A CO-INFLUENCE APPROACH TO SHARED FUTURE URBAN ENVIRONMENTS IN INTERFACE COMMUNITIES

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A CO-INFLUENCE APPROACH TO SHARED FUTURE URBAN SPACE AND ENVIRONMENTS IN INTERFACE COMMUNITIES

M. McQueen, H. Elkadi, and J. Millar

Abstract
Responding to the Northern Irish post-conflict imperative to envisage, facilitate and realise shared future strategies for urban development in interface locations, this paper draws from existing academic and empirical research to define a process through which shared vision, integrated social and built environments could be realised within interface locations. Emphasis is placed on exploring, defining and prioritising shared future outcomes at all levels of community, development and statutory decision making processes.

As the result of prolonged sectarian conflict between politically and religiously segregated and opposed communities, Northern Ireland (NI) retains a legacy of isolated and embattled urban interface environments. Originally housing the workforce for the now dismantled industries which generated Northern Ireland’s wealth, these areas, are often in prime locations for development, such as edge of city centre or riverside locations and are predominately made up of low income households, retaining and defending distinct temporal and physical community identities and boundaries within the larger urban context.

Concerted political effort since the Anglo Irish Agreement (1985), culminating in The Belfast Agreement (1998) has established the basis for democratic representation through a Northern Irish Assembly, transforming political and economic direction and governance and creating conditions within which a regionally determined, sustainable, post-conflict future can begin to be envisioned. Northern Ireland now seeks to move beyond the mechanisms and manifestations of conflict and respond effectively to the increasing influence of global market economics which political stability has brought. The daily lives of interface communities however, remain in the
grasp of the “structural bind” (Neill, 1995) which has held the people of Northern Ireland since the Anglo Scots plantations of the 17th.

While there has been substantial work in the area of sustainable communities in the UK, particularly in the wake of the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister’s (2003) Sustainable Communities: Building for the Future and the (2004) Egan Review of Skills for Sustainable Communities, the OPDM Sustainable Communities Plan (2005), in proposing a strategy for future development, acknowledges the challenges and pressing problems presented by the influence of market forces in shaping the built environment and acknowledges the need for a step change in approaches to dealing with these issues even within the relatively stable and integrated social context of the UK mainland.

This study aims to develop a theoretical model for the exploration and realisation of more progressive solutions, challenging conventional practice and moving towards sustainable urban environments within areas of notable conflict in Northern Ireland. This paper details the construction of this model, which will be validated within the extended study of certain communities of Derry/ Londonderry.

1.0 Introduction

Architecture and language give expression to differences and similarities among people. The design of most built environments serves to create or encourage ordered behaviour in a society, whether it be through town planning and structure, the design of an opera house or a network of roads. Built environments can in this

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1 In referring to Bew and Patterson 1985 and Ruane and Todd 1991, Neil asserts that the relative unionist and nationalist positions are irreconcilable within existing structures and require a “reordering of relationships within and between the British and Irish states.” While contemporary political initiatives have begun to address this “reordering”, interface communities remain flashpoints of sectarian aggression and violence, as a result definition of appropriate social and built environment renewal strategies for these areas continue to be dominated by issues of division.


way communicate basic meanings to help serve social and cultural purposes\(^3\). King wrote that people create built environments to create a particular kind of order\(^4\) and while King acknowledges that built environments communicate meaning\(^5\), he questions whether buildings are instruments of cultural imperialism or of cultural control.

In the last decade, emphasis in shaping the built environment has been overwhelmingly dominated by efforts of regeneration. The decade has also witnessed major changes in the structure of communities and their relation to the built environment. The regeneration and transformation of the built environment in any community can visually communicate who or what the new rulers are. The first obvious changes that can be brought about by private or public enterprise relate to the architectural landscape. Architecture is amongst other things an artefact produced by concepts of ownership, rights and tenancy as well as a product of the methods of construction and exploitation of natural resources. It is therefore a product of systems of power: An approach that is well exploited by ‘New Urbanism’ as will be later explained. Similarly, Brett (1996) argued that land and the landscape were the main target of colonial powers\(^6\). Once power was established, the landscape changed, not only in terms of ownership but also visually; for example new plants and farming methods were introduced, then resources poured into the country and the built environment would therefore be changed with the introduction of new building methods and styles all serving to gradually turn the colony into a new place; a new colony for those from the “metropolitan centre” and a new space to the natives which according to the transformations in the built environment, was the property of an alien ruling power. This resulted in “traumatic dislocations for the overpowered natives” alienating the populace from their authentic traditions, ways of life, political organisations and, in particular, alienated the land from them.

Intervention strategies in the built environment face similar but wider challenges in our contemporary, fragmented and diverse communities. The difficulties are not only confined to the management of the common concern in urban environments but also in the identification and inclusion of such diverse and broad church in a context of
increasingly complex relationships between economic competitiveness, environmental sustainability and social cohesion. In any process requiring consensus a key issue will be the definition of stakeholder groups. Margerum (2002) recorded the extensive debate around issues of stakeholders and communicative planning citing research by Forester (1989), 1999b), Friedman (1973), Healey (1992), and Innes (1996). Margerum highlighted the use of different terminologies that share interests and constraints of identifying stakeholders. These include *transactive planning* (Freidmann 1973), *communicative planning* (Forrester 1989; Healey 1992;Innes 1996), *the discourse Model of Planning* (Taylor 1998) and *collaborative planning* (Healey 1997; Innes and Booher 1999). In reference to stakeholder groups attempting to building consensus, Margerum identified a number of obstacles within:

- Selection and composition
- Context
- Operation
- Organisations
- Ideology
- Power and Capacity

Regardless of the particular situation created in Northern Ireland, massive shifts in global economic, political and environmental contexts over the last two decades have left planning theory and practice struggling to remain relevant and effective in maintaining and improving social cohesion within market driven development processes. The particular context of Belfast and Derry/Londonderry within European Regeneration policy has been subject to study within the EU URBAN Community Initiative (1994-1999) and URBAN II Community Initiative (2000-2006), which have sought to identify commonalities and creative strategies in response to maintaining and promoting stable and sustainable contemporary urban living. In 2007 Northern Ireland finds itself emerging from a sustained period of state regulated conflict management and its resulting “institutionalised” development mindset, only to be faced with a European and global context recognised as presenting extreme challenges to the best-resourced and informed cities struggling to “plan” their futures.

This paper aims to explore the shortfalls of the current methodologies and propose a new approach in order to develop a new model of architectural and urban design practice in Northern Ireland, capitalising on social interests and eliciting values to common resources. This introduction is followed by a brief discussion on
contemporary theories and methodologies in planning, in particular, those regarding community participation. Emphasis is put on discussion of the consensus approach and the related methodologies in an urban context. The paper proceeds by considering the limitations of these current planning methods following which it contextualises the work by introducing the peculiarities of the Northern Ireland context and the relevance of the theories discussed in the previous section. A brief history of the application of the consensus approach in previous projects in N.I. provides highlights the difficulties and opportunities placed on communities in interface areas. In preparation for the development of an alternative confluence approach, the paper discusses the current methodologies for measuring social sustainability. Finally, the paper introduces a model for interdependency followed by summary and conclusive remarks.

