



# **MASTER'S PROGRAMME IN URBAN MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT**

(October 2005 – September 2006)

## **Towards Urban Waterfront Redevelopment** The case of Rio de Janeiro

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UMD 2 Report number:  
Rotterdam, September 2006

## Summary

This study aims to contribute in the discussion of topics related to urban waterfront redevelopment strategies adopted worldwide, focused mainly on the organisational capacities of governments influencing in the implementation of these large-scale revitalisation projects.

The main objective of this research is to understand why there is no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” – The Urban Restructuring and Revitalization Plan of the Old Port of Rio de Janeiro. In order to achieve this main goal, the secondary objectives of this study are to propose a theoretical model of how a waterfront redevelopment process can be organised and find out which organisational capacities have contributed to the “successful” implementation of waterfront redevelopment projects in European urban port areas.

Regarding the importance of learning from the most relevant theories and international experiences in these large-scale redevelopment schemes, this research carries out a comparative analysis of European case studies – London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid – through a conceptual framework with the final purpose of draw theoretical and practical recommendations for the case of Rio de Janeiro.

## Acknowledgements

In carrying out this research, especially during the period of research framework design, data collection and analysis, fundamental support and contributions have been received from different individuals and institutions, which must be mentioned.

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Drs. Marco van Hoek from the European Institute for Comparative Urban Research / Erasmus University Rotterdam (Euricur/EUR), for his support and recommendations during the research period, as well as for his interest on the issues concerning the case of Rio de Janeiro.

I would also like to thank to Drs. Forbes Davidson from the Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (IHS), for his constructive pieces of advice and comments.

I am also grateful to the experts and civil servants from the Municipality of Rio de Janeiro, the URBED research institute, the London Borough of Southwark and the Municipality of Rotterdam, who were invited to participate on interviews and workshops during the data collection period.

Therefore, I would like to express my appreciation to the lectures and staff from the European Institute for Comparative Urban Research / Erasmus University Rotterdam (Euricur/EUR) and the Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (IHS), for their strong commitment to connect urban management theory and practice.

Furthermore, I would like to conclude this section dedicating this study to my unconditional love for the city of Rio de Janeiro.

“Cities, like dreams, are made of desires and fears, even if the thread of their discourse is secret, their rules absurd, their perspectives deceitful, and everything conceals something else.”

(Calvino, Italo. *Invisible Cities*, 1972)

## **Foreword**

This research aims to contribute for the knowledge field about how a waterfront redevelopment process can be organised, based on the importance of learning from the most relevant theoretical framework and from practical experiences of London and Rotterdam in order to draw recommendations for the case of Rio de Janeiro.

This study will focus on the organisational capacities of governments influencing in the implementation process of large-scale regeneration schemes. It also provides useful information in this particular field of work for cities all over the world that will go through or are currently undergoing urban waterfront redevelopment as part of its development strategies.

My work as an architect and urban planner in the Municipality of Rio de Janeiro, which is currently undergoing the redevelopment of its old port area, inspired me for conducting this research. In addition, the fascinating experience of living and studying in Rotterdam, a modern and functional city, home of the largest port in the world that went through a large-scale urban waterfront regeneration bringing positive effects for the city as a whole, can be considered a secondary motivation.

## **Abbreviations**

CBD – Central Business Districts

CDS – City Development Strategies

CG – Central Government

FURs – Functional Urban Regions

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

GLA – Greater London Authority

GLC – Greater London Council

GNP – Gross National Product

IPP – Municipal Urban Planning Institute Pereira Passos

LDDC – London Docklands Development Corporation

LG – Local Government

OBR – Rotterdam City Development Corporation

TPD – Town Planning Department

UK – United Kingdom

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction and Research Methods**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This first chapter introduces the research framework with a brief presentation of the local context and general background information on the issues addressed in this study. It contains a description of the core problem, which logically results in the research questions. It also describes the research methods and techniques, which are used to answer these questions, providing additional information about the research instruments, the method of data collection and the way the data will be analysed.

### **1.2 Research Framework**

#### **1.2.1 Background and Context**

Some of the world's most fascinating cities, such as London, Rotterdam, Barcelona, Baltimore, New York, Tokyo, Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro, are famous for their city port relations and waterfront character.

In the last forty years, the urban waterfront redevelopment strategy has taken place all over the world as an effort to reverse the process of decay in urban port areas and inner city districts. This phenomenon takes advantage of an accelerating deindustrialisation process in which industry and port facilities have been moving away from inner city locations. This process left behind vacant land, underused or obsolete buildings that after an initial stage of abandonment have become available for new uses, such as housing, commercial, cultural, entertainment and offices.

Several experiences worldwide have been showing that a successful urban waterfront redevelopment strategy upgrades not only the project area and its surrounding neighbourhoods, but, in a last stage, these large-scale urban regeneration schemes bring positive effects for the city as a whole, increasing its competitive advantages in a global economy. In this perspective, Rio de Janeiro is a step behind all other cities that have already promoted the redevelopment of its old urban port areas.

The old port of Rio de Janeiro, commonly called “Porto do Rio”, is a large area centrally located. Its surrounding neighbourhoods are mainly occupied by social housing for people who used to work in manufacturing and port related activities. Over the last twenty years, as a result of containerisation and automatisisation, most of these activities have moved to a new and high technology port, called “Porto de Sepetiba”, outside the inner city district. In 2000, less than 30% of the total amount of port activities in the state of Rio de Janeiro was still located in “Porto do Rio”<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> CIDE(2000), *Anuário Estatístico do Estado do Rio de Janeiro. CIDE 1989 a 2000, Rio de Janeiro.*

As a result of this process of progressive reduction of port and industrial activities, the area is currently characterised by vacant land and underused or obsolete buildings, dilapidated housing environment, deteriorated infrastructure, high crime and unemployment rates. Despite its strategic location, the area is not integrated with the city centre and has been suffering a process of population loss over the last years.

During the last two decades, the local authorities have been discussing the importance of undertake a waterfront redevelopment strategy in the old urban port area of Rio de Janeiro. In this regeneration scheme, the municipality of Rio de Janeiro has taken the initiative of develop, discuss with the population and, finally in 2001, start up the implement process of “Porto do Rio” – The Urban Restructuring and Revitalization Plan of the Old Port of Rio de Janeiro.

The master plan has been developed in a participatory process, with some political and societal support. The strategy consists basically in giving new uses to the old port buildings, promoting cultural and historical preservation, as well as inner city revitalization and housing projects in order to foster local economic growth and sustainable development. The revitalisation plan also proposes the implementation of special cultural equipments as catalyst for urban transformation. The local government also considers ensuring a balanced mix of uses and encouraging interactions between major stakeholders (local state and central government, port authorities, private sector, financing institutions and civil society) priority objectives of this master plan.

The “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan can be seen as part of the city development strategy to overcome the negative effects of the disurbanisation stage of urban development in Rio de Janeiro. This revitalisation plan aims to promote re-integration of the project area within the city centre context and reverse this cyclical process of urban decay, with the final objective of raising the inner city’s competitive advantages to attract economic investments, new households and tourists. Physical renovation, economic revitalisation and social inclusion are key elements of this city development strategy.

### **1.2.2 Problem Statement**

Following the international trends, the Urban Restructuring and Revitalization Plan of the Old Port of Rio de Janeiro seems to be a coherent and feasible strategy to tackle the major issues in the area. Although the implementation process of this master plan officially begun in 2001, until now almost nothing has concretely happened. The implementation process of the “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan seems to be “stuck”, while many examples of urban waterfront redevelopment strategies are being successfully implemented all over the world. This fact leads to the core problem of the local government’s lack of organisational capacities to give impulse to the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan.

The Problem tree illustrated in figure 1.1 at the end of this chapter shows the interaction between causes and effects of the core problem, which explains the cyclical process of decay in the old urban port area of Rio de Janeiro

### **1.2.3 Research Objectives**

The main objective of this research is to understand why there is no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan. In order to achieve this main goal, the secondary objectives of this study are to propose a theoretical model of how a waterfront redevelopment process can be organised and find out which organisational capacities have contributed to the “successful” implementation of waterfront redevelopment projects in European urban port areas.

Regarding the importance of learning from the most relevant theories and international experiences in these large-scale redevelopment schemes, this research proposes a comparative analysis of European case studies – London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid – through a conceptual framework with the final purpose of draw theoretical and practical recommendations for the case of Rio de Janeiro.

### **1.2.4 Research Questions**

Based on the above stated core problem and research objectives, the answers to the following questions are important for the conclusion of this study:

1. How can a waterfront redevelopment process be organised?
2. What are the most relevant lessons learned from European experiences concerning the case of Rio de Janeiro?
3. Why there is no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan?

### **1.2.5 Scope and Limitations**

This research aims to contribute in the discussion of some fundamental issues related to urban waterfront redevelopment projects, focused mainly in the organisational capacities of public organisations influencing the implementation process. Firstly this research describes the concepts and theories selected and defines the analytical framework. Secondly, regarding the European case studies of London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid, this study provides general information concerning the local context in order to understand the dynamics of urban development and city port relation as basis to carry out a description and comparative analysis of waterfront redevelopment strategies adopted in order to find out common elements of success that could be applied in the case of Rio de Janeiro. Thirdly, following the same

analytical structure proposed for the European case studies, this research presents the case of Rio de Janeiro. Finally, this study has the final purpose of answer the research questions and draw theoretical and practical recommendations for “Porto do Rio” redevelopment process.

This study has faced some limitations related to its empirical part, especially in terms of limited time and resources as well as the low availability of key stakeholders, experts and decision-makers involved in the early stages of the waterfront redevelopment projects of London Docklands, Rotterdam Kop van Zuid and “Porto do Rio” to participate on interviews and workshops organised during the data collection period.

### **1.2.6 Research Methodology**

This research can be classified as an Explanatory Case Studies Analysis. It combines data collected through observations, desk research, workshops and open-ended interviews. Crosschecking between the primary data (interviews, workshops and observations) and secondary data (desk research) will be the key methodology applied to answer the research questions.

The unity of analysis of this research framework is the waterfront redevelopment projects in urban port areas: primary case study of “Porto do Rio” and secondary case studies of London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid. The methodology to select the two secondary case studies was based on criteria, defined by the author as “successful” redevelopment strategy that can be measured in terms of: positive physical, economic and social effects for the project area and for city as a whole, such as urban regeneration, attraction of economic investments, new households and tourists, improvements on quality of life for the local community and re-integration of the area within the city centre context, regarding the importance of the waterfront redevelopment project for the city development strategy.

Although the term population is not applicable to this type of research, since it is not a survey, we can say that architects, urban planners and decision-makers invited to participate on interviews and workshops compose the research population. This kind of instrument for data collection encourages people to tell their own opinions and personal experiences related to the area and to the redevelopment strategies adopted, improving the final quality of this study. The criteria to select these key persons is based on their availability and close relations with the area, such as experts involved in the early stages of the waterfront redevelopment project and political leaderships.

This study aims to measure the following variables: the organisation of a waterfront redevelopment process, the most relevant lessons learned from European experiences concerning the case of Rio de Janeiro and the factors contributing for the no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan.

The above stated variables will be operationalised based on a logical line from the research questions to the indicators and instruments used for data collection, as showed in the following table.

<b>Question</b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Instruments</b>
<b>1 Theoretical</b>	The organisation of a waterfront redevelopment process	Theoretical Framework and Case Studies conclusions	Desk Research Observations
<b>2 Empirical</b>	The most relevant lessons learned from European experiences concerning the case of Rio de Janeiro	Secondary Case Studies evidences and analysis	Desk Research Workshop Observations
<b>3 Empirical</b>	The factors contributing for the no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio”	Primary Case Study evidences and analysis	Interviews Desk Research Observations

**Table 1.1** Operationalization of variables

### **Rio de Janeiro Case Study**

Primary data was collected through open-ended interviews with experts, architects, urban planners and decision-makers involved in early stages of the development of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan. Additional data is based on the researcher’s local knowledge and own observations during field visits.

Secondary data, including the city profile and the description of the redevelopment strategy was based on desk research. Data was collected from official websites and different types of written material available in the municipal planning departments, such as the official “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan, relevant planning and policy documents, projects, recent surveys and official publications.

### **European Case Studies**

Secondary data regarding the cases of London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid, including the profile of the cities and the description of each redevelopment strategy and its physical, economic and social effects for the project area and for the city as a whole, was based on desk research. This secondary data was collected from different types of sources available, considering that both cases are very well documented in written material (literature, articles, reports), official websites and databases (municipal statistics). Additional data was based on the researcher’s own observations during field visits and a workshop with experts and civil servants from the London Borough of Southwark and the Municipality of Rotterdam.

In this research all the data collected regarding the case studies will be confronted and analysed through the conceptual and theoretical framework based on literature review of: Urban Life Cycle theory, City Port Relations concept, Urban Waterfront Redevelopment concept, Integrated Urban Development theoretical framework and Organising Capacity as a City Development Strategy tool.

## **1.3 Thesis Structure**

### **Chapter 1: Introduction and Research Methods**

Presents general background information about waterfront redevelopment issues and gives an overview of the local context of Rio de Janeiro. This chapter also introduces this research with the description of the core problem, definition of research objectives, questions and methodology for data collection and analysis.

### **Chapter 2: Conceptual and Theoretical Framework**

Reviews the existing literature related with the key concepts and theories, which are considered the basis for the analytical framework of this research: Urban Life Cycle theory, City Port Relations concept, Urban Waterfront Redevelopment concept, Integrated Urban Development theoretical framework and Organising Capacity as a City Development Strategy tool. This chapter addresses some fundamental issues related to how a waterfront redevelopment project can be organised as theoretical basis to answer the first research question.

### **Chapter 3: European Case Studies**

Analysis of London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid waterfront redevelopment projects through the conceptual and theoretical framework described in chapter two. The purpose of this comparative analysis is to find out which common elements of the organising capacities of the project organisations have contributed for the success of the redevelopment strategies adopted in European urban port areas.

### **Chapter 4: Rio de Janeiro Case Study**

Analysis of “Porto do Rio” waterfront redevelopment project through the conceptual and theoretical framework described in chapter two. The purpose of this analysis is to identify and understand the factors causing no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan, focused on the organisational components of its redevelopment strategy.

### **Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations**

Presents the general conclusions and most relevant lessons learned from the three case studies selected in order to answer the research questions. Based on the analytical generalisation of these results, this chapter has the final purpose of draw theoretical and practical recommendations for the case of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan.

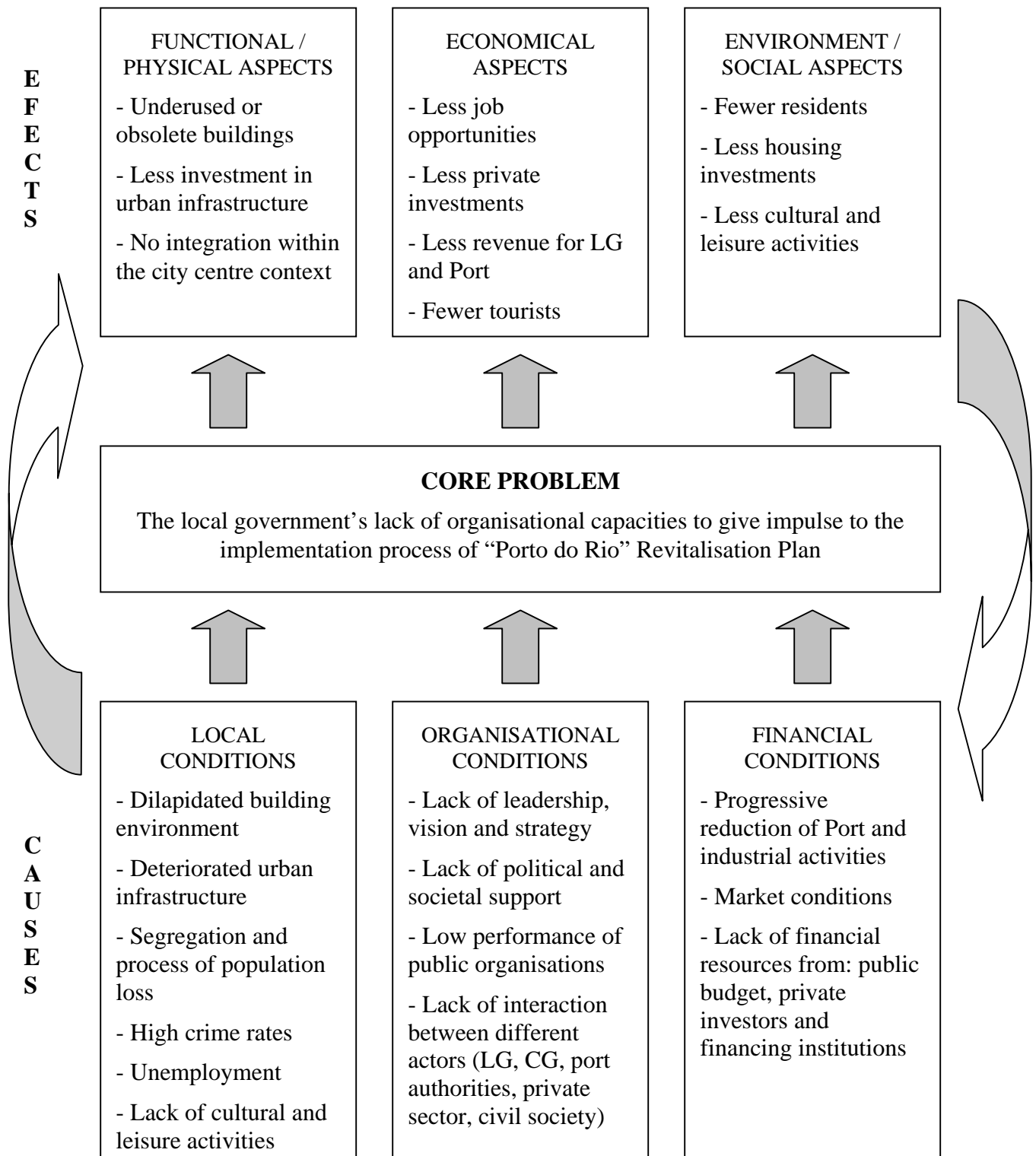


Figure 1.1 Problem Tree – Cyclical process of decay in the old port area of Rio de Janeiro

## Chapter 2: Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the existing literature related with the key concepts and theories, which are considered the basis for the analytical framework of this research: Urban Life Cycle, City Port Relations, Urban Waterfront Redevelopment, Integrated Urban Development and Organising Capacity as a City Development Strategy tool.

