people will want to continue living, working and recreating in the area.

As such, an effective urban design treatment is crucial to establish a liveable and sustainable environment. Pavements, promenades and river corridors allow for better connectivity between mixed land uses, open space and transportation transit, while simultaneously adding vitality and enabling more productivity and growth in the city.

Fourthly, most of the respondents rated their satisfaction with five out of six mixed uses as ‘excellent’: these were land use diversity (nine respondents), employment density (nine), shared place (10), community facilities (seven) and transport services and facilities (11). Tonkiss (2013) highlights that urban sustainability is linked to a well-integrated mix of land uses. Nevertheless, there are a fair number of the respondents (seven) who rated their satisfaction with the outdoor social space as ‘excellent’ and ‘average’. If we relate this to the results above, these findings may help us to understand that opportunities for social encounters, exchange and convergence in urban space are important as well to improve the quality of life in the city.

Finally, the majority of the respondents rated the visual and sensory richness theme as ‘average’. None of the respondents rated the urban and street furniture as ‘poor’. It is clear that design elements: lighting, urban and street furniture, softscape (planting arrangements) and sedibility arrangements are fixed within the neighbourhood. However, only a few rated their satisfaction as ‘excellent’. Eight (53%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction with the sedibility

arrangements as 'average', four (27%) as 'excellent' and three (20%) as 'poor'. If we compare this with one of the findings from the second set of analyses, the sedibility comfort was fairly low and average. A possible explanation for this might be that people's social experience of the visual and sensory richness is not only shaped by the design elements but also by a sense of safety and comfort with their surroundings. Some respondents argued that "quiet and low light at night are the case," while others considered that, "lack of attractions and not many landscaping features are the reason that people are not interested." In terms of space integration, 10 (67%) of the respondents rated their satisfaction as 'average', four (27%) as 'excellent' and one (7%) as 'poor'. These results conclude it is reasonably certain that visual interest will protect and enhance the quality of the place.

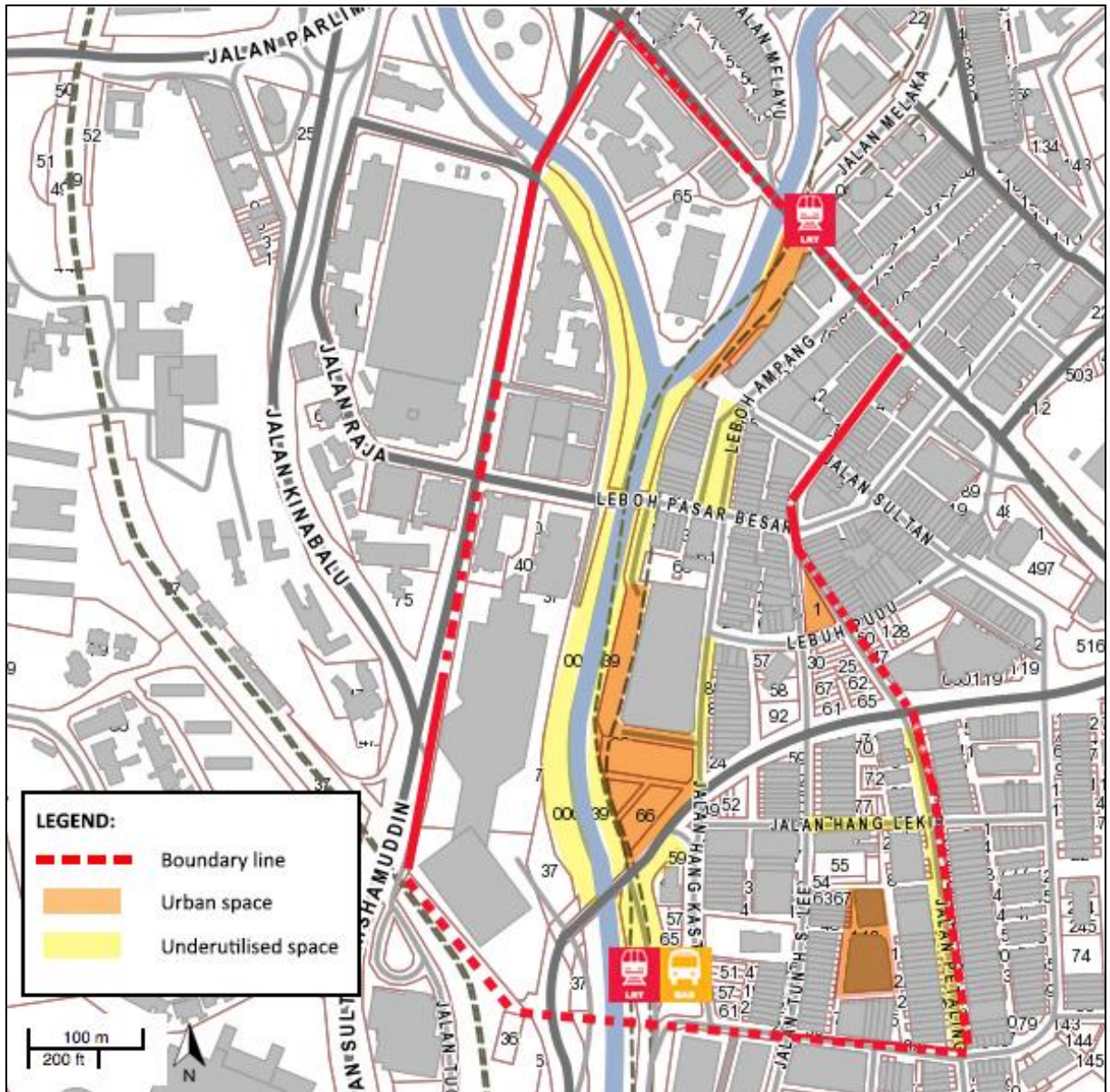


Figure 7.20 Urban space (river walk, open space, square, etc.) within the neighbourhood

Source: Author's construct, adapted from CHKL (2014)

This combination of findings provides some support for the conceptual argument that the role of urban design is to foster social sustainability. As mentioned in the literature review (Chapter 2), the ideology of a compact city is probably to establish a connection between the sense of place and social sustainability. Evan et al. (2007, p. 103), mentioned that “good design ensures attractive, usable, durable and adaptable places and is a key element in achieving sustainable development.” Thus, it is necessary to include urban design in the early process of planning development.

Therefore, improvement in good design not only provides an attractive place but is also vital to rejuvenate the area and create a better environment for city dwellers.

7.3.2 COLLABORATION PROCESS (STATE-MARKET-CIVIL SOCIETY)

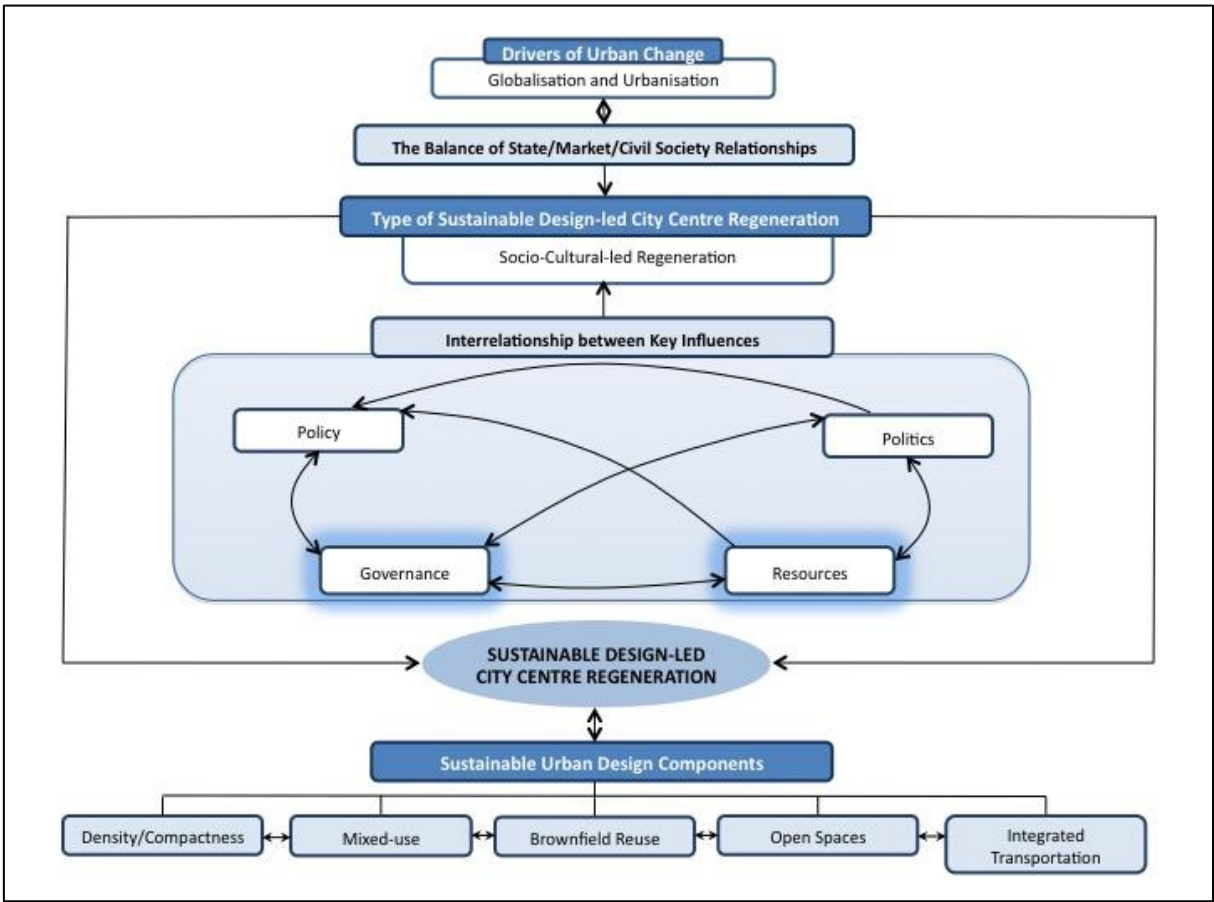


Figure 7.21 Factors influencing the Central Market water front area

Source: Author's construct

The diagram in Figure 7.21 shows a flow chart of the way in which drivers, key influences and factors have shaped design-led regeneration in the Central Market waterfront area. As the previous section demonstrates analysis related to sustainable urban design components, the discussion here is looking at the interconnectedness between policy, politics, resources and governance. The Central Market waterfront development is a way forward in ensuring a range of

voices are heard during the regeneration process. It demonstrates collaboration among the stakeholders of the place in order to expand more on the local knowledge, values and meanings. The evidence from this study concludes the resources and politics mostly affect decision-making in the development. As highlighted in the diagram, the arrows indicate the various ways different influences impact on policy, politics, governance and resources: in this kind of situation, everything is connected to socio-cultural-led regeneration. A CHKL architect (interviewed on 05/12/2013) comments:

Sometimes the politicians, when a certain thing is not agreeable to both parties, will affect the implementation of the project. DBKL is under the Federal Ministry, so any decisions we have to seek approval from them.

For example, the *Medan Pasar* transformation is a step forward to provide a great public space for people (see Figure 7.22). The owner of the premises, the master planner, designers, enforcement departments, the regulation department, planning department and building department all took part in public engagement. Rao (interviewed on 22/11/2013) stressed that one of the CHKL policies is to ensure that new development integrates well with the existing character of the neighbourhood. Owners and developers cannot make buildings taller, or bigger because they want to maintain and preserve the existing surroundings to ensure that new development or refurbishment relate to the cultural area. Steinberg (1996, p. 465) recognises that:

the historic city centre represents a unique historical link with the past, a physical manifestation of the social and cultural tradition, which have developed to give the modern city and society its meaning and character.

The collaborative process has substantially helped developments to integrate towards a smooth progress of regeneration. In fact, the way forward for liveable and sustainable cities is not only to

place emphasis on the environmental issues but also to incorporate the value of the cultural heritage. Such a balance between state-market-civil societies has given a platform in looking out alternative and sustainable solutions to the urban problems.



Figure 7.22 This view of Medan Pasar facing towards Kasturi Walk at Central Market shows evidence of improved urban space and connectivity within the neighbourhood. This attempt has gradually encouraged a liveable and safe pedestrian- friendly environment.

Source: Author's archive

7.3.3 SUMMARY

In general, the conditions in the Central Market waterfront area have deteriorated due to the emergence of automobile dependency in Kuala Lumpur. Rapid urbanisation has created pressure to provide enough modernisation of the physical fabric to allow the life of the community to go on. The main urban issue is the connectivity aspect correlated with traffic circulation and pedestrian wayfinding. In addition, it is apparent that there are a few examples of ineffective use of urban

design to establish safer environments along the riverside walk. Interaction between these elements does have a significant potential to generate more productive and sustainable growth. The findings from this study suggested establishing central courses of action for the betterment of the place, within the scope of social sustainability aspects. If we look at an example in Singapore, the Urban Redevelopment Authority (URA) has promoted the use of quality urban design in its planning which has to accommodate issues of land constraints and high density. People often come to the city, where we see the public engage in activities in the city centre naturally and they appreciate high-quality design. The growing vision of the 'world class city', the use of city image, urban mega-projects and iconic architecture as an urban regeneration strategy have indeed been established in Kuala Lumpur following examples of best practice from developed countries. Many of the models have been used with due consideration to policy transfer into Malaysian sustainable design-led city centre regeneration. For instance, the HafenCity case study in Chapter 2 proves that maintaining the image and history of the regeneration site could stimulate and improve the living conditions while retaining the distinct character of the place. Likewise, Chicago, New York and London managed to integrate their essence of culture and own it in inner city regeneration.

7.4 | CONCLUSION

Unlike in the Kampong Bharu case in Chapter 6, the Central Market waterfront area and KLCC are of national interest and high profile projects. Both projects underwent fast-track routes simply because of the pressure to get things done, and to alleviate the complexities of working across agencies and ministries. Nevertheless, KLCC – a modern architectural development, a form of architectural nationalism – has set the benchmark for Malaysian urban development and raised a growing trend for beautiful building design. Yeoh (2005, p. 950) describes this type of development as “high impact signature structures”; (Ho, 2002) as having a “symbolic civic role both internationally and domestically.” Thus, iconic representation is a form of globalisation processes, which involves

government push in making successful places. In all three case studies, the form of cultural globalisation has continued to influence new urban discourse in the country to be a global city. Davidson (2009) points out that a socially sustainable urban future is predicated on political opportunity and action.

Conflicts on enhancing the city image are common when there is a community involved. To some extent the regeneration in developing countries is prone to underestimate the value of cultural aspects for the people of the locality. The regeneration alluded to the notion of the “Cultural value of architecture with the economic value of land and building” (Zukin, 1991, p. 45). The impact of such regeneration has become evident in gentrification debates surrounding the displacement of existing activities and communities in the area, whereas, the concern has been with making the objects of social planning more sustainable (Davidson, 2013). The regeneration of the Central Market is the creation of a new location with meaning. The cultural heritage value and its natural assets are the distinctive characteristics that form an excellent combination to contribute to the liveability and economic vitality of the area. For this reason, the case study was chosen to be representative of socio-cultural-led city centre regeneration in Malaysia.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

The broad aim of this research was to generate better understanding and reflection on the role of urban design to promote sustainable city centre regeneration in the context of Malaysia. The study has discussed the different ways of designing different types of sustainable city centre regeneration and examined the relationship between design-led developments and social sustainability. The aim of the study was developed through the following objectives:

- To explore the role of design and the value of social sustainability in sustainable city centre regeneration.
- To explore how developed countries' models of sustainable regeneration intersect with the developing countries context.
- To obtain better understanding of the interdependency and challenges of policy, politics, governance and resources in sustainable city centre regeneration.
- To develop an understanding of how sustainable city centre regeneration is designed in Malaysia.

Sustainable city centre regeneration refers to the idea of implementing a holistic framework bringing together all the levels shaping cities as material structures, spaces of citizenship and place by the powerful interplay of political, economic and social forces (Acselrad, 2004). Debates on social sustainability are often associated with issues of well-being, quality of life and satisfaction of urban inhabitants (Polèse and Stern, 2000, Jarvis et al., 2001; Colantonia et al., 2009; Woodcraft et al., 2012). In my **Introduction** chapter, drawing on international experiences I pitched the interest towards the case of Kuala Lumpur and particularly a focus of research on social sustainability, regeneration and urban design. In doing so, this research was positioned with the ambition of expanding our knowledge of similar models circulating across the world and assessing how they may vary from one country to another.

Chapter 2, **Literature Review**, addresses the gaps in the existing research which have been divided into two sections. The first section, a review of urban planning and design history helped to highlight the themes of urban sustainability and sustainable living, this section depicted how social sustainability and urban design are linked and connected to urban and regeneration policy in making a sustainable city. Within this section, the underlying elements of sustainable urban regeneration were explored to analyse the significance of planning and design processes in the creation of wider sustainable outcomes as well as the integration of the local context. The other section, analysis of the context of developed/developing capital cities or/and world cities models helped to highlight the differences and similarities with international case studies.

The outcome of this chapter was the development of an analytical framework presented in Chapter 3, **Methodology**. This framework identified three aspects of sustainable city centre regeneration. Firstly, it suggested how drivers of urban change are steered by globalisation, urbanisation or a combination of both. Secondly, it stressed how each specific type of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration is shaped through the balance of state/market/civil society and key influences around factors of politics, policy, resources and governance. Finally, it positioned five urban design components: 1) density and compactness, 2) mixed-use, 3) brownfield reuse, 4) open spaces and 5) integrated transportation. In Chapter 4, I have drawn on the way in which the growing integration of the global economy and the restructuring of the economies of developing countries have both impacted on the dynamics of urban development in Kuala Lumpur. Hence, the empirical research is informed by looking through the lens of an aspiring world city in the developing context. Three case studies in Kuala Lumpur, all spearheaded by the government, have been selected as representative of different types of development specifically with regard to how market forces, political interest and urban competitiveness have influenced the dynamics of the projects. To understand the complexity of the urban issues related to the governance and delivery process

throughout the three case studies in Kuala Lumpur, the following section summarises the key findings of the study.

8.1 | SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE

This study has demonstrated that successful sustainable city centre regeneration depends on finding the balance of state/market/civil society forces and making sure the results/decision-making benefits of these balance rather than be driven by a sole political rationality. Policy, politics, governance and resources influence the delivery of regeneration. For instance, tensions deeply rooted in a conflict between different individuals and groups (including authority) were evident in the Kampong Bharu case study. This conflict often resulted in poor-quality unsustainable city centre regeneration. Hence, little progress has been achieved with many failed attempts of redevelopment. The KLCC case study has highlighted that strong leadership is vital to guide such high profile sustainable regeneration. In the case of the Central Market waterfront, there was evidence of fruitful dialogue and negotiation with stakeholders (community and business leaders) in improving the physical environment and providing space for essential infrastructure and open space. Equally important, design aspects related to urban sustainability and regeneration were analysed to assess how these create a place that provides high-quality city centre living. The study has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of the interdependency and challenges of various factors influencing the delivery of sustainable city centre regeneration.

This study has shown that the on-going problems at Kampong Bharu were attached to major issues on sustainable regeneration, particularly at finding the balance between state/market/civil society. The neighbourhood's unique character as a Malay enclave in the heart of the city presented the distinct quality of the place in terms of the heritage, traditional architecture and cultural value. Various design and planning issues of relevance to the decision-making process

that paid little attention to the need to treat development of the place with care, have impacted on the urban environment and local communities therein. Disorganised and haphazard development in the neighbourhood has led to deterioration of the place. Nonetheless, the governance of the neighbourhood was characterised by complexity and clashes between the local communities (now functioning as community-based organisations) and two government authorities concerning the administration, maintenance and enforcement of regulations. Moreover, in comparison to the KLCC that is a neighbouring area, there was a clear disparity between the two cases in terms of economics, socioeconomic groups and built environment. Although the latest Kampong Bharu redevelopment master plan aims to create a new and modern development of Islamic Malay culture, the proposal will include bulldozing the entire neighbourhood. This bizarre process is described as radical transformation of the neighbourhood as a whole. Correspondingly, because of its ideal location, market forces for profit-oriented development by both commercial and real estate have taken tolls on further social sustainability issues, particularly the displacement of the residents and future gentrification.

In the KLCC development, although strong political involvement is perceived as one of the major issues, strong vision throughout the first stage of project has led to a successful outcome and created a significant impact on the public realm/infrastructure. It can be argued that the nation needed a strong leadership to carry out the project because this type of flagship development was new to the citizens during that period. They were familiar with the norms and traditional ways of top-down planning. Not only does the project indicate a start of rapid development in the nation, but it also marks a transformation towards postmodern thinking about urban and planning practice to drive society towards progress (Allmendinger, 1998). This notion was aligned with the Malaysian 2020 Vision to achieve a fully developed nation status by the year 2020. The case represents the premier urban development in the nation and the Petronas Twin Towers became a global image of Malaysia's international status. After the development of KLCC, the neighbourhood became a prime

location with increasing interest from the property market that targeted more affluent groups of people to reside or invest there. Presently, the second stage of KLCC commenced work on the site of an undeveloped parcel of land in 2013. The updated masterplan consists of extensive commercial development and focuses on improvement of the public realm and infrastructure. The second stage completion is coordinated in three development phases within a span of 21 years. Nonetheless, follow-up research will be required to ensure the future development may address and not worsen the existing traffic conditions in the KLCC neighbourhood.

The Central Market waterfront area case has shown that valuing the environment and social sensitivity were the key objectives for sustainable city centre regeneration. The findings in this case study have identified a number of social sustainability issues relevant to design and planning processes in the early days of the development that impact on the current conditions of urban environment. These include safety and comfort (especially at night), low dwelling units, displacement, heavy commercialisation, negative perceptions about the neighbourhood (concerning homeless, immigrants, and hawkers community) and social well-being. The in progress transformations related to Precinct 7 of the River of Life project highlighted the importance of river beautification and the Iconic Places Plan as part of the state regeneration strategy. The project advocates an international approach regarding waterfront development to revitalise a derelict river and aims to stimulate urban growth within socially lively and vibrant environments. Referring back to Billingham (1994, cited in Madanipour, 1997), urban design in the place-making process is significant because it strengthens the local identity by improving the quality of places and promoting social sustainability. The findings in this case suggest the design and planning process should take into account the feelings and needs of the public to reintroduce the sense of place. Moreover, the cultural and historical aspects in existing locations make tourism-led regeneration one of goals of the River of Life project. This balance between state/market/civil society would naturally lead to sustainable city centre regeneration.

Debates on new urbanism and urban renaissance suggest knowledge of seven essential elements for sustainable regeneration is important because they are mechanisms of regeneration. Density and compactness, brownfield reuse, mixed-use, open space, integrated transportation, governance and management, and money and cost are not isolated units, each element owns a specific set of functions which play a pivotal role in shaping the built environment. State/market/civil society forces may conflict and impact adversely on the quality, efficiency and overall sustainability. This possibility has been flagged up by Coaffee and Healey (2003) on dimensions of governance process and model of process-oriented evaluation criteria as described by Cardoso and Breda-Vázquez (2007). It is important to note that this analysis ties in directly within the ideas of social sustainability and the new urban policy that bring together the roles of sustainability, regeneration and design.

The present results are significant in at least three major aspects. The policy and actions adopted by the decision makers in shaping the dynamics of the (re)development/regeneration have different consequences in the three case studies. These are the problems, outcomes and goals of the decision makers. Table 8.1 summarises the key findings from the three case studies through identification of sustainable city centre regeneration, social sustainability and urban design. It is important to acknowledge how these three aspects are embedded in the built environment. The decision-making process involved a well thought out process by bringing in the best minds, and consulting with experts to tackle the problem with long and careful consideration. The issues emerging in each case study reflect the way the design and planning process has or may affect the development in the specific local context. In the three case studies, Kampong Bharu has evidence of problems, the KLCC development in particular appears as outcomes and the regeneration of the Central Market waterfront area is presented as goals/objectives. Taken together, these findings suggest if we incorporate design with sustainability indicators within perspectives of urban

regeneration, economic development, urban competitiveness and liveability can be linked to wider sustainable outcomes.

Table 8.1 Case study summary on way decision-making process shapes regeneration

	Kampong Bharu	KLCC	Central Market Waterfront Area
Sustainable city centre regeneration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disorganised/haphazard development (chaos) • Low level of community participation • Regulatory clash between a local and two government authorities (management/maintenance/enforcement) • Resources (land issues and development cost) • Market force (profit-oriented development-commercial and real estate) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong political involvement • Flagship development • Market force • Oversupply of high-end residential • Price and value of land (prime location) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Derelict river and neglected river • Early development (unsustainable development patterns) • Tourism-led • Beautification project and iconic attractions
Social sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear and anger • Comfort and safety • Quality of life (well-being issues) • Malay identity and value • ‘The chaos and the people’ – regulatory/residents/landowners/hawkers • Disparity (economic) • Social inequality • Displacement • Future gentrification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affluent residents • Urban lifestyles • Inclusive public spaces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Safety and comfort (especially at night) • Heavily commercialised • Low dwelling units • Displacement • Perception of the neighbourhood (homeless, immigrants, hawkers community) • Social well-being
Urban design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate recreational and amenities facilities (open space, green space, square, pocket park, etc.) • Vacant and abandon land • Overcrowded neighbourhood • Inaccessible/disconnected areas • Disparity (old/slums vs. modern) • Underutilised space 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Undeveloped site – surface parking area (to be developed on the 2nd stage of master plan) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate open and green space • Poor sedibility opportunity • Underutilised space

Source: Author’s construct

Table 8.2 provides evidence of how the interconnectedness between the key themes of policy, politics, governance and resources and public participation have shaped and impacted sustainable city centre regeneration in the Kuala Lumpur case. It is also important to acknowledge

these various influences and factors guide the governance of designing sustainable city centre regeneration and retain wider public support as well as reflecting a shared reality in everyday planning.

Table 8.2 An overview of the interconnectedness between themes and impact on the condition of urban environment in Kuala Lumpur

	State	Market	Civil Society	Urban Environment
Policy	<u>All three case studies</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic growth (Economic Transformation Programme) • 2020 Visions 	<u>All three case studies</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commercial-led development • Tourism-led development • Iconic landmark/building 		<u>All three case studies</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traffic congestion <u>Kampong Bharu and Central Market waterfront area case</u>
Politics	<u>Kampong Bharu and KLCC case</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power relations 	<u>Kampong Bharu and KLCC case</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real estate and investment opportunities 	<u>Kampong Bharu and Central Market waterfront area case</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The hawkers community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inaccessible/disconnected areas • Overcrowded uses (chaotic development) • Safety and comfort
Governance	<u>Kampong Bharu case</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflicts on land administration • Regulatory/federal/corporate • Regulatory condition (enforcement) 		<u>Kampong Bharu case</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflicts on land administration and response from powerholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate recreational and amenities (open space, green park, square, pocket park) • Disparity (economic and physical structure)
Resources		<u>All three case studies</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Location • Employment and economic opportunities 	<u>Kampong Bharu and Central Market waterfront area case</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gentrification/displacement • Quality of life (well-being) 	
Public Participation			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear and anger • Level of citizen participation 	

Source: Author's construct

To conclude, within the case studies, we can find examples of how governance is helping to drive the process of sustainable city centre regeneration. Despite having different types of regeneration and various challenges in delivering the projects as discussed in this section, there is clear similarity throughout the three cases studies. The design thinking focuses on the requirement to reproduce a Malaysia/national identity in modern and contemporary design. The findings suggest

the role design plays in the changing context of urban changes. McGee (2011) identifies that the relationship of development and urbanisation in this process of development is part of the process of creating a modern state.

8.2 | ANSWERS TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Returning to the questions posed at the beginning of the study, it is now possible to state that knowledge of the existing context and analysis of potential conflicts of interests can help alleviate many problems. In this section, I list the research questions and their answers drawn from the findings of this research.

1. To examine the process/strategy and the way that the role of design has been implemented

The results of this research support the idea that social justice, equity and inclusiveness are anchored in the perspectives of urban governance. These concepts are relevant to the planning process and it is important to look at the process and implementation to evaluate how far the value of social sustainability and the role of design have been taken into consideration. In the case of international experiences as described in the literature review, institutional factors play an important role in shaping and driving the type of sustainable city centre regeneration. The detailed insights from the case studies suggest local development is the result of complex differing forces. Political interest, strategy and action vary and design approach is influenced by different factors of economic, social, cultural, physical and environmental aspects. These all affect the outcomes in the built environment. Although the implementation may be similar, yet the design we see in the urban landscape may vary from one to another. Therefore, it seems that urban regeneration is underpinned by the design-led strategy.

In the case of Kampong Bharu, the issues of unattractive environments and economic disparities are crucial in its problematic redevelopment. The conflicts regarding the nature of the urban transformation and desire to redevelop the neighbourhood by commercial-led regeneration resulted from political interest, surrounding market demand for commercial development and built environment forces. Nonetheless, the regeneration within this case study area has been unable to demonstrate the value of social sustainability because this radical transformation is in contrast to the existing nature of the place. Figure 8.1 illustrates that politics and governance are the most pressing factors and the way these influence the development process in Kampong Bharu, as described in the previous section (8.1).

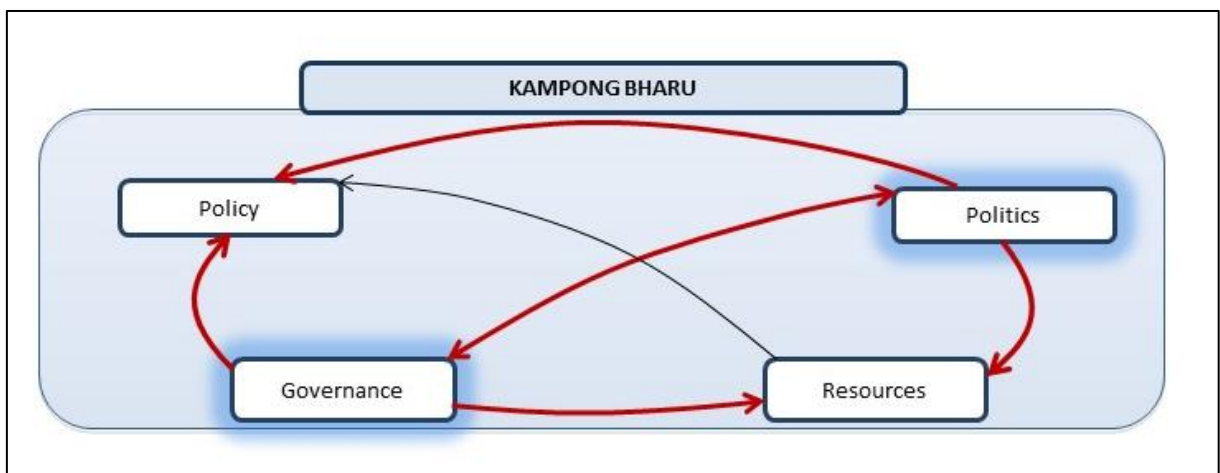


Figure 8.1 The interconnectedness of key influences in shaping the development in Kampong Bharu

Source: Author's construct

The KLCC case in particular demonstrates top-down visionary ideas in realising the Malaysian Vision 2020. Figure 8.2 shows the way politics have regulated other influences in order to accomplish the project. The case study reveals that the decision-planning process in this interventionist project was very much determined by the board, mainly the state leader. The implementation of this process is driven by models of aspiring world cities derived from international

cases on the importance of high-quality design in seeking quality urban development. The KLCC has become a symbol of the nation’s pride in terms of global competitiveness and image.

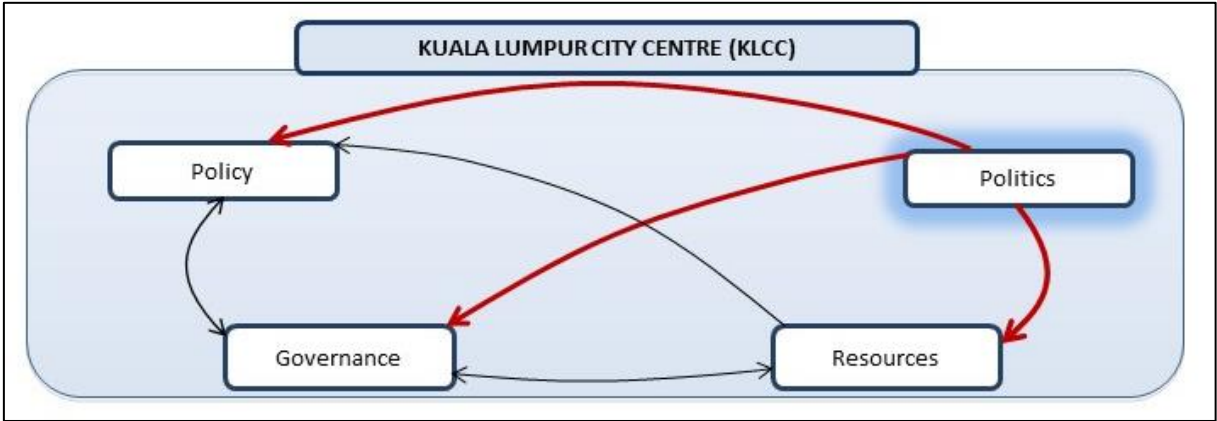


Figure 8.2 The interconnectedness of key influences in shaping the development in KLCC
Source: Author’s construct

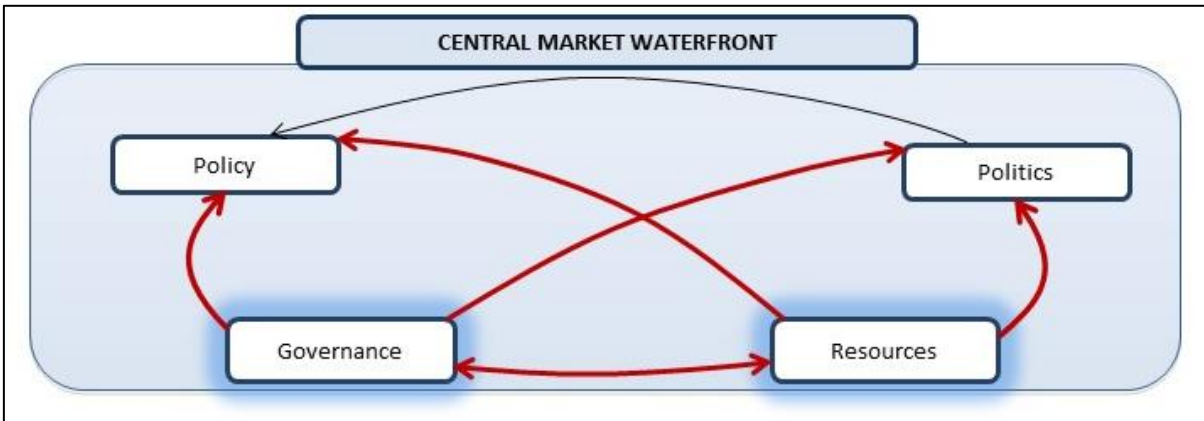


Figure 8.3 The interconnectedness of key influences in shaping the development in Central Market Waterfront
Source: Author’s construct

Similar to KLCC, the Central Market waterfront is another example of national interest and a high profile project. In the plan to make Malaysia a high-income nation, the River of Life project was launched under Economic Transformation Programmes because of the significance of the project to generate more productive economic growth. The cultural heritage and historical value of the area and its natural assets form an excellent combination to contribute to a positive urban regeneration process in a denser environment at the heart of Kuala Lumpur city. Figure 8.3 shows the way

governance and resources drive the dynamics of development towards more sustainable city development/environment initiatives.

2. Does this case study model promote the restoration of a better living environment in the city centre?

The relevance of the concept of a holistic framework design as part of sustainable city centre regeneration in urban studies is clearly supported by the current findings. Madanipour's paper (2006, p. 174) on roles and challenges of urban design suggests a multi-dimensional viewpoint is required and that this needs to be dynamic, so that it can address the process of urban change. Appreciation of the roles of different players of urban users (groups and individuals) through the scope of design could manage the development and change of urban fabric. Madanipour (ibid, p.185) describes that:

Urban improvement schemes are partly a response to this demand, and partly meeting the challenge of restructuring the urban space to fit the restructured economy, creating urban spaces that are fit for a new urban society.

Rosales (2010) similarly wrote about the importance of incorporating sustainability indicators in the early stages of urban planning. The analysis of the international experiences revealed that sustainable city centre regeneration highlights different uses of design roles in shaping the environment in ways that are likely to improve the physical environment, quality of life, urban and social services, economic prospects and urban governance. The KLCC case in particular demonstrated wellness and leisure space in the KLCC Park help to activate healthy lifestyles and create diversity of activities within the neighbourhood. The business-led/commercial-led development consisted of mixed-use and integrated development that successfully developed a place for people. Hence, it

should be noted that this case study shows the importance of finding the balance of state/market/civil society to achieve a more sustainable city.

The Central Market waterfront area case has demonstrated the importance of socio-cultural-led and waterfront regeneration in creating the sense of place. Mann (1988) cited in Shamsuddin et al. (2008, p. 48) suggests that an urban waterfront design approach which provides good public places for social interaction and is aesthetically pleasing for the public would likely transform the waterfront as one of the major nodes for the city. This form of leisure space, as described in environmental design determinisms use, can eventually transform a derelict river into a valuable asset of the city. These specialist uses of urban design link to the concept of environmental design determinism for sustainable communities as discussed by Raco (2007). The state of the built environment is the end product of physical and social attributes in the locality and thus allows sustainable outcomes of such interactions. On the other hand, the conflict-led regeneration in Kampong Bharu emphasised urban regeneration critiques of displacement and gentrification which are the immediate nature of such development if the people of the locality are being neglected. The key findings of the study are that the underlying design and planning process will deliver more sustainable outcomes through the value of social sustainability.

3. How can the challenges and factors affecting sustainable city centre regeneration be addressed in shaping a successful regeneration agenda?

The findings throughout the three case studies demonstrated that the governance by its nature involved politics, processes and mobilisation of resources. Squires and Huerkens (2014) provide a rationale on the forces and dynamics of development process and relationships which could influence the real estate 'environment', 'market' and 'organisations'. Their (ibid) identification

of institutional structures could be used to help a better understanding of the implications of sustainable city centre regeneration:

- The real estate environment is defined by the political, social, economic and legal rules by which society is organised.
- The real estate market involves a network of rules, conventions and relationships to create a more stable environment for the real estate market.
- The real estate organisations, which can also consist of users, professional bodies, investors, property service providers, financial service providers, governmental and non-governmental agencies and developers, are influential in shaping the real estate development.

In the case of the Kampong Bharu development, the regeneration is criticised on account of the absence of a coherent, consistent and transparent approach, particularly on the financing of the infrastructure and regeneration plan. According to Coaffee and Healey (2003), a new governance framework in planning decision process as described in their model of governance process, helps to promote the principle of equity in the governance culture. Similarly, Cardoso and Breda-Vázquez (2007) in their model of 'process-oriented understanding of society' suggest the identification of authorised power which shapes and controls in disabling and dominating ways. Both models recognised the local communities and issues of diversity in the planning process as well as took into consideration the idea of social justice in society. Empowering social justice, equity and inclusiveness in the planning process, provides a qualitative explanation of the new urban reality towards sustainable cities and communities.

In contrast to the Kampong Bharu case, the KLCC case study development occurs through the governance mechanisms that unite the role of different policy instruments and then informed delivery of the project (Healey, 1998; Coaffee and Healey, 2009). As Healey (1998) describes on the concept of inclusiveness in the planning process, collaboration among stakeholders can help to build

on leverage of assets and create a platform in widening stakeholder involvement beyond traditional power elites. Thus, policy instruments were used to provide recommendations on benchmark, target, policy goal, ideology and inspiration for sustainable regeneration.

4. What are the typology of sustainable city centre regeneration?

The typology of sustainable city centres as demonstrated in the international experiences are reflected in social justice, equity and inclusiveness, promoting the sense of place through place-making process and environmental design determinisms, and providing quality of life and sustainable living. These three dimensions are the key balance between dimensions of sustainability and effect the value of sustainable urban development and shape the type of development. The analytical framework is important to identify the nature of planning and provide a way of understanding the different forms of sustainable city centre, as discussed at the beginning of the chapter. The iconic skyscraper of the Petronas Twin Towers in the KLCC demonstrated a symbol of global urban competitiveness, which was driven by business and commercial-led regeneration. Unlike the KLCC, Kampong Bharu and the Central Market waterfront area in particular, demonstrated a design-led strategy that was driven by their significance in historical, heritage and cultural contexts. However, the Kampong Bharu case described design demands by the state for a modern Islamic Malay architecture and new economic district for Kuala Lumpur. This presented evidence that the potential new development has neglected to reflect on the three dimensions of sustainability that link social sustainability and urban design in the planning process. In contrast, in the Central Market waterfront area case maintaining the image and history of the regeneration was part of the government push in making successful places.

5. Which aspects of the framework should and should not be pursued in empirical work?

The empirical work of this study was examined through the lens of an aspiring world city. As described in the previous question, an analytical framework was used to evaluate the three case studies in Kuala Lumpur. Despite its exploratory nature, this study offers some insights into social sustainability considerations and how design is important in the regeneration of Kuala Lumpur. The survey undertaken in this study used the indicators of urban design to bridge between the relationship of quality of design and social sustainability in order to evaluate the current state of sustainability in Kuala Lumpur. As such, the results of the findings, along with in-depth interviews and focus group discussions were used to elucidate values, perceptions, attitudes and opinions of different groups and roles. The construction of the empirical narrative helps integrate data according to the subject matter to generate information for decision-making processes across the different stages in urban planning (Rosales, 2010). Hence, within these case studies, we can find similarities and differences in driving and shaping the models of sustainable city centre regeneration. Discussion on policy transfer was not addressed in this study because the findings provide detailed insight of sustainable city centre regeneration in the Malaysian context. However, the study has highlighted the relationship between institutional arrangements and policy transfer issues on the way that poor adaptation of the international approach has impacted on a series of problems in urban planning and regeneration.

8.3 | RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

This work has contributed in emphasising the need to connect urban design with social sustainability and governance in future research. The study explored the role of design as a development approach that focuses on the experience of everyday life to benefit the social

sustainability of the place. Similarly, analysis of urban users' experiences is an indicator of quality of life that measures the physical environment and well-being to improve the planning policy and design of the development. Sustainable design-led regeneration has the ability to be economically competitive and highlights issues for better understanding of integrated design aspects in the economic, social and cultural life of urban areas. This in turn has highlighted the significance of urban design as a tool to enhance and stimulate quality living into an area, which emphasises the qualities of sustainable places and social sustainability in planning processes (Gans, 1969; Billingham, 1994, cited in Madanipour, 1997; Veenhoven, 1999; Colantonia et al., 2009; Madanipour, 2006). It is interesting to note that the role of governance has been crucial in all three cases, where the challenge for governance was to develop a long-term strategic plan for a specific model of urban regeneration, particularly towards an aspiring world city. Typically, in both Kampong Bharu and KLCC, the focus has been more on developing a new and modern city image as part of the city global strategy and has put strong emphasis on economic competitiveness by supporting commercial-led regeneration. The Kampong Bharu on-going redevelopment, however has had a problematic way forward because lack of holistic framework as well as neglect of the local cultural context, failed to take into account a wide range of actors and stakeholders to ensure effectiveness of the strategies. In contrast, the governance process in the KLCC flagship development has embraced a strong vision and leadership that is fundamental in trying to grasp the complexity of urban governance. In the Central Market waterfront area, the nature of regeneration has been crucial in seeking to develop as a cultural tourism strategy by redefining tourism in the city and reconfiguring new tourism spaces in making attractive places to foster international tourism.

In examining sustainable city centre regeneration in North/South models of regeneration, the model of capital cities in the South is far too simplistic in comparison to the capital cities of the North. The framework for global competitiveness and global image has resulted in rapid urbanisation and most regeneration projects place emphasis on commercial-business-led development for rapid

economic growth (Križnik, 2013). Thus, this suggests that the state and market is driving the development and therefore, the design of the city is following the attitude of key players in urban governance. In contrast, improving well-being has been a key governmental goal towards civil society development particularly in the UK and Australia. The North model of regeneration has demonstrated that sustainability is achieved through a more inclusive design innovation approach and a common good for the quality of environment, as well as the social and cultural development for a better quality of life of the local community. As Healey (2006) argues, such an endeavour highlighted “the ambition to promote more socially-just and inclusive mode of governance centred around the qualities of places.” It is important to acknowledge that appreciation of the ‘relational planning complexity’ concept as a strategic initiative for the collective attention of diverse citizens and stakeholders is essential to urban regeneration and planning studies. Kuala Lumpur is a fantastic example in that respect.

The research conducted in this study suggests that the value of social sustainability and urban design can be added to sustainable city centre regeneration if policy instruments (including governance, politics and resources) take into account the balance of state/market/civil society forces. This will enable a holistic approach towards more sustainable considerations in the future development of the city. Sustainable city centre regeneration outlines the importance of design components in the planning process in order to reflect and support ideas and methods for the implementation of the sustainable development paradigm in the urban field. The findings of this study have a number of important implications with relevance to planning policy towards improvement of physical environment, economic prospects, urban governance and sustainable communities. The evidence from this study suggests that the decision-making process is an important issue. The research provides a framework for the exploration of issues and debates surrounding environment and policy at local, national and international scales. Moreover, the

findings bring us to a broader understanding about urban design that would lead to improvement of better quality design in the built environment we see.

Every factor mentioned above has influenced in shaping ideas regarding sustainable urbanism. As suggested in the literature, however, there are different degrees of significance according to local and national ambitions, and differing intersections of local, national and global scales reflecting different geopolitical situations (Wilbanks et al., 1997; Rahma, 2010). Thus, the application of these concepts is never straightforward. This research reveals the emerging global trends, the evolving urbanisation challenges and complex urban patterns have brought about critical analysis that focuses and reconsiders the role of urban planning and design. This is a valuable study that responds to broader academic and professional calls for research into the contexts where sustainable urbanism is (could be) successfully implemented. For instance, recent study by United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN-Habitat) has considered five principles that comparable to this research: (1) adequate space for streets and an efficient street network, (2) high density, (3), mixed land-use, (4) social mix and (5) limited land-use specialization. UN-Habitat (2015) further adds that their five principles can be applied in five different context: (1) fast growing cities, (2) new urban settlements and urban extensions, (3) urban renewal and renaissance; and (4) urban densification. This research contributes to the current notions of what it means to be sustainable in development of cities.

The empirical findings in this study provide a new understanding of how the design of sustainable city centre regeneration needs to be understood in the Malaysian context. The process in the delivery of sustainable city centre regeneration involves design requirements to reflect a Malaysian identity that is generic to Malaysian symbology. For instance, the case of Kampong Bharu strives to be developed as a modern Malay enclave in the city; the KLCC Petronas Twin Towers represents Malaysian modern architecture, which is recognised worldwide; and the Central Market

waterfront areas are aiming to enhance the value of cultural and heritage aspects of the city. In all three case studies, the form of cultural globalisation has continued to influence new urban discourse in the country to be a global city. The findings of this study allow positioning the Kuala Lumpur case within a wider context. We can argue that Malaysian examples display similar features of an aspiring world city and has used this in building on its city's global image and economic development strategy. With reference to the Kuala Lumpur case, further work needs to be done to establish whether there are implications for sustainable city centre regeneration through the increasing emphasis on globalisation of cultural tourism for future practice. There is a tension between the national aspirations and the needs and demands of the people related to social sustainability aspects. It is recommended that further research be undertaken in the following areas: assessing the impact of contemporary urban changes in Kuala Lumpur with regard to national identity as opposed to international branding and the adoption of unique and iconic design; questioning the extent to which the aspirations and needs of local people are adequately assessed and taken into account, specifically in the preservation of the cultural character of local communities.

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APPENDIX

- A Semi-structured in-depth interview questionnaire (s) with local authorities and key stakeholders
- B Kampong Bharu focus group discussion questionnaire(s)
- C KLCC & Central Market Waterfront area general public survey questionnaire(s)
- D Images of survey indicators for the general public of KLCC & Central Market Waterfront area
- E Selangor State Gazette, Number 20, January 12, 1900
- F CHKL Policy On Urban Design

Appendix A

Semi-structured in-depth interview questionnaire(s) with local authorities and key stakeholders

In-dept interview questionnaire(s) for local authorities and key stakeholders associated with the urban development of Kuala Lumpur city centre

Date of interview :
Place of interview :
Interviewee Gender :
Organisation/Institution:
Position/title :

Introduction

The research study is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for award of PhD degree in Urban and Regional Studies at the University of Birmingham, UK. The main objective of the research is to illustrate the different uses of urban design in shaping the urban environment and guiding sustainable city-centre regeneration. This in-depth interview guide is designed to elicit information on the governance of sustainable design-led regeneration in Kuala Lumpur city centre. You are assured of full confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of all the information that will be given by you. You should therefore feel free to give me the right information to ensure the success of this work. Many thanks for your cooperation.

PART ONE: Personal Background and Context

- What is your educational/training background? For how long have you been in your current position? Have you been previously involved in similar positions related to urban development and regeneration? Why are you working with the organisation?
- For how long have you been living in Malaysia and/or in Kuala Lumpur? Can you please briefly characterise what are the main issues and challenges facing urban regeneration/development and urban design as a practitioner and as a resident?
- Is there any model of urban regeneration/development and urban design, across the world, influencing or leading your thoughts?
- What models or examples of design-led regeneration seem the most influential to you in Kuala Lumpur?
- Can you please tell me more about the overall strategy of design-led regeneration implemented in Kuala Lumpur city centre? (i.e overall strategy, objectives, challenges, stakeholders involved)
- Can you please tell me more about the overall strategy of design-led regeneration implemented in Kampong Baru/KLCC (Petronas Twin Towers)/Central market (i.e overall strategy, objectives, challenges, stakeholders involved)?

PART TWO: Power Relationships

Authority

- What roles do your outfit performs in relationship between urban design and sustainable city centre design-led regeneration in Kuala Lumpur?
- How does your institution perform these roles?
- Among these roles which one(s) does your institution perform best?
- In general, how do you see the roles of your institution? Probe whether they inefficient, not well-structured etc. and please define the remit (i.e: who? Why?).
- How do you see the city planning regulations of Kuala Lumpur on the sustainable design-led city centre regeneration? Probe further to assess the enforcement of such

regulations, what have they changes over the time?

- What types of organisation have performed? Is it top-down or bottom-up organisation?

Resources

- What is the financial situation of your institution? Probe further how they finance their activities and the effect of their financial situation on the development of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in Kuala Lumpur.
- Could you give me range of funding? Which more important and lest important, who is important and driving that agenda?
- Over the years, what are some of the initiatives that your outfit have come up with to recommend the implementation of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in promoting better living environments in Kuala Lumpur? Probes further how they support the resource.

PART THREE: Negotiation Process

Involvement

- To what extent are your institution represented in any dialogue/discussion on design-led strategy to restore quality living environment for the city dwellers? Probe further for examples of such discussion and the objectives of these discussions and who else is involved in the process.
- How frequent are these discussion organized? Strategy or operational?
- What types of arenas they are meeting? (i.e. political? international? civil society?)

PART FOUR: Institutional Design

- How many employees are working in your institution, with what training? Probe further on the general effects of the staff profiles on the development of sustainable design-led regeneration?
- Mention some institutions or stakeholders that your outfit collaborates with to develop sustainable design-led regeneration in Kuala Lumpur city centre. Who they working for?
- What contribution does your outfit give to these institutions and they also in turn provide to you towards sustainable design-led city centre regeneration?
- How can you classify the kind of relationship that exist between your outfit and other sister institution associated with the development of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration?

PART FIVE: Consensus Building

- To what extent are the views of your outfit taken into account on decisions on the sustainable design-led city centre regeneration?
- In your opinion, initiatives or decision on the sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in Kuala Lumpur are based on common agreed decisions of all the stakeholders on integrated sustainable development? Give explanation for your answer.
- How will you rate the level of involvement of the local people in city centre regeneration? Probe for specific stage(s) that the local people are involved in the decision making process of sustainable development?

PART SIX: Factors Affecting the Development of Sustainable Design-led Regeneration

- Several factors have been identified in the literature to obstruct the development of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration. In Kuala Lumpur which specific factors are affecting the poor development of sustainable city centre regeneration?
- Among these factors which one(s) are the most pressing and why?
- In your opinion, which institutions are doing well and also not doing well concerning the design-led regeneration to enhance a better quality of life for urban dwellers?
- Comment on some of the good and bad outcomes of the collaboration of the institutions on the development of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration.
- How will you see the flow of information between the institutions mandated to sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in Kuala Lumpur?
- Which institution do you think need to improve their activities to enhance the development of sustainable design-led regeneration?
- What is the way forward for desirable sustainable urban living and environment and how can this help to foster/improve social sustainability in Kuala Lumpur city centre?

*******THANK YOU*******

Appendix B

Kampong Bharu focus group discussion questionnaire(s)

Focus group discussion questionnaire(s) for the local community of Kampong Bharu

Name of the interviewee :
 Name of Neighbourhood :
 Date :
 Age :
 Occupation :

Introduction

The research study is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for award of PhD degree in Urban and Regional Studies at the University of Birmingham, UK. This focus group questionnaire(s) guide is designed to obtain information on the development of regeneration projects in city centre areas and the implementation of urban design in order to ensure sustainable living in Kuala Lumpur city centre as a whole. You are assured of full confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of all the information that will be given by you. You should therefore feel free to give me the right information to ensure the success of this work. Many thanks for your cooperation.

PART ONE: General information on sustainable design-led city centre regeneration

(Balance set of examples will be explained at start of discussion to get you understand the concept)

- Give some general examples and benefits of urban design strategy (environmental, social and economic) that you may be aware of.
- Mention some of the urban design elements/uses found in this neighbourhood? Do you find them useful or not?
- What specific benefits does this neighbourhood get from sustainable design-led city centre regeneration? Do you identify any problems and limitations as well?

PART TWO: Condition/state of design-led regeneration

- How will you rate the condition of the design quality in this neighbourhood based on the indicators listed below?

Indicator	Excellence	Average	Poor	Reason
Accessibility				
Comfort (sense of place)				
Safety				
Environment				
Transportation facilities and services (include pedestrian and cyclist)				
Recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square etc)				
Maintenance				
Community participation in regeneration process				

- How will you rate overall condition of design quality in this neighbourhood and why?

PART THREE: Collaborative Planning

Policy

- How do you see the city planning regulations of Kuala Lumpur on the sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in restoring better quality environment for urban dwellers? Probe further to assess the enforcement of such regulations.

Governance

- Mention some institutions or stakeholders that collaborated with them to develop sustainable design-led regeneration in Kuala Lumpur city centre.
- In your opinion, how do you see the flow of information between the institutions mandated to sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in Kuala Lumpur?
- Comment on some of the good and bad outcomes of the collaboration of the institutions on the development of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration.

Involvement

- To what extent are members of this neighbourhood represented in any dialogue/discussion on city centre (re)development? Probe further for examples of such discussion and the objectives of these discussions.
- To what extent are the views of this neighbourhood taken into account on the decisions regarding the city centre regeneration/development in this neighbourhood?
- In your opinion, initiatives or decisions on sustainable design-led regeneration in Kuala Lumpur are based on common agreed decision of all the stakeholders on city centre development?
- What is the level of collaboration between the city authorities of Kuala Lumpur and the local people in this neighbourhood and the city centre regeneration in this area? Probe for specific bodies the neighbourhood is in good or bad terms with
- How can you assess the involvement of the local people in city centre regeneration in this neighbourhood? Probe for their involvement along the various states of community participation such as planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

How effective it is?

- In your opinion, which institutions are doing well and also not doing well concerning the sustainable design-led city centre regeneration in this neighbourhood?

PART FOUR: Factors affecting the development of sustainable city living?

- Several factors have been identified in the literature to obstruct the development of sustainable design-led city centre regeneration, in Kuala Lumpur which specific factors are affecting the poor development of sustainable city centre regeneration?
- Among these factors which one(s) are the most pressing and why?
- Which institution do you think have performed to enhance the development of sustainable design-led regeneration?
- What is the way forward for desirable sustainable urban living and environment can help to foster/improve social sustainability in Kuala Lumpur city centre?

*****THANK YOU*****

Appendix C

KLCC and Central Market Waterfront area general public survey questionnaire(s)

Survey questionnaire(s) for the general public of Kuala Lumpur city centre

Date :
 Name of Neighbourhood :
 Occupation :
 Gender :
 Age :
 What are you doing/
 Why you are here? :

Introduction

The research study is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for award of PhD degree in Urban and Regional Studies at the University of Birmingham, UK. This survey questionnaire(s) guide is designed to obtain information on the development of regeneration projects in city centre areas and the implementation of urban design in order to ensure sustainable living in Kuala Lumpur city centre as a whole. You are assured of full confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of all the information that will be given by you. You should therefore feel free to give me the right information to ensure the success of this work. Any clarification concerning to technical terms below, please do not hesitate to ask me. Many thanks for your cooperation.

PART ONE: Condition/state of city centre development/regeneration in everyday life

- How will you rate the overall perception of city centre development in this neighbourhood based on the under listed indicators?

Indicator	Excellent	Average	Poor	Reason
Urban Fabric Indicator				
Accessibility (walkable catchment)				
Land use diversity				
Building density and compactness				
Comfort (public realm)				
Safety (natural surveillance)				
Street connectivity				
Transportation facilities and services				
Recreational and amenity facilities (open space, green space, square etc)				
Maintenance				

PART TWO: Condition/state of urban environment with the socio-spatial design in city centre

- How will you rate the sense of attachment with the urban street design based on the under listed indicators?

Indicator	Excellent	Average	Poor	Reason
Street Indicator				
Sense of intimacy (sky exposure)				
Façade continuity (Building and space orientation)				
Softness (design and landscape element)				
Active frontage (social width and visual complexity)				
Safety (natural surveillance)				
Sedibility (numbers of seating opportunities)				
Street connectivity				

PART THREE: Condition/state of urban design in city centre

- How will you rate the condition of urban design quality and its significance to the everyday life experience based on the under listed indicators?

Indicator	Excellent	Average	Poor	Reason
Building form and mass				
Density				
Compactness				
Building orientation				
Active frontage (liveliness)				
Accessibility				
Streetscape design				
Accessibility				
Security (traffic and crime)				
Comfort				
Safety (natural surveillance)				
Pedestrian walkways/path				
Cyclist lane				
Maintenance				

Space and setbacks				
Continuity of space				
Sense of security				
Social activities				
Open space (plaza, avenue, square etc)				
Green space (park, pocket garden, green areas etc)				
Mix of uses				
Land use diversity (liveliness)				
Community facilities				
Transport services and facilities				
Employment density				
Shared place (social mixing)				
Outdoor social space				
Visual and sensory richness				
Lighting				
Urban and street furniture				
Sotscapes (planting arrangements)				
Sedible arrangements				
Space integration				

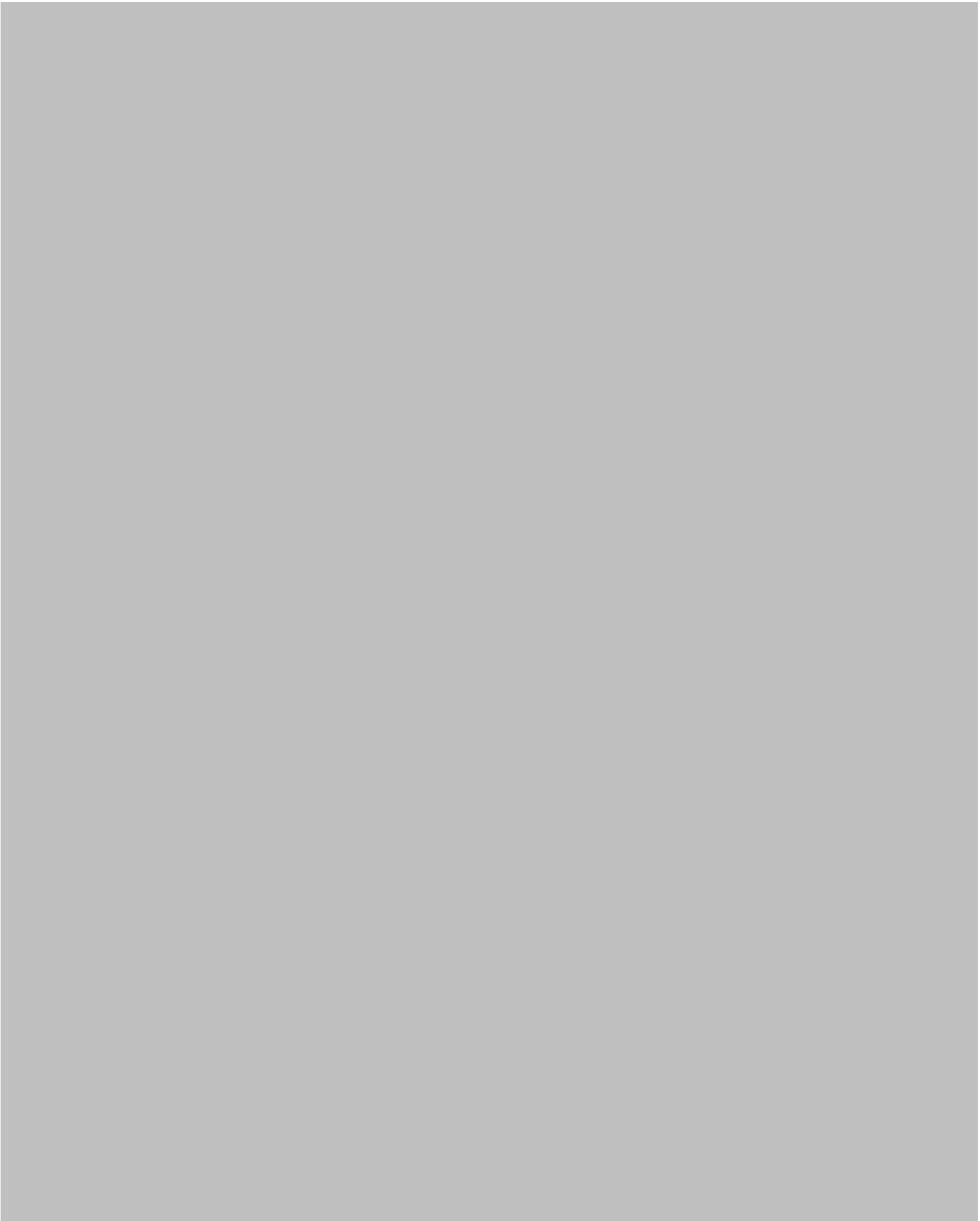
*****THANK YOU*****

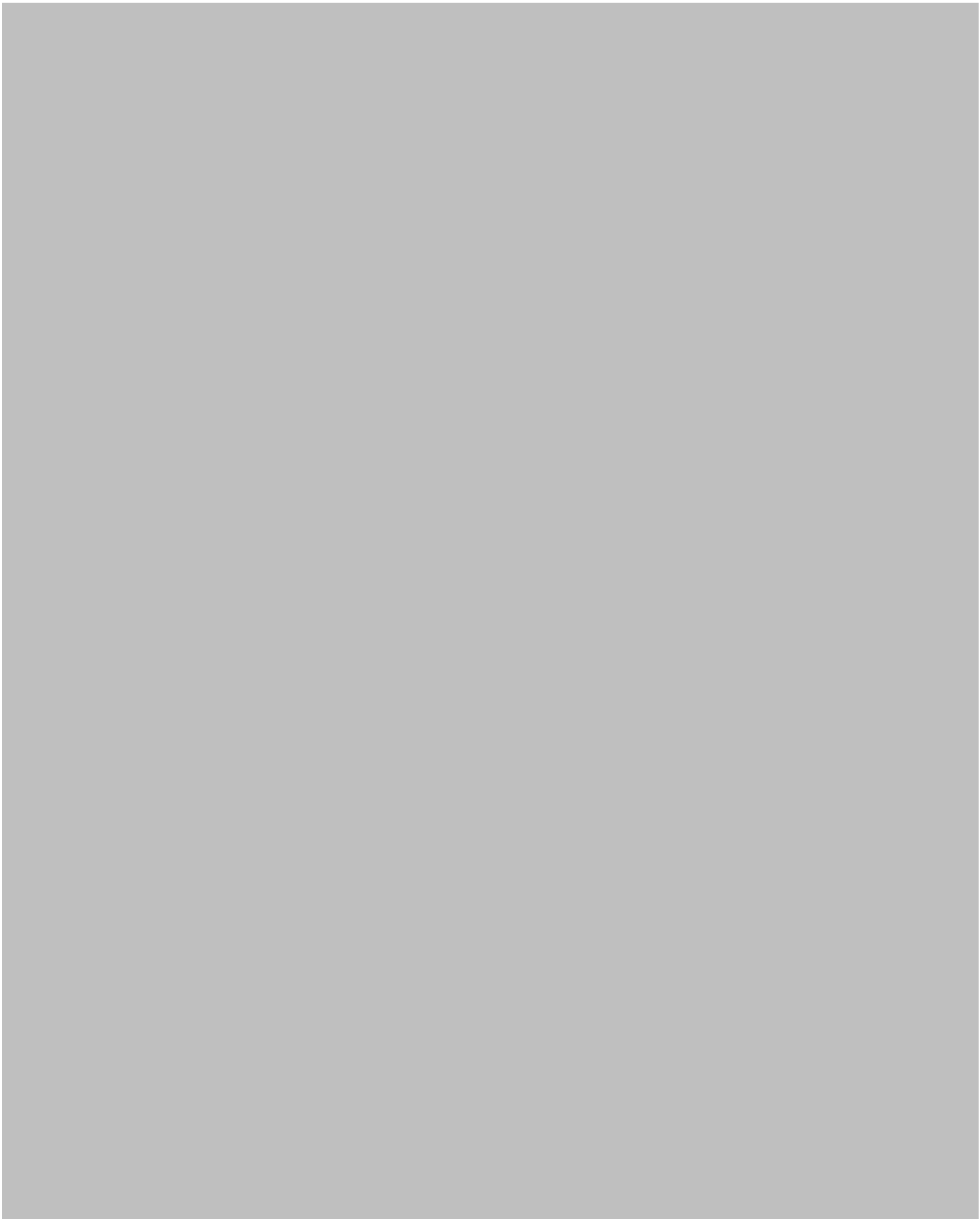
Appendix D

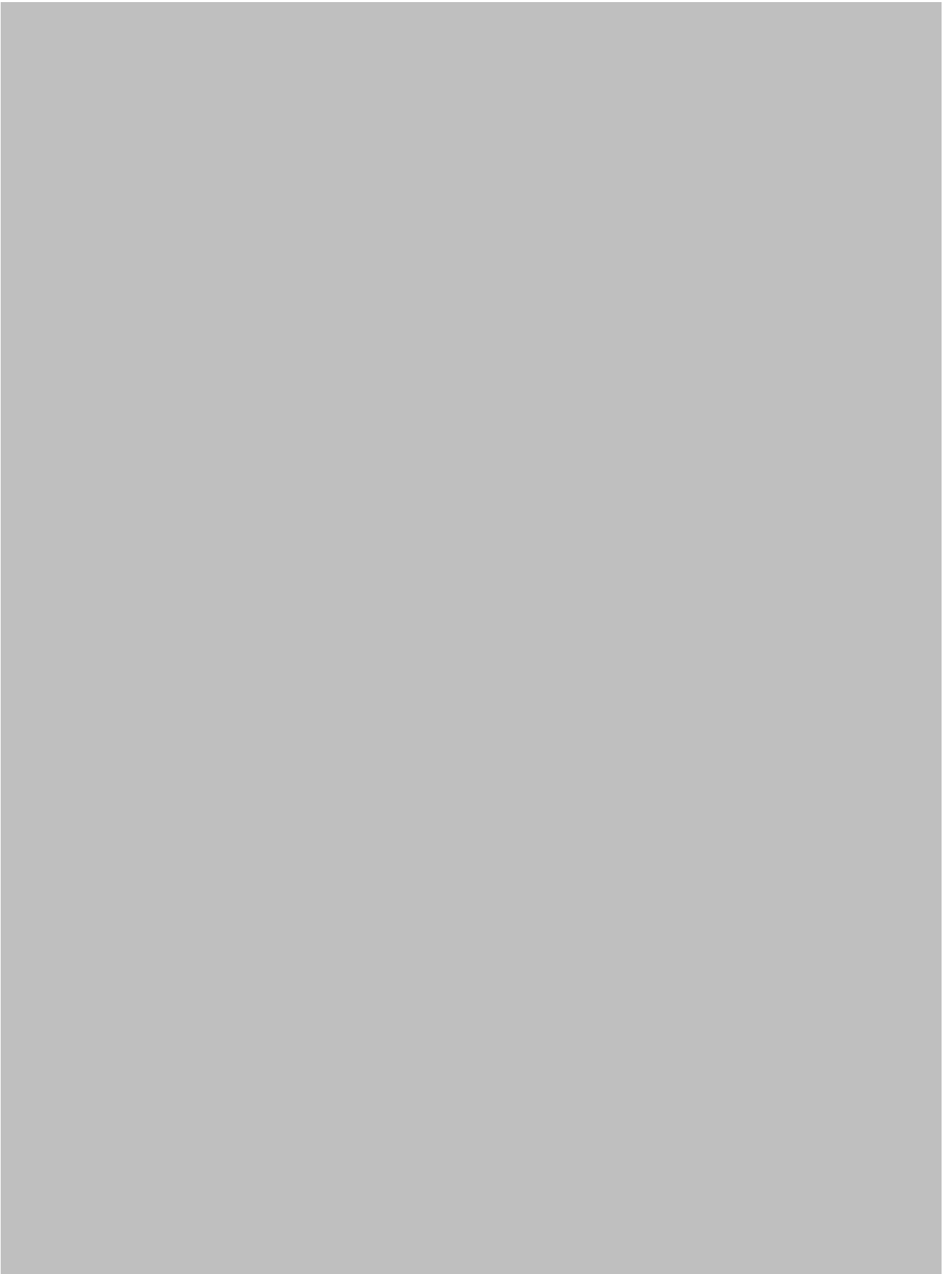
Images of survey indicators for the general public of KLCC and Central Market waterfront area

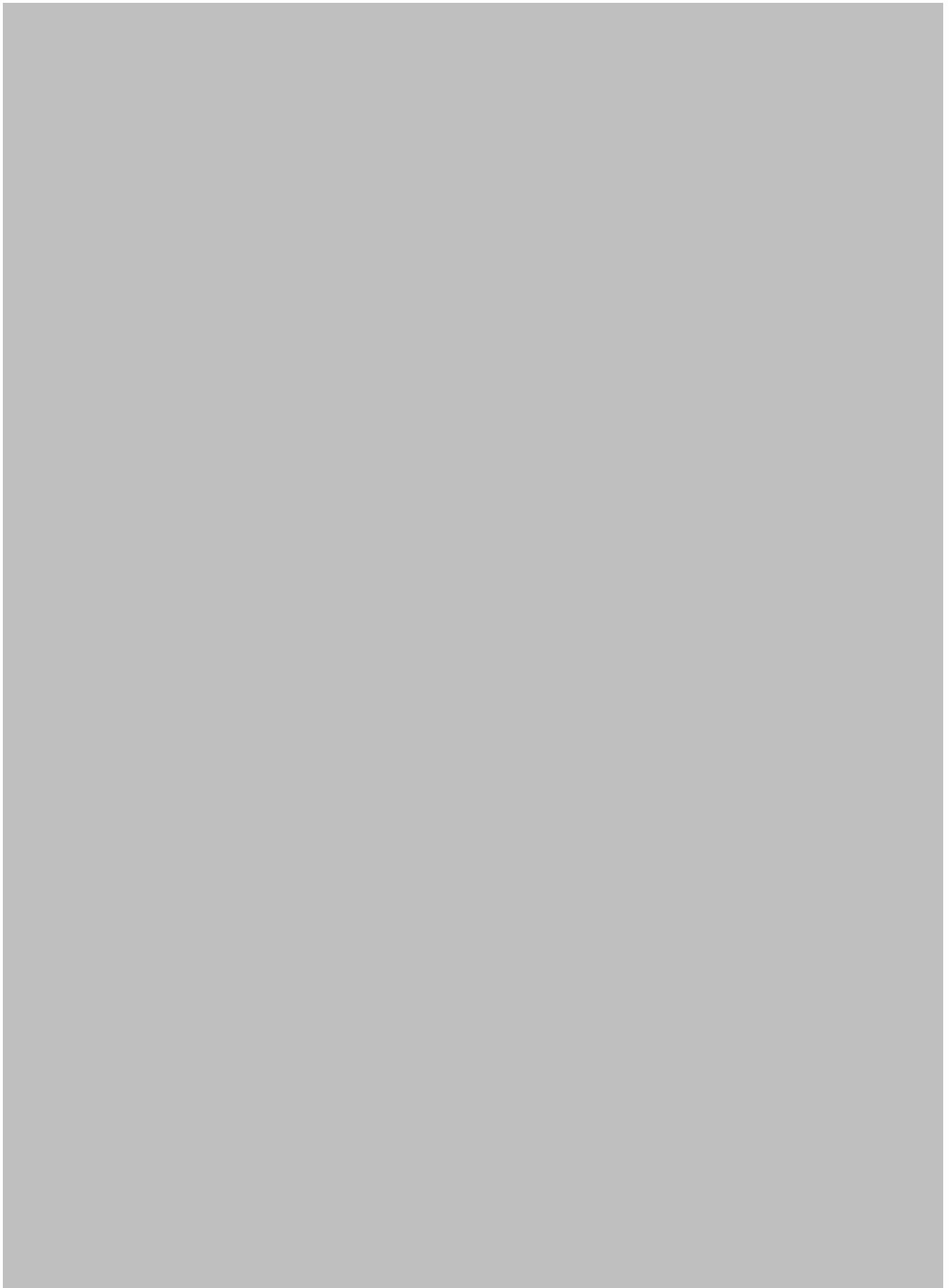
Part 1: Perception

How will you rate the overall condition of city centre development in this neighbourhood?

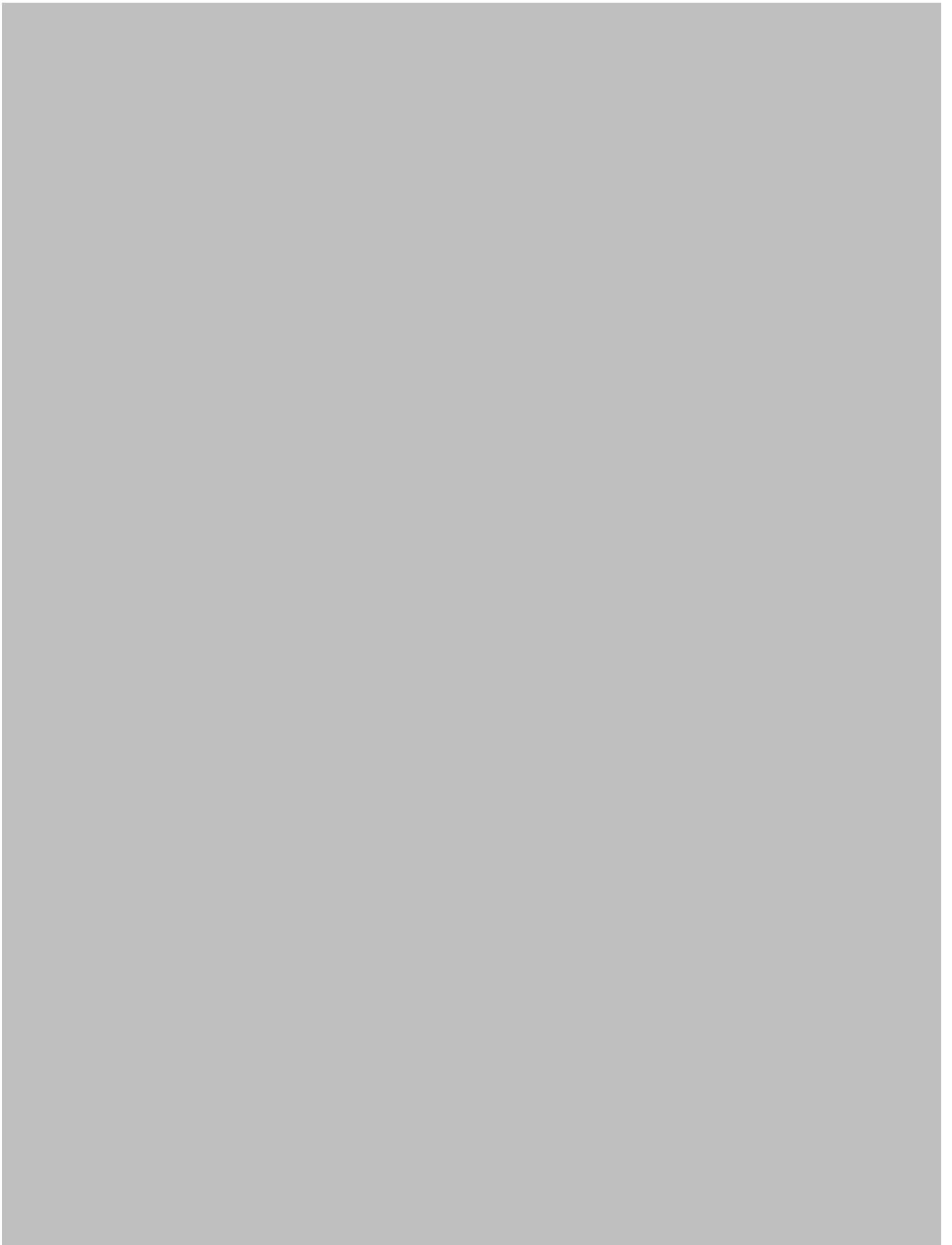






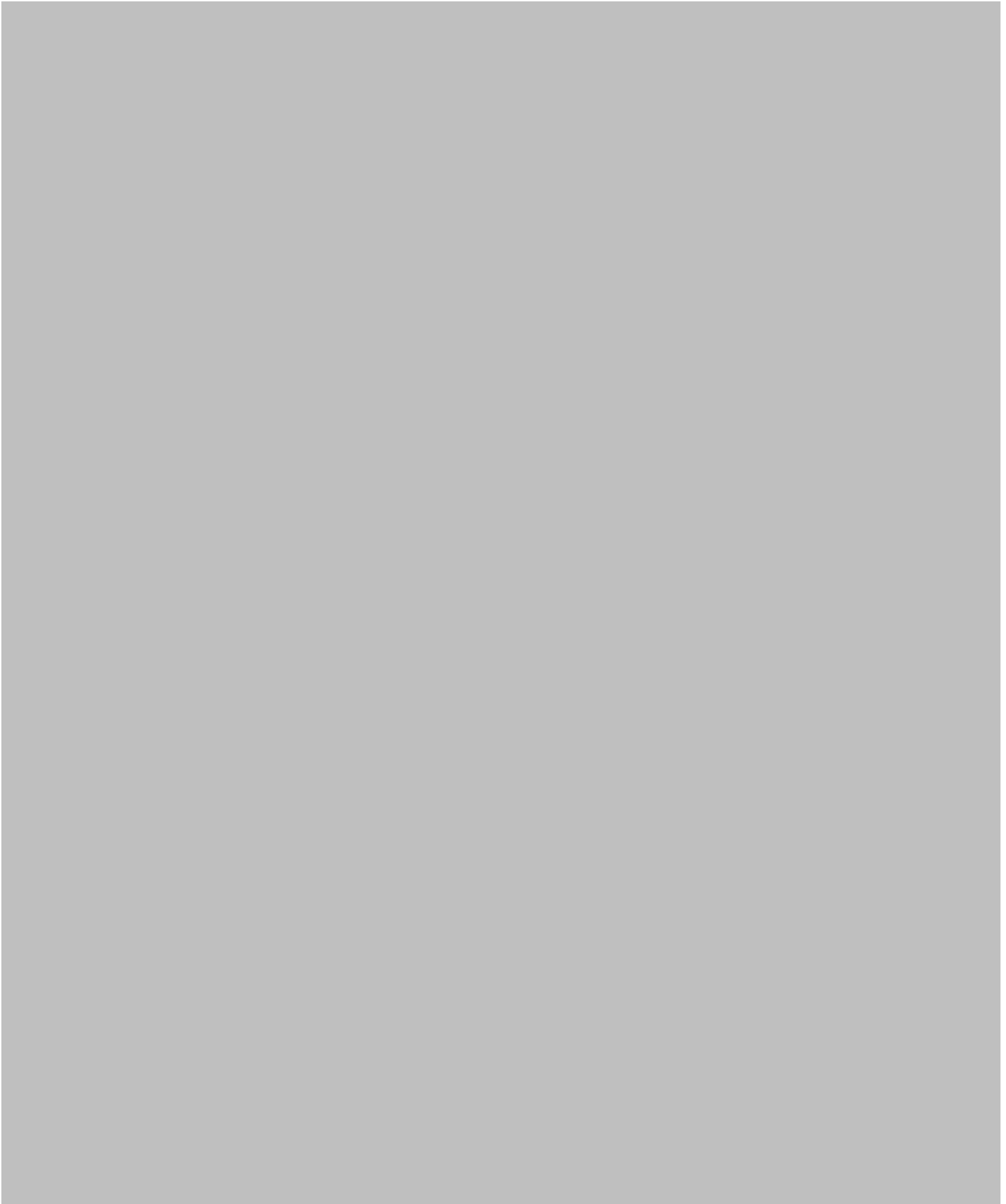




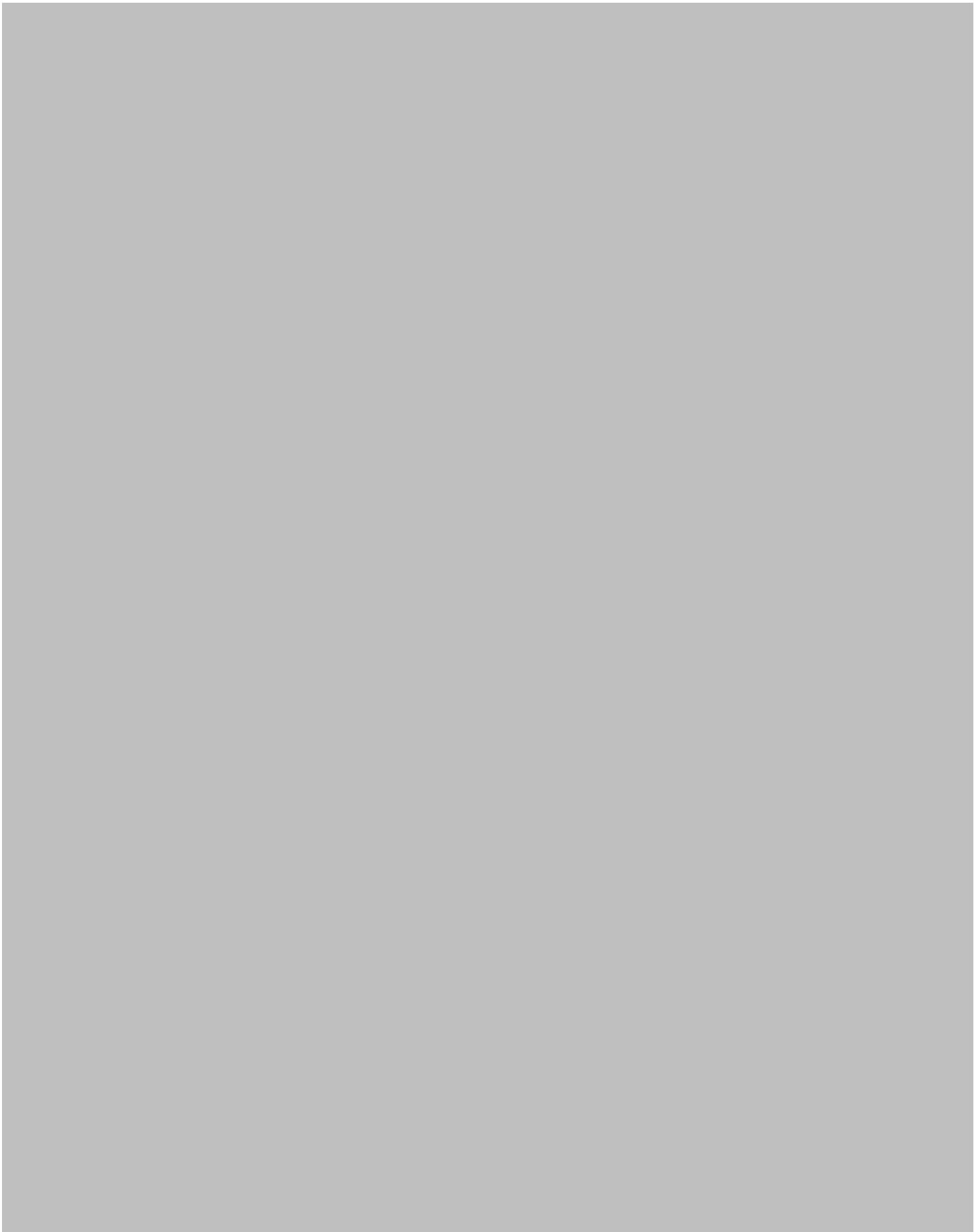


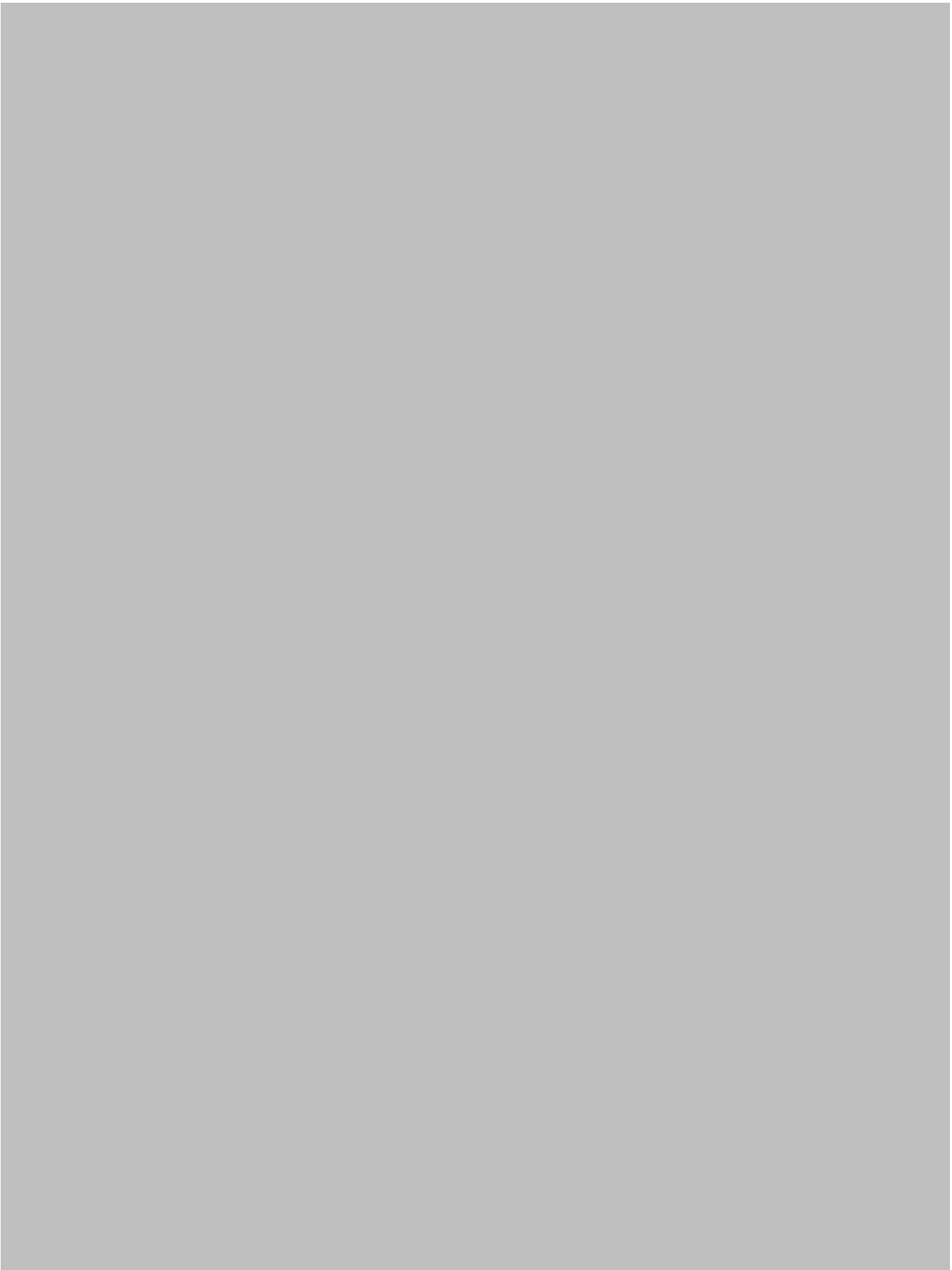
Part 2: Interaction

How will you rate the sense of attachment (character of the space) with street urban design in this neighbourhood?





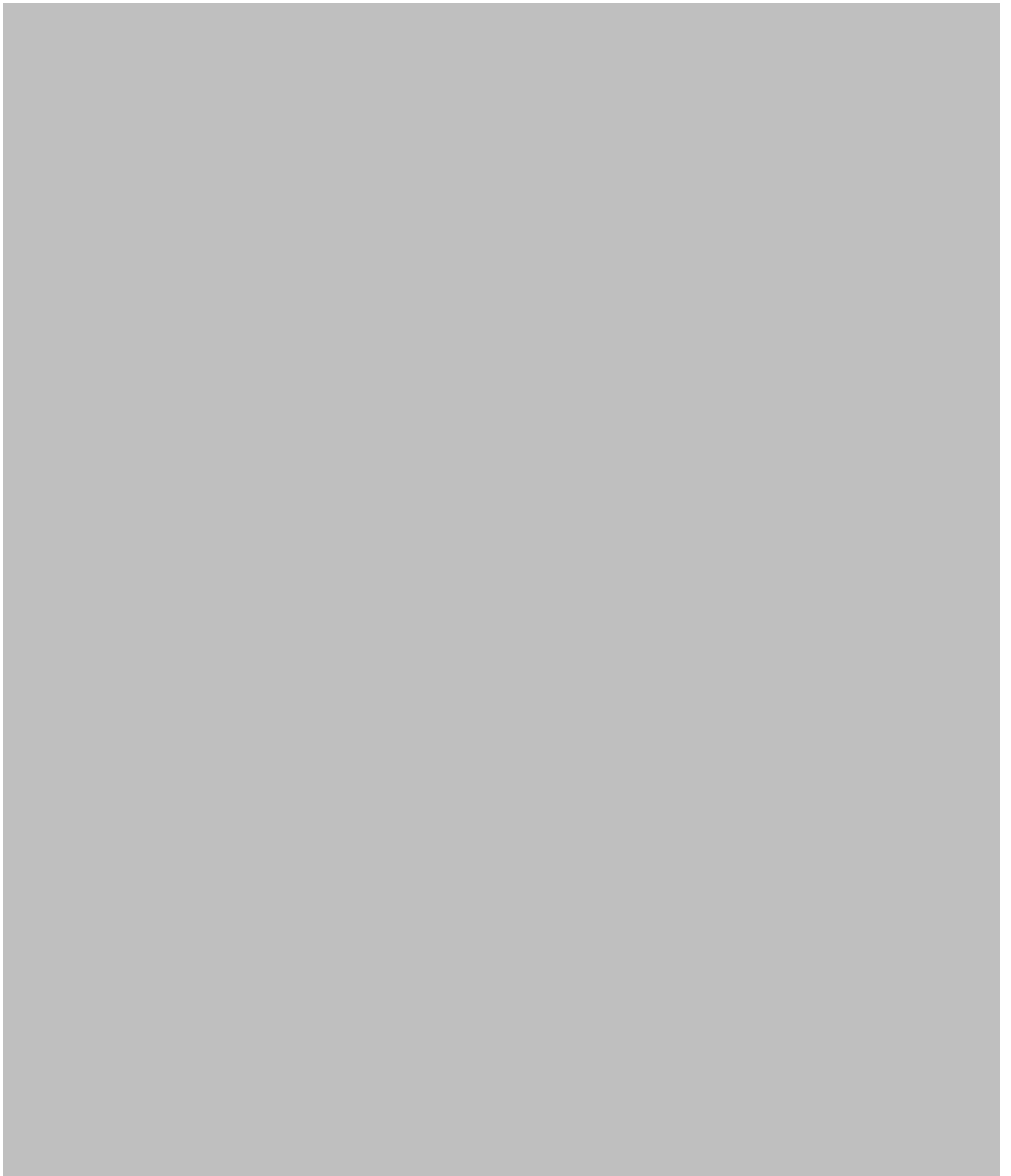




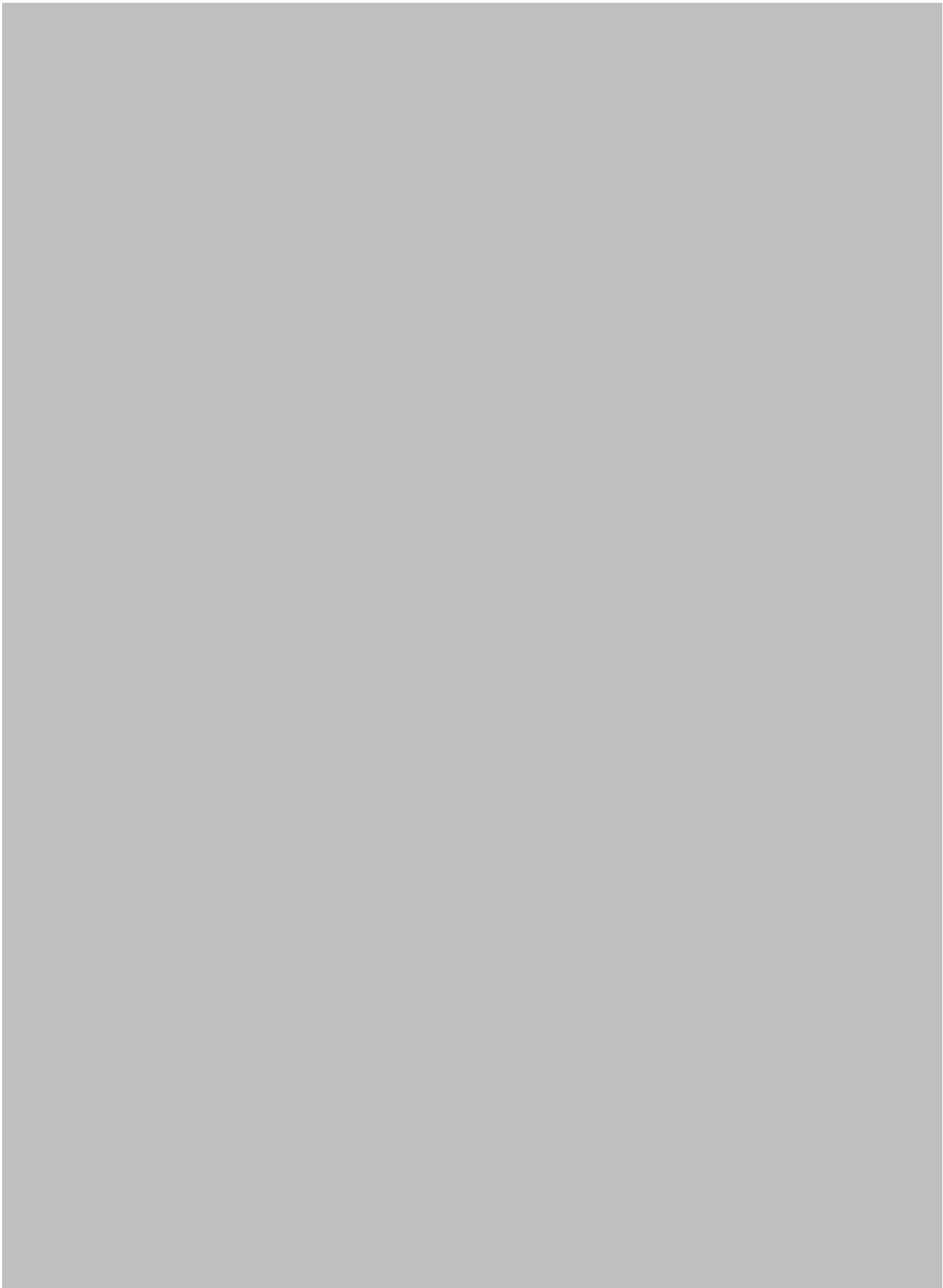


Part 3: Experience

How will you rate the quality of design and their impact/significance to your everyday life?



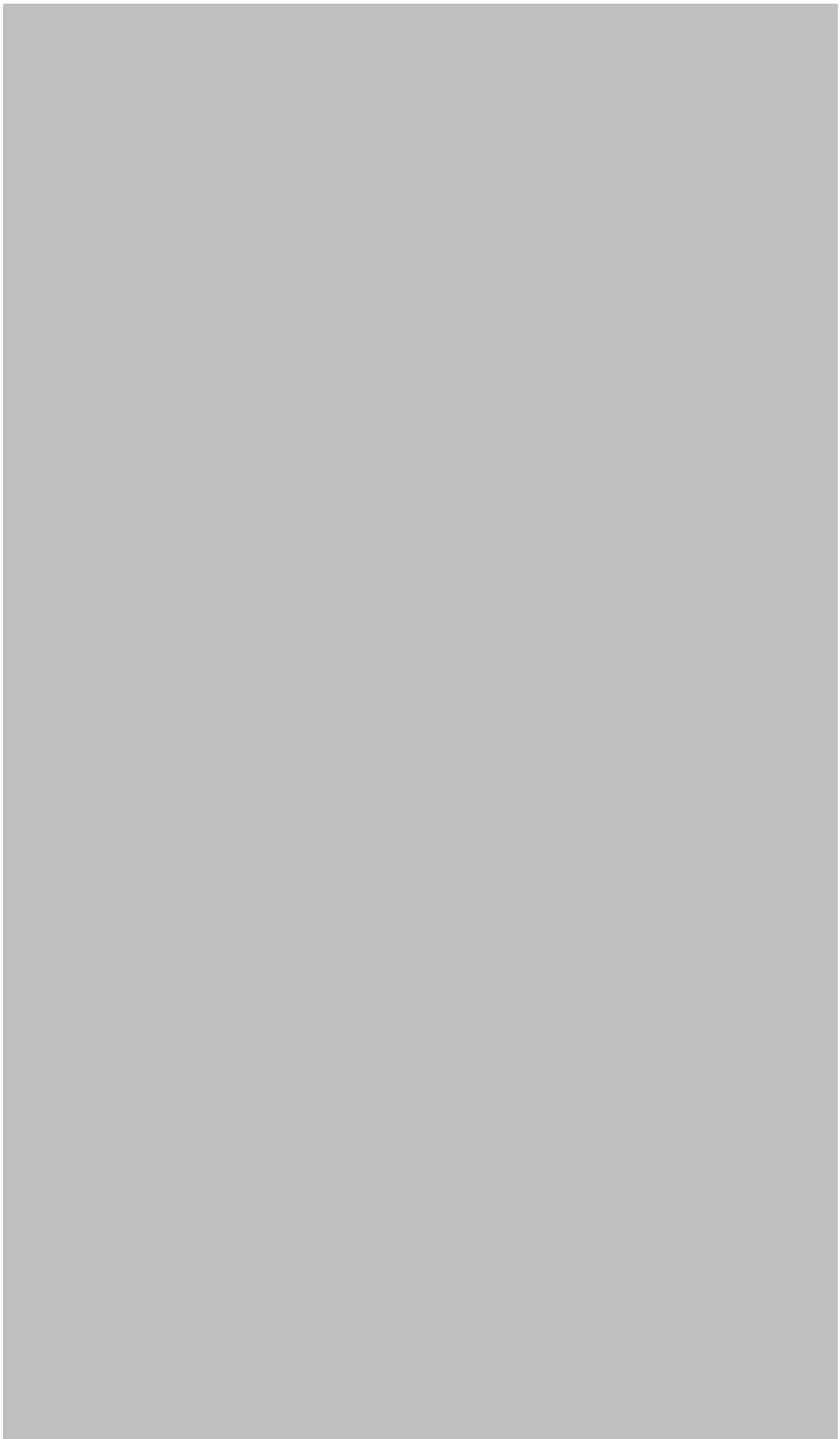


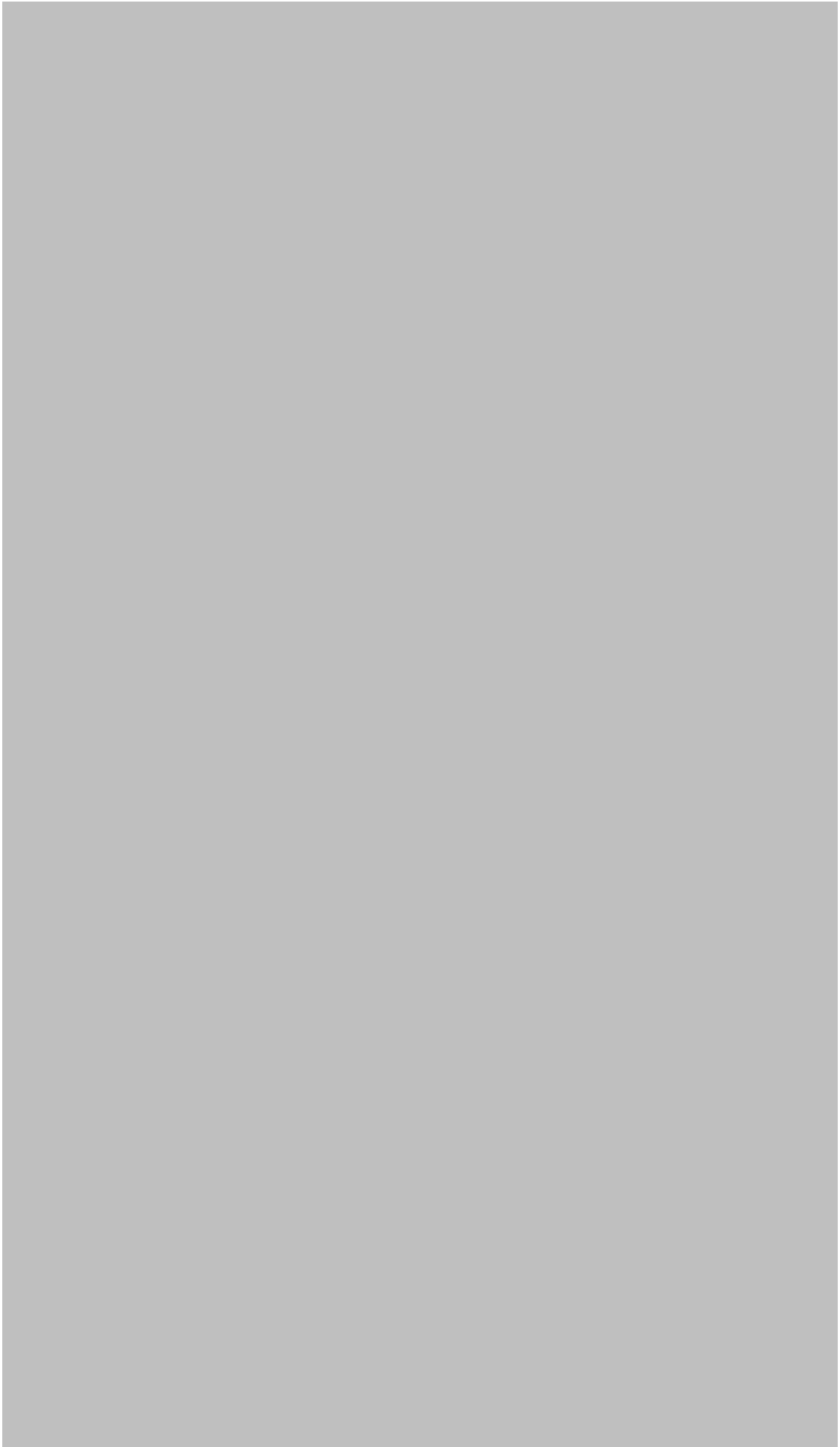


Appendix E

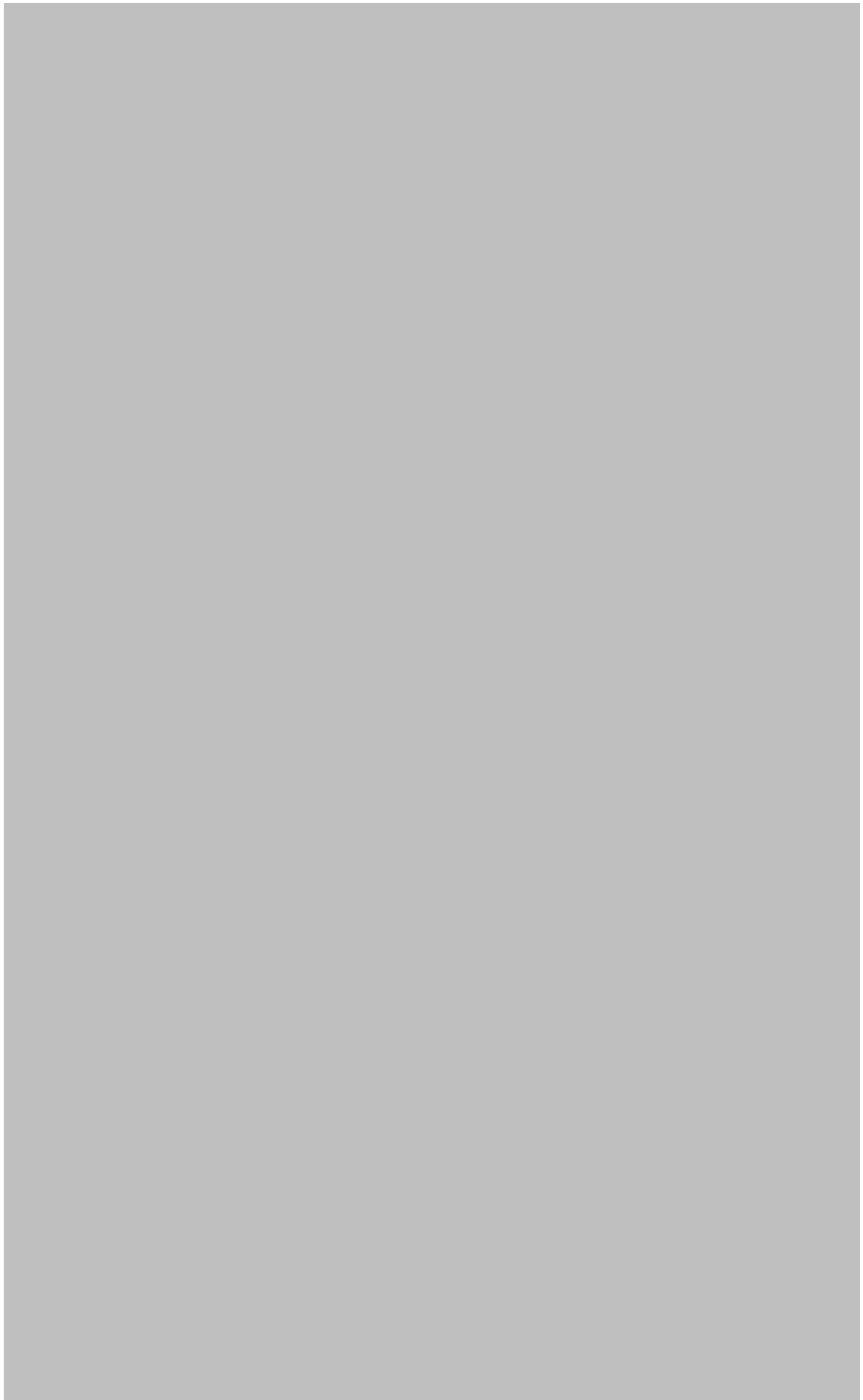
Selangor State Gazette, Number 20, January 12, 1900

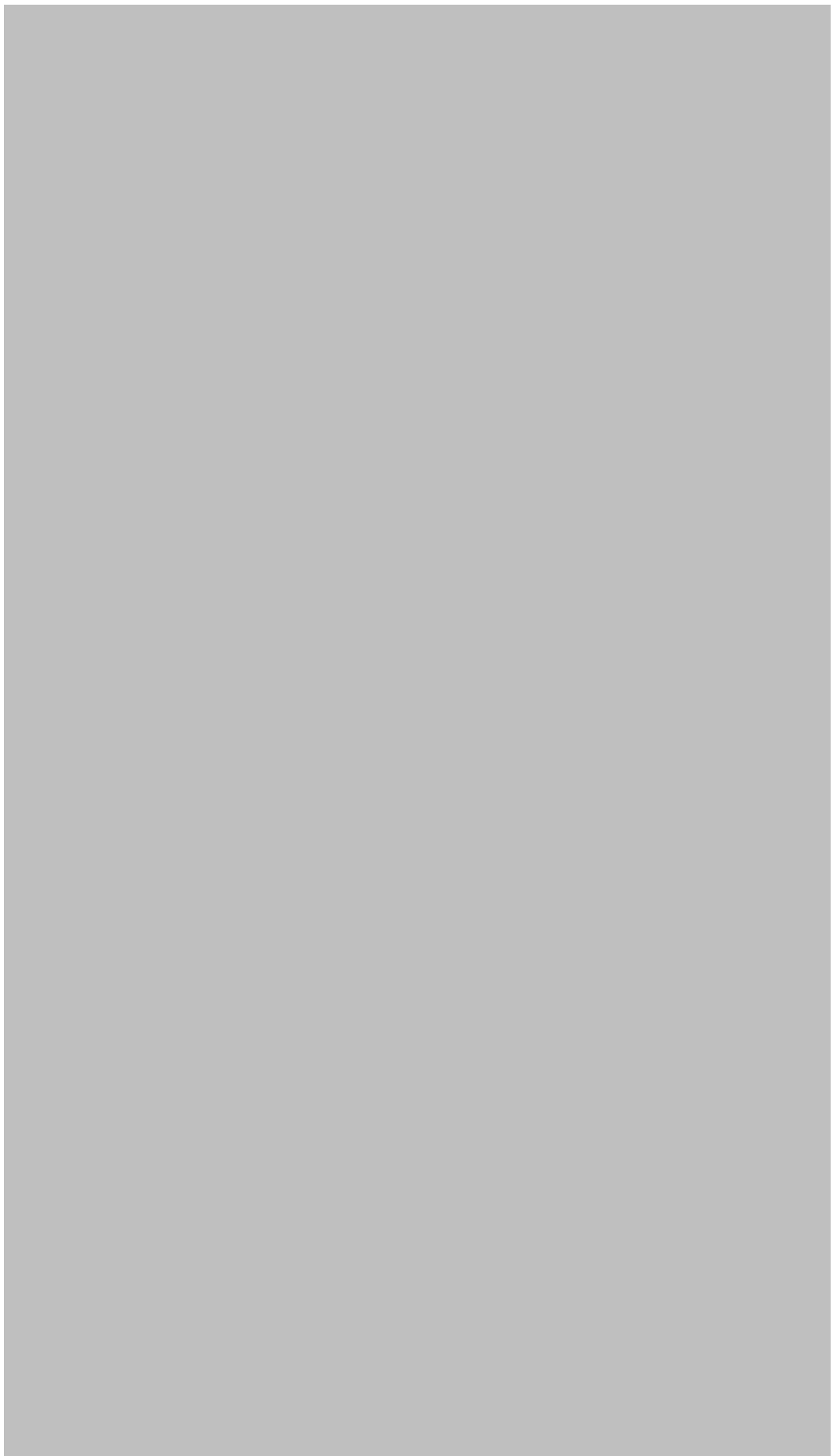












Appendix F

CHKL urban design and landscape policy

126.	CF15:	CHKL shall review the retention of primary and secondary schools in the City Centre.
127.	CF16:	CHKL shall, in consultation with the relevant agencies, ensure that there is adequate provision of schools for disabled children.
128.	CF17:	CHKL shall liaise with the relevant authorities to provide for adequate government health facilities in appropriate locations.
129.	CF18:	CHKL shall, in consultation with the appropriate authorities, ensure that sufficient police stations, police posts and neighbourhood watch centres are provided and adequately distributed.
130.	CF19:	CHKL shall, in consultation with the relevant authorities and agencies, implement programmes to provide for appropriate facilities and services to cater for the needs of the special groups.
131.	CF20:	CHKL shall encourage active participation by private sector and non governmental organisations in developing cultural facilities and promoting local cultural and arts groups activities.
132.	CF21:	CHKL shall encourage the development of diverse cultural venues.
133.	CF22:	CHKL shall encourage the optimum use of crematorium.
134.	CF23:	CHKL shall, through consultation with related agencies, plan and ensure adequate provision of cemetery land for Kuala Lumpur and its conurbation.

URBAN DESIGN AND LANDSCAPE

135.	UD1:	CHKL shall ensure the protection and enhancement of the City's gateways and major vistas.
136.	UD2:	CHKL shall maintain and enhance the character and sequence of visual experiences along the major road corridors in particular those that focus on the City Centre.
137.	UD3:	CHKL shall enhance the definition of existing view corridors and where practicable establish new corridors within the City Centre.
138.	UD4:	CHKL shall maintain and enhance the sequence of orientating views from rail-based transport routes.
139.	UD5:	CHKL shall ensure that urban design considerations are taken into account in the planning, design and implementation of transportation and utility service systems and structures.
140.	UD6:	CHKL shall implement measures to improve the visual definition, continuity and streetscape character of the major road network, to provide greater coherence and legibility within the urban areas.
141.	UD7:	CHKL shall ensure the retention and enhancement of important views of the City's skyline and landmarks visible from urban centres and public open spaces outside the City Centre.
142.	UD8:	CHKL shall encourage the development of additional major landmark buildings or complexes at key locations.
143.	UD9:	CHKL shall control building heights to ensure the visual primacy of certain designated areas in the City Centre, the protection of special character areas and the accenting of entry gateways and activity nodes.
144.	UD10:	CHKL shall ensure the retention and enhancement of major treed areas and hill ridges as visual backdrops, orientating elements and landscape amenity.
145.	UD11:	CHKL shall provide a continuous green network of open spaces.
146.	UD12:	CHKL shall develop pocket parks and plazas in the City Centre and urban centres.
147.	UD13:	CHKL shall provide and designate places for informal civic and cultural use in the City Centre.
148.	UD14:	CHKL shall retain and maintain mature trees found in all areas and ensure that the character of designated areas which have a preponderance of mature trees is preserved.
149.	UD15:	CHKL shall designate river corridors, implement measures to improve the amenity value of the rivers and implement guidelines for developments within or abutting the river corridors.
150.	UD16:	CHKL shall designate and implement pedestrian friendly street networks and green pedestrian networks within the City Centre, urban centres, major activity nodes and areas surrounding transit nodes which also cater for the needs of the aged and the handicapped.
151.	UD17:	CHKL shall construct a system of continuous covered walkways linking major activity centres in the City and in areas of high pedestrian activity.
152.	UD18:	CHKL shall ensure the adequate provision of pedestrian connections where major road or rail infrastructure has disconnected linkages between adjacent areas.
153.	UD19:	CHKL shall define, conserve and enhance distinctive identity areas in the City Centre, district and local precincts.
154.	UD20:	CHKL shall designate the conservation of areas, places, landscapes and structures of historical and architectural value and significance, and ensure that all developments in their vicinity are sympathetic in form, scale and character.
155.	UD21:	CHKL shall ensure a high standard of architectural design appropriate to the City's regional tropical setting and sympathetic to the built and natural context.
156.	UD22:	CHKL shall ensure that the redevelopment of Malay Reservation Areas, traditional kampungs and New Villages incorporate design elements that are reflective of their historical and traditional character.
157.	UD23:	CHKL shall draw up an Urban Design Framework together with a comprehensive set of Urban Design Guidelines to ensure public safety and health and designate a body responsible for implementation and coordination with other relevant authorities.