2.0 Community Representation in Urban Renewal Processes

“Community participation is an attitude about a force for change in the creation and management of environments for people. Its strength lies in being a movement that cuts across traditional professional boundaries and cultures. The activity of community participation is based on the principle that the environment works better if citizens are active and involved in its creation and management instead of being treated as passive consumers.” (Sanoff 2000)

2.1 Contemporary Theory

There have been numerous methodologies developed to achieve ‘consensus’ among diverse stakeholder groups in projects aimed to regenerate particular areas of the built environment. While some of the methods find their routes in social science, such as Consensus Delphi techniques, others are derived from economic elicitation methods such as Contingent Valuation Methods (CVM) and Willingness to pay (WTP). This paper argues that none of these methodologies are sufficiently responsive to the complexity of the built environment and its inhabitants. There are also many utopian attitudes towards consensus. The Constitution of Consensus7 makes interesting reading but no methodologies are explained in the light of a more complex and diverse societies.

7 http://www.theconsensus.org/uk/constitution/index.html
A more relevant and realistic approach to community planning has been developed by Healey (2007). Healey has attempted to derive a new approach to collaborative strategy making to achieve consensus across difficult divisions. The new approach has clearly explained some of the difficulties that have recently surfaced in our contemporary practices in the built environment. Healey has highlighted the complex networks of interests among different constituencies, NIMBY attitude, and the loss of confidence in the political system. The new approach also builds on the understanding of ‘the tragedy of the commons’; a well-known metaphor in ecological studies. These difficulties are never as polarised as in the context of Northern Ireland. Healey’s approach is promising. She proposes that the potential in building consensus across divisions is not only something of promise but also something desirable as stakeholders can build on conflict for mutual dependency and gain. Healey proposes an “institutional audit” with which to assess the degree to which a given process encourages the building of institutional capacity and generation of social and intellectual capital. Within this “institutional audit”, any process of collaborative planning can be assessed with reference to the following key issues:

- **Who has a stake in the qualities of urban regions; how far are these stakeholders actively represented in current governance arrangements?**

- **In what arenas does discussion currently take place? Who gets access to these? Do they interrelate issues from the point of view of everyday life and the business world? Or do they compartmentalize them for the convenience of policy suppliers?**

- **Through what routines and in what styles does discussion take place? Do these make room for diverse ways of knowing and ways of valuing represented among the stakeholders, or do particular styles dominate?**

- **Through what policy discourses are problems identified, claims for policy attention prioritised, and information and new ideas altered? Do these recognize the diversity among the stakeholders?**

- **How is agreement reached, how are such agreements expressed in terms of commitments and how is the agreement monitored? Is it easy for those who are critical to the implementation of the agreement to escape from the commitments?**
An audit such as this can help to focus attention, not merely on the traditional distributive questions such as who gets access to public realm processes but it may also highlight the more subtle ways in which communicative routines may disadvantage some participants. The following are the words of a woman talking about her experience of the divides of class, gender and status: “There is something about men in suits which makes me fall silent. When I go (to the meetings) I feel that I can’t speak because who will back me up, will they agree or just put me down.” (Wood et al., 1995)

There are however still some gaps in the application of Healey’s approach. There is, for example, no clear discussion of how asymmetrical and distorted mutual dependence can work. Michaels and Wiggins (1976) have explored the effects of Mutual Dependency and Dependency Asymmetry on Social Exchange. The authors concluded that exchange was not maintained by subjects when mutual dependency was just below the threshold for mutually profitable exchange. The authors also concluded that when mutually profitable exchange was possible, exchange varied directly with mutual dependency and that the more dependent subjects gave more frequently than the less dependent subjects. While the work was entirely based on economic mutual dependency, it still shows the impact of dependency asymmetry on the outcome.

Of economic mutual dependency, it has now become recognized that the three predominant types of capital within sustainable development; natural, physical and human, determine only partially the process of economic growth because they overlook the way in which the economic actors interact and organize themselves to generate growth and development. The missing link is social capital, whereas in *The Forms of Capital* (1986) Pierre Bourdieu distinguishes between three forms of capital: economic capital, cultural capital and social capital. He defines social capital as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.” (Bourdieu, 1983 pg 249)

Sustainable development has been defined as a process whereby future generations receive as much capital per capita as the current generation has available (Serageldin 1996). Traditionally, this has included natural capital, physical or produced capital, and human capital. Together they constitute the wealth of nations
and form the basis of economic development and growth. In this process the composition of capital changes. Some natural capital will be depleted and transformed into physical capital. The latter will depreciate, and we expect technology to yield a more efficient replacement. This century has seen a massive accumulation of human capital. At this broad level of conceptualization there is little disagreement about the relevance of social capital. There is, however, no consensus about which aspects of interaction and organization merit the label of social capital, nor in fact about the validity of the term capital to describe this. Least progress has been made in measuring social capital and in determining empirically its contribution to economic growth and development. Putnam (Putnam 1993; Putnam and others 1993) views it as a set of "horizontal associations" between people: social capital consists of social networks ("networks of civic engagement") and associated norms that have an effect on the productivity of the community. Two empirical presumptions underlie this concept: networks and norms are empirically associated, and these have important economic consequences. While originally this concept of social capital was limited to associations having positive effects on development, recently it has been relaxed to include groups that may have undesirable outcomes as well. The key feature of social capital is that it facilitates coordination and cooperation for the mutual benefit of the members of the association (Putnam 1993).

It is good to build institutions and legislation, as suggested by Healey (2007), to encourage interdependencies rather than the current competitiveness. The question remains however of a methodology that would allow such behaviour and shift of culture. There is a need to strike a balance between different methodologies in order to achieve a true reflection of the value social capital in renewal processes within the built environment and in planning processes in particular. Such criticism of comprehensive planning is not a recent attitude. In 1965, Altshuler criticised the comprehensive planning approach.

Innes (1996) suggested that the Comprehensive Planning model which has informed western planning policy over the last thirty years has never been adequately defended against criticisms levelled by Alan Altshuler (1965), but rather

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8 "...a comprehensive plan is a long-range physical plan for a city; it covers the city geographically; it addresses each function that makes the city work as a physical entity and that affects its physical form; it is a statement of policy rather than a program of specific actions; and it is intended to guide city officials in future actions" (Innes 1996 referring to Black 1968; So and Getzels 1988)
has led to other ways of theorising about planning. Innes stated that Comprehensive Planning remained in the planners’ lexicon but without response to the compelling arguments that Altshuler had called for. As a proponent of consensus building and in emphasising the communicative and interactive nature of planning, Innes goes so far as to suggest that the communicative model has formed “planning theory’s emerging paradigm” (Innes, 1995, 183). Innes (1996) suggests that consensus building can address not only Altshulters original criticisms of comprehensive planning but also address contemporary understanding of links between knowledge and action. Innes summarises Altshulters’ critiques of comprehensive planning as

1. Comprehensive planning assumes the public interest is out there to be discovered rather than politically willed.
2. The comprehensive planner has to measure the public interest and therefore must develop a unique hierarchy of collective goals as a basis for the measurement.
3. Comprehensive planners’ legitimacy requires them to be expert in the public interest.
4. Planners lack the intuitive knowledge and experience to create workable comprehensive strategies.
5. Comprehensive planning cannot serve the purpose of co-ordination because planners do not have the power to enforce cooperation.
6. The generality of comprehensive plans makes it impossible to get meaningful debate on them.
7. Comprehensive general plans will not gain political acceptance, because politicians prefer to maintain continuous influence, and interest groups prefer piecemeal acceptance so they can see how proposals will affect them.
8. Plans should be innovative, but innovations need ample discussion and near-unanimity to succeed politically. Both of these conditions are impossible with a comprehensive plan.