### 2.2 Concepts and Theories

#### 2.2.1 Urban Life Cycle Theory

The Urban Life Cycle theory, as developed by van den Berg et al. (1982), discusses the influence of economic and social factors on the growth and decline of urban systems, identifying a cyclical pattern of successive stages of urban development<sup>2</sup>. The principle of the dynamics of urban regions rests on the assumption that urban systems rise and fall according to the spatial behaviour of urban actors, who, for their part, are motivated by successive combinations of changing exogenous variables, such as demographics, politics, social values and technology<sup>3</sup>. According to this theory, the spatial behaviour of residents and companies is largely determined by the development of the various welfare and location potentials. In that sense, public authorities can influence the urban development undertaking policies in specific areas, such as housing, public infrastructure provision, environment and job creation to promote balanced urban growth.

Several empirical studies (Cheshire and Hay 1989; Hall and Hay 1980; van den Berg 1987; van den Berg et al. 1982) have analysed the impacts of those factors on a sample of western European cities since the industrial revolution, in which the authors have identified four successive stages of urban development patterns:

The first stage of spatial concentration in which the urban agglomeration is largely growing is called urbanisation. It runs parallels to the process of industrialisation that gives impulse to urban growth due to strong migration movement from rural to urban areas towards better job opportunities and life conditions. Some further features of this stage are high priority for economic growth, location of large-scale industries and

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<sup>2</sup> Berg, L. van den et al (1982). *Urban Europe: A Study of Growth and Decline*. Pergamon, Oxford.

<sup>3</sup> Berg, L. van den (1999). *Chapter 17: The Urban Life Cycle and the Role of a Market Oriented Revitalisation Policy in Western Europe*, in: *Urban Change in the United States and Western Europe*. A. A. Summers, P. Cheshire and L. Senn (eds.), *The Urban Institute Press*, Washington.



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development of local public transport. In this stage, the core concentrates the major urban functions, as a place to live in, work and locate business activities.

At the next stage, namely suburbanisation, the rise of the service and transport sectors leads to spatial deconcentration (urban sprawl). There is a growth in population and employment in the surrounding suburban areas, the so-called hard ring, while the core is losing inhabitants. Some further features of this stage are rapid rise of prosperity, rapid growth of the number of offices, increasing of car ownership, and high priority in government policy for expansion of transport infrastructure. There is a strong commuting flow between the suburbs and the city centre due to a progressive separation of living and working places. This daily movement causes several urban and environmental problems, such as inefficiency of public transport, traffic jams, pollution and so on. This phenomenon leads the urban agglomerations to the third stage of urban development, called disurbanisation.

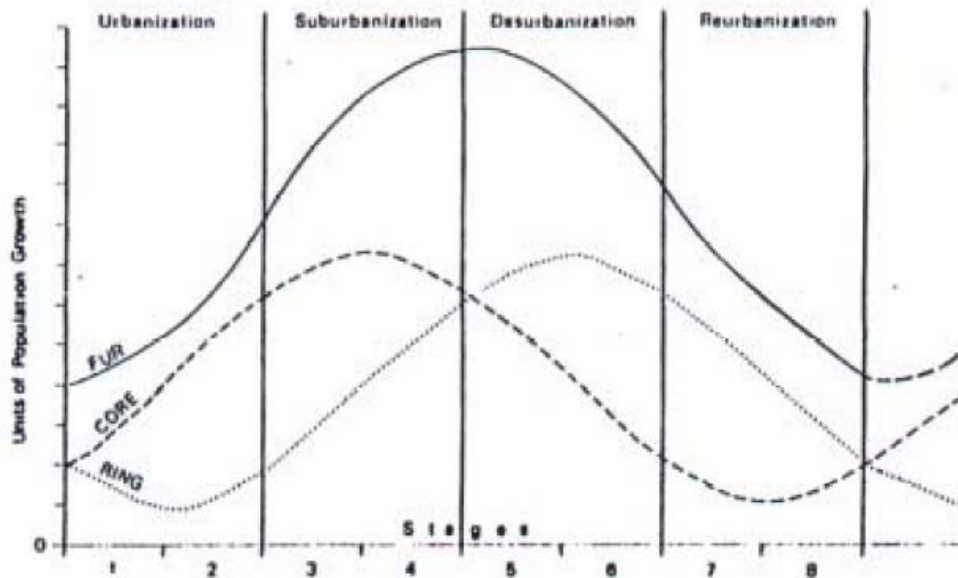
The disurbanisation stage is also characterised by spatial deconcentration, in which the large agglomerations are losing population to the smaller municipalities outside the FURs (functional urban regions) due to increased appreciation of the quality of life conditions, such as a safe and attractive living and working environment. Some further features of this third stage are rapid rise of energy prices, contraction of average family size and local governments giving more weight to inner city revitalization policies, spatial planning and public transport. In this stage, the inner city districts are facing the process of decay characterized by decline in the quality of housing environment, services and job opportunities, as well as decline in its capacity to attract new residents and businesses.

Reurbanisation is the fourth and last urban development pattern identified by van den Berg et al. (1982). In this stage, local government's are focused in urban revitalisation policies to reverse this process of inner city decay. This new approach depends on strong political vision and leadership. It is characterized by the local government's ability to develop and implement market-oriented strategies to foster local economic growth, as well as improve quality of life. These urban revitalisation policies have the final objective of raise the inner city's competitive advantages to attract new economic investments, tourists and residents.

According to van den Berg (1999), in a time of increasing competition and mutual dependence between urban regions, the future development of the urban life cycle depends largely on the emphasis municipalities are giving to the general concept of market-oriented policy<sup>4</sup>. It also is important to stress that the future of cities depends not only on following the reurbanisation trends, but also on their ability to anticipate and reverse the negative effects caused by the disurbanisation stage of urban development.

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<sup>4</sup> Berg, L. van den (1999). *Chapter 17: The Urban Life Cycle and the Role of a Market Oriented Revitalisation Policy in Western Europe*, in: *Urban Change in the United States and Western Europe*. A. A. Summers, P. Cheshire and L. Senn (eds.), *The Urban Institute Press, Washington*.



**Figure 2.1** Population size of the core, ring and functional urban region (FUR) in different stages of urban development (Source: Berg, L. van den et al (1982). *Urban Europe: A Study of Growth and Decline*).

### 2.2.2 City Port Relations Concept

According to Meyer, each type of Port City is characterized by a specific spatial form of the relations between city and port, and by a specific cultural appreciation of this form<sup>5</sup>. For the purposes of this study, it is important to define the concepts of City and Port and to understand the complex relations between city and port as major components of an urban system.

“... the City is not only a geographic concept, a determination of place, a clump of buildings and offices with a ring road around it. A city breathes an urban atmosphere. Cities are – traditionally – centres of trade, activity, art and culture, past and future. The urban atmosphere is determined by a labyrinthine and dynamic exchange between all these functions, between working and relaxing, individuality and collectiveness, living and public life.” (van Boxtel 1999)<sup>6</sup>. According to van den Berg et al (2000), the notion of city has gained an emotional connotation. The place that used to be the city now determines the aspects of an entire region. The monocentric city has given away to the polycentric city region (Hall 1995).

<sup>5</sup> Meyer, H. (1999). *City and Port, transformation of port cities: London, Barcelona, New York, Rotterdam. 1a. Ed. International Books Utrecht, Rotterdam.*

<sup>6</sup> Berg, L. van den, Meer, J. van den, Otgaar, A. H. J. (2000). *The Attractive City – Catalyst for Economic Development and Social Revitalisation. EURICUR and Erasmus University Rotterdam, Rotterdam.*

The Port cannot be defined only as an interface between land and water, but must be seen in a broader context, as a place of economic and cultural interchange (Hoyle and Pinder 1981). According to van den Berg (1993) a Port is a part of a greater transport network and an actor in the urban system. A modern port generally develops as a major urban centre, an industrial and employment pole able to influence in the urban and regional development.

The City Port concept developed by Hoyle and Pinder (1992) derives from the traditional close relations between city and port as main urban components. These city port relations are complex due to successive combinations of changing variables influencing both elements, such as economy, technology, demography and politics. Today, city and port can coexist in a state of almost complete interdependence or with nearly no real linkage<sup>7</sup>.

Cities and ports are historically closely linked. Cities grew around ports, providing labour forces, production and consumption centres. In other words, urban expansion generates port growth, and the other way around. However, these city port relations are facing problems and challenges throughout history. Since the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, as a result of an accelerating deindustrialisation process in which industry and port facilities have been moving away from central locations, the city and the port are becoming two separated entities, both physically and administratively. This process indicates that the traditional relations between city and port have deteriorated. According to Hoyle and Pinder (1992), cities have become multi-functional, loosening their dependency on ports.

The city port concept is based on a system of cooperation between city and port, in which both actors have to work in synergy to achieve their common goals. According to Amato (1999), this ideally system depends on a clear framework defining the cultural, economic and spatial relations between city and port, due to its different visions and objectives.

From a planning perspective, a city and a port influence one another in terms of urban growth, transport infrastructure, economic and employment opportunities. Cities are constantly trying to become more attractive for residents, businesses and visitors, while ports are more committed to business development and how to achieve competitive advantages (Amato 1999).

Although every city and port relation is to be seen as unique, most port cities all over the world are facing common challenges in terms of economic responsibility, environment issues and attractiveness of the port and of the city. Based on it, it is possible to find out the most common sources of potential conflicts and good reasons for co-operation in the city and port relationship.

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<sup>7</sup> Jurin, J. (2004). *Chapter 1: City and Port: two separate players on the same playing field. In: Urban Management in Europe – Towards a sustainable development. Vol II, Erasmus University Rotterdam, Rotterdam.*

According to Amato (1999) the potential conflicts are: daily friction (noise, pollution, safety, visual impact of port operations, traffic congestion), control and use of space (extension of port areas, access to the seashore, waterfront redevelopment) and institutional relations (exclusion of cities from decisions on port development, special legislations, predominance of external interests in port management). On the other hand, the reasons for co-operation are: port's contributions for urban development (direct and indirect economic and job opportunities, intermodal transport connections, relations with foreign countries) and city's contributions for port development (support for port competitiveness, provision of urban services, workers and inland transport connections).

The best possible relations between city and port are required for a successful redevelopment of urban waterfront. Both, city and port must be involved in the decision-making and implementation processes. There is no official blueprint on how to achieve it due to unique character of each city port relationship. But, it is important to stress that the future of port cities depends on the way the linkages between port and city development are being currently re-evaluated. City and port have specific needs and resources that must be used in an efficient way towards a sustainable urban development.

### **2.2.3 Urban Waterfront Redevelopment Concept**

The period between the 1960s-1980s has strongly influenced the city port relationship. New maritime transport technologies were introduced changing the port as well as the urban layout. Over the past 30 years urban waterfront redevelopment has been in focus, taking the opportunities for reuse old, abandon port facilities and related industrial sites and brown field (Bruttomesso 1993, Hoyle et al. 1988).

This waterfront revitalisation strategy takes advantage of this current accelerating deindustrialisation process in which industry and port facilities have been moving away from inner city locations, leaving behind vacant land, underused or obsolete buildings that after an initial stage of abandon, have become available for new uses, such as housing, commercial, cultural, entertainment and offices. This strategy must be seen as a strong reason for co-operation between city and port. It is an opportunity for the city to improve its visual image and quality of life. Consequently, an attractive city can be seen as a competitive advantage for a port, in the way that makes easier to attract several ports related investments. Furthermore, an attractive port city can also be discovered as a new tourist target. This process leads to a flywheel effect that brings benefits and promote development for both actors at the same time.

The urban waterfront redevelopment is a complex process characterised by many disputes and conflicts between all different interest parties (government and port authorities, private developers and residents). However, the major elements of this process can be organised in order to guarantee a successful strategy implementation. Most projects require strong public support, especially in planning, finance and

management. Once private investors and financing institutions are generally reluctant in participate, due to high risks and long-term implementation. In this process, the local administration plays a vital role concerning leadership, vision and strategy, as well as the promotion of strategic networks and political and societal support. The public organisation is responsible to enlist all actors involved in order to co-operate and share resources. Balance between development potential, ambition level and project risk is also needed. For the purpose of this study is important to define and understand the major components of a waterfront redevelopment process, which can be summarized as following:

The planning component is responsible for guarantee the urban development quality. It is related to the urban planning strategy in itself, including zoning and land use concepts, urban renewal, cultural, housing and historical conservation policies, ambition level of the project, legal framework for implementation and participatory planning concepts. From this perspective, the Director of the International Centre Cities on Water in Venice, Rinio Brutomesso, set out five key factors for success in Waterfront Redevelopment Projects, which can be summarized as: water must be a central characteristic of waterfront projects; the identity of the site and original features of waterfront zone must be enhanced; a balanced mix of functions should be encouraged to avoid excessive specialisation of waterfront uses; the waterfront should be integrated with the urban area; and, finally, projects should be pursued in an atmosphere of collaboration between the public and private sectors<sup>8</sup>.

The financial component is the way in which the local government mobilizes and generates financial resources to implement the project. It includes different instruments to encourage the participation of private investors and financing institutions in the redevelopment process, such as public and private partnerships, market-oriented policies, marketing strategies, contracts and subsidies.

The organisational component can be defined as the municipal ability to ensure political and societal support, as well as co-ordinate cooperativeness networks between all different actors involved in the redevelopment process, such as higher levels of government and different departments within each level, port authorities, civil society, private investors and financing institutions (financial components).

The three major components of waterfront redevelopment strategies described above will be the focus of this research. Based on the analysis of these elements through integrated urban development and organising capacity theoretical framework, the three case studies can be compared in order to find out which factors have contributed for the “successful” implementation of waterfront redevelopment projects in European port areas as well as identify the failure strategies adopted in the case of Rio de Janeiro.

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<sup>8</sup> Bruttomesso, R. (2001). *The Strategic Role of the Waterfront in Urban Redevelopment of Cities on Water in: Large Scale Urban Developments*. Technical University of Gdansk Publishing, Gdansk.

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## 2.2.4 Integrated Urban Development Theoretical Framework<sup>9</sup>

The theoretical framework of Integrated Urban Development, as adapted from Van't Verlaat, OBR/Rotterdam, describes the elements of vision and strategy as the need to address the different urban dimensions in an integrated way. An integrated vision of metropolitan development, translated into strategies, prevents inconsistencies in planning. It can be applied in all levels of abstraction of urban management: the metropolitan, sectoral and project levels. In this framework the efficiency and effectiveness of urban projects are analysed by identifying the cross-linkages between different project dimensions, which increase the potential benefits of the projects using the same amount or limited extra amount of resources (van Hoek 2005).

The figure 2.2 illustrates the three main dimensions of this theoretical framework scheme: urban development quality, market requirements and financial prospects; and highlights the fundamental relations between them: development potential, ambition level and project risk.

Urban development quality is related to the final outcome of the development projects in terms of physical (architectural) quality, economic opportunities as well as social and environmental aspects. This dimension is considered the basis for a project evaluation, but both financial costs and market parties should be included in this evaluation pattern.

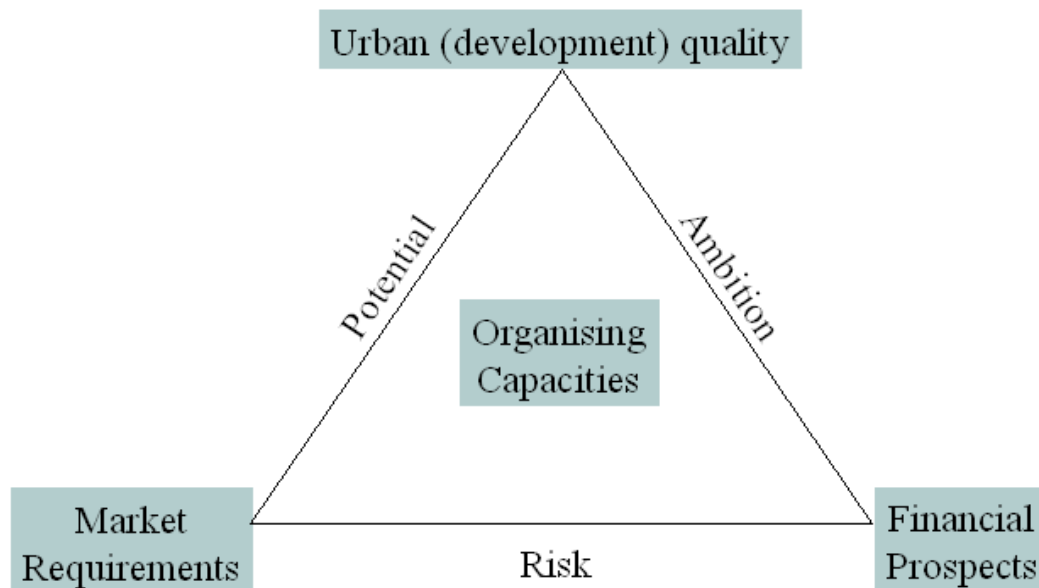
Market requirements are related to the actors involved in the project, both on supply and demand side, such as project developers, real state agents, potential users and different government agencies. The information available about market requirements and its actors benefits the development project in order to achieve better urban quality or financial results.

Financial prospects are the financing requirements for the implementation of a development project. From this perspective, the most important elements of a development project are the cost efficiency and the availability of financial resources from public and private sectors.

The relation between the quality of the project and the market requirements is based on the development potential of the project while the relation between the quality of the project and the financial prospects determine the ambition level. The needed financial investments in relation to the market conditions determine the risk of the project. The ability to combine and balance these three major dimensions depends basically on the organising capacities of the project organisation. This integration requires all the elements of organising capacity theory in order to achieve the best possible results in each of the following dimensions. (van Hoek 2005).

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<sup>9</sup> This section is mainly based on the report *Introduction to Urban Management* by Drs. Marco van Hoek (2005), in particular the description about the theoretical frameworks of *Integrated Urban Development and Organising Capacity*.



