

**REURBANISATION THROUGH CULTURAL FLAGSHIP  
STRATEGIES:**

**the attitude of and effects on residents in regenerated areas of  
Glasgow and Manchester**

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## ABSTRACT

The thesis takes its inspiration from the current debate over urban cultural policy and its effect on urban regeneration. In the 1960s and the 1970s, most older industrial cities in Europe suffered from massive economic decline along with social unrest. The cities of Glasgow and Manchester were two of the older industrial cities in Britain, which suffered the worst urban decline. In order to overcome such urban decline, many European cities have adopted new means of urban growth strategies. Cultural flagship development strategies were begun in the US, but the strategies have become a focal point in urban regeneration policies of many European cities. The cities of Glasgow and Manchester have used cultural flagship development to endeavour to transform their city's overall image and the strengthening of their economic base.

In spite of extensive literature debating the issues of cultural flagship strategies, there is a lack of empirical studies on residents who live in cities which have employed the strategies for their city's development. This empirical study examines residents in some parts of Glasgow and Manchester (Crown Street & Merchant City in Glasgow and Hulme (Royce Place) & Whitworth Street in Manchester) where housing regeneration has taken place. The study focuses upon residents' reasons for residential relocation in the research areas, and their view on the perceptions of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester and on the use of cultural flagship strategies to improve their city. By analysing residents' points of view, one can gain insight into what the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have achieved over a decade through the use of cultural flagship schemes.

The thesis advanced is that it explains factors that stimulated the process of reurbanisation in the four chosen areas of Glasgow and Manchester. The thesis also dismisses the fundamental hypothesis that there would be highly contrasting opinions on cultural flagship strategies between residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the survey areas as the strategies would seem to be likely to benefit economically better-off residents more than economically worse-off residents. However, the thesis found that both types of residents in the areas showed a very positive attitude toward the strategies and the current developments of Glasgow and Manchester. The changes in the perceptions of Glasgow and Manchester were seen in the eyes of residents as largely a result of cultural improvements in the cities. However, it seems to be inevitable that there is an unequal distribution of benefits from cultural flagship developments among the residents in the survey areas since cultural flagship developments were largely designed to attract businesses and wealthy residents. The main benefits generated by cultural flagship strategies largely went to those residents in the central city areas with high household incomes. Moreover, the cultural flagship strategies seem to deepen the polarisation in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester between, on the one hand, residents with low-income and who are unemployed and, on the other, residents with high-income and secure occupations. Nevertheless, an interesting factor in the study is that a vast majority of the residents in the survey areas reacted positively toward cultural flagship developments of their city.



This work is dedicated to: the memory of my grandparents;  
and my best supporters- my parents, wife, son (Myoung-Ki),  
and all other members of my family.

박사논문을 돌아가신 조 부모님과 항상 용기를 주신  
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## **Introduction**

Nowadays, culture seems to be one of the most profitable assets for cities in developed countries. Cultural assets are not only used for improving the intellectual side and quality of life, but they become a catalyst for regenerating the social and economic life in many older industrial cities. The cities of Glasgow and Manchester are two of the best examples in this sense. Both cities have attempted to create a new environment which attracts high income residents to live in the city, and inward investment to locate business in the city through the use of arts-based regeneration strategies, all of which have also led to a new image of the cities.

The main purpose of this study is to examine new residents of four research areas in Glasgow (Crown Street & Merchant City) and Manchester (Hulme and Whitworth Street) about their reasons for moving to the city, perceptions of their city, and their views on the current urban regeneration, particularly urban cultural flagship strategies, in their city. Of course, there are also some other related factors that will be examined in this study.

In order to achieve the purposes of the study, theoretical and empirical surveys were employed which will be shown throughout the nine chapters of the study.

Chapters 1 to 3 are introductory chapters that will deal with certain aspects, such as theoretical overviews of urban decline in older industrial cities in developed countries; the development of cultural flagship programmes in the US and European cities; and the historical review of problems and recovery of social and economic conditions in Glasgow and Manchester. In the 1960s and the 1970s, most older industrial cities in developed countries faced economic and social decline, which generated a loss of



economic activities and population from city centres to suburbs, resulting in ‘urban decline’. In the 1970s the US city, Baltimore, first introduced an ambitious scheme with prestigious arts related urban redevelopment projects that largely influenced many European cities with similar urban problems in the 1980s. The cities of Glasgow and Manchester are among the European cities which adopted cultural flagship developments, as a response to their problems. Glasgow and Manchester were two of the leading industrial cities in the 19th century. However, throughout the 1960s and the 1970s both cities suffered a massive loss of economic activities and population, which effectively undermined their economic credibility, along with social problems. Between the late 1980s and the 1990s, however, both cities achieved an astonishing success in improving economic, social and environment life through the use of cultural flagship strategies.

Chapter 4 is an important part of the study, which deals with methodological procedures, reasons for choosing the areas as research subjects, and the description of the research areas (Crown Street & Merchant City in Glasgow and Hulme & Whitworth Street in Manchester). The methodological procedure will explain the overall process of data and information collection for the study. The reasons for choosing the areas are their focal importance in regenerating their city and the distinctive characteristics of each of these areas. The description of the research areas will illustrate the historical development and problems of social and economic decline of the areas.

From chapter 5, information received from the respondents of the research areas will be presented. In chapter 5, the characteristics of people, who have moved into the research areas will be considered, for instance previous residence, household size,

household incomes, economic status, and age structure, which will show the overall picture of the population structure of the areas.

In chapter 6, reasons for the residents moving to the research areas will be examined. This chapter reveals what preferences the residents had when they considered moving to the areas. This chapter is an important chapter in the study. It gives certain ideas of what factors stimulated the re-urbanisation of Glasgow and Manchester.

Chapter 7 examines residents' degree of satisfaction with living in their area; also the factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with living in these areas. This chapter measures the residents' reaction toward their residence after moving to the areas which allows one to compare how different this is with the reasons for choosing the areas as residence (Questions for factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with living in the areas were designed as open-ended which gave a wide opportunity to the respondents to express their feelings about their residence.).

Chapter 8 is concerned with evaluating factors such as perceptions of Glasgow and Manchester from the respondents' viewpoints, pride in their city, the relationship between the use of cultural facilities and the improvement of their city's image, and the possible relocation of residence from their current residence in their city to another city. This chapter will compare the attractiveness of the present city with the city in the 1970s, according to long-term residents, and will evaluate changes in the perceptions of Glasgow and Manchester from the perspective of residents in the research areas. Since Glasgow and Manchester attempted to improve social and economic prospects, it is important to see whether or not residents in the research areas are proud of their city's improvement. The development of new cultural facilities seem to be one of the most important parts of urban regeneration schemes in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, thus the chapter will evaluate respondents'



views on the importance of cultural facilities in improving their city. The types of cultural facilities that have improved their city are also analysed in this chapter. However, there is the possibility that the new residents in the survey areas might choose to relocate their residence to another city. Therefore, this chapter will examine residents' reaction toward possible relocation. Possible places of relocation and reasons for potential relocation will be also analysed.

The final chapter, Chapter 9, will concentrate on examining how the procession of cultural facilities has affected the quality of social and economic life of the new residents. Factors such as participation in cultural activities and types of cultural facilities used by the new residents; the approval of public funding on cultural facilities; personal importance of cultural facilities to the respondents; the relationship between the location of cultural facilities and the improvement of their quality of life; employment benefits from cultural industry are analysed. The effectiveness of the city council in regenerating the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, and what things respondents consider that their city council should do to further improve their city are discussed.

The cities of Glasgow and Manchester provide a variety of cultural facilities. It is important to see whether the residents in both cities actually use such facilities. Moreover, such facilities are likely to be subsidised by public finance. The reaction of the respondents toward the public funding of cultural facilities is examined. Some people may regard cultural facilities as an important part of their personal life, while others may not. Therefore, the degree of importance of cultural facilities to the residents in the research areas will also be evaluated. The location of cultural facilities may also affect participation in cultural activities, which may, in turn, also affect the quality of life. People who live close to cultural facilities may participate more than

those who live further from the facilities. Moreover, since cultural facilities are important in creating employment in both cities, it is also important to see what effect cultural facilities have on the employment of residents in the research areas.

All important findings in this study will be summarised in the conclusion, together with some suggestion and arguments.



# **Chapter 1: Problems of Urban Decline in Large cities**

## **Introduction**

The process of urbanisation seems to be one of the most dramatic developments in human history, particularly developments in the last century. It is, however, observable that the economies of the advanced industrial nations are passing through a period of profound structural change. Throughout the advanced industrial countries, though economic decline had been occurring since the 1960s, the recession of the early 1980s brought the realisation that downturns in the business cycle helped to expose deeper structural changes. These changes resulted in economic, social and environmental decline with so-called 'urban decline', which stimulated decentralisation of population and economic activity from older and larger industrial cities, and diffused over whole regions. Moreover, the increasing globalisation of production processes resulted in international economic restructuring which created serious dislocations, particularly affecting the social structure and economic viability of cities. Although the growth of the service industry seems to be the feedback mechanism for cities, it is not the case for all. There is intense competition between cities. Nevertheless, the problem of urban decline has also brought new ideas and approaches to minimise or even to illuminate the problem of urban decline in advanced economies and to improve the urban environment as well as the local economies.

In this chapter, urban problems faced by cities within advanced industrial countries will be examined by analysing some existing studies.

## **Part 1: Urban Decline and Decentralisation of Population and Economic Activity**

The major problems that have appeared in advanced industrial countries are decentralisation of both economic activity and population from large and usually older urban cores, to contiguous and non-contiguous new developments and smaller satellite sub-centres. This activity resulted in population and employment loss in large cities. In the US in the late 1960s, and in Europe by the mid-1970s, there was a growing sense that cities were in trouble, and that their functions were changing. Urban problems are not just individual and specific aspects of particular cities. They occur in a context of patterns of urban change. The change in perceptions about cities has predominantly taken place in the countries of Northern and Western Europe, and it is connected primarily to questions of urban decline. It is similar in other parts of the developed world and probably furthest advanced in the US.

The first urban crisis was in the US and came to the forefront in the 1960s. Edel and Rothenberg (1972) summarised the situation of urban crisis in the US with traffic jams, frightening levels of crime, deteriorating public facilities and the near bankruptcy of municipal governments, all symptoms of a malfunctioning urban system. The term urban decline appears to be of more recent coinage. Bradbury et al (1982) use many measures of decline (as well as growth), particularly changes in population, employment, and per capita income in the 153 largest cities in the US (those over 100,000 as of 1970) and the 121 metropolitan areas in which they are located in the two periods between 1960 to 1970 and 1970 to 1975. They define urban decline in two ways: 'descriptive decline' and 'functional decline'. The descriptive decline is any loss of population or jobs in an urban area. The functional decline

means changes that are socially undesirable because they reduce the ability of a city or metropolitan area to perform its social functions effectively. In this study, Bradbury et al conclude that major factors are population loss and related decentralisation. Van den Berg et al (1982), however, argue that decentralisation is a cause but not the sole cause. The OECD (1983) takes a similar view to van den Berg et al, but neither of them see urban decline as a set of problems as argued by Edel and Rothenberg, rather urban decline is seen as being concentration of problems in the context of population decentralisation and industrial decline. The OECD analyses problems experienced by larger metropolitan areas which are losing population and employment from the central or even the entire metropolitan area, and concludes that urban decline is seen as the spatial concentration in large cities of social, economic and environmental problems such as high levels of unemployment and poverty, housing deterioration and decay of the urban infrastructure. The Griffiths Report (1982) particularises industrial decline, derelict land and slums as major symptoms of urban decline. Broadbent and McKay (1983) mention loss of jobs and population, industrial restructuring, unused infrastructure, fiscal stress and social segregation. The symptoms and problems of urban decline seem to be the same.

Factors identifying the causes of urban decline have been improvements in communications; technological changes in transport and changes in transport costs (Anas & Moses. 1978); increasing capital intensity of certain industries and associated increases in floor-space requirements per employee (Fothergill et al. 1985); diminishing external economies and above-average costs of production (Moore et al. 1985). All these point to locations outside the cities as being more favourable for many activities, particularly manufacturing industry. Certainly, the decline of manufacturing industry in the major conurbations is considered as of central



importance by several studies (Gudgin et al. 1982; Fothergill & Gudgin. 1982). Moreover, cost disadvantages of city locations, planning restrictions and policies of local authorities, and regional and other dispersal policies of central government, have all contributed to employment loss in city locations.

The decentralisation of population, like that of employment, is also the outcome of a number of factors. Rising real income has traditionally been important in increasing the demand for housing in lower-density / higher-amenity areas which are often located outside the central city (Alonso. 1964; Muth. 1969; Evans. 1973; van den Berg et al. 1983). The exercise of changing residential preferences has been facilitated by improvements in communications and detachment of income from specific location (Leven. 1978). More extremely, Elias and Keogh (1982), argue, rising real incomes lead to permanent decentralisation of population. However, both amenity and household preference functions may not be homogeneous. Space, low congestion costs, low crime rates and environmental qualities associated with ex-urban locations are only some attributes of particular locations. There are also amenities of urban location such as accessibility, social interactions, opportunities for urban recreation and cultural activities or availability of urban services. Equally, household preference functions vary, depending for example, on stage in the life cycle, number and age of children, cultural patterns, values and expectations, lifestyles and tastes. Cheshire and Hay (1989), therefore, state that rising real incomes do not necessarily imply permanent decentralisation because the form of households may change and thus urban amenities may become more valued.

However, there is another factor that may stimulate further population loss in older urban centres. It is the problem of neighbourhood decline or decay. There are households preferring to upgrade their location within urban areas, but in the case of

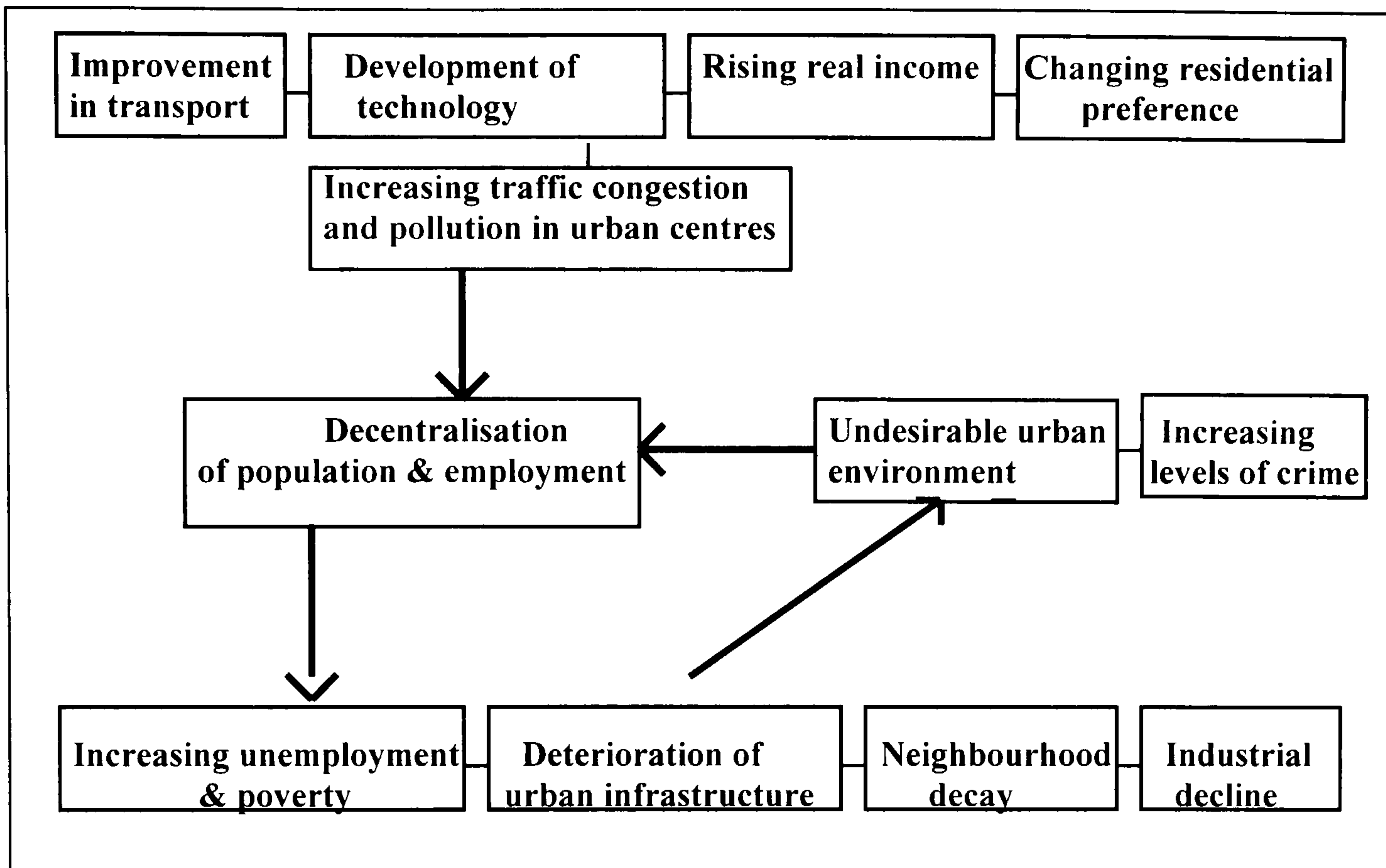


neighbourhood effects decline may downgrade the urban environment and impair urban amenity, resulting in further population loss. This may occur at any time in any city, but with the rapid decentralisation process in train in most advanced industrial countries during the 1970s and early 1980s and with greater mobility, it now seems to be more obvious than in the past. It can appear in cities in prosperous national and regional economies, as well as in cities in relatively poor circumstances (OECD, 1983). Concentrated in parts of the city, poor neighbourhoods come to be regarded as a threat by residents in other neighbourhoods. Moreover, the selective nature of migration (both outward and inward) has contributed to the problem of increasing concentrations of disadvantaged groups living in the cities. There is an observed concentration of council housing in a number of inner city areas (Gudgin et al. 1982), with the result that the relatively unskilled and immobile also tend to be concentrated there. Due to these externalities, the process of decline, especially in the context of spatial restructuring, can be rapid and cumulative (Downs, 1981).

The above explanations on urban decline seem to indicate a circulation of social and economic problems in urban areas. One problem stimulated the appearance of another problem, which affected further decline in urban areas. Figure 1 shows a diagram of the circulation of problems in urban areas.

The improvement in transport, the development of technology, rising real income, changes in residential preference, and increasing traffic congestion and pollution has brought about the decentralisation of population and employment, and this has resulted in high levels of unemployment and poverty, the deterioration of urban infrastructure, neighbourhood decay and industrial decline. These factors produced an undesirable urban environment and increased levels of crime. Eventually, these factors stimulated further population loss and employment loss in older urban areas.

**Figure 1-1: The circulation of problems in urban areas**



The overall arguments suggest that whereas urban decline is linked with decentralisation of population and employment, and with the industrial decline of the larger and older urbanised industrial regions, it appears to be not solely these factors. These processes, when linked with a concentration of economic, social and environmental problems in urban areas result in urban decline.

## **Part 2: Impact of Urban Economic Restructuring**

The process of spatial restructuring of population and employment decentralisation is the outcome of decisions made with respect to the location of economic activity and of residence. The process of spatial restructuring, in turn, interacts with the structural change of industry at both the national and international level. Within the economic

sphere, the transition from mechanical mass production technology in manufacturing (commonly referred to as 'Fordist' production processes) to the more flexible and customer-sensitive processes (post-Fordist) enabled by electronic technology, has a major impact on the spatial and social relationships of many cities. This transition has produced a new relationship in urban labour markets between, on the one hand, the better paid and more secure employment in the managerial, professional and technical fields and, on the other, employees in less skilled, low paid, low status and often part-time occupations (Cooke, 1990; Piore & Sabel, 1984).

Older industrial cities may suffer from what the economic historian Sidney Checkland has called the 'Upas Tree effect': the over-concentration on older industries using outmoded production techniques (Checkland, 1975). The older industries are disproportionately concentrated in certain regions and certain cities, particularly the specialised industrial centres that resulted from previous waves of technological innovation in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Cheshire and Hay's study of urban decline in the EEC (1989) also mentions that older industries are heavily concentrated in the cities of Europe's industrial heartland. Similarly, in the US it affects the so-called 'Rustbelt', the belt of industrial cities from New England and the mid-Atlantic to the Mid-West which resulted from industrial development in the era 1865-1930 (Bluestone & Harrison, 1982). These cities are particularly severely disrupted in the growth of their economies by the post-Fordist production processes and international restructuring of industries. The increasing globalisation of economic activity, and the falling relative costs of bulk and long-distance transport, have produced an international restructuring of activity (Glickman, 1980). Older-established sunset industries, both in the manufacturing sector and in the associated goods-handling tertiaries, massively lost jobs as newly industrialising nations



successfully competed on price and quality, and as they in turn responded by rationalisation and increased productivity (Massey & Meegan, 1982).

This process is often referred to as 'de-industrialisation', that is the absolute loss of jobs and output in the manufacturing sector and the growth of the tertiary and quaternary sectors (Bluestone & Harrison, 1982). However, Cheshire and Hay (1989) argue that modern industrial processes provided far fewer jobs per unit of output than they replace. Accordingly, falling total employment in manufacturing, even on a world scale, is still consistent with a rising real value of total manufacturing output. Thus if de-industrialisation is defined in terms of falling employment rather than falling output, then all EC countries except Ireland, Greece and Portugal are de-industrialising (Cheshire & Hay, 1989).

So far the discussion has aimed at the undesirable side at the forces that have created urban decline and problems of growth. However, trends are not remorseless. There are feedback mechanisms in the system, which tend to create at least some self-adjustment, and new tendencies emerge which stimulate a change in direction.

The decline of manufacturing employment in advanced industrial countries has been apparent, but at the same time service employment is growing very fast. The significance for urban development of this shift to service employment is considerable. Whereas in the market or industrial town prior to 1945 services were seen as dependent upon other economic activities for their survival and growth, more recently they have become initiators of the impulses of urban growth and vehicles for change in their own right. In other words, the frequently cited dichotomy between manufacturing industry as the basic component and the service sector as the non-basic component of urban economic structure is now outmoded (Alexander, 1954). In addition, service employment has a far stronger urban orientation, particularly the



fastest growing sectors of service- finance, insurance, hotel and catering, retailing and so forth. This is because cities have always offered special economic advantages, such as superior communications, and access to a wide range of contacts to markets, to specialised bought-in inputs and to specialised labour. Location in an urban centre is essential for any business that requires face-to-face contact (Cheshire & Hay, 1989).

However, there is some clear evidence that has demonstrated the uneven distribution of the rapidly expanding service sector between regions. In the US, Noyelle and Stanback (1984) demonstrated the uneven expansion of producer services (e.g. the corporate complex, including central administrative offices; the FIRE (finance, insurance and real estate) group; and the corporate service group) in urban regions.

They classify four types of urban regions: diversified service centres (national, regional, subregional nodal); specialised service centres (functional nodal, government-education, education-manufacturing); production centres (manufacturing, industrial-military, mining-industrial); and consumer-oriented centres (residential, resort-retirement). Their findings demonstrate that consumer-oriented production centres and some specialised service centres have not participated equally in the general expansion of employment in producer services. One important reason suggested by them for this is the degree of external control of the establishments located in these cities; such control is exerted from corporate head offices in national centres and, to some extent, they are classified as diversified service centres. The two worst performing kinds of area were the pure manufacturing centres and the functional nodal centres (e.g. manufacturing centres with corporate headquarters).

Other evidence, at a regional level, suggests that during the late 1970s and 1980s the older industrial regions have overall done poorly in substituting informational for goods-handling jobs (Hall, 1988). Although Europe has many more national -level

service centres than the four identified for the USA by Noyelle and Stanback (New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, San Francisco), the poor performance of the pure production centres and specialised nodal centres are very likely to be similar in Europe (Hall, 1991).

A recent study of the US (Frey, 1990) contrasts the earlier experience of the 1970s, in which central cities were rapidly losing population whilst suburbs were still growing, albeit more slowly, with the 1980s in which there were lower rates of population growth. Frey gives as examples New York, Boston, Paterson-Clifton-Passiac, Indianapolis, San Francisco, Portland, Philadelphia and Chicago, and illustrates their turnaround in terms of the development of World Cities and Command and Control Centres as the new foci of urban growth. Studies of European urban systems (van den Berg et al, 1982; Cheshire & Hay, 1989) have pointed out that an increasing number of cities are now approaching re-urbanisation. These include London, Copenhagen, Glasgow, Essen, Valencia and Wuppertal. Explanations for these predictions are to be found in demographic changes and in changes in economic structure of the cities. A number of studies have now indicated why re-urbanisation within the older industrial cities of Western Europe should take place. Demographers have indicated that in the 1970s the dominant household type was family with small children, which had a preference for detached housing in suburban locations. However, by the 1980s, many more households took the form of young people, either single or in pairs and without young children, who have tended to migrate to the inner areas of the larger cities for reasons of employment and access to facilities. The number of 1-2 person households in inner cities is growing quite rapidly in consequence (Champion & Illeris, 1990). Illeris (1991) argues that in the 1950s most western European countries' national capitals tended to grow faster than their national rate of population, but this was not



true in the 1960s and the 1970s. However, by the 1980s, some national capitals, such as those in Finland, the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom, had resumed their former growth rate. Illeris explains this revival, firstly by the growth of business services and the corporate headquarter offices that depend upon them, which has emphasised the role played by the central areas of a world-wide network of cities. Secondly, the type of labour attracted by the new employment opportunities in metropolitan centres will be attracted to the cultural attributes of those centres and choose to live close to them, rather than undergo long commuting journeys on a daily basis. This revival in preference for an urban life-style for some high-income households can be combined with the enjoyment of rural environments through the purchase of a second home, a feature which rose sharply through the 1980s. Thirdly, changes in demographic structures and the increase in 1-2 person households will contribute to such population growth. Fourthly, housing and environmental policies have contributed to the re-urbanisation process. The 1960s and the 1970s were periods of mass housing clearance and consequent population loss in many cities. However, in the 1980s, more stringent economic conditions and greater concern for environmental protection led to the improvement of existing housing, rather than clearance and rebuild, which retained more people and did not have such an acute dislocationary effect. Finally, rising energy costs will have the effect of encouraging people to live closer to city centre employment, in order to make greater use of public transport which will lead to denser forms of development.

It has become the major concern for those problematic cities (older industrial cities which have suffered from social and economic decline) how reurbanisation of population and industries (particularly service industries) could be achieved for their city simultaneously. It seems to be an ingenious innovation in urban policy.

Prestigious cultural facilities were used to improve the overall image of older industrial cities that attracts professional and managerial workers to live in the city centre, which, in turn, also attracts new firms to be located. This policy is called 'cultural flagship strategy' which was first used by US cities (particularly Baltimore), and later many European cities adopted such a strategy in order to overcome social and economic decline in their city.

In the next chapter, the review of cultural flagship strategy will be revealed in order to evaluate the credibility of the strategy.

## **Summary**

The problems of the modern world are various but among the most challenging seem to be the economic and social difficulties confronting those who live and work in major cities. The world's population has expanded rapidly over the past century and this growth has been accompanied by a substantial acceleration in the pace of urbanisation. This process may also produce the recent problems of urban decline in major cities in most advanced industrial countries. The problems appear in three major settings: in terms of economic changes such as the substitution of labour by capital in manufacturing, the introduction of new technologies and the internationalisation of production; in terms of social problem such as the geographical concentration of disadvantaged groups; and in terms of environmental problems, such as deterioration of infrastructure, neighbourhood decay and environmental pollution, all of which have created serious dislocations, particularly



affecting the social structure and economic viability of the cities. Although forces for urban revival operate, especially in terms of employment in service industries, which has helped compensate, rates of employment growth vary greatly from region to region within the same country. The older industrial cities are also disadvantaged in terms of losing out on increasing service employment.

Overall arguments suggest that urban decline may be inevitable in the areas of early industrial development, and a more rigorous analysis of urban problems is needed for the given problem cities.

## **Chapter 2: Culture and Urban Regeneration**

### **Introduction**

It has been increasingly common throughout Western Europe and North America for city authorities and urban development agencies to make use of arts and culture-related initiatives as tools of urban revitalisation. As a result, this has become an interesting and important area of policy innovation. In this chapter, firstly the broader context within which such strategies have emerged will be considered by briefly examining the cultural strategies of the Victorian period in Britain and the post-war period in Western Europe. The cultural strategies of the Victorian period left a cultural infrastructure that was both developed and transformed in a quite different context by the new cultural strategies of the 1980s. Secondly, changes in national state policies towards urban problems will be looked at. Thirdly, the urban regeneration strategies in the US in which the arts and culture as instruments of city promotion first appeared will be examined, since US experience has largely influenced the emergence of the cultural strategies in west European cities. Fourthly, models of cultural strategies in west European cities in which city-marketing through image-creation was largely involved in policy-making processes of urban regeneration will be considered. Finally, the limitations of cultural strategies that produced many controversial issues into the dynamics of the current urban cultural policy will be revealed.

## **Part 1: The Historical context of urban cultural policy**

From the early 1980s onwards cities in Western Europe launched a series of new cultural strategies, which gave the arts an important role in urban policy. These new strategies were marked by a radical widening of the whole concept of culture and the virtual erasure of the traditional distinction between high art and popular entertainment (Bianchini, 1990). However, in Britain, as in many other European countries, the recent cultural initiatives have built upon a cultural infrastructure of museums, theatres, concert halls, and so forth, which were the product of a previous round of local cultural strategies in the 19th century<sup>1</sup>. Therefore it would be sensible to begin with a review of these developments to demonstrate the sorts of elucidative factors that need to be considered, and to make clear what is distinctive about the new cultural strategies of the 1980s.

In Britain, early cultural strategies were impelled by a certain view of the social role of the arts and culture. Minihan (1977) states that the beginning of government support for the arts, from the 1830s onwards, took place in the context of increasing social unrest, improvements in morality and social order. The local pursuit of cultural improvement was closely related to city growth and the formation of an urban elite. Studies of cultural developments in the great industrial cities such as Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield conducted by Wolff and Seed (1988) demonstrate the way in which the arts contributed a focus to local class cohesion by bringing together different sectors of the middle-class on neutral ground. In fact, support for the arts was part of the very process whereby social elites came to define themselves as a

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<sup>1</sup> The British Museum was founded in 1873. The purpose was to house three private collections that had become available. The National Gallery was founded in 1824 as one valuable collection could be bought and another was given to the state (Pick, 1986).



dominant class and set social distance between themselves and the commonality. These urban elites began to make increasing use of the instrument of local government to construct an infrastructure of art and culture, with the museum, for instance, emerging as the symbol of elite culture and expression of elite self-assurance (Sherman, 1989).

The development of new cultural institutions in the 19th century was also part of the very process of differentiating forms of high art from mere mass entertainment, and constructing new hierarchies of taste and discrimination<sup>2</sup> (DiMaggio, 1982).

It seemed that the dominant elite view of art and culture largely resisted the challenge of the rising social movement in the latter part of the century. The early socialists saw socialism as embracing a whole way of life with a distinctive culture of its own. However, they found it difficult to sustain a coherent position under the twin pressures of a dominant elite culture of high art on the one hand, and the powerful impacts of an emerging commercialised mass entertainment on the other (Williams, 1958). The Fabians, on the other hand, adhered more to the dominant Victorian belief in high art's humanising and refining powers, and saw culture as a common heritage from which the working class had been wrongly excluded in the past (Britain, 1982). From the 1890s onwards, as socialists gained representation on local councils, it was this Fabian perspective that tended to prevail. Overall, however, the arts remained a marginal concern in the programme of the new Labour Party, and a narrow view of the arts was incorporated into the Labour Party's national programme in 1918 (Waters, 1990).

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<sup>2</sup> The Public Entertainments Act 1875 and the Metropolis Management and Building Acts Amendment Act 1878 effectively brought all kinds of performance under government licensing control, thus no longer could the travelling showman build a booth in a farmer's field, or a village construct its own village hall just as it wished. On the other hand, the Theatre Act 1843 supposedly disenthralled the drama, and gave any licensed theatre the right to present any legitimate drama (Pick, 1988)



Cultural policies in Western Europe in the post-war periods of the 1950s and 1960s were comparatively unimportant, non-controversial areas of local policy-making. The narrow identification of culture still remained unchanged with the pre-electronic arts. City governments also made few links between cities' cultural resources and their possible exploitation for urban renewal, tourism, image or economic development purposes (Bianchini & Parkinson, 1993).

However, in the early 1970s cultural policies became politically more important and controversial. The rise of the post-1968 urban social movements, such as feminism, youth revolts, environmentalism, community action, gay and ethnic / racial minority activism, was closely connected to the emergence of new cultural strategies in the 1970s. These urban social movements created cultural diversity and adopted a very broad definition of culture that challenged the traditional distinction between high and low cultural forms, and were generally accepted by the national leaderships of left parties. The cultural strategies in the 1970s also widened access to cultural facilities and activities for all citizens and not just for the privileged, and helped consolidate opportunities for participation in public life for people of different ages, social classes, genders, lifestyles and ethnic origins (Bianchini, 1989).

However, in the field of urban cultural policy, as in many other policy areas, the changing national political climates and the pressures to reduce local government expenditure led to a strategic shift from social to economic objectives in the 1980s. The 1970s socially based provision of cultural policy was replaced by a consideration of its potential contribution to urban economic and physical regeneration (Bianchini & Parkinson, 1993). Therefore, it becomes an important issue who is affected and how new cultural policy contributes to urban economic and physical regeneration.

## **Part 2: The emergence of new urban intervention**

Contemporary urban policy across Western Europe and North America has been created by two dominant and closely mixed forces. Firstly, there has been the growing globalisation of capital and its various consequences for the economies of cities in the developed world, especially the loss of manufacturing industry, the expansion of information and control functions, and heightened inter-city competition for inward investment and consumer revenues (Dicken, 1992). Secondly, there has been a deepening of social divisions and an intensification of poverty and social marginalisation (Mollenkopf & Castells, 1991).

In their efforts to address the local consequences of these forces, city governments in many parts of Western Europe and North America have had to work within the limits created by the profound changes that have taken place in national level 'models of social regulation' (Goodwin et al, 1993). Basically, the concept<sup>3</sup> implies the pattern of institutional arrangements in the state and civil society through which the crisis tendencies of given regimes of capital accumulation are socially managed. In brief, the changes that have taken place since the 1970s can be identified as a rejection of Keynesian social democratic interventionism in favour of market liberalisation; the introduction of new regulatory institutions (normally non-elected bodies) to replace direct government administration; a move towards competitive modes of policy making predicated on an acceptance of social and spatial inequalities; and the displacement of public service criteria by those of the commercial world (Jessop, 1990; Goodwin et al, 1993). At city level, the outcome has been the growth of more

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<sup>3</sup> It was developed within the theoretical framework of regulation theory (Jessop, 1990)

entrepreneurial approaches to local economic intervention, and an increasing stress on public-private sector partnerships (Painter, 1991).

Within this emerging framework of urban policy, an increasingly substantial role has been played by cultural policies of numerous kinds, reflecting a strong belief that the cultural domain is destined to perform an increasingly significant part in the future evolution of cities. According to the joint study of Richard Rogers and Mark Fisher (1992), the prospects for cities economically, physically and socially are intimately bound up with the creation of what they call a 'new urban culture', in which 'artistic and cultural life is a central element of regeneration' (p.4).

### **Part 3: Cultural flagship schemes as urban regeneration strategies**

Over the past decade or so there has been remarkable proliferation of urban cultural strategies, and it has also become common to find arts and culture-related policies playing a key part in the urban regeneration strategies pursued by city authorities in Britain. This growth echoes an earlier pattern of development in United States (Whitt, 1987), and is paralleled by similar developments in many European cities (Lister, 1991).

As the two recessions of 1973 and 1979 accelerated the collapse of the industrial base of many cities and the short-lived boom of the mid-1980s accentuated the shift towards the service economy, and cities found that they had to compete more intensively for scarce new investment in services and high-technology industries and for the skilled technical and managerial labour that went with them (Bassett, 1993). Partnership between the public and private sectors was proclaimed as the key to acquire new investment, with the public sector playing the catalytic and



complementary role (Barnekov et al, 1989). A central preoccupation of these new partnerships was ‘place marketing’ or ‘city marketing’<sup>4</sup> (Paddison, 1993). Burgess (1982) states that city marketing needs to emphasise the positive elements of a city’s image. In older industrial cities, this often involved a rejection of negative images of the past, and the reworking of positive elements of local heritage to construct an image of a new post-Fordist, consumption-oriented city, attractive to inward investors, and with a good quality of life for executives, managers, and skilled workers (Wilkinson, 1992). Urban re-imaging was closely interconnected with flagship<sup>5</sup> property development to launch the new urban vision. Cultural strategies were drawn into this process of re-imaging (Bianchini et al, 1992).

### **Urban cultural strategies in US cities**

The US experiences of urban regeneration in the sixties and seventies proved an inspiration for western European cities. In several American cities, notably Baltimore, Lowell and Pittsburgh, initiatives driven by cultural policy had built a significant consensus. In the 1960s and 1970s in the US, the emphasis shifted to creating parks, promenades and a series of ‘anchor projects’ including a Convention Centre, World Trade Centre, Science Park, Aquarium and a festival shopping complex developed by the Rouse Corporation, and animated by a lively cultural programme (Landry et al, 1996).

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<sup>4</sup> While the term city marketing first became widespread in the European urban literature in the 1980s, such a notion has been popular elsewhere for considerably longer, particularly in the US (van den Berg et al, 1990).

<sup>5</sup> The term can be defined as being considerable, high profile development that play an influential and catalytic role in urban regeneration, which can be justified if they attract other investment (Bianchini et al, 1992)

Baltimore was one of the first cities to achieve major physical regeneration through flagship development schemes. Baltimore had been experiencing long-term decline and its poor image was a product of divestment, deprivation and the social unrest of the 1950s and 1960s. However, Baltimore has also experienced a remarkable revitalisation process, which has attracted attention from all over the world. The Charles Centre in the heart of Baltimore was fundamental to this process. In the 1950s, the decline of the central business district (CBD) and the city's fiscal position became the major problems to be tackled in order to improve the city's economy. Combining forces with the Greater Baltimore Committee resulted in a revitalisation plan for the whole of the CBD. Its key component was the Charles Centre, a mixed-use development proposal consisting of offices, retailing and apartments, which would effectively demonstrate that downtown development was a viable proposition. In 1958, the city council accepted the project and agreed to play a facilitating role by undertaking land acquisition and clearance. However, the private sector provided most of the capital costs of \$180 million<sup>6</sup>. A non-profit, quasi-public development corporation, the Charles Centre Management Office (CCMO) was set up to supervise the scheme's implementation (De Jong, 1991).

The success of this scheme paved the way for a second and more ambitious urban renewal project in the dilapidated Inner Harbour Area. In 1970, a city fair ('Sunny Sunday') was held, which successfully united a number of disparate neighbourhoods and interest groups. The city fair restored civic pride (Falk, 1986).

Although the Charles Centre is regarded as a successful project, the true value of the regeneration process in Baltimore was later projects. The construction of the Maryland Science Centre, the National Arena, Convention Centre, a marina, a Hyatt

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<sup>6</sup> 20% of capital was from public money and the private sector provided 80% (\$145 million).

hotel, and a variety of leisure and retail facilities in the Inner Harbour was the result. Harbour place, developed by the Baltimore-based Rouse Corporation, is probably the best-known project of the Inner Harbour<sup>7</sup>. The image of the inner city as a location to invest and as a place to be was improved was thereby reinforced (De Jong, 1991). The Inner Harbour Area became an international tourist destination and the flagship project was born (Harvey, 1991).

Lowell, widely seen as the first industrial town based on cotton and textiles, was in decline in 1970. It initiated 22 heritage projects refurbishing warehouses to create museums, heritage and visitor centres, shops and restaurants. This was presented as an 'urban cultural park', and is now considered to have been very successful in changing the emphasis towards tourism (Falk, 1986).

Pittsburgh, the steel mill town, rose in the late 1980s from the debris of a collapsed steel industry with one of the best urban public education systems in the country, and extremely liveable neighbourhoods (Sbragia, 1990). Similar to Baltimore, Pittsburgh pursued the public-private partnership (the Allegheny Conference on Community Development) to improve the image of the city- environmental reforms, physical renewal (slum clearance, parks, office buildings and cultural amenities) and institutional restructuring, which reversed the deterioration of downtown (Muller, 1988). Through these corporations, the city was able to shift from a manufacturing base to one reliant on advanced technology (Sbragia, 1990).

The success of these and other developments led to recognition of the impact that the arts and culture could have, and largely influenced urban regeneration policies in west European cities.

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<sup>7</sup> Similar centres are found in Boston (Quincy Market) and New York (South Street Seaport) in the US.



## **Cultural flagship schemes and urban regeneration in European cities**

The US experience probably influenced the 1980s debate about the role of cultural policy in the urban regeneration process more strongly in Britain than in any other European country, partly as a result of political affinities between the Reagan and Thatcher governments (Bianchini et al, 1993).

In the 1980s, however, the American influence was also felt in industrial cities in other west European countries. Although many cities in Western Europe profitably used cultural policies to improve their internal and external images, they have not all followed the same path in the way culture-related initiatives have been employed to help remodel their images and to find new economic roles (Griffiths, 1993).

According to Sydhoff (1999), there is a strong relationship between culture and city in the present urban cultural strategy. For instance, while a cultural asset should be managed, it is also used as an act of urban regeneration. While considering the sustainable development of cities, it is also a possibility for creating community identity. While it presents an experience of form and art, it is also a part of history.

A number of cultural policy models can be identified, reflecting different political priorities, different conceptions of the cultural domain, and different spatial emphases. Cultural projects were used as key elements of a strategy focused on revitalising public social life, reviving a sense of civic identity and shared belonging to the city, creating a more inclusive and democratic public realm, and raising expectations about what city life has to offer (Montgomery, 1990). Bologna, an Italian city, is a place where this type of strategy has been pursued. It has typically been linked to a New Left political agenda, with the aim of the reclamation or rediscovery of the city centre

for community use; that is, culture as the general web of meaningful practices which characterise a community (Bloomfield, 1993).

Culture-related initiatives were used to act as symbols of newly acquired elegance, sophistication and cosmopolitanism in wealthier cities like Frankfurt, anxious to consolidate their competitive advantages by filling the gap between their high economic status and their often relatively low cultural standing. The city's financial centre and airport are among Europe's busiest, but until the 1970s its cultural life was under-developed and its overall image poor. By the early 1980s the city authority had developed a strategy to enhance the city's cultural status. About 1 billion DM was invested in high-quality cultural buildings, converting a derelict opera house into a concert hall and creating thirteen new museums (the Museum quarter) on the banks of the River Main (Friedrichs & Dangschat, 1993).

The Netherlands' second city, Rotterdam, similarly improved its image, traditionally that of a dull industrial centre dominated by petrochemical works and the port, through cultural initiatives, including the creation of a new Museum of Architecture and the organisation of new jazz and film festivals. Many waterfront regeneration projects with cultural components, especially Rotterdam's Kop van Zuid, were largely influenced by American models like Baltimore's Harbour Place, Boston's Quincy Market and New York's South Street Seaport (Hajer, 1993).

Cities like Montpellier, Rennes, Hamburg and Barcelona used cultural projects (e.g. the Antigone district in Montpellier, the 160 new public squares for the 1992 Olympic in Barcelona, the Museum of Arts and Crafts in Hamburg, and Science Park in Rennes) as symbols of modernity and innovations designed to expand sectors of the economy, such as fashion, crafts and design-based manufacturing, and high-tech



industry, that depend for their success on cultural inputs (Le Gales, 1990; Jauhiainen, 1992; Friedrichs & Dangschat, 1993; Negrier, 1993).

Cultural strategies were also used to create city boosterism, with its primary emphasis on arts consumption as a means of: attracting tourists (cultural tourists, delegates to business and scientific conferences); persuading business investments by projecting a better quality of life for professional and executive employees; and obtaining the profitability of physical renewal projects by retaining people in town after work.

Additionally, it sought to produce cooperation between office uses, shop, restaurants and cultural facilities in mixed-use developments and cultural districts, making the streets safer by increasing their use, and in turn, revitalising the evening economy and creating a stylish ambience (Snedcof, 1985; Wynne, 1992; Landry et al, 1996). This model of cultural strategy has largely been used by cities in the US, and has subsequently been adopted by many British cities. The model has also been the product of the business-led politics of local growth coalitions (Kearns & Philo, 1993).

Birmingham severely hit by the decline of manufacturing industry during the recessions of the 1970s and early 1980s, achieved substantial changes in image through their use of cultural policy. In Birmingham's case the city centre, a series of post-war planning disasters, was considered by local policy-makers as the main problem to be tackled to strengthen the city's positive image in international business circles. The City Council built a new International Convention Centre (£180 million) incorporating a fine concert hall for the City of Birmingham Symphony Orchestra, the National Indoor Arena (£57 million), organised a series of annual arts festivals. It encouraged London-based arts organisations, such as the former Sadlers Well's Royal Ballet Company and the D'Oyly Carte Opera Company to relocate to the city, and enhanced the distinctive features of city centre districts (Loftman & Nevin, 1992).



The original proposal for the construction of the 'Brindley Place' festival marketplace scheme (£250 million)<sup>8</sup> was based on Baltimore's Harbour place development, including the development of a National Aquarium (Loftman, 1990). These boosterism activities have been legitimised in terms of benefits such as gaining worldwide media coverage and putting the city on the international map (Loftman & Nevin, 1994).

Although cities in Western Europe have used cultural initiatives in rather different ways and purposes from one another, the one most common purpose of using culture in urban regeneration seems to be to improve overall images of their cities. They believed these would help their economic and social position in the era of transition from the Fordist to post-Fordist economy.

#### **Part 4: Critical issues of arts-based urban regeneration**

The mobilisation of culture to the cause of city marketing is one of the most recent ways in which cultural policies have become an established and legitimate part of urban regeneration strategies in Western Europe, and it would be difficult to deny that the emergence of these strategies has been progressive. However, there are also a number of critical issues to be addressed.

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<sup>8</sup> The scheme recently includes plans for the development of 850.000 sq ft of offices, 123.000 sq ft of retail space and 120 houses. However, the scheme has been subject to substantial delay and uncertainty over the past few years and is not expected to be completed this century. The difficulty of the scheme is the lack of financial supports (Loftman & Nevin, 1994).

A considerable debate, especially about Baltimore's renewal effort, has emerged. Critics claim that much of the redevelopment has at best had a modest impact on the bulk of the city's population. Questions have also been raised about the techniques and strategies that have been used to implement the programmes.

Szanton's 'Baltimore 2000' (1986) takes a decidedly pessimistic view of current trends, arguing that the immediate future of Baltimore is one of decline, not renaissance. This process of decline is seen as a pattern of uneven development that would, in effect, create two Baltimores- 'the centre would contain a business, cultural and entertainment centre that remained strong as it served the whole metropolitan area, and attractive housing for the well-to-do. The centre would be ringed by the decaying and much more populous neighbourhoods of poor and dependent, very largely black inhabitants. These in turn would be surrounded by middle and upper-income suburbs, very largely white' (p.21). Moreover, although manufacturing employment decreased dramatically in the 1970s and 1980s, service employment increased to compensate for the reduction. The city is, however, increasingly populated by citizens who are unprepared to compete in the service industry. Paradoxically, Levine (1989) states that between 1970 and 1984 the number of jobs requiring less than a high school education was reduced by 25%. Entry-level jobs requiring at least two years of college education increased 56%. Szanton (1986) notes that more than 50% of the jobs located in the city are filled by non-city residents, and that without a dramatic increase in the skill and education level of city residents, this proportion will continue to increase. The vision of dual Baltimore is also reinforced in the housing markets. There were about 5.000 vacant units in the city in 1989, waiting for either demolition or renovation. Many of these units could be purchased for less than \$30.000. Yet the average price of a new home in Baltimore in 1989 was more

than \$200.000 (Gunts, 1989). It seems that all new construction in the city was targeted to the affluent.

Another issue has appeared in the political process. As the private organisation distributed massive financial supports to the redevelopment projects in Baltimore, it is difficult to dispute a great number of critical economic decisions that have been made by private organisation (Hula, 1990). Moreover, there has been only a modest effort to make the link between development and economic opportunity more explicit. Berkowitz (1987) argues that although the city has consistently rejected explicit exactions from developers, it does require all firms receiving any financial assistance from the city to utilise the city's Manpower Programme as a first source of new hires and training. Baltimore seems an unlikely candidate to serve as a model for an urban regeneration, but many west European cities took it as a positive example for their development projects.

The American experience suggests other potentially controversial political implications of the prestige model of arts-based urban regeneration. Some of these are indicated by Sharon Zukin (1988) in 'Loft Living'. She examined artists who led the way for the conversion of former manufacturing space into residential units. The artists' presence contributed to increasing property values and rents, and to the subsequent displacement of lower income residents including many of the artists themselves. The arts helped to further the reconquest of downtown by the new urban middle class. Zukin interprets arts-based regeneration in the US as part of a strategy for the legitimisation of urban redevelopment coalitions led by the private sector.