The impact of the tensions between issues of process and desirable outcome within contemporary models of planning theory and practice was later addressed by Fainstein. Fainstein (2000) observes that the leading edge of planning theory has moved past the debate between positivist scientific analysis and materialist political economy of the 1970s and 1980s to reframed debates “over methods and
programmes to encompass issues of discourse and inclusiveness.” (Fainstein 2000, 451).

The authors identify four relevant contemporary responses to the consensual debate. The first three, relating to physical development, being proposed and summarised by Fainstein as the communicative model (collaborative planning) a procedural methodology, new urbanism, diversity, populism and environmental responsibility, and the just city, focusing on social justice through a movement towards equitable development. The fourth; that of conflict transformation, recognises that although conflict can be destructive, if managed, can be used for social improvement. The following sections describe these four approaches.

2.2 Relevance to Practice

2.2.1 Communicative planning model

Fainstein (2000) identifies two strands of communicative planning, pragmatism and communicative rationality, which converge when establishing relevance to practice, standing as “the antithesis to Daniel Burnham’s admonition to “make no small plans” and ambition which was once seen to embody the noblest aims of planning”. Fainstein identifies weaknesses of this approach as “…a tendency to substitute moral exhortation for analysis” as “…its proponents seem to forget the economic and social forces that produce endemic social conflict and domination by the powerful. There is the assumption that if only people were reasonable, deep structural conflict would melt away.” This approach places the role of the planner imbued with “disinterested morality” as the central issue, the context within which they work and the outcome determined becoming peripheral, as such examinations of relationships between planning, politics and urban development tend to be avoided, as are the consequences of open processes produce unjust results. In discussing recent examples within the restructuring of South African post apartheid policy, Fainstein highlights the diminishing commitment of participants who had entered into the communicative process seeking “empowerment” to carry out “agreed” actions which did not benefit them directly. The gap between rhetoric and action or the spectre of the “talking shop” and the lengthy negotiations require to establish relative positions and opportunities for progress, the limitations of working within narrow boundaries (NIMBYism) are also identified, as is the complexity of a metropolitan wide negotiation process. In the discussion of the communicative model, Fainstein
concludes, “City building for the benefit of non-elite groups requires the empowerment those who are excluded not just from discussions but from structural positions that allow them genuine influence. Ability to participate is one resource in the struggle for power, but it must be bolstered by other resources, including money, access to expertise, effective organization, and media coverage. Communicative theorists probably would not deny the importance of these resources, but neither does their analysis dwell on them. This omission constitutes the fundamental weakness of the theory.” (Fainstein 2000)

2.2.2 New Urbanism

Of the three approaches identified by Fainstein, new urbanism has attracted most attention in practice. Its emphasis on contemporary environments with a focus on public space, relationships between working and living and environmental quality, provides a framework around which outcome can readily be explained and illustrated, making it attractive to a market-led development process within which accountable public-private sector relationships, seek certainty while demonstrating engagement with issues of “public interest”.

Harvey (1989) identifies the interdependence of market value and variations of spacial qualities in the built environment. “If capitalists become increasingly sensitive to the spatially differentiated qualities of which the world’s geography is composed, Harvey argued, that it is possible for the people and powers which command those spaces, to alter them in such a way as to be more, rather than less, attractive to highly mobile capita. The qualities of space stand thereby to be emphasised in the midst of increasing abstractions of space. The active production of places with special qualities becomes an important stake in spatial competition between localities, cities, regions and nations to forge a distinctive image and create an atmosphere of place and tradition that will act as a lure to both capital and people.” (Harvey, 1989, pp.294-5)

Neil (1995) also highlights the importance of balance in the development and quality of space in the built environment. Neil highlights the dangers of over co-modification of place with a “…consumption rather than production centred approach to economic regeneration and “the possibility of the “co-existence within the same city of small
“islands of regeneration with growing polarisation and injustice” (Bianchi Schwengel, 1990)" (Neill, 1995)

Neil (1995) establishes a link between North American and UK/NI development processes and the recent large scale development opportunities created by the peace process in Northern Ireland, the most prominent of which is the Titanic Quarter development promoted by American Urban Designer Eric Kuhne, reveal in their most public manifestations, a tendency towards a highly commoditised version of New Urbanism. In this context, contemporary architectural language suggests new physical environments for a new post conflict future.

New Urbanism’s spatial determinism fits well with the processes of re-imaging central to much contemporary urban development, providing an easily understood and marketable image of future environments.

The willingness with which this approach has been embraced without critical analysis or debate exposes the legacy of Northern Ireland’s “institutionalised” development processes, with key public sector agencies ill-equipped, after years of state-determined policy, to challenge the appropriateness of the application of global practice within a still highly divided community. With diminishing public sector finance and support, the fear of “biting the hand that feeds” which restricted academic and industry critical analysis of development policy throughout the “Troubles” now benefits the private and public-private agencies which seek to gain control of Northern Ireland’s development rights.

With the early and almost complete erasure of the built heritage of the unionist shipbuilding industry which formerly occupied Titanic Quarter and the absence of a resident community, Titanic Quarter has already sidestepped many of the issues surrounding the provision of sustainable integrated communities in Northern Ireland, promoting physical renewal and contemporary architectural expression in place of any concerted process of seeking “discourse and inclusiveness” or consensus building.

In this respect can be suggested that New Urbanism repeats Modernism’s oversimplification of the ability of the physical environment to determine social condition. In a social context requiring reconstruction and conflict resolution, while
positioning itself in a global market, the creation of new environments capable of reshaping of long standing relationships demands greater engagement with the issues of “discourse and inclusiveness”. A new approach should define progressive debate around contemporary planning theory, beyond the limitations of New Urbanism. It would be an extreme investment of faith in “trickle down” economics to believe that market determined solutions will solve the most complex issues contained in our society and the physical environments which support it. Without a critical position to counter socially inappropriate, or at best untested, practice models, the danger exists that unsophisticated but financially successful development processes will be applied throughout the Northern Irish context, a threat that has already been identified in a much more integrated UK market.

“The push for numbers, and increasing density, are leading to almost entirely flatted accommodation. The challenge will be to attract and retain families in these developments, and deliver “sustainable communities” rather than the churn of young singles sharing buy-to-let properties. Otherwise we will be building the neighbourhoods in need of regeneration in the future.” (Von Bradsky, 2007: Urban Regeneration Toolbox)

### 2.2.3 Just City

The third model identified by Fainstein is the Just City model “...that relies on a more pluralistic, co-operative and decentralized form of welfare provision than the state centered model of the bureaucratic welfare state.” For proponents of this model, “…the purpose of their vision is to mobilize a public rather than to prescribe a methodology to those in office.” The just city is described as a theoretical model with a “vaguely defined” audience. Amsterdam and Kerala are cited as exhibiting aspects of Just City, with Amsterdam identified as successfully meeting key criteria for all three of the models proposed proposed by Fainstein. A reluctance to acknowledge the significance of economic growth is identified as a chief weakness along with a the reliance on greater social equity without the promise of greater individual opportunity, “…the market model and neoliberalism have proved popular because they promise increases in affluence for all even if within the context of growing inequality.” (Fainstein, 2000)

### 2.2.4 Conflict Transformation
“Conflict transformation must actively envision, include, respect, and promote the human and cultural resources from within a given setting. This involves a new set of lenses through which we do not primarily ‘see’ the setting and the people in it as the ‘problem’ and the outsider as the ‘answer’. Rather, we understand the long-term goal of transformation as validating and building on people and resources within the setting” (Lederach 1995).