**Figure 2.2** Theoretical Framework of Integrated Urban Development (Source: adapted from Van't Verlaat, OBR, Rotterdam).

The theoretical framework of Organising Capacity as developed by van den Berg et al (1997), can be defined as the “ability to enlist all actors involved, and with their help generate new ideas and develop and implement a policy designed to respond to fundamental developments and create conditions for sustainable development”<sup>10</sup>. In other words, cities need to organise themselves in order to improve their competitive advantages. This competition has become the major economic reason for urban policy making. At the same time, changing views on urban and regional management, from governing to governance, have become the major administrative challenge. Indeed, the future position of a metropolitan region depends on a high degree of its organising capacity. The key applicability of this framework is related to its capacity to anticipate, respond to and cope with these spatial and societal changes.

According to van den Berg et al (1997), the performance of a metropolitan region depends on high levels of interaction between all major elements of this theoretical framework: vision and strategy for city development, strategic networks, leadership and political and societal support, as illustrated in the figure 2.3. The cohesion of these relations is responsible for the performance of the entire dynamic system. Lack of cohesion and interaction can make the performance of a project be disappointing, despite a positive evaluation of most of the separate elements (van Hoek 2005). Communication is the major tool used to bring the message of the vision and strategy with the final objective of build up strong networks between potential leaders, politicians, citizens and target groups. This communication between all relevant actors proceeds mainly through the regular media (newspapers, radio, TV and internet) and supports the development and implementation of an urban strategy.

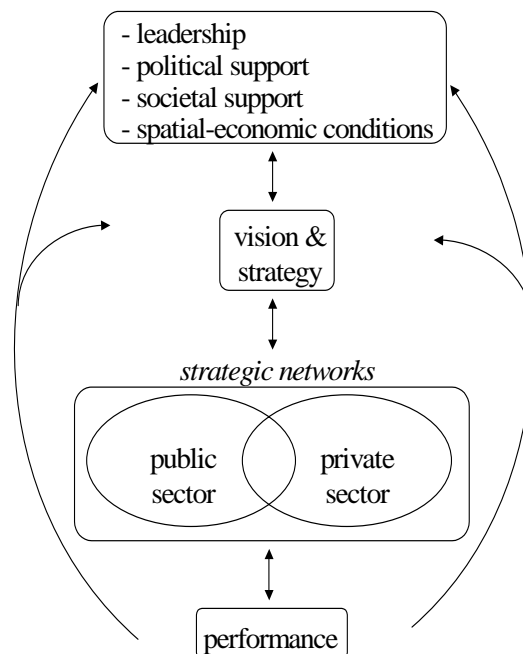
<sup>10</sup> Berg, L. van den, Braum, E, and van den Meer, J. (1997). *Metropolitan Organising Capacity*, Ashgate, Aldershot.

The vision forms the basis for formulating concrete objectives and strategies for the future development of an urban region and implement it. This integrated and wide vision must be realist and well oriented to the opportunities and problems of the urban region. It also should address the main interests and targets of all stakeholders in a balanced way. An integrated vision and strategy links different levels and regions, and is the prerequisite for effectiveness and efficiency in regional planning.

Strategic networks can be defined as patterns of cooperativeness interaction between all the actors involved in the development process, such as public and private organisations. It is related to the partnership culture, and its capacity to mobilize stakeholders and share responsibilities as basis of confidence and flexibility.

The element of leadership is represented by the leading actor who initiates, continues and completes the programme or project. This leadership drives the project forward and contributes substantially for the design, development and implementation of a strategy. In order to play the role of initiate new projects and organise networks, this key group of persons or institutions must adopt an entrepreneurial spirit.

Political and societal support is a prerequisite for organising capacity, since political will and financial pre-conditions are decisive for the opportunities to initiate and implement new policies. Support from all the actors directly involved or interested (local population, business society, interest groups) is also fundamental for the successful implementation of every development strategy. The levels of active involvement from those political, citizens and target groups can measure this political and societal support and depends basically on the communication strategy.



**Figure 2.3** Theoretical Framework of Organising Capacity (Source: Berg, L. van den et al (1997) Metropolitan Organising Capacity).



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### 2.2.5 Organising Capacity as a City Development Strategy Tool

The overall process of globalisation and internationalisation of economy has made cities compete among themselves to attract new economic investments, tourists and higher-income dwellers. Cities are fostering local economic growth that aims to increase job opportunities and promote improvements on quality of life for all citizens. According to the Cities Alliance, urban areas are increasingly determining the economic future of their countries as a result of decentralisation processes that has transferred many tasks and responsibilities to the municipal level<sup>11</sup>.

Given this competitive environment, the quality of urban governance can determine the declining or prosperous future of cities, which explains the importance of key concepts and tools used in the formulation of city development strategies. An Urban and Regional Development Strategy can be defined as an action-plan for sustainable growth, focused on implementation, to support cities in this critical decision-making process and increase competitiveness in terms of urban performance. City Development Strategies are also key instruments for public organisations bring stakeholders together and achieve progress on major objectives. In the reurbanisation stage of urban development as defined by van den Berg (1987), more than ever before an active, anticipating and initiating role is reserved for the government. The local government, whose aim is to raise the prosperity of citizens, must exert itself more energetically than before to enhance the city's appeal to residents, companies and visitors<sup>12</sup>.

Local governments play a key role in the implementation process of development strategies, however the public organisation must work in partnership with private enterprises and civil society interests to support and define actions. If well formulated, sustained through public participation and successfully implemented, development strategies can change the way cities are being managed, introducing innovations and improvements on urban governance. In conclusion, the future of a city can be influenced by the development of strategic actions and plans.

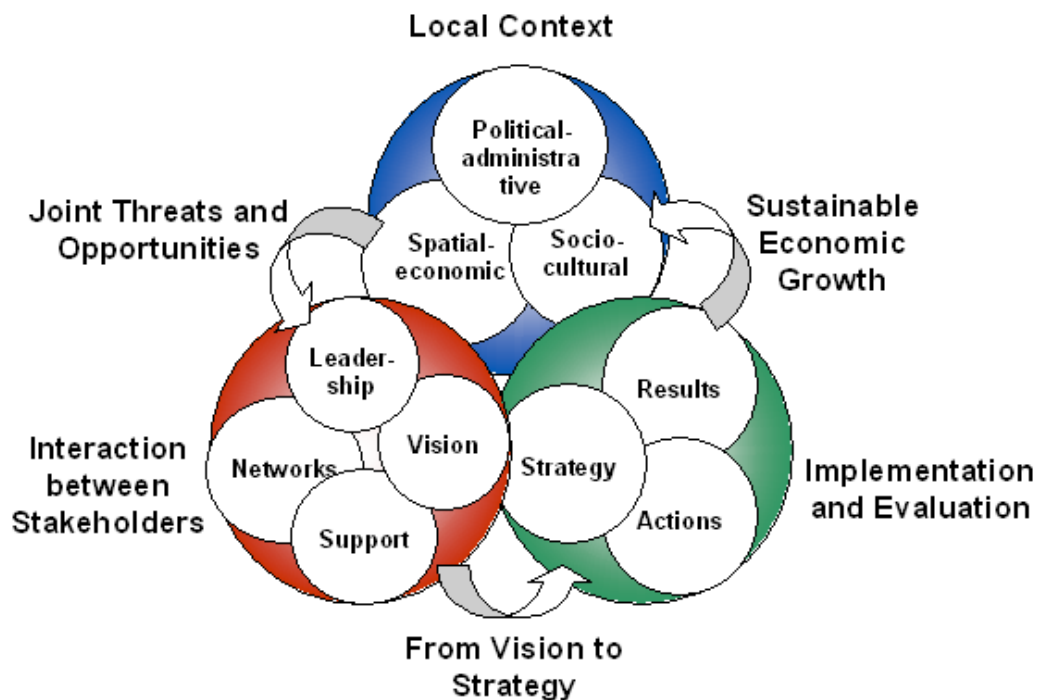
Different concepts and tools for urban and regional development strategies are used to maximize the potential of a city performance, which can be measured in terms of sustainable economic growth, improvements on quality of life and competitiveness. For the purposes of this research, the concept of Organising Capacity of the project organisation, previously mentioned as part of the Integrated Urban Development theoretical framework, will be described as a City Development Strategy tool.

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<sup>11</sup> *Cities Alliance Statement (2006) available in <http://www.citiesalliance.org>.*

<sup>12</sup> *Berg, L. van den, Meer, J. van den, Otgaar, A. H. J. (2000). The Attractive City – Catalyst for Economic Development and Social Revitalisation. EURICUR and Erasmus University Rotterdam, Rotterdam.*

Starting from the analysis of the local context (spatial and socio-economic conditions), joint threats and opportunities can be defined. This leads to the need of interaction between key stakeholders that together define a broadly supported vision and strategy. Once successfully implemented and evaluated, this strategy leads to sustainable economic growth and an improved local context. From this new situation, new threats and opportunities can be defined re-starting the process<sup>13</sup>. The figure 2.4 illustrates this cyclical process, which describes the performance of the development strategy throughout time.



**Figure 2.4** The concept of Organising Capacity as City Development Strategy (Source: van Hoek (2005) Introduction to Urban Management).

The key concepts and theories previously described are considered the basis for analyses and evaluation of the waterfront redevelopment strategies applied in the cases of urban port area of London Docklands, Rotterdam Kop van Zuid and “Porto do Rio”. The Theoretical Framework Diagram illustrated in figure 2.5 shows the linkages between these theories and concepts and explains the major interactions between them. It also gives an overview of this chapter, as well as introduces the Analytical Framework.

<sup>13</sup> Hoek, R. M. van, (2005). *Introduction to Urban Management (mimeo)*. EURICUR, Rotterdam.



### 2.3 Analytical Framework

The following diagram (figure 2.6) states clearly the variables in which this study will focus on and provides a guideline to understand how the data collected regarding the European and Rio do Janeiro case studies will be described and analysed in the chapters three and four of this research. The case studies will be organised as follows:

Firstly, a profile of the city regarding information related to the local context, urban development stage and city port relation will be provided. Secondly, the major components of each waterfront redevelopment strategy will be described, as well as the local conditions immediately before the project implementation and its physical, economic and social effects. Finally, in the analytical section in itself, the data previously described will be confronted through the Integrated Urban Development theoretical framework, which is considered the basis for project evaluation in this research. This analysis will be focused on the elements of the organising capacities of the project organisation (vision and strategy, leadership, strategic networks, political and societal support) that have contributed to the success of the development strategy.

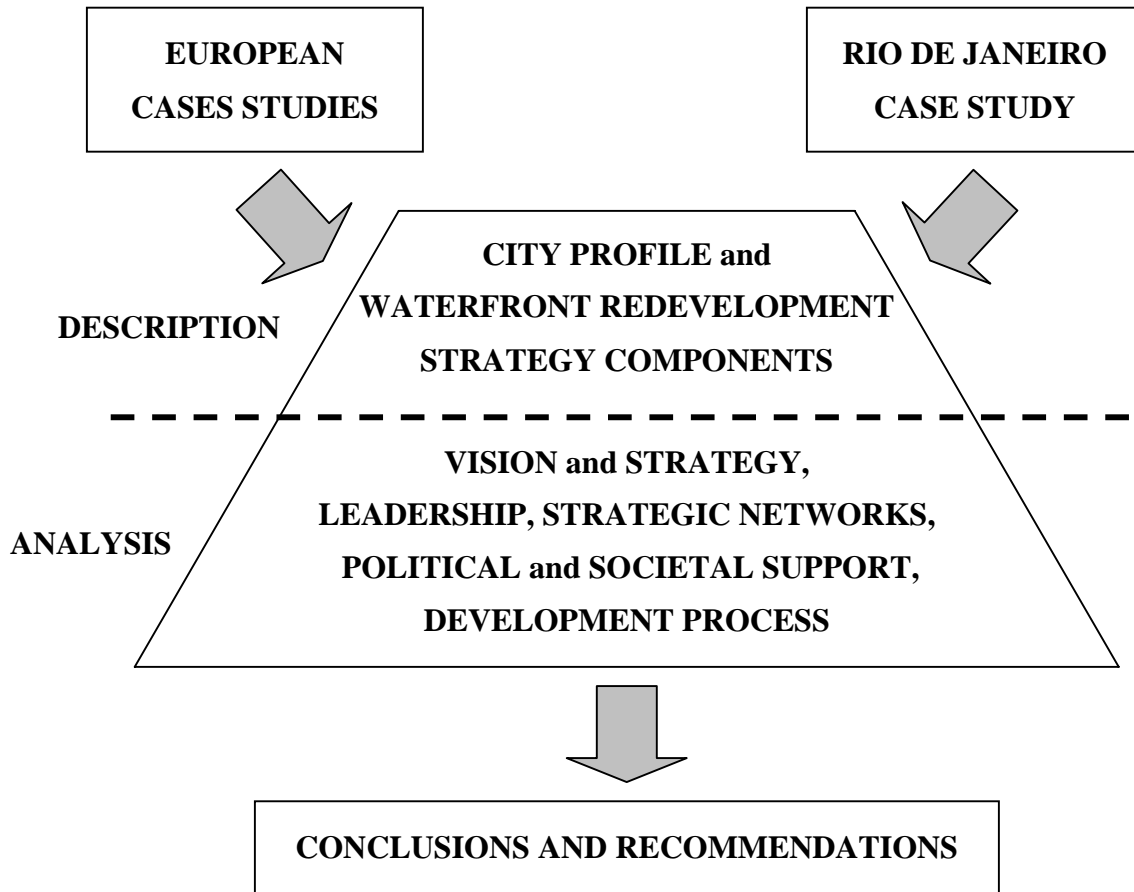


Figure 2.6 Analytical Framework Diagram

## **Chapter 3: European Case Studies**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Among several Port Cities that went through or are currently undergoing urban waterfront revitalisation processes, London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid, are considered some of the most significant experiences. This chapter presents a brief description of the cities local conditions and carries out a comparative analysis of these well-known waterfront redevelopment projects through the conceptual and theoretical framework previously described. This evaluation aims to find out which common elements of the organising capacities of the project organisations have contributed for the success of the redevelopment strategies adopted in European urban port areas.

### **3.2 London Docklands**

#### **3.2.1 Profile of London**

##### **Spatial Situation**

The Greater London, commonly known simply as London, is the capital city of England and of the United Kingdom. The Greater London is located on the River Thames in southeastern England and is one of the largest conurbation areas of Europe. It is also the economical, commercial, industrial and cultural heart of Great Britain and one of the world's most important financial and business centres.

The city has a large and well-developed public transport infrastructure composed by roads, bus routes, tube lines, tramways and national rail lines. London counts with high level of international, regional and multimodal accessibility. The city has two main international airports, Heathrow and Gatwick, and is the first focal point for the intercity services radiating around the country as well as for the suburban railway network. Since 1994, London also counts with the Eurotunnel, an undersea direct High Speed Train connection with the European continent through France.

##### **Culture and Historical Background**

London has always been a major international centre for commerce since the city's foundation as a Roman settlement in 50AD. However, after the industrial revolution in the late 18<sup>th</sup> century, London has faced a rapid urban growth and an extraordinary economic prosperity. The industrialisation process led to a rapid growth of transport infrastructure not only by roads and railways, but also associated to inland ports and harbours. In that sense we can say that the economic development of the city has influenced the development of the port and its related activities. At the beginning of 20<sup>th</sup> century, London was considered the world's centre of trade and commerce and

by the year of 1965 Docklands was considered the world's largest port. Moreover, after the mid of 20<sup>th</sup> century, the process of decline of United Kingdom's heavy manufacturing industries and changes in port related technology have influenced the port of London activities. By the year of 1981 all cargo handling in London Docklands had ceased.

London is a cosmopolitan city and its image is mainly related to business, history, culture and entertainment. Over the centuries, the city has received various groups of immigrants and the society has benefited from all kinds of cultural influences. The city counts with people from different nationalities, languages and cultural backgrounds. Currently, over 300 languages are spoken in the multi-cultural London. As one of the world's most important culture centres, London attracts more tourists than any other European city. The city offers several cultural and leisure options such as galleries, theatres, museums, concert halls, bars, restaurants, street markets, pubs, cafés and so on.

The River Thames is London's best-know landmark, as an evidence of the city's close relations with its waterfront. Recent planning policies have given special attention to London's waterfront, in order to ensure redevelopment and regeneration. But London is also world-known for its international events, sports and recreational facilities. The city will host the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The government authorities believe that the Games will bring benefits for London, Londoners and for the whole country, specially in terms of creating jobs, mobilizing resources, attracting visitors and investors.

The city spatial layout is determined by many parks and open spaces. Almost 39% of the total area of London is green. Another important aspect of the city layout is the built environment, which is mainly characterized by historical buildings and monuments. The conservation of London's heritage and the control of planning and design of new buildings as well as environmental policies are key issues for the government.

### **Population**

London has suffered a process of deindustrialisation and suburbanisation in the second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century, characterized by garden towns and facilitated by a great expansion of the public transport infrastructure with new railway and metro lines connecting the city with the suburbs. However, since the 1980s the city has been undertaking several urban revitalisation schemes, which characterizes the reurbanisation stage of urban development in London, according to the Urban Life Cycle theory as developed by van den Berg et al (1982).

The resident population of London gradually declined from 1921 to 1971. Since 1981, the records have been showing a slight population growth and then reduced again in 1991. From 1991 to 2001 the resident population have increased again, but it is partly attributed to the revision of the city of London boundaries in 1994 and additional housing units as a result of redevelopment schemes.

At present, the Greater London counts around 7.172 million people and covers an area of 1.579 square kilometres, which comprises the City of London and 32 other London Boroughs. While the London's metropolitan area, also called the London Commuter Belt, counts around 13 million people and extends over a far larger region including other districts that generally function like dormitory town. In comparison with the workforce, the resident population in Greater London is relatively small. During the office hours the city counts around 3.178 million people, within workers and visitors, which illustrates the importance of the city as part of the central business district. London is the largest city in the country and, on the European level, is considered a primary city in terms of number of inhabitants.

### **Economy**

London is the economic engine of the United Kingdom. It accounts for 17% of the UK's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The city keeps its leading position in both, national and global economies, and is known as the Europe's main business centre and the world's financial centre. It has a unique concentration of international expertise and capital, with a supportive legal and regulatory system, an advanced communications and information technology infrastructure and an unrivalled concentration of services.