A general criticism made of the transfer of the prestige model of regeneration from the US to western Europe, especially to Britain, is that it was enthusiastically accepted



by policy-decision makers without critical and dispassionate analysis of the claimed successes and, more importantly, of who benefits and loses (Barnekov et al, 1989; Hambleton, 1991).

One example of the tragedy of the American inspiration is Rotterdam's Kop van Zuid. As stated earlier, it was largely influenced by the success of the US experience. The plans for Kop van Zuid were designed to transform it into a business district by clearing all previous harbour activities in the area. The unique quality of the city of Rotterdam is its river. Misreading the assumptions underlying urban regeneration strategies in America, Rotterdam failed to recognise the unique, yet un-American, qualities of its riverfront. It is in the process of moving out real activities only to replace them with artificial creations that form a parody of the dynamism of the river as it presently is (Hajer, 1993).

Prestige projects, especially with the mixed-use developments, are mere mechanisms for achieving the physical and economic regeneration of discrete parts of urban areas. Thus such projects have encouraged the fragmentation of cities and the developments of urban regeneration and planning policies that aim at designated zones or sites (Healey et al, 1992). In the case of El Raval of Barcelona, the criticism of the regeneration clearly represents the conflict between the local and the global<sup>9</sup>. Liceo, the eastern side of El Raval, represents the regeneration plan of the 1980s, and the Olympic Games, the western side, represents the regeneration of the 1990s, but the southern zones of El Raval, characterised as a place to house aged working-class people and petty criminals, still remains unchanged (Jauhiainen, 1992).

Another critical issue is the improvement of economic status by attracting inward investment and creating new jobs. Some studies indicate that the arts and cultural

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<sup>9</sup> A resident of El Raval recapitulates the conflict in a graffiti by using the phrase 'Entre el Liceo y las Olimpiadas para El Raval no queda nada' (Between Liceo and the Olympic Games there will not be anything for El Raval) (Jauhiainen, 1992).

industry is contributing to employment. The Arts Business study (1991) revealed the cultural economy of Birmingham that 13.800 people were employed in Birmingham's arts and culture sector, which had an annual turnover of £255 million. However, despite the positive impact of this sector on employment in the city, much of the employment generated by this activity can be attributed to long-standing retailers, groups and venues not directly related to Birmingham's CBD regeneration, and civic boosterism policies. In addition, the study found that the average wage level within the cultural and arts sector was only £7.540.

Despite the assumption that prestige developments would create employment for local residents, there is little evidence that this process actually generates significant employment or other economic benefits for disadvantaged residents. For instance, in Birmingham the development of the International Convention Centre and National Indoor Arena has provided or generated few employment opportunities for inner-city residents (Loftman & Nevin, 1994). Similarly, the Docklands Consultative Committee identifies only 158 local (Tower Hamlets) residents working on the Canary Wharf construction project. Moreover, the Canary Wharf development's potential total workforce of 50.000 people would provide only 1800 jobs for local people (Docklands Consultative Committee, 1992).

There is, however, a more fundamental issue in the use of cultural strategies in urban regeneration projects. There is the irony that as more cities have tried to make use of cultural initiatives to set themselves apart from other cities, in the competition to attract inward investment and consumer spending they have tended in practice to draw on a restricted pattern of recipes (e.g. concert halls, international festivals, aquaria, exuberant post-modern architectural projects etc). This has had the paradoxical effect of tending to make everywhere seem like everywhere else (Boyer, 1992), and has



begun to raise questions about the possibility of severe oversupply in the increasingly crowded urban cultural economy (Griffiths, 1995).

There is also a distributional issue that there is still a lack of clarity as to whom the beneficiaries of these cultural projects are. Griffiths (1991) argues that there are various groups who will benefit, both intended and unintended; these include real estate speculators, traders and hoteliers. Many cities have actively involved the use of the arts to promote the image of rundown areas through the development of specialised cultural districts and integrated mixed-use developments (Snedcof, 1986). For the private sector, it was perceived that the arts could enhance the quality of downtown real estate developments and that this would in turn create uplift in rental levels (Bianchini, 1990). Evidence of such processes at work is examined by Zukin (1988), illustrated above. In her study, the rise of the loft market in New York is one unwittingly created by resident artists and subsequently exploited by the real estate sector.

As stated earlier, one of the major purposes of urban cultural policy is to create civic identity and pride. The success of the aim would draw more people to live in the city. However, there are obvious tensions between the aims of cultural and economic regeneration. For instance, the need to project images conducive to inward investment has meant that most cultural projects tend to take the form of prestige arts events or flagship developments. These often cater to a select audience with a high level of economic and cultural capital, but ignore community self-development and self-expression. Therefore prestige and flagship projects are more likely to bring benefits to the local middle-class and cultural tourists (Bassett, 1993). Some evidences were found in the case of El Raval, Barcelona and Frankfurt. Promoting Barcelona through its city centre is an opportunity to achieve international interest, and investment, but



forgetting the very local context in terms of local residents and their local culture. Jauhiainen (1992) argues that what is good for the region and the city is not good for everyone there. Frankfurt has altered its image from that of an ugly city to new urban lifestyles. However, such transformation benefits only the new urban middle classes and wealthy outsiders, not the average Frankfurter (Friedrichs & Dangschat, 1993).

Prestige projects require massive finance from the city authority, which may be detrimental to certain kinds of development. For instance, Birmingham's prestige cultural projects, centred on the International Convention Centre and Centenary Square, took place at the expense of substantial cuts in the city's education budgets (Loftman & Levin, 1992). In Frankfurt, such reduction also took place as the budget for neighbourhood-based culture was reorganised and cut back (Friedrichs & Dangschat, 1993).

The use of cultural projects in urban regeneration can offer cities substantial opportunities and benefits. However, it also has controversial implications and there are serious limits to what they can achieve. This research aims to examine the effect of cultural flagship developments on residents in regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester. There is a large amount of studies about urban cultural strategies in terms of their potential benefits and limitations for the cities, which have employed the strategies, but there is a lack of studies on the feelings of the cities' residents about the urban cultural flagship developments. Therefore, this research is a new area of study, which extensively deals with examining the attitude of residents in regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester toward urban cultural flagship development, and the effects of the development on these residents.

## **Summary**

During the 1980s and early 1990s, many European cities implemented regeneration strategies based upon cultural flagship projects which have largely adopted the US experience. Such strategies are designed to improve images of old industrial cities whose economic and social status has been severely ruined by the transition from the Fordist to post-Fordist economy. The evidence would indicate that the new urban cultural policies seem to produce many positive opportunities for such cities, such as creating physical regeneration, attracting investment and skilled workforce, increasing tourism and employment. On the other hand, however, such policies also draw many controversial issues, particularly adopting the US experience without deep considerations, the fragmentation of cities between project areas and non-project areas, the failure to generate more jobs for local residents and of improving community culture, and the question of gainers and losers. Therefore there are opportunities to be gained from cultural strategies, but the extent to which they will be achieved remains to be seen.

## **Chapter 3: Social and economic decline and revival in Glasgow and Manchester**

### **Introduction**

Once world cities, Glasgow and Manchester were in deep trouble with economic and social problems in the 1960s and 1970s, and they were seen as hopeless cities in terms of their economic and social revival. However, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have risen like a phoenix from the ashes. They are regarded as models of urban regeneration, and important examples for many urban policy-makers who are or have dealt with urban decline.

This chapter, therefore, endeavours to examine a series of changes that occurred in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. The chapter looks at the factors that led to long-run decline in Glasgow and Manchester. The chapter also looks at the ways that the cities of Glasgow and Manchester attempted to overcome social and economic decline through the use of cultural flagship strategies. Finally, the chapter evaluates the overall economic changes in both cities pre and post 1990.



## **Part 1: Glasgow**

Glasgow, the one-time 'Second City of the Empire' (Oakley, 1975), would become a city of hopelessness. Both shipbuilding and metal manufacture, which earned the reputation of the city, recorded dramatic falls in employment in the 1960s and 1970s, and by 1980 there were only two operational shipyards on the Clyde, employing less than 13,000 (60,000 in 1903 (Daiches, 1982). Between 1971 and 1983 manufacturing employment in the city fell by 45%. Glasgow had effectively lost its industrial base by the end of the 1970s (Lever & Mather, 1986). The reasons for this dramatic decline in the city's economic fortunes are related to the structural characteristics of the local economy. Keating (1988) argues that 'entrepreneurial culture of the Victorian period all but disappeared with the attention of the remaining big industrialists concentrated on cartelisation, protection and monopolisation' (p. 7). Checkland's famous study (1976) of Glasgow used the metaphor of the 'Upas Tree' to illustrate the heavy engineering of Glasgow killing off anything that sought to grow beneath its branches. Glasgow not only lost its industrial base, but between the 1960s and the 1970s the city's population also fell sharply from just over one million in 1961 to 774,000 in 1981, a loss of 32.8% of the population (Boyle, 1990). The reasons for the dramatic population loss in Glasgow were a very high rate of outmigration in response to economic conditions, and, in response to bad housing conditions, migration from the city to housing elsewhere, was at a faster rate than planned overspill (McCrone, 1991). In an article 'Glasgow: a city in collapse' Gretton (1972) describes Glasgow as images of grey, slum, hard, violent city and 'the city is not somewhere anyone would want to move to. With its depressing centre, its ring of corporation houses, the barrier created by the ring-road motorway, it could well become the first city to be classified

as industrial waste' (p. 142). It would be extremely hard to regain its previous reputation. Such words were the dominant prediction of Glasgow in the 1970s. However, by the mid-1980s Glasgow was a very different story. In Time magazine (1986) "The city that refused to die", Glasgow was described as 'once slum-ridden Glasgow renews its centre and its spirit'. Moreover, when Glasgow was designated as European City of Culture, even the English press (Observer) described the new Glasgow as 'a city shedding its skin like a rare reptile' (McKie, 1989).

There are several key elements to such changes in the contemporary restructuring of the city: the critical importance to the city of a government agency- the Scottish Development Agency (SDA)- and its funding of environmental change and economic development; the considerable change in housing; a continuation and extension of inner-city community renewal, often supported by the SDA; and the activities of the city and the private sector in changing the external image of the city, rebuilding community confidence in Glasgow, and beginning the process of urban marketing (Boyle, 1990). The SDA was established by the Labour Government in 1975 with the twin remits of regenerating the economy and undertaking environmental recovery (Boyle, 1989). The SDA was also a political response to the ascendancy of the separatist Scottish National Party (Keating & Midwinter (eds.), 1983). In spite of an initial reluctance by city and regional politicians to accept the SDA as a major body in urban regeneration, the SDA delivered the financial resources and the political power that quickly dispelled any thought of obstruction (Boyle, 1990). The first major scheme of economic and social development undertaken by the SDA was the Glasgow Eastern Area Renewal (GEAR) that was started in 1976. It remained the largest and most ambitious project in the UK (Wannop & Leclerc, 1987). The biggest impact of the GEAR project was clearly physical: massive environmental



improvement, including the recovery of derelict sites, and a substantial amount of new building, much of it privately funded. Without the project and the investment it brought in, the area would have increasingly become a large, open, derelict area on the flank of the city centre (McCrone, 1991).

However, the major problem in Glasgow was its overall poor image. Without considerable improvements, Glasgow would not achieve its regeneration. Beginning in the early 1980s, the marketing of Glasgow has developed as a series of pro-active or responsive strategies harnessing opportunities which city marketeers, those responsible for initiating and implementing city marketing, have read as offering potential for increasing inward investment and contributing positively to the improvement of the city's image. The SDA delivered financial resources and a high profile to projects such as the refurbishment of the disused Templeton's carpet factory, financial packaging of the Scottish Exhibition and Conference Centre, land assembly for the redevelopment of the St Enoch site as a major retail centre and the co-ordination of the Glasgow Garden festival in 1988 (Booth & Boyle, 1993).

The SDA also supported Glasgow Action- a public-private partnership based in the commercial core of the city, which was born out of US public-private partnerships. This initiative was largely involved in the development of the city centre in terms of economic and physical regeneration, supporting cultural activities: temporary exhibitions, development competitions and community art projects. Its continued support for landscaping, stone cleaning and floodlighting also served to highlight the architectural strengths of the city (Boyle, 1989). The most obvious physical changes were to be found mainly in the city centre and in the traditional owner-occupied housing areas where a programme of rehabilitation and stone-cleaning had revealed some very fine nineteenth and early twentieth century architecture (Boyle, 1989). In



contrast to the clearance policies of the 1950s, demolition became the last resort for the urban planners and developers (Pacione, 1995). Such changes in policy resulted in numerous new uses of old buildings- bijoux housing, cafes and smart restaurants in church towers and old warehouses; business centre in an empty factory; leisure shopping in the derelict fish-market- much of this property development concentrated on an area that became known as the 'Merchant City', bringing urban activity back to the inner-city (Glasgow District Council, 1986).

However, well before the SDA had begun to take an interest in the city centre, the City Council launched a vigorous marketing campaign, selling a new image of the city. The slogan 'Glasgow's Miles Better' was seen as the first step to dismiss the prevailing rough and unattractive physical image of Glasgow held by outsiders (Paddison, 1993). The campaign needs to be seen as more than simply civic hype, but was built on the idea of the cultural city. From the 1980s, there have been a series of individual projects and events maturing at the same time, producing an important critical mass of cultural activity in the city. A fine Victorian city was revealed. This together with the mass of art galleries (notably the Burrell Collection), museums, theatres and music venues became the substance for most of the marketing and promotional campaigns (Lim, 1993). In the later 1980s, with a massive cultural development the City Council promoted Glasgow as 'European Capital of Culture' in order to improve the city's international profile. The strategy of the bid was clearly promotional and heralded the need for Glasgow to direct its thrust to international markets. The arts were used as an additional strand of economic planning, directly through the attraction of tourists to the big event and indirectly through supporting an attractive image that might bring inward investment and relocated headquarters (Boyle, 1989). Glasgow's efforts culminated in its nomination as 'European City of

Culture' for 1990. Booth and Boyle (1993) point out that it was too early to accurately measure the impact of the 1990 celebrations, but 1990 certainly enhanced the credibility of Glasgow-based arts organisations and the city's national and international image, particularly in tourism terms.

However, Glasgow' European City of Culture celebrations were criticised for giving prominence to safe, unchallenging, cultural perspectives and marginalizing other, more critical, voices (Boyle & Hughes, 1991). Moreover, some studies demonstrate how fragile the culture-related strategies are. The decision to relocate BP Exploration to Aberdeen in 1992, the flagship headquarters office wanted by Glasgow, was indicative of the fragility of the gains achieved by the city made through cultural strategies. Furthermore, there have been employment gains attributable to the marketing strategies, but these initially did little to reduce the overall level of unemployment in the city, and between late 1990 and early 1992 the rate increased with the effects of the recession (Paddison, 1993).

Nevertheless, on a scale unprecedented in the UK, Glasgow appreciates the importance of image in the 1990s, and just as Glasgow was described by Gretton (1972) and many others as the example of urban despair, the city has now created its new reputation as a model of the post-industrial city.

## **Part 2: Manchester**

Manchester is a city of around 400,000 people, which is the primary financial and cultural centre of a conurbation of 2.6 million in the northwest region of England. The city was the world's first city of the industrial revolution. It was the machine manufacture of cotton that had made the Manchester region a centre of sustained



economic growth (Kidd, 1996). However, during the interwar period, the Lancashire cotton industry was in decline. The chief reason was the development of textile industries in former British colonies. By 1939, a catastrophic decline of the cotton industry had taken place. Exports of cotton piece goods decreased to less than one fifth of the 1913 level. Moreover, although the home market was still intact in 1939, this went in the successive mill closures and final collapse of the industry in the 1950s (Williams, 1996). However, Manchester suffered less effect from the decline in the cotton industry because of its more complex industrial base than the region. The Ship Canal, and the food industry and heavy engineering industries in Trafford Park helped to maintain the city's unemployment figures below the national average throughout the interwar period. The sustained economic growth in Manchester finally showed decline. In particular, employment in Trafford Park declined from 75,000 in 1945 to 50,000 by 1967. The motorway revolution also largely contributed to Trafford Park's decline by spreading the industrial zone along the Canal banks and away from the focal point of East Manchester. Moreover, Manchester's shipping trade was also taken over by Felixstowe, Tilbury and Southampton, which effectively closed it for business. It is estimated that between 1971 and 1981 nearly 50,000 full-time jobs in Manchester were lost (Tye & Williams, 1994). However, the decline in Manchester's manufacturing employment base has been accompanied by an expansion of business and financial services within the city. In fact, the service sector accounted for 79% of employment in the city in 1989 compared to 50% in 1961. The service sector was, however, also under pressure. Manchester's central business district suffered from the decentralisation of office development from the 1960s through to the 1980s. The city centre's share of commercial offices fell from approximately 40% of the total for Greater Manchester in 1974 to 33% in 1982 (Kidd, 1996).



Rapid population growth also came to an end in the early twentieth century. There is a submerged pattern of decentralisation, and suburban growth paralleling inner city decline in Manchester. After reaching 766,300 in 1931, the population of the borough of Manchester fell by 8% between 1931 and 1951, and further drop of 6% to 661,800 by 1961, a loss of over 100,000 in thirty years. The decline intensified over the next twenty years due to manufacturing decay and a policy of rehousing outside the municipal boundary. The figure of 451,100 for 1985 was therefore some 41% below the 1931 population level (Kidd, 1996). In the absence of a coherent plan for the region in the 1950s and the 1960s, Manchester opted for overspill estates outside the city limits. Between 1954 and 1976, Manchester Corporation demolished some 90,000 dwellings and erected 71,000 new council houses and flats. Slum clearance also brought other problems. Communities were broken up, local facilities such as shops and community services removed and local employment was lost. Social problems were conveyed to the new estates and often became worse in the new environment.

Manchester in the late 1980s and the 1990s shows a remarkable transformation from a city in decline to a growing city. Throughout the early 1980s, the city council built a reputation for its opposition and resistance to Thatcherism at the local level. However, following the re-election of a Conservative government in 1987, the authority's leadership adopted a less confrontational and a more co-operative attitude characterised as a 'new realism' (Tye & Williams, 1994). This new pragmatic approach by Manchester City Council in the late 1980s, stressed greater partnership and collaboration with the private sector and central government. Flagship-project development and the aggressive marketing and promotion of the city were seen as necessity to ensure the attraction of footloose service and capital (Peck & Tickell,

1994; Tye & Williams, 1994). A key element of Manchester's regeneration strategy is a pro-growth strategy, which was the promotion and development of its city centre area. In 1988, the Central Manchester Development Corporation (CMDC) was established which covered 470 acres in the southern and eastern part of Manchester's city centre area. Among its aims were to reduce investment barriers in the area; create appropriate infrastructure; extend the city centre functionally and geographically; create opportunities for local people; create civic pride and encourage high quality architecture and outdoor art; provide residential housing in the city centre; and promote Manchester as an international centre for business and tourism (CMCD, 1989). Manchester's Economic Development Strategy emphasises that the overall aim of the city's pro-growth strategy is to establish Manchester as a major international city of the 21st century, recognised as a leader in financial, business, cultural and sporting activities (Manchester City Council, 1992). In order to become an international centre for business, cultural and sporting activities, Manchester developed prestige cultural facilities, notably the International Concert Hall (Bridgewater Concert Hall) and Great Bridgewater Development (including G-Mex and Museum) which were constructed at a cost of £43m for the Concert Hall and £250m for Great Bridgewater Development (that is located on 18 ha of land and is to be the site of 250,000 sq ft of offices and hotel developments), with the resources being directed via the CMDC, the European Regional Development Fund and via Manchester City Council's capital programme (Loftman & Nevin, 1996). More important perhaps, although Manchester failed to host the 1996 and 2000 Olympics, it was Manchester's bid for the 2000 Olympics, the city winning the British nomination over London in 1991, which provided the focus of the city's pro-growth strategy and civic-boosterism activities in the 1990s (Tye & Williams, 1994). The bid for the



Olympic Games also generated a variety of sporting facilities (e.g., the indoor arena, the National Indoor Cycling Centre, and the National Sports Stadium) (Loftman & Nevin, 1996). Moreover, in Manchester there has been increased developer interest in warehouse conversion to residential housing, particularly in the Whitworth Street Corridor, which was aimed to be a 'village within the city'. The CMDC's intention was that 'housing provides life to a city centre when workers have gone home. It helps the function of the city centre by providing accommodation for people who do not wish to live too far from their place of work and it establishes a community that can contribute to the quality of environment and facilities within the centre (CMDC, 1989).

An important element of securing legitimacy for Manchester's approach to regeneration has been to convince residents that they will benefit from employment creation, economic growth and an attractive environment. However, there are some issues in relation to pro-growth strategy through flagship development in Manchester. Although Manchester City Council has attempted to create employment opportunities for those unemployed Manchester residents (Manchester City Council, 1994), the contention that a CBD-focused regeneration strategy benefits all groups within the city is open to challenge by the available evidence relating to the local labour market. For instance, Manchester City Council has estimated that 66% of its city-centre workforce live outside the city boundaries (Manchester City Council, 1993). There is also some evidence that Manchester's aggressive pro-growth strategy and the projection of an international image may result in the poor becoming increasingly marginalized within the city. In order to succeed in Manchester's Olympic bid, it was alleged that homeless people begging were arrested in order to make Manchester a



more presentable place for the Olympics (Manchester Single Homeless Strategy Working Party, 1993).

In the next section, the overall economic structural changes in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester will be examined.

### **Part 3: Actual changes in the local economy of Glasgow and Manchester**

The cities of Glasgow and Manchester have used cultural flagships to improve the overall image of their city, and in turn, it would affect the overall economic development in the cities. In order to develop their economy, Glasgow and Manchester have encouraged the growth of service related industries in place of rebuilding the declining manufacturing industries that had been their major economic base for more than a century. In this section, the number of enterprises registering and de-registering for VAT (1980-1998), the number of unemployed and employed population (1985-1998) in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester will be examined in order to evaluate the overall economic structural changes that have occurred in both cities.

#### **Change in the number of businesses (the estimates of the number of enterprises registering and de-registering for VAT in Glasgow & Manchester from 1980 to 1998)**

One way to see whether the economies of both cities have improved is through looking at the pattern of business start-ups and closures across the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. Registration and deregistration of enterprises are being used as a

proxy indicator for economic change. However, there is one problem in the use of registration and deregistration of enterprise as a proxy indicator for economic change. Although the number of enterprises in Glasgow and Manchester are examined, this does not show the amount of economic activity. For instance, big firms with high incomes may have been replaced by small firms with low incomes or vice versa. Therefore, it is a very imperfect proxy indicator in this sense. However, the proxy indicator will show the overall economic structural change in Glasgow and Manchester.

Table 3-1 shows that the estimates of the number of enterprises registering and de-registering for VAT in Glasgow and Manchester from 1980 to 1997 produced an interesting comparison between the two cities. In Glasgow, the number of enterprises registering for VAT was 12,110 in 1980 and in 1990 12,015, only a decrease of 95 enterprises from 1980 to 1990. On the other hand, in Manchester, although the number of enterprises registering for VAT increased by 410 between 1980 and 1983, it decreased by some 2,170 enterprises between 1984 and 1988. From 1980 to 1990, the number of enterprises registering for VAT in Manchester decreased from 12,730 to 10,975. Therefore, the number of enterprises registering for VAT in Manchester was higher than in Glasgow in 1980, but by 1990 the city had some 1,040 enterprises less than the number in Glasgow. One interesting aspect in the period from 1980 to 1990 is that in both cities, particularly in Manchester, the number of enterprises registering for VAT sharply decreased in the mid-1980s recession. It was in these periods that both cities began to apply cultural strategies to their cities. It might therefore be assumed that, because of the loss of enterprises, Glasgow and Manchester began to consider using cultural strategies as economic development methods in order

to cope with the problem, or it may also be possible that the two events were just coincidental.

**Table 3-1: The Estimates of the Number of enterprises registering and de-registering for VAT in Glasgow & Manchester From 1980 to 1997**<sup>10</sup>

| Glasgow | SYS    | % changes | Manchester | SYS    | % changes |
|---------|--------|-----------|------------|--------|-----------|
| 1980    | 12.110 |           | 1980       | 12.730 |           |
| 1981    | 12.030 | -0.7      | 1981       | 12.815 | 0.7       |
| 1982    | 12.105 | 0.6       | 1982       | 13.025 | 1.6       |
| 1983    | 12.065 | -0.3      | 1983       | 13.055 | 0.2       |
| 1984    | 12.095 | 0.2       | 1984       | 13.140 | 0.7       |
| 1985    | 12.050 | -0.3      | 1985       | 12.990 | -1.1      |
| 1986    | 11.890 | -1.3      | 1986       | 12.505 | -3.7      |
| 1987    | 11.930 | 0.3       | 1987       | 11.895 | -4.9      |
| 1988    | 11.940 | 0.1       | 1988       | 11.225 | -5.6      |
| 1989    | 11.805 | -1.1      | 1989       | 10.980 | -2.2      |
| 1990    | 12.015 | 1.8       | 1990       | 10.975 | -0.1      |
| 1991    | 12.275 | 2.2       | 1991       | 11.125 | 1.4       |
| 1992    | 11.870 | -3.3      | 1992       | 10.555 | -5.1      |
| 1993    | 11.670 | -1.7      | 1993       | 10.260 | -2.8      |
| 1994    | 11.175 | -4.2      | 1994       | 10.120 | -1.4      |
| 1995    | 11.230 | 0.5       | 1995       | 9.995  | -0.2      |
| 1996    | 11.085 | -1.3      | 1996       | 10.065 | 0.7       |
| 1997    | 11.010 | -0.7      | 1997       | 10.020 | -0.4      |
| 1998    | 10.920 | -0.8      | 1998       | 9.960  | -0.6      |

Sources: Business start-ups and closures: VAT registrations and de-registrations 1980-1997 published by the DTI in 1998.

\* SYS- Stock at year start

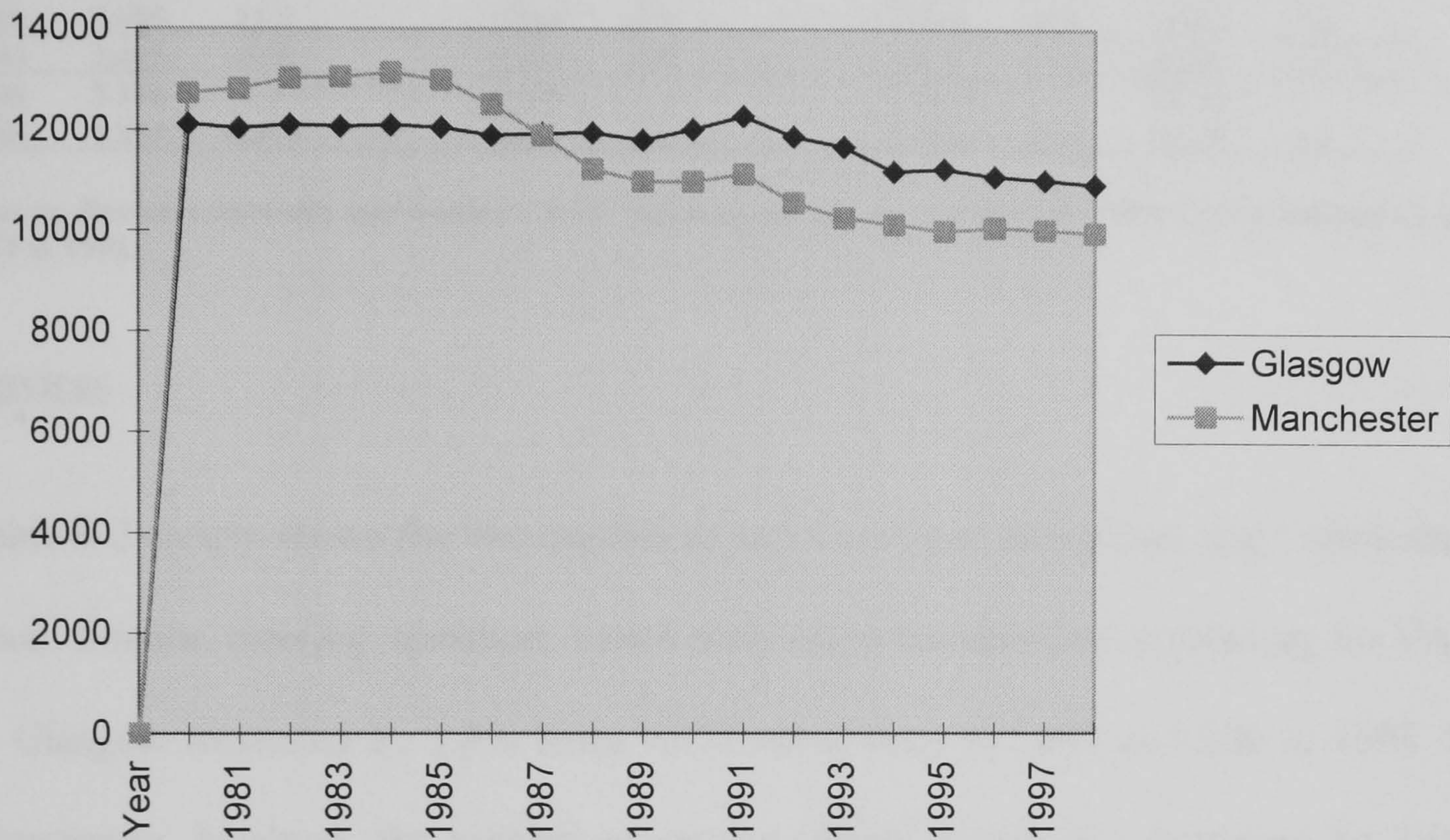
Another interesting aspect is that in Glasgow there was a large increase in the number of enterprises registering for VAT in 1989 (210) and in 1990 (260). This might be because of the European City of Culture 1990, which, it may be assumed, affected the increase in the number of enterprises in Glasgow. However, after 1990 the number of enterprises registering for VAT in Glasgow sharply decreased- by 200 in 1992 and 210 in 1993. The number of enterprises registering for VAT in both cities continuously decreased after 1990. In Glasgow 1,190 enterprises were lost between 1980 and 1998, but, there was a more severe decrease in Manchester, 2,770

<sup>10</sup> The pre 1994 figures are not entirely comparable. Firstly, they counted VAT units, rather than whole VAT registered enterprises. The two are usually, but not always, synonymous. Secondly, large increases in the threshold for VAT registration in 1991 and 1993 have affected the share of the small business population registering for VAT.



enterprises being lost between 1980 and 1998, more than twice the number of enterprises lost in Glasgow in the same period.

**Figure 3-1: Number of enterprises in Glasgow and Manchester from 1980 to 1998**



The economic performance of both cities seems to reflect the overall state of the British economy and macro economic conditions pre and post 1990.

It is clear that the problem of economic decline in both Glasgow and Manchester in the mid-1980s and the early 1990s was not the sole problem of the cities, but it was more likely to be the problem of the UK economy as whole.

### **Changes in types of activity (the estimates of the number of enterprises registering for VAT by broad industry group in Glasgow and Manchester from 1980 to 1997)**

As mentioned in previous sections, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester intended to improve their economic base through the development of service related business.



**Table 3-2: Changes in enterprises registering for VAT by broad industry group in Glasgow and Manchester from 1980 to 1993: % changes in No. of enterprises 1980-1998**<sup>11</sup>

| Year | <u>Glasgow</u>            |       |          |      | <u>Manchester</u>         |       |          |      |
|------|---------------------------|-------|----------|------|---------------------------|-------|----------|------|
|      | Production & Construction |       | Services |      | Production & Construction |       | Services |      |
|      | N                         | %     | N        | %    | N                         | %     | N        | %    |
| 1980 | 2.935                     |       | 9.070    |      | 3.795                     |       | 8.885    |      |
| 1985 | 3.035                     | 3.4   | 8.915    | -1.7 | 3.675                     | -3.2  | 9275     | 4.4  |
| 1990 | 2.695                     | -11.2 | 9.265    | 3.9  | 2.405                     | -34.6 | 8.545    | -7.9 |
| 1993 | 2.405                     | -10.8 | 9.230    | -0.4 | 2.005                     | -16.6 | 8.230    | -3.7 |
| 1994 | 2.140                     |       | 8.985    |      | 1.785                     |       | 8.310    |      |
| 1998 | 1.855                     | -13.3 | 9.020    | 0.4  | 1.440                     | -19.3 | 8.510    | 2.4  |

Source: Business start-ups and closures: VAT registrations and de-registrations 1980-1997 published by the DTI in 1998.

### Services

Table 3-2 clearly shows that the number of service related enterprises (e.g., wholesale, retail, finance, catering, transport, motor trade and other services) registering for VAT in Glasgow increased by 1.8% from 9,070 enterprises in 1980 to 9,230 in 1993. In Manchester, however, the number of service related enterprises decreased by 7.4% from 8,885 in 1980 to 8,230 in 1993. After 1993, both cities increased the number of service related enterprises by 0.4% from 8,985 in 1994 to 9,020 in 1998 in Glasgow and by 2.4% from 8,310 in 1994 to 8,510 in 1998 in Manchester. Overall, the number of service related enterprises decreased by 0.6% between 1980 and 1998 in Glasgow, and by 4.2% in Manchester. Nevertheless, the analysis shows changes in the number of enterprises not the share in total output in the cities.

### Production and Construction

The number of production and construction related enterprises in Glasgow continuously decreased by 18.1% from 2,935 in 1980 to 2,405 in 1993. In

<sup>11</sup> The figures after 1994 are based on the standard industrial classification 1992 which are different with the pre 1994 figures. A full detailed table is in Appendix 3.

Manchester, the same sectors greatly decreased by 47.2% from 3,795 in 1980 to 2,005 in 1993. However, both cities continued to lose a large number of enterprises from production and construction industries after 1993: 13% in Glasgow and by 19.6% in Manchester. Overall, the number of production and construction related enterprises decreased by 36.8% between 1980 and 1998 in Glasgow and by 62.1% in Manchester. This analysis also shows changes in the number of enterprises rather than the share in total output in the cities.

Overall, the number of enterprises in the service sector seems to be stable throughout the 1980s and the 1990s in both cities as a result of the city governments of both cities focusing upon improvement in the viability of the service industry. Moreover, although both cities lost a large number of manufacturing and construction enterprises in the 1980s, the loss of enterprises in such industries slowed down in both cities in the mid-1990s. However, one aspect that should be mentioned is that although relatively high skills are required by service sectors, such as finance, insurance, administration, etc., which rapidly increased in both cities, relatively low skill economic sectors, such as retail and wholesale, sharply decreased (by 42.1% in Glasgow and by 27.7% in Manchester 1980-93). After 1993, the number of enterprises in these sectors continued to decrease from 1994-98 by 11.9% in Glasgow and by 11% in Manchester. It may mean that those workers, who have low skills, would find it more difficult to get employment in services industries. Therefore, there is a possibility that a wide gap will be created between high skilled workers and low skilled workers in the labour market, where service related industries predominate. Nevertheless, one clear aspect is that both cities' economic structure has altered from manufacturing industry to service industry.



## Summary

At the turn of the century, Glasgow's proud boast was that it was the second city of the British Empire, the centre of a booming industrial region. However, the city's economic base after a long period of stagnation collapsed in the 1960s and 1970s. Most of the shipyards and the other major engineering works are now closed or employ only a fraction of their former workforce. Moreover, the city also lost a large percentage of its population in the same period. The city of Glasgow was thus believed to be a completely hopeless city. However, Glasgow never dies. In the 1980s, Glasgow showed its new image as a post-industrial city through a variety of cultural activities and new urban planning. Eventually, the city of Glasgow became the 1990 European City of Culture. Much of such revival has been based upon a new-found partnership between the public and private sectors.

The city of Manchester also faced similar urban problems- a massive loss of population and economic activities. However, since the mid-1980s, the city of Manchester has attempted to be an international business and tourist centre through the use of cultural flagship development. The city's bid for the Olympic Games increased its international reputation, and the city is also now seen as a post-industrial city. However, there are some negative distributional aspects of the impact of flagship development on the social and economic life of residents in both cities.

Throughout the evaluation of the overall economic changes in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, one thing is clear. Although there has been a large decline in the number of enterprises in both cities, particularly in production and construction sectors, they seem to slowly improve their economy since the early 1990s by creating

more enterprises in service industries. Therefore it seems that in both cities there has been economic structural changes in enterprises from production and construction industries to service industries, which seems to compensate for the loss incurred.

Most questions arising in this chapter will be analysed throughout the evaluation of the survey questions.

## **Chapter 4: Research Methodology and the Research Areas**

### **Introduction**

Any research subject needs to have a ‘methodology’ to reach its conclusion. It must have ways of developing and analysing data, thus hypotheses can be tested, accepted or rejected. Without a systematic way of developing knowledge, the findings of a subject can be dismissed as speculation, or even as common sense made to sound complicated. Methodology is concerned with both the detailed research methods through which data are collected, and the more general philosophies upon which the collection and analysis of data are based.

This research attempts to examine the characteristics of new residents of regenerated areas in Glasgow and Manchester, and to inquire about their perception of cultural flagship strategies in their city. Since most literature is mainly concentrated upon the strategies’ economic effects on older industrial cities, it is important to know the effects of the strategies on people who live there and their attitude toward the strategies, which would indicate the credibility of the strategies.

In this chapter, first of all, the study’s basic hypothesis and aims will be addressed in order to clarify the overall purpose of the study. Secondly, the reasons for choosing questionnaires as a research method, the processes of designing and collecting data, and information for this study will be explained. The methodological procedures are largely based on Moser and Kalton’s ‘Survey methods in social investigation’ (1971) and Dillman’s ‘Mail and Telephone Surveys: the total design method’ (1978).



Moreover, this section will also contribute some critical appraisal of experience obtained during the survey.

Finally, the overview of the research areas (Crown Street & Merchant City in Glasgow and Hulme & Whitworth Street in Manchester) will be briefly considered. It illustrates problems that the four research areas faced in the past, and the redevelopment processes in the present. The reasons for choosing the areas as the survey subjects will be also briefly explained.

## **Part 1: The Purposes of the Study**

Much existing literature on cultural flagship strategies seems to focus upon the economic importance of the schemes, but there is a lack of empirical studies based on the perceptions of urban cultural flagship strategies from residents in cities where the strategies have been applied.

The main purpose of the study is to investigate some important aspects, which seem to be largely ignored in current debates on cultural flagship strategies. For instance, have the strategies had any influence on the decision of new residents to live in regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester, which, in turn, would result in reurbanisation? Do new residents feel that the strategies have any impact on the improvement in the overall image of the cities? Do the strategies provide an enhanced quality of life for new residents in both cities? And do the strategies affect both low-income residents and high-income residents in regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester in the same way?

The study's basic hypotheses are that urban cultural strategies might affect the decision of new residents to live in the areas, which would lead to reurbanisation. This is because urban cultural flagship strategies provide massive cultural facilities to transform the image of the cities, which draw attention from potential residents. Moreover, another aim of urban regeneration policy in both cities is to provide good quality housing for new residents in central city areas and at the edge of the central city. The transformation of the physical environment in both the cities is intended to attract new residents to move into the cities, which, in turn, would result in reurbanisation. Therefore, new residents in regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester should show positive attitudes toward the strategies. However, although the strategies' main aims seem to regenerate the overall images of both cities and the local economy, they would generate a different set of benefits for residents in the cities. For instance, one might expect that the strategies could be more effective for high-income residents than low-income residents, as the strategies are largely designed to attract inward movements of high-income residents and investment. Therefore, one might expect different opinions on the strategies between high and low-income residents.

In order to achieve the purposes of the study, chapters from 5 to 9 will address the above questions. The objectives of chapter 5 are to identify the overall characteristics of new residents in regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester: to see where they come from; the household size; the occupational status; the household income; and the age structure. The objectives of chapter 6 are to evaluate the reasons for their decision to live there. This will investigate factors that affect the process of reurbanisation in the survey areas of Glasgow and Manchester, and will also analyse the differences in reasons for residence between residents with different social and

economic backgrounds. The objectives of chapter 7 are to examine their life in their new residence: are they satisfied with living there? If yes, what do they like about living there? And if no, what do they dislike about living there? Moreover, this will also give some ideas about the sustainability of current reurbanisation techniques in both cities. The objectives of chapter 8 are to evaluate the overall perceptions of both cities. New residents' views on the current images of both the cities, and the effects of urban cultural flagship strategies on the improvement in the overall image of the cities will be analysed. Finally, the objectives of chapter 9 are to investigate the contribution to residents' quality of life provided by urban cultural flagship schemes. It will examine the usage of cultural facilities, the importance of different types of facilities, and the effect of cultural facilities on new residents' economic life. In this chapter, new residents' opinions on their city council's regeneration effort and factors that would lead to further improvements will be also evaluated.

## **Part 2: Methodology**

To achieve the purposes of the study, empirical and descriptive surveys were employed. For the empirical survey, a quantitative research method was employed by means of questionnaires. A large number of questionnaires (2065) were distributed to residents in Glasgow (970 questionnaires) and Manchester (1095). The overall response rate was satisfactory: 33.0%- 33.8% from Glasgow and 32.2% from Manchester. The data analysis was carried out by using the Statistical Package for



Social Science (SPSS). Official statistics produced by the government are used in this study as secondary sources.

### **The reasons for questionnaires as a research method for the study**

One of the most important decisions in the study was what research method or methods should be utilised to accomplish the aims of the study. Two methods were possible- qualitative (interviews) and quantitative (questionnaires) methods- in order to fulfil the research aims. It was decided because of the nature of the study that it would be more suitable to use the quantitative method (questionnaires) to meet the main purpose of the study. This decision is driven by several reasons:

1. There is insufficient secondary information about the characteristics of new residents in the research areas chosen for the study, as the areas have become residential areas fairly recently. It was impossible to identify what the characteristics of people are that live there before conducting a major survey, thus face-to-face interviews would be inappropriate. This is because the survey would face problems with the selection of interviewees.
2. The study is concerned with broad areas with thousands of population in both the cities. In order to understand the large areas and population, questionnaires would be more effective for this study and increase the reliability of the study. Although the qualitative method (interviews)

would increase the validity of the study, this method might not be effective for such large areas and population to cover.

3. The use of both close and open-ended questions on the questionnaire can provide an in-depth and broad understanding of new residents' attitudes toward urban cultural flagship strategies and the effects of the strategies on them.

## **Questionnaire Rationale**

There are many advantages and disadvantages of using a questionnaire as a research instrument which were identified by Dillman (1978) and Newell (1993):

### Advantages

- \* Large numbers of subjects in more locations can be asked to contribute.
- \* Confidentiality can be guaranteed and hence more truthful responses may be given leading to more reliability.
- \* They are more economical in terms of time and money.
- \* Questionnaires could be filled at any time convenient to the respondents without influence from any body else.
- \* Decreases the social desirability bias.

### Disadvantages

- \* A low return rate reduces the sample size and biases the results.

- \* It is quite possible that one or more question is missed.
- \* It is very difficult to design a questionnaire, which will be fully understood by every respondent.
- \* It differs from the face-to-face interview, where the interviewer could explain any misunderstanding to the respondent.

Although there are advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaires, as the research dealt with a large number of people in the four chosen areas, questionnaires appeared to be more appropriate to investigate the aim of the study. Moreover, during the pilot study, I found people in the survey areas unwilling to be interviewed, and also had problems of access to residential buildings as there is a very high degree of security. Therefore, it can be more effective to use questionnaires to gather information rather than the face-to-face interview.

## **Questionnaire design**

### Types of questions

The questionnaire consists of two types of questions, 'close-ended' and 'open-ended'. Close-ended questions are the most frequently used when developing a research questionnaire. The advantages of this type of question or scale response are: the responses are restricted to stated alternatives, where the respondent has to find the most appropriate answer; they are suitable for attitude and belief answers; ideal for determining degree of involvement and frequency of participation; easier to analyse



and to code; less demanding in time for the respondent to complete; appropriate to questions of a sensitive or private nature; and save time and money for the researcher. In general, a close-ended question could be used when the respondent is informed about the issues in order to get at specific aspect of the matter, and to assess how strong the respondent's opinions are (Dillman, 1978).

The Likert Scale is widely used in attitudinal research (Oppenheim, 1992), and since this study is partly concerned with the attitude of residents in the four areas of Glasgow and Manchester in terms of perceptions of the cities and the effectiveness of cultural facilities and their city council in urban regeneration, three and five point Likert scales, as a type of close-ended question, have been employed.

The main disadvantage of this type of question is, however, that it forces the respondent to choose between the limited answers provided and may lead to recording of false opinion. Therefore, it does not provide much insight into whether the respondent really has any other information or any clearly formulated personal opinion about the issue (Dillman, 1978). Open-ended questions are employed to increase the validity of the study. Open-ended questions allow the respondents to compose their own answers rather than choosing between a number of given answers. This may be more likely to provide valid data since respondents can say what they mean in their own words (Moser & Kalton, 1971). However, this kind of response might be difficult to classify and quantify. Answers must be carefully interpreted before being able to give a result of survey (Dillman, 1978; Moser & Kalton, 1971). Therefore, in the study all open-ended answers were classified through three operational processes- (1) writing down exactly what respondents wrote on questionnaires; (2) grouping the same or similar answers; (3) and categorising each

group of answers. These processes produced a large number of categories, thus groups with small responses were put together in a less important category, called 'other'.

Questions on the questionnaire were printed on both sides of pages that reduced the quantity of pages in each questionnaire by half. The main purpose of printing on the both sides was not only to reduce the quantity of pages, but also to make the content of the questionnaire appear smaller to respondents, which might increase responses. Moreover, it also reduces expenses.

## **Questionnaire testing**

### Pilot study

The pilot study is a small-scale preliminary study conducted before the main research, and an important step to assess whether the questionnaire is appropriate, understandable and simple to use (Moser & Kalton, 1971). The main purpose of this pilot study was to make sure that this questionnaire would work as intended, as well as to discover the opinion of respondents on both the content and the format of the questionnaire in order to (i) overcome any misunderstanding(s) (ii) pilot the instructions given to respondents (iii) pilot the answering categories and (iv) pilot the coding procedure.

The pilot study is intended to be a small size, thus a sample of 20 questionnaires were distributed in Glasgow and Manchester (10 examples from each city, and 5 examples from each area). During the pilot study two techniques were used to check the feasibility of the questionnaire- (1) half of sample were asked to answer through

structured interviews; (2) and the other half of sample were given the questionnaire to fill in by themselves in the presence of the researcher.

Overall, although this pilot study was successful and no major problems of understanding questions were suggested by the respondents, the researcher realised that there was a problem in that the number of questions on the questionnaire was too great, which might discourage respondents to respond to the actual survey, and thus the number of questions on the questionnaire needed to be reduced in order to increase responses for the main study.

## **The process of sampling framework**

### Problems of sampling framework

Once a researcher has chosen a topic for research and a method to carry out that research, the researcher needs to decide on a 'sample', that is the actual individuals to be studied (Moser & Kalton, 1971).

During the research, however, some problematic aspects were found in deciding what type of sampling techniques should be used for the survey. The survey was concentrated on a member of a household rather than individual residents in the four areas. All research involves some sort of sampling techniques, such as 'random and systematic sampling', 'stratified random sampling', 'quota sampling', 'multi-stage sampling', 'snowballing', and 'non-representative sampling' (de Vaus, 1986; Sigleton



et al, 1993). However, some difficulties were found with using such sampling techniques.

At first, it was assumed to be appropriate to use electoral registers of the four areas for a sampling framework. However, as the four areas chosen for the survey are relatively new residential areas, many residents were not yet registered, particularly in Hulme and Crown Street (a list of all occupiers in Crown Street was obtained through Crown Street Regeneration Project Office). Moreover, in Glasgow electoral registers only include street numbers of residential housing, but they do not include flat numbers (a residential building could contain several flats, but the electoral register only indicates one street number for all residents in the building) which caused difficulties with identifying who live in which flat, and with finding how many flats were in a residential building. It was also not known whether a flat or house was actually occupied. The researcher, therefore, attempted to contact every possible organisation that might have the information related to the research (some residential buildings in Whitworth Street areas have caretakers, thus the residential information was obtained through them). Unfortunately, it was impossible to have all the necessary information of residents in the survey areas (some organisations, particularly private developers, would not give the information). All the above problems generated difficulties with choosing what types of sampling technique should be used for the research.

With the range of possibilities available, it was decided that every dwelling in the four research areas were to be selected. Although it was highly time-consuming and expensive to select every residence in the four chosen areas, it was the only option that could be taken in order to overcome the problems identified.

## Sample size

It is a primary concern how big the size of sample for the study has to be. There is no general rule, which can be applied to sample size; it depends on the variation in population in regard to the key characteristic(s) of the study. In general, with a small increase in a small sample, a significant increase in accuracy will occur.