Although the literature on conflict converges in two common ideas: conflict is normal in human relationships and conflict is a motor of change. The process of conflict transformation brings into focus the building of healthy relationships and communities, however requires significant changes in our current ways of relating. Conflict transformation theorists argue that contemporary conflicts require more than the reframing of positions and the identification of win-win outcomes. The structure of parties and relationships may be embedded in a pattern of conflicting relationships that extend beyond the particular site of conflict. Conflict transformation is therefore a process of engaging with and transforming the relationships, interests, discourses and, if necessary, the very constitution of society that supports the continuation of violent conflict. Constructive conflict is seen as a vital catalyst for change. People within the conflict parties, within the society or region affected, and outsiders with relevant human and material resources all have complementary roles to play in the long-term process of peace building. (Wehr, Burgess & Burgess, 1994, Clark, 2000) This suggests a comprehensive and wide-ranging approach, emphasizing support for groups within the society in conflict rather than for the mediation of outsiders. It also recognizes that conflicts are transformed gradually, through a series of smaller or larger changes as well as specific steps by means of which each of those involved will play an important role. (Miall, 2003).

Relationships involve the whole fabric of interaction within the society in which the conflict takes place as well as beyond to other societies. Lederach (1997) argues that these relational aspects of conflict are crucial. Poor relationships between groups are all too often the trigger for conflict and they remain as a critical hindrance to efforts of reconciliation after the violence is over. Memories are a crucial part of each party's socially constructed understanding of the situation and are shaped by culture, earning, discourse and belief.
The predominant methodological approaches used within this stream of practice focus on resolving conflicts, fostering community growth. The most successful and effective appear to be Sustained Dialogues, Victim-Offender Mediation, Public Conversations and Project-based dialogues where the dialogue is focused around a central issue of shared interest.

For the sustainability of a place in conflict to be assured, conflict transformation is essential to ensure that all parties reach an awareness of danger of the disintegration of the local communities. Transformation does not relate or refer to the compromise of attitude within the individual communities but relates to the resolve of the communities to work together for the good of each other. (Rupesinghe 1995, 1998)

### 3.0 Contemporary Methods in Consensus Building

#### 3.1 Introduction

In its relatively short existence as a profession, formed to address the issues of distribution associated with rapid urbanisation, planning has struggled to keep pace with the processes it hopes to channel. Goods and resources are finite, and social forces heavily pattern their distribution. One of the principal mechanisms for shaping the distribution of resources is by regulating entitlement to community membership itself. The social consensus theory of meaning states that the meaning of any proposition consists in its designation as meaningful by some social groups. The relation between propositions and their truth conditions is an ongoing work of some social group (Goguen, 2004). It is well understood that identification of groups, values, and information is interdependent. Each produces and sustains the other. Social values exist because they are shared and communicated by groups; and information exists because groups share values in a dynamic world. The difficulty is that the identification of the groups and their interests is not as straight forward as it was in the past. By not understanding the contemporary nature of ‘divisions’ and hence restricting groups' membership of community will restrict access to social goods and in turn has a negative impact on the wellbeing of the excluded groups. It is essential that the community membership is not determined on the basis of an outdated perceived social value of groups. Erroneous assumptions can lead to stigmatisation in the marking of individuals and groups who are ‘unworthy’ of social investment. Looking into relevant models that facilitate consensus according to an
outdated approach will not succeed in many contemporary and diverse built environment contexts. The other problem is the procedures by which consensus is developed as described in the Delphi technique below.

3.2 Methods

3.2.1 Delphi Technique
The Delphi Technique and Consensus Building are both founded in the same principle - the Hegelian dialectic of thesis, antithesis, and synthesis, with synthesis becoming the new thesis. The Technique was originally conceived as a way to obtain the opinion of experts without necessarily bringing them together face to face. In recent times, however, it has taken on an all new meaning and purpose. The Delphi Technique is based on the Hegelian Principle of achieving Oneness of Mind through a three step process of thesis, antithesis, and synthesis. The method is frequently used in the reshaping of the built environment, particularly where economic or environmental conflict appears among stakeholders. Eakman\(^9\) makes numerous references to the need of those in power to preserve the illusion that there is "community participation in decision-making processes, while in fact lay citizens are being squeezed out." Apart from the difficulties of identifying groups and the internal structure of groups, the success of the technique is largely based on the facilitator's methods and interventions. It is well understood that when people are in groups that tend to share a particular knowledge base, they display certain identifiable characteristics and group dynamics which allows the facilitator to apply the basic strategy.

3.2.2 Willingness To Pay (WTP)
Similar to Contingent Valuation Methods (CVM) and other economic techniques for the elicitation of ‘values’, WTP is applied in analysis of intervention projects in the built environment. Applications varied from values of parks and green areas to cultural built heritage and views (e.g. Riganti and Elkadi, 2000). Similar analysis are also referred to as Conjoint Analysis (CA). It has been suggested that where cost is included as one of the attributes within the exercise, CA can be used to estimate

\(^9\) Eakman, Bey (200?), Educating for the New World Order
willingness to pay (WTP) for intervention in the built environment. Ratcliff (2000) has however raised cautions in applying such techniques for healthcare interventions indirectly within the framework of cost-benefit analysis. Ratcliff concluded that further research is required in defining techniques for establishing the most appropriate levels for the cost attribute in a CA exercise and in determining the sensitivity of WTP estimates to the levels that are chosen for the cost attribute.

4.0 Community Representation in the Northern Ireland Context

Perhaps significantly in Derry, a relatively small city of around 70,000 people with a tradition of the active and militant pursuit of socialist agendas, and a benign and possibly philanthropic landholder in “The Honourable the Irish Society”, conditions exist which may warrant the exploration of processes with greater emphasis on social equity, the challenge being particularly acute when it comes to equity across sectarian divisions. Consultation fatigue following the massive efforts at total inclusion during the EU URBAN initiative and various ongoing peace building projects would however have to be addressed in any attempt to adapt and apply this approach.

A common theme in planning processes employing communicative processes is the use of discourse to mediate a predetermined or proposed outcome, rather than to generate and explore alternatives. Within the communicative planning model described by Fainstein, the position of the planner falls short of that of catalyst and determines a position of facilitator. Progressive attempts at community engagement in an interface community in Belfast described by Berry and McGreal (1995), reveal the limitations of a process, which relies on mediation. The authors describe experiences within the Springvale Initiative for development of a cross-community brown field location in Belfast, an area “…perceived by the private sector as being characterised by high investment risk and low potential return” (McGreal 1995). Within this project, an initial step was to establish a professional and administrative team within the area to front the Springvale Initiative and Community Technical Aid, a voluntary organization which provides planning advice and support to local communities, and this team was invited, and indeed funded, to co-ordinate the community response. This was channeled through a community steering group with representatives from both sides of the sectarian divide. Operating through these channels, and by other measures including public debate it became apparent that
community objectives differed appreciably from the original development concept, with the local population placing greater emphasis upon housing and employment and showing little enthusiasm for major road schemes, retailing or leisure facilities. In essence, and as a consequence of this public participation process, the vision of Springvale altered significantly (Berry and McGreal, 1995).