According to Sassen (2001), for centuries the world economy has shaped the urban form. The globalisation in the world economy, characterized by a combination of spatial dispersal of economic activities and global integration has created a new strategic role for major cities. In this perspective, London is a leading example of a new type of city called Global City, comparable only with New York and Tokyo in the scale of its involvement in world capital markets. Beyond its long history as a centre for international trade and banking, London is now functioning as a command point in the organization of the global economy, a key location for finance and for specialized service firms, sites of production as well as an important consumer market. Although its position in the world economy, the city still need to address urban issues such as poverty, unemployment, growing polarisation between rich and poor, traffic congestion, the need for infrastructure, the lack of strategic planning and the lack of quality affordable housing which represents a serious challenge to both economic competitiveness and social equity in London.

### **Administrative Structure**

In 1965, the creation of the Greater London Council (GLC) gave London an overall planning authority. However, in 1985, the Prime Minister Thatcher abolished the GLC, and transferred greater power to local development corporations, which are far more responsive to business than public interests. As a result of this administrative structure, in the late 1980s the central political forces were the development corporations and the national government, while the local borough councils lost power and resources. In the 1990s the Londoners voted in a referendum to elect a new government and reinstate the office of the Mayor, the challenge was to build up an active urban democracy in the city.

London is the unique region in England having its own elected Assembly and Mayor. This new government states that decision-making needs to be brought closer to the people. The Great London Authority (GLA) is the strategic regional authority for London. It comprises two bodies – the directly elected Mayor and the London Assembly. At present, the administrative structure of the Greater London conurbation consists of 32 boroughs and the City of London. The GLA represents London to the outside world and coordinates the existing borough councils, whose powers were greatly strengthened since the abolition of the GLC. The Mayor and the Greater London Authority work with the boroughs and other bodies such as Government Office for London and Central Government to allocate budget and outlines the key areas of responsibility.

The London Boroughs and the Corporation of London are responsible for a wide range of services and are responsible for local government in London, reflecting and meeting the needs of their own particular areas. Each borough council is made up of councillors elected every four years. They set the Council Tax levels which, along with extra funding from central government, allows each borough to provide services such as education, housing, social services, street cleaning, waste disposal, roads, local planning and many arts and leisure services. The boroughs do not run police or health services.

### SWOT Analyses of London

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>STRENGTHS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Global City</li> <li>• Location and Accessibility</li> <li>• World’s Business, Financial and Cultural Centre</li> <li>• Heritage and Monuments</li> <li>• Tourism Industry</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>OPPORTUNITIES</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Globalisation</li> <li>• International Events (2012 Olympic Games)</li> </ul>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>WEAKNESS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of Strategic Planning</li> <li>• Unemployment</li> <li>• Poverty and Social Inequality</li> <li>• Shortage of Housing Space</li> <li>• Environmental Problems (Pollution, Traffic congestion)</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>THREATS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economic Stagnation</li> <li>• Terrorist Attacks</li> <li>• Immigrants (Unemployment)</li> </ul>

**Table 3.1** SWOT Analyses of London



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### 3.2.2 London Docklands Redevelopment Strategy Description

#### Local Conditions

Until the 1960s, East London was a centre of social housing and employment, dominated economically, politically and socially by the port. However, as a consequence of the changes in maritime technology the Docklands has experienced a period of progressive closure from the 1960s onwards and finally by the year of 1981 all cargo handling had ceased. This gradual decline had major economic, physical and social impacts to the city of London in general and to East London in particular. This process left behind underused industrial buildings and port facilities that after an initial stage of abandon, have become available for new uses. The surrounding neighbourhoods mainly occupied by working-class housing became depressed with mass unemployment and social deprivation.

Although Docklands covers a large area located close to one of the world's major financial centres, the docks were segregated from Central London by poor public transport links and by a history of social discrimination. In the 1980s, London East was characterized by great cultural and ethnic diversity, high levels of poverty, unemployment, low quality of housing and bad image. Around 100.000 people were dependent on port related jobs and the Docklands itself employed more than 30.000 people. After the closure of the Docks, the area has experienced a period of economic decline and huge job losses. Between 1978 and 1983, over 12.000 jobs were lost and the employment rate in 1981 achieved 17,8% once the skills of the local population were inappropriate for the London economy in general. This economic situation had effects in the social and physical local conditions. Between 1971 and 1981, the population of London Docklands fell by 20% and 60% of the Dock's area was vacant or under-used and available for redevelopment<sup>14</sup>.

Different levels of government held most of the London dock's area and relatively little portion of land were under control of the private investors or under influence of the market forces. At the same time, the high and uncertain costs of development and the lack of public transport connection between Docklands and the rest of London were responsible for lowering the attractiveness of the site to investors. A strong intervention, external to the market, was necessary to improve private developers confidence and willingness to invest in the area. As an effort to reverse this process of decay, the government has recognised the importance of starting up an urban revitalisation process, to turn this run-down area into places where people wanted to live and work. In 1981 the British central government took some land out of the local government and Port Authority and set up a quasi-autonomous governmental development agency, the London Docklands Development Corporation (LDDC), which would be responsible for conducting the London Docklands that is probably the best-known large-scale waterfront regeneration project in UK.

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<sup>14</sup> LDDC Regeneration Statement and LDDC Regeneration Research Report (1997) available in [www.lddc-history.org.uk](http://www.lddc-history.org.uk)

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## Planning Component

London Docklands was an ambitious large-scale waterfront regeneration scheme and Canary Wharf was the first flagship project. The London Docklands Urban Development Area (UDA) consists of 2.226 ha of land located in East London, extending for a total of 10.8 kilometres of the River Thames waterfront and belonging to the London boroughs of Southwark, Newham and Tower Hamlets. The Canary Wharf development is located on the Isle of Dogs, in the London borough of Tower Hamlets, at the centre of Docklands on the site of the former West India Docks, 3.22 kilometres east of the City. This project has made a substantial contribution to the overall regeneration of Docklands. It has changed the city skyline and has become a symbol of the growth and vitality of Docklands. The strategy proposes to use the Canary Wharf area for the eastward extension of the London's financial core. The master plan, designed by internationally renowned architects, aims the redevelopment of the former port into a new urban area comprising high quality office buildings, luxury waterfront apartments, and service, commercial, entertainment and car parking space. Approximately 10 of the 29 ha of the total area of Canary Wharf development consist of squares, gardens, water courts and dockside promenades. This kind of development strategy represents the enterprise culture of the 1980s and has become the physical symbol of the Thatcher's Era.

Although local authorities had previously embarked in the program of land acquisition and reclamation in the dock area, the London Dockland's strategic plan was prepared in the 1970s by the Greater London Council (GLC). This top down approach was considered controversial mainly because of opposition from the local authorities and existing communities. The LDDC took over from the London boroughs their planning powers and has adopted the policy of acquiring and reclaiming land by agreement or compulsory purchase, which was sold to the private sector for development without any strategic and integrated planning support. The Corporation had also powers and resources to prepare land for regeneration and provide improvements in physical, social and economic aspects of the area, such as the construction of new or refurbish the existing infrastructure. However, all other public services for the benefit of the local population remained under responsibility of the local boroughs and other public agencies, while the Corporation role was restricted to provide funds to finance these public services. The LDDC was also responsible for the implementation of administrative incentives, including the benefits of Docklands Enterprise Zone<sup>15</sup>, which offered tax allowances to both investors and developers for a ten-year period. The LDDC main achievements by the year of 1998 can be summarised as following (Box 3.2):

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<sup>15</sup> *Enterprise Zones were set up by the British central government in a number of cities as an urban experiment designed to attract new investments and property capital to run down areas. The Enterprise Zone system symbolizes the policy of revitalization by deregulation, which means development based on the reduction of planning restrictions and bureaucracy. In the Enterprise Zone of the Isle of Dogs, many projects could go ahead with tax exemptions, developer-friendly planning procedures and simplified decision-making process.*

#### Facts and Figures London Docklands Master Plan

- Total Area: 2.226 hectares
- Land Sold for Redevelopment: 431,40 hectares
- Derelict Land Reclaimed: 762,43 hectares
- Houses: 24.046 new units
- Commercial and Industrial Space: 25 million m2
- Employment Creation: 85.000 new jobs
- Docklands Light Railway, City of London airport and road improvements
- Total Public Investment (Government Grant): £ 1,86 billion
- Total Private Investment: £ 7,70 billion

**Box 3.2** Facts and Figures Docklands Master Plan (Source: LDDC Annual Report 1998, available in [www.lddc-history.org.uk](http://www.lddc-history.org.uk))

Although the LDDC has been successful in securing the developer interest, this type of approach has been the subject of much criticism from the academic community throughout time, especially by promoting undemocratic practices, marginalizing planning and social concerns and by using the market as major driving force for urban development. The strategy was considered a great deal for property developers but not good for the local community, which was bypassed and do not benefited from the type of regeneration that occurred (Florio and Brownil, 2000). The LDDC has faced two main shortfalls during its life from 1981 to 1997: the lack of public transport and the lack of amenities provided for the existing residents.

The first shortfall was brought on by the Central London government investments in the construction of the Jubilee Line, a new subway connection from the city centre to Canary Wharf, sixteen years after starting the Docklands redevelopment. It has become an essential component influencing in the master plan that originally has included other infrastructure facilities, such as the construction of Docklands Light Railway, 144 km of new and improved roads and a new regional airport serving the capital cities of Europe. Up to that moment, the area had practically no accessibility in terms of public transport, which has reduced its capacity to attract interest from investors influencing in the market conditions, as will be further explained.

The second shortfall was partially addressed by local boroughs investments in improving the housing stock and community facilities in the areas neighbouring the Docklands development. The Corporation also participated in the provision of health and educational facilities for the local community, such as financial contributions for 5 new health centres and the redevelopment of 6 more, and funding towards 11 new primary schools, 2 secondary schools, 16 colleges and 9 vocational training centres.

## **Financial Component**

In the 1980s, the British urban policy was characterized by a shift in favour of the market and private interests, in other words, the central government believed that the use of the market forces would be the only way to achieve urban regeneration and that the old planning system was inhibiting the market to work. The Thatcher's government has given a massive support to the London Docklands redevelopment strategy. It can be measured in terms of financial subsidies and the transference of powers to the LDDC. The Corporation was wholly financed by grants from the British central government and the income generated by the disposal of land for housing, industrial and commercial development.

The LDDC was appointed to restore the failing economy of the Docklands through the attraction of investment capital to the area. The main idea was that a prudent initial investment would initiate a self-financing regeneration process. However, Docklands has absorbed massive injections of public money. By the year of 1991, 25% of the total grant to the LDDC was used for land reclamation and transport infrastructure, in contrast with less than 5% that was used for social and community facilities. The public sector investments in Docklands cannot be justified in terms of benefits for the local communities, the money used in marketing, infrastructure and incentives had the final objective to make the area attractive for investors.

In the late 1960s, when the process of closure in the London docks began, the property and financial capital had little interest in the area. Moreover, in the early 1970s, the expansion of the finance capital and a boom in the office property markets caused an increasing speculative interest in Docklands. This speculation was fuelled by the Docklands proximity to the city and the growing interests in the potential of an eastward extension of the London's financial core. It has brought effects on the future development of East London, characterized by the massive construction of office space in Canary Wharf.

In the late 1980s, the supply of office space in Central London had already exceeded demand, which led to the property market collapse. The Canary Wharf development has contributed and at the same time has become a victim of this recession. In the early 1990s, the real estate of Canary Wharf was a symbol of bankruptcy with vacancy rates for commercial and office space between 50% and 60%. This first stage of urban redevelopment in London Docklands indicates that the strategy was a failure due to a wrong analysis of the property market conditions, as well as the lack of good public transport connections between Docklands with Central London. But, in the mid 1990s the Central London government has recognised the importance of taking advantage of this development site and extended London's underground system into Docklands (Jubilee Line). A better provision of public transport has increased considerably the attractiveness of the area. Nowadays the property market conditions are considered favourable and the development proceeds dynamically. It indicates that the redevelopment process was successful on a second stage because of favourable changes in the market conditions, not because of the strategy in itself.

### **Organisational Component**

As previously mentioned, in July 1981 the British central government set up the London Docklands Development Corporation (LDDC) suppressing the local authorities planning powers, which characterizes the top-down approach. This quasi-autonomous governmental institution represents the British central government's intervention in urban development. In general terms, to the LDDC was given legal basis, substantial powers, financial resources and political support required for implementing the large-scale waterfront regeneration project of Docklands and keep the redevelopment process moving forward. However, the Corporation was not constituted as a planning authority. The role of LDDC was first, to provide land and infrastructure for development and second, to improve Docklands image and its capacity to attract private investments (marketability). To achieve its goals, the main instruments of LDDC were undemocratic procedures and implementation of administrative incentives, such as the Enterprise Zones previously mentioned. The Corporation was at work during seventeen years, and in June 1998 it was formally dissolved and the local boroughs planning powers were restored.

### **Physical, Economic and Social Effects**

Over the past decades, East London has undergone dramatic physical, economic and social transformation. The Docklands redevelopment has generated a wide range of improvements in the project area. In terms of positive physical effects, the redevelopment project has promoted landscaping, refurbishment of the dock estate, restoration of prominent landmarks, the provision of infrastructure and amenities as well as has reverted the area's bad image. But, the LDDC's strategy of marginalisation of planning process has reinforced the uneven distribution of spatial development in the city.

In terms of economic aspects, the LDDC has promoted the revalorisation of the Docklands as a business location and has restructured the local economy. It has left positive effects, such as the creation of jobs. However, it has failed to meet the needs of the existing community, once most of the new jobs provided are largely in the service sector consequently the low-skilled local people have not achieved meaningful employment in these activities. In relation to the city economy, the impact of the LDDC activities is lower, but even so, the Corporation generated around 23.000 additional jobs in Central London by increasing the supply of high-grade office accommodation, which led to a more competitive financial centre.

In terms of social effects one can say that the Docklands redevelopment has promoted a gentrification phenomenon and has increased social polarization. The development of new housing stock will accommodate an additional of 45.000 inhabitants. Moreover, most of the houses were built by the private sector for wealthy new residents or "yuppies" while local communities could not afford the housing and life style that grew up around them. The luxury apartments on the waterfront contrasts with the social housing environment of the East End. The common criticism says that Docklands was failure in social and planning terms.

### **3.2.3 Analysis of London Docklands**

#### **Vision and Strategy**

At that time, the redevelopment of London Docklands was seen as a national issue, in terms of enhancing London's competitiveness position in the global economy. In that sense we can say that the British central government has developed an integrated vision in favour of the market and private interests that would benefit not only the Greater London region, but also the whole country. The national importance attached to this redevelopment strategy justifies the British top down approach. However, this strategy was considered controversial mainly because of the lack of participation of London boroughs authorities and existing local communities in planning and decision-making processes.

#### **Leadership**

As previously mentioned, the LDDC marked a distinct shift in urban policy towards the interests of capital and the requirements of private investors over the local authorities and social interests. The British central government took the initiative to set up the London Docklands Development Corporation, a quasi-autonomous governmental development agency, to conduct this large-scale redevelopment project. Although the bad local market conditions, the LDDC strong leadership plays the major role of encourages property interests to invest in Docklands. The power of this development agency combined with the private sector was the main force to ensure the success of the redevelopment strategy.

Another important aspect from this leadership was the fact that the Corporation members were directly appointed by and accountable to the British central government. Most of the time these key persons were former top management professionals from the world of finance and or property development, which explain their ability to adopt an entrepreneurial spirit fundamental for the London Docklands market-oriented approach.

#### **Strategic Networks**

Although the LDDC's key objective was to create the appropriate conditions for investments, this governmental institution has neglected the Public Private Partnership approach to increase the availability of resources and share risks with the private parties. The main idea for the implementation of the redevelopment strategy was an initial public investment that would enhance the attractiveness of the area for private developers, generating a self-financing regeneration process. The Corporation that was wholly financed by grants from the British central government and by the income generated by the disposal of land for development would take all initial investments and risks. However, in order to increase the private developers willingness to invest, the LDDC has built up a strategic network with the private sector. This close relation can be measured mainly in terms of developer-friendly planning procedures and land developing incentives that were responsible for keep the redevelopment process moving forward.

On the other hand, strategic networks between different levels of government and the LDDC, that would be later called Public Public Partnerships, were also an essential pre-condition for the implementation of the redevelopment strategy. The strong commitment between the British central government and the LDDC, through important formal and informal relations, can be considered the most important element of these strategic networks. This public-public commitment enables the Corporation to work and can be measured in terms of the Thatcher's government massive support (transference of powers, legal basis and financial subsidies) for the LDDC. At the same time, there was also a secondary strategic network between the LDDC and the local boroughs. The level of commitment of this secondary element has changed over time. At the beginning of the redevelopment process it was very weak, due to the LDDC's top down approach, marginalizing the local authorities. Moreover, it has strengthened over time, due to the need to provide public services for the benefit of the local population, which remained under responsibility of the local boroughs but financed by the Corporation funds.

### **Political and Societal Support**

The redevelopment process is characterized by lack of political support at the local borough level and lack of societal support among the existing communities. Therefore, there was a strong political support from the British central government translated by the establishment of the LDDC. This political support can be measured in terms of the financial subsidies and substantial powers transferred to the LDDC. The reformation in planning and exclusion of London boroughs and local communities from the decision-making process led to lack of societal support, which was even increased by the LDDC's lack of a good communication strategy during the implementation phase.

### **Development Process**

The development process is mainly characterized by the market-oriented and top down approach where the central government manipulated decision-making and planning processes, land values and property markets in order to secure the private developers interest. The analysis of this development process leads to the conclusion that the LDDC has been successful in securing the private developers interest but in terms of social and planning aspects, the strategy has been failed. It has promoted a gentrification phenomenon and has increased the polarization between rich and poor.

Looking at the relation between the elements of organising capacity of the project organisation and the redevelopment strategy previously described, firstly the British central government has recognized the high development potential for the London Docklands area and its positive effects for the city as a whole. Based on this vision, a market-oriented strategy was developed. However, in order to effectively start up the redevelopment process, the British central government set up the LDDC, a strong leadership institution with enough powers and resources to conduct the process without the high levels of political and societal supports required, as well as able to keep the development process moving forward independent of the market conditions.