De Vaus (1986) suggests that a sample size of 10 percent of population for homogeneous groups is required for accuracy. In addition to sampling size, Dillman (1978) argues that the selection criteria and substitution procedures are important factors, which contribute to the representativeness of the sample. The sample size for the study is the number received from the total household, which is well above 10 % of the total household in the survey areas.

## **Data collection process**

### Distribution of the questionnaire

Some questionnaires were delivered to the households from door to door by the researcher, but many questionnaires were also mailed to the households whose addresses were obtained by the researcher from the electoral register. Although the door-to-door distribution of questionnaires was considerably time-consuming for the researcher, it was an effective way to distribute questionnaires to the unidentifiable households, and it saved considerable expense. However, it was impossible to meet

every household during the distribution of questionnaires, thus some households were delivered to by putting questionnaires in mail boxes on their door without seeing the people who lived there. Some questionnaires were returned without filling in the questions. Some fifty questionnaires were returned by others (e.g., caretakers, people who work in private housing office, etc.) who informed me that these particular properties were unoccupied.

One interesting aspect that was found during the survey is that the door-to-door delivery method, particularly the delivery of questionnaires face to face, resulted in a higher response rate than other methods (e.g., the delivery of questionnaires by putting them in mail boxes personally and by mail).

**Response rate by different delivery methods**

|                                    | <u>Distribution</u> | <u>Responses</u> |             |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|-------------|
|                                    | No                  | No               | %           |
| <b><u>By face to face</u></b>      | <b>378</b>          | <b>163</b>       | <b>43.1</b> |
| <b><u>By putting mailboxes</u></b> | <b>945</b>          | <b>282</b>       | <b>29.8</b> |
| <b><u>By mail</u></b>              | <b>873</b>          | <b>236</b>       | <b>27.0</b> |
| <b>Total</b>                       | <b>2196</b>         | <b>681</b>       | <b>31.0</b> |

Higher response rate from the delivery method of face-to-face compared to other methods might be as a result of delivery bias. The delivery of questionnaires face-to-face was conducted at weekend (particularly on Sunday). The delivery on Sunday would give resident more free time to fill questionnaires and the personal contact would increase the confidence of respondents. The delivery method of putting in mailboxes was also conducted at weekend, but this method was used because residents were absent at the time of delivery. No personal contact might discourage



these residents to fill in questionnaires. The mail delivery would not only face a problem of personal contact, but would also lead to the delay of filling questionnaires as mailed questionnaires would be more likely to be received in the early morning of weekdays. The weekday receipt of questionnaires might cause no response.

Another possible reason would be age and area bias. As it was very difficult to contact residents in the central city areas (Merchant City and Whitworth Street), most face-to-face deliveries were conducted in the inner city areas (Crown Street and Hulme). Many residents who received questionnaires by the delivery method of face to face were elderly. Therefore, the differences in response rate between different delivery methods might not be significant if the use of delivery methods between the inner city areas and the central city areas or between elderly and young residents were the same. But there is some potential bias here which is difficult to estimate.

To encourage a high return, Dillman (1978) suggests that the questionnaire should be well structured and include clear and easily understood instructions, an explanation of the purpose of the study, and the full address of the researcher.

The questionnaires were mailed, or delivered by the researcher to the respondents, along with a pre-stamped return addressed envelope and a covering letter, which included the following elements:

- \* The introduction of the researcher with the institution of the researcher.
- \* The purpose of the study and its potential usefulness.
- \* The promise of confidentiality of respondents.
- \* Appreciation for their cooperation and assistance.
- \* Request for immediate return.

## **The response rate**

Numbers of questionnaires mailed or delivered to the households in the four survey areas in Glasgow and Manchester were 2,196. However, some 131 questionnaires were returned without answers. The main reason was that potential occupiers had not moved into the properties yet, and for instance some residents in Hulme are mentally disabled, and were unable to give answers, and some residents (particularly private renters) had just moved into the properties from other parts of the country or from overseas. However, some of them gave no reasons. Therefore these 131 returns were excluded from the actual sample list. The overall numbers are 2,065 households sampled in the research areas

### **Response rate**

|                                | <u>Distribution</u> | <u>Responses</u> |      |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|------|
|                                | No                  | No               | %    |
| <b><u>Glasgow</u></b>          | 970                 | 328              | 33.8 |
| <b><u>Crown Street</u></b>     | 340                 | 117              | 34.4 |
| <b><u>Merchant City</u></b>    | 630                 | 211              | 33.5 |
| <b><u>Manchester</u></b>       | 1095                | 353              | 32.2 |
| <b><u>Hulme</u></b>            | 376                 | 128              | 34.0 |
| <b><u>Whitworth Street</u></b> | 719                 | 225              | 31.3 |
| <b><u>Total</u></b>            | 2065                | 681              | 33.0 |

The overall response rate for this study was 33.0% of all occupied households in the four research areas of Glasgow and Manchester. Although the response rate of 33.0% is higher than that suggested by de Vaus (1986) for such surveys, it is not a sample of homogeneous groups. Thus one might not confidently say that the sample represents

the overall population. However, Neuman (1999) suggests that ‘for small populations (under 1,000), a researcher needs a large sampling ratio (about 30%), which is required for a high degree of accuracy’ (p. 217). The response rate of 33.0%, therefore, was adequate to provide a high degree of accuracy.

Another aspect that should be discussed is that there might be response bias in the study, particularly as one does not know who in the household answered the questionnaires. In other words, the 33.0% response is representative of whom? It is possible that the questionnaires might not be answered by the respondents with the same position in their household. For instance, it could be sons, daughters, wives or husbands of households who filled in the questionnaires. However, although the study somehow seems to be a household survey, the main purpose is to examine individual residents’ opinion about urban cultural flagship strategies. Moreover, there is a very high proportion of households with single adults or couples (around 90%) in the research areas. Thus it would be less likely to produce a high degree of response bias for the study.

### **Data handling process**

Before a researcher examines quantitative data to test hypotheses, s/he needs to put them in a different form. Data coding means systematically reorganising raw data into a format that is machine readable (i.e., easy to analyse using computers). Coding can be a simple clerical task when the data are recorded as numbers on well-organised recording sheets, but it is very difficult when, for instance, a researcher wants to code answers to open-ended survey questions into numbers.



Two thirds of the questions on the questionnaire were close-ended; the pre-coded answers were given to the respondents. Data coding for these questions was quite an easy task. However, one third of the questions on the questionnaire were open-ended, which created some problems to code answers into numbers. The major problem was a large number of variables. Moreover, every respondent was allowed to answer as many as s/he can. This led to the coding procedure being more complicated.

In order to overcome such problems, a primary codebook<sup>12</sup> was made to write down every answer given by the respondents. Using the primary codebook, a second codebook was made to minimise the overall number of variables by linking similar variables in a group. Although such a coding procedure was highly time consuming, it was very effective to deal with the problems.

## **Data analysis**

Using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Hedderson, 1991; Norusis, 1991), the frequency distribution of demographic data for characteristics of the respondents (e.g., previous residence of the respondents, age structure, household size, occupational status, household incomes, etc.); the statistical significance of factors given by the respondents (e.g., reasons for moving to the areas, factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, factors of improvement in the city today compared to the city in the 1970s perceptions of the city, factors of improvement in the city through the use of cultural facilities; importance of cultural facilities to the respondents; and effectiveness of the city council); and the statistical correlation

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<sup>12</sup> A codebook is a document describing the coding procedure and location of data for variables in a format that computers can use.

between the respondents with different income households, types of tenure, age, occupations, etc. were computed, and the results were put under each table.

Two tests, for statistical significance (**chi-square**) and for measures of association (**Cramer's V**), were used to measure the probability that random chance is at work. For chi-square, the value of 0.05 (5 out of 100, or 20 to 1) or less is generally accepted as indicating a statistically significant result (Neuman, 1999; Healey et al, 1997; Green et al, 1997). Therefore any values above the acceptable value during the analysis of the survey data were classified as statistically not significant, and were excluded in the process of result analysis. Cramer's V assesses the strength of the relationship between two variables, which vary between 0.00 and 1.00. In most social science research situations, measures of association over 0.30 would be generally regarded as extremely interesting and evidence of a strong relationship between the variables.

### **Secondary sources**

Secondary sources consist of data that have already been produced by a variety of organisations. Secondary sources are invaluable to researchers, but have to be used with great caution. Their reliability and validity are often open to question and often they do not provide the exact information required by a researcher (Moser & Kalton, 1971).

For this study, official statistics (e.g., number of enterprises registering and deregistering for the VAT) are used to establish some hypotheses toward the improvement of local economies in Glasgow and Manchester.

### **Part 3: Description of the research areas**

The four chosen areas are Crown Street Regeneration area and Merchant City in Glasgow & Hulme Regeneration (Royce Place) area and Whitworth Street in Manchester. Crown Street and Hulme are mixed-estates (social housing and private housing) in inner city areas. Merchant City and Whitworth Street are in central city areas, but in Merchant City there is only private housing, whereas Whitworth Street comprises social and private housing.

#### **Merchant City & Crown Street in Glasgow**

The 1980s saw Glasgow rediscover confidence in itself, expressed nationally and internationally through creating a new image for the city. Merchant City is a product of this era. Merchant City is situated in the heart of Glasgow, close to the Central Business District (CBD), and stretches over 70 acres. It derives its name from the eighteenth century pre-Industrial Revolution activities of city merchants. It was first the home of the prosperous tobacco merchants, but by the end of the century the buildings in the area were replaced by warehouses and commercial buildings, which developed in association with the area's wholesale food markets (Keating, 1988). Until the 1960s, the area's central and accessible position proved of sufficient economic advantage to attract a wide range of land uses. Warehouse storage and distribution, as well as clothing manufacture, became the dominant activities. The area had also grown in importance to encompass the regional fruit and vegetable market. However, in the late 1960s Merchant City began to decline sharply. The



inability to compete sufficiently with new world markets seriously affected the viability of the clothing industry, which had a significant presence in many warehouses. Moreover, with the inadequacy of the street pattern to cope with increasing traffic, Merchant City was designated as a Comprehensive Development Area in 1960. The east flank of the city's inner ring road, if carried out, would cut through and remove the eastern edge of the area. However, this land-use proposal produced significant consequences for Merchant City. For instance, the approach accepted that land acquisition and widespread clearance would be necessary to form the basis for renewal. In 1968, the fruit and vegetable market was relocated to a new site outside the city centre, at once relieving chronic traffic congestion and enabling a programme of land acquisition to be carried out in support of road plans. This scale of public involvement caused the crisis of Merchant City to be intensified. The removal of the fruit and vegetable market affected a range of related uses and caused up to 80 additional businesses to cease trading in the area (Pacione, 1995). By 1980, Merchant City had suffered 15 years of economic decline to the point where approximately 35% of property was vacant or unused, two thirds of which was in Council ownership. Therefore the extent of physical and economic difficulty in Merchant City pointed to some key issues, which the District Council as planning authority and major landholder was required to deal with. These were, how to stimulate new market interest in the area; how to identify appropriate uses for old buildings and vacant land; and how to use its own property resources to better effect (Jones & Patrick, 1992). At the end of the 1970s the development market in Glasgow began to show interest in the prospect of new-build, inner-city housing for sale within clearly defined areas such as GEAR. This interest was in response, for the most part, to policy attitudes within the Glasgow District Council (GDC) that sanctioned the release of publicly owned sites

(Sim, 1985). The development of GDC properties for private housing would basically expect to help to: (i) maintain market interest; (ii) cause further redevelopment of vacant land; (iii) reduce population decline in the city; (iv) and encourage growth in economic activity. The positive attitudes of the GDC also reinforced the commitment to active participation in Merchant City to create opportunities for central city housing and the re-use of redundant buildings, as yet in the absence of market interest (Jones & Patrick, 1992). At that time, the GDC was the major landowner in the area and thus was in a commanding position to instigate the development of private housing in the area. The partnership between the GDC and private developers began to create private housing in Merchant City in 1981, and the first development, the Albion Building was a success with all units sold before completion. Moreover, some success has also been achieved in attracting 'city-centre activities' such as galleries, theatres, cafes, restaurants, design studio, offices and fashionable shops to the area (Booth & Boyle, 1993). For instance, the fire station in Ingram Street was converted into a cafe style pub and 15 flats, and a new experimental theatre was constructed in the crypt of a local church by the adjacent Strathclyde University. Later developments, such as the Italian Centre, have incorporated more up-market housing units (Jones & Patrick, 1992). In 1987, the GDC undertook a survey of flat buyers in Merchant City. In Ingram Square, the majority of flat buyers were young- 16% of the Ingram Square buyers were under 25 and 70% under 29 years (Glasgow District Council, 1987). However, a more general Merchant City survey conducted by Glasgow University in 1986 found a slightly older age profile (Glasgow University, 1986). The occupational status of house buyers in Merchant City was predominantly non-manual, with about three-quarters of these homebuyers having white-collar jobs.



**Figure 4-1: Merchant City**

4

(1) Glasgow Royal Concert Hall

(2) Strathclyde University

(3) Tron Theatre

(4) City Hall (Concert Hall)

(5) Gallery of Modern Art

(6) Collins Gallery

(7) St. Enoch Shopping Centre

(8) St. Mungo's Museum of Religious Life & Art

(9) Queen Street Station

(10) Central Station

(11) Survey Area

\* Mackintosh Court:

1-21 Albion Gate/ 199 High Street/ 23-29 Ingram Street

\* Blackfriars Court: 20, 23 Blackfriars

\* 118, 128 Brunswick Street

\* Merchant Court: 117 Candleriggs

\* Italian Centre:

47 Cochrane Street/ 166, 176 Ingram Street

\* Campbell Court: 5, 7 Garth Street

\* Mercate Court: 65 High Street/ 6 Walls Street

\* 117, 123, 131, 137 Ingram Street

\* 60 Ingram Street

\* 63, 81 Miller Street

\* 62-70 Miller Street

\* 20 Montrose Street

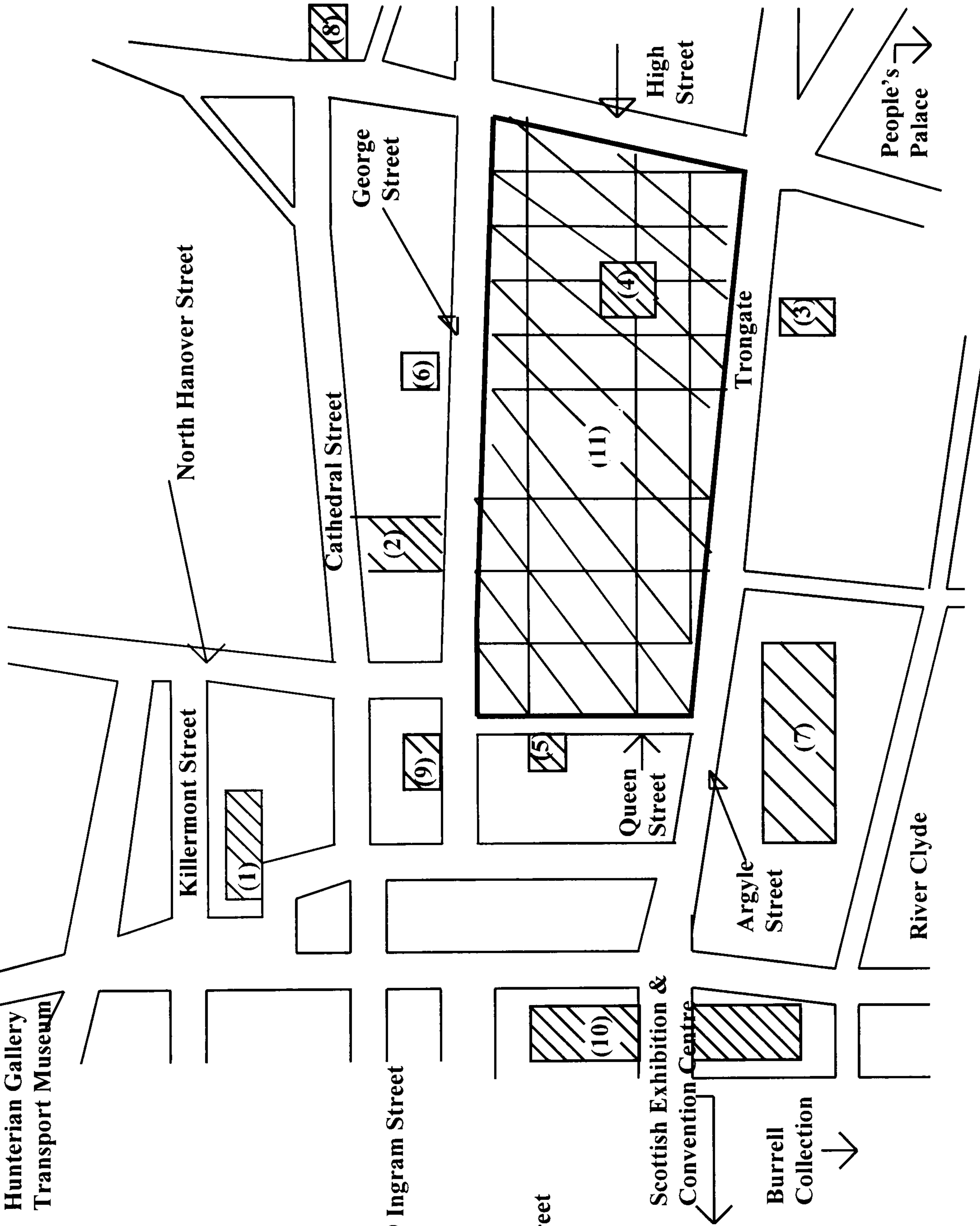
\* Virginia Court: 63 Virginia Street

\* 22, 28 Wilson Street

\* Wilson Court: 60 Wilson Street

\* Glassford Court: 83 Wilson Street

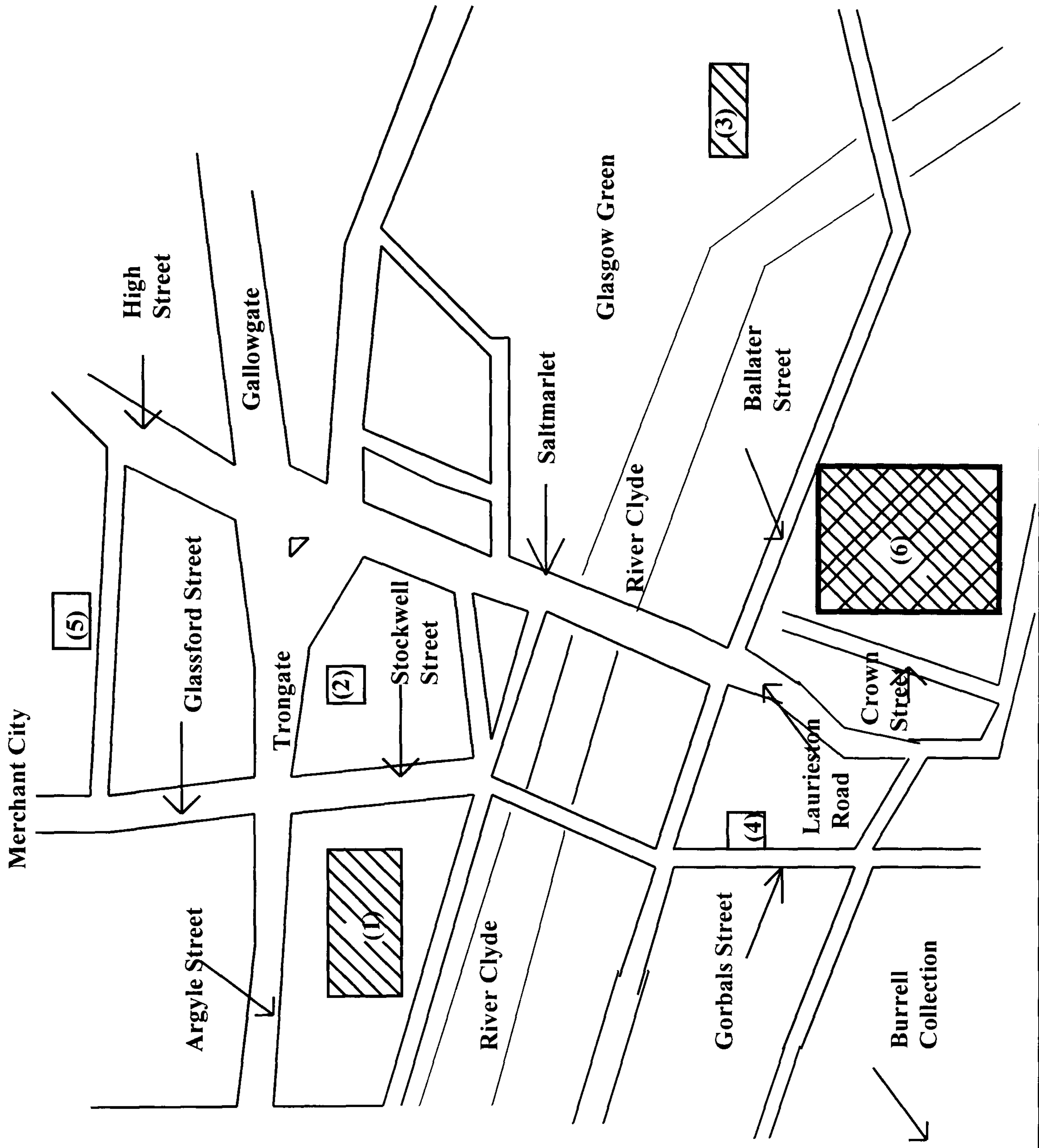
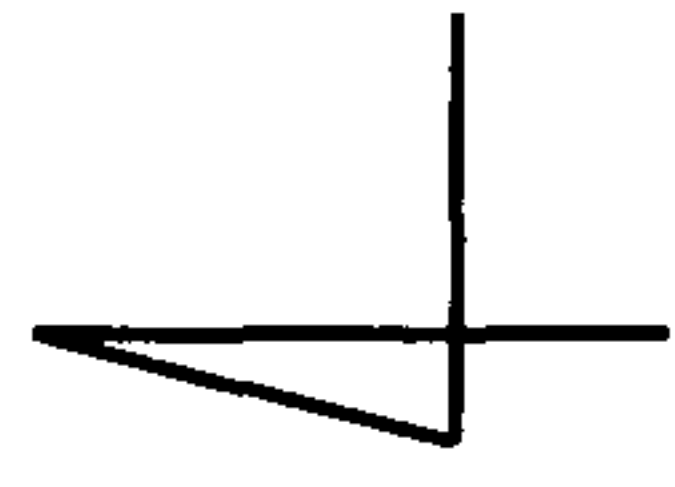
Glasgow University  
Kelvingrove  
Hunterian Gallery  
Transport Museum





**Figure 4-2: Crown Street**

- (1) St. Enoch Shopping Centre
- (2) Tron Theatre
- (3) People's Palace
- (4) Citizens' Theatre
- (5) City Hall (Concert Hall)
- (6) Survey Area
- \* 109-167 Old Ruthergland Road
- \* 161-175 Crown Street
- \* 7-50 Errol Gardens
- \* 20-56 St. Ninian Terrace
- \* 238-258 Ballater Street
- \* 7-17 Benny Lynch Court
- \* 6-38 Pine Place
- \* 201-229 Cumberland Street



Moreover, more than half of these buyers have moved from outside the district council boundary (GDC, 1987; Glasgow University, 1986).

In 1988, due to its successful development, the Merchant City project was awarded the Medal of Honour by the Europa Nostra organisation. It is estimated that approximately £12m of public money has been spent for Merchant City (Jones & Patrick, 1992). By 1993, over 1200 new housing units had been created together with a range of commercial developments (Pacione, 1995). There are several principal factors in the success of the Merchant City project: the Council's decision and ability to provide grant aid for conversions amounting to £5100 per unit of housing created, to developers who could demonstrate need. Also the support of the SDA, in the form of Local Economic Grants for Urban Project (LEGUP) finance, which has been important in reinforcing prestigious and catalytic developments of combinations of housing and commercial units. Also important was the resolution of a proposed motorway development that would have affected the development of the area (Healey, 1989). However, a more critical factor is the successful private-public partnership structures established (Jones & Patrick, 1992).

In contrast to Merchant City, the origin of Gorbals grew out of the development of mining and was a working-class town. In the nineteenth century, the development of cotton and textile industries expanded employment opportunities. As a result, migrants from rural to urban areas rapidly increased. By 1841, more than half of the population of Gorbals consisted of migrants to the city. Moreover, many of the incomers were young people and this had direct consequences for future rates of population growth. Although population growth had helped to fuel Glasgow's nineteenth century industrial renaissance, the urban infrastructure had been unable to match the rate of demographic expansion. The result of rapid population growth



inevitably created the overcrowded and insanitary living conditions, and eventually generated slum areas (Pacione, 1995). Such conditions had continued throughout the mid-twentieth century. However, the Development Plan of 1954 first confronted the problem of the renewal of the urban slums, and identified three areas for immediate redevelopment- Gorbals, Govan and Royston. In 1957, Gorbals-Hutchesontown was approved, at £13m the largest redevelopment scheme in the United Kingdom. Everything was to be demolished and the population reduced from 26,000 to just 10,000. Shops were to be reduced from 444 to 57 in line with corporation policy, public houses from 46 to 9 and 72 firms employing 1200 workers were relocated to council-owned sites on the urban periphery (Brennan, 1957). Between 1958 and 1973, a mixture of eight-storey flats and twenty storey tower blocks was erected, with the first new flats being opened in 1962. In 1969, work began on the low-rise flats at 'Hutchesontown E', (using a prefabricated system pioneered by a French company in the arid climate of Algeria), which was opened by the Queen in 1972. However, the whole scheme proved a social and architectural disaster. The prefabricated flats were plagued with damp. This could be kept at bay only by constant use of the all-electric heating, an impossibility for the tenants at a time of rapidly rising energy prices, especially following the oil crisis of 1973. As a result of problems of dampness, only five years later demolition of the 'Hutchesontown E' blocks was under discussion. By 1980, most people had been moved out, but lack of funds precluded immediate redevelopment by the Council. In 1987, the blocks were finally demolished and left a 40-acre gap site in the heart of the Gorbals (Keating, 1988). In 1990, the Crown Street Regeneration Project was set up to fill the gap left by the demolition of the 'Hutchesontown E' blocks. In 1992, the Council approved the Crown Street Regeneration project, to be undertaken by a partnership of public and private agencies



at a cost of £80m. This second redevelopment of the Gorbals in 30 years was intended to reintroduce a mixed land use pattern of housing for sale and rent, as well as retail, recreational and cultural amenities in an attempt to recreate the community spirit (Pacione, 1995).

Private developers, Wimpey and Miller Homes were awarded contracts for the initial phase of the project comprising 209 owner occupied houses. The New Gorbals Housing Association provided a further 61 houses for rent. The second phase of 70 houses for sale was constructed by Tay Homes with Hypostyle Architects. The New Gorbals Housing Association was also building an element of this development providing 44 socially rented houses. Both schemes began on site in 1995. Adjacent to the first phase of housing, a historic old nineteenth century Mill Building is being converted into a new local Business Centre by Old Mill Studio with MLDO Architects. This development would generate up to 340 new jobs (Crown Street Regeneration Project, date unknown). Thus the Crown Street of Gorbals could be regarded as one of the successful regeneration projects in Glasgow.

### **Whitworth Street & Hulme (Royce Place) in Manchester**

In Manchester, for nearly 30 years the city centre has suffered from the decline of activities, the decentralisation of firms, lack of dynamism in the regional centre increasingly overshadowed by London, and the high cost of conversion of derelict sites and empty buildings. Proposals had been put forward to encourage residential

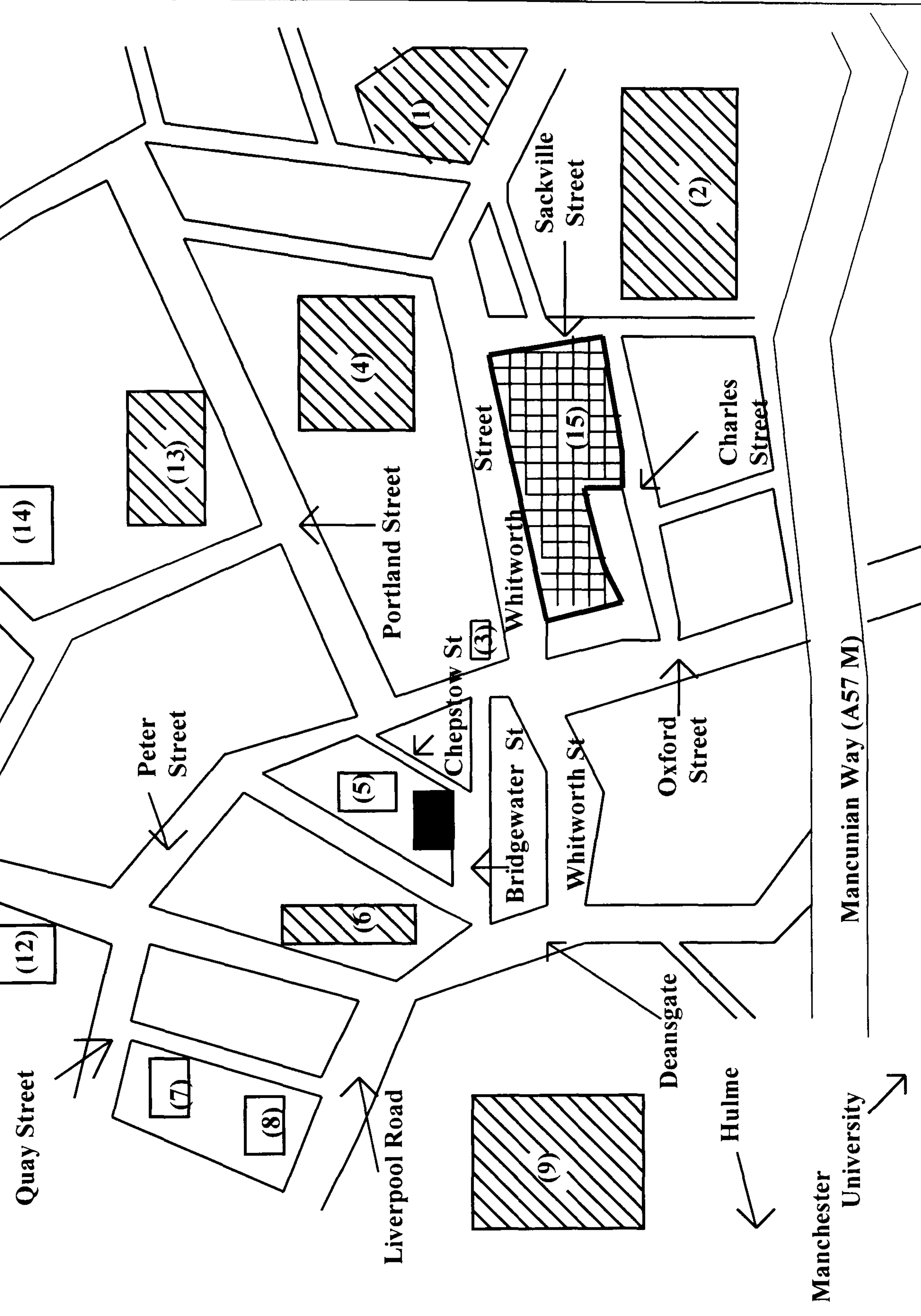
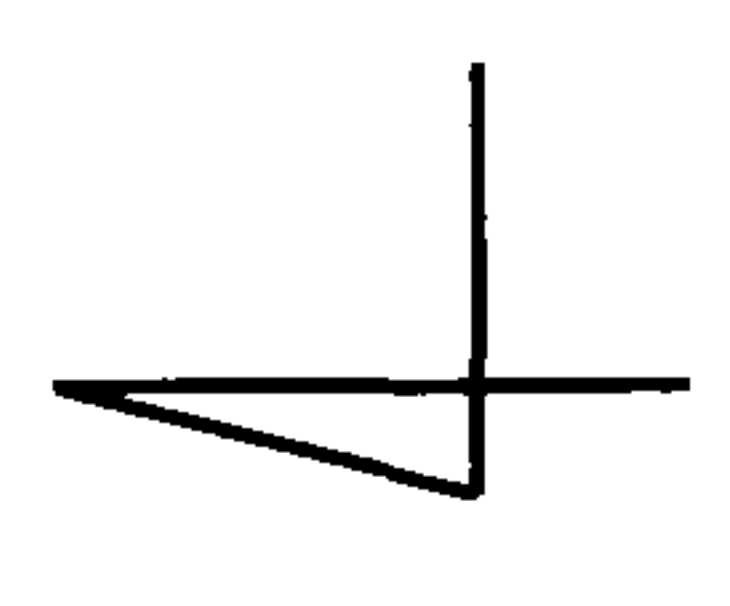
schemes and tourism but progress was either slow or non-existent (HMSO, 1995). However, from the mid-1980s conditions began to change. Around 1985~7, there was a small hotel boom possibly connected with the opening of G-Mex (exhibition centre) in 1986. More importantly, perhaps, in 1988 the Central Manchester Development Corporation (CMDC) was set up by Central Government to regenerate nearly 500 acres of land and buildings in the southern sector of the city centre. The Whitworth Street residential development is a product of the CMDC. In the Whitworth Street area, many of the great listed warehouses and sites were ripe for conversion and redevelopment. The CMDC rejected speculative office schemes and instead earmarked the area for residential use. Prior to the establishment of the CMDC in 1988, the Phoenix Initiative had already created strong interest in the development of housing along the Whitworth Corridor. The Phoenix Initiative was a private sector led initiative to stimulate development in the Whitworth area, which was held back by lack of sufficient funds. Residential development has been the single most important factor in the regeneration of the Whitworth Street area (Law, 1992). The result is the 'village in the city', which created 711 units with a population well in excess of 1,000. A wide range of properties is available in the Whitworth area. The demand for housing in the area has taken several forms, such as rented social housing and expensive luxury flats and penthouses for sale. The area is also serviced by numerous pubs, bars, restaurants, taxi firms, Post Office, doctor and dentist and a 24-hour shop (CMDC, 1994).

Hulme grew rapidly in the early nineteenth century to house Manchester's swelling population, as the city growth was fuelled by the Industrial Revolution. Hulme developed haphazardly as an area of tightly packed terraces and courts, providing cramped and often insanitary accommodation for migrants coming to the city.



**Figure 4-3: Whitworth Street**

- (1) Piccadilly Station
- (2) UMIST
- (3) Palace Theatre
- (4) Gay Village
- (5) Bridgewater Hall
- (6) G-Mex
- (7) Granada Studios Tour
- (8) Museum of Science & Industry
- (9) Castle Field Heritage Area
- (10) Arndale Shopping Centre
- (11) Royal Exchange Theatre
- (12) Opera House
- (13) China Town
- (14) City Art Gallery
- (15) Survey Area
- \* Granby House: Granby Row
- \* Orient House: Granby Row
- \* Velvet Court: Granby Row
- \* Velvet House: Sackville Street
- \* Venice Court: Samuel Ogden Street
- \* Whitworth Building: 55-57 Whitworth Street
- \* Bombay House: Whitworth Street
- \* Lancaster House: Whitworth Street
- \* India House: Whitworth Street
- Chepstoe House: Chepstow Street

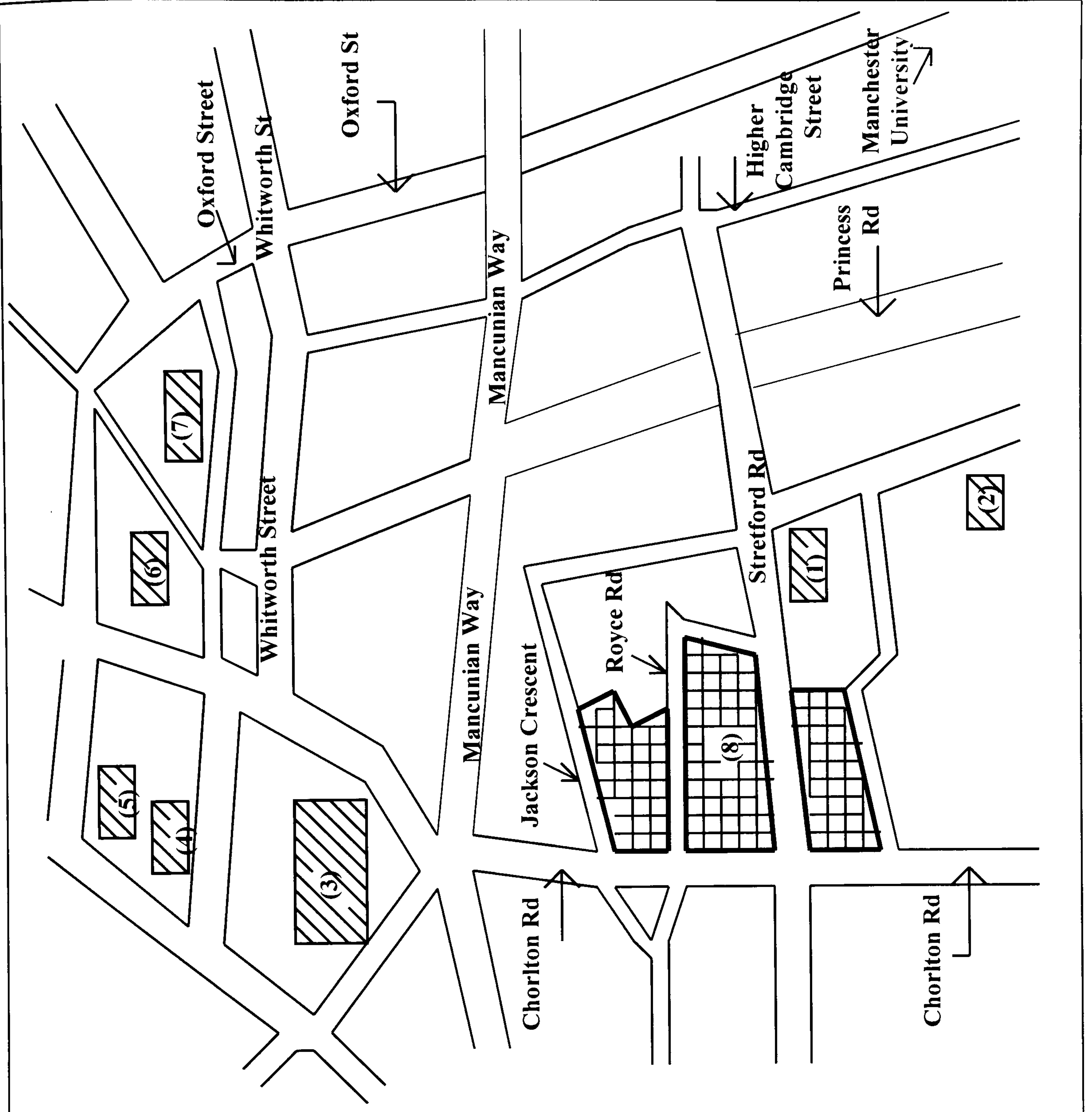




**Figure 4-4: Hulme (Royce Place)**

- (1) Zion Arts Centre
- (2) Hulme Hippodrome Theatre
- (3) Castle Field Heritage Area
- (4) Museum of Science & Industry
- (5) Granada Studios Tour
- (6) G-Mex
- (7) Bridgewater Hall
- (8) Survey Area

- \* Stretford Road
- \* Chorlton Road
- \* St. Wilfris's Street
- \* Royce Road
- \* Yew Street
- \* Nash Street
- \* Upper Moss Lane
- \* Ribston Street
- \* Fenn Street
- \* Mallow Street
- \* Hornchurch Street
- \* Chevassut Street
- \* Mary France Street
- \* Eliza Street
- \* Jackson Crescent
- \* Sorrel Street



Conditions of housing remained the same until the 1960s. By the early 1960s, as a massive housing shortage crisis occurred in Britain, Central Government began to apply pressure on local authorities to use the industrialised 'system build' techniques to construct social housing developments. These techniques used huge factory assembled concrete slabs and panels that slotted together like 'Lego' to construct high rise and deck access blocks up to 20 storeys high. The advantage of system build was its speed. By 1972, the redevelopment of Hulme was complete. Over 5000 new homes had been built in less than eight years and over 3000 of these were deck access, making Hulme the biggest concentration of this type of housing in the country. Within months, the schemes began to turn into disaster for many of the tenants. Unfamiliar techniques with poor site supervision meant that bolts and ties which were supposed to hold the panels together were found missing, and leaks started to appear. Poor insulation and ventilation caused condensation and huge fuel bills. The Hulme area suffered considerable decline as a result of the poor state of many flats. Hulme attracted hundreds of young people setting up home for first time, as it was cheap and close to the city centre. It was better than the bedsits and shared houses available in the private sector. The lack of policing increased crime in the areas, drugs, electrical goods stolen, mugging, etc. 'Hulme seemed to exist without connection or reference to the outside world, and even the natives began to half seriously refer to it as 'Planet Hulme' (Ramwell & Saltburn, 1998). During the early 1980s, unemployment reached crisis proportions in Hulme. In 1986, 59% of adult males in Hulme were unemployed. Hulme had the highest concentration of young people in the city, a significant proportion of whom were almost permanently unemployed (Manchester Employment Research Group Ltd, 1987).

In the early 1990s, Hulme Regeneration Limited was set up by Manchester City Council and AMEC plc as a joint venture to co-ordinate and manage the complex range of initiative to regenerate the Hulme area. Ambitious plans were drawn up to build 3000 new homes, new shops, roads, offices and cultural facilities. Royce Place is a part of the Hulme regeneration project containing about 600 new private houses<sup>13</sup> that were built by private initiative (Bellway Homes) along Stretford Road between Chorlton Road and the Zion Arts Centre. It is the first private housing in the project. Moreover, alongside Royce Place, North British Housing Association have developed nearly 300 new houses and flats most of which are occupied by previous Hulme tenants (Hulme Regeneration Limited, 1994).

### **Reasons for choosing the areas for survey**

There are several reasons for choosing the above areas for research:

1. The main reason for choosing the four areas is that as the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have experienced a massive loss of population and economic activities since the 1960s, these four areas are major focal points of urban regeneration in the 1980s in terms of economic and social revitalisation.

2. These four areas are significant components of residential development in Glasgow and Manchester. In the areas, there is a variety of new and renovated housing which is a part of re-urbanisation policies in the cities. Moreover, there are

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<sup>13</sup> At the time of the survey, the proposed number of houses in the area was not yet completed.



mixed-estates, involving both owner-occupied housing and social housing (except in Merchant City, where there is a large number of private renters in the area), which will generate an interesting comparison between different types of tenure, different economic classes, etc.

3. Crown Street and Hulme are existing inner city residential areas, which previously suffered from the development of housing schemes that proved to be a social and architectural disaster. These areas will be called 'inner city areas' in this study as the location of the areas is outside the CBD. On the other hand, Merchant City and Whitworth Street used to be industrial areas, which were renovated for residential purposes, while some new residential housing in Whitworth Street has also been built. These areas are called 'central city areas' in this study as the location of the areas is in the CBD. These distinctive characteristics of the two area groups are important when comparing differences in residents' opinions on the current development and improvement in their cities.

4. These two distinctive characters also produced different tendencies toward the redevelopment of the areas. For instance, the 'inner city areas' seem to be mainly concentrated on the development of housing in areas which had previously suffered from very poor housing conditions. On the other hand, the 'central city areas' also seem to be concerned with the development of housing in the city centre, but the areas seem to be more concerned with the interactive nature of the city centre between residence and business activities. These different tendencies may produce different attitudes toward the current development and improvement in Glasgow and Manchester between residents in the inner city areas and residents in the central city areas.

## **Summary**

The methodology explains the overall structure of the survey, including the study's primary hypothesis and objectives, the reasons for choosing questionnaires as the research method, the process of the survey (e.g., questionnaire design, pilot study, sampling framework, data handling procedure), and data analysis. All statistical analysis appears throughout the study from chapter 5 to chapter 9.

The historical development of the research areas showed an interesting overview of the areas' economic and social aspects- the problems of the areas in the past and the revival of the areas in the present. The reasons for choosing the four areas (Crown Street & Merchant City in Glasgow and Hulme & Whitworth Street in Manchester) as the survey subjects were their focal importance in the overall regeneration of their city, their current residential development, their distinctive area characteristics, and the application of comparative nature of two area groups (the 'inner city areas' and the 'central city areas').

## **Introduction to analysis of survey data**

The whole analysis was largely done on the basis of differences between the inner city areas (Crown Street and Hulme) and the central city areas (Merchant City and Whitworth Street), but not generally at city level (between Glasgow and Manchester). The main reason for analysing between the inner city and the central city is that combining two very different data sets (city centre/inner city) for each city and the aggregation of figures could lead to a false insight into data results, and damage the reliability and validity of the study. Moreover, there was not a lot of differences between the cities in the analysis of data and that the main differences emerged between the two types of area.

Chapter 5 examines the characteristics of people who live in the survey areas. It illustrates the previous residential location, types of tenure, household size, age, economic status and occupation of people who live there. Chapter 6 analyses reasons for residential relocation in the survey areas. This explains factors that attracted people to live there. Chapter 7 reveals degree of satisfaction, and factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction after moving to the survey areas. It illustrates whether or not any problems have emerged after residential relocation. Chapter 8 examines perceptions of Glasgow and Manchester, the contribution of cultural flagship strategies to the improvement in the image of Glasgow and Manchester, and the possibility of residential relocation to other cities. The final chapter (Chapter 9) analyses participation in cultural activities, the personal importance of cultural facilities, whether or not the effort of both city councils to regenerate the cities are positive, and factors that need to improve in order to regenerate the cities further.



## **Chapter 5: Who moves to the city?**

### **Introduction**

In Britain since the 1960s, there has been official recognition of the existence of an inner city problem, expressed in the existence of central government inner city policies (Lawless, 1989). The concept of an inner city problem suggests a concentration of deprived or disadvantaged people in inner city residential areas, and that inner city policies will in some way attempt to solve the problems of these people (Atkinson & Moon, 1994).

In the 1980s, the Conservative Government retained a commitment to inner city policies, but the overall character of inner city policies was altered radically by the Government. For instance the main emphasis was given to strengthening the role of the private sector of the economy and limiting the role of the public sector, particularly that of local authorities. In line with the general direction of policy change, housing policies in the inner city have been greatly affected by the reduction in the role of the public sector. In particular, it has no longer been possible for local authorities themselves to undertake large-scale schemes of house-building and renewal in inner cities. Instead of the public sector, a combination of land and financial subsidies has been used to entice private house-builders to inner areas (Atkinson & Durden, 1990).

As in other urban areas in Britain, there has been in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, since the 1980s, a new willingness by private developers to provide

housing in inner urban areas. In particular, areas, such as Merchant City and Crown Street in Glasgow, and Whitworth Street and Hulme in Manchester, have been profoundly affected by the provision of new private housing, though some housing was built by housing associations, the new form of social housing providers.

In examining these four areas within two cities, it is clear that two rather different types of area group can be distinguished- inner city areas (the areas outside the central business district), such as Crown Street and Hulme, and central city areas (the areas in the central business district), such as Merchant City and Whitworth Street. The areas, such as Crown Street and Hulme, are existing inner urban residential areas, which previously suffered from a socially and architecturally disastrous development of social housing schemes (Keating, 1988; Kidd, 1996). In the beginning of the 1990s, both private housing initiatives and housing associations built new houses and flats on the areas. The housing is either sold or rented at an affordable price for both local residents and people from outside, but social housing built by housing associations is only available for ex-tenants of the areas. On the other hand, the areas, such as Merchant City and Whitworth Street, used to be commercial, non-residential areas. Until the beginning of the 1980s, most buildings in the areas were empty and run-down offices or warehouses. These buildings were converted to housing for sale<sup>14</sup> by private developers during the mid-1980s, though social housing is available for rent in Whitworth Street<sup>15</sup>. Most private housing in the areas is rather expensive, compared to the housing in the areas of Crown Street and Hulme.

In this chapter, the characteristics of people who have moved into the areas will be the major concern. Several aspects, such as where new residents come from, age and

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<sup>14</sup> Merchant City in Glasgow have built exclusively private housing for sale from the mid-1980s, so there are no social housing renters included in the survey.

<sup>15</sup> As there were no ex-social housing tenants in Whitworth Street, social housing renters in this area comes from other parts of the city.

household structure, areas of workplace, economic status of the residents (e.g. occupations, household incomes, etc.), types of tenure and cross analysis of types of tenure with occupations, employment and household incomes will be evaluated in this chapter.

As seen in the introductory chapter (Chapter 3), the studies of the Glasgow University and Glasgow District Council on Merchant City and general characteristics of residents in central Glasgow revealed that there is a large proportion of young people and white-collar workers in Merchant City. Therefore, it can be expected that there is a large proportion of young people and white-collar workers in the central city areas of Glasgow and Manchester. Moreover, the two studies also revealed signs of gentrification in Merchant City, thus any information on the process of gentrification from other studies will also be examined in this chapter.