The revised project relied heavily on public sector resources completing a 15,000 sq ft advance factory, a 48,000 sq ft training facility and social housing. Even with this public sector investment, attracting private finance remained a major challenge in progressing the development process. The project review concluded that following extensive public consultation, significant expenditure and realisation of public sector deliverables, the project future remained uncertain, as the private sector continued to take up more attractive development opportunity elsewhere in the city. The impetus of the original project having been private sector focussed, once mediated to meet local concerns ultimately met limited success, remaining reliant on public sector spending. Opportunities for community initiatives to take up funding to develop retail/commercial also failed to materialise.

The usefulness of an initial proposal as a starting position in negotiation of shared futures for interface sites is significant. In describing his experience of applying principles of “Planning for Real” in the Holy Cross interface area of Belfast, Professor Bill Morrison a former head of Planning Service in Belfast describes how when asked if “the other lot” were for a particular solution and replying “yes, very much so,” the opportunity was grasped to take up an opposing stance “well we’re not”. An initially indeterminate physical outcome may therefore provide an appropriate basis for discussion. In considering this, the field of Conflict Transformation, as previously discussed, may hold alternative methodologies.

Perhaps pursuing a similar point of origin and in contrast to the Springvale project which attempted to accommodate the private sector within an interface location, the Urban II Community Initiative 2000-2006 directly tackled the legacy of segregation, and made “no attempt to remove the peacelines, but rather communities were encouraged to develop joint proposals to reduce their worst effects, vacant sites were opened up for development and flexible transport options were proposed to link enclaved communities to job opportunities elsewhere in the urban economy.”
Murtagh (2004) aimed to derive policies which put the security of “hearts and minds” before any attempt to alter “geography”.

In reviewing existing contemporary development processes within Belfast to establish a framework for collaborative planning, Murtagh observes the capacity of collaborative planning to link together equality and social need around issues of spatial justice and planning in the city region. Murtagh (2004) argued that the potential of collaborative planning must influence all stages of the policy-making process in the context of ethnic-segregation and not be limited to fairly selective consultation processes. Margerum (2002) suggests three phases for collaborative planning:

- Problem setting (consensus-building)
- Direction setting (consensus-building)
- Implementation

Building on these phases, Murtagh (2004) highlighted the benefits of such approach:

- **First**, it can help us to understand stakeholders in places, their positions, what they base their claims upon and how they use knowledge to support these priorities;
- **Second**, it can identify where and on what issues collaboration is possible especially as experience has shown that progress can be made on some issues without compromising deeply-held ethnic positions;
- **Third**, it helps to locate issues, positions and interests on which collaboration is not likely to be a short-term reality but where contingencies can be planned to tackle the divisive effects of doing nothing. Housing is a case in point. Here, patient and skilled mediation, not excluding gatekeepers and developing winnable options for protagonists, has created modest gains even in the most politicized settings.
- **Fourth**, it also identifies who (and what) is traditionally left out in these settings and throws our attention back to women, disabled people, ethnic minorities and young people to whom the formal world of participatory discourse is poorly understood and even less well used.
- **Finally**, it can help us to examine the structures around which competing and collaborating interests can have a meaningful say in land-use issues, which itself has resonance beyond the particular conditions in Belfast. Building trust across the ethnic divisions of Belfast is not an easy or quick fix. It is particularly thin and ephemeral but it is difficult to imagine a sustainable city without it. Space will dictate planning possibilities for Belfast and for other regions where race and poverty intersect to
produce especially ‘wicked problems’. However, an active local debate around the spatial correlation of inequality and social inclusion could challenge the investment that some interests have in continuing segregation. Petty power structures, extortion, crime and the manipulation of communities have outlived 30 years of conflict. Identifying the alternatives, discussing the costs and benefits of segregation and looking at the winners and losers of continuing division could help to produce a different discourse for Belfast and its uncertain post-conflict transition.”

Although Murtagh remains sceptical about the limitations of Margerums approach within the complex and sensitised Northern Irish context, Margerum’s review conditions for construction of stakeholder groups bears further examination:¹⁰

“• To what extent does this stakeholder group involve not only those people with direct interest in the issues but also represent the array of indirect interests that exists in the community?
• Are the stakeholders committed to learn about their environment and the different perspectives on that environment?
• Are the stakeholders willing to search for common goals and able to agree to an array of strategies that will address those goals?
• Is there a long-term commitment of resources to maintain the stakeholder group and facilitate participation with the broader community?
• To what extent are the stakeholders willing to only move forward when complete consensus is reached?
• To what extent are the people representing government and non-government organizations willing to work to gain the commitment of their organization?
• Do the coordinators and chairs have the inclination and ability to fairly facilitate the committee using consensus based decision making?
• To what extent are powerful stakeholders willing to give up power to gain collaborative outcomes?”

In conclusion Margerum suggests:

¹⁰ Murtagh (2004) challenges the application of Margerums approach pointing out that it parallels traditional planning stages of: survey, analysis, plan and arguing that place cannot be objectivised in the way assumed by this model, that “In Belfast land–use is socialised, governs the conversations that can take place and can impact upon the wider political and community stability of the region.”
“The research revealed several important distinctions between collaborative planning and conflict resolution.

First, the goal in defining the stakeholder group is not just to involve direct interests like a negotiation exercise but also to involve the array of indirect interests like in a public participation exercise.

Second, the more open agenda of a collaborative planning effort allows a wider range of potential outcomes but also makes it difficult for potential stakeholders to assess whether they want to participate.

Third, the longer time frame of most collaborative planning efforts requires an ongoing commitment of resources to both facilitate and participate in the process.

Finally, because the stakeholder groups themselves often become part of the institutional arrangements, coordinators become a much more integral part of the process than the independent facilitators and mediators who are typically used in conflict resolution cases.” Margerum (2002)

5.0 Limitations of Collaborative Planning in Northern Ireland Context

Throughout the years of conflict, Northern Ireland experienced a particular form of contemporary urban planning and development determined and implemented by the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland (DoE), responding to conditions of conflict and insecurity within the limitations of, largely unchallenged, Conservative party policy. “Albeit against a backdrop of greater public investment especially for housing programmes in a pragmatic approach to conflict management, urban economic policy has exhibited a reliance on privatisation and private-sector-led solutions, a property-focused approach to economic development and a faith in trickle-down economics.” (Neill 1995).

These specific conditions of governance addressing issues of “conflict management” and associated division are most obviously manifest in urban environments in the form of Peace Walls and security influenced road and transport systems. However even in relatively “normalised” global societies the challenge of creating, maintaining and supporting social cohesion through the processes of urban development and renewal, revolves around the successful resolution of complex and often contradictory demands. Massive shifts in global economic, political and environmental contexts over the last two decades have exposed the shortcomings of
contemporary urban development practice and emphasised the need for more sophisticated responses to the issues of living in contemporary urban environments.

The EU Peace II funded document “Ending the Interface”, produced by Triax Neighbourhood Renewal Agency, summarises the various community positions within which the Fountain/Bishop Street and Brandywell (West bank) interface in Derry exists. In it Eamon Deane suggests "It is relatively easy to outline the geography of the interface. It is less easy to say how we can impact on the fears and uncertainties which keep it in place in our hearts and in our minds." In juxtaposing the tangible physical environment with the emotional and temporal conditions within which it exists, Deane exposes the dilemma faced by those agencies charged with development of our built environment in interface areas, not only in untangling a desperate existing condition but also in determining an appropriate and sustainable future response for the communities whose daily lives are bound up in their decisions.