### 3.3 Rotterdam Kop van Zuid<sup>16</sup>

#### 3.3.1 Profile of Rotterdam

##### Spatial Situation

The city of Rotterdam is situated in the province of South Holland, the leading Dutch province for services, industry and agriculture. Together with the cities of Amsterdam, The Hague and Utrecht, Rotterdam belongs to the “Randstad”, one of the largest metropolitan areas of Europe. Although it comprises about one fourth of the Dutch territory, accommodates about two fifths of the Dutch population and holds a dominant position in the country economy, the “Randstad” has no formal status of an administrative or planning unit. This large conurbation area extends across three different Dutch provinces and several independent municipalities.

So-called the “Gateway to Europe” because of its favourable geographical location, Rotterdam has good international, regional and multimodal accessibility. The city has a small regional airport and lies at a short distance to Schiphol international airport. Rotterdam counts on a well-developed road network, has direct train connections with other major European cities and in the future will count with a High Speed Train connection from Paris through Brussels to Amsterdam.

##### Culture and Historical Background

Rotterdam was founded in the mid 13<sup>th</sup> century with the construction of a dam in the River Rotte. Over the centuries the city grew from a fishing village into an international centre of trade, transport, industry and distribution<sup>17</sup>. Nowadays, the Rotterdam region is dominated by the harbour and can be defined as the area around the port that shares its economic base and is closely tied to it in terms of transport and traffic (van Hoek 2001). In that sense we can say that the development of the port influences the development and shape of the Rotterdam region. Recently, the extension of the port has mainly been towards the west in the direction of the North Sea. To cope with the dynamics of the port, the Rotterdam region extended its boundaries in the same direction<sup>18</sup>. However, the new urban policy framework aims the development of Rotterdam from a Port City to a city with a port.

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<sup>16</sup> *This section is mainly based on the book The Attractive City – Catalyst for Economic Development and Social Revitalisation (2000) by Prof. Dr. Leo van den Berg, Dr. Jan van der Meer and Drs. Alexander H.J. Otgaar, in particular the description about Rotterdam in chapter 4, and in the article Redevelopment o Large Harbour Cities: the case of the Kop van Zuid Project (2001) by Drs. Marco van Hoek.*

<sup>17</sup> [www.rotterdam.nl](http://www.rotterdam.nl)

<sup>18</sup> *The Port administration comes under the local government of Rotterdam, instead of under the national government as usual, facilitating this extension process.*



The Second World War had a deep impact on Rotterdam. The historic city centre was almost completely destroyed by a German bombardment, which explains the lack of historical buildings in this part of the city. The forced reconstruction has given a dynamic character for the city that is constantly reconstructing and reinventing itself. Now, the city centre spatial layout is determined by modern architecture and high-rise buildings.

Rotterdam has close relations with its waterfront and its image is still mainly harbour-related. Until the 1980s Rotterdam was a divided city. The Maas River separated the city centre in the north bank from the harbour grounds and its surrounding neighbourhoods on the south bank. As an effort to re-unit the city, in 1996 the Erasmus Bridge was constructed and has become a new symbol and important landmark on the city skyline.

Another important factor influencing the city image is the multi-cultural society. Currently, people from 174 different nationalities are living in Rotterdam and 45.7% of the population is not of native Dutch origin, which gives a cosmopolitan atmosphere for the city<sup>19</sup>. In recent years the city has developed more and more explicitly into a city of art and culture (van den Berg et al 2000). As a result of this new cultural policy, Rotterdam was selected to Cultural Capital of Europe in 2001 and currently offers many cultural and sports events, leisure and recreation options.

### **Population**

Rotterdam has suffered a process of suburbanisation and extension of the port outside the city during the 1970s, and desurbanisation under the economic recession in the 1980s. However, since the 1990s Rotterdam has been undertaking several urban redevelopment schemes, which characterizes the reurbanisation stage in the city, according to the Urban Life Cycle theory as developed by van den Berg et al (1982).

Rotterdam had experienced a strong population growth since the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, when its economy was flourishing. However, from the 1970s onward the socio-economic problems combined with changes in residential preferences led to years of population losses. Lately, due to economy recovery and policy changes, this process of urban decay had come to an end and since 1985 the population records have shown a slight growth. At present, the functional urban region of Rotterdam counts over 1.4 million people, spread across 18 municipalities covering an area of 598,32 square kilometres. While the municipality of Rotterdam counts 598.923 inhabitants and covers an area of 304,22 square kilometres. Rotterdam is the second largest city in the country and, on the European level, is considered a secondary city in terms of number of inhabitants.

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<sup>19</sup> [www.rotterdam.nl](http://www.rotterdam.nl)

## **Economy**

Located on the delta of the Maas River, the economy of the Rotterdam region is still mainly based on the harbour, which counts as the largest port in the world, contributing with 7% of the Gross National Product (GNP). The city is the commercial and industrial heart of the Netherlands. The Port serves as an important international logistic node and centre of trade, and also hosts Europe's largest petrochemical complex. Despite of the growing harbour activities, Rotterdam's position as European mainport is not unchallenged, due to an increasing competition from other ports in several important sectors, which requires large investments to modernise the infrastructure of the port and the city.

After the economic recession of the early 1980s, Rotterdam has been facing a rapid and positive growth in various aspects. The city profited from its reputation as a good location for business services and residence for higher income people. However, the city economy remains vulnerable in relation to its ability to create jobs. As a result of modernisation of the maritime transport technologies, the role of the port in terms of employment has been reduced drastically over the last decades. Rotterdam faces the highest unemployment rates in the Netherlands, especially among immigrants and low skilled people, who represents about one fifth of the population.

Apart from the harbour-related problems, Rotterdam has been also confronted with serious urban problems, such as social exclusion, shortage of housing space, environmental pollution and increasing traffic congestion, which gives bad image for the city in terms of the quality of life. In order to tackle these issues, the current efforts for development are focussed in foster local economic growth and broaden the city's economic base as well as link the city and the port in a sustainable way to prevent further socio-economic disparities.

## **Administrative Structure**

The Netherlands has both centralised and decentralised forms of public administration. Since the 19<sup>th</sup> century the administrative structure of the Netherlands has followed three levels of government: national, provinces and municipalities. There is a strong tradition of unified thinking where the organisation, tasks and responsibilities are defined by the national legislator and are essentially the same for all provinces and municipalities as an effort to eliminate differences within the country. Great importance is attached to pre-decision involvement and consultation. Democratic validity of administrators and clarification of tasks and responsibilities are also considered important.

The public administration was considered centralised once the central government lays down national policies and provide the financial means for implementation at local level. However, the central administration encourages regional partnerships at municipal level, which sometimes counts with the participation of the province or the national governments, to undertake public tasks with influence at city or regional levels.

Since 2002, the introduction of a dual form of administration at local level between the municipal executive (mayor and aldermen) and the municipal council has brought the roles of municipal executive and the council into focus. In this system, every four years the citizens vote to elect the municipal council. The council appoints the aldermen and the mayor is appointed by the Crown (Queen and Government ministers). The municipal council gives advice regarding the appointment. The mayor is chairman of the municipal council and of the municipal executive.

The city of Rotterdam is administratively divided in 13 municipal districts, which have budgets to finance activities and set priorities. People directly elect each municipal district councillor. They have autonomy from the municipal council that is the highest administrative body at local level. The council provides basic policy outlines, monitors the municipal executive and represents the people in decision-making processes. Other tasks of the municipal council are determining the budget allocation, checking the municipal executive's annual accounts, establish local municipal laws and appoint the alderman. The municipal districts are responsible for local issues, such as well-being, sports, leisure activities and street maintenance.

### SWOT Analyses of Rotterdam

<p><b>STRENGTHS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Port</li> <li>• Location and Accessibility</li> <li>• Dynamic/Multi-cultural Society</li> <li>• Modern Architecture</li> </ul>	<p><b>OPPORTUNITIES</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Globalisation</li> <li>• EU enlargement (Access to Labour Market)</li> <li>• High Speed Train System</li> </ul>
<p><b>WEAKNESS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of Heritage</li> <li>• Cultural Conflicts</li> <li>• Low Skilled Labour Force</li> <li>• Unemployment</li> <li>• Insecurity and Social Exclusion</li> <li>• Shortage of Housing Space</li> <li>• Environmental Problems (Pollution, Traffic congestion)</li> </ul>	<p><b>THREATS</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economic Stagnation</li> <li>• Competition from other Ports</li> <li>• Global Warming (Water Floods)</li> <li>• EU enlargement (Unemployment)</li> </ul>

**Table 3.3** SWOT Analyses of Rotterdam

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### 3.3.2 Rotterdam Kop van Zuid Redevelopment Strategy Description

#### Local Conditions

As previously described, the city economy was strongly oriented to the port and its related activities, as well as the employment situation has deteriorated significantly during the 1970s and early 1980s. This situation has made the city of Rotterdam recognize the need for a new policy approach with the main objectives of broaden the city's economic bases, upgrade the living environment, tackle socio-economic disparities and make the city more attractive for investors, residents and visitors. The Town Planning Department (TPD) has played an important role in this process, especially after the appointment of a new director in 1986. One of the first actions of Mrs. Riek Bakker was to determine the strengths and weaknesses of Rotterdam and define possible actions to create new development opportunities for the city as a whole.

The vision 2010, formulated in the second half of the 1980s, represents this integrated approach to urban development of Rotterdam. It characterizes a shift from managing the city on a short term and problem-oriented basis to working in the development of a long-term vision and strategy for the future development of the city. This new policy framework was based in the key concepts of quality, competitiveness and collaboration. The Spatial Plan Rotterdam 2010 has developed and has put into practice several urban renewal projects to upgrade the city, such as the development projects for the city centre and the northern part of Rotterdam and the Kop van Zuid waterfront redevelopment project.

Until the Second World War, the Kop van Zuid was an important harbour area, but since then the port related activities have moved from this centrally located area to the west, in the direction of the North Sea, where the new modern large-scale harbour zone of Rotterdam was developed. This process has left behind obsolete dock basins, underused former port-related buildings and warehouses, which have become available for new urban functions.

Rotterdam was a divided city not only in the physical terms (lack of accessibility), but this segregation was mainly observed in the social and economic differences between the north and the south. Until the 1980s the Maas River separated the city centre in the north bank from the harbour grounds on the south bank and its surrounding neighbourhoods mainly occupied by social housing where many port workers used to live. High unemployment rates, low level of education, high percentage of foreign migrants, low quality of the living environment, weak socio-economic structure and bad image characterized the neighbourhoods surrounding the Kop van Zuid.

Inspired in the experiences of London and Baltimore, the Town Planning Department (TPD) has recognised the high potential of this former port area as an ideal location for large-scale redevelopment to turn this run-down areas into places where people wanted to live and work. The Kop van Zuid waterfront redevelopment project has become a symbol of this shift in the urban planning policy in Rotterdam.

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## Planning Component

The Kop van Zuid is a large waterfront area situated opposite to the city centre, in the southern bank of the Maas River. It covers an area of 125 ha and belongs partly to the city centre and partly to the Feijenoord district. The Kop van Zuid project is an ambitious waterfront regeneration scheme, which aims to redevelop the old port into a new urban area comprising a balanced mix of office, commercial, leisure and housing uses as well as to upgrade the social, economic and physical structure of the area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. The main idea of the project was to make use of this former port area for expansion of the city centre towards the south. However this idea of re-uniting the city has faced some challenges, especially related to the existing social problems in the area, the lack of accessibility to the south bank and the unattractive image of this part of the city.

The Town Planning Department (TPD) in cooperation with an external expert (Teun Koolhaas) have designed a coherent master plan, which viewed the Mass River no longer as a natural barrier but as the heart of the city of Rotterdam. The plan was first conceived in 1987 but it was designed in a flexible way to permit further adjustments. The master plan was based in the key concepts of quality of living environment, accessibility, cross-subdivision and integrated vision of the future development of the city. It combines preservation of cultural and industrial heritage with modern architecture. The core elements of the project are the building of high-grade business locations, the construction of houses, the improvement of access to the area, and the achievement of spin-off effects to the socially weak surroundings (van den Berg et al 2000). The main achievements of the Kop van Zuid master plan by the year of 2001 can be summarised as following (Box 3.4):

### Facts and Figures Rotterdam Kop van Zuid Master Plan

- Total Area: 125 hectares
- Houses: 5.300 new units
- Office Space: 400.000 m<sup>2</sup>
- Business Accommodation: 35.000 m<sup>2</sup>
- Education Facilities: 30.000 m<sup>2</sup>
- Leisure and Other Facilities: 30.000 m<sup>2</sup>
- Erasmus Bridge, new metro station, tram-plus and connection with tram and subway systems
- Total Investment: US\$ 2,50 billion

**Box 3.4** Facts and Figures Kop van Zuid Master Plan (Source: Hoek, R. M. van, (2001) Redevelopment of Large Harbour Cities: the case of Kop van Zuid).

The new Erasmus Bridge has become an essential component of the plan that also has included other infrastructure facilities, such as the construction of a new road access to the ring road (Varkenoordse Viaduct), a new metro station (Wilhelminaplein), a new city railway station, a tram-plus line as well as the connections with the tram and subway systems. However, in order to connect the old harbour area with the city centre and transform it into an attractive living, recreation and working place not only the physical changes are important, but also the social and economical aspects must be taken into account.

To avoid social segregation between the project area and its surroundings, the master plan paid emphatic attention to the social and economic aspects of this urban regeneration scheme to upgrade the immediate neighbourhoods and effectively create connections with the city centre. This initiative resulted in the Mutual Benefit program, a kind of sub-project inside the mega-project, which was started halfway 1991 and came under the responsibility of the Rotterdam City Development Corporation (OBR). The Mutual Benefit program relies on three main pillars: employment generation, strengthen the local social and economic structure and develop innovative products and services.

### **Financial Component**

The development of the Kop van Zuid has required a strong commitment of public and private parties. Once it would be impossible for the municipality of Rotterdam alone covers the total amount of investment to implement the master plan, the involvement of the private sector as well as the national government was necessary. Broadly, the idea was to make the public authorities take the responsibility to finance the improvements on public open space, the new bridge and other infrastructure facilities in order to make the entire project area attractive for the private developers that would be responsible for the investments in buildings.

Regarding the infrastructure implemented by the public sector is important to highlight that for the construction of the Erasmus Bridge the local government has counted on a substantial contribution from the national government. The government has also financed the construction of public office buildings (Municipal Tax Department, Court of Justice, Customs Department, Port Authorities) and educational facilities (Ichthus Hogeschool Rotterdam, Albada College and primary schools). While the private developers have financed the construction of some other office buildings (KPN building by Renzo Piano and World Port Centre by Sir Norman Foster), as well as certain commercial projects (Hotel New York, Cruise Terminal, Entrepot building and Luxor Theatre) and housing projects (Montevideo building and others).

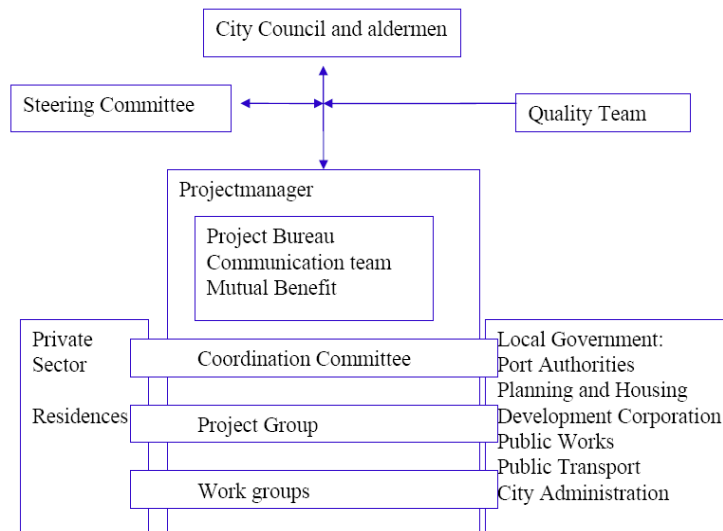
At the beginning of the project implementation the private investors were slow to present themselves. The market conditions in the Kop van Zuid were characterized by a surplus of office space and no interest from the housing market. However, it has changed considerably over time and nowadays the economic development of the area proceeds dynamically. The public investments in infrastructure and the move of some

public buildings to the project area have served as catalysts for the development of the Kop van Zuid. Since them, there is a higher degree of confidence among private developers, increasing considerably its willingness to invest in the project area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. The flexibility of the master plan can be considered an essential element for the success of the project. Thanks to it, the project has changed from office oriented to more housing oriented and could profit from the development of the housing market in the area.

### Organisational Component

Although the citizens of Rotterdam have doubted the feasibility of the master plan, it was approved successively by the city Council (1991), the Province (1992) and the State (1994). A special project organisation was set up to implement the master plan. It has given emphasis to the communication on different levels, from public authorities to neighbourhood organisations. The project organisation also co-ordinates the activities of the various municipal departments involved in the project, among which the Rotterdam City Development Corporation (OBR), the Town Planning and Housing Department (dS+V), the Public Works, the Administrative Department, the Public Transport Company (RET) and the Rotterdam Municipal Port Management.

This close cooperation between public authorities, citizens and experts to monitor the quality of the project distinguish the Kop van Zuid from other European waterfront projects. The so-called Quality Team was composed by a number of experts responsible for advising in all stages of the planning process to safeguard the architectural quality of the project. In the Steering Committee the directors of the different municipal departments together with the architect of the master plan (Teun Koolhaas) were supervising the project. Besides the Project Bureau a Communication Team was installed to create a uniform public image and support for the project while the Mutual Benefit Team was responsible to provide programs for linking the renewed area to its surrounding neighbourhoods.



**Figure 3.5** Kop van Zuid Project Organisational Chart (Source: Kop van Zuid – City of Tomorrow, Infocentre)

### **Physical, Economic and Social Effects**

Although at least 25 years are needed to see the full effects of this kind of large-scale urban transformation, some physical, economic and social effects of the Kop van Zuid project can already be observed. Those effects may represent a positive spin-off from the redevelopment strategy to the area and its surrounding neighbourhoods.