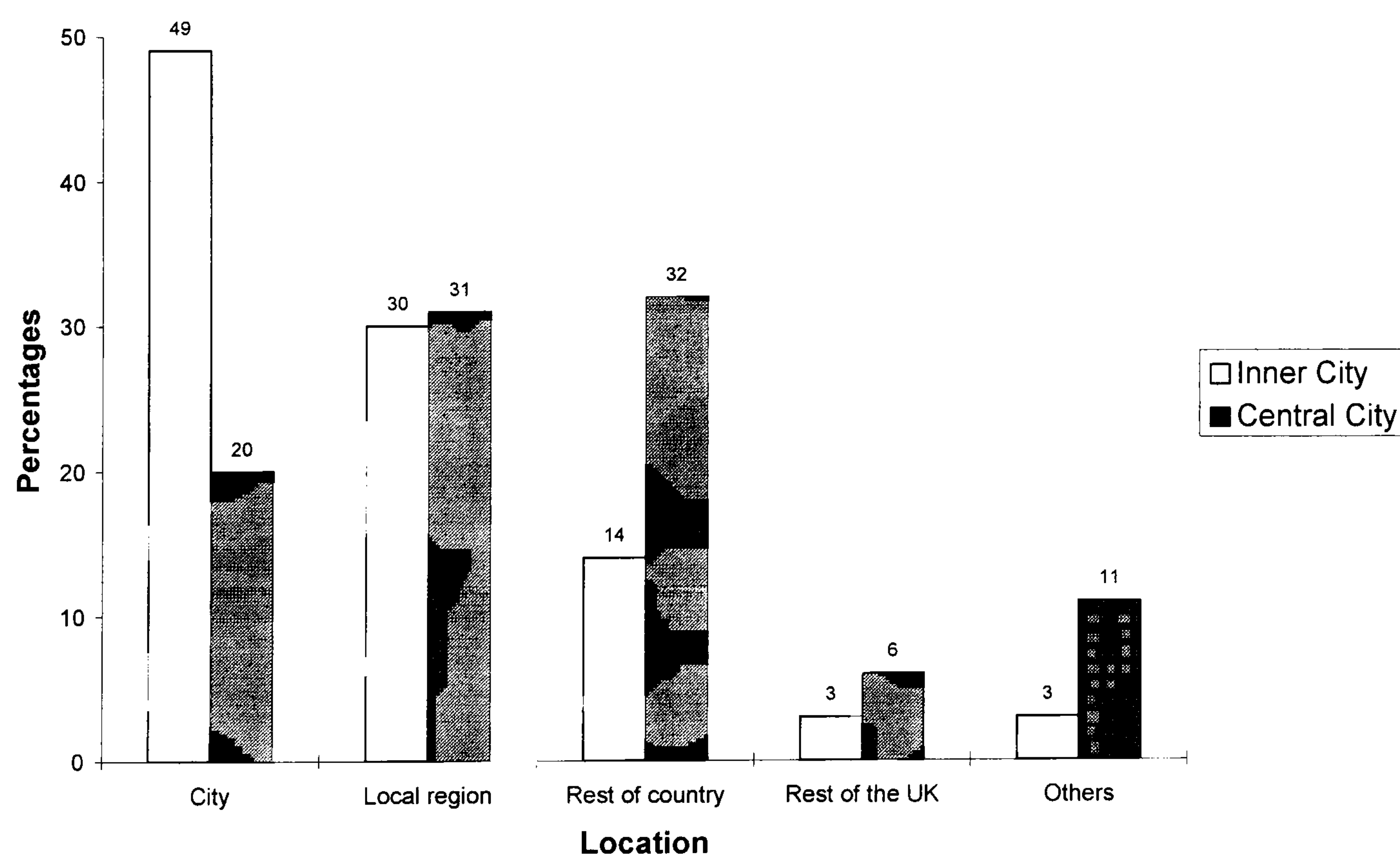


## **Part 1: Where do new residents come from?**

One of the most fundamental questions about new residents in the areas is where they come from- are they locals or newcomers from outside? Figure 5-1 (see Table 5-1 in Appendix 2) provides information on respondents' previous area of residence.

The figure shows interesting differences between the inner city and the central city in that there is a high proportion of respondents in the inner city who are either from local areas or the region. Compared to the proportion of respondents from local areas and the region, there is a lower proportion of respondents who are from outside the region.

**Figure 5-1: Previous residential location of residents in the inner city and the central city**<sup>16</sup>



On the other hand, there is a higher proportion of respondents in the central city who are either from the region or elsewhere in the country than is the case in the inner city.

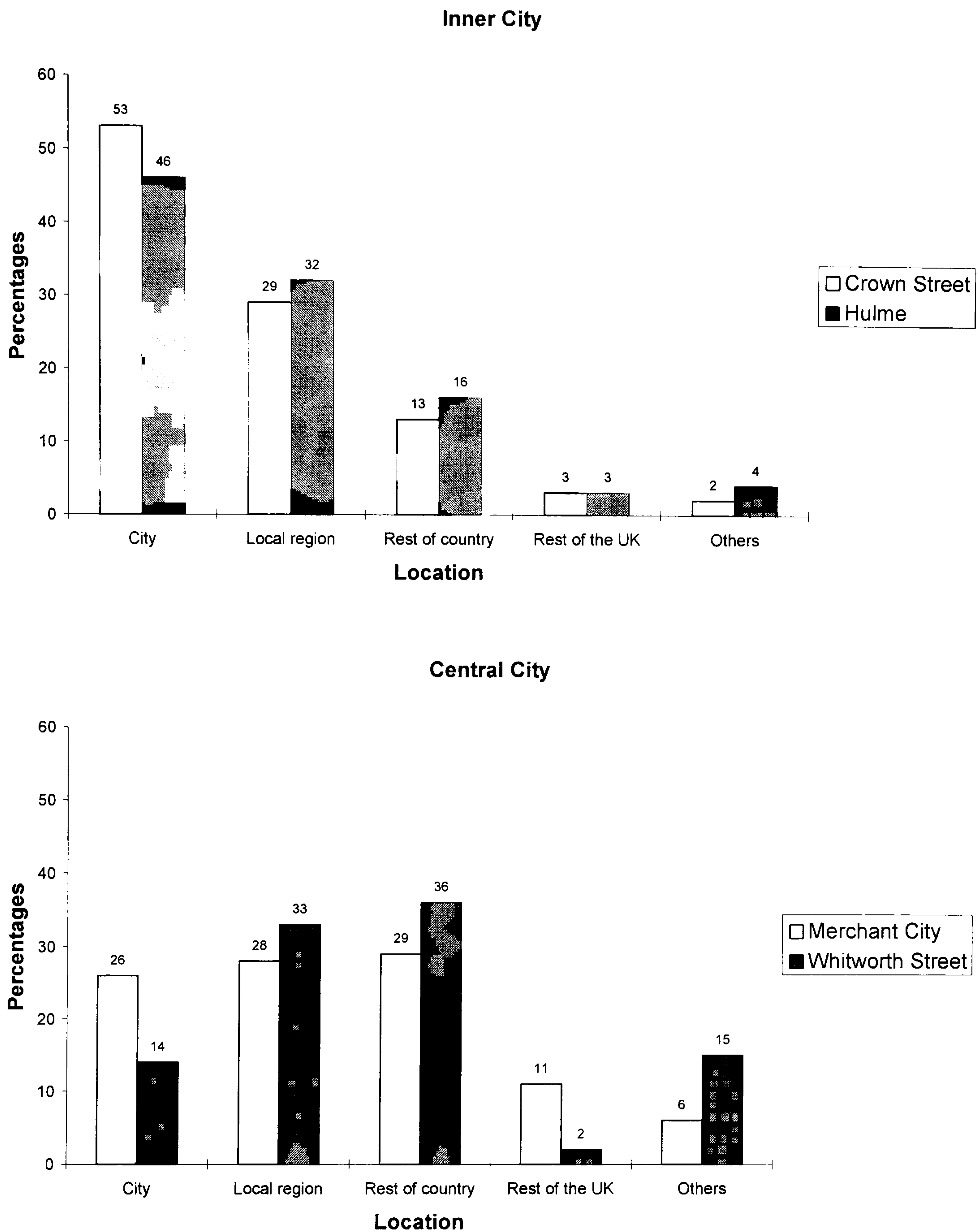
<sup>16</sup> The figure is based on Q1 ('Where did you live before moving here?'). 'Others' represents residents who are from outside the UK.

It seems clear that the inner city consists of a large number of local people. That may indicate that the development of new housing there has a beneficial effect on local residents. On the other hand, many new residents in the central city are from outside the city which seems to be less beneficial to local people. The development of new housing in the central city might generate a diversity of residents- it has brought many different income groups, possibly high-income groups (as housing in the central city is much more expensive than housing in the inner city) from other cities or other countries. Therefore the development of new housing in the central city can be beneficial to Glasgow and Manchester as a whole.

The above trend is also largely because of the types of housing schemes in Glasgow and Manchester. In the inner city, most new residents in social housing are ex-tenants, whereas the central city largely consists of private housing that requires local people to have purchasing power. The differences will be further discussed in the comparison between the four areas.

It was expected that there would be large differences in the previous residential location between new residents living in the inner city areas, such as Crown Street and Hulme, and residents living in the central city areas, such as Merchant City and Whitworth Street. Figure 5-2 (see Table 5-2 in Appendix 2) shows that the inner city areas, such as Crown Street and Hulme, have a very high proportion of respondents who are from local areas. On the other hand, the central city areas, such as Merchant City and Whitworth Street, have quite a high proportion of respondents who comes from outside of the cities. In particular, only 14% of respondents in Whitworth Street are from local areas, whereas 26% of respondents in Merchant City are from local areas.

**Figure 5-2: Previous residential location of residents in the four areas**



The differences between the central city and inner city areas may be explained through the difference in housing schemes between the areas. As mentioned above, in the inner city areas, such as Crown Street and Hulme, both private housing initiatives and housing associations have taken part in the housing development schemes. The housing produced in the areas was both for sale and rent, but social housing is only



for ex-tenants of the areas. Moreover, the price of private housing is affordable for both high and low-income local people. Therefore the housing schemes in these two areas may have more beneficial effects on local people. On the other hand, in the central city areas, such as Merchant City and Whitworth Street, although some housing in Whitworth Street is social housing created by housing associations, most housing in the areas is exclusively private and too expensive for most low-income local people (e.g., two or three bedroom housing in the central city would be around £100,000, but similar housing in the inner city would be only around £35,000). Moreover, newcomers from outside the city might prefer to live in the central city. This is because that the central city provides a variety of social amenities (e.g., shops, restaurants, bars, etc.), which would be more convenient for those newcomers to settle down.

One other interesting aspect is that there are large differences in the proportion of respondents who are from outside the UK in Whitworth Street (15%), which is higher than the proportion of respondents who are from local areas, and also higher than is the case in the other areas (6% in Merchant City, 2% in Crown Street and 4% in Hulme). This is because that many of these respondents in Whitworth Street are foreign students as there are many famous universities, such as Manchester University, UMIST, Manchester Metropolitan University and Manchester Business School near Whitworth Street.

## Part 2: Where do residents work?

It is possible that there may be a co-relationship between the residential location of the residents and the areas in which they work, as people often take account of where they work when they choose their residential location and vice-versa. Therefore it is important to examine where the residents work in order to see whether the location of workplace may affect decisions on residential location.

**Figure 5-3: Areas of workplace of residents**<sup>17</sup>

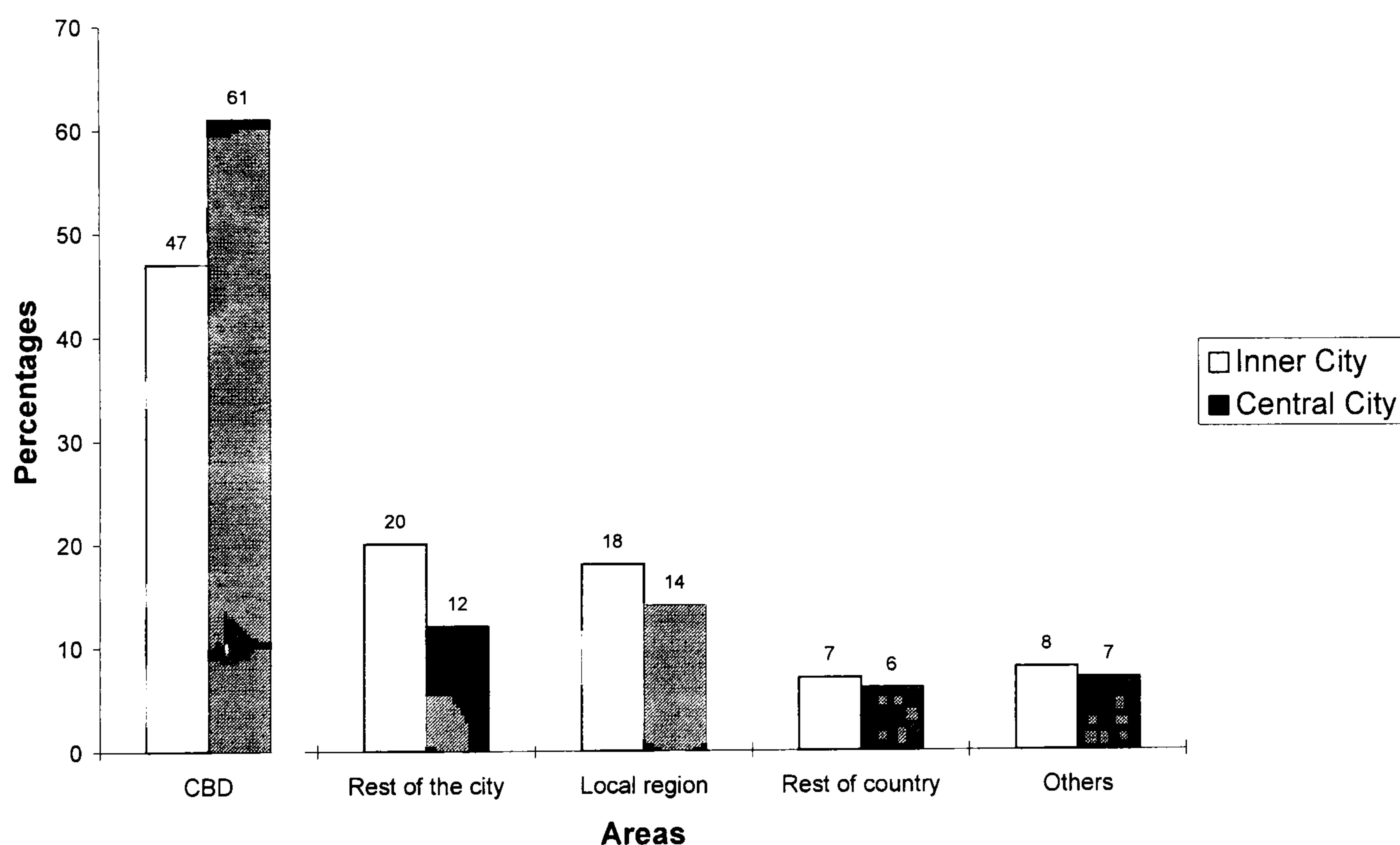


Figure 5-3 (see Table 5-3 in Appendix 2) shows that although a large proportion of respondents in both the inner city and the central city works in the central business district (CBD), more respondents in the central city work in the CBD than respondents in the inner city. On the other hand, more respondents in the inner city

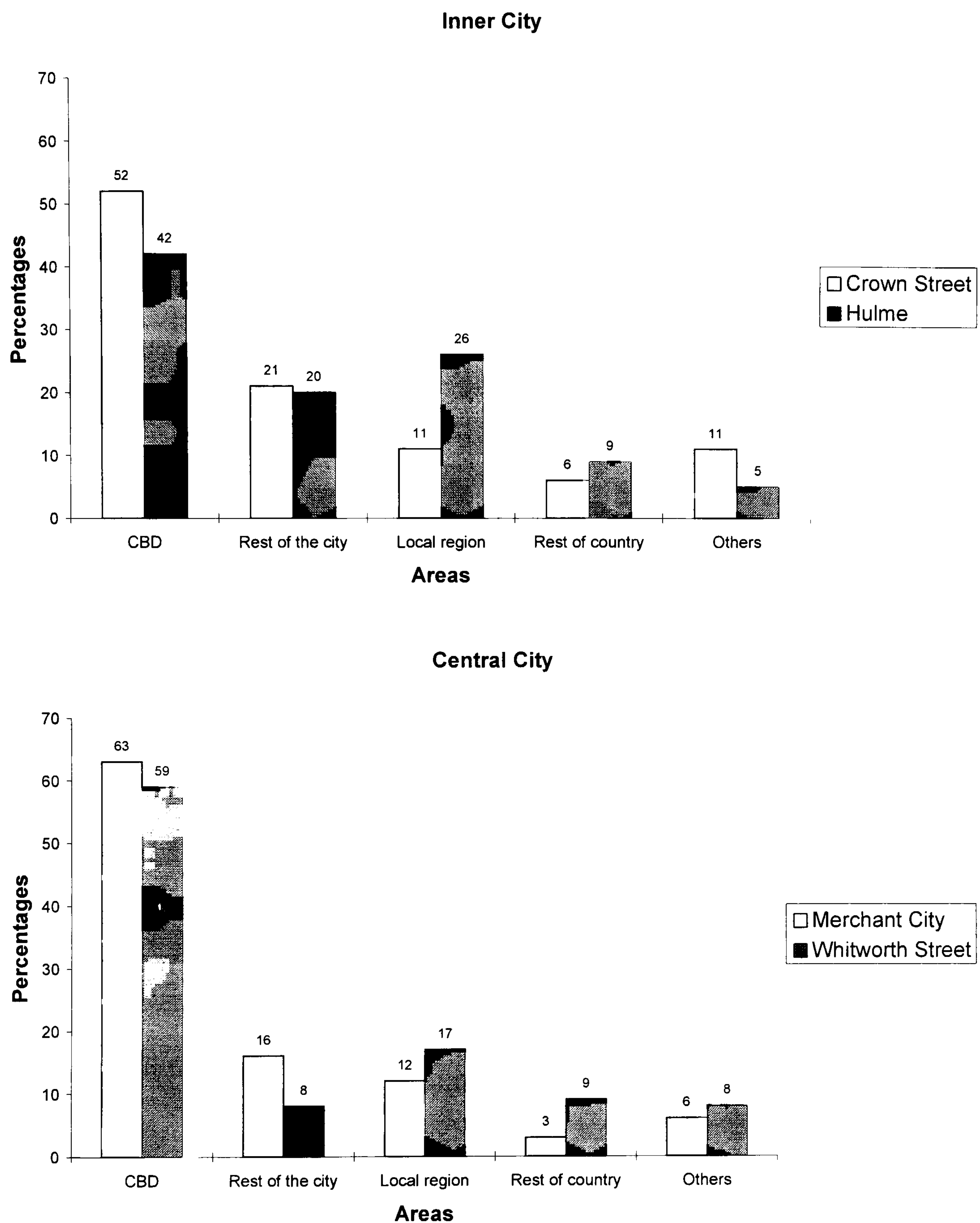
<sup>17</sup> The table is based on Q28 ('Where do you work?').

work either in the rest of the city or the region (38%) than respondents in the central city (26%). These findings seem to indicate a close relationship between residential location and workplace. New residents might prefer to live in the place where their workplace is close by. However, this interpretation cannot satisfactorily explain those residents, who live in the central city or in the inner city, and work far away from their workplace. Therefore it may be possible that some residents do not just take into account where they work when they chose their residence, but they also have other reasons. For instance, they would be influenced by the quality of life, the availability of cheap housing, the availability of social amenities, etc. when they chose their residence. There will be more discussion about the relationship between the residential location and the workplace later in this chapter and in the next chapter when the reasons for residence in the research areas are examined.

The information is separated into two area groups, which shows interesting differences between the four areas. Figure 5-4 (see Table 5-4 in Appendix 2) shows that the proportion of respondents in Merchant City and Whitworth Street, working in the CBD is higher than the proportion of respondents in Crown Street and Hulme. Conversely, the proportion of respondents in Crown Street and Hulme, working either in the rest of the city or the local region is slightly higher than the proportion of those respondents in Merchant City and Whitworth Street. This also suggests that there is a close relationship between residential location and the area of workplace. For instance, those respondents working either in the inner city or the region might choose their residential areas within inner city areas, as it would be convenient for journey to work.



**Figure 5-4: Areas of workplace of residents in the four areas**



Similarly, those respondents working in the CBD might choose their residential areas within central city areas, as it would be convenient for journey to work. However, there is a surprisingly large number of respondents, especially in Crown Street (11%), working outside the country. Once again, this may indicate that there was something other than just convenience for work when they chose their residential location.

### **Part 3: Age and household structures**

The age structure of respondents in the areas is an important part of the survey that may indicate the economic viability of the areas in the present as well as in the future. For instance if there is a high proportion of young people in the areas, one may expect that there may be an active economic population there. The age structure also affects the size of household. For instance if there is a large number of young or elderly people without children in the areas, there may be more small-sized households.

**Figure 5-5: Age structure of residents in the inner city and the central city<sup>18</sup>**

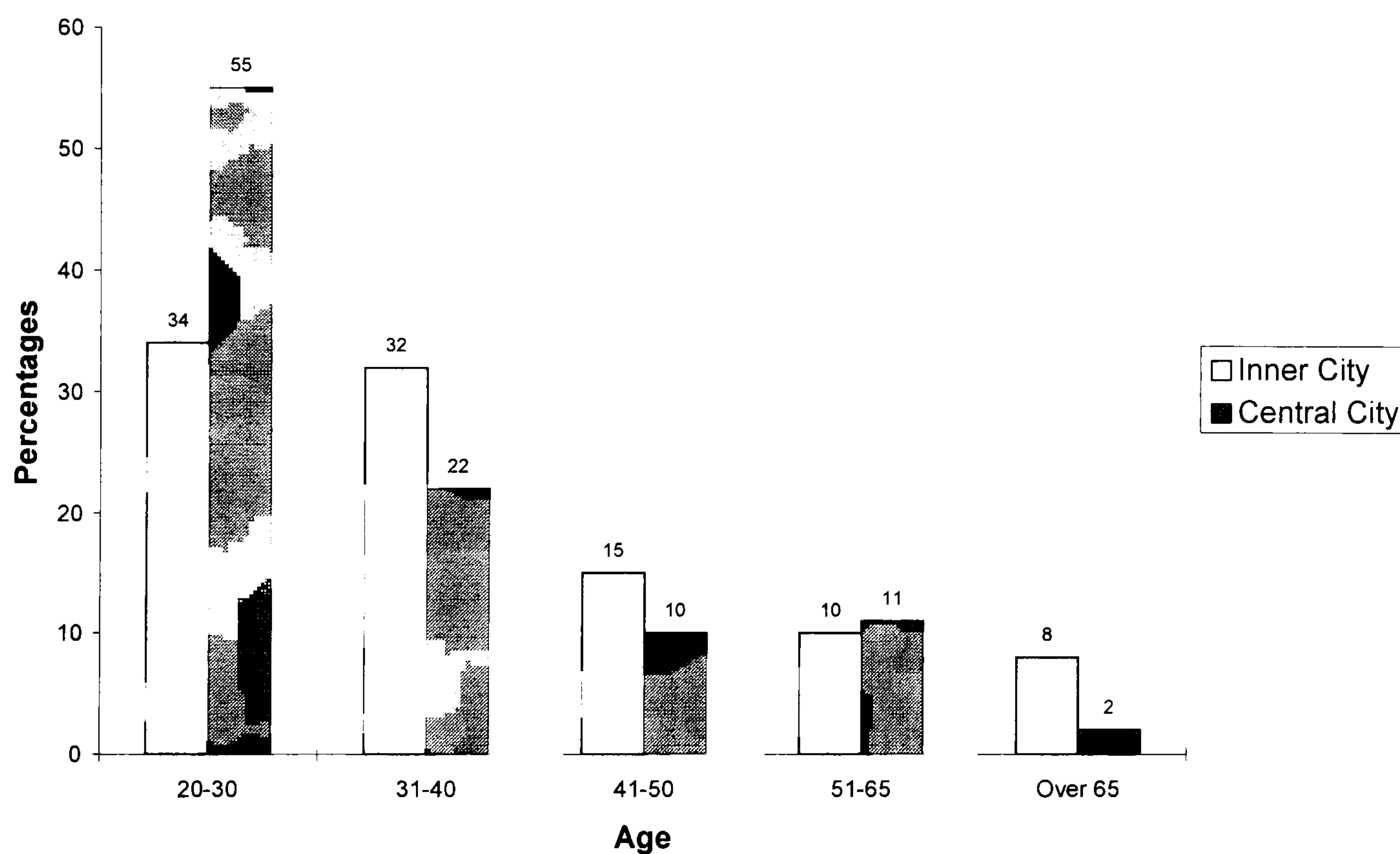


Figure 5-5 (see Table 5-5 in Appendix 2) shows that there is a very high proportion of young people in both central city and the inner city. Indeed, more than half of respondents in the central city are aged under 30 years old. Moreover, respondents aged under 40 years account for 66% in the inner city and 77% in the central city. On the other hand, there is quite a low proportion of respondents aged over 40 years old

<sup>18</sup> The figure is based on Q33 (Age).

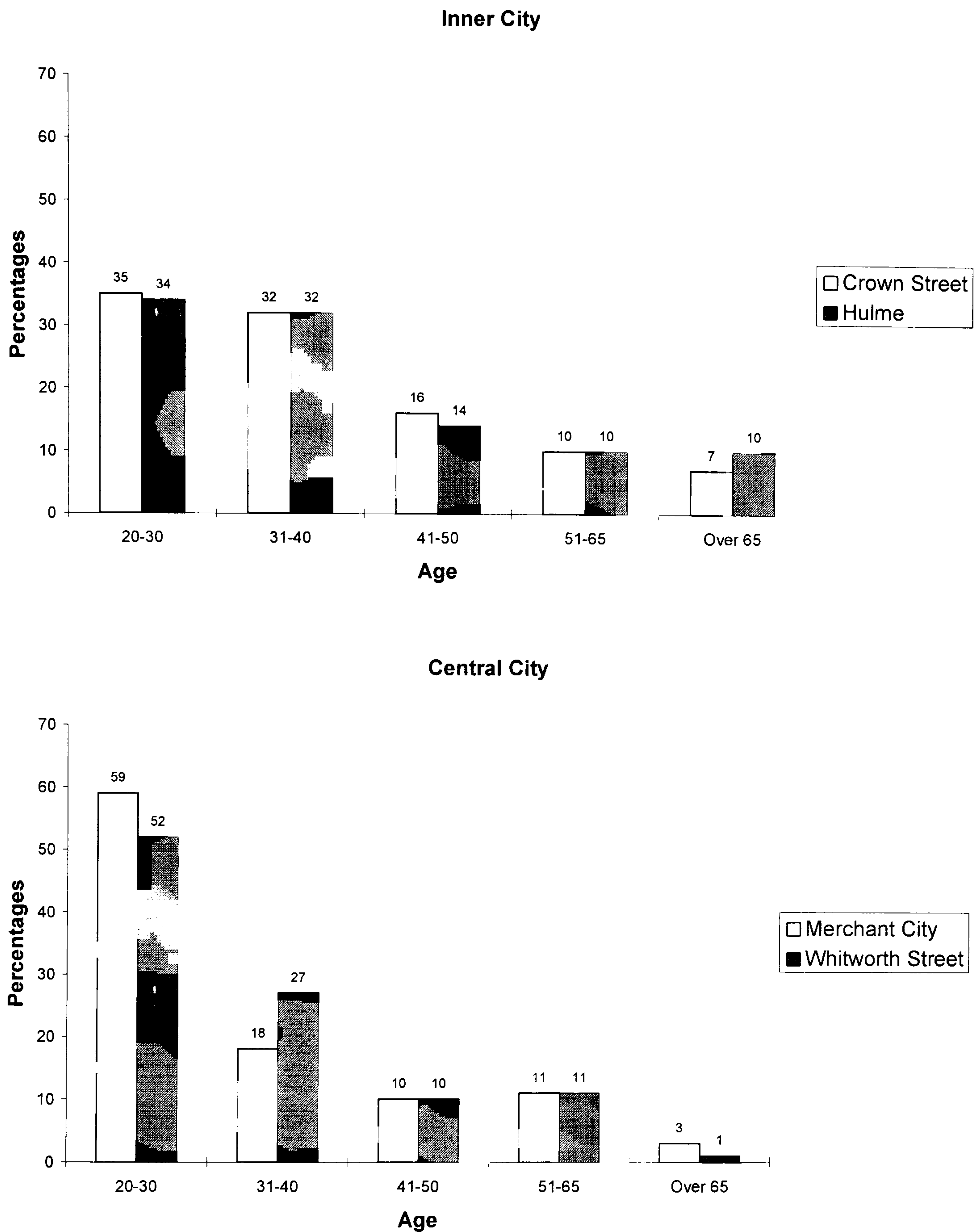
in both the inner city (33%) and the central city (22%). Therefore the majority of new residents are young would mean that there is a high possibility of economic viability in the survey areas.

By separating the information into the four areas, it shows interesting outcomes between the four areas. Figure 5-6 (see Table 5-6 in Appendix 2) shows that the proportion of respondents aged under 30 years old is 35% in Crown Street and 34% in Hulme. Moreover, more than 60% of respondents in both the areas are under 40 years old, which is higher than the proportion of respondents in other age groups. However, more than half of the respondents in Merchant City and Whitworth Street are under 30 years old, and more than 70% are under 40 years old in the areas. This may indicate that younger people prefer to live in the city centre areas rather than in the wider inner city areas. This is because the city centre areas can offer a wider range of entertainments, such as bars, restaurants, clubs, etc., to young people. On the other hand, relatively older people may prefer to live in a place with the quieter environment that the inner city, outside the central city areas, can give them. There is another possible reason for the difference in the age structure between the inner city and the central city areas. In the inner city areas, social housing is only available to ex-tenants. These ex-tenants may be older and less economically mobile, therefore unable to choose the central city areas in which to live.

Nevertheless, the findings suggest that there is a very high proportion of young people living in all the survey areas.



**Figure 5-6: Age structure of residents in the four areas**

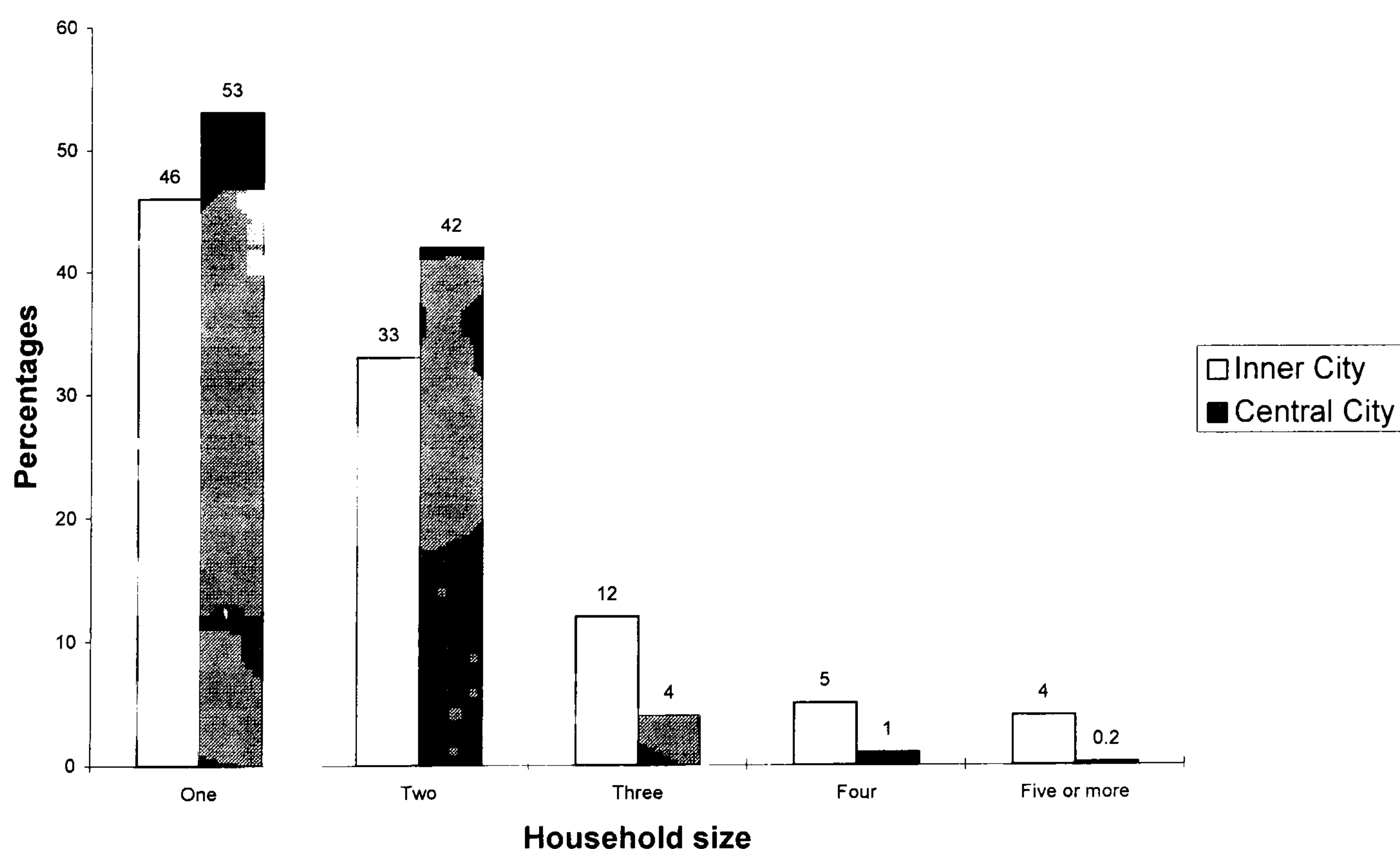


As there is a large number of young people in the survey areas, one might suppose that there is a large proportion of small-sized households in the survey areas as they might live alone or be couples without children. Therefore it is interesting to analyse the household structure of the areas. This can also provide an estimate of the

population size in the areas. For instance, if there is a large proportion of small-sized households in the areas, there will be low population density and vice versa.

Figure 5-7 (see Table 5-7 in Appendix 2) shows a close relationship between the age of new residents and their household size. There is a very high proportion of single adults in both the inner city (46%) and the central city (53%). Moreover, the proportion of single adults and couples without children consists of 79% in the inner city and 95% in the central city. The result indicates that there are few families with children, but a large number of single adults and couples without children<sup>19</sup> in both the inner city and the central city. Many young residents in the survey areas live alone, or they live with their partner but do not have children, thus the household size is inevitably small.

**Figure 5-7: Household size of residents in the inner city and the central city**<sup>20</sup>



<sup>19</sup> As the survey does not contain appropriate information about the number of children in households and age of children, it is possible that households with two people in the survey areas could be one adult and one child. It is an assumption that two people in these households would be adult couples.

<sup>20</sup> The figure is based on Q5 (How many people are there in your household?)

The information is separated into the four areas, which also shows the concentration of small sized households in the areas. However, there are some differences on the size of household between the four areas.

**Figure 5-8: Household size of residents in the four areas**

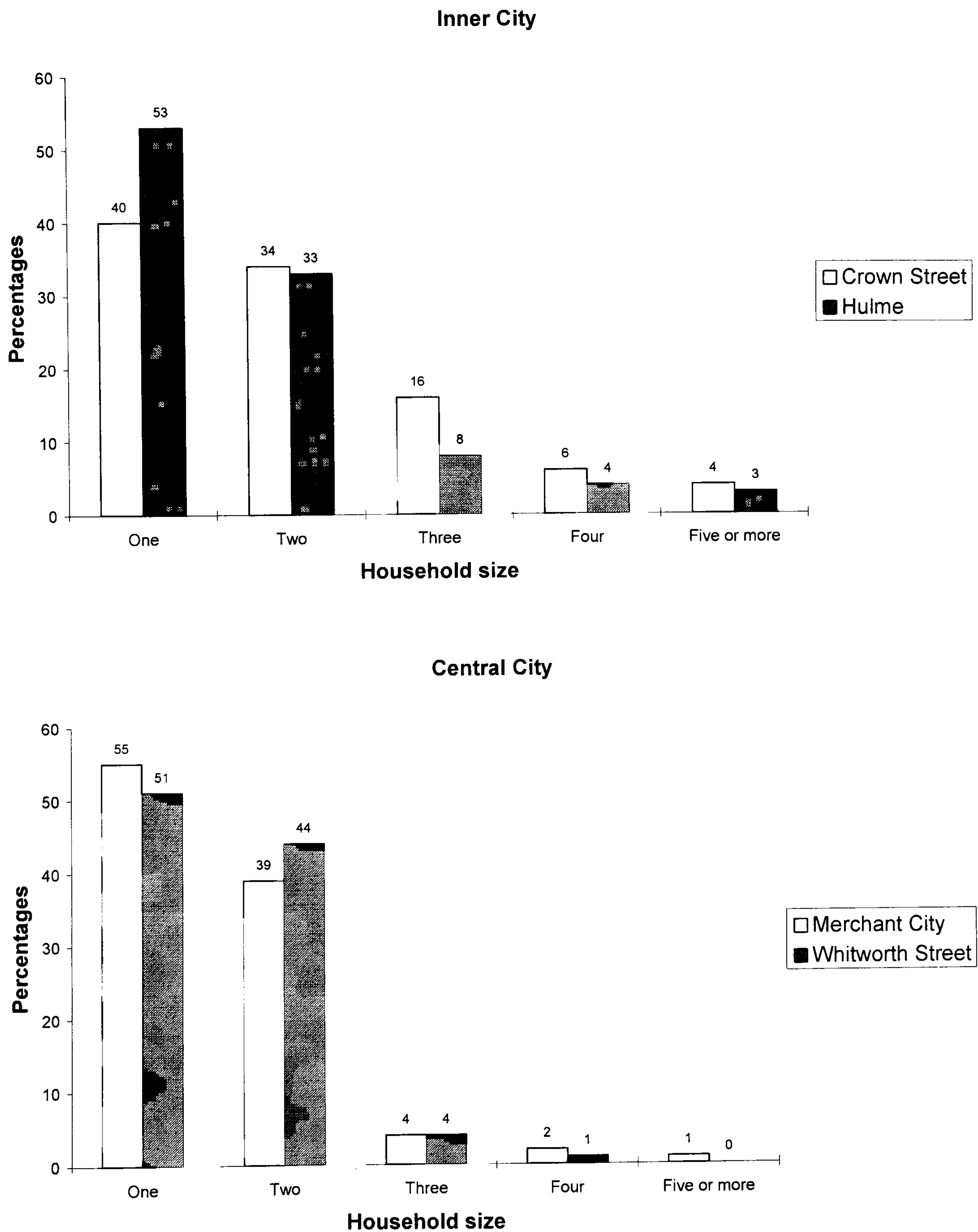


Figure 5-8 (see Table 5-8 in Appendix 2) shows that more than half of the households (with the exception of Crown Street) are single adults. However, although there is a



large proportion of single adults and couples without children in Crown Street (74%) and in Hulme (86%), more than 90% of households in the central city areas are single adults and couples without children- 94% in Merchant City and 95% in Whitworth Street. The differences in household size can be attributed to the availability of different housing sizes in the central city areas and the inner city areas.

A large number of dwellings in the central city areas are one or two bedroom flats, whereas in the inner city areas most housing is two or more than two bedroom flats and houses. Therefore families with children may prefer to live in the inner city housing which can give them enough space. On the other hand, one or two bedroom housing in the central city is enough for single people and families with no children. Therefore, the availability of different sizes of housing between the inner city areas and the central city areas may lead to the differences in household structure.

Another possible reason for the substantially high number of small-sized households in the central city areas could be as a result of a lack of facilities for families with children. There are almost no suitable places for children to play safely in the central city areas. This might deter families with young children from locating their residence in these areas.

The overall analysis of the age and household structure indicates two important facts, namely that there are a large number of young people and small households (single adults and couples without children) in the survey areas. Around 77% in the central city and around 66% in the inner city are aged under 30 years old. More than half of households in the central city and around 46% in the inner city are single adult households. The overall results of the age and household structure, however, raise an interesting question as to whether this current formation of age and household structure in the survey areas could be beneficial for the sustainability of both cities in

the long term. One would say that large numbers of young people and small-sized households could bring an economically active condition for the cities. However, young people and small-sized households would be more footloose than older people and families with children. In other words, they would find it easier to change their residence to another big city if more opportunities were given to them (e.g., employment). Moreover, in time of economic recession, this type of people and household would be more likely to move their residence to another city. Therefore, the current formation of age and household structure may lead to a consistent population change, and a less sustainable population for the cities. In order to increase the long-term sustainability of such areas, it would be important to consider ways of balancing age and household structure in the cities, particularly in the central city areas. One way would be the provision of appropriate facilities for children that would bring more families with children and would balance the age structure. This way may strengthen the long-term economic sustainability of such cities.

#### **Part 4: Economic status of residents**

Occupational status of the respondents will provide an insight into the economic status of the respondents in the survey areas, thus it is an important part of the survey. As housing in the central city areas is around three times more expensive than in the inner city areas<sup>21</sup>, and there is a large number of ex-social housing tenants in the inner city areas, one would expect to find different occupational status and income levels in

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<sup>21</sup> The price of a three bedroom flat in the central city areas is more than £100.000, compared to only around £35.000 in the inner city areas.

the two areas. First of all, the occupational status of new residents in the central and inner city will be examined.

**Figure 5-9: Occupational status of residents in the inner city and the central city<sup>22</sup>**

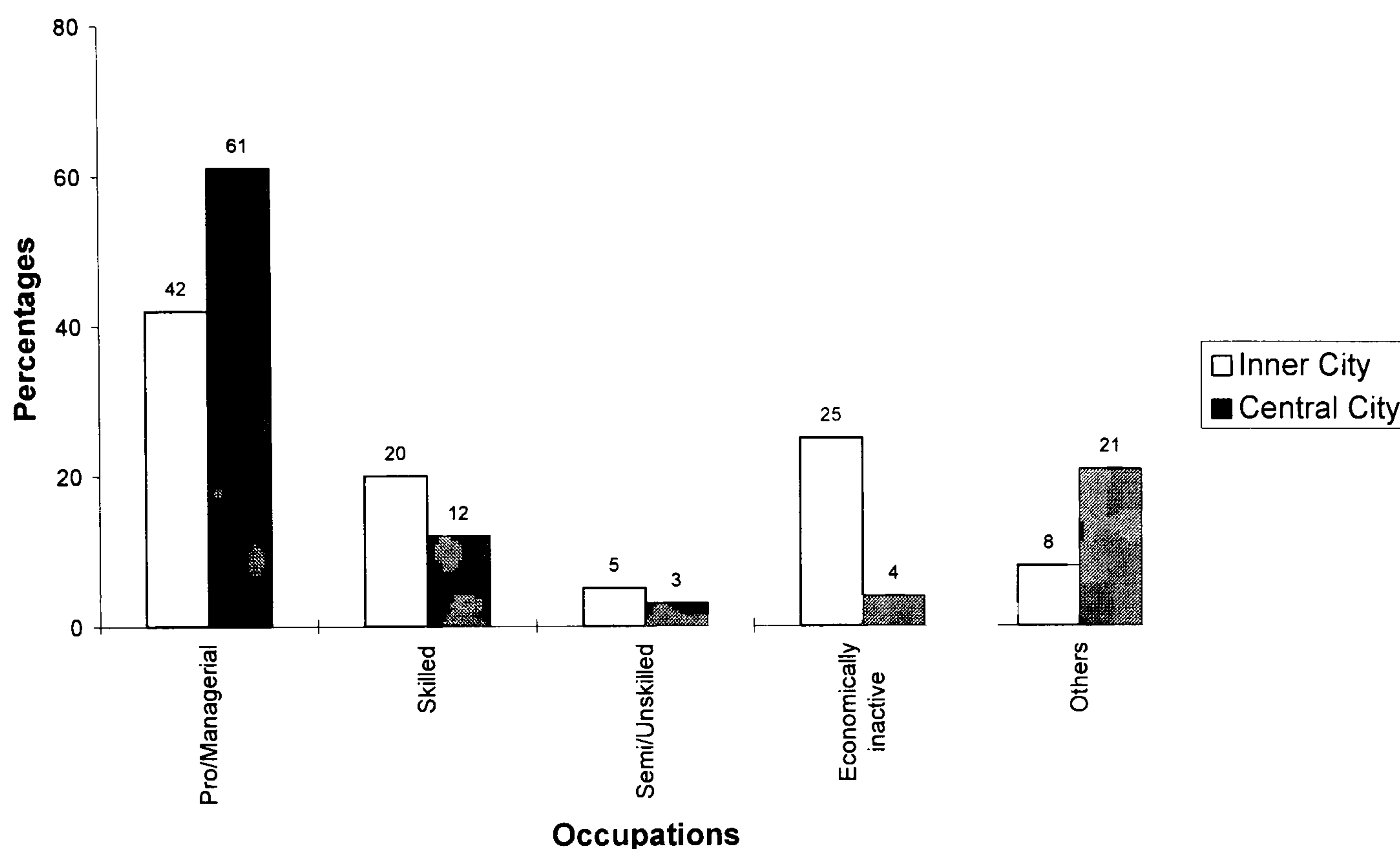


Figure 5-9 (see Table 5-9 in Appendix 2) shows that there is a large proportion of respondents who have professional and managerial occupations in both the central and the inner city: 61% in the central city and 42% of in the inner city. However, the major difference between the inner city and the central city is that a large proportion of respondents in the inner city is economically inactive (e.g., unemployed, retired, and sick or disabled). The proportion of economically inactive in the inner city (24%) is six times as higher as the case in the central city (4%). The main reason for the difference could be that the central city is largely designed for attracting those people who have high occupational status and incomes. On the other hand, the inner city is largely designed for providing cheap private housing and social housing for ex-

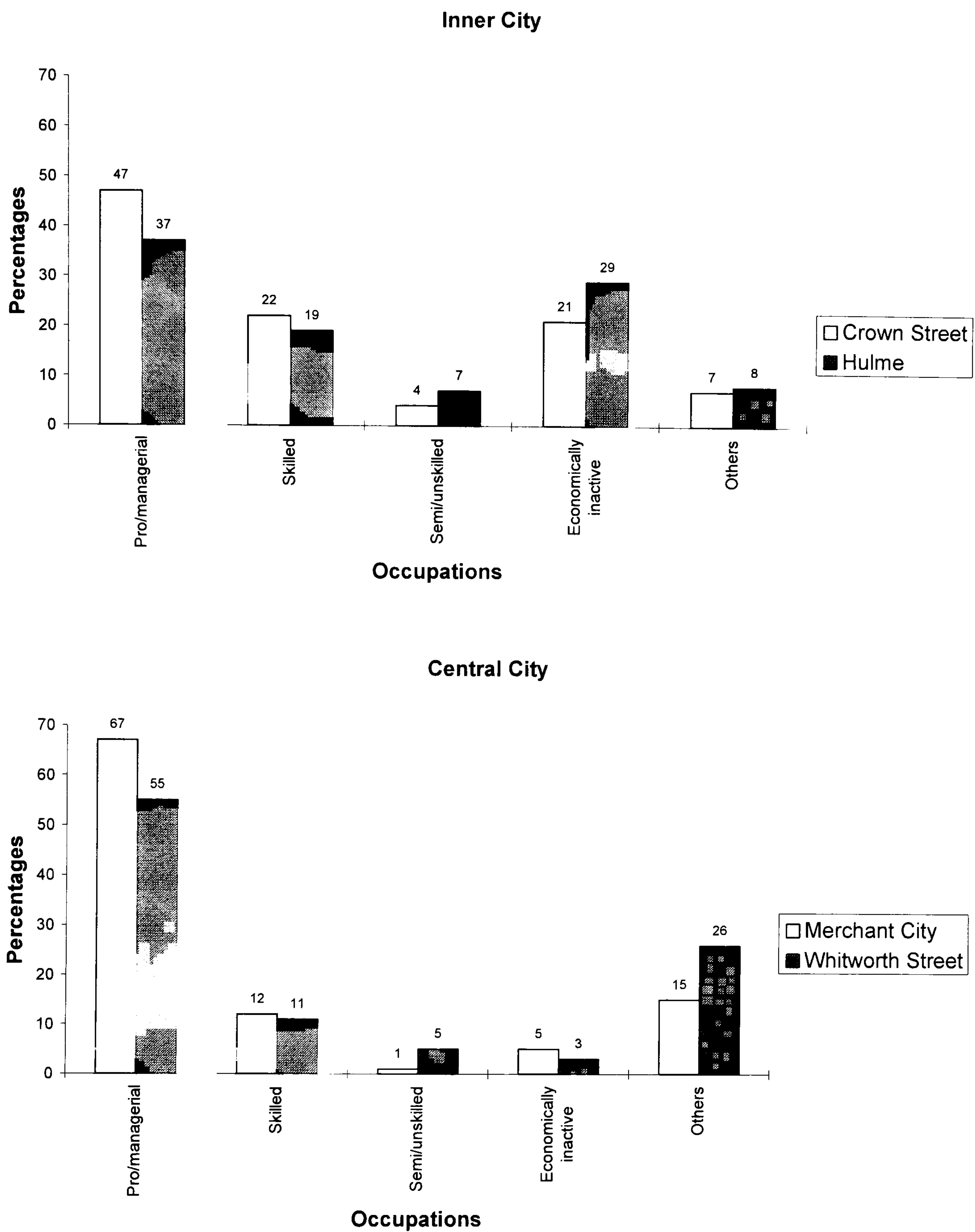
<sup>22</sup> This classification is based on the Standard Occupational Classification 1990. Others consist of students and housewives who are not listed on the SOC. The figure is based on Q30 (What is your occupation now?).



tenants. Many social housing residents in the inner city might be in economically inactive as there was a very high proportion of unemployed people in the areas before the regeneration. The overall occupational status of new residents in the central city is also seen to be much better than in the inner city.