6.0 Developing an Alternative Model: Consensus and Co-influence

Designing a consensus statement for a city which cannot agree its name, was wrecked by bloody violence and has its hinterland fractured by a contested international border, is a difficult and delicate process." (Murtagh, 2001). There is necessity, if not certainly merit, in exploring and developing new areas of commonality and potential knowledge transfer from theory and application in the fields of planning and conflict resolution/transformation. The government generic models for understanding and working with communities might not be sufficient, particularly in sensitive interface communities. The following sections are to build on and enhance the existing methodologies. The aim is to bridge the gap between generic sustainable indicators and the actual role of the community in

![Figure 1: The Spheres of the proposed model](image-url)
identifying and realising their own sustainable measures. The proposed model is designed to share the power of shaping the built environment in complex, dynamic contemporary environments, and to avoid difficulties surfaced in collaborative planning methods. An ecological, fragile but sustainable, inter-dependence rather than stable but non-sustainable collaborative model is examined. A model where all the roles of all players, no matter how small, are significant rather than aggregated and compromised, and in many ways manipulated, consensus of non-representative stakeholders.

While this project initially aims to “practically implement a shared future”, to as great an extent as possible, amongst four of the communities within the context of particular interface communities in the city of Derry/Londonderry, the means by which this can be approached requires the re-questioning of particular methodologies implemented in the past. As has been previously mentioned, there have been issues raised regarding the consensual and participatory approaches to community participation; in particular their appropriation to the real issues faced by any community. In response to this, the opportunity to develop a new theoretical model, addressing the reality of community life, cohesion and sustainability in interface locations within larger urban contexts is apparent. Issues of legislation, economics and social action are all key to the impact of reality on communities of which current governmental indicators are not sufficiently specific. Implicit in this is the incorporation of methods that facilitate and encourage the greater participation of, not only the community but also the wider circle of stakeholders. Through the use of both well-established and more experimental methodologies (particularly from the arts field), this project intends to develop and test a new model for community sustainability: establishing the key community drivers, identifying the key stakeholders and outlining the key community vision.
The main steps of the project to facilitate building the community indicators are:

1. Survey community, based on existing generic indicators, to trace possible engagement of the community with a creative model/project.
2. Create an event with emphasis on building and realisation of the project. A pilot example of which is described in Appendix 2. The facilitators will be able to identify key community sustainable indicators through the process.
3. Identify possible linkages/areas of co-influence/mutual dependency in different communities.
4. Prioritise and design mechanism for negotiation between different sets of indicators (Figure 1) in order to finalise a set of community indicators based on different criteria.

The SUS-Com Community model (Figure 3) identifies the points where the sustainability indicators and area profile indicators of a certain community are situated along a socio-economic scale. This can be applied to any area whereby the area is the variable by which both sets of indicators are placed accordingly.

The specific community indicators are based on the application of the sustainability and area profile indicators of a specific community. Again, the movement of this line is determined by the area profile variable.

This project aims to implement this new theoretical model as a staged methodology, using, initially, quantitative data regarding the area profile of each of the communities.
involved, combined with quantitative data regarding the sustainability indicators of the each of these communities to produce a questionnaire with which to gain initial feedback from the communities. This response will be used to determine a new set of community drivers/indicators, which, while drawn from generic governmental indicators, will have been made specific to each particular community.

The second stage of this new theoretical model presents the opportunity to investigate a shared future, or inter-dependence between communities offering communities the potential for ‘co-influence’ in order to strengthen community sustainability as one of the stakeholders within an area (Figure 4).

![Figure 4: a) Facilitating consensus b) Building Coinfluence](image)

Detailed of the different stages are as follows:

### 6.1 Measuring Sustainable Development in Tensioned Societies

Achieving the goal of sustainable development continues to be one of the major global challenges of our era. The socio-economic elements of sustainable development are vast, and cover many aspects of business operations from government agencies, developers, investors, built environment professionals and stakeholders to the communities. Social sustainability, the focus of this project, is to develop programmes and processes that promote social interaction and cultural enrichment. It emphasizes protecting the vulnerable, respecting social diversity and ensuring that we all put priority on social capital. Social sustainability is also related
to how we make choices that affect other humans in our "global community". In order to achieve such an aim, a review of both government sustainable indicators (national and local area profile indicators) and theoretical sustainable indicators is necessary.

6.1.1 National & Regional Indicators

In 1999 the UK Government (DETR, 1999) produced its strategy for sustainable development which identified four aims: social progress which recognises the needs of everyone; effective protection of the environment; prudent use of natural resources; and maintenance of high and stable levels of economic growth. A new set of national indicators were outlined in the UK Government Sustainable Development Strategy, *Securing the future*, launched by the Prime Minister in March 2005 and was published in June 2005. To accompany the UK's Sustainability Strategy produced in 1999, a set of 150 'Quality of Life' indicators were developed to monitor national progress towards achieving a 'better quality of life for everyone, now and for future generations to come'. The indicators were split into three groups according to the basic issues addressed by sustainable development:

1. Social stability and progress (eg. health, education, crime, cultural diversity)
2. Economic growth (eg. employment, poverty, economic prosperity)
3. Environmental protection (eg. air quality, biodiversity, climate change)

Among all the selected indicators, 15 indicators were also chosen to measure overall progress towards improving quality of life. In July 2006 an update of the national indicators was published. The report has identified 68 national indicators supporting the Strategy including measures of everyday concern such as health, housing, jobs, crime, education and our environment. The indicators, with a subset of 20 indicators, also support one or more of the four priority areas outlined in the Strategy. These priorities areas are:

- Sustainable consumption and production
- Climate change and energy
- Protecting our natural resources and enhancing the environment
- Creating sustainable communities and a fairer world
Two of these priority areas are therefore directly related to this project. One of the three groups that the 20 indicators are bundled under is social stability and progress. Providing Stability has always been a key target for any policy whether it is social, economical, or environmental: The provision of a set of indicators therefore aims to develop, monitor, and maintain stability.

6.1.2 Local indicators

While it is necessary to investigate the national sustainability indicators, local indicators are more directly relevant to build an area profile for the case under study. A report published by the Audit Commission, DEFRA and ODPM in August 2005 outlined a set of local quality of life indicators. This set included 45 key measures to help ‘paint a picture’ of the quality of life in a local area (Figure 5). The indicator set covers a range of a variety of sustainable development issues that influence our long-term well-being. It helps measure the key issues of importance that have been derived from national policy priorities, as well as research and public surveys. All the indicators in this set have national data sources, with information applicable to local authority. The aim was to make it possible for the Audit Commission to bring together robust, accurate data for each area to enable local comparisons.

Area Profiles have been developed in partnership with local services over a period of three years. DEFRA has created guidance to help users paint a picture of the quality of life and service provision in a local area. An Area Profile helps to focus on people and place, and identify priorities that cut across service boundaries. The Audit Commission has chosen ten themes that cover the quality of life. Appendix 2 describes these themes in the light of the aims of this project.
6.2 Model Description

The model proposed (components figures 6 to 14 and matrix figure 15) differs significantly from existing frameworks for community representation in urban renewal projects in a number of ways.