The physical effects can be measured in terms of improvements in the quality of the public space and infrastructure of the project area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. The Erasmus Bridge is now the symbol of Rotterdam, upgrading the city's internal accessibility. Regarding the image of the area, the psychological barrier seems to be demolished and nowadays there is much more interaction between the north and the south banks. In a broader sense, the Kop van Zuid has changed the image of the city as a whole, adding to the pride of residents and enriching its status as a working, harbour and industrial city with such elements as shopping, entertainment, sports, culture and arts.

In terms of economic effects, the redevelopment project has enhanced the opportunities of the area. Housing Corporations and private developers interests in invest in the Kop van Zuid have increased considerably. Although some indirect jobs with complementary services were created, the project was not significant in terms of provision of new job opportunities for the existing residents of the surrounding neighbourhoods. In terms of social effects, the demographic composition of the Feijnoord district has changed considerably. The project has attracted higher income residents and consequently the area scores better than before in socio-economic indicators. On the other hand, the surrounding neighbourhoods have retained its original low-income and low-skilled composition.

### **3.3.3 Analysis of Rotterdam Kop van Zuid**

#### **Vision and Strategy**

Developing a clear vision and strategy for the Kop van Zuid area, within the vision 2010 for the city as a whole, as well as create linkages between the project and the city centre and other areas on the south bank was vital for the success of the redevelopment project. Another important element was the flexible regional planning approach. Instead of implementing a “strictly” defined master plan with pre-determined time frame, the project took the master plan as a potential starting point and during the project implementation continuous adaptations could be made on the basis of new market developments and or interests by private and public sector (van Hoek 2001). Finally, the flagship projects, designed by internationally renowned architects for the project area, were extensively used within the communication strategies. This marketing tool has promoted international recognition for the project and speed up the process of receiving attention inside and outside Rotterdam, which certainly have contributed for the success of the Kop van Zuid.



## **Leadership**

A small group of people in the Town Planning Department (TPD), the Rotterdam City Development Corporation (OBR) and in the City Council took the initiative for this large-scale redevelopment project. This strong leadership has recognised the need to stimulate and organise different types of networks and partnerships, which was essential to get the necessary commitment from other governmental, societal and private actors in order to start up the project and later the implementation process. It resulted in a project organisation, as mentioned before, able to implement the plans using informal agreements instead of going through long and bureaucratic procedures. This initiative led to the formation of the information centre where meetings could be held with communities, investors and professionals, and the formation of the quality team as an external advisor group to monitor the architectural quality and to give international recognition to the project.

Another advantage of the role of the leadership group was the ability to adopt an entrepreneurial spirit characterized by initiate new projects, short communication lines, mutual understanding and enthusiasm. The private sector parties have seen this entrepreneurial spirit as a great advantage once it enables flexibility for the implementation of the project.

## **Strategic Networks**

The initial idea for the implementation of the Kop van Zuid project was to organise Public Private Partnerships in order to improve the quality, financial possibilities and incorporate the market forces, as previously mentioned. But during the first stage of negotiations the private developers were not willing to take great risks and required more investments from the public sector. On the other hand, the local government has needed more information regarding the market conditions to improve the quality of the project. The co-operation between different parties is considered a precondition for success, but it also requires flexibility and creativity on part of the public sector to change the plans according to the market opportunities. The key elements for discussion between the parties were based in looking for win-win situations to the benefit of both public and private actors.

Public Public Partnerships between different municipal departments as well as between different levels of government were also an essential pre-condition for a successful implementation of the Kop van Zuid project. A lot of emphasis in the communication and co-operation between different departments or levels of government was given to create the necessary commitment to start the process. In particular, the commitment of the national government to co-finance the infrastructure can be considered the most important element of these strategic networks. But the commitment of local and regional levels of government was also important to secure local support. At local level, this commitment was achieved by one unified communication message and at regional level this willingness to co-operate was achieved improving relations with the suburbs.

### **Political and Societal Support**

In order to increase the possibilities of successes in the implementation of a large-scale waterfront redevelopment project it is necessary to build up a widespread support. Not only the local government, but also the community, private sector and higher levels of government must be committed. The communication strategy to achieve this large-scale support in the Kop van Zuid was mainly to attach great importance to the project, not only for revitalising the area but also for bringing positive effects to the Rotterdam region as a whole, as well as linking the future development of the city with the port. A lot of emphasis was given to the impacts of this project, especially in terms of re-uniting the divided city and its potential benefits for the surrounding neighbourhoods.

At an initial stage the local community was interpreting the project as a treat (gentrification phenomena). However, the municipal authorities have taken into account the local protests and have undertaken an awareness campaign as well as used this opportunity to adapt the project and create potential benefits for the existing communities. As previously explained, the Mutual Benefit team has helped to build up societal support for the project. Finally the information centre for the Kop van Zuid helped to set up communication between the project bureau and all different interest parties (residents, tourists, professionals and potential investors). One of the main results of the efforts to create societal support was the strong commitment of the public sector (political support) to start up and conduct the process. This political support was vital to attract private investments for the project area, creating also financial support.

### **Development Process**

Looking at the relation between the elements of organising capacity of the project organisation and the redevelopment strategy previously described, the analysis of the development process shows that firstly the local government has recognized the development potential for the Kop van Zuid area. Based on this, a clear and integrated vision and strategy was set and the strong leadership has taken the initiative to develop a master plan with good urban development quality and high ambition level for the project area. But, in order to effectively start up the implementation process the local government's leadership group has successfully build up societal and political support as well as has organised strategic networks to share the project risks and increase the availability of financial resources from public and private sectors.

The role of the public sector was extended from being the initiator to being also the major developer and risk taker. In an initial stage, due to the local market conditions, the public sector has taken all the project risks. It was responsible to implement the infrastructure and move some public services for the project area. This initiative has made the Kop van Zuid more attractive for private developers in a secondary stage, increasing their willingness to invest and share risks with the public sector.

## **Chapter 4: Rio de Janeiro Case Study**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a brief description of the city of Rio de Janeiro and analyses its potential waterfront redevelopment project, through the conceptual and theoretical framework described in chapter two. The purpose of this analysis is to identify and understand the factors causing no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan, focused on the organisational components of this redevelopment strategy.

### **4.2 “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan**

#### **4.2.1 Profile of Rio de Janeiro**

##### **Spatial Situation**

Rio de Janeiro is the capital city of the state of Rio de Janeiro, located in the southeastern region of Brazil. Following São Paulo in terms of economic importance in the national context, Rio is the second largest metropolitan region and one of the most important centres of tourism, culture and services of the country.

Rio de Janeiro is the main gateway to Brazil. So-called the “Wonderful City”, the combination of sea and mountains makes Rio one of the most beautiful cities in the world and one of the main focuses of the travel industry in Latin America. The city counts with good national, regional and international accessibility. Rio de Janeiro has an international and a small regional airport and counts on well-developed road network connection with other major cities in the region, such as São Paulo and Belo Horizonte.

##### **Culture and Historical Background**

The city of Rio de Janeiro was founded in the 1565 when the Portuguese took possession of the land and established a little settlement in the Guanabara Bay shoreline, between the “Cara de Cão” Hill and the Sugar Loaf. The port of Rio de Janeiro was built in the early 18<sup>th</sup> century in an area close to this first Portuguese settlement, and further expanded, during the Brazil’s coffee boom from the mid 18<sup>th</sup> century onwards. The port of Rio de Janeiro is closely linked to the economic, social and cultural development of Brazil. In that sense we can say that the economic development of the city, the region and the country has influenced the expansion of the port and its related activities.

The excellent navigation conditions offered by the Guanabara Bay and the favourable geographical location within the context of Brazilian lands turned the city of Rio de Janeiro into the capital of the kingdom with the arrival of the Portuguese Royal

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Family in 1808. This fact led to a period of urban growth, socio-economic development, and cultural and spatial transformations in the city. Rio de Janeiro had become at that time the most important province of Brazil, in terms of socio-economical, political and cultural aspects. In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, Rio de Janeiro's position in the political national context was ensured with the establishment of Brazil's First Republic, as well as the emergence of Brazil as the world's leading coffee producer. These facts led the entire country to a period of economic prosperity and consequently to the modernization of the port of Rio de Janeiro. Moreover, in the 1950s the president Juscelino Kubitschek transferred the political capital of the Federative Republic of Brazil to Brasilia. At the same time, São Paulo had overcome Rio de Janeiro in terms of economic importance in the national context. Over the last five decades, the city of Rio de Janeiro has been suffering the consequences of lost its political and economic powers.

Throughout the entire 19<sup>th</sup> century, the city spread gradually along the shoreline and towards the north and south zones, due to investments in the transport infrastructure (roads, railroads and trams). The neighbourhoods surrounding the port had grown into a working class housing area. It is also interesting to highlight that the first “favela” (slum) of Brazil has appeared on “Morro da Providencia” hill, located in Rio docklands' immediate surroundings. By the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, this area was almost completely occupied, from the shoreline to its hills, characterized by Portuguese colonial architecture buildings and narrow streets. In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, after a long period of planning, the old port of Rio de Janeiro suffered a huge urban intervention (landfill) that build up a new flat area along the shoreline for the expansion and modernization of the port facilities. After that, no more large-scale urban interventions were made and the spatial layout and social composition of the old port area of Rio de Janeiro and its surrounding neighbourhoods remains almost the same until today.

Rio de Janeiro is a city of contrasts, with extreme differences in the welfare of certain groups of citizens, high levels of poverty and inequalities. This growing polarisation between rich and poor and social exclusion are the main causes of many conflicts and urban violence. Despite its serious urban problems, the image of the city is still mainly related to its natural beauty, good weather, cultural events, history and the happiness of its residents. The city has two landmarks well known all over the world: the Sugar Loaf and the Statue of Christ, the Redeemer.

Rio de Janeiro, as a Port City, keeps close relations with its waterfront and its best-known leisure and recreation options are the beaches. Its coastline and mountains, many parks and open spaces determine the city spatial layout. However, the built environment is also important. The inner city districts are characterized by a pacific coexistence between historical (Portuguese colonial architecture) and modern buildings. The city has many internationally famous cultural events, such as the Carnival and the New Year celebrations, which attracts even more tourists. As result of recent public efforts to bring International sports events for the city, Rio de Janeiro will host the 2007 Pan American Games. The local government believes that this kind

of event can bring positive effects to the city, especially in terms of creating jobs, attracting visitors and investors, as well as mobilizing resources.

Recent urban policies within the city have given special attention to sustainable development. But, Rio still needs to address fundamental issues, such as poverty, unemployment, growing polarisation between rich and poor, traffic congestion, the increasing need for infrastructure and affordable quality housing, the lack of an integrated vision for the future development of the city, which represents serious challenges to both, the economic competitiveness and social equity in Rio de Janeiro.

### **Population**

As a result of the uneven distribution of economic activities in Brazil, the country has suffered a process of strong internal migration from 1940 to 1960, characterized by people moving from the centre, north and northeast regions to big metropolitan areas, such as Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, in order to obtain better job opportunities and better quality of life. This phenomenon led to a fast and disorganized urban growth in the city of Rio de Janeiro, which has increased drastically the demand for housing and public infrastructure and has resulted in many informal settlements and slums.

Although the urban growth rate has decreased dramatically in the last years, the city is still facing the consequences of this uncontrolled process. Despite the local government's efforts to regulate urban development and provide urban infrastructure services for all citizens, the process of creation of new slums and informal settlements proceeds dynamically. This issue have a direct impact on the impoverishment of the quality of urban life and contributes to the process of decay of inner city districts.

From the 1970s onwards, Rio de Janeiro has suffered an unsustainable urban sprawl process, characterized by higher-income people moving to new suburban areas that offer better life conditions. This suburbanisation process was market-oriented and facilitated by the expansion of roads network within the city. It has given birth to new centralities, such as Barra da Tijuca. This urban growth pattern has stimulated the process of decay of Rio's downtown and has increased the segregation between poor and rich neighbourhoods as well as represents higher costs for infrastructure service and public transport provision.

Since the 1990s, the local government is undertaking inner city revitalisation and slum upgrading projects (Rio Cidade and Favela Bairro programmes) as a strategy to reverse the process decay of inner city districts, improve the quality of life and the image of the city as a whole and foster local economic growth, characterizing the reurbanisation stage of urban development in Rio de Janeiro, according to the Urban Life Cycle theory, as developed by van den Berg et al (1982).

Altogether, the municipalities of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo accommodate nearly 20% of total Brazilian population of 188 million people. Rio de Janeiro's metropolitan region counts about 11 million inhabitants distributed among 13 municipalities within a total area of 740.000,00 ha. The municipality of Rio de Janeiro consists of 5,85 million inhabitants (approximately 1 million people living in

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slums) spread in an urban area of 125.528,00 ha<sup>20</sup>, being considered a primary city in terms of number of inhabitants within the Latin America context.

### **Economy**

During the 1950s, Brazil had been facing a period of extraordinary economic prosperity characterized by a shift from an agricultural to industrial basis due to massive multinational investments<sup>21</sup>. The Rio-São Paulo axis is Brazil's industrial engine, being responsible for more than 20% of the total GNP of the country. Most of this industrial growth was located in São Paulo that consequently, has overcome Rio de Janeiro in terms of economic importance in the national context. It is evident that Rio de Janeiro has to improve its competitive advantages in terms of attractiveness of new economic investments, broaden its economic basis and foster local economic growth as an effort to tackle the increasing socio-economic disparities and high poverty and unemployment rates.

Rio de Janeiro is one of the main focuses of tourism industry in Brazil. The city economy is based on tourism, service and financial sectors, but also counts with a mix of formal and informal small-scale businesses. Although Rio de Janeiro is aware of the importance of tourism sector to the local economy, there is very little divulgation of the city in international markets and the number of tourists is far below the city potential, when compared to other destinations. The local authorities have adopted some strategies to stimulate the industry, but the sector still relies much on private initiatives.

### **Administrative Structure**

The administrative structure in Brazil follows three levels of government: federal, states and municipalities. The Brazilian form of public administration is considered strongly decentralized in terms of political, administrative and financial autonomy, once the national government has transferred many tasks and responsibilities to the municipal level. Municipalities in Brazil have constitutional powers to determine their own organization and functions, as well as establish their own municipal constitution and laws and decide their policy frameworks and budget allocation. In this system, every four years the citizens vote directly to elect the mayor and the municipal council. At the same time, this municipal autonomy represents a challenge within the context of a metropolitan region like Rio de Janeiro, once it makes difficult to achieve the required co-operations and co-ordination between independent municipalities in sectors of common interest and regional planning<sup>22</sup>.

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<sup>20</sup> PCRJ (2000). *Anuário Estatístico da Cidade do Rio de Janeiro*. PCRJ/Instituto Pereira Passos, Rio de Janeiro.

<sup>21</sup> Abreu, M. (1997). *Evolução Urbana do Rio de Janeiro*. PCRJ/Secretaria Municipal de Urbanismo, Rio de Janeiro.

<sup>22</sup> Acioly Jr., C. (2001). *Reviewing urban revitalisation strategies in Rio de Janeiro: from urban project to urban management approaches*. *Geoforum* 32, Pergamon.

Rio de Janeiro has a democratic and effective local government with a relatively high degree of public participation in decision-making process as an effort to improve urban governance and deal with the most important issues. The city is divided in 33 administrative regions under the responsibility of 19 sub municipalities<sup>23</sup>. The mayor, who represents the highest political power at the local level, appoints each sub mayor, as a position of confidence. This sub municipal level has become an important administrative tool for the interface between local demand, local political processes and the municipal government. Its role is mainly related to promote public consultations and represent the local people needs in decision-making processes, somehow a type of “extension of the mayor office” which may be closer to the citizens. However, these sub municipalities have no planning or budget autonomy.

### SWOT Analyses of Rio de Janeiro

<b>STRENGTHS</b>	<b>OPPORTUNITIES</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Location and Accessibility</li> <li>• Natural Beauty</li> <li>• Touristy Attractiveness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tourism Sector</li> <li>• International Events (Pan American Games 2007)</li> </ul>
<b>WEAKNESS</b>	<b>THREATS</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Levels of Poverty, Inequalities and Social Exclusion</li> <li>• Low Skilled Labour Force</li> <li>• Unemployment</li> <li>• Insecurity and Urban Violence</li> <li>• Infrastructure and Housing Deficit</li> <li>• Environmental Problems (Pollution, Traffic congestion)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economic Stagnation</li> <li>• Outsourcing Manufacturing Industries</li> </ul>

**Table 4.1** SWOT Analyses of Rio de Janeiro

<sup>23</sup> [www.rio.rj.gov.br](http://www.rio.rj.gov.br)

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## 4.2.2 “Porto do Rio” Redevelopment Strategy Description

### Local Conditions

Due to changes in the Brazilian economy and in maritime transport technologies previously described, which led to appearance of new ports along the coastline, the port of Rio de Janeiro has no longer the same importance in the national and international context. At the same time, since the 1970s Rio de Janeiro has been dealing with a similar process of decline observed in many other Port Cities, such as London and Rotterdam. Inspired in the experiences of some of the world’s great Port Cities that are slowly reclaiming their docks areas as recreation and tourism hubs, housing complexes and cultural enterprises<sup>24</sup>, Rio de Janeiro is facing a huge challenge: the redevelopment of its old urban port area as a starting point of a new cycle of economic, social and cultural development of the entire city.

The old port area of Rio de Janeiro, commonly called “Porto do Rio”, is a large area centrally located. Over the last twenty years, as a result of containerisation and automatisisation, the old port of Rio de Janeiro is underutilized and most of the activities have moved to a new and high technology port, called “Porto de Sepetiba”, outside the inner city district. In 2000, less than 30% of the total amount of port activities in the state of Rio de Janeiro was still located in “Porto do Rio”<sup>25</sup>. This progressive reduction of port and industrial activities in the old port of Rio had a major impact on the local economy and in the physical and social aspects of quality of life in the area, which is currently characterised by vacant land and underused or obsolete buildings, dilapidated housing environment, deteriorated infrastructure, high crime and unemployment rates. Since the 19<sup>th</sup> century, its surrounding neighbourhoods are mainly occupied by social housing for people who used to work in manufacturing and port related activities. Even after years of decay, the area has strong community associations and cultural activities. The local economy structure is based on formal and informal small-scale businesses (commerce and industrial) and services.