The information is separated into the four areas, which also demonstrates clear differences between areas in the inner city and areas in the central city in terms of the occupational status of new residents. Figure 5-10 (see Table 5-10 in Appendix 2) shows that there are a higher proportion of respondents with professional and managerial occupations in the central city areas compared with the inner city areas. There is also a higher proportion of white-collar workers in the central city areas compared to the inner city areas- 75% in Merchant City and 63% in Whitworth Street, but 57% in Crown Street and 45% in Hulme. On the other hand, there is a higher proportion of respondents classified as economically inactive in the inner city areas compared to the central city areas- 21% in Crown Street and 29% in Hulme, but only 5% in Merchant City and 3% in Whitworth Street. The findings indicate clear differences in the occupational status between the inner city areas (Crown Street and Hulme) and the central city areas (Merchant City and Whitworth Street). As mentioned before, Crown Street and Hulme suffered from social and economic deprivation in the past. This would be one of the major reasons for regenerating these areas, and with many existing residents coming from the area this explains why they come from lower socio-economic groups.

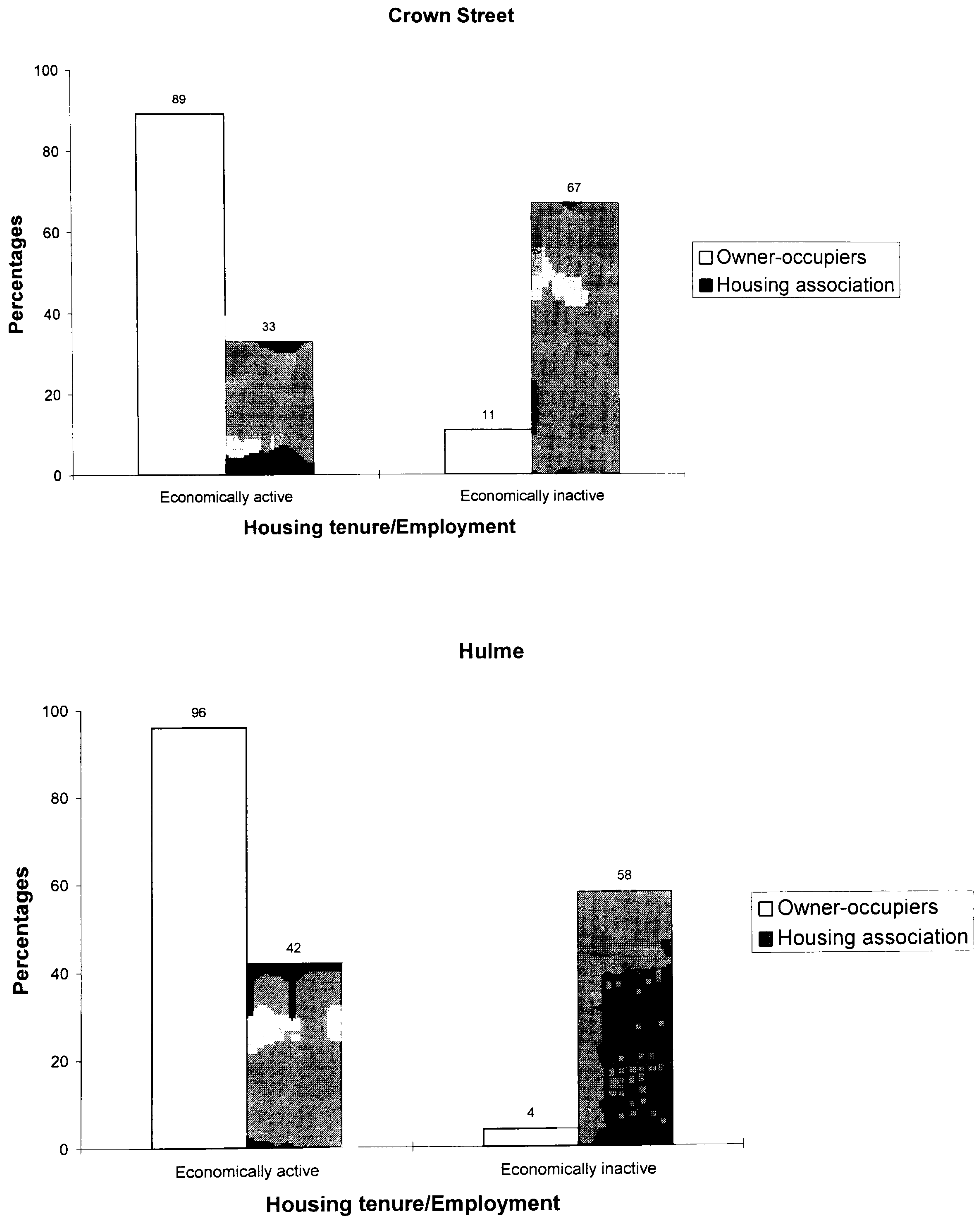
**Figure 5-10: Occupational status of residents in the four areas**



Although new owner-occupiers have moved into the areas that might affect the overall economic condition of the areas, figure 5-11 (see Table 5-11 in Appendix 2) shows that the majority of respondents in social housing are economically inactive. Therefore although the regeneration in Crown Street and Hulme has altered the

overall environment of the areas, the economic condition of residents in social housing seems not to be changed greatly.

**Figure 5-11: Housing tenure and employment in Crown Street and Hulme**





As there are many famous universities near the central city areas, there is a high proportion of students ('Other' in Figure 5-10) in the central city areas. Some would probably remain after graduation, thus adding to the economic viability of the city.

So far, the findings have illustrated the large difference in terms of the occupational status of new residents between the central city areas and the inner city areas. Now, Figure 5-12 (see Table 5-12 in Appendix 2) shows what types of job new residents have whether they are in manufacturing industry or in the service industry.

**Figure 5-12: Residents in employment by industry groups in the inner city and the central city<sup>23</sup>**



Figure 5-12 clearly illustrates that the vast majority of respondents work in the service industry (more than 90%), but very few respondents in both the inner city and the central city work in the manufacturing industry- 5% in the inner city and 2.6% in the central city. In particular, a large proportion of new respondents in both the inner city

<sup>23</sup> As a small typing space is allowed in the SPSS chart, all types of job could not write down. For instance, manufacturing includes construction; distribution includes hotels, restaurants and other services, such as television production, cleaning, bars, etc.; transport includes communication; banking includes finance, insurance and other business services; and public service includes public administration, education and health.

and the central city work in banking related services (banking, finance, insurance and other business services) and public services (public administration, education and health). The overall result, therefore, indicates that it is service industry that provides most employment in both the inner city and the central city. However, the result in Figure 5-12 excludes residents who are economically inactive. The large number of unemployed social housing residents in the inner city reflects the true differences in economic condition of residents between the inner city and the central city.

Having found the differences in occupational status between those respondents living in the central city areas and those respondents living in the inner city areas, it is expected that there may also be wide differences in household income between residents of the central city areas and residents in the inner city areas, which will reflect the large number of social housing residents in the inner city areas. Figure 5-13 (see Table 5-13 in Appendix 2) shows clear differences in terms of household income between the inner city and the central city, particularly those respondents with household incomes under £8,000 and over £35,000. The number of respondents with household incomes over £35,000 is more than three times as high in the central city than in the inner city. On the other hand, respondents with household incomes under £8,000 in the inner city are twice as high as in the central city. Although 14% of respondents in the central city have household incomes under £8,000, most of these are students. However, a large proportion of those respondents with household incomes under £8,000 in the inner city is social housing residents.

**Figure 5-13: Household incomes of residents in the inner city and the central city**

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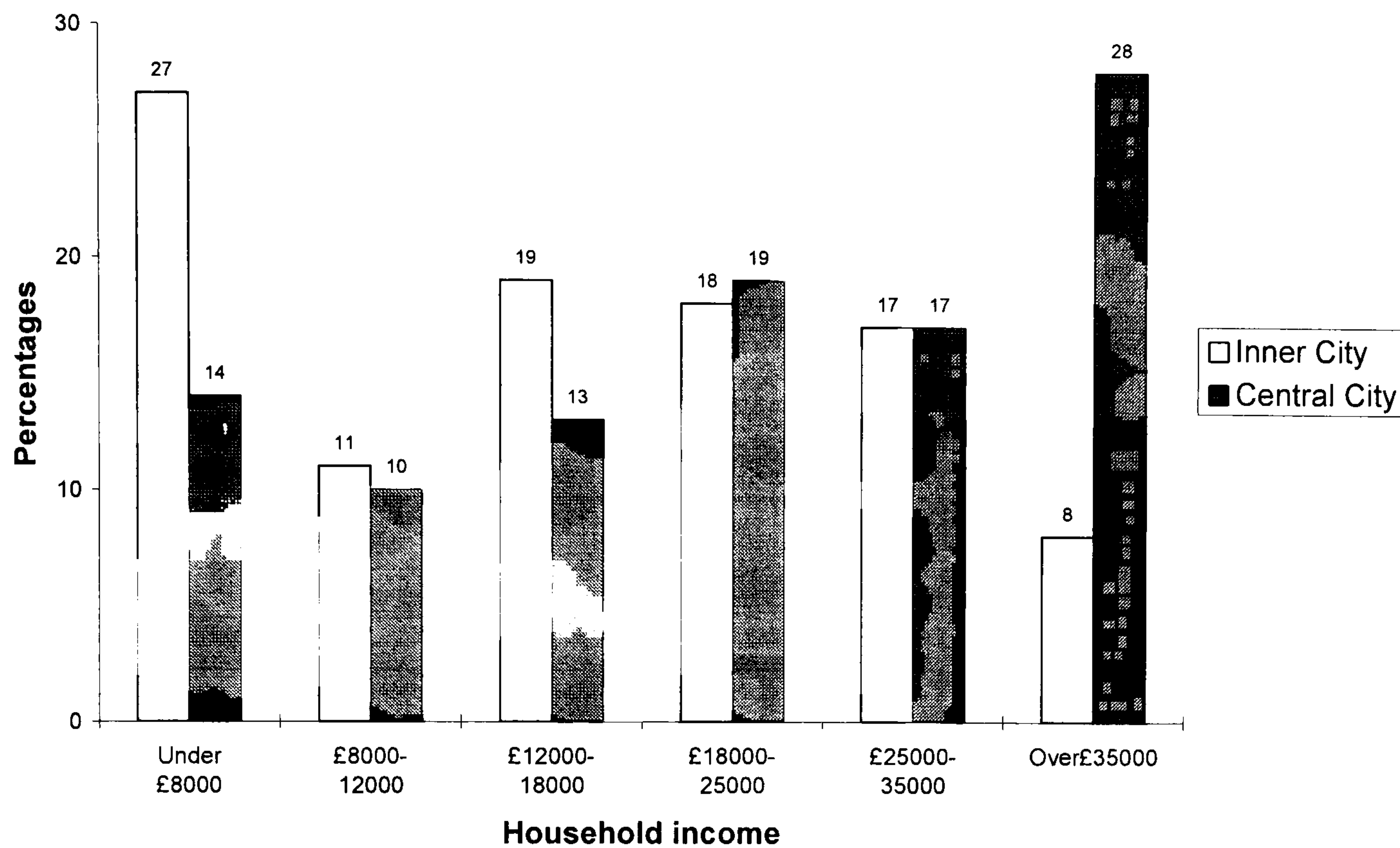
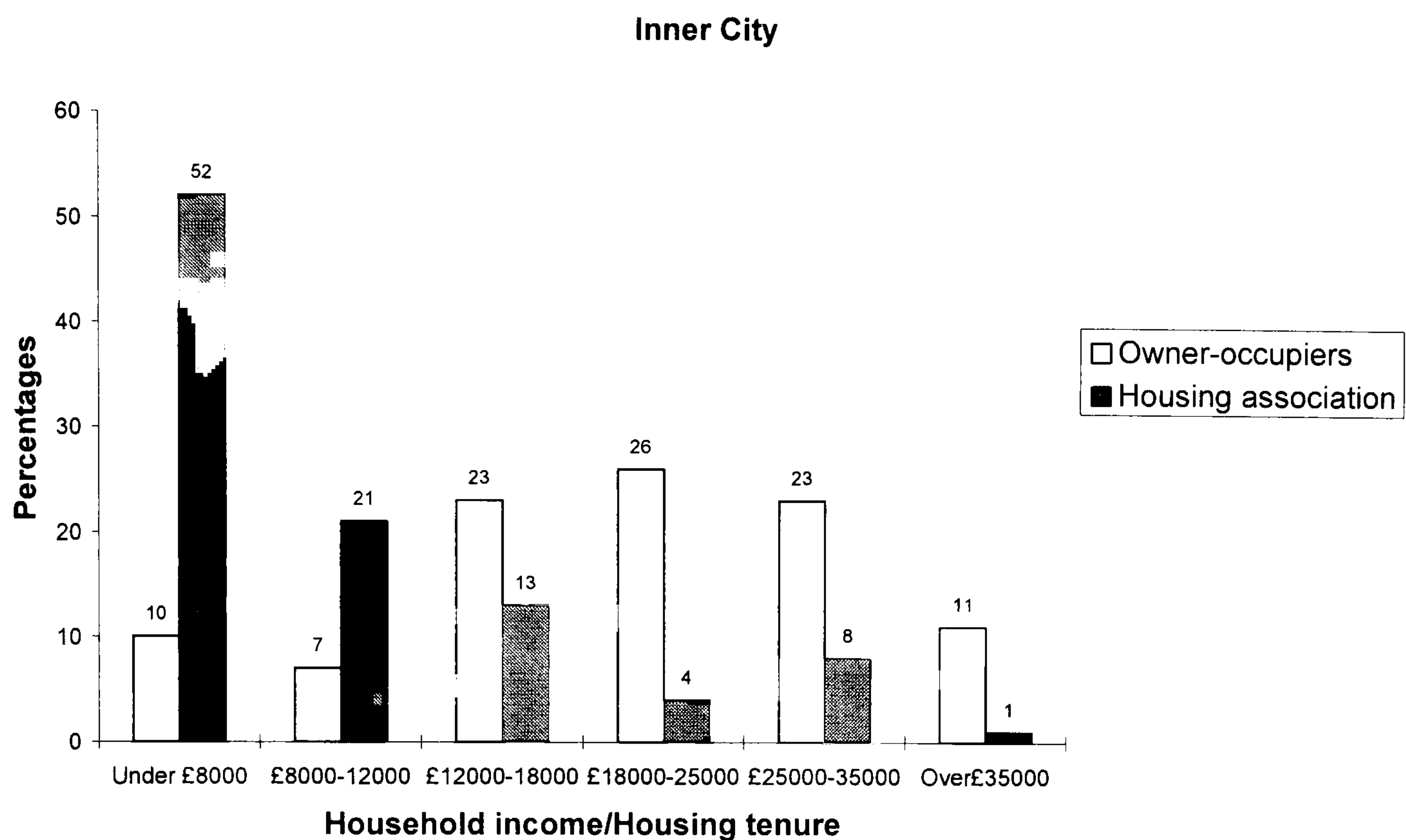


Figure 5-14 (see Table 5-14 in Appendix 2) shows a clear difference in terms of household incomes between owner-occupiers and social housing renters. Only one percent of social housing residents in the inner city have household incomes over £35,000, but more than half have household incomes under £8,000. Moreover, only 17% of owner-occupiers have household incomes under £12,000, whereas 73% of social housing renters have household incomes under £12,000. Therefore the findings do not only show great differences in terms of household income between the inner city and the central city, but also between owner-occupiers and social housing renters within the inner city.

<sup>24</sup> The figure is based on Q31 (Could you please tell me into which of these categories your total household income falls?).

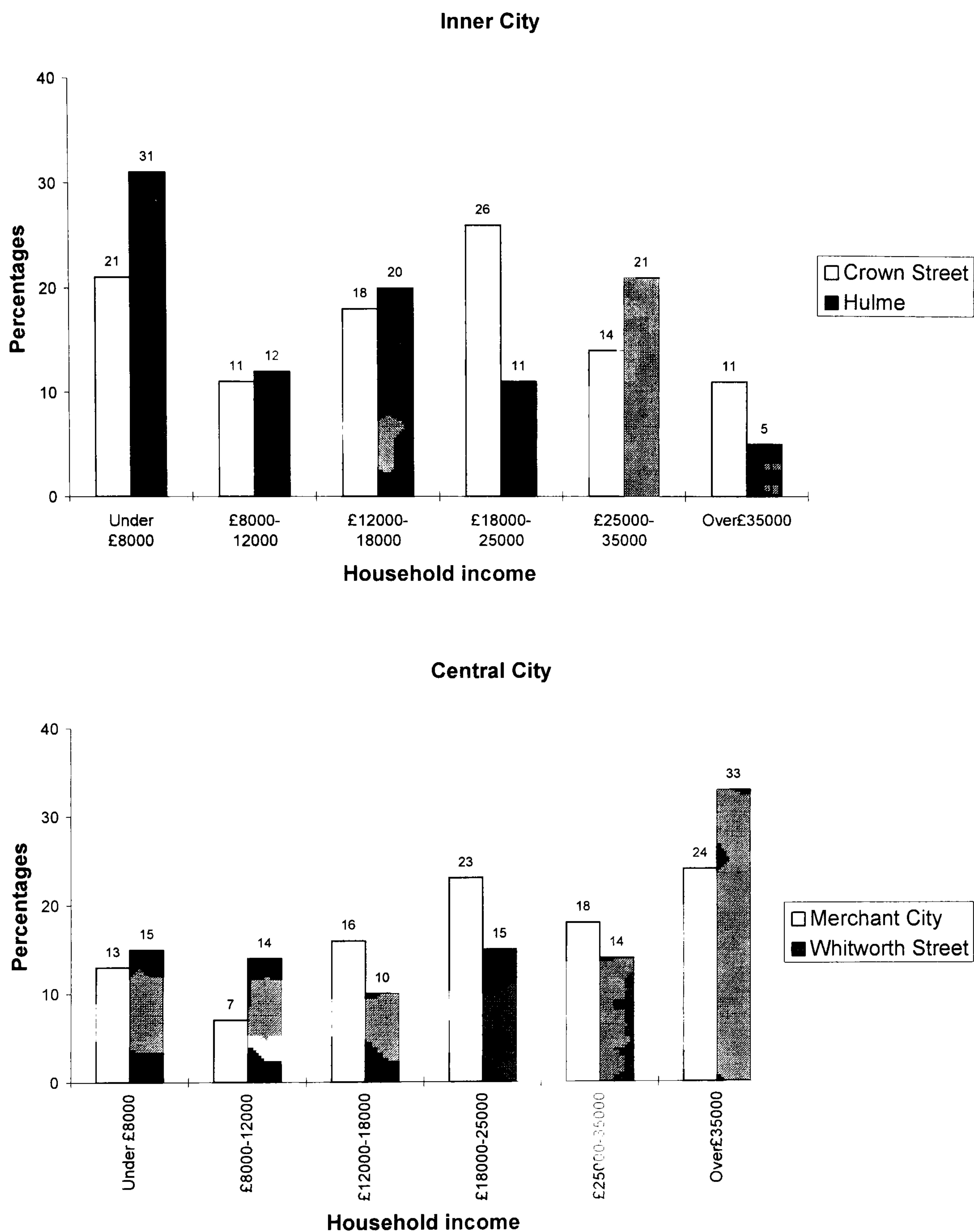


**Figure 5-14: Housing tenure and Household income in the inner city**



In Figure 5-15, the information is divided into the four areas. It is obvious that there are differences in terms of household incomes between the inner city and the central city, but there are also differences found between the areas within the inner city. Figure 5-15 (see Table 5-15 in Appendix 2) shows that between Merchant City and Whitworth Street there are no substantial differences in terms of household incomes among respondents, though some small differences exist. However, it is interesting that there are more households with household incomes under £8,000 in Hulme (31%) than in Crown Street (21%). This may suggest that social housing renters in Crown Street could be economically better off than social housing renters in Hulme, as the previous findings indicated that a large proportion of social housing renters in the inner city had household incomes under £8,000.

**Figure 5-15: Household incomes of the residents in the four areas**

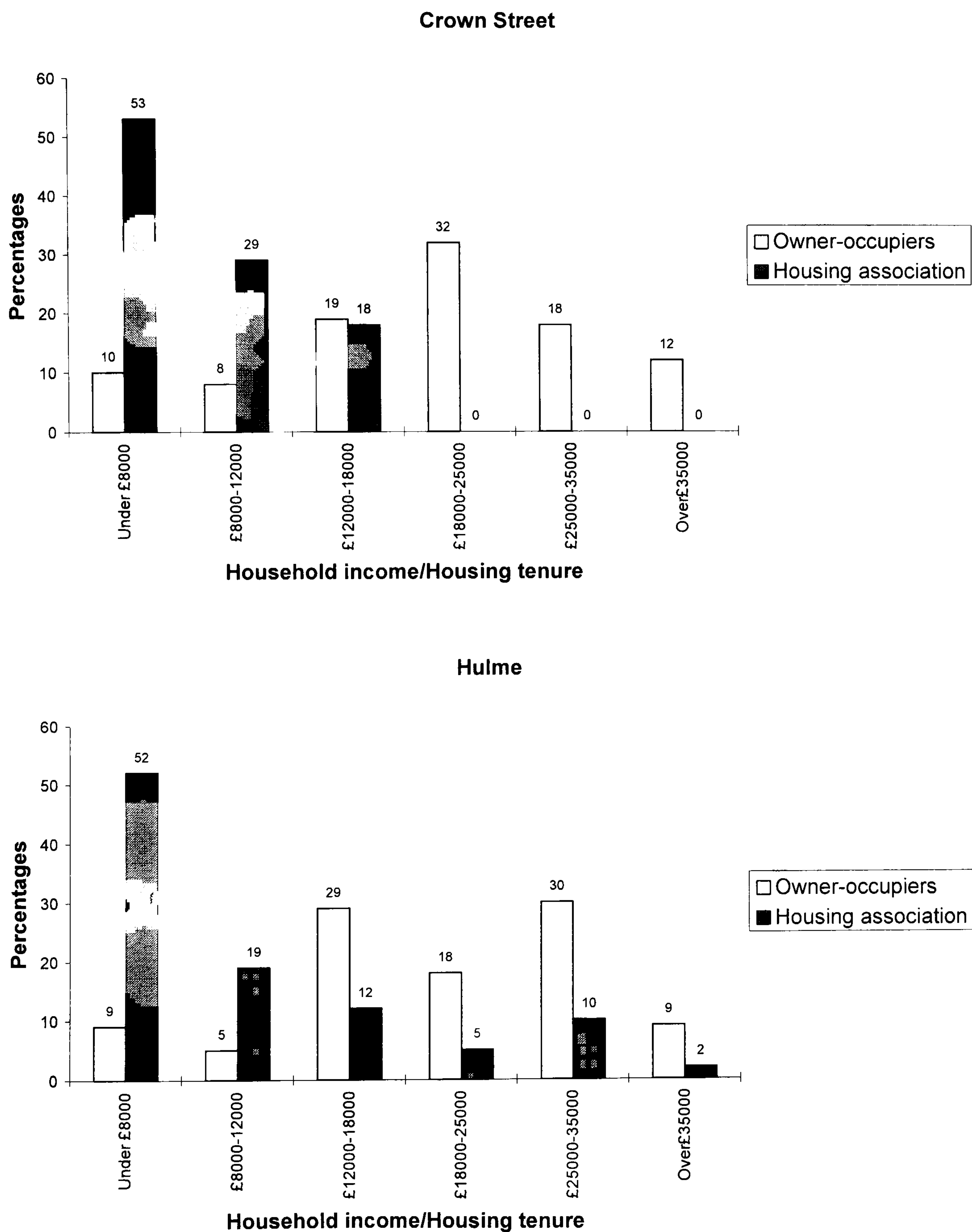


However, Figure 5-16 (see Table 5-16 in Appendix 2) shows that social housing renters in Hulme are economically better off than social housing renters in Crown Street. For instance, around 17% of social housing households in Hulme have incomes over £18,000, but no social housing households in Crown Street have incomes over £18,000. Therefore one could ask why more respondents in Hulme have

household incomes under £8,000 than in Crown Street (according to Figure 5-15).

The answer may lie in the different proportion of social housing between Crown Street and Hulme.

**Figure 5-16: Housing tenure and Household income in Crown Street and Hulme**



In Crown Street, the number of private houses is almost seven times the number of social housing units, thus a small number of social housing households in the area



does not substantially affect the overall number of respondents who have household incomes under £8,000 when the figure of private and social housing is put together. On the other hand, in Hulme a similar amount of social housing and private housing has been built, thus a large number of social housing households substantially affect the overall number of respondents with household incomes under £8,000.

One clear lesson can be drawn from the results of the analysis on the economic status of residents in the survey areas. Although, the new housing schemes have regenerated the areas in both cities, there are still a large gap in terms of occupational status and household incomes between those residents living in the relatively depressed inner city areas and those residents living in the relatively well-off central city areas. The main reason seems to lie in the overall economic condition of residents in social housing. These residents are more likely to have low household incomes, which seems to be inevitable as they are also more likely to be economically inactive.

Therefore the provision of higher quality housing (compared to previously) does not indicate that any substantial changes would occur in the economic life of many residents in social housing.

## **Part 5: Social and economic profiles of the non-local movers**<sup>25</sup>

Throughout this chapter, as has been seen, there is a large number of residents in the survey areas who are from outside the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, particularly in the central city. It would be interesting to see the profile of these residents, and it

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<sup>25</sup> Non-local movers represent residents in the survey areas who come from outside the cities.

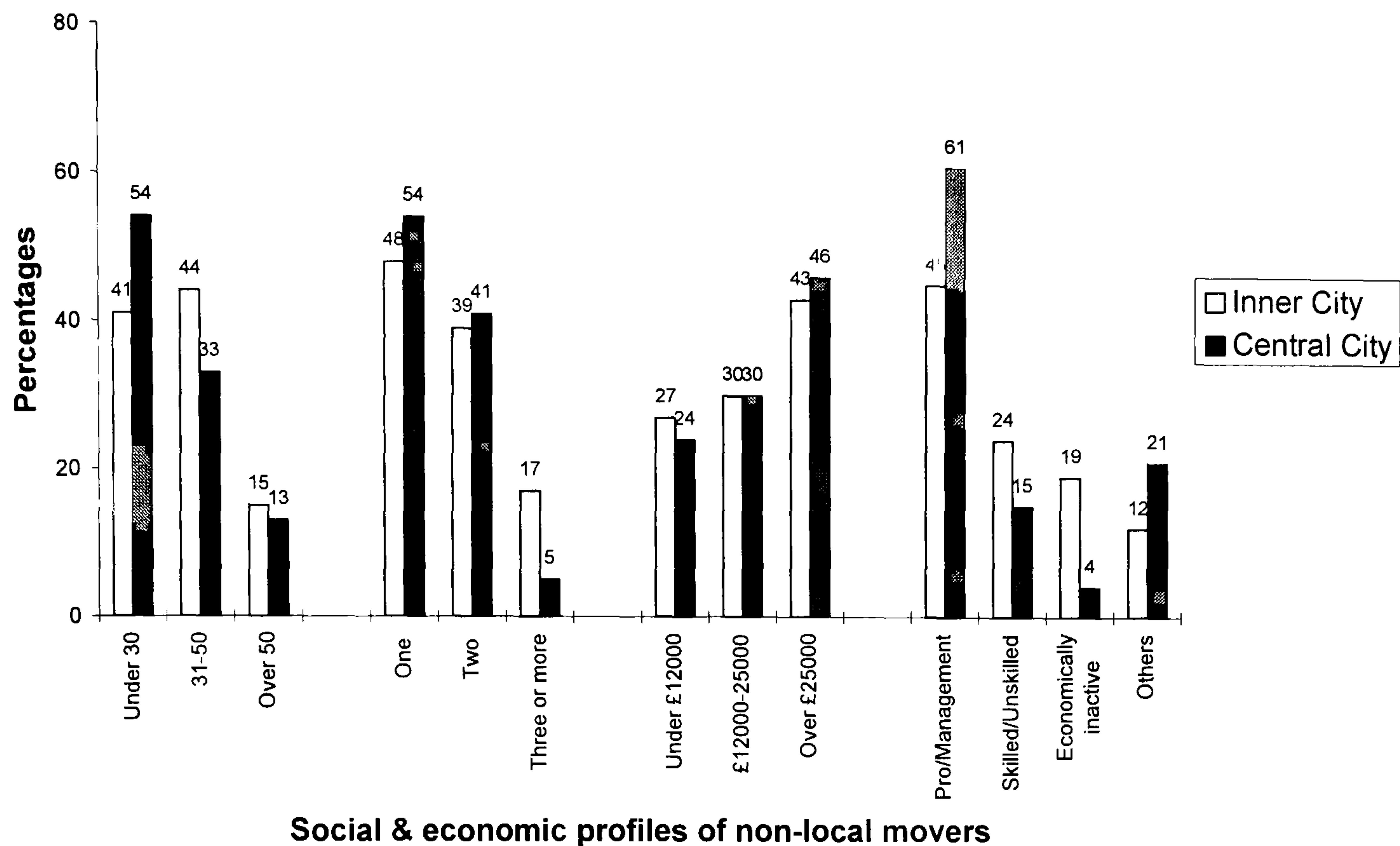
would be also interesting to see if there are any differences between residents who are from the local areas and residents who are from outside the cities.

Analysing the social and economic profiles of residents, who are from outside the cities, is important in terms of seeing whether or not one of the regeneration purposes of Glasgow and Manchester has actually succeeded (both cities intended to attract high-income households to live in their city). Therefore, the social and economic profiles of residents from outside the cities will be examined.

Figure 5-17 (see Table 5-17 in Appendix 2) shows that a large percentage of non-local movers in both the inner city and the central city are young people (non-local movers in the central city are younger than in the inner city), and they have a small household size (a vast majority of households are one person or couples without children). Moreover, almost half of these residents have household income over £25,000, but around one quarter has a household income under £12,000. This means that considerably large numbers of low-income households have also relocated their residence to the cities of Glasgow and Manchester.

Occupational differences between the inner city and the central city appeared significantly different. Almost two thirds of non-local movers in the central city have professional and managerial occupations. Although, a large percentage of non-local movers in the inner city have professional and managerial occupations, the percentage of these residents are significantly lower in the inner city compared to the central city. Moreover, significantly higher percentages of non-local movers in the inner city are economically inactive than in the central city. This is because there are residential areas for disabled people in Hulme. Many of these residents are from somewhere in the Manchester region.

**Figure 5-17: The social & economic profiles of non-local movers in the inner city and the central city**



One other interesting factor is that there are more non-local movers in the central city to be categorised as ‘Others’ (most of them are students) than in the inner city. As mentioned above, there are large numbers of students in the central city. One fifth of non-local movers in the central city are students.

The overall results indicate that residents who are from outside the cities of Glasgow and Manchester are young, and many of them have high household incomes and occupational status. Therefore, the cities seem to be successful in terms of attracting high-income households from outside.

The analysis of the social and economic profiles of all respondents found that there are no significant differences between respondents from the local areas and respondents from outside the cities. This may well be because 80% of respondents in the central city areas come from outside. This would mean that any statistical significances might not appear in this analysis.



## **Part 6: The characteristics of the residents and gentrification**

The overall characteristics of the residents in the survey areas may suggest a sign of “gentrification” in the areas, particularly in the central city areas, as many of the residents in the areas are young, single adults or families without children. These residents are also owner-occupiers and white-collar workers with high household incomes from outside local areas.

The term, gentrification came into use in Britain in the 1960s and was closely associated with the rehabilitation of older inner housing areas culminating in a change of class from working-class to middle-class, and tenure from private renting to owner-occupation (Hamnett, 1984). Recently, a more general usage has developed in theoretical and spatial scope, linked to the wider processes of economic restructuring and the consequent restructuring of cities. Deindustrialisation and the emergence of a post-industrial economy, together with the restructuring of Welfare States under the impact of New Right ideology, are critical components. For instance, in a study of gentrification, Smith and Williams (1986) argue that the current restructuring of cities, turning the process of suburbanisation and bringing high-income residents back to city centres, has a wider implication than the narrow traditional definition of gentrification. They imply that gentrification reflects in spatial terms the reorganisation of the labour market in cities, creating an increasing polarisation between high-income, white-collar workers and an underclass of poorly paid, insecure employment in the service sector.

However, the causes of gentrification are the subject of a considerable debate between supply-side explanations and those stressing the importance of cultural factors in producing demand. Hamnett (1991) argues that the theories should be seen as

complementary rather than conflicting. Where supply-side explanations provide an understanding of how gentrified properties are created through the logic of the 'rent gap', demand-side theories focus on the creation of gentrifiers and their cultural attributes. Hamnett also compares the theories with other factors, including the role of the state, but housing renewal policies, for instance, do not cause gentrification directly. Housing renewal policies are seen as of secondary importance, though they may affect the process of gentrification.

### **Gentrification in Glasgow and Manchester city centre**

Throughout the analysis of other studies, it is questionable whether the process, which has happened in the survey areas, especially in the central areas, is a process of gentrification. The creation of new housing in the central city areas is physically separate from existing inner residential areas and use land and buildings which were previously not in housing use. The process of new housing developments in the areas does not, therefore, directly displace existing inner city residents. Taking the most direct concept of gentrification, the process that has happened in the central city areas of this study is not gentrification. However, paradoxically, it is possible to say that the process that has happened in the areas may be a form of gentrification in that, though it does not directly prevent low-income households from living in the areas, it systematically discourages low-income household from living in the central city areas by providing expensive housing. It also encourages high-income households to live in the areas by providing the best possible means of attractions, such as cultural facilities. However, it is questionable why housing in the central city areas is

expensive and has resulted in creating gentrification in the areas, even though the areas used to be run-down or unused industrial areas. It may be because of high demand for housing in the city centre (but little supply) forcing up price. The improvements in the city centre of both cities (the provision of cultural and leisure facilities) might attract a large number of people who are willing to live there that could increase the demand for housing in the city centre. But there are few convertible old buildings and little unused land for residential housing in the city centre which might lead to high prices. This discussion will be further examined later.

Another possibility is that, as mentioned in the main section of this chapter, from the 1980s the Conservative Government reduced the responsibility of local authorities for providing housing for local people, but the Government relied heavily on private sector initiatives to create housing. In this process, housing created by private sector initiatives is expensive as they are profit-pursuers.

In Zukin's study (1982) of loft conversion on the Lower East Side of New York (see chapter 2), there are always gainers and losers when gentrification takes place in an area. In her study, the real losers are small manufacturers, distributors, jobbers, and wholesale and retail sales operators, who were there before artists and non-artists came to the area. The real gainers are estate agents and landlords who gain most profit from replacing the original tenants. The main reason for high demand for the lofts in the area is an attractive environment that is created by artists living in the area. Non-artists are attracted by this artistic environment, and produce further demand for loft living. Although residents in the central city areas may enjoy decent housing close to a variety of cultural and leisure facilities in city centre, they might have to accept high cost of their housing. Therefore, like the study by Zukin of loft conversion on the Lower East Side of New York, in Glasgow and Manchester private sector initiatives



seem to gain most profit from housing conversion in the central areas through the legitimisation of urban development. However, the case of Zukin's study and the case of the central city development in Glasgow and Manchester are somehow different from one another. In Zukin's case, most residents are private renters and these residents are attracted by artistic environment of the area, thus they are more likely to leave there when the major attraction, such as the artistic environment created by artists, is displaced by high rents. This might lead to less sustainability in the area. However, in the case of the central city in Glasgow and Manchester, the majority of residents are owner-occupiers. Although they might be attracted by the availability of various social amenities in the area, the majority of residents work in the central city, thus they are unlikely to change their area of residence. This may result in a more sustainable condition compared to the case of Zukin. Moreover, although the private developers gained profit from the housing development in the area, unlike the case of Zukin, these private developers do not continuously gain profit from the area. If the price of housing in the central city is going up, the owners of housing rather than the private developer gain from higher housing prices in the central city. Furthermore, the development of residential housing in the central city does not seem to displace any businesses in the area. It may increase the number of businesses as decent housing and various social amenities increase the availability of skilled workers in the area. It will also increase demand for services- shops, bars, repair shops, etc. Overall, the gentrification in the central city is undeniable, but this gentrification is seen as more positive than was the case in Zukin's study.

## Summary

The findings in this chapter indicate that most residents in the inner city come from the local area and the local region, but almost half of residents in the central city come from outside the local area and the region.

The survey showed that many of the residents in both the central city and the inner city work near their residence. A large number of residents in central city areas work in the CBD, whereas although many of the residents in the inner city areas work in the CBD, more residents in the inner city areas work in the wider region or outside the region than do residents in the central city. This indicates that there is a relationship between the residential location and the area of workplace, but it does not explain why residents may work in the rest of the country or outside the UK, thus this needs to be examined further in the next chapter.

A large number of residents in the survey areas consists of young, single people or couples with no children. However, the lack of appropriate facilities for families with children seems to result in the imbalance of age and household structure in the survey areas, particularly in the central city areas, which could damage the long-term sustainability of the cities.

There are large differences between types of tenure and occupations, employment, and household incomes between the central city and the inner city as well as between the four areas. The main reason seems to be the instability of the economic condition of those residents in social housing. Owner-occupiers are more likely to have better occupations and higher household incomes than those social housing renters, and residents in social housing are more likely to be economically inactive. Without the proper provision of employment for many of those residents in social housing who are

economically inactive, it is difficult to say that the overall economic and social condition of the inner city has been transformed.

The social and economic profiles of non-local movers in the survey areas seem to be economically viable. Most non-local movers in the inner city and the central city are young, and many of them have high household incomes and occupational status. Therefore, the effort of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester seem to be successful in terms of attracting high-income households from elsewhere.

The overall analysis of the characteristics of residents in the survey areas suggests that there is a form of gentrification in the central city that seems to be systematically created by new urban housing schemes. However, the gentrification in the central city seems to be more positive than the case presented by Zukin's study.



## **Chapter 6: Why do people move into the city?**

### **Introduction**

The process of urbanisation seems to be one of the most dramatic developments in human history, particularly development in the previous century. However, the strong trends toward urbanisation eventually gave way to suburbanisation as early as the mid-19th century. Most recently, from the 1950s in the US and from the 1960s in Europe, suburbanisation has given way to decentralisation or ex-urbanisation. Both population and economic activity related to goods handling have become diffused over whole regions. As a result, the older congested urban areas faced severe problems in terms of not only economic but also of social problems. As in many other older industrial cities in Britain, there has been, in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, since the 1960s, a massive population loss generated by the process of decentralisation. For instance, there was a loss of population in Glasgow from just over one million in 1961 to 774,000 in 1981, a loss of 32.8% of the population as a whole (Boyle, 1990). The reasons for the dramatic population loss in Glasgow were a very high rate of outmigration in response to economic conditions, and, also in response to bad housing conditions, migration from the city to housing elsewhere at a faster rate than planned overspill (McCrone, 1991). In Manchester, there was also a dramatic population loss. The city's population fell sharply from 661,800 in 1961 to 451,100 in 1985, a reduction of 31.8% of population overall. Similarly, the reasons

for the massive population loss in Manchester were manufacturing decline and a policy of rehousing outside the municipal boundary (Kidd, 1996).

However, from the mid-1980s the population loss in both cities has slowed down, and the central city areas of both cities have actually gained a considerable number of people as large areas of residential housing were built, or unused warehouse and office buildings were reused for residential purposes in the city centre and on the edge of the city centre. Therefore it is important to examine why new residents have chosen to live in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. The Glasgow District Council' study (1987) on Ingram Square<sup>26</sup> of Merchant City reveals that residents were principally attracted by location (40%), the closeness to place of employment (33%), and the local amenities (18%).

During the pilot study, I found similar factors that attracted residents to the survey areas. Therefore, I assumed that the above factors would be dominant reasons for residents to choose their residence in there. This was not, as will be seen, entirely the case in this study.

In this chapter, the reasons of residents in this study of central and inner city areas in Glasgow and Manchester will be examined.

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<sup>26</sup> Residents of Ingram Square were also included in this study.

## **Part 1: Residents' reasons for choosing to live in the survey areas**

It is important to know what people look for in an ideal place to live and where people can come closest to finding a place with these desirable characteristics. City living has many attractions, including easy access to modern shopping facilities or proximity to leisure activities, such as cinemas, theatres, etc. Unfortunately, however, city living is also associated with negative features (e.g., higher levels of pollution, burglary and a range of social tensions), which can take away from the quality of life.

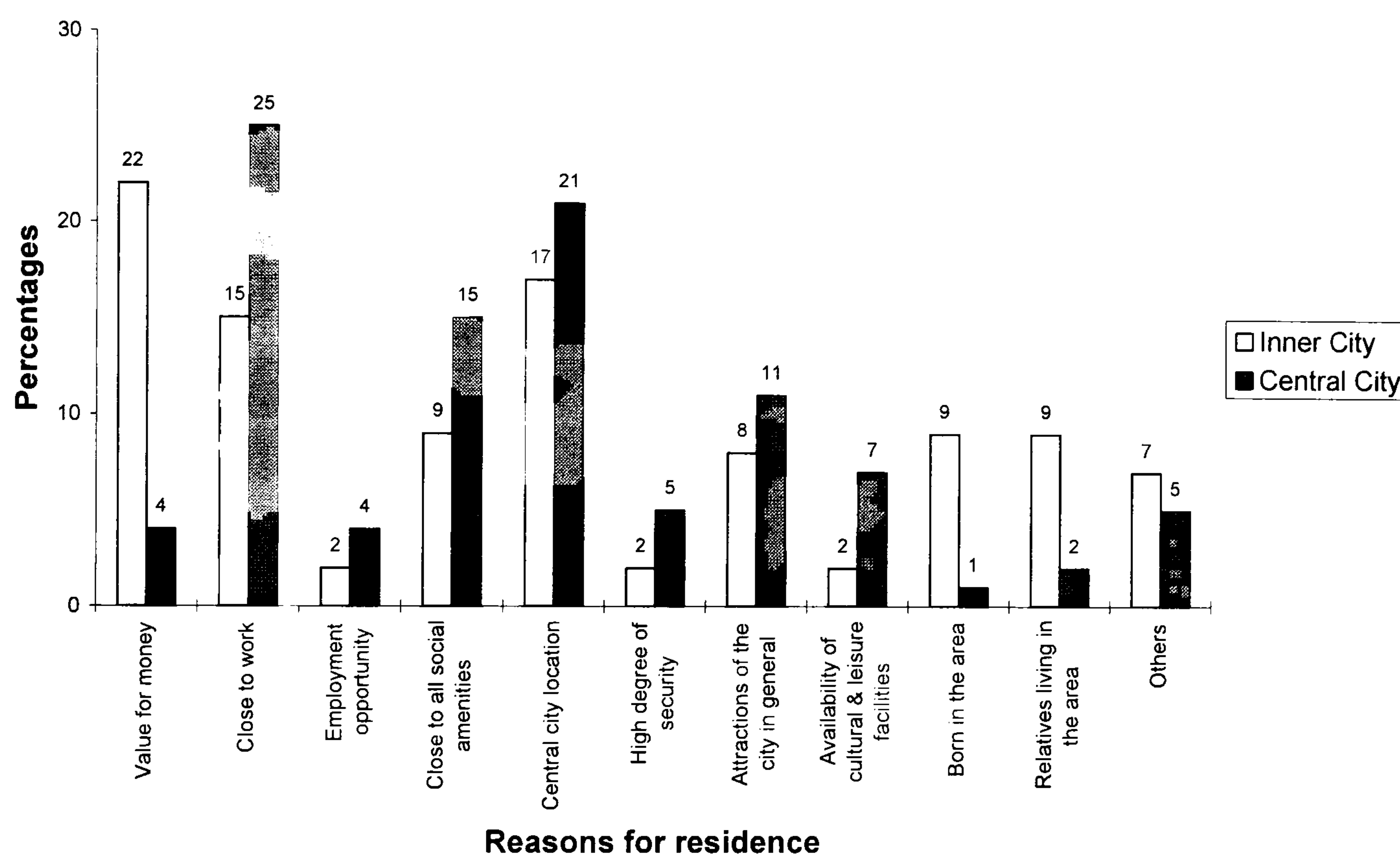
As the previous chapter showed, a very high proportion of young, single people or couples without children live in the survey areas of both cities. Many of these residents are also white-collar workers and owner-occupiers, and are from outside the cities. Therefore the question is why residents of the inner city (Crown Street & Hulme) and of the central city (Merchant City & Whitworth Street) chose to live in these areas.

Before analysing the reasons given by the respondents in the survey areas, it is appropriate to explain briefly about the intention of the question (Why did you want to move here?). The respondents were given 11 close-ended choices to give their reasons for residential relocation to the survey areas in the questionnaire. However, the respondents were asked to choose only the 2 or 3 most important reasons for moving to the areas. The respondents, who gave more than 3 answers, were withdrawn from the evaluation as there is a suspicion that they might give invalid answers. The study found that 5.4% of respondents in the inner city and 3.6% in the central city gave more than 3 answers. These respondents were excluded.



The reasons given by the respondents are listed in figure 6-1 (Table 6-1 in Appendix 2). The most important reason given by respondents in the inner city was ‘value for money’ (22%), which was substantially higher than the proportion of respondents (4%) who gave the same reason in the central city. This finding clearly indicates that many respondents in the inner city were attracted by the availability of affordable housing in the area, whereas respondents in the central city seem to be very little affected by this, as most housing in the central city is relatively expensive.

**Figure 6-1: Reasons for residence in the inner city and the central city**<sup>27</sup>



The most important reason given by respondents in the central city was ‘close to work’. As mentioned in the previous chapter, a substantially high proportion of respondents in the central city work in the central business district, which is close to their residence. Therefore the relationship between the residential area and the workplace is the major factor that attracted a large number of people to these areas. A

<sup>27</sup> As respondents were allowed to give up to 3 answers, it was impossible to put 3 answers in a variable of the SPSS file. Therefore all responses received in each variable were put together to be weighted by using the SPSS. Moreover, a one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.

high proportion of respondents in both the inner city and the central city pointed out 'central city location' as an important reason for moving to the area. Therefore, it seems that the location of housing itself is also an important factor that attracted new residents. On the other hand, very few respondents in both the inner city and the central city regarded 'employment opportunity' and 'high degree of security' as important reasons for moving to the area. This indicates that most new residents already had employment before moving to the area, and thus the potential availability of employment did not affect new residents' decision to move. Security in the area also seems to be of little importance for new residents. Other factors, such as 'close to all social amenities' and 'attractions of the city in general' had a moderate effect on the decision to relocate of new residents in both areas.