- It does not determine an initial proposal to be mediated to address community concerns, rather it encourages self determination of community needs and aspirations in community settings, using contemporary public art engagement methodologies, to support community self expression.

- It does not seek consensus across divisions as a prerequisite for realisation, rather it allows communities to determine and prioritise community specific goals without mediation or consensus. The model then seeks to identify potential networks of co-influence where statutory and economic frameworks can be adapted to facilitate realisation of mutually dependant but community specific outcomes, incentivising cross community and diversity of stakeholder engagement in building shared future proposals for urban interventions.

- The model requires retention and accumulation of latent social and financial capital within the participating stakeholder environment to incentivise long term engagement and encourage increasing diversity of stakeholder participation and community capacity building. Currently interface locations present a relatively high investment risk for private sector investment, there is however little incentive for communities to reduce risk and build stability beyond benefits from investment “trickle down”. The rapid increase in housing costs and demographic swings likely to be associated with stabilisation of interface areas however, presents a counter to any perceived benefit form economic investment. Capital retention can provide tangible community rewards for building sheared and integrated futures. Management of such the processes of capital retention, albeit within a non polarised community, has been developed since the 1980s on Londons South Bank by the Coin Street Community Builders and will form one aspect of this models investigations in this area.
Current UK government policy direction is for regulatory frameworks to support sustainable development encompassing the three pillars of Society, Environment and Economy and determining a sustainable position in representation and protection of these key conditions. This model determines conditions of mutual dependency as the priority for urban development in interface locations but measures deviation from both the proposed generic sustainability indicators and ambitions and from development direction under current policy frameworks.

The above approach reframes urban renewal processes to address issues and methodologies of conflict transformation determining the existing stakeholders and supporting environments as key resources in transformation processes, building conditions for sustained negotiation of shared futures through determination and support of positions of co-influence.

Although in the overall structure community consultation appears as only one of a number of actions, it represents one of the most challenging and time intensive aspects of the model. A recent pilot project, financed by the Arts Council for Northern Ireland and the National Lottery Fund through Derry City Council, carried out by the authors in conjunction with artist Peter McCaughey initially highlighted the difficulties in allowing expression of opinions beyond the established community “gatekeepers” but moved beyond this to establish a methodology for engagement, encouraging community ownership over interventions in the built environment. This pilot project is further explained in Appendix 1.
6.2.1 Model Components
The proposed model comprises nine identified components, significantly including development of a scaled space between two poles of economic and social indicators (Figure 8) within a legislative framework where the intervention project aims to impact.

Component 1.
The first component is the identification of project participants within the identified areas of economic, legislative and social arenas, through a combination of academic research and survey of relevant communities. This work will establish the initial stakeholder profile and begin to determine engagement methodologies.

Component 2.
The second component draws from participants identified through stakeholder profile compilation to determine current generic and context specific policy priorities for urban renewal and development.

Component 3.
The identification and prioritisation of community specific positions or ambition within stakeholder groups forms the third component. While stakeholders within legislative and economic settings will have significant experience and ability to communicate their positions, community aspiration, particularly beyond the traditional positions of entrenchment requires greater support for
expression. This model draws from current public arts methodologies to propose the creation of arts events as the basis for ongoing engagement and examination of community aspiration and potential. Response to this qualitative expression will be supplemented with quantitative data collection.

**Component 4.**
Once stakeholder and community specific positions have been determined, the model identifies commonalities between outcomes. It is anticipated that this stage may reveal multiple outcomes and determination of positions of co-influence to be developed may require ongoing monitoring as the complexity of stakeholder interdependency and co-influence is developed.

**Component 5.**
For specific outcomes having maximum potential to develop conditions of co-influence, further examination of non-community based supporting positions will be undertaken. This extends the co-influence network to non-aligned positions capable of support through independent policy adjustments.

**Component 6.**
Through academic review and an iterative workshop process, define potential for retention and accumulation of social and economic capital to, providing incentive for long term engagement, ongoing negotiation of positions of co-influence and increasing diversity in stakeholder profile.
**Component 7.**
Construct theoretical policy framework with which to support the realisation of co-influence projects. Again academic review of existing policy, comparative analysis of national/international precedent and an iterative workshop process are proposed in determining an appropriate framework.

**Component 8**
Define community specific indicator positions relative to generic area profile, establishing scope of adjustment required to realise co-influence projects.

**Component 9**
Following analysis of findings, comparing co-influence policy against current generic policy priorities, recommendations for adjustments to current policy can be determined, generating recommendations for practical
implementation of co-influence (shared future) outcomes.

**Figure 15  Model Matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>matrix component</th>
<th>action</th>
<th>method</th>
<th>outcome</th>
<th>setting</th>
<th>data collection</th>
<th>data analysis</th>
<th>comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Construct model, identify project participants</td>
<td>academic research, survey community, research active development agents, contact supporting agencies and stakeholders</td>
<td>establish project theoretical model, identify initial stakeholder profile</td>
<td>generative workshops</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>idenifity current policy priorities</td>
<td>workshop with appropriate stakeholders, review policy document</td>
<td>define current policy priorities</td>
<td>generative workshops and academic review</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>define priority positions within observation groups</td>
<td>Social community interest survey / questionnaires, workshops / seminr / questionnaire</td>
<td>define stakeholder priorities in appropriate settings</td>
<td>generative workshops and academic review</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>identify commonalities between positions (multiple outcomes)</td>
<td>data analysis: qualitative and quantitative analysis</td>
<td>identify conditions for interface community mutual co-influence</td>
<td>academic review and iterative workshops</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 15  Model Matrix (Continued)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>matrix component</th>
<th>action</th>
<th>method</th>
<th>outcome</th>
<th>setting</th>
<th>data collection</th>
<th>data analysis</th>
<th>comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>identify supporting positions</td>
<td>data analysis: and iterative workshop</td>
<td>extend co-influence network to non-community positions (supportable by independent policy framework)</td>
<td>academic review and iterative workshops</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>define opportunities for retention of capital</td>
<td>data analysis: and iterative workshop</td>
<td>provide incentive for building long term engagement, improving potential of co-influence and increasing clarity in stakeholder profile</td>
<td>academic review and iterative workshops</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>propose policy framework to maintain co-influence network</td>
<td>data analysis: and iterative workshop</td>
<td>establish framework for interface specific development models and supporting policy</td>
<td>academic review and iterative workshops</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>define community profile position vs generic area profile</td>
<td>data analysis</td>
<td>establish scope of adjustment required, determining appropriateness of current development models</td>
<td>academic review</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>review deviation to current policy and shifts required</td>
<td>analysis of findings to compare co-influence policy against current general policy priorities</td>
<td>establish deviation from generic policy providing recommendations for beneficial implementation of shared future (co-influence) outcomes</td>
<td>academic review</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.2 Model Commentary

The model (Error! Reference source not found. to Figure 7) aims to develop a scaled space between two poles of economic and social indicators (Figure 3) within a legislative framework where the intervention project aims to impact. The two poles, and the distance in between are determined by two sets of data – the econometrics indices and the developed community indices. The first is gained through governmental economic profiles of the area as well as through workshops and questionnaire to developers and urban regeneration agencies. The second sets of data are developed through art events that encourage community participation. The two sets are then compared with the area profile indicators. Analysis and interchange of the three positions is to take place to determine particular positions of the developed ‘community area profile. The methodology can understood as a two stage process as follows:

Stage 1

In an attempt to achieve a more sustainable urban environment, it is first necessary to establish the baseline knowledge, for each of the key drivers, from which improvements can be made. To prepare the initial questionnaire on the economic dimension, the local governmental indicators of area profile and sustainability will be sourced and combined in order to determine a series of questions to be put to all relevant parties. The questionnaires will be implemented through a series of participatory workshops in which there will be a discussion of the process and the personal response of the community by means of the questions raised. This response will form the creation of a set of community indicators, specific to each community. The position of each particular set of community indicators along the socio-economic scale will be determined by the response by the community themselves. Following the analysis of data arising from the questionnaires to create the ‘community indicators’, a second series of workshops will be implemented.