Despite its strategic location and high potential in case of extension of Rio’s central business district, the area is not integrated within the city centre context. The current local socio-economic conditions have contributed in the process of population loss and segregation over the last years that also has determined the area’s bad image. In 1906 the port of Rio’s surrounding neighbourhoods (Saúde, Gamboa and Santo Cristo) were the most densely occupied area in the city, housing approximately 15% of the total of residents, but in 2004 this number decreased 15,7% while the population in the city increased 6,9%. At the present moment, the population in the old port area of Rio counts around 22.294 inhabitants, which represents only 0,4% of

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<sup>24</sup> Pinheiro, A. I. F and Rabha, N.M. (2004) *Porto do Rio de Janeiro – Construindo a Modernidade*. Ed. Andrea Jakobsson, Rio de Janeiro.

<sup>25</sup> CIDE(2000), *Anuário Estatístico do Estado do Rio de Janeiro. CIDE 1989 a 2000, Rio de Janeiro*.



the total population in the city<sup>26</sup>. However, the number of tourists arriving in cruise ships raised from 11.000 in 1994 to over 100.000 in 2004, increasing the needs to develop this area into a new tourism hub.

During the last two decades, the local authorities have recognised the importance of undertake a waterfront redevelopment strategy in the old port area of Rio de Janeiro, to turn this run down areas into places where people want to live and work. In this urban regeneration scheme, the municipality of Rio de Janeiro has taken the initiative to develop and discuss with the population so that finally in 2001, could start up the revitalisation process of the old port of Rio de Janeiro.

### **Planning Component**

“Porto do Rio” is a large waterfront area situated immediately adjacent to the historical city centre of Rio de Janeiro. The project covers an area of 317,70ha and belongs to the city centre administrative region (I RA). It comprises the waterfront from “Praça Mauá” to “Gasômetro” and the surrounding neighbourhoods of “Saúde”, “Gamboa” and “Santo Cristo”, including the hills of “Morro da Conceição” and “Morro da Providência”. “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan is an ambitious waterfront regeneration strategy, which proposes to redevelop the old port into a new urban area comprising a balanced mix of offices, housing, commercial, culture and entertainment uses. It also aims to upgrade the social, economic and physical structure of the area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. This redevelopment strategy has the final objective to increase the attractiveness of the area for new residents, tourists and investors. According to Alfredo Syrkis<sup>27</sup> (1994), “In the near future, the Port of Rio will become a meeting point, an entertainment centre offering culture, outings and even space for contemplation. Rio will be reborn. The Port of Rio will once again play a leading role in the life of the City.”

The Municipal Urban Planning Institute Pereira Passos (IPP) has designed a coherent master plan. The main idea of the project is to re-integrate the old port area into the city centre context and reverse its cyclical process of decay. However, this idea has faced some challenges especially related to the existing segregation and social problems in the area, the lack of good public transport connections within the area and with the city centre and the unattractive image of this part of the city. The master plan was conceived in 2001 and was designed in a flexible way to permit further adjustments. It comprises approximately 20 integrated projects based on the key concepts of improving local socio-economic conditions and quality of life for exiting communities, improving transport accessibility and urban infrastructure, ensuring a balanced mix of uses and promoting cultural and historical preservation of Portuguese

<sup>26</sup> Sirkis, O.M. and Fialho Jr., R.C. (2004). *Porto do Rio: Tendências e Demandas*. In: *Revitalização de Centros Urbanos em Áreas Portuárias – Entre a Renovação e a Preservação do Patrimônio Histórico* vol 4. AFEBA, Ed. 7 letras, Rio de Janeiro. Source: IBGE Censo 2000.

<sup>27</sup> Alfredo Sirkis is the Municipal Urban Planning Secretary of the City of Rio de Janeiro, he is currently in charge of the Port of Rio Redevelopment Plan.

colonial architecture buildings, old warehouses, port and industrial buildings with historical value combined with modern architecture.

The redevelopment strategy consists basically in giving new uses to the old port buildings, constructing offices, commercial and service space, cultural equipments and housing units and also inner city revitalization projects in order to foster local economic growth and sustainable development. The master plan also proposes the implementation of special cultural equipments and flagship projects (City of Samba and Guggenheim Museum) as catalyst for urban transformation increasing the tourist attractiveness of the area.

The transport infrastructure has become an essential component of the master plan improving the internal accessibility in “Porto do Rio” and also creating physical connections between the project area and the city centre. The plan includes a new tram system, road improvements and cycle ways. However, in order to effectively create connections not only the physical accessibility must be improved, but also the social and economic aspects of the area. One of the major concepts of “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan is try to avoid social segregation and gentrification phenomenon in the project area. Based on it, the master plan has paid attention to the local poor communities’ needs and proposes the construction of several facilities for the benefit of its residents (“Gamboa” Sports Centre). It also previews the use of some loan tools, land use and tax incentives (“Zonas de Estímulo Fiscal”) to strength the local economy, encouraging the transitions from informal to formal and creating new job opportunities for the local people.

The master plan was developed with community participation in decision-making and planning processes, which has been essential to build up societal support. The community participation strategy adopted by the local government has included seminars, exhibitions, thematic workshops with experts, high exposition in media (TV, radio and newspaper), public hearings and many meetings with the local residents. This communication strategy has given good opportunities for residents, businesses and special interest organizations, to discuss their ideas and demands with experts regarding the redevelopment plan. At the same time, strategic networks have been organized to bring together and encourage interactions between the main stakeholders of the area (local, state and central governments, federal agencies and port authorities, private sector, financing institutions and civil society). The urban development quality, sustainability and successful implementation of the master plan depends basically on interactions and strategic networks between these major stakeholders related to the area as well as political and societal support.

The master plan was officially launched in 2001 and the redevelopment strategy previews an implementation time in a minimum of 10 to 15 years. Moreover, up to this moment almost nothing has concretely happened in terms of physical, economic and social transformation, which leads to the conclusion that the local government is facing problems to give impulse to the implementation process of “Porto do Rio”.

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In the last 5 years, the project organisation has developed new land use legislation, several infrastructure, inner city revitalization and housing projects, special cultural equipment projects and plans for changing the uses of underutilized public buildings. However, up to 2006 only the projects for the City of Samba and the “Gamboa” Sports Centre were implemented. Both projects were fully constructed with public investments. The first one has the objective to create a new cultural and tourist attraction and recover the traditional samba activities in the area. The second one is part of a municipal programme to provide sports and leisure facilities to poor communities. The next steps include the implementation of projects to give new urban functions for the old warehouses, the construction of a new cruiser passenger terminal and the implementation of inner city revitalization and housing projects.

### **Financial Component**

The redevelopment of the old port of Rio de Janeiro requires a strong commitment between the public and private parties to encourage partnership solutions, because it is impossible for the municipality of Rio de Janeiro alone to cover the total amount of investments required to implement the master plan. The involvement of the private sector, financing institutions and higher levels of government is also necessary. The main idea is to make the local government responsible for an initial investment of approximately R\$170 million (US\$80 million) in a period of 4 years. This initial public investments would finance mainly the urban revitalization of public spaces, renewal of the existing and the construction of new transport and public service infrastructure, in order to make the project area more attractive for private investors who would be responsible for an investment of approximately R\$3 billions (US\$1.4 billion) in a period of 10 years<sup>28</sup>.

As a result of the suburbanisation process and the urban development towards the north and south zones, the areas centrally located are facing a process of population losses and segregation, being occupied mainly for low-income dwellers that cannot afford better locations. In the case of the old port area of Rio and its immediate surroundings this situation is even worst due to the local socio-economic conditions previously mentioned, which leads to the conclusion that the current local market conditions are not favourable for housing investments. In this perspective we can say that the redevelopment strategy for “Porto do Rio” goes in the opposite direction of the housing market demands in the city. But, following the international trends of waterfront redevelopment strategies adopted in other port cities, the local government investments in urban renewal in the old port area of Rio de Janeiro aims to increase the market value of properties in the project area to achieve the final objective of revitalising the inner city districts.

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<sup>28</sup> Source: *Municipal Urban Planning Institute Pereira Passos (IPP)*

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## Organisational Component

The “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan and all other integrated projects were developed by the Municipal Urban Planning Institute Pereira Passos (IPP), which is the municipal body concerned with urban planning, urban indicators, strategic projects and urban sector studies and programme management<sup>29</sup>. This municipal institute used to work in close relations with other municipal departments, private sector and community organisations in the development and implementation of inner city revitalisation and slum upgrading projects (Rio Cidade and Favela Bairro programmes). IPP has also played an important role in modernizing the information management and creating a decision-making support system for the municipality of Rio de Janeiro. This municipal institute used to have direct access to the mayor’s office, autonomy and flexibility similar to private sector organisations. However, IPP’s leading role and prestige has changed over time. In the current administration, this body continues as an urban planning department, but IPP has lost its strong political support and decision-making powers that constitute essential elements for guarantee the implementation of large-scale projects.

### 4.2.3 Analysis of “Porto do Rio”

#### Vision and Strategy

The “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan allows the local government of Rio de Janeiro to perceive the old port area through a coherent, broad and feasible strategy linked with the integrated vision of the future spatial, economic and social development of the city. This vision and strategy were conceived by initiatives from political leaderships during the two consecutive administrations of the Mayor Cesar Maia (2000-04 and 2004-08). Moreover, this vision and strategy are extremely vulnerable due to changes in the political scenario with the next municipal elections in 2008. This type of vulnerability reduces the levels of confidence in long-term redevelopment schemes, bringing difficulties, especially in the organisation of Public Private Partnerships.

Another important element is the flexibility in planning. The master plan has been used as a guideline and a potential starting point, but continuous adaptations are being made during the implementation process to address the market requirements, the interests of the civil society, private and public sectors. A good example of this flexibility in planning is the case of the Guggenheim Museum designed by the internationally renowned architect Jean Nouvel that was planned to be a flagship project and one of the main elements of the new cultural cluster in the old port area of Rio. The project implementation was suspended in 2004 due to a strong negative reaction from the civil society (community and experts).

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<sup>29</sup> Acioly Jr., C. (2001). *Reviewing urban revitalisation strategies in Rio de Janeiro: from urban project to urban management approaches*. *Geoforum* 32, Pergamon.

## **Leadership**

During two decades, the local authorities have been discussing the revitalization of Rio docklands, but nothing concretely happened. However, from 2000 onwards the mayor's office has been deeply involved in initiate the revitalization plan for the old port of Rio de Janeiro. A small group of people in the Municipal Urban Planning Institute Pereira Passos (IPP), directly linked to the mayor's office, has taken the initiative to develop, discuss with the population and start up the implementation process of "Porto do Rio" Revitalization Plan.

From my own observations, it was possible to conclude that the leadership of IPP has been facing some challenges mainly related to lack of political support and decision-making powers that constitute essential elements to guarantee the implementation of large-scale projects. As previously mentioned, this municipal institute was originally conceived to have direct access to the mayor's office, autonomy and flexibility similar to private sector organisations. But, IPP's leading role and prestige has been reduced over time due to recent changes in the political scenario. This fact leads to the conclusion that the local government should set up a governmental organisation with strong institutional stability, autonomy and political support to represent the public sector interest. This type of organisational institution would avoid problems related to the local political vulnerability and increase the levels of confidence in the implementation of long-term redevelopment strategies.

## **Strategic Networks**

From the interviews realized with experts involved since the early stages of "Porto do Rio" Revitalisation Plan, it was possible to find out that although some negotiations were already in process, up to 2006 no one Public Public and or Public Private Partnership had been set up. From this fact it is possible to conclude that the local government failed to organise strategic networks and encourage interactions between the major stakeholders of the area (local, state and central governments, federal agencies and port authorities, private sector, financing institutions and civil society). The local government's ability to organise these strategic networks can be considered an essential precondition for the successful implementation of "Porto do Rio" Revitalisation Plan.

At the beginning of the negotiations, the private sector has shown no willingness to invest in the area due to the high project risks. In addition, there is no confidence that the local authorities will keep the process moving forward due to possible political changes during the long time, which is necessary for the project implementation. The communication strategy used for the local government did not succeed in creating the co-operation required for Public Private Partnerships. Recent negotiations between public and private sector have been showing that this situation can change over time. The private developers are increasing their willingness to invest in the area. But, they are requiring more investments from the public sector in order to share the project risks and increase the levels of confidence in the local government.

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At the same time, the local authorities are also trying to bring together higher levels of government and establish Public Public Partnerships, especially with federal agencies and port authorities that are the main landowners of the area in order to effectively make this land available for redevelopment. Another municipal initiative is the SPE (“Sociedade de Propósito Específico”), a partnership between the local government and the main financing institutions in the country, such as BNDES, “Caixa Econômica Federal”, “Fundos de Pensão”. This strategic network aims to increase the availability of resources and economic investments in the area.

### **Political and Societal Support**

The urban development quality and successful implementation of the “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan depends basically on the local government’s ability to build up political and societal support. The master plan was developed with public participation in decision-making and planning processes. The communication strategy adopted by the local government during the planning process has given good opportunities for residents, businesses and special interest organizations, to discuss their ideas and demands with experts regarding the redevelopment plan, which has been essential to build up societal support. However, recently this wide support has reduced considerably due to that fact that although many plans were designed, almost nothing has concretely happened, reducing people’s confidence in the local government. Due to common conflicts between political leaderships at local, state and federal levels of government in Brazil, it is quite difficult to build up political support from higher levels of government. In the case of “Porto do Rio” the redevelopment project is characterized by lack of commitment from higher levels of government.

### **Development Process**

According to the data collected through interviews, one of the main challenges that “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan has been facing is related to the land property situation in the project area. Due to the successive changes in the political status of Rio de Janeiro and the way the old port area was build up (landfill), most of the vacant or underutilized land in the area belongs to different levels of government, federal agencies, port authorities and institutions. It is fundamental to organise strategic networks between the local government and the landowners to have this land available for urban redevelopment. Zoning plan, land use legislation and tax incentives are key elements for discussion between parties looking for win-win situations. The local government has already initiated these negotiations and a new land use legislation is already under appreciation of the municipal council to be approved. Another important challenge is related to a mistake in the initial phase of the planning process. Some of the warehouses and port buildings initially planned for new urban uses are still being used for the port activities. The real availability of these buildings depends on agreements with the Port Authorities. These facts leads to the conclusion that the vulnerable and bureaucratic system of public administration in Rio requires a strong leadership, political and societal support to organise these strategic networks in order to give impulse to the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan.

## **Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the general conclusions and most relevant lessons learned from the three case studies selected in order to answer the research questions. Based on the analytical generalisation of these results, this chapter has the final purpose of draw theoretical and practical recommendations for the case of “Porto do Rio” – The Urban Restructuring and Revitalization Plan of the Old Port of Rio de Janeiro.

### **5.2 General Conclusions from European Case Studies**

Although the theoretical framework of this research has already addressed the first research question, this section reviews some fundamental issues related to the development process and presents general conclusions from the analysis of London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid, regarding their success and failures, in order to provide a better understanding about how a waterfront redevelopment process can be organised.

From the theoretical framework previously described it is important to conclude that general information concerning the spatial and socio-economic context of the city and of the project area are fundamental elements to understand the dynamics of urban development and the city port relation. This integrated vision forms the basis for formulating the waterfront redevelopment strategy that must be well oriented to the opportunities and threats of the entire urban region liking the project area with the future development of the city.

Particularly from the Integrated Urban Development framework it is possible to find out three different stages of the development process. In the initiative stage the local conditions are taken into consideration by the project organisation in order to achieve the best possible balance between urban development quality, market requirements and financial prospects. This first phase will determine the major issues to be addressed in the planning stage, in which the project organisation must pursue a synergy between the elements of development potential, ambition level and project risk. This synergy depends basically on the performance of the project organisation in relation to the elements of organising capacity framework previously mentioned. It also has major influence in the implementation stage that leads to an improved local context and sustainable development with positive effects for the project area and for the city as a whole.

From the European case studies it is possible to conclude that several Port Cities around the world have experienced a gradual shift of port and manufacturing activities outside the inner city areas. Most large ports are becoming a separate cluster of activities instead of being a centre of economic growth and employment inside the

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cities<sup>30</sup>. These Port Cities are being increasingly confronted with old port and manufacturing areas centrally located that have become available for redevelopment on one hand and urban problems, such as unemployment, social exclusion, shortage of housing space and the need to broaden its economic base, on the other hand. This challenge of being competitive not only in the port-related economic scale, but also on urban scale results in waterfront redevelopment projects as an opportunity for a renewed and positive use of the port in the urban context, as well as develops the city as an attractive service centre for the port (van Hoek, 2001).

The London Docklands was probably the most ambitious large-scale waterfront regeneration scheme in UK. The master plan proposes the redevelopment of the former port into a new urban area comprising high quality office buildings, luxury waterfront apartments, and service, commercial and entertainment space which might be used for the eastward extension of the London's financial core. This development strategy has created a model of segregation of land uses and has had a very slow socio-economic consolidation. This approach was the antithesis of the strategic planning and was characterized by market-oriented urban policies and top down decision-making processes. It has benefited the interests of private investors over the local authorities and existing community interests becoming a symbol of the enterprise culture of the 1980s.

According to the academic community, the London Docklands redevelopment strategy was considered successful in securing the property developers interest and enhancing London's competitiveness position in the global economy. The Corporation has played the major role of encourage the private sector to invest in Docklands by developer-friendly planning procedures and incentives. However, it has failed in addressing the local community needs. The Docklands redevelopment has promoted a gentrification phenomenon and has increased social polarization. The LDDC approach has been the subject of much criticism throughout time, especially by promoting undemocratic practices, using the market as major driving force for urban development and marginalizing the participation of London boroughs authorities and existing local communities in planning and decision-making processes. It has been also criticized for having paid minimal attention to the co-ordination of land use, transport infrastructure provision and conservation of historical buildings (Florio and Brownill, 2000), which have contributed for the strategy failure in the first stage of development, as previously described.