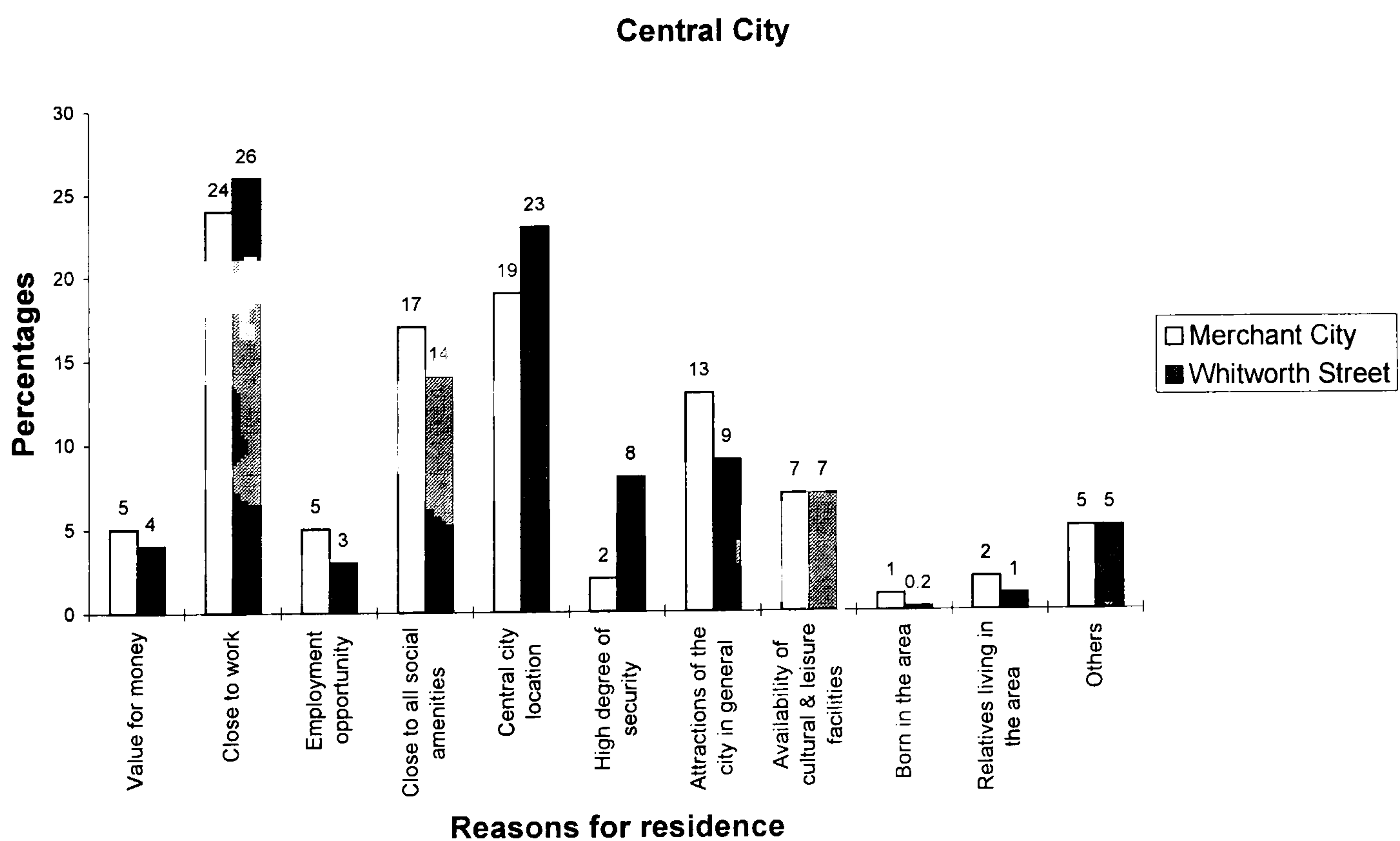
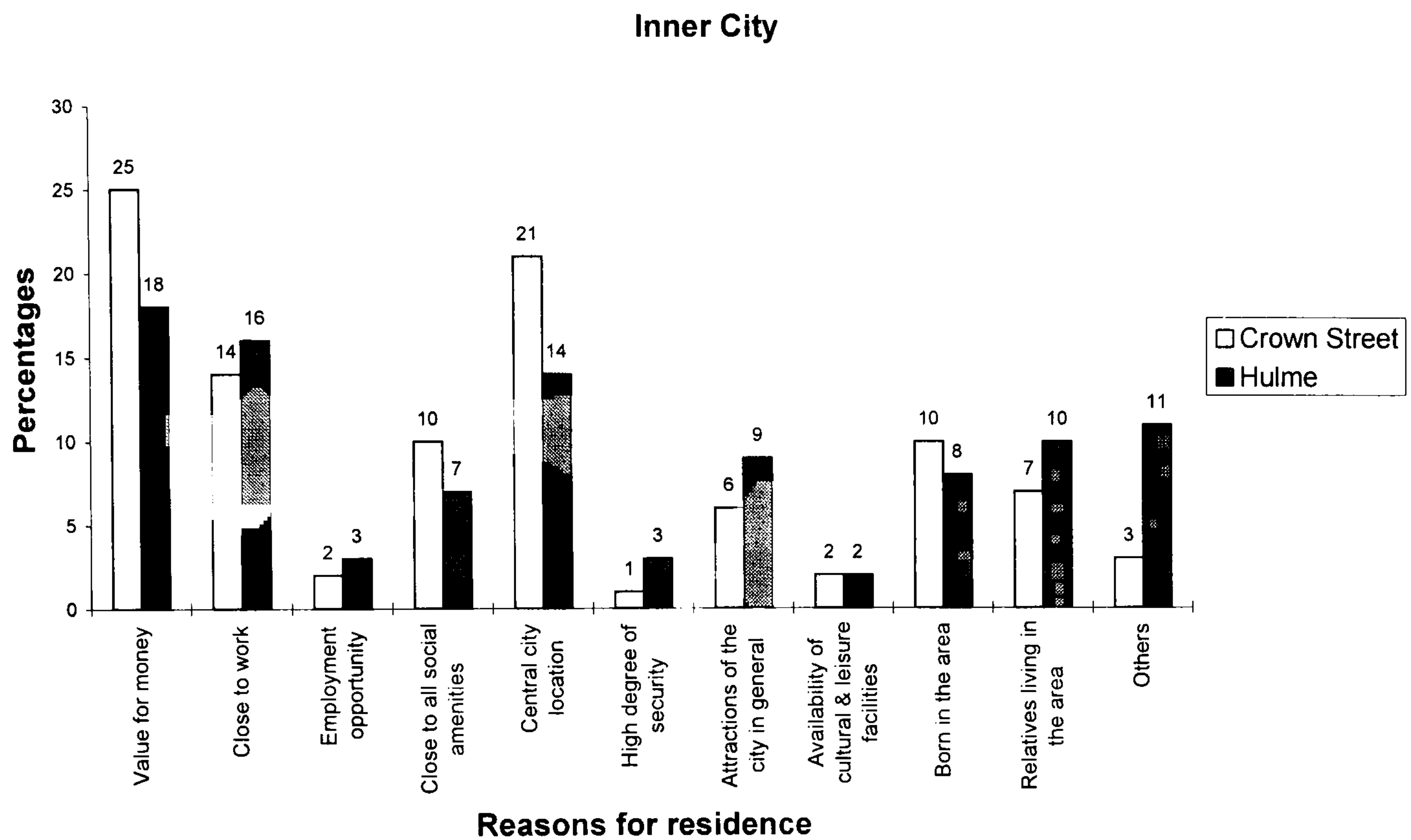
Another interesting difference between the inner city and the central city is in the proportion of respondents who mentioned area or family related factors (e.g., 'born in the area' and 'relatives living in the area'). Only 3% of respondents in the central city indicated the factors, but 18% in the inner city did so. This may be because many residents, particularly those occupants of social housing in the inner city, lived in the area before, and thus they are more likely to have relatives who live in the neighbourhood. On the other hand, most residents in the central city are from outside the city, and thus few residents in the central city would have a close connection with the area.

Differences in the reasons given by the respondents in the four areas will now be examined- as there are significant differences between the two cities.

Figure 6-2 (Table 6-2 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents of both Crown Street and Hulme pointed out 'value for money' as the major factor for relocating residence.

However, a slightly higher proportion of respondents in Crown Street indicated this factor than in Hulme.

**Figure 6-2: Reasons for residence in the four areas**



This might suggest that more respondents in Crown Street were attracted by the availability of affordable housing than was the case in Hulme. Another interesting aspect is that a high proportion of respondents in both Crown Street and Hulme



mentioned 'central city location' as an important reason for relocating their residence. However, the location of Crown Street and Hulme is not really a central city location (it is about 20 minutes to reach the CBD by walking from the areas), and Crown Street is even further from the CBD than Hulme, but a higher proportion of respondents in Crown Street mentioned this factor than the case in Hulme. Therefore 'the central city location' might mean not inside the central city but close to the central city, which appeared as an attractive factor.

In the central city areas, the closeness to the place of employment was the most attractive factor for respondents in both Merchant City and Whitworth Street. Therefore the residential location decision of many respondents in both the areas is made from a predetermined workplace location. Alonso's analysis (1964) of urban structure concentrates on models of residential location in which workplace location is predetermined. Hamilton's analysis (1982) of wasteful commuting is a good example of the application of this approach. Hamilton finds, however, that actual commuting distance is about eight times greater than the model predicts, implying that substantial gains from residential relocation are possible. However, he argues that if residential relocation costs- moving costs and the availability of affordable housing near the workplace- are significant, then many workplace location decisions will be made from a predetermined residential location rather than conversely. In other words, industries will move to an area where a suitable labour force exists. More recently, a study of cities in central and north-western Europe by Illeris (1991) pointed out that rising petrol costs and increasing restraint on commuter cars in city centres (road pricing, parking restrictions, etc.) will have the effect of encouraging people to live closer to city centre employment. As few respondents in Merchant City and Whitworth Street considered 'value for money', it can therefore be assumed that many respondents in

the central city areas might consider commuting costs more important rather than residential relocation costs when they chose their place of residence, though housing in the areas is more expensive than housing in inner city areas or suburban areas. Here the “Trade Off Theory” may be relevant (Wingo, 1961; Alonso, 1964). In this model, people consider a combination of travel-to-work and housing costs when choosing where to live. Thus if monetary costs of travel are reduced- or at zero- more can be spent on housing and vice-versa. Time costs of travel to work are also important (as well as monetary costs) and will clearly be assigned value by central city residents. In buying or renting housing in the central areas, residents might bear higher housing costs but might be compensated by lower travelling costs and time taken. Therefore, this may be the reason why housing prices and rents, although high, are ‘affordable’.

On the other hand, many respondents in the inner city areas might appear to consider housing costs as more important than commuting costs in their decision, especially considering that more residents in Crown Street and Hulme are economically inactive than in Merchant City and Whitworth Street. These residents in the inner city areas do not, of course, mention ‘close to work’ as they are not employed.

Another interesting difference between the inner city and the central city areas is that there is a higher proportion of respondents in the central city areas who indicated ‘availability of cultural and leisure facilities’ (around 7% in Merchant City and Whitworth Street) as a reason for moving to the area than is the case in the inner city areas (around 2% in Crown Street and Hulme). These differences bring up an interesting question about the claim that the provision of cultural and leisure facilities in post-modern industrial cities creates an attractive environment, which attracts people to move into the areas where such provision exists (Landry et al, 1996; Bianchini & Parkinson, 1993). However, the differences certainly show that residents



in the inner city areas seemed not to pay great attention to the provision of cultural and leisure facilities when choosing to live in the area. This factor was slightly more important in the central city areas. Why do residents in the central city areas pay more attention to the provision of cultural and leisure facilities than those residents in the inner city areas? Within the central city areas (Merchant City & Whitworth Street), there is a wide variety of cultural and leisure facilities, and so the nearness of these facilities might influence residents' residential location decision. On the other hand, in the inner city areas there are few such facilities, therefore other factors, such as housing prices, might be of more influence than the provision of cultural and leisure facilities. Another possible answer may be found in income differences between residents in the inner city areas and residents in the central city areas. Lewis (1990) claims that people with high incomes and high levels of education would participate more in cultural activities than people with low incomes and low levels of education. As shown in the previous chapter, there are greater differences in terms of household incomes between residents in the inner city areas and residents the central city areas. Therefore, it may be assumed that the availability of cultural and leisure facilities in the city and their affordability persuaded more residents in the central city areas to locate their residence here than residents in the inner city areas. This will be discussed more later.

Nevertheless, the overall result indicates that the main factors of reurbanisation in the survey areas are 'value for money', 'central city location' and 'close to work' for residents in the inner city areas, and 'close to work', 'central city location' and 'close to all social amenities' for residents in the central city areas. However, factors such as 'the availability of cultural and leisure facilities', 'employment opportunities' and 'high degree of security' seem to have less effect on the process of reurbanisation.



## **Part 2: Reasons for residence by types of tenure**

It would be useful to know if people in different types of housing tenure had different reasons for residential relocation.

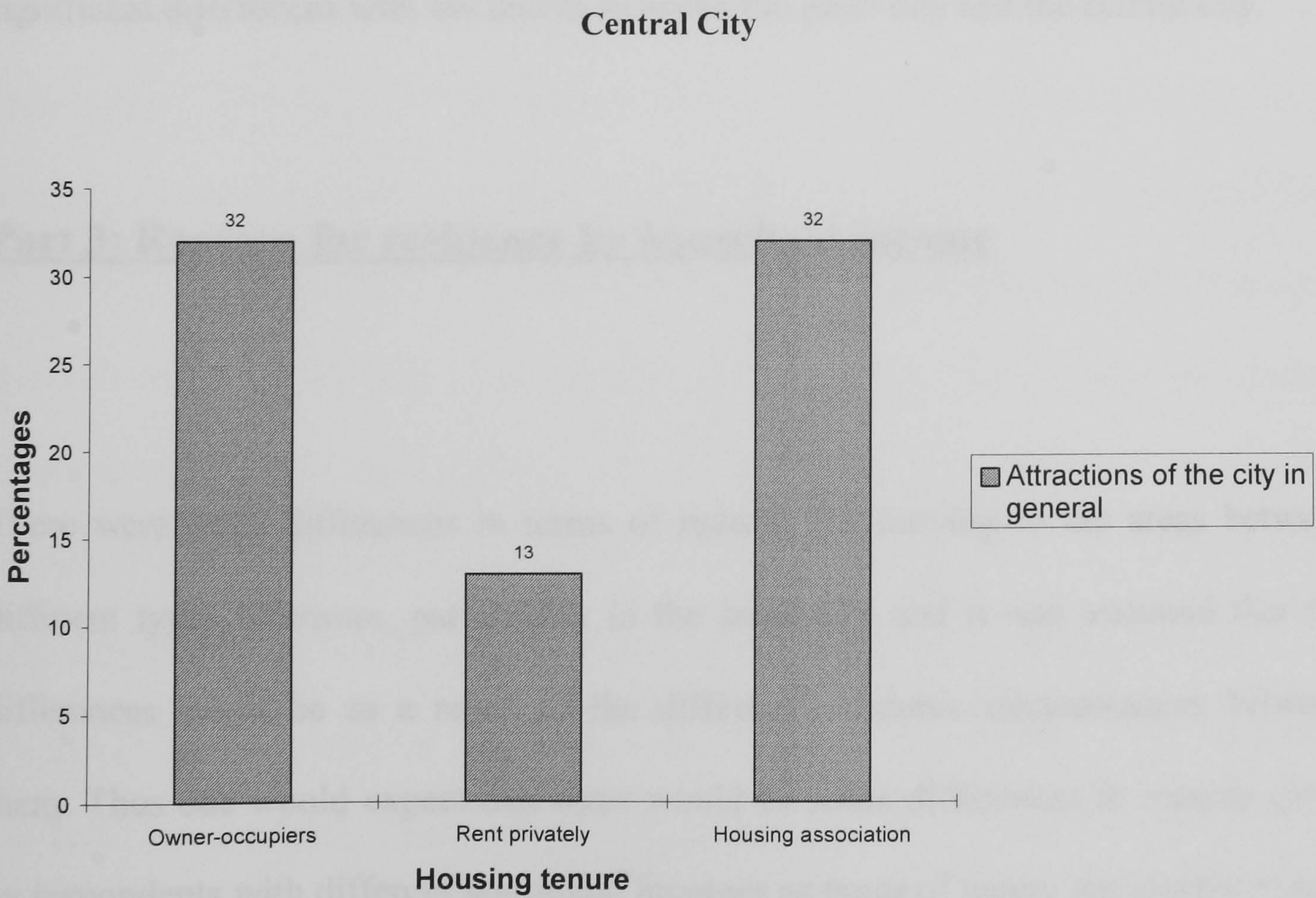
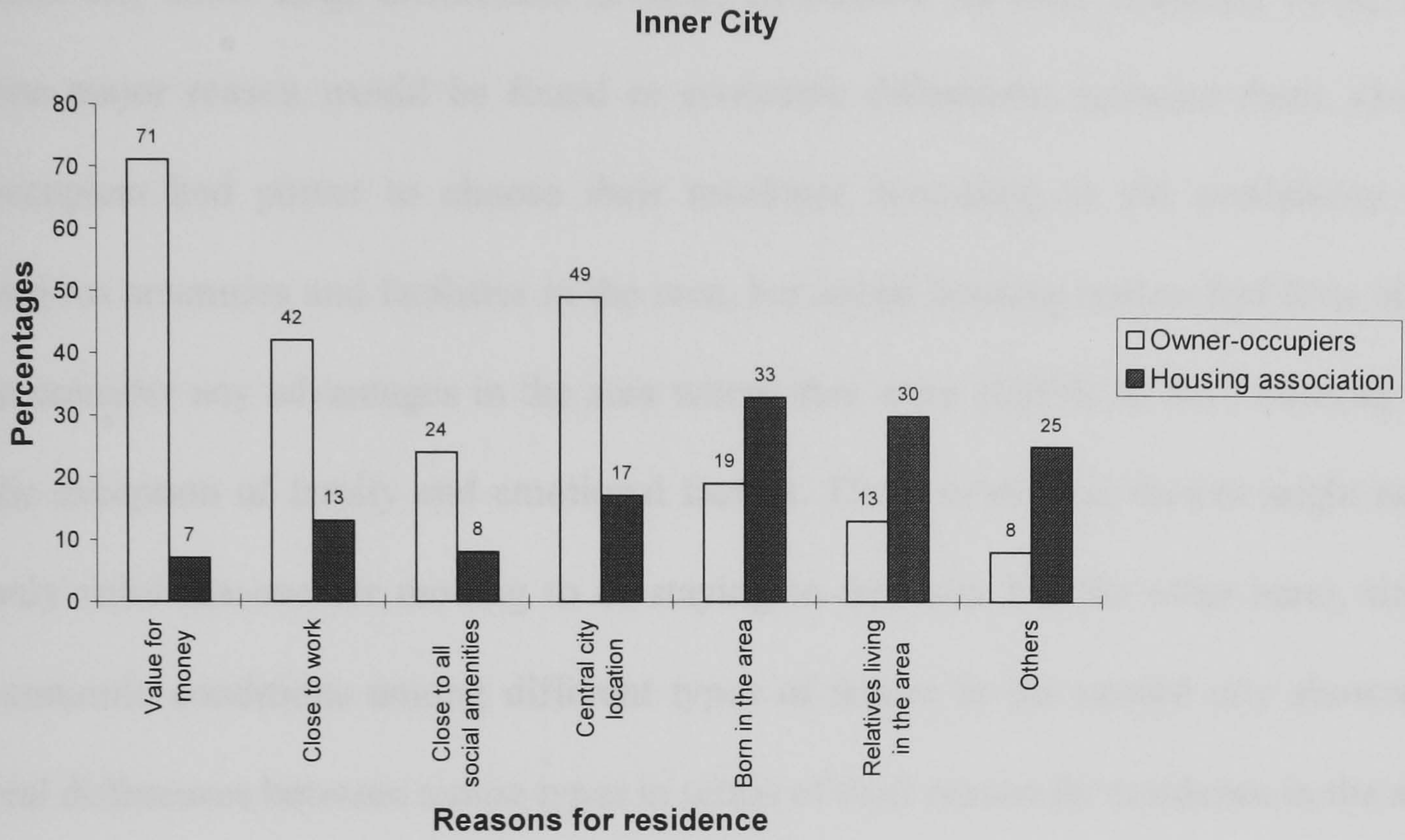
Figure 6-3 (Table 6-3 in Appendix 2) shows that there are greater differences in terms of reasons for relocation between owner-occupiers and social housing renters in the inner city, whereas there is only one factor found to be statistically significant differences between types of tenure in the central city. For instance, in the inner city owner-occupiers mentioned factors, such as ‘value for money’, ‘close to work’, ‘close to all social amenities’ and ‘central city location’, as important reasons for choosing to live in the area. On the other hand, for social housing renters factors, such as ‘born in the area’ and ‘relatives living in the area’ were found to be the most important reasons for locating their residence in the area. Many social housing renters also simply mentioned that they live there, as they were eligible to have social housing in the area (this answer was put in the ‘other’ category). In other words, they did not choose to live there but they were chosen to live there. Moreover, the differences are also because many social housing renters in the sample in both cities are economically inactive, such as retired, unemployed, and sick or disabled. They are most likely not to have real power to choose their residence for reasons of availability of facilities and amenities in the area, but their major benefit is that they lived there before and this enabled them to move to better, newer ‘housing’. Therefore it is inevitable that social housing renters might be more likely to give as reasons such things as ‘born in the area’ or ‘relatives living in the area’.

In the central city, only one factor was found to be statistically significant between types of housing tenure. A higher proportion of both owner-occupiers and social



housing renters mentioned 'attractions of the city in general' as a reason for their residence in the area than the proportion of private renters.

**Figure 6-3: Reasons for residence by types of tenure**





This may be because owner-occupiers and social housing renters stay longer in the city than private renters, thus they might be more concerned with the overall environment of the city.

The overall results indicate that owner-occupiers and social housing renters in the inner city show large differences in terms of reasons for their residence in the area. The major reason would be found in economic differences between them. Owner-occupiers had power to choose their residence according to the availability of a various amenities and facilities in the area, but social housing renters had little ability to consider any advantages in the area where they were eligible to have housing with the exception of family and emotional factors. These emotional factors might be the only valid reasons for moving to or staying in the area. On the other hand, similar economic conditions among different types of tenure in the central city showed no real differences between tenure types in terms of their reason for residence in the area. Reasons for location by types of tenure when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results between the inner city and the central city.

### **Part 3: Reasons for residence by household income**

There were large differences in terms of reasons for moving to the areas between different types of tenure, particularly in the inner city and it was assumed that the differences might be as a result of the different economic circumstances between them. Thus one would expect that there would be some differences in reasons given by respondents with different household incomes as types of tenure are closely related

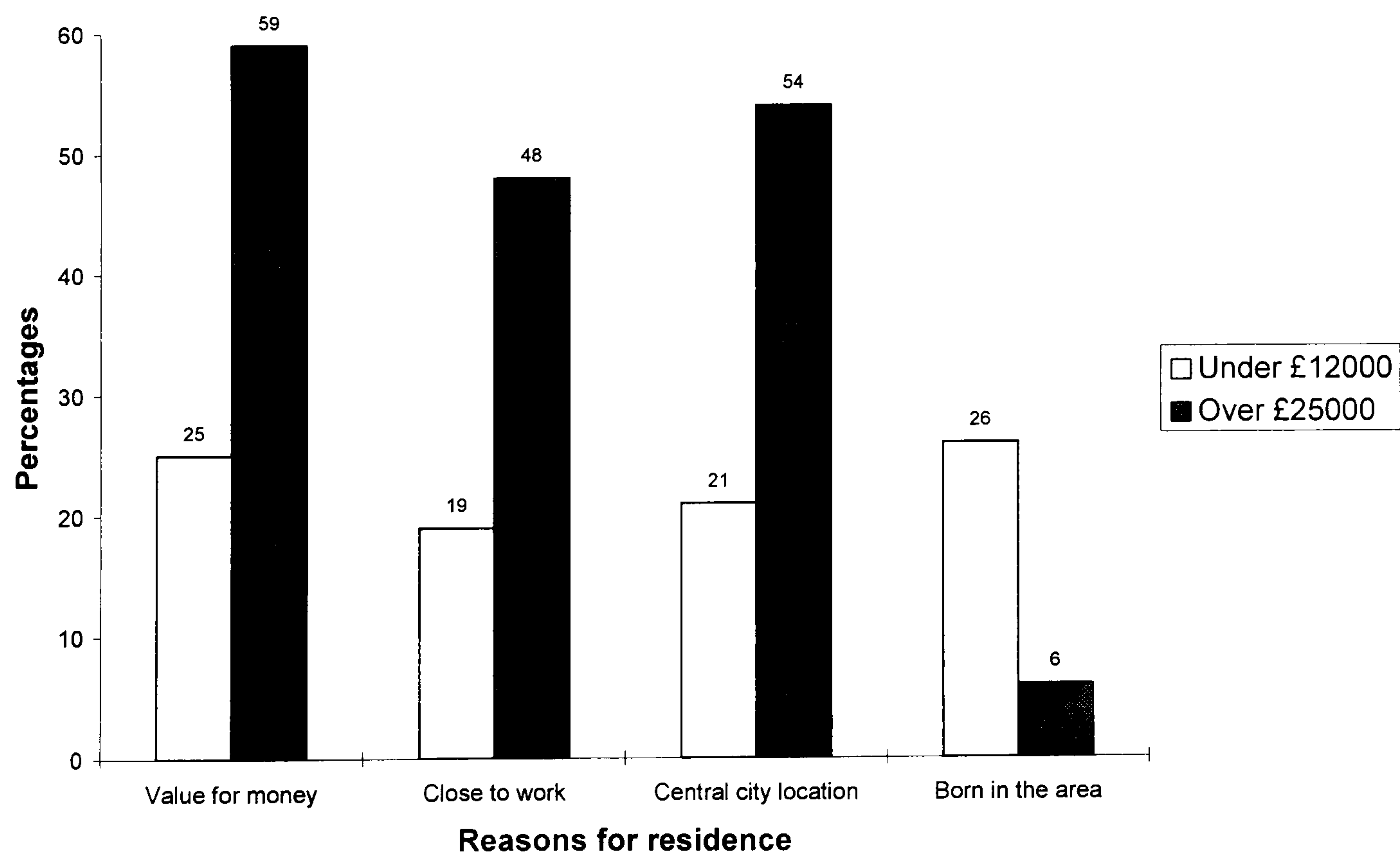
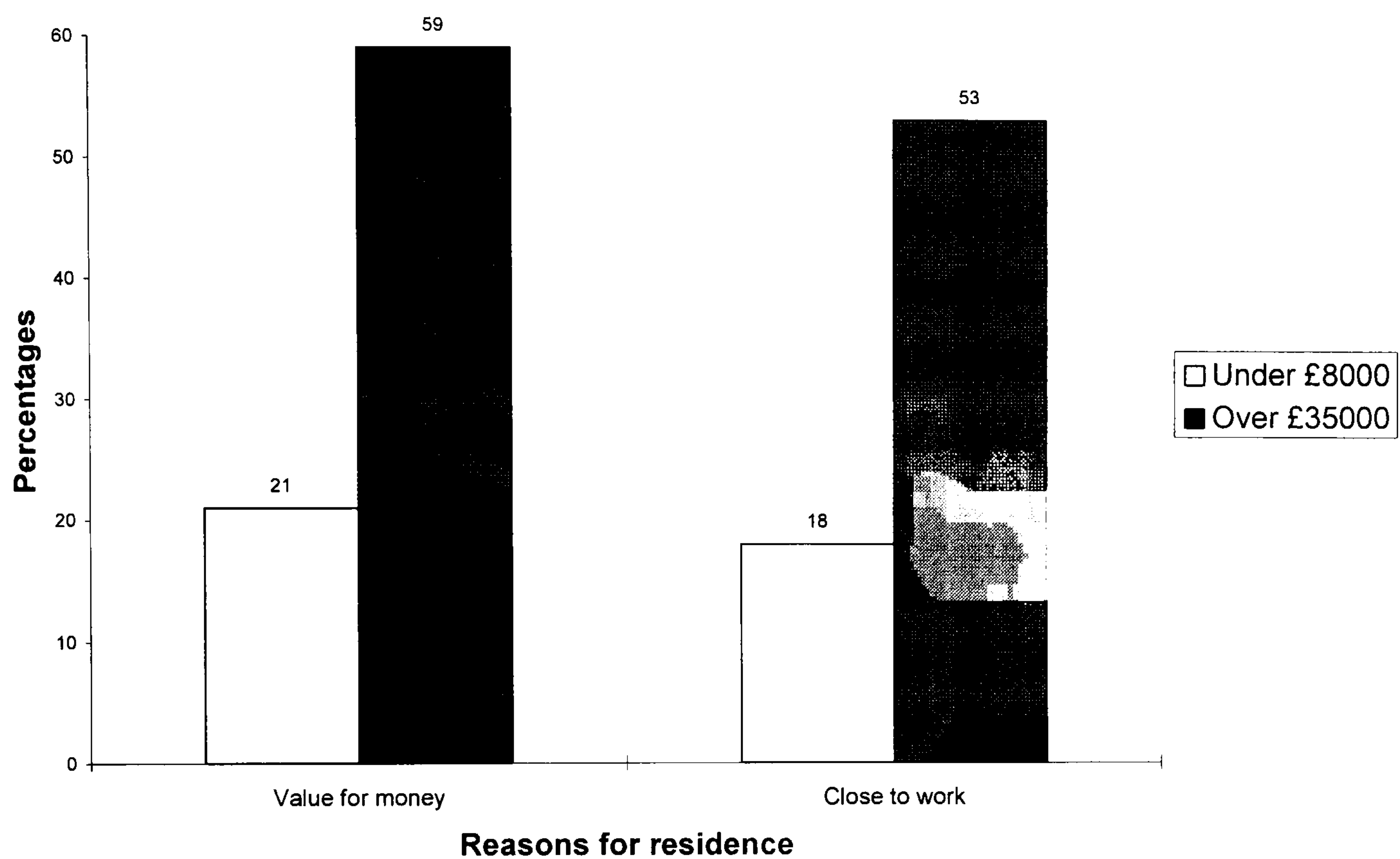


to household incomes- social housing renters are more likely to have low household incomes, whereas owner-occupiers are more likely to have high household incomes.

Figure 6-4 (Table 6-4 in Appendix 2) shows that there are some significant differences in reasons given by respondents with household incomes of under £8,000 (the lowest income) and over £35,000 (the highest income) in the inner city. Two reasons were found statistically significant. Firstly, a significantly higher proportion of respondents with household incomes over £35,000 indicated 'value for money' and 'close to work' as important reasons for relocating their residence in the area compared to the proportion of respondents with household incomes under £8,000. It is obvious that most respondents with household incomes under £8,000 in the inner city are more likely to be social housing renters. They were not really interested in the value of housing as many may be in receipt of housing benefit. Moreover, many of them are economically inactive, thus they would not be not concerned with the closeness to place of employment. On the other hand, respondents with household incomes over £35,000 are more likely to be owner-occupiers and to have employment. Therefore the differences are inevitable. Respondents with household incomes of under £12,000 and over £25,000 also show some statistically significant differences in reasons for relocating their residence. Respondents with household incomes over £25,000 were more concerned with factors, such as 'value for money', 'close to work' and 'central city location', when they chose to move to the area, compared to respondents with household incomes under £12,000. On the other hand, respondents with household incomes under £12,000 only showed more interest in an emotional factor ('born in the area'), compared to respondents with household incomes over £25,000. Therefore the overall findings in the inner city indicate that

economic differences can lead to quite large differences in reasons for residential relocation.

**Figure 6-4: Reasons for residence by household income in the inner city<sup>28</sup>**



<sup>28</sup> Only factors that are statistically significant differences between different household incomes are included here (for full details see Table 6-4 in the Appendix 2).

However, household income differences among respondents in the inner city are not important when looking at factors such as the availability of facilities or amenities, employment and the high degree of security in the area.

In the central city, however, economic differences do not seem to affect reasons for residential relocation. There are no statistically significant differences in reasons for residence between respondents with household incomes under £12,000 and respondents with household incomes over £25,000. Only one factor was found to have a statistically significant difference between respondents with household incomes under £8,000 and respondents with household incomes over £35,000. Figure 6-5 (Table 6-5 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents with household incomes under £8,000 in the central city were much more concerned with the security of their housing and housing area than respondents with household incomes over £35,000. Many respondents with household incomes under £8,000 are university students, and many of them are from outside the city or from overseas. These respondents are more likely to be concerned with security of their housing. It is possible that they might feel vulnerable, as they did not know about the cities. Perhaps a more reliable explanation is that there would be a higher risk of crime occurring in low-income households than high-income households. High-income households may be able to afford a private security system<sup>29</sup> to protect their properties from possible crime, thus they might not be further concerned with the security of their housing. On the other hand, low-income households may not be able to afford a private security system. They might be more likely to be concerned with the existing security system that could protect their properties from possible crime. The British Crime Survey 1992 showed that burglary was most common in mixed inner city areas. A study by Anderson et al (1990) cited

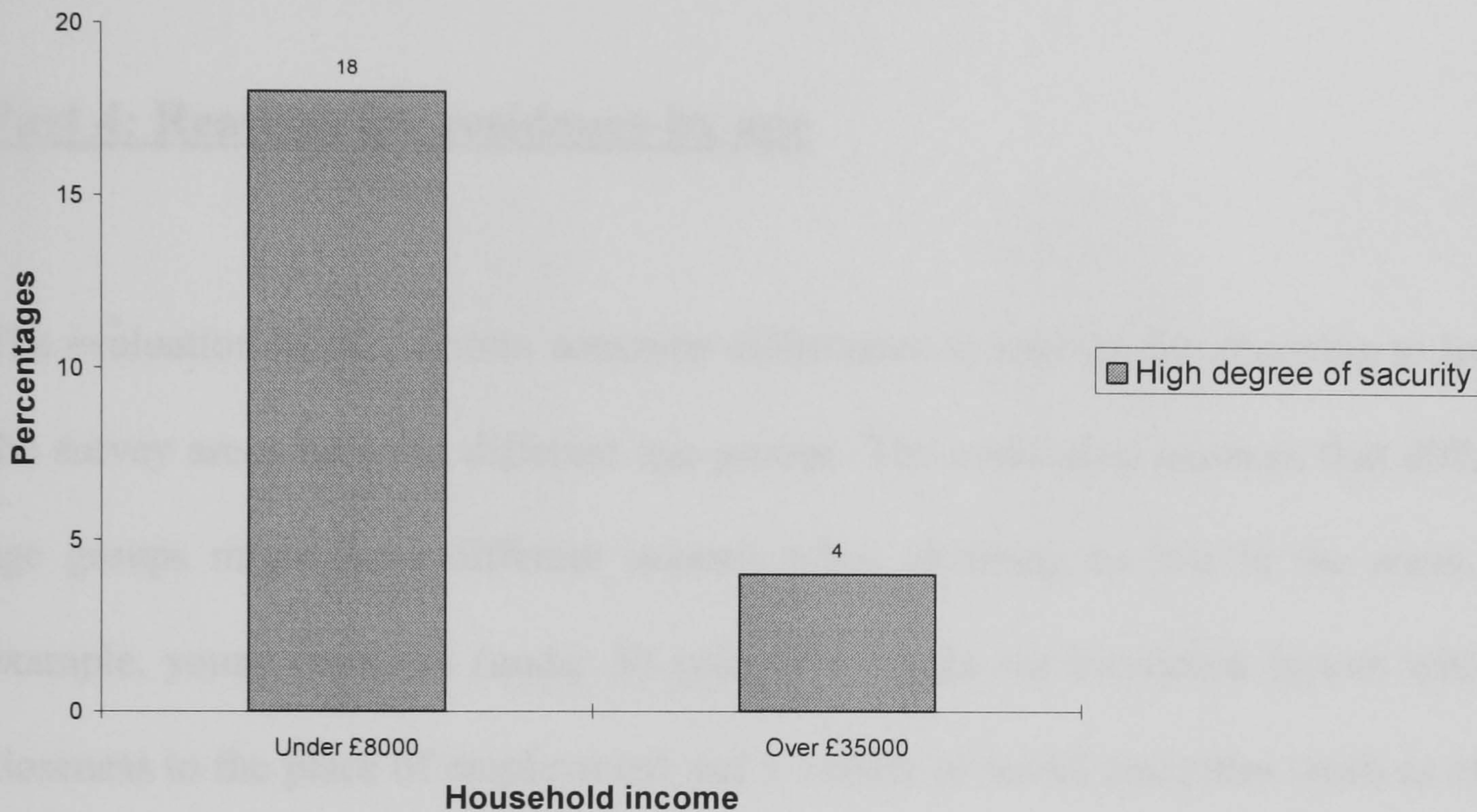
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<sup>29</sup> During the pilot study, I found many flats in the central city areas have their own security system.



in Healey (1992b) said that the Edinburgh Crime Survey showed that those living in the inner city, especially in social housing displayed greater anxiety about crime than those living in suburban areas (70% compared to 5%).

**Figure 6-5: Reasons for residence by household income in the central city**



This reflected the real risk of crime occurring- possible crime might be more likely to occur in the inner city areas than in the suburban areas. Similarly, possible crime (especially burglary) might be more likely to occur in less protected low-income households than highly protected high-income households.

Nevertheless, the overall results indicate that in the inner city residents showed a close relationship between their household income and their reasons for residence in the area, and in the central city there are almost no differences. This indicates that whatever household incomes residents in the central city had, they had similar reasons for moving to the area. In other words, different economic conditions among residents in the central city did not result in differences in their reasons for residence in the area, whereas in the inner city it was important.



There are no particular significant differences in reasons for residence between respondents with high household income and low household income in the four areas. Similar results were found between the division of the inner city and the central city and the division of the four areas.

#### **Part 4: Reasons for residence by age**

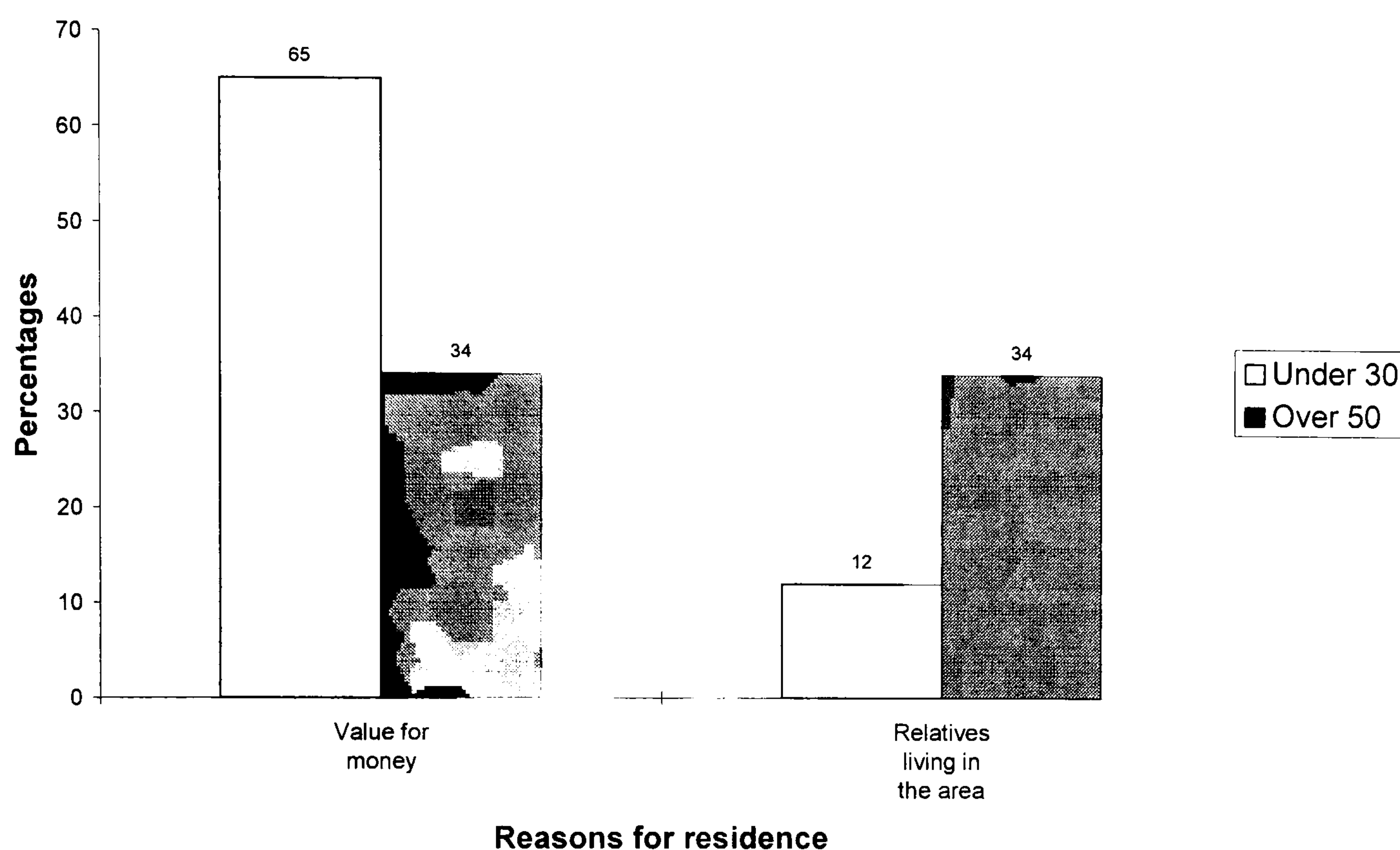
The evaluation in this section concerns differences in reasons for choosing to live in the survey areas between different age groups. The evaluation assumes that different age groups might have different reasons when choosing to live in the areas. For example, young residents (under 30 years old) might see locational factors with the closeness to the place of employment and a variety of social amenities (such as clubs, restaurants, pubs, etc.) as beneficial factors, whereas mature residents (over 50 years old) might consider its central location, which would provide a variety of entertainments, such as cultural facilities as beneficial factors. However, age differences show no significant effect on reasons for residence among respondents in the survey areas. In the central city, there are no significant differences at all in reasons for residence between respondents aged under 30 years old and respondents aged over 50 years old.

In the inner city, there are only two factors, such as ‘value for money’ and ‘relatives living in the area, found to be statistically significant differences between respondents aged under 30 years old and respondents aged over 50 years old.

Figure 6-6 (Table 6-6 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents aged under 30 years old in the inner city were more interested in ‘value for money’ than respondents aged over

50 years old. Respondents in the young age group (under 30 years old) are more likely to be first-time buyers, thus they might be more concerned with the price of housing.

**Figure: 6-6: Reasons for residence by age in the inner city**



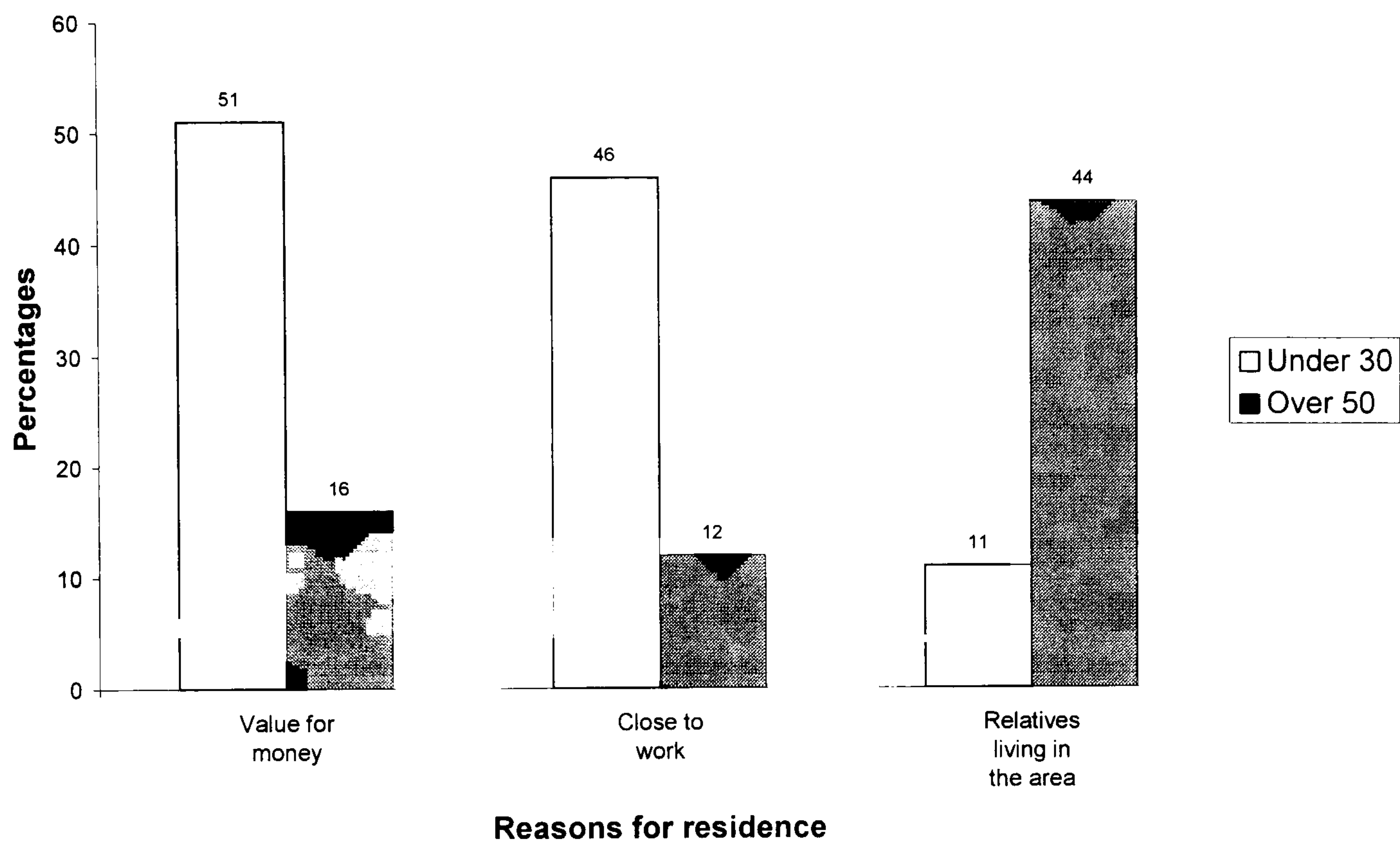
Another possible reason would be that many older residents in the inner city are social housing renters. These social housing residents were less likely to think about housing price before moving to the area. On the other hand, respondents aged over 50 years old were more interested in family related reasons, such as ‘relatives living in the area’ than residents aged under 30 years old. This result might be because respondents in the older age group have lived in the city longer than residents in the young age group, and most of these are social housing renters, thus they would have been in the area longer or possibly even grown up there.

Age differences in reasons for relocation between the four areas also showed no significant differences between young residents and mature residents, with the exception of Hulme. The one difference between Hulme and the inner city analysis generally is that there is a significant difference in the ‘close to work’ factor. Figure 6-



7 (Table 6-7 in Appendix 2) shows that young respondents were more interested in 'value for money' and 'close to work' when they chose their area of residence. Many young respondents in Hulme are owner-occupiers and they have employment in the CBD, but many mature respondents are economically inactive.

**Figure 6-7: Reasons for residence by age in Hulme**



Thus these older residents might be less likely to cite work location as important. Older respondents in Hulme were most likely to state 'relatives in the area' as the most important factor.

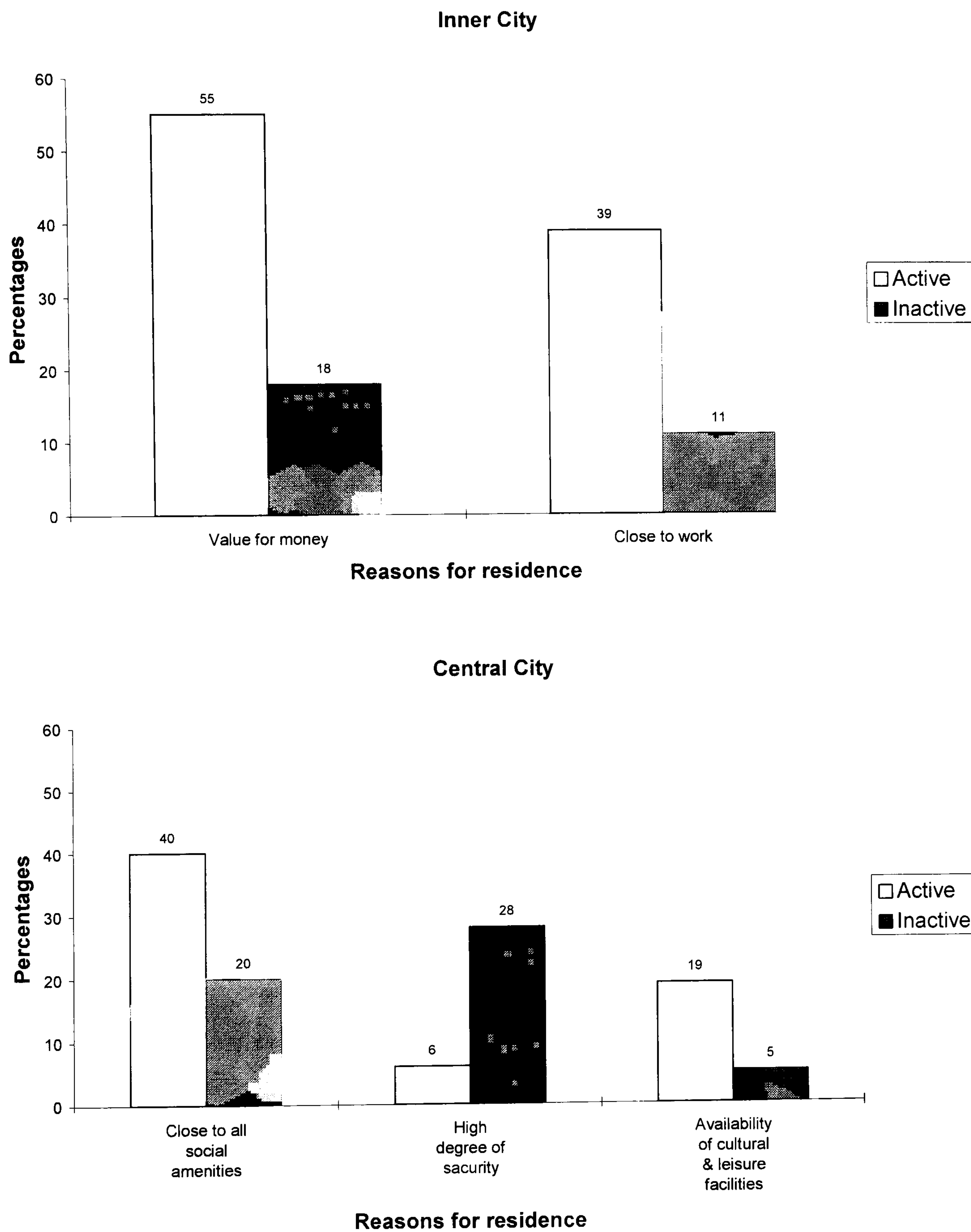
**Part 5: Reasons for residence by employment status**

So far, differences in household incomes and age among respondents in the survey areas resulted in some interesting differences in reasons for their residence in the survey areas. Therefore, one would assume that differences in employment status

among respondents might also lead to differences in reasons for residence. Figure 6-8 (Table 6-8 in Appendix 2) shows results that might be expected. A higher proportion of economically active respondents in the inner city mentioned ‘value for money’ and ‘close to work’ as reasons for residence in the area than the proportion of economically inactive respondents. Economically active respondents are more likely to be able to purchase their own housing than respondents who are economically inactive, so they were obviously more interested in ‘value of housing’. Respondents who have employment obviously would be concerned more about the closeness to place of employment when they chose their new residence than respondents who were inactive. In the central city, economically active respondents showed more interest in ‘close to all social amenities’ and ‘availability of cultural and leisure facilities’ than economically inactive respondents. Respondents with employment might have little time to enjoy social life outside their employment, thus they might be interested in having their residence where work and social life can be easily put together. On the other hand, for economically inactive respondents the closeness to all social amenities and the enjoyment of cultural and leisure facilities might not largely affect their life, as they might not be able to afford these amenities and facilities. One other interesting point, in reasons for residence between economically active respondents and inactive respondents in the central city, is that a higher percentage of economically inactive respondents mentioned ‘high degree of security’ as a reason for residence in the area than of economically active respondents. One would expect that those people who are economically affluent might worry more about the security of their residence than those who are deprived. However, in the central city a large

number of economically inactive respondents<sup>30</sup> are students, many of whom are from outside the city or even from overseas.

**Figure 6-8: Reasons for residence by employment status in the inner city and the central city**



<sup>30</sup> Most economically inactive residents in the central city are students who can be economically active after graduation, but in here they are classified as economically inactive.



These students might be assumed to be less aware of the city or the area they would live, thus they would be more worried about the security of their residence, and would be pleased to find high levels of security. Moreover, as seen earlier in this chapter, those people who are deprived might worry more about the real risk of crime occurring than those who are economically affluent.

Results of the analysis of reasons for residence between economically active respondents and economically inactive respondents in the four areas are not significantly different from the results between the inner city and the central city, thus any further interpretation seems to be unnecessary.

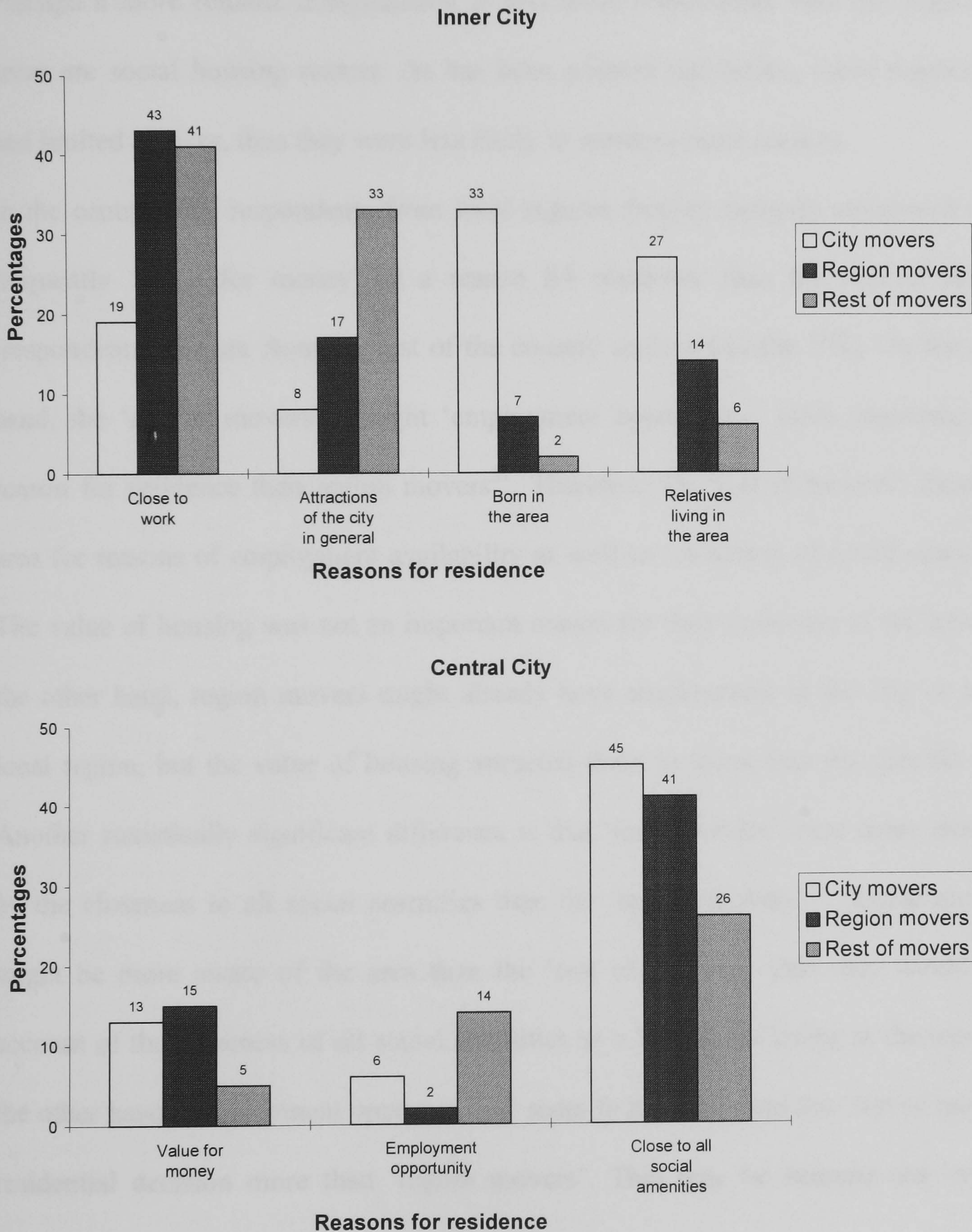
## **Part 6: Reasons for residence by previous residential location of residents**

The final analysis in this chapter is to find if there are any differences in reasons for residence between respondents who moved from local areas, respondents who moved from local regions and respondents who moved from neither the city nor the region. Figure 6-9 (Table 6-9 in Appendix 2) shows that in the inner city a higher proportion of non-local respondents (region movers and rest of movers) mentioned 'close to work' as a reason for residence in the area than the proportion of respondents who are from the local areas. This is basically because a large number of residents who are from local areas, are social housing renters and many of these social housing renters are economically inactive. A large proportion of 'rest of movers' (respondents who are from the rest of the country and outside the UK) indicated 'attractions of the city in general' as a reason for residence in the area, which was much higher than the



proportion of respondents who are from local areas. Respondents who are from outside the city and local regions might be interested in the city's attractions.

**Figure 6-9: Reasons for residence by previous residential location of residents in the inner city and the central city**



They might hear of some famous attractions in the city, and they would consider these attractions being close to their residence as important. On the other hand, respondents



who are from local areas showed particular interest in area related reasons, such as 'born in the area' and 'relatives living in the area'. This is because these respondents have lived in the area (or in the city) longer than the other groups of respondents, thus they would feel more strongly about the area than other groups of respondents. Perhaps a more reliable interpretation is that most respondents who are from local areas are social housing renters. As has been pointed out before, these respondents had limited choices, thus they were less likely to mention other reasons.

In the central city, respondents from local regions (region movers) mentioned more frequently 'value for money' as a reason for residence than the rest of movers (respondents who are from the rest of the country and outside the UK). On the other hand, the 'rest of movers' thought 'employment opportunity' more important as a reason for residence than region movers<sup>31</sup>. Therefore the 'rest of movers' chose the area for reasons of employment availability as well as 'closeness of social amenities. The value of housing was not an important reason for their residence in the area. On the other hand, region movers might already have employment in the city or in the local region, but the value of housing attracted them to move into the specific area. Another statistically significant difference is that 'local movers' were more attracted by the closeness to all social amenities than the 'rest of movers'<sup>32</sup>. 'Local movers' might be more aware of the area than the 'rest of movers', thus they would take account of the closeness of all social amenities as a benefit for living in the area. On the other hand, 'employment opportunities' seem to have affected the 'rest of movers' residential decision more than 'region movers'. This may be because the 'rest of

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<sup>31</sup> There are no statistically significant differences between local movers and region movers, and between local movers and the rest of movers.

<sup>32</sup> There are no statistically significant differences between local movers and region movers, and between region movers and the rest of movers.



movers' might be more likely to relocate their residence to the cities for employment relocation or as new employment was found in the cities.

The analysis of reasons for residence by previous residential location of respondents in the four areas did not produce any significant differences with the analysis between the inner city and the central city.

## **Summary**

Throughout the analysis of the reasons for moving to the research areas given by the residents under study, 'value for money' was seen as the most important reason for residents in the inner city to choose the survey areas as their residence. On the other hand, for residents in the central city 'closeness to the place of employment' appeared to be the main reasons for their location decisions. For both residents in the inner city and the central city some other factors, such as 'central city location' and 'close to all social amenities', were also found important reasons for residential relocation, but 'the general attractions of the city' and 'the availability of cultural and leisure facilities' seemed to be less influential on the decision to relocate in the survey areas.

The analysis by housing tenure showed clear differences between owner-occupiers and social housing renters. Particularly, in the inner city, for owner-occupiers 'value for money', 'close to work', 'close to all social amenities' and 'central city location' were important reasons for choosing the area to be their residence, but for social housing renters only factors, such as 'born in the area' and 'relatives living in the area', were major reasons given for residence in the area. The differences are to some

extent inevitable in that owner-occupiers have employment and high household incomes, thus they can choose their residence according to the potential benefits that they would obtain from the area, whereas social housing renters were “chosen” to live in the survey areas. Many of this group are economically inactive and have low household income. They were not in the position to consider any possible benefits from relocating residence in the area rather than family related factors.

In the central city, however, there were no significant differences between types of tenure, between residents with different household incomes and between residents who were economically active and economically inactive. Living in the central city seems to generate similar interests among residents, though they are in different types of housing and have different employment status and incomes. This may be because residents might be well informed about all benefits that they would obtain from the residential relocation before moving to the survey areas.

The analysis of reasons by age also found interesting differences between the young age group (under 30 years old) and the mature age group (over 50 years old) in the inner city. The young age group chose ‘value for money’ as the major reason for residential relocation, but the mature age group saw ‘relatives living in the area’ as the major reason. This age difference also reflected their economic condition. The young age group is more likely to be owner-occupiers, whereas many residents in the mature age group are social housing renters and they have lived in the city longer than residents in the young age group. In the central city, age differences, once again, seem not to affect the reasons for residence among residents in the survey areas.

The analysis of reasons by previous residential location of residents also gave a certain indication of the influence of the economic conditions of residents on the reasons for residence in the survey areas. Residents in the inner city, who are from

outside local areas, considered ‘close to work’ and ‘attractions of the city in general’ as important reasons for relocating their residence, whereas residents from local areas mentioned ‘born in the area’ and ‘relatives living in the area’ as being important. Many residents who are from local areas are social housing renters. The above two reasons seem to be the only valid reasons that they could indicate as they had limited reasons for residential relocation; the true reason could be their right to obtain new housing in the area.

In the central city, residents from local areas seem to take account of the potential benefits from living in the area (e.g., ‘value for money’ and ‘close to all social amenities’), whereas residents from the rest of the country and outside the UK, come to the city largely for employment opportunity, and appear not to take account of a variety of benefits from living in the area.

Nevertheless, the overall evaluation of reasons given by residents in the survey areas indicates that although there is a variety of different reasons given by different types of tenure, household income and different age groups, it is clear that economic differences between them played a major part in their reasons for residential relocation decisions, particularly for residents in the inner city.



## **Chapter 7: Feelings about city life**

### **Introduction**

It is assumed that people expected many different benefits from relocating their residence in a certain area before choosing it. For instance, as seen in Chapter 6, people might expect easy access to a variety of social and cultural facilities or to their employment.

A specially commissioned survey was conducted by a national opinion poll company in 1987 (Findlay et al, 1988) to establish the relative importance of different features of quality of life. The survey identifies the seven most important characteristics of the urban environment. It would appear that perception of quality of life is dominated by life itself, for example people want to live in places with:

- **Minimal crime both violent and non-violent**
- **Best possible health services**

In addition, people have a preference for places with:

- **Low levels of pollution**
- **Low cost of living**
- **Good shopping facilities**
- **Racial harmony**

However, according to the survey both employment and housing are not perceived as being amongst the most important aspects of quality of life. Other factors regarded in the national survey and listed as less important features of quality of life were access

to areas of high scenic quality, the cost of owner-occupied housing, the provision of education facilities, employment prospects, wage levels, unemployment levels, climate, time taken to travel to work, the provision of sports and leisure facilities, easy access to, and the quality of, council housing and the cost of privately-rented accommodation. The performance of 38 cities in the UK on specific aspects of quality of life had been measured and weighted in terms of the opinion poll results. The city of Glasgow was ranked in 25th position out of 38 that was relatively better than Manchester (30th). Edinburgh was the UK's most desirable city because of its excellent health, sports and leisure facilities, as well as its fine record in the provision of education facilities.

In the previous chapter, the reasons for choosing the areas of residence were evaluated, and a variety of reasons or expected benefits was indicated by the respondents of the research areas. It seems, therefore, appropriate to examine whether the cities of Glasgow and Manchester provided what the respondents expected before moving to their area, and then whether the respondents are satisfied with living in the area. It is possible that the residents may say that they are satisfied with having what they expected, and thus they are satisfied with living in the areas. It is also possible that the respondents may say that they are dissatisfied even though it was as they expected. They may also say that the area itself was not as they expected, and thus they are dissatisfied with living there. Therefore, it is essential in this chapter to examine three aspects: the degree of satisfaction; if they are satisfied, with what factors they are satisfied; if they are not satisfied, then with what factors they are not satisfied. Moreover, it would be also interesting to analyse whether factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction given by respondents in the survey areas are similar with the factors of quality of life identified by the survey mentioned above.

## Part 1: Are residents satisfied with living in the survey areas?

### Degree of satisfaction

Before examining the factors of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, it seems appropriate to analyse whether new residents are satisfied with living in the area and to measure the degree of satisfaction. The information given by residents is, first of all, divided into the inner city and the central city to analyse any differences in the degree of satisfaction between them.

**Figure 7-1: Degree of satisfaction with living in the survey areas given by residents in the inner city and the central city**<sup>33</sup>

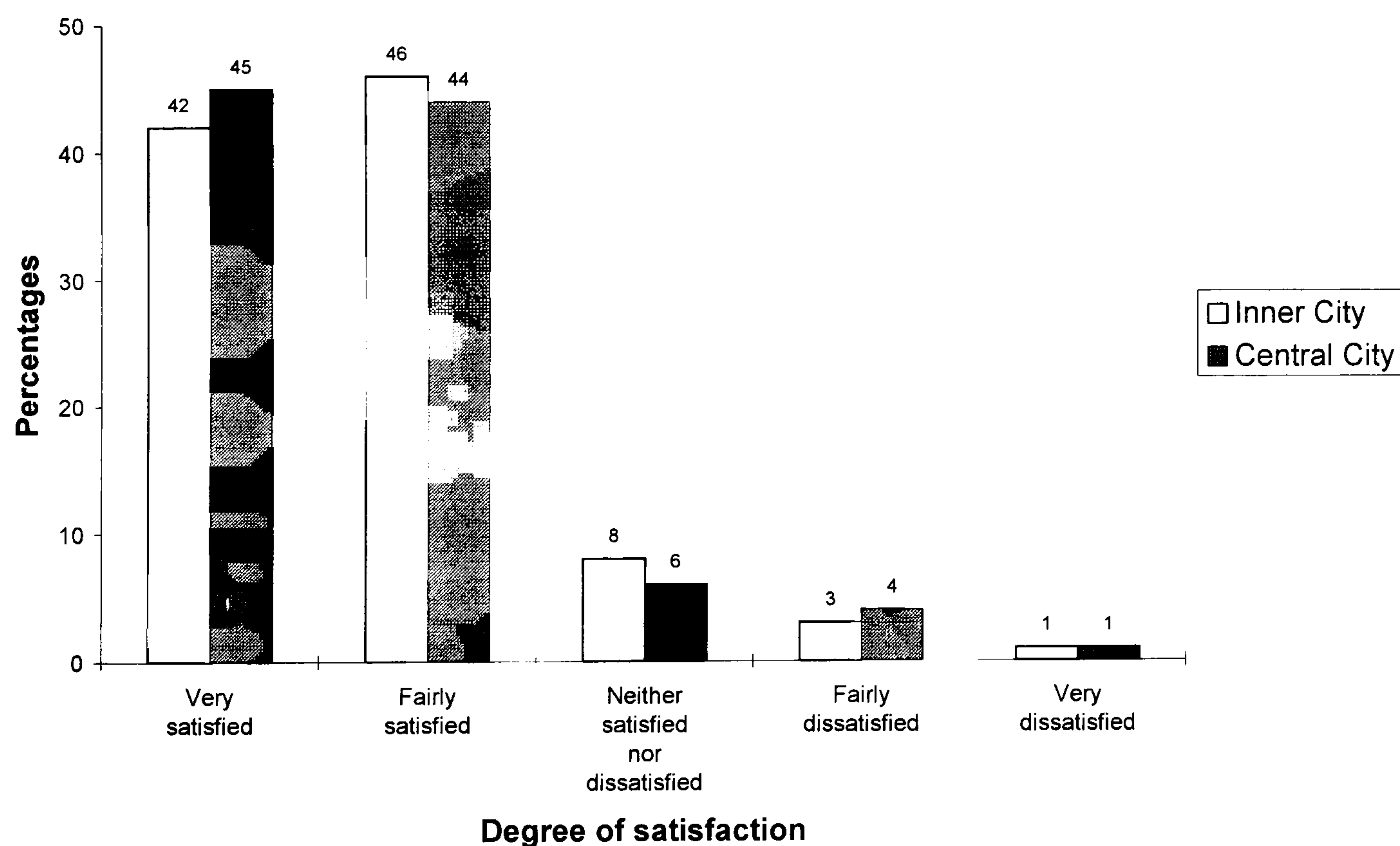


Figure 7-1 (Table 7-1 in Appendix 2) shows that in both the inner city and the central city there is a very high proportion of respondents who indicated they were either

<sup>33</sup> Residents were given a close-ended question (Are you satisfied with living here?) with five point Likert scales. A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.



'very' or 'fairly satisfied' with living in the areas- 88% of respondents in the inner city and 89% in the central city, but only 4% of respondents in the inner city and 5% of respondents in the central city mentioned that they were either very or fairly dissatisfied with living in the area. Therefore, most respondents in both the inner city and the central city were satisfied with choosing to live in the survey areas. Moreover, the result also indicates that the cities of Glasgow and Manchester seem to have provided what new residents expected to have when choosing to live in the areas. The important point in this analysis is that the vast majority of respondents in the inner city and the central city were satisfied with living in there.

The information is now divided into the four areas (Crown Street, Hulme, the Merchant City and Whitworth Street), to see if there are any differences in the degree of satisfaction with living in different survey areas.

**Figure 7-2: Degree of satisfaction with living in the survey areas given by residents in the four areas**

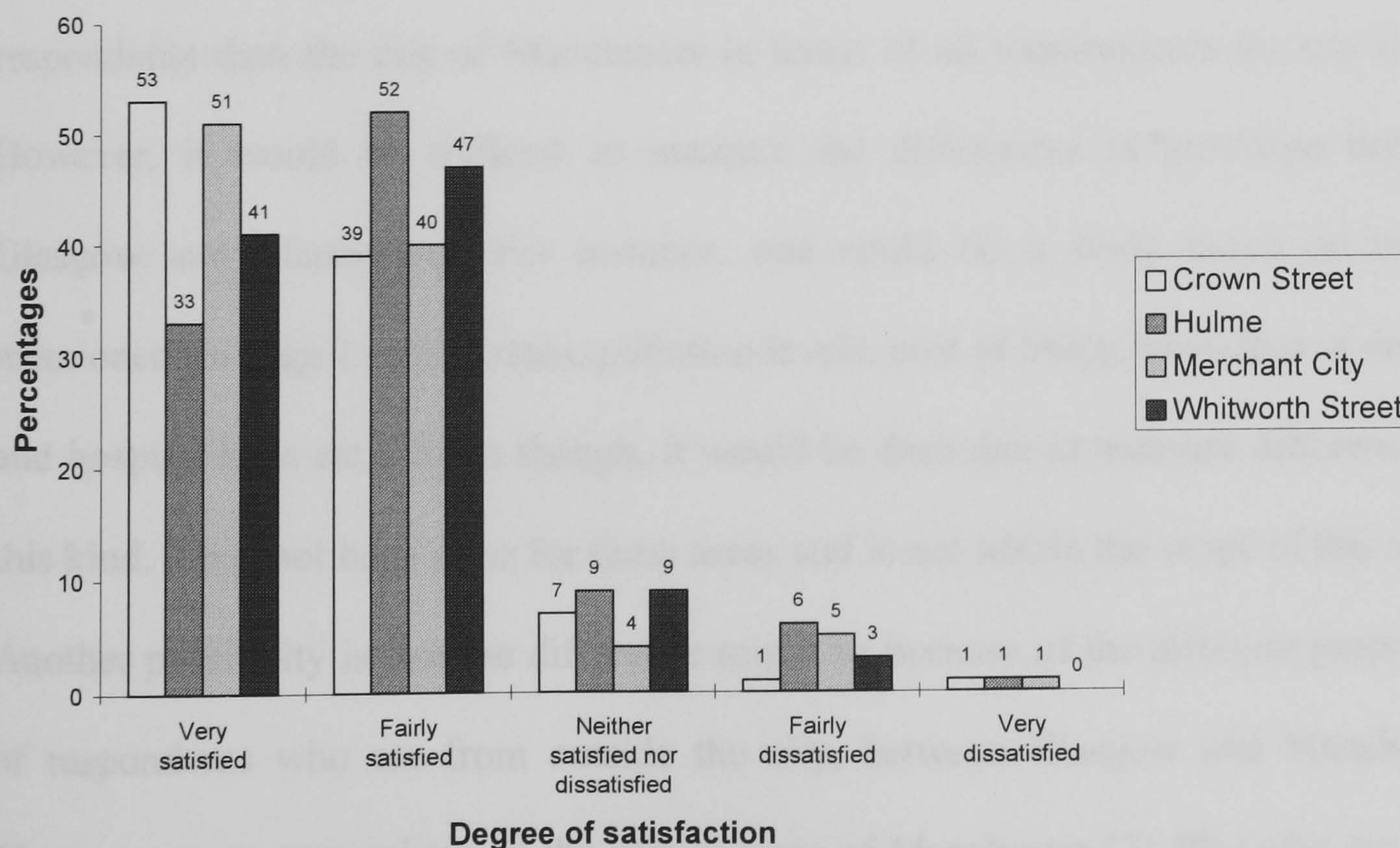




Figure 7-2 (Table 7-2 in Appendix 2) points out an interesting difference in the degree of satisfaction with living in the survey areas between respondents of the four areas. The difference seems to be between respondents of Glasgow and respondents of Manchester.

Although the vast proportion of respondents in all the survey areas indicated that they were 'very or fairly satisfied' with living there, a significantly higher proportion of respondents in Glasgow indicated 'very satisfied' (53% in Crown Street and 51% in the Merchant City) than the respondents in Manchester (33% in Hulme and 41% in Whitworth Street).

On the other hand, respondents in Manchester tend to indicate more on the category of 'fairly satisfied' than respondents of Glasgow. It seems, therefore, that the respondents of Glasgow are more satisfied with living in the areas than the respondents of Manchester. There might be some possible reasons for the difference in the degree of satisfaction between respondents of Glasgow and respondents of Manchester. Firstly, the city of Glasgow may actually have provided better for respondents than the city of Manchester in terms of all requirements for city living. However, it would be difficult to measure the differences in provision between Glasgow and Manchester. For instance, one could do a study based on factors mentioned on page 1 (crime rates, pollution levels, cost of living, provision of doctors and hospital beds etc.). Even though, it would be desirable to measure differences of this kind, it has not been done for these areas and is not within the scope of this study. Another possibility is that the difference might be because of the different proportion of respondents who are from outside the city, between Glasgow and Manchester. There are more respondents in the survey areas of Manchester (71.9%) who are from outside the city than is the case in Glasgow (64.2%). Most of these respondents in

Manchester might live there for employment relocation or education purposes (many residents in Whitworth Street are students). These respondents might not be very enthusiastic about living there.

Nevertheless, the overall result of the analysis reveals satisfaction with living in the survey areas, since the vast majority of respondents in both cities as well as in both the central areas and the inner city areas, mentioned that they were satisfied. Therefore, it can be assumed that respondents might have obtained what they expected when they decided to live there. As there are very positive attitudes of respondents toward living in the survey areas, it might be interesting to see what current demands for housing are like. In Crown Street, approximately 100 social housing and 300 private housing were built after the survey was conducted in 1998. Although a new three bed terraced house that was around £65,000 in 1998 has increased to around £95,000 in 2000, there is still a very high demand for housing in the area according to the Crown Street Regeneration project manager. However, the current rent for social housing remains the same as the rent in 1998. In Hulme, there are around 300 more private dwellings built since the survey, and the price of private housing in the area has also increased rapidly. Prices of housing in the central city areas (Merchant City and Whitworth Street) have also increased substantially (approximately 50%) since 1998, and there is a very high demand for housing in the area according to estate agencies. All these findings can suggest that the degree of satisfaction with living in the survey areas might be even higher than the degree of satisfaction in 1998, particularly for owner-occupiers, in terms of their investment.



## **Part 2: Degree of satisfaction by residents with different social and economic backgrounds**

In this section, any differences in degree of satisfaction between types of tenure, different income households, different age groups, occupational status, previous location of residence and duration of residence will be examined. The analysis found that there are no statistically significant differences in degree of satisfaction between respondents with different household incomes, age, household size, occupation, previous location of residence, and duration of residence in both the inner city and the central city. The only statistically significant differences are found in degree of satisfaction by types of tenure in both the inner city and the central city.

**Figure 7-3: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure in the inner city**

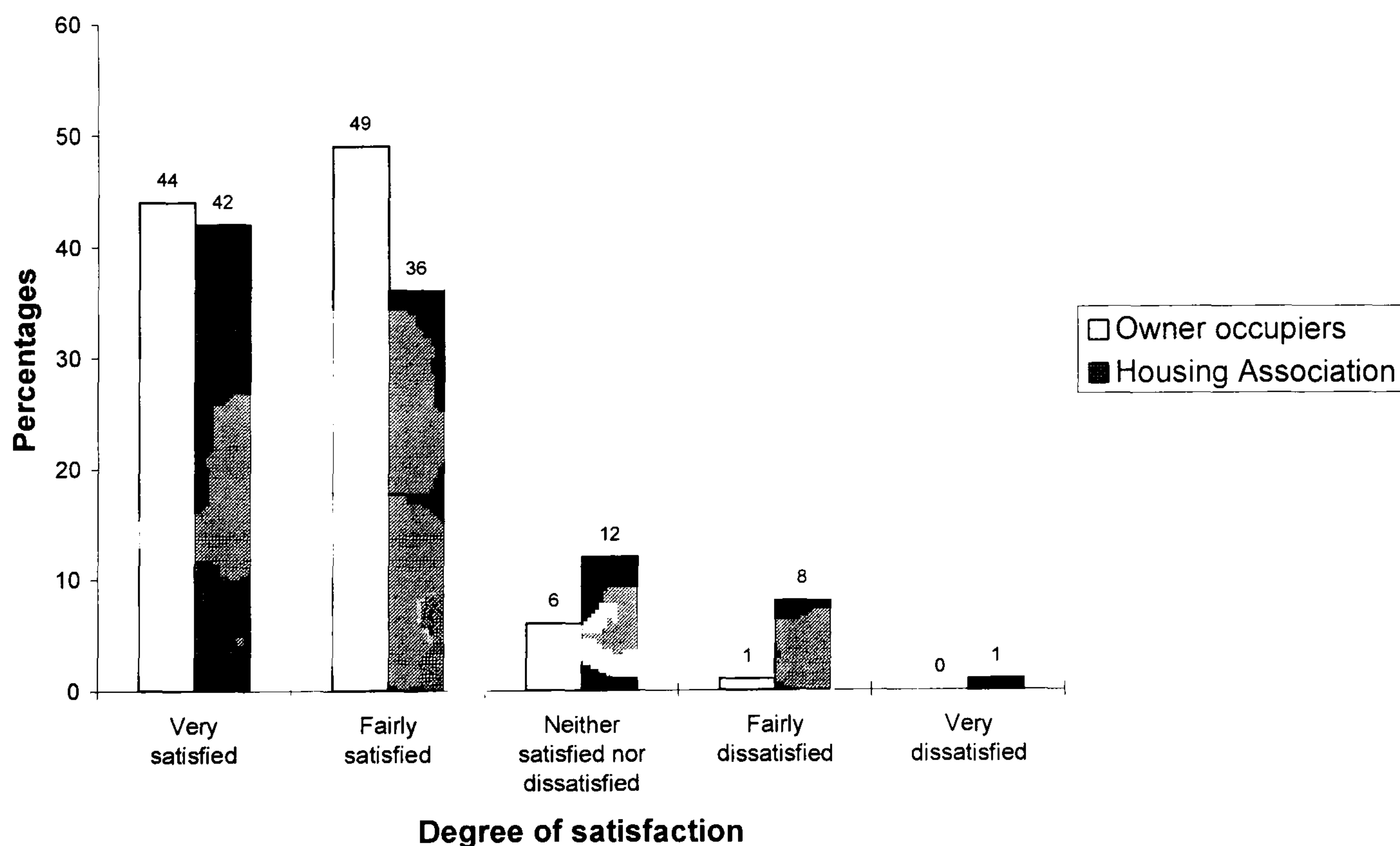
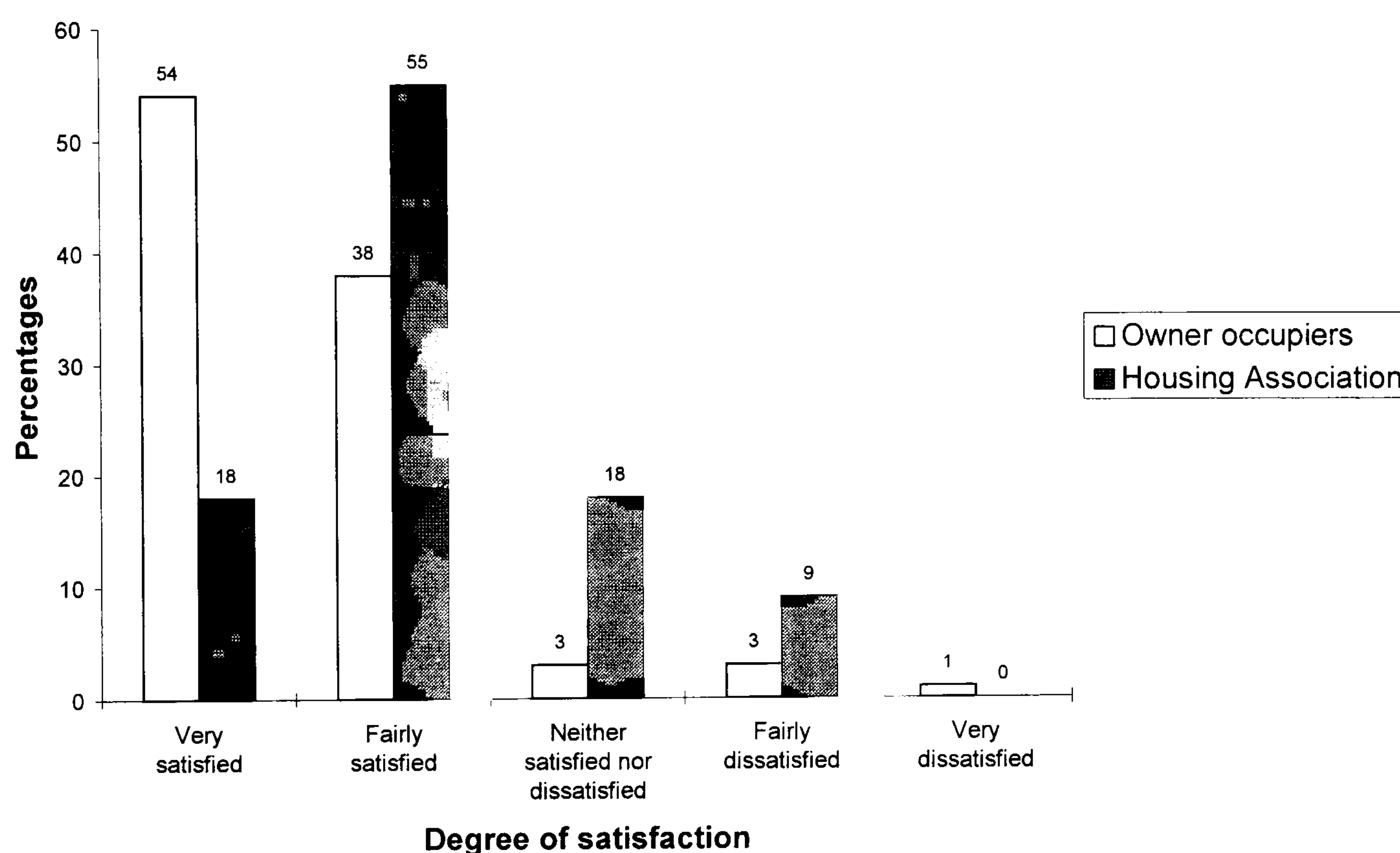


Figure 7-3 (Table 7-3 in Appendix 2) shows that more than 90% of owner-occupiers (93%) mentioned that they were either 'very or fairly satisfied' with living in the survey areas, compared to 78% of social housing renters. Moreover, only 1% of

owner-occupiers mentioned that they were dissatisfied, but 9% of social housing renters were dissatisfied with living in the survey areas.

The evaluation of the central city also shows the same result. Figure 7-4 (Table 7-4 in Appendix 2) shows that 92% of owner-occupiers indicated that they were satisfied (either very or fairly satisfied) with living in the survey areas, but only 73% of social housing renters mentioned that they were satisfied.

**Figure 7-4: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure in the central city**



Moreover, 9% of social housing renters were dissatisfied with living in the areas, but only 4% of owner-occupiers.

Thus owner-occupiers in both the inner city and central city were more satisfied with living in the survey areas than social housing renters. This result raises a question about why social housing renters seem to be more dissatisfied with living in the survey areas. One possible reason may be that owner-occupiers in both the inner city and the central city were more concerned with possible advantages and disadvantages

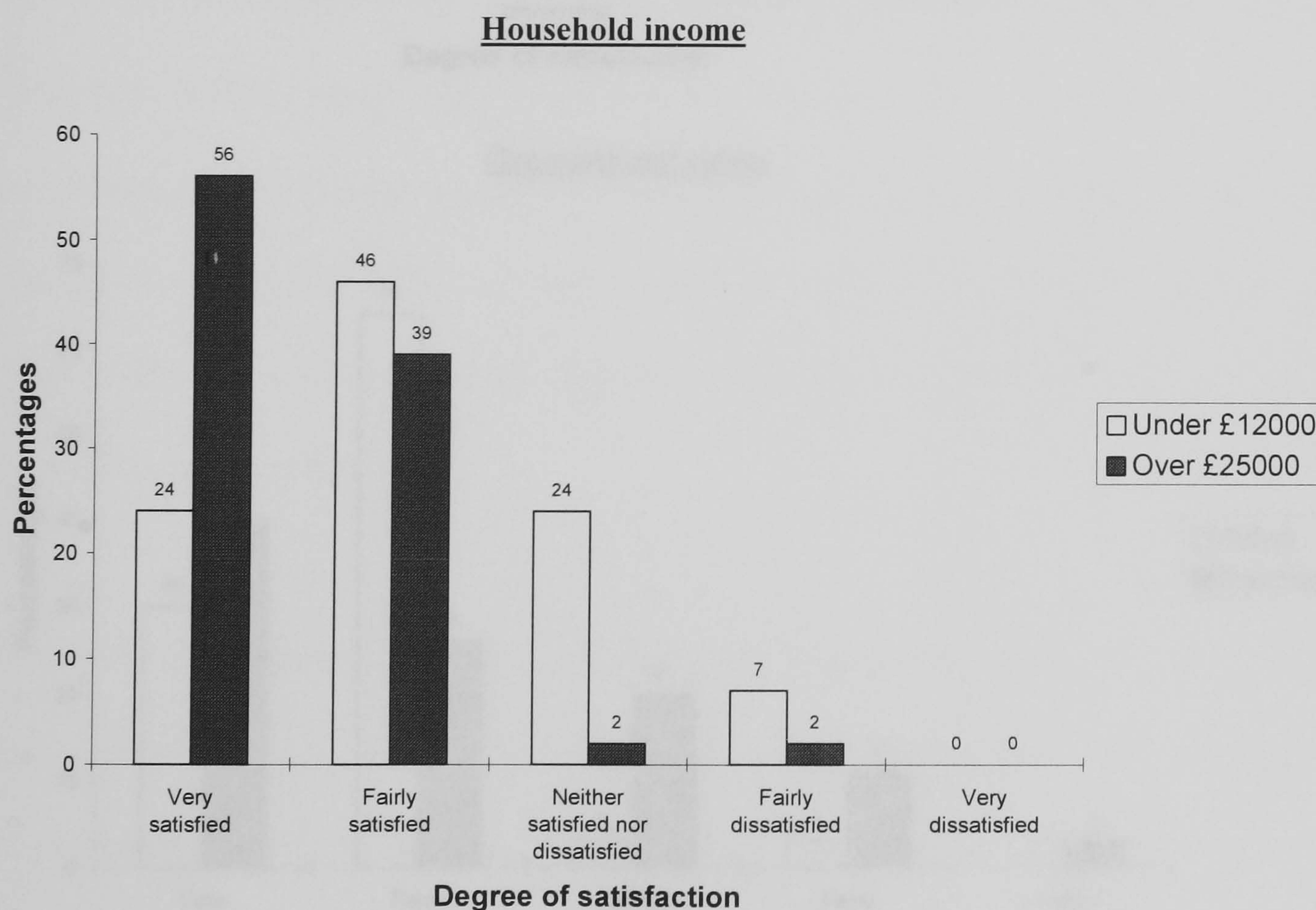
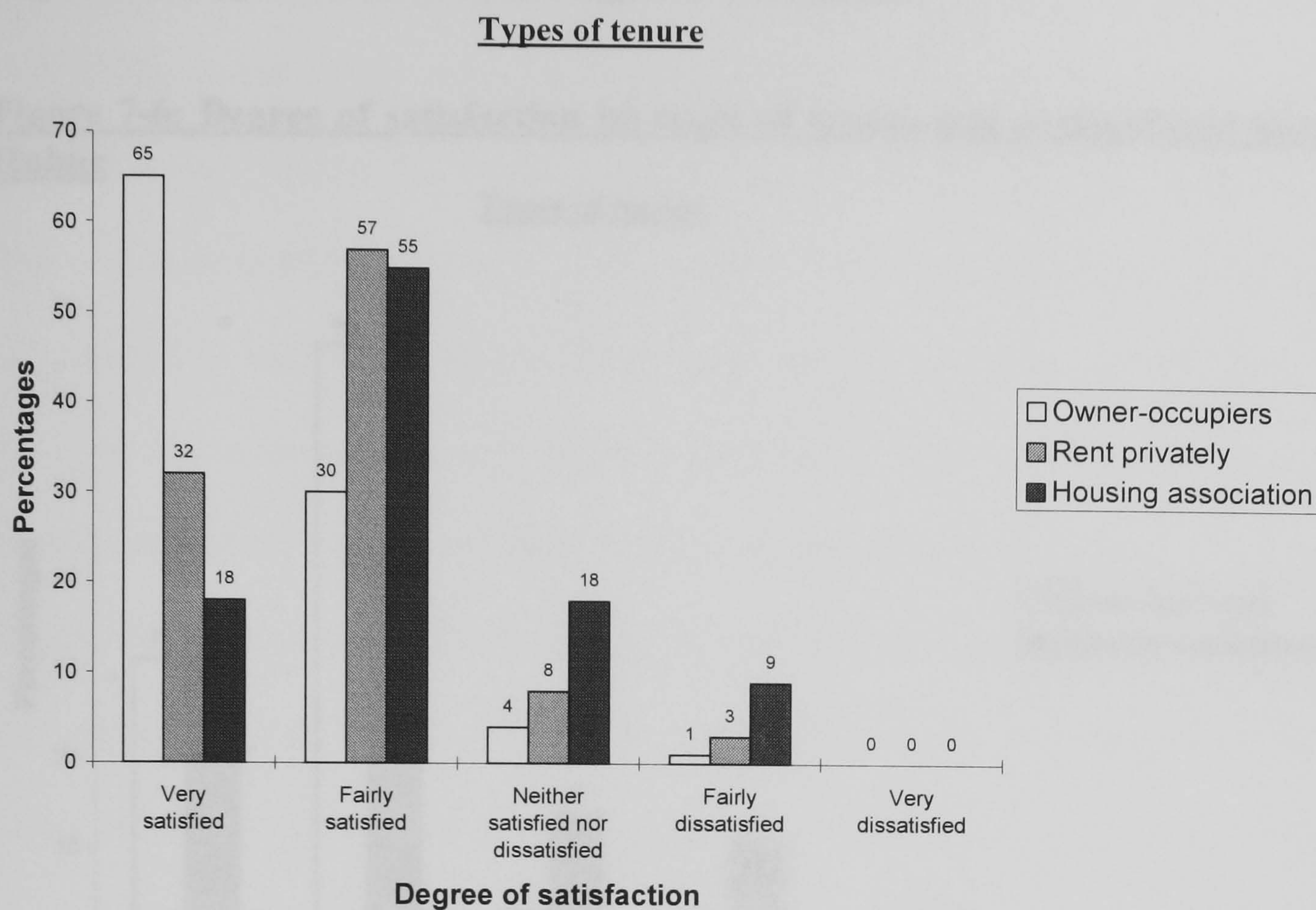
of living in the survey areas than social housing renters, thus they are more likely to find satisfaction. On the other hand, social housing renters might concentrate on obtaining the right to have housing in the survey areas, but they might be less concerned about what are advantages and disadvantages with living in the survey areas. Therefore they are more likely to experience disappointment. This result will be further examined later in this chapter when actual factors of dissatisfaction with living in the survey areas are evaluated.

The information was divided by areas to see there were any differences in degree of satisfaction between types of tenure, different income households, different age groups, occupation status, previous location of residence and duration of residence. However, the study found that there are no statistically significant differences in degree of satisfaction with all aspects mentioned above in the survey areas of Glasgow (Crown Street and Merchant City).

In the survey areas of Manchester, however, there are some differences in degree of satisfaction with types of tenure and household incomes (between under £12,000 and over £25,000) in Whitworth Street, and with types of tenure, age and occupational status in Hulme. Figure 7-5 (Table 7-5 in Appendix 2) shows that owner-occupiers and respondents with household incomes over £25,000 seem to be more satisfied with living in the survey areas than social housing renters and respondents with household incomes under £12,000. For instance, 95% of owner-occupiers were satisfied with living in the areas, but only 73% of social housing renters.



**Figure 7-5: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure and household incomes in Whitworth Street**



Respondents with low household incomes are more likely to be social housing renters. The analysis found that 95% of respondents with household incomes over £35,000 were satisfied with living there, but only 70% of respondents with household incomes



under £12,000 were satisfied. Therefore, it can be assumed that economic differences might be an important factor in the degree of satisfaction.

**Figure 7-6: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure and occupational status in Hulme**

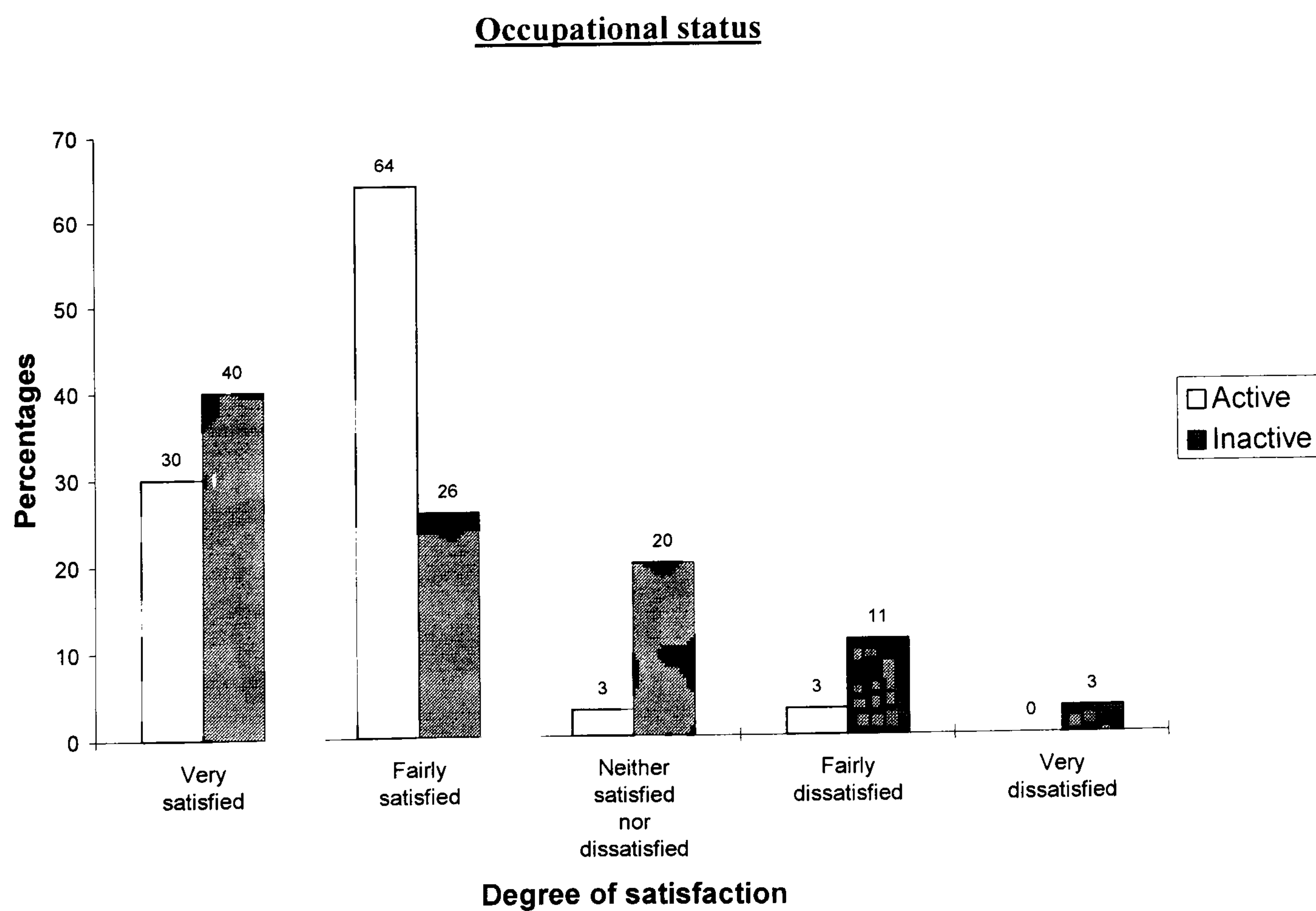
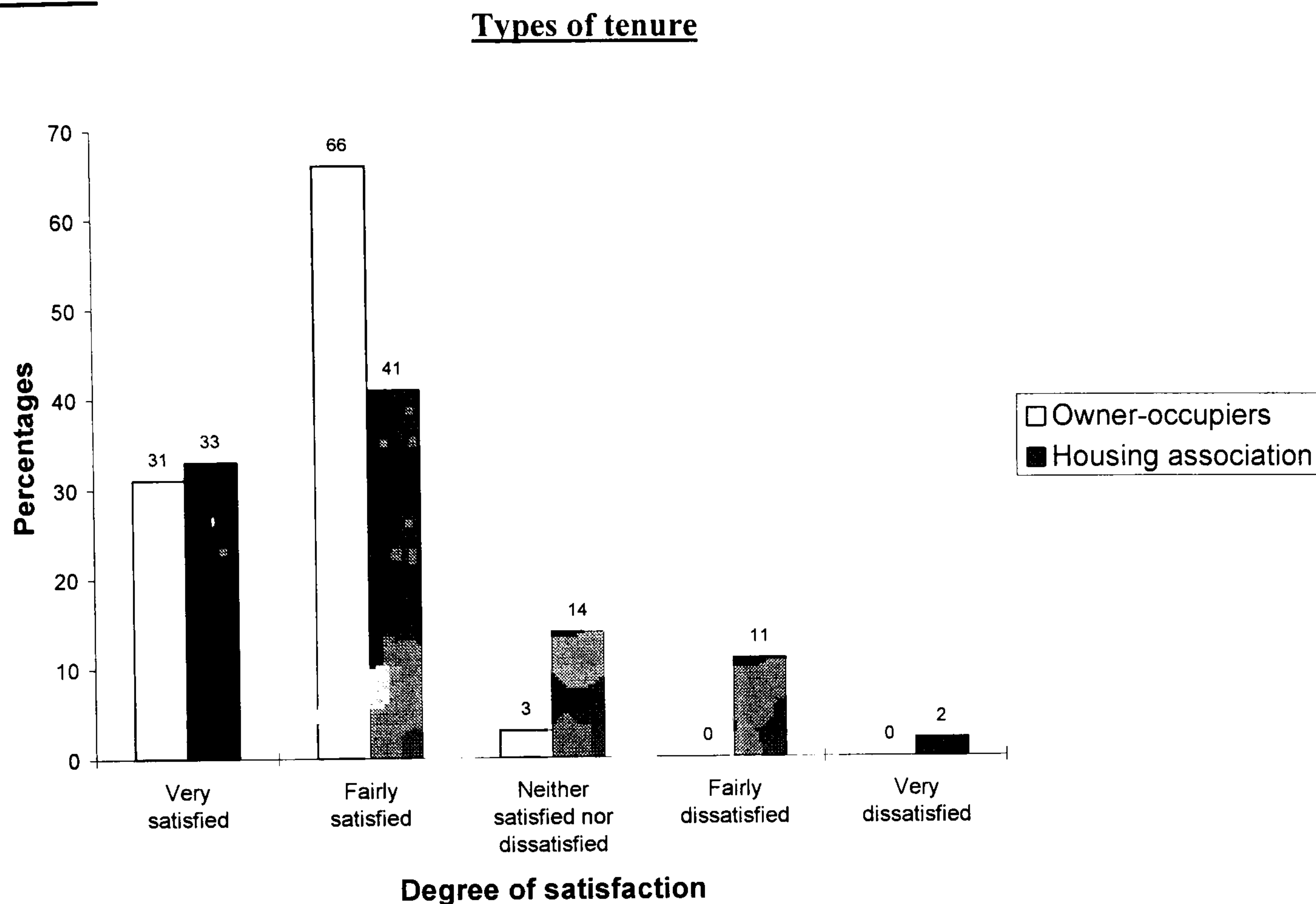


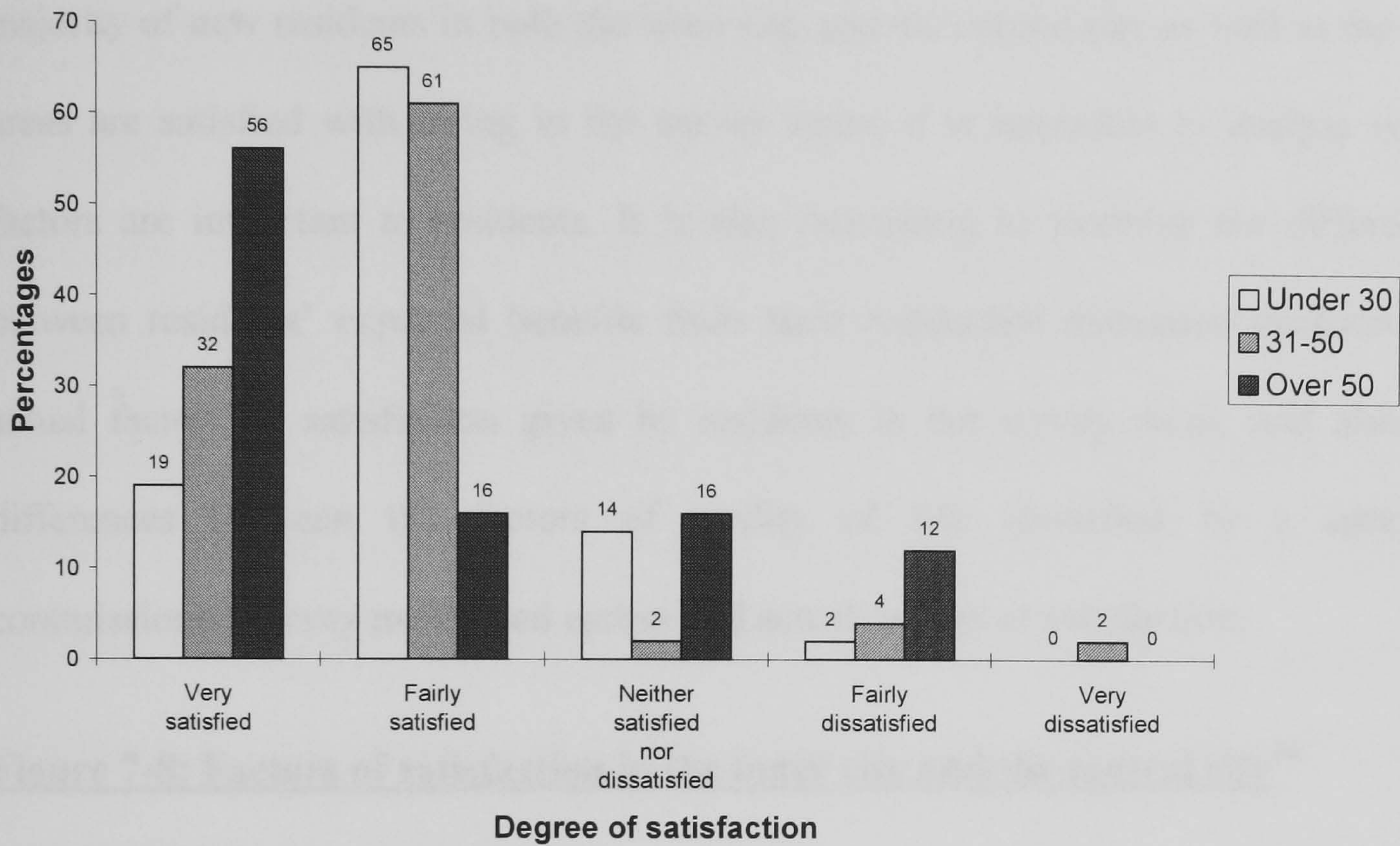
Figure 7-6 (Table 7-6 in Appendix 2) also points out that in Hulme economically better-off respondents and economically active respondents showed more satisfaction with living in the survey areas than those economically worse-off respondents (e.g., social housing renters and economically inactive respondents). The results suggest that economic conditions of respondents seem to be an important factor in the degree of satisfaction with living in both Whitworth Street and Hulme. A possible reason might be that economically vulnerable respondents in both the areas might be unable to take account of facilities available in the city, as most of them are quite expensive. On the other hand, economically better-off respondents in the areas might be able to take any possible advantages that might occur while they live in the areas, as they are more likely to afford them financially. Such different propositions between economically better-off and worse-off respondents might lead to differences in the degree of satisfaction with living in the areas. As seen in Chapter 5, Smith and Williams (1986) argue that gentrification in cities has created an increasing polarisation in the labour market between high-income, white-collar workers and an underclass of poorly paid, insecure employees, particularly in the service sector. Those with low economic status might not have the ability to make use of high cost publicly subsidised facilities.

One other interesting fact is that in Hulme older respondents seem to be more satisfied with living in the area. Figure 7-7 (Table 7-7 in Appendix 2) shows that although 12% of respondents in the older age group (over 50 years old) are dissatisfied with living there, over half of these respondents mentioned that they are 'very satisfied', which is much higher compared to respondents in the other age groups. Therefore the result suggests that older respondents in Hulme seem to be more satisfied than young



respondents. The overall result indicates that economic differences play a big part in the degree of satisfaction with living in the area between respondents in the inner city and the central city, as well as in Hulme and Whitworth Street.

**Figure 7-7: Degree of satisfaction by age in Hulme**



Economically better-off respondents (owner-occupiers, high income households and economically active) are particularly satisfied with their living environment, but social housing renters, low income households and economically inactive respondents seem to be less enthusiastic about living in the area. Moreover, older respondents are more satisfied than young respondents with living in the area, particularly in Hulme.

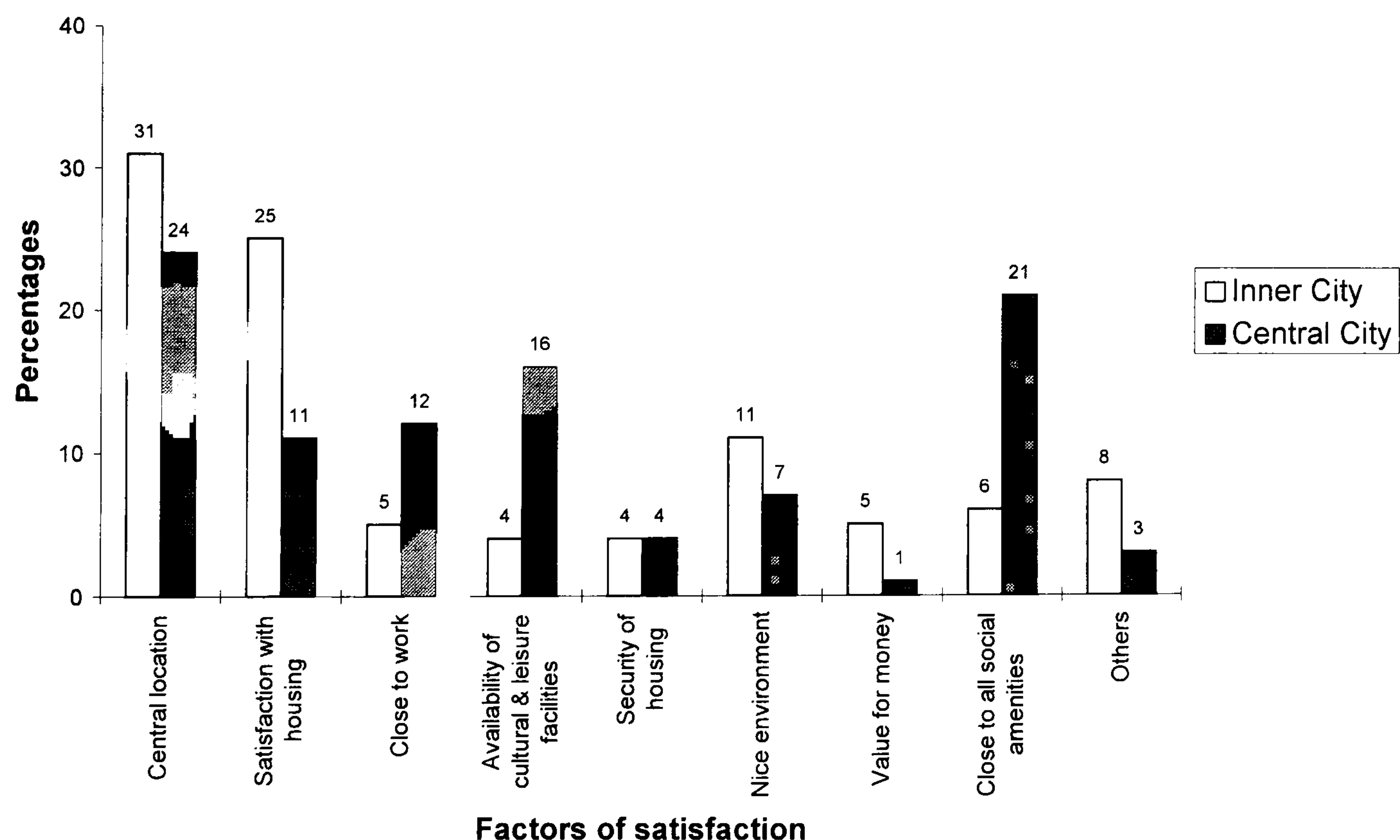


## **Part 3: What is it that people like about city life?**

### **What factors do residents like about their area?**

Since the analysis of the degree of satisfaction indicates that the overwhelming majority of new residents in both the inner city and the central city as well as the four areas are satisfied with living in the survey areas, it is important to analyse which factors are important to residents. It is also interesting to examine the differences between residents' expected benefits from their residential relocation decision and actual factors of satisfaction given by residents in the survey areas, and also the differences between the factors of quality of life identified by a specially commissioned survey mentioned earlier and actual factors of satisfaction.

**Figure 7-8: Factors of satisfaction in the inner city and the central city**<sup>34</sup>



<sup>34</sup> Respondents were given an open-ended question (What do you like about it?), and were allowed to give more than one factor. A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.



Figure 7-8 (Table 7-8 in Appendix 2) shows that the major factor of satisfaction of living in both the inner city and the central city is 'central location'. However, there are some interesting differences between respondents in the inner city and the central city. Respondents in the inner city were more satisfied with the housing itself than respondents in the central city. On the other hand, respondents in the central city seem to be more satisfied with factors, such as 'close to all social amenities' and 'availability of cultural and leisure facilities'. These results might be because of differences in the provision of amenities and facilities between the inner city and the central city. As mentioned earlier, most social and cultural facilities are in the central city areas. This may lead to the factor ('availability of cultural and leisure facilities') to be the third most important aspect for residents in the central city. Respondents in the inner city may not regard these facilities as important as there is a lack of these facilities near to their place of residence and because of affordability for a large section of the local population.

It is interesting to see the comparison between factors of satisfaction given by respondents in the survey areas and the factors of the quality of life identified by a specially commissioned survey that mentioned earlier. No factors of satisfaction given by respondents are found to be closely related to the factors of the quality of life (minimal crime both violent and non-violent, best possible health service, low levels of pollution, low cost of living, good shopping facilities, and racial harmony).

Therefore, this set of factors of the quality of life does not seem to represent what new residents regard as important in the quality of life in their residence. This may be because the above factors are about more general factors of quality of life.

One other interesting aspect is that compared to the original reasons for choosing to live in the area, 'central location' continued to be important to respondents in both the

areas after they moved. But ‘availability of cultural and leisure facilities’ becomes the third most important factor of satisfaction for respondents, particularly in the central city. However, factors, such as ‘the closeness to the place of employment’ for respondents in the central city and ‘the value for money aspect’ for respondents in the inner city, are no longer cited as important factors. This may mean that the above two factors (‘close to work’ and ‘the value for money’) are important reasons for new residents to choose the survey areas as their residence and these factors played an important role in the creation of reurbanisation in the survey areas. However, the availability of cultural and leisure facilities and the provision of good quality housing in the survey areas may be important factors in sustaining and maintaining the reurbanisation of the areas.

Figure 7-9 (Table 7-9 in Appendix 2) shows factors of satisfaction analysed by area. With the exception of Merchant City (‘close to all social amenities’), the major factor of satisfaction for residents in all other areas is ‘central location’. The overall evaluation of factors of satisfaction of residents analysed by the four areas showed some significant differences.

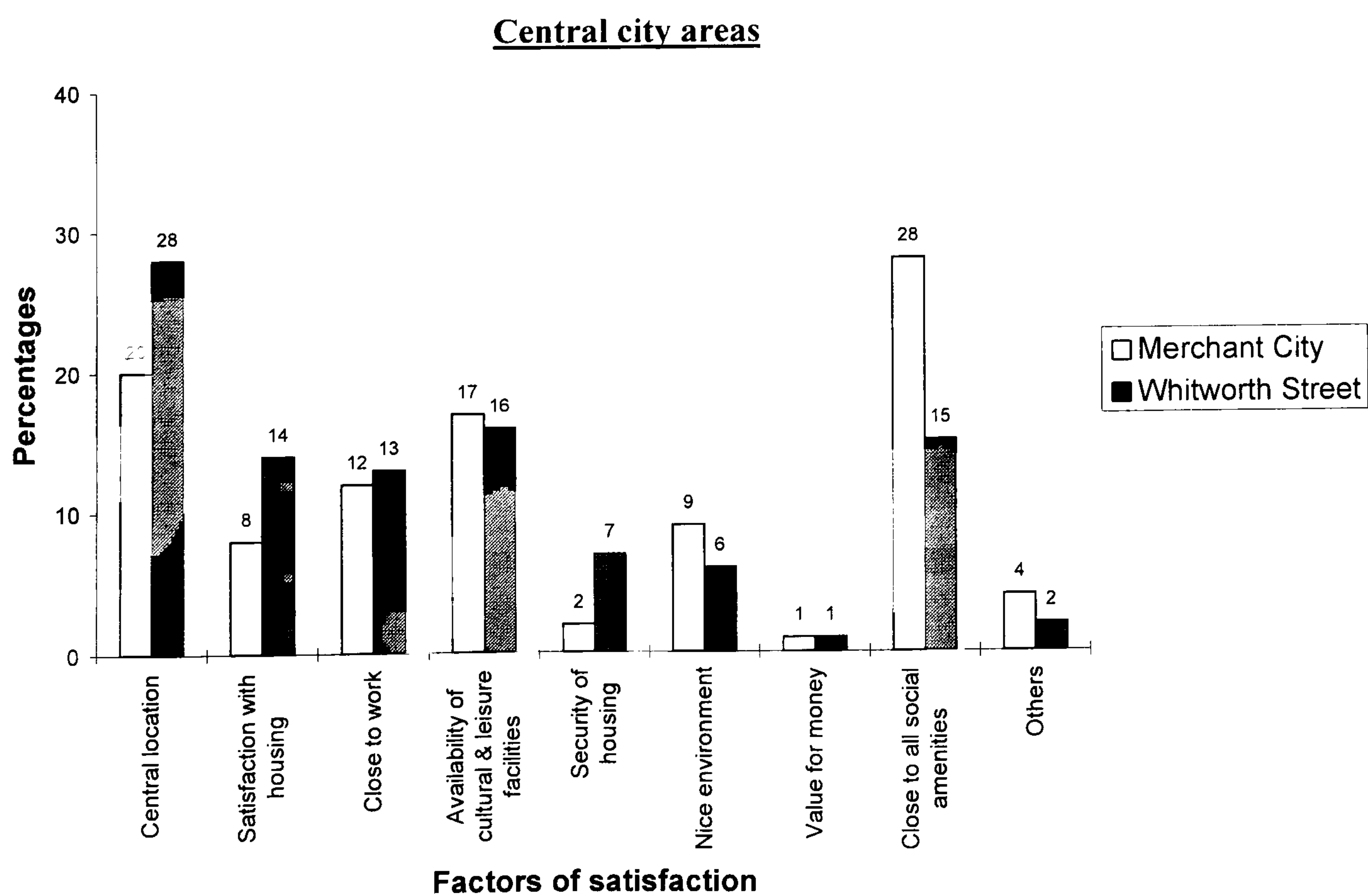
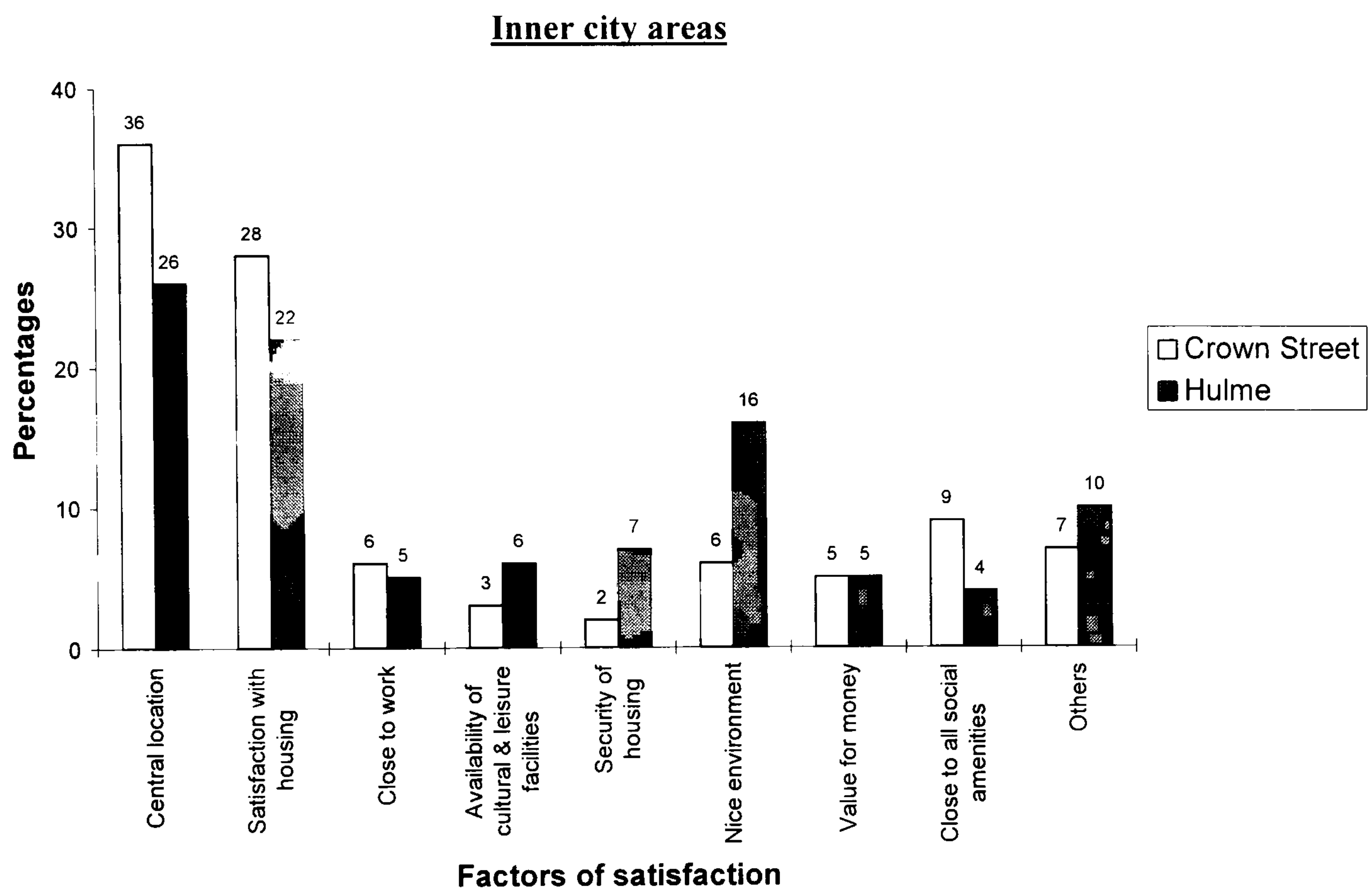
Respondents in Crown Street and Hulme are satisfied with rather limited factors. For instance, they concentrated on factors such as location and housing, whereas respondents in Merchant City and Whitworth Street are interested in a wider range of factors, practical (e.g., easy access to work and to existing services in the areas), lifestyle (e.g., cultural and leisure facilities of the city centre) and ‘location’ that contains all the factors mentioned above.

Another interesting factor is that ‘close to amenities’ appears to have quite different importance for residents in the inner city areas and respondents in the central city areas. Only 4% in Hulme and 9% in Crown Street mentioned ‘close to all amenities’



compared to 28% in Merchant City and 15% in Whitworth Street. This again is because almost all facilities are located fairly close to the central city areas, whereas there are limited social facilities in the inner city areas.

**Figure 7-9: Factors of satisfaction in the four areas**



Another interesting point is that there are differences between respondents in Merchant City and respondents in Whitworth Street. The former appears to value 'close to all social amenities' more than the latter. This may be because facilities are better in Merchant City than Whitworth Street, in terms of the cost and variety of social amenities. It is also possible that respondents in Merchant City might know more about facilities in the city than respondents in Whitworth Street. The differences might be also because of different preferences between respondents in Merchant City and respondents in Whitworth Street. These aspects will be further analysed later.

Another important aspect that should be mentioned is the value for money factor, which was one of the most important reasons for respondents of the inner city areas when choosing to live there (25% in Crown Street and 18% in Hulme), no longer appears as an important factor of satisfaction for respondents once they are living there (only 5.0% in Crown Street and 5.2% in Hulme mentioned the factor). Moreover, in the central city areas the most important reason for residence was 'the closeness to the place of employment' when choosing to live there, but the factor is now of moderate importance.

The overall results indicate that the location is regarded as the most important factor of satisfaction for many respondents in the survey areas. However, there are differences in factors of satisfaction between respondents in the inner city areas and respondents in the central city areas. Respondents in the inner city areas seem to be more satisfied with the location of their housing and the housing itself. On the other hand, respondents in the central city areas seem to be more interested in the location of their housing and amenities or facilities close to the location of their residence.

The comparison between the factors of satisfaction given by respondents in the survey areas and the factors of quality of life identified by the specially commissioned survey



showed clear differences. This may be because the factors of quality of life seem to be generally regarded factors that apply to possibly the majority of people in a city or in society, but the factors of satisfaction given by respondents are specific aspects of advantages of living in the study areas.

Possibly the most important thing to emerge from this analysis is that respondents consider different factors to be important as reasons for moving ('close to work', 'value for money', and 'central location') to their new residence, than appear to be important after they moved in (e.g., 'central location', 'close to all social amenities', 'availability of social and cultural facilities', and 'satisfaction with housing'). This indicates that one set of factors is important in the reurbanisation process, to persuade people to move, but another set of factors is important in sustaining the reurbanisation. This is a very important finding of the study in terms of future urban policy. The finding implies that although a certain set of factors might primarily lead to reurbanisation in previously troubled urban areas, this set of factors might not guarantee sustainability of population in the areas. This is because decisive factors of residential location may be different from beneficial factors of living. Moreover, it would be much more difficult to sustain reurbanisation than to make it happen. This is because the sustainability of reurbanisation is a long-term commitment. It would also be possible that the preference of city- living people might consistently change, thus it would be difficult to provide all their demands effectively. Therefore, it is important to consider ways of sustaining the reurbanisation once it has happened.

#### **Part 4: What are the differences in factors of satisfaction between residents with different social and economic backgrounds?**

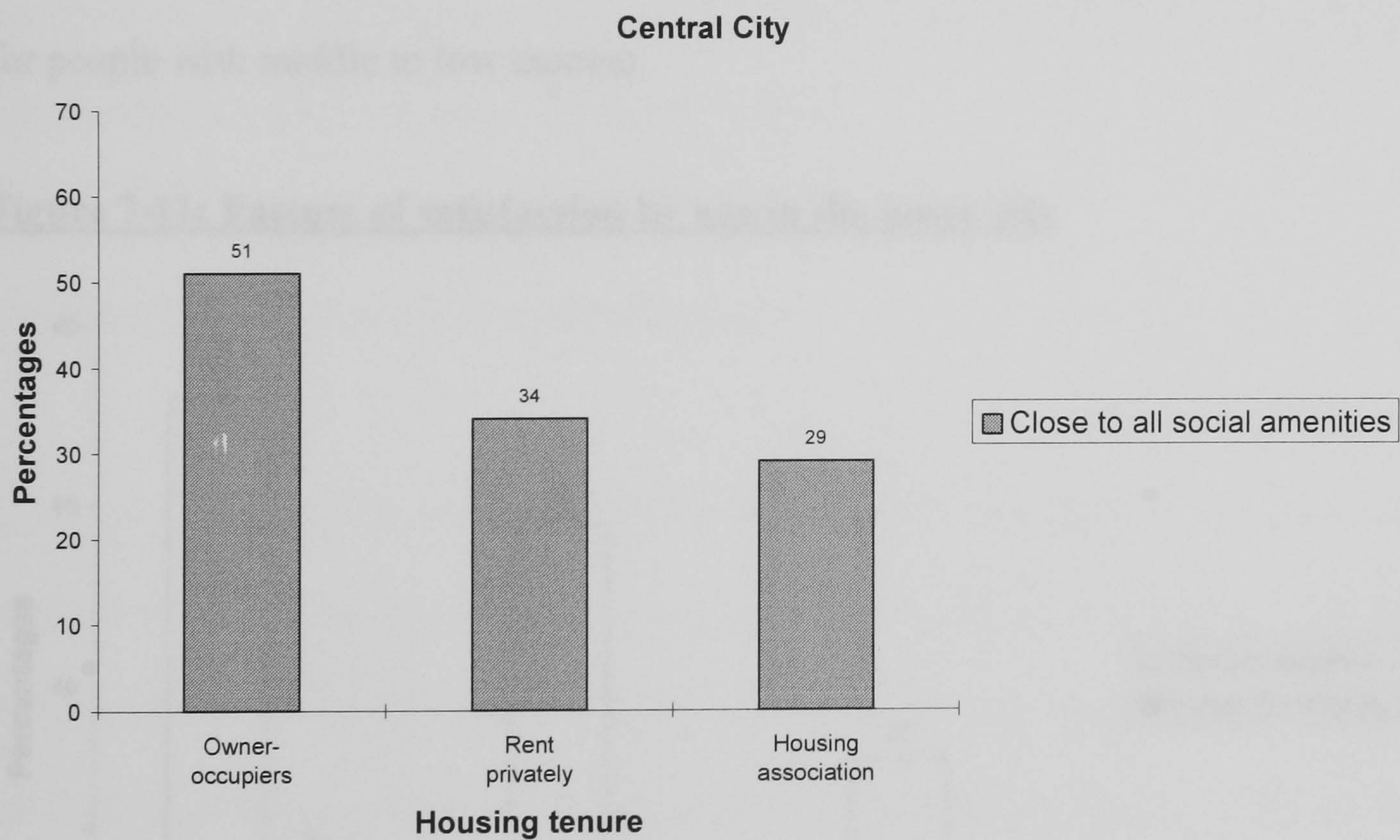
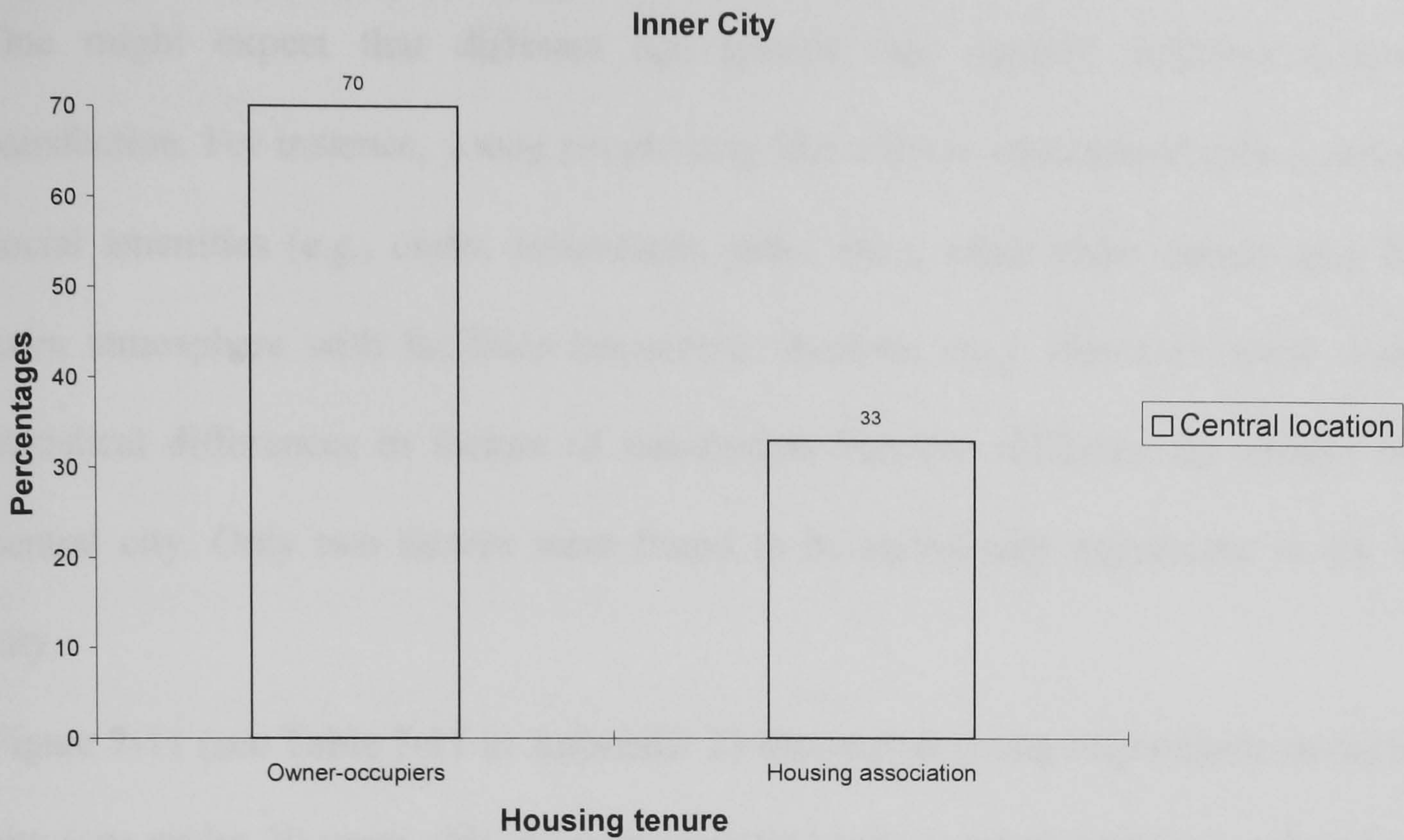
It is assumed that respondents with different social and economic backgrounds may have different factors of satisfaction with living in the survey areas. However, the analysis found that there are very few statistically significant differences in the factors of satisfaction between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds. For instance, there are no statistical differences for inner city respondents in factors of satisfaction between respondents with different household size, previous location of residence and duration of residence in the city. For central city respondents, types of tenure, different household incomes, household size, previous location of residence and duration of residence in the city were also found not to show any significant differences in factors of satisfaction. Respondents with whatever social and economic backgrounds in the inner city and in the central city were found to have similar reasons for satisfaction with living in the survey areas.

#### **Factors of satisfaction by types of tenure**

Figure 7-10 (see Table 7-10 in Appendix 2) shows that owner-occupiers are much more satisfied with the location of their residence than respondents in social housing. In the central city, owner-occupiers regard 'close to all social amenities' as important compared to respondents in social housing. There are no statistical differences in this factor between owner-occupiers and private renters, or between private renters and social housing renters.



**Figure 7-10: Factors of satisfaction by types of tenure in the inner city and the central city**



Owner-occupiers might, as mentioned before, be more able to afford all social amenities available in the area. The closeness of all social amenities to their residence may, therefore, be a benefit to them.

Factors of satisfaction by types of tenure when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results between the inner city and the central city.

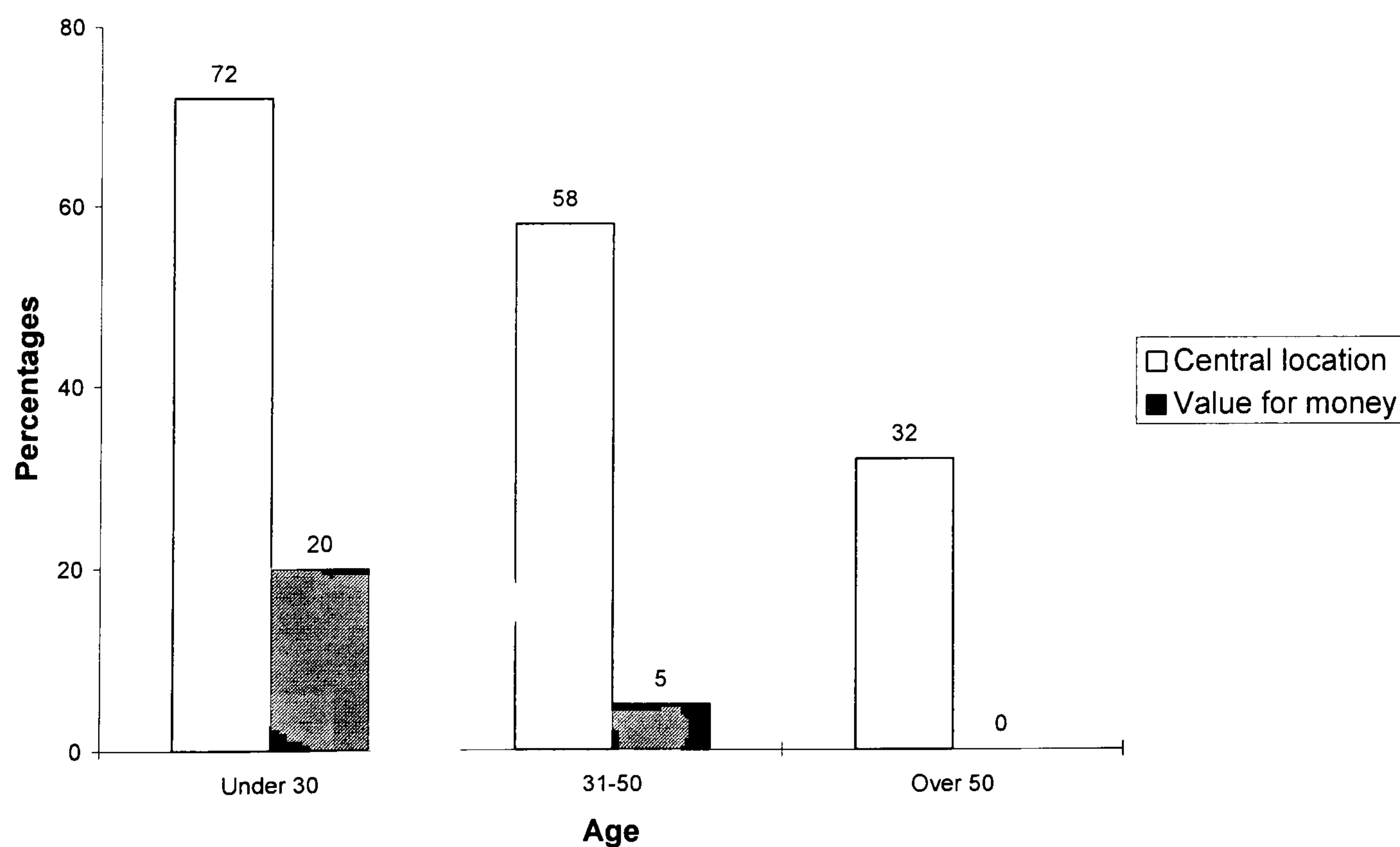


## Factors of satisfaction by age

One might expect that different age groups may specify different factors of satisfaction. For instance, young people may like a lively atmosphere with a variety of social amenities (e.g., clubs, restaurants, pubs, etc.), while older people may like a calm atmosphere with facilities (museums, theatres, etc.). However, there were no statistical differences in factors of satisfaction between different age groups in the central city. Only two factors were found to be statistically significant in the inner city.

Figure 7-11 (see Table 7-11 in Appendix 2) shows that young respondents in the inner city (age under 30 years old) are more satisfied with 'central location' and 'value for money' than older respondents. In the inner city, cheap private housing was provided for people with middle to low income.

**Figure 7-11: Factors of satisfaction by age in the inner city**



As has been seen in the previous chapter, young respondents in the inner city are more likely to be owner-occupiers than older respondents. These young respondents can



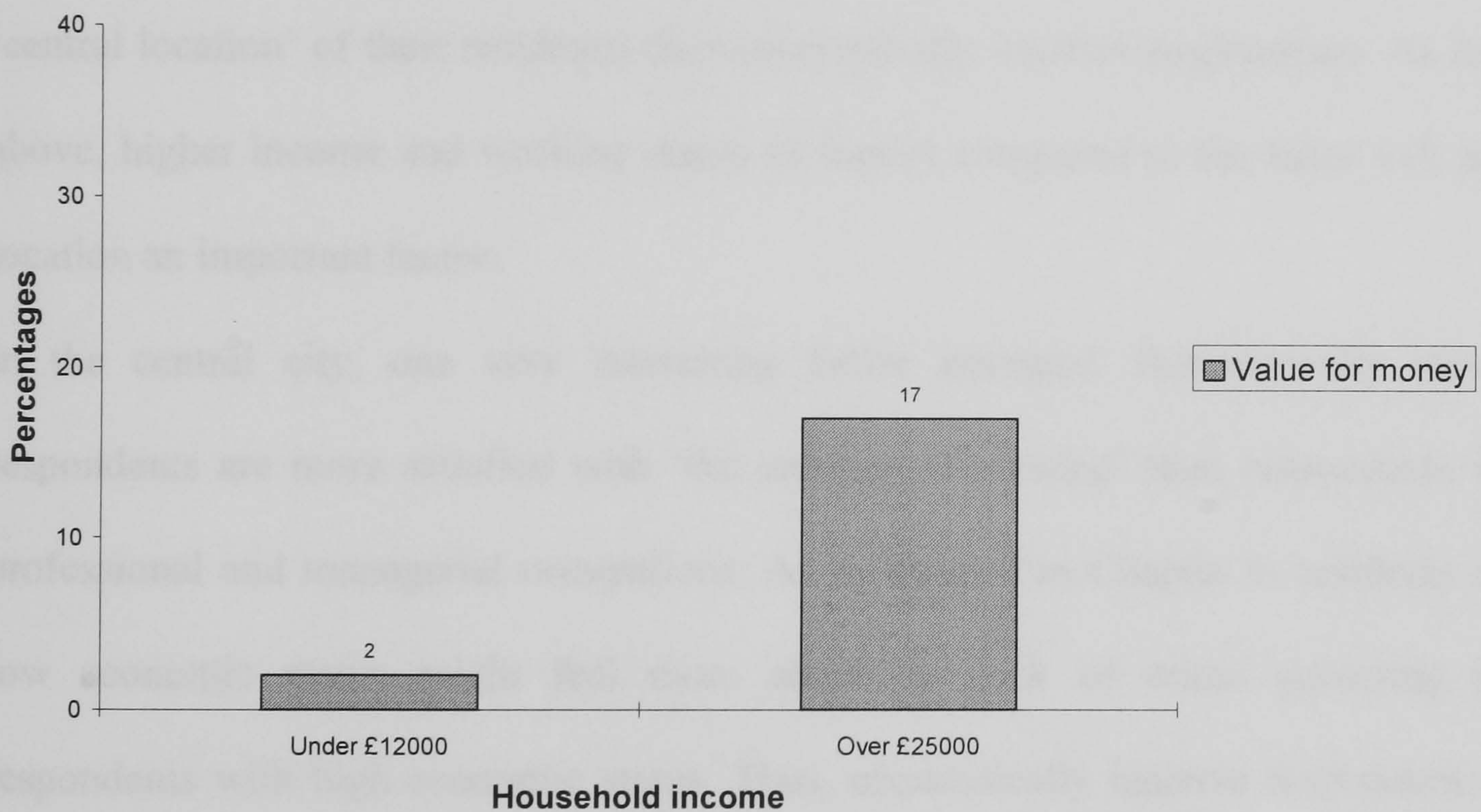
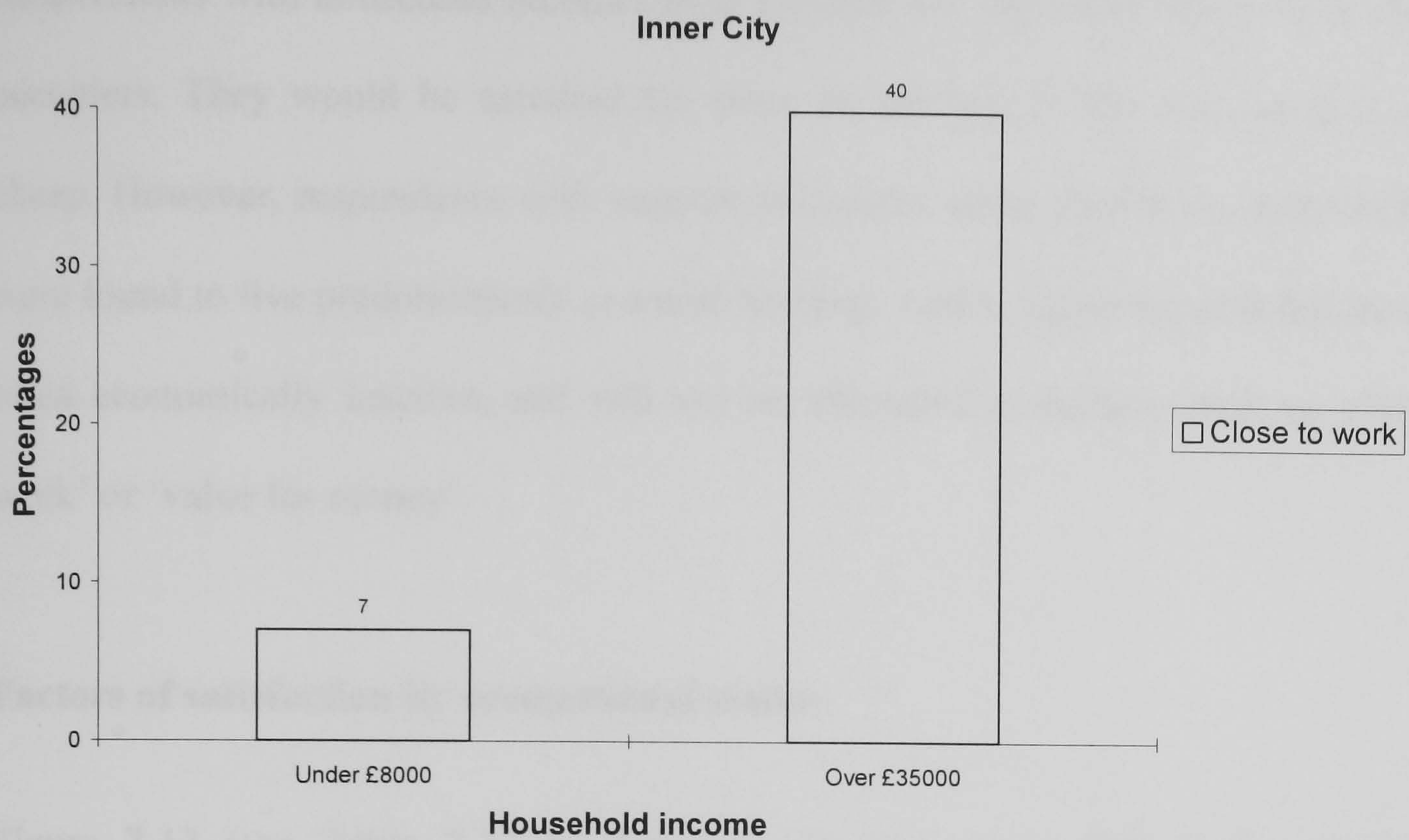
find satisfaction with the price of housing compared to prices of housing in central city areas or other parts of the city. However, older respondents are more likely to be in social housing. These older respondents may be also in receipt of housing benefit, thus they are, as previously mentioned, very unlikely to consider ‘value for money’ as a factor of satisfaction. Moreover, young respondents in the inner city are more likely to be in employment. They would consider the location of their residence could benefit them in terms of easy access to both their workplace and social life before purchasing their housing in the area. On the other hand, older respondents are more likely to be economically inactive. The location of their housing might not be an important factor in their life. Having new housing in the area probably gives more satisfaction to them. There are no significant differences in factors of satisfaction by age between the four survey areas, with the exception of Hulme, which reflects the same pattern as the inner city in Figure 7-11 above.

### **Factors of satisfaction by household income**

In the previous chapter, income differences between respondents in the survey areas were seen to generate substantial differences in the reasons for residence. However, income differences do not seem to have a substantial effect on factors of satisfaction between respondents once they live in the survey areas. For instance, there are no statistical differences in factors of satisfaction between respondents with household income under £8,000 and respondents with household income over £35,000, and between respondents with household income under £12,000 and respondents with household income over £25,000 in the central city areas.



**Figure 7-12: Factors of satisfaction by household income in the inner city**



In inner city areas, Figure 7-12 (see Table 7-12 in Appendix 2) shows that high-income respondents (over £35,000 and over £25,000) are more satisfied with 'close to work' and 'value for money' than low-income respondents (under £8,000 and under £12,000). It seems obvious that respondents with household incomes over £35,000 are more likely to be owner-occupiers and in employment, thus they were able to consider



location in relation to their workplace before purchasing housing in the area. Respondents with household incomes over £25,000 are also more likely to be owner-occupiers. They would be satisfied the price of housing in the area, as it is quite cheap. However, respondents with household income under £8,000 or under £12,000 were found to live predominantly in social housing. Again, these respondents are most often economically inactive, and will not be interested in factors, such as ‘close to work’ or ‘value for money’.

### **Factors of satisfaction by occupational status**

Figure 7-13 (see Table 7-13 in Appendix 2) also shows that in the inner city respondents with professional and managerial occupations are more satisfied with ‘central location’ of their residence than economically inactive respondents. As stated above, higher income and working status of former compared to the latter will make location an important factor.