Stage 2

Whilst the survey will involve the study of Products, People and Processes, it will also be necessary to examine how People relate to both Products and Processes. Once the baseline knowledge has been established innovative solutions need to be developed to meet the opportunities for improvement. The second set of workshops will call upon community participation to help create a vision for the area. This will be expressed through the medium of arts and the local communities in each area will be
charged with creating a piece of public art to represent the vision that is derived from their ‘community indicators’. A local artist will facilitate each of these workshops. These projects will act as a voice for the community to express the key drivers of their local area group. Through the implementation of arts, communities are given the opportunity to use alternative methods to raise their voices as a visual experience which both characterises and makes permanent, their own particular vision.

The projects will then be used to test the community indicators derived from the questionnaire responses. The projects will be relocated anonymously in turn to each of the communities involved in the project. The response to these projects will be recorded thus considering the underlying community vision without any initial overriding conflict.

The responses to the arts projects will be used to investigate the potential to develop a state of ‘inter-dependence’ between each of the different communities, in order for the community voice to be amplified. The aim of this ‘inter-dependence’ would not be to combine community visions or indicators to create an over-riding vision, but to investigate ways in which, while maintaining community individuality, the community indicators from each of the communities could be used together, with a level of tolerance in order to raise the profile of the communities to a state of ‘inter-dependence’.

Figure 6: Fertilization of Community Architecture Research
Figure 7: Overall model description
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http://www.theconsensus.org/uk/constitution/index.html

Note:

Reference list incomplete, to be updated before review/reproduction
Appendices
Appendix 1

“Up The Walls”

“Up the Walls” was a project run by M. McQueen, J. Millar & H. Elkadi in conjunction with artist Peter McCaughey for Derry City Council and funded by the Arts Council of Northern Ireland.

The aim of the project was to open a dialogue with, explore and record the identity, needs and ambitions of the local communities and various stakeholders, within the Riverview/Bishop street area. Previous work by this group had made it apparent that a combination of conditions including a covenant restricting private development of this key site had created unique possibilities for a new approach to development in Derry, where the existent adjacent communities could be the key stakeholders in defining development form and content based on local needs and aspirations.

“Up the Walls” sought to establish both a community vision and community voice for the Riverview/Bishop Street area by bypassing the community gatekeepers and approaching the local residents by means of a number of experimental art-based methodologies.

While the creation of a tangible record of the aspirations and needs of local residents and area users formed the focus of this work, the project also demonstrated that these ambitions could be translated into realised creative intervention with the local urban context. This project acted as a pilot to grant the community voice confidence
and test an opportunity for it to be heard both within the community and project that voice to the wider context of Derry.

The project aims were:

- To record the aspirations and needs of local residents and area users by:
  - To explore and recording community experience, memory and history.
  - To examine, record and challenge perceived physical and temporal constraints and opportunities.
  - To explore and record awareness, understanding and perception of the social and cultural specificity of place and the role of the built environment in supporting this context.
  - To formulate a series of creative responses to community perception of identity and need and realisation of selected interventions into the existing urban fabric, instilling a culture of active citizenship.

The community were approached through a number of methods. Schools, community groups and nursing homes were all approached and invited to share their community experiences and vision recorded both verbally and visually by means of drawing. Verbal recording of semi-structured conversations took place in a variety of settings including residents homes, community facilities and schools. Drawings allowed members of the community who found difficulty in expressing their views an opportunity to express themselves by a different means. This method was particularly appropriate for the children of the area, offering them a freedom of which they were unable to express verbally.

The group erected a gazebo on a piece of open ground beside the area community hall and remained in the space for a weekend, asking all who passed by the site and share their experiences of the area. While seemingly order less, this approach gave opportunity to the group to speak with members of the community who would otherwise have been unreachable.

As a country, Northern Ireland, in particular the cities of Derry/Londonderry and Belfast, is known for the murals painted on the gable walls of houses. By taking this
concept, the group took the images of all of those who had contributed to the project and projected them onto a series of bare gable wall to produce a ‘living’ mural art installation. This acted as the backdrop to an event hosted by Derry City Council and the Research group to celebrate all who lived on Bishop Street and within the Riverview area. This gave the residents, of an area where the underlying current suggested that they have been overlooked by the council, a sense of importance and worth, and initiated links which can be built on throughout the proceeding project.

The key points arising from this project were:

- Community recognition of the need and to by-pass traditional “gatekeepers” views of community positions and open discussion to include a variety of opinions.

- Semi-structured contact utilizing the gazebo and facilitating community portraits and recordings posed two simple questions: where do you live (identified by a red pin in an aerial photograph of the area) and what places are meaningful to you (identified by a white pin). This revealed a number of issues including the permeability to community members of the “peace line” and a lack of identification with the physical environment as meaningful.

- This lack of engagement with environments supporting community life prompted further exploration, identifying issues and potential solutions and exploring and uncovering community creativity, supporting community expression through drawing in a variety of structured and semi structured events, door stepping and voice recording.

The resulting community "record" was used to create temporary "transformation" of places - revealing potential, unveiling hidden issues, agendas and community responses and generating the basis for a working method for the future engagement.
Appendix 2

Local Indicators

People and place
Population dynamics (size, density, household composition, commuting and seasonal migration patterns and longer-term changes) and diversity (age, gender, ethnicity and religion). A context for understanding the sense of place and how people live and work in the area.

Community involvement and cohesion
Community activities that encourage pride and ownership of the area and the degree to which diverse communities enjoy positive relationships and have influence over local decisions affecting the area.

Economic well-being
Levels of deprivation, employment, wages, seasonality of work, household income, economic inactivity, benefit payments and the number and type of businesses in the area.

Housing
Ownership, types of tenure, supply and affordability of housing and homelessness. It also covers sustainability issues, including decency standards, and minimising resource use and location.

Environment
The quality of the built (including redevelopment of derelict land) and natural (including biodiversity) environments, pollution, including air and water quality, water, energy and waste management.

Transport and access
Public transport, road provision, maintenance, use and congestion, walking, cycling, mode of travel and distance to work. It also covers access to key services and technology, such as the internet.

Community safety
Feelings of safety, levels of crime of different sorts, including anti-social behaviour and disorder and drug-related offences, accidents in homes, at work and on the roads and fire safety.

Health & social well-being
Birth and death rates, life expectancy, public health measures, people with long-term conditions, support for carers and access to quality health and social services.
Education and lifelong learning
School attendance and attainment, education and skills levels in the resident population, adult education services, employer-provided training and broader development opportunities, such as volunteering.

Culture and leisure
The arts, museums and heritage, archives, libraries, tourism, children's play, sport, recreation, parks and public open spaces. The latter topics overlap with consideration of the natural environment.