The redevelopment strategy was characterized by lack of political support at the local borough level and lack of societal support among the existing communities. Therefore, there was a strong political support from the British central government translated by the establishment of the LDDC, a quasi-autonomous governmental development institution with legal basis, substantial powers, financial resources and political support for conduct the large-scale redevelopment project of Docklands. The

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<sup>30</sup> Berg, L. van den, Pol, P. M. J., Hoek, R. M. van and Speller, C.J.M. (2005). *Investigating the impact of knowledge centres and culture as catalyst for urban transformation. EURICUR, Rotterdam.*



power of this development agency combined with the private sector was the main force to ensure the success of the redevelopment strategy. Moreover, the academic community considers that the success of the Docklands redevelopment strategy in a secondary stage is mainly related to the London government's intervention translated by moving many of its operations into Canary Wharf vacant office buildings and paying the entire costs of extending the Jubilee Line (Florio and Brownill, 2000).

The redevelopment strategy adopted in the case of Rotterdam Kop van Zuid was quite different, being characterized by an integrated vision of the future spatial, economic and social development of the city, flexibility in planning and strong community participation in decision-making process. The Kop van Zuid project proposes the redevelop of the old port into a new urban area comprising a balanced mix of office, commercial, leisure and housing uses as well as to upgrade the social, economic and physical structure of the area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. The main idea of the project was to re-unit the city and make use of this former port area for expansion of the city centre towards the south.

The master plan has paid emphatic attention not only to the physical elements, but also to the social and economic aspects of this urban regeneration scheme to upgrade the area and its surroundings and effectively create connections with the city centre. In that sense, we can conclude that physical renovation combined with economic revitalisation and social inclusion has become key elements of this successful redevelopment strategy. A special governmental project organisation was set up to implement the master plan and co-ordinates the activities of the various municipal departments involved in the project. It has given emphasis to the communication on different levels, from public authorities to neighbourhood organisations. This close cooperation between public authorities, citizens and experts distinguish the Kop van Zuid from other European waterfront projects.

The Kop van Zuid redevelopment project was considered successful in terms of improvements in the quality of the public space and infrastructure of the project area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. This strategy has changed the image of project area and of the city as a whole, as well as has enhanced the economic opportunities of the area. In terms of social aspects, the redevelopment project has created a better social balance and has promoted the involvement of all groups in the community. The integrated vision and strategy, strong leadership with entrepreneurial spirit, good communication strategy to build up strategic networks, political and societal support are the main organising capacities of the project organisation that combined can be considered the most important factor contributing for the successes in the implementation of this redevelopment strategy. But, the academic community considers that some elements of the master plan have not succeed as planned, as far as much of the office buildings are public investments and the main leisure elements, such as the Entrepot building, have failed financially. This fact leads to the conclusion that the redevelopment approach had not paid enough attention to the market requirements and private sector demands.

### 5.3 Lessons Learned from European Case Studies

Due to the fact that each waterfront has individual characteristics, which may be considered unique and unrepeatable, a single case cannot be compared to other situations, even if they appear similar or analogous<sup>31</sup>. However, some common elements of success can be identified through a comparative analysis of the redevelopment strategies adopted in the cases of London Docklands and Rotterdam Kop van Zuid. In order to answer the second research question, this section presents the most relevant lessons learned from European experiences concerning the case of Rio de Janeiro.

- The initiative of using a waterfront redevelopment strategy to transform a run-down urban area into one of the city's most attractive zones for private and public investors, new residents and tourists must be seen as an opportunity to improve the image of the city as a whole and enhance the city's competitiveness position in the global economy.
- One important factor of success is related to the use of water as a main element, enhancing its public entertainment character and its strategic importance for the city spatial layout.
- The redevelopment strategy only goes ahead if there are attractive opportunities for property developers' investments and or if it is heavily subsidized by the public sector minimizing the private investors' risk. The partnership approach must be used to increase the availability of resources and share risks to achieve long-term planning goals.
- The balanced mix of land uses is fundamental to achieve a sustainable urban development, to avoid excessive specialization of function and to ensure the liveability and vivacity of the area.
- A long term vision and an integrated strategy, linking the project area with the further spatial, economic and social development of the city must be seen as essential elements to incorporate the principles of good urban governance and sustainable development into the redevelopment strategy.
- The identification of a strong leadership (group of people, institution or organisation) is needed to initiate, guide and give impulse to the project. Most of the time, this leadership is delegated to special governmental organisations, with stability, powers and resources to conduct the implementation of a redevelopment strategy.
- The elements of political and societal support are essential to keep the development process moving forward. Different levels of government, private sector and civil society must be committed to achieve redevelopment.

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<sup>31</sup> *Adapted from Brutomesso (2001)*

- The use of an effective communication strategy to build up strategic networks and increases opportunities for obtaining political, finance and social support.
- The importance of public participation in decision-making processes and the fundamental need for social criteria in planning, instead of only address the private developers interests.
- Flexibility in planning as an essential precondition to respond to possible changes in public and private interests over time.
- The importance of incorporates the market requirements and opportunities, public and private demands in the redevelopment strategy.
- The overall urban development quality of the project, translated not only in terms of public space and architectural design but also mainly in the importance of land use planning and public transport infrastructure provision as an essential element for the success of the redevelopment strategy.
- The master plan must paid attention not only to physical, but also to social and economic aspects of redevelopment schemes, in order to prevent further segregation between the project area an its surrounding neighbourhoods and effectively upgrade the local conditions bringing “mutual benefits” for the existing communities.
- The best possible balance between urban development quality, market requirements and financial prospects and also the synergy between the elements of potential development, ambition level and project risk must be achieved to ensure a successful redevelopment strategy.

#### **5.4 Conclusions from the Case of Rio de Janeiro**

In order to answer the third research question, this section provides conclusions and main findings of this research in order to understand why there is no progress in the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalization Plan.

The redevelopment of the old urban port area is a new challenge for Rio de Janeiro and must be seen as a starting point of a new cycle of economic, social and cultural development of the whole city. “Porto do Rio” is an ambitious waterfront regeneration strategy, which aims to redevelop the old port into a new urban areas comprising a balanced mix of offices, housing, commercial, culture and entertainment uses. It also aims to upgrade the social, economic and physical structure of the area and its surrounding neighbourhoods. The main idea of the project is to re-integrate this area into the city centre context and reverse the cyclical process of urban decay. The master plan is based on the key concepts of improving local socio-economic conditions, improving transport accessibility and urban infrastructure, ensuring the mix of uses and promoting cultural and historical preservation.

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“Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan was officially launched in 2001, but up to this moment almost nothing has concretely happened in terms of physical, economic and social transformation. Although it is still early to criticise the implementation process, it is possible to draw some preliminary conclusions based on the data collected from interviews with experts from the Municipality of Rio de Janeiro regarding the last 5 years of activities and on the lessons learned from the theoretical framework and practical experiences (European case studies) previously addressed in this study. From this perspective, this delay in the implementation stage of the development process can be explained by the low performance of the project organisation in relation to the elements of organising capacity framework previously analysed.

Although the “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan allows the local government of Rio de Janeiro to perceive the old port area through an integrated vision of the future spatial, economic and social development of the city, this strategy is extremely vulnerable to changes in the political scenario. This vulnerability reduces the levels of confidence in this kind of long-term redevelopment scheme. It brings difficulties in mobilize the private parties in order to increase the availability of resources and share risks with the public organisation. The local government has failed in organise strategic networks and encourage interactions between the major stakeholders of the area (local, state and central governments, federal agencies and port authorities, private sector, financing institutions and civil society), which can be measured especially in terms of Public Public and or Public Private Partnerships.

The leadership has been facing some challenges mainly related to lack of political support, autonomy and decision-making powers that constitute essential elements for guarantee the implementation of large-scale projects. The master plan was developed with community participation in the planning process, which has been essential to build up societal support in an initial stage. However, as previously mentioned, recently this wide support has reduced considerably due to that fact that although many plans were designed, almost nothing has concretely happened, reducing people’s confidence in the local government. At the same time the case of “Porto do Rio” the redevelopment project is characterized by lack of commitment from higher levels of government due to common conflicts between political leaderships at local, state and federal levels of government in Brazil.

From my observations, the case of the Guggenheim Museum can illustrate perfectly this lack of organisational capacities at local level. Although this flagship project might be used as catalyst for urban transformation bringing positive effects for the project area and for the city as a whole, there was neither support from the civil society and private investors nor political support from higher levels of government to carry out the implementation of this internationally renowned cultural equipment. As an effort to keep the redevelopment strategy moving forward, the local government has constructed the City of Samba, which aims to substitute the Guggenheim Museum as main element of the cultural cluster in “Porto do Rio”. Moreover, the impact of this secondary cultural equipment in the tourism sector cannot be compared to the first one in both, national and international contexts.

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## 5.5 Recommendations for the Case of Rio de Janeiro

Even though the extension of successful features for different urban realities and spatial-economic conditions might be always risky and problematic, this section will provide some theoretical and practical recommendations for the case of Rio de Janeiro based on the analytical generalisation of the results from the European case studies.

- Rio de Janeiro need to set clear ambitions about its future. This vision can guide the development of an integrated strategy for tackling physical, social and economic issues at the same time. This approach must be able to bridge the gap between plan and implementation, must ensure the coordination of all plans and projects, must link major stakeholders, and must be financially sustainable, institutionally bound and technically sound. The main idea behind this integrated approach is to create a flying wheel revitalization process.
- Local governments must play a vital role in waterfront redevelopment strategies, but it should move away from the role of provider, towards an enabling role. The public organisation should create favourable conditions to attract investments, enabling the private sector to play the central role and share risks in this revitalization process. Local authorities should focus its attention and policies in upgrading and maintaining public infrastructure and service provision, promoting deregulation and taxes subsidies.
- A successful waterfront redevelopment strategy requires a strong leadership. In the case of Rio de Janeiro this leadership should be able to keep the process going independent of political changes. The local government should set up a governmental organisation with strong institutional stability, autonomy and political support to represent the public sector interest and encourage the organisation of strategic networks between major stakeholders.
- Sometimes it is necessary to carry out a project that lacks societal or political support if that project is part of an integrated vision and strategy for the future spatial, socio and economic development of the city. However, the public participation and communication strategies must be used to build up societal and political support and ensure that the local community needs will be also addressed.
- The municipality of Rio de Janeiro needs to create efficient implementation tools, diminish the bureaucratic procedures, establish tasks, responsibilities and time frame to keep the implementation process moving forward, avoiding delays and increasing the local governments' credibility.

## 5.6 Further Research

The time constraints have represented the biggest limitation for this research, moreover it has inspired me for continue studying waterfront redevelopment strategies adopted all over the world. Regarding my final objective of learn with international experiences in order to draw practical recommendations for the case of “Porto do Rio”, I would like to conclude this master piece with some suggestions for further research. In my opinion, it would be particularly interesting to apply this analytical framework in other Port Cities that have gone through “successful” waterfront redevelopment strategies within socio-economic conditions and or development opportunities more similar to the case of Rio de Janeiro.

Porto Madero in the city of Buenos Aires might be an interesting case study as one of the most significant examples of waterfront redevelopment strategy within Latin America context. The analysis of this experience could be useful in order to find out how the local government of Buenos Aires, a city with socio-economic conditions similar to Rio de Janeiro, has build up strategic networks and societal, political and financial support to conduct the strategy.

Bilbao might be another interesting case study, due to the successful implementation of the Guggenheim Museum. The analysis of this experience could be useful in order to measure the impacts of the implementation of this special cultural equipment as catalysts for urban transformation and also its major positive effects for the tourism sector in the city and in the regional levels. This case might inspire the local authorities and the civil society of Rio de Janeiro to re-evaluate the project for the Guggenheim Museum in “Porto do Rio”.

Barcelona might also be a good case study due to the fact that the city has emerged successfully from the Olympic Games of 1992. This case analysis could be useful to learn with this experience of making use of the opportunity of an International sport event to mobilize resources and expertise to implement a large-scale redevelopment strategy. This experience might show to the local authorities the “wrong” strategy recently adopted for the Pan American Games that will be held in Rio de Janeiro in 2007. In this case, instead of locate the sports equipments in an area centrally located making use of this event to revitalize the inner city districts, the local government of Rio has decided to concentrate all investments for the Pan American Games in suburban areas, such as Barra da Tijuca and its surrounding neighbourhoods. This approach creates even more environmental problems (traffic congestion) and encourages the urban sprawl process.

This brief summary and personal observations of the “successful” examples of waterfront redevelopment strategies adopted in Puerto Madero, Bilbao an Barcelona leads me to the final conclusion that the city of Rio de Janeiro is frequently “wasting” opportunities to give impulse to the implementation process of “Porto do Rio” Revitalisation Plan.

**Annexes**<sup>32</sup>

**Annex 1:** Aerial views from the city centre of Rio de Janeiro and the old port area.



<sup>32</sup> All pictures and maps of this section were collected from planning material available in the Municipal Urban Planning Institute Pereira Passos (IPP).



**Annex 2:** “Porto do Rio” location map.

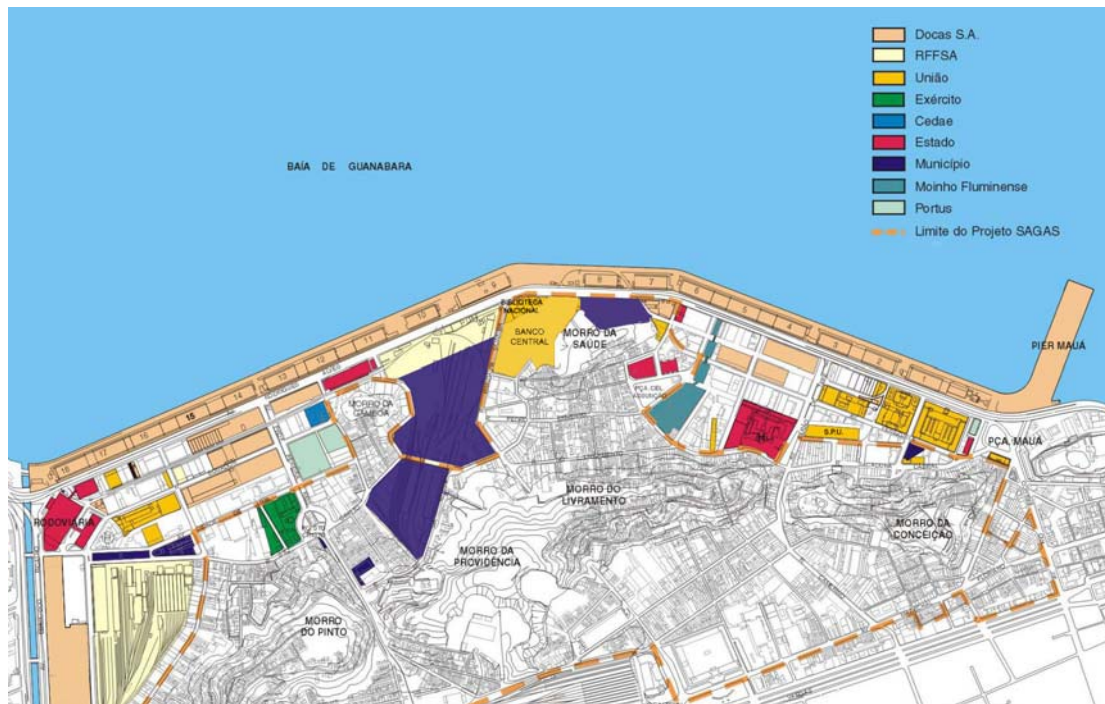


**Annex 3:** “Porto do Rio” local conditions.

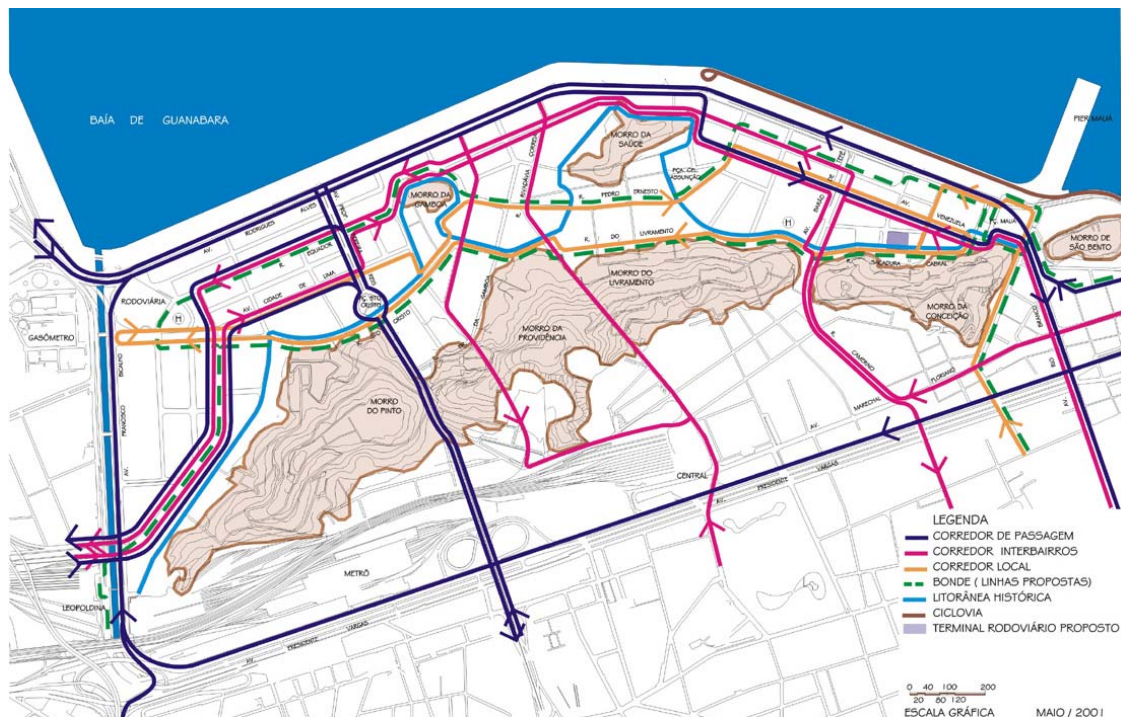




**Annex 4:** “Porto do Rio” land property situation map.



**Annex 5:** “Porto do Rio” transport plan.



**Annex 6: “Porto do Rio” special projects plan.**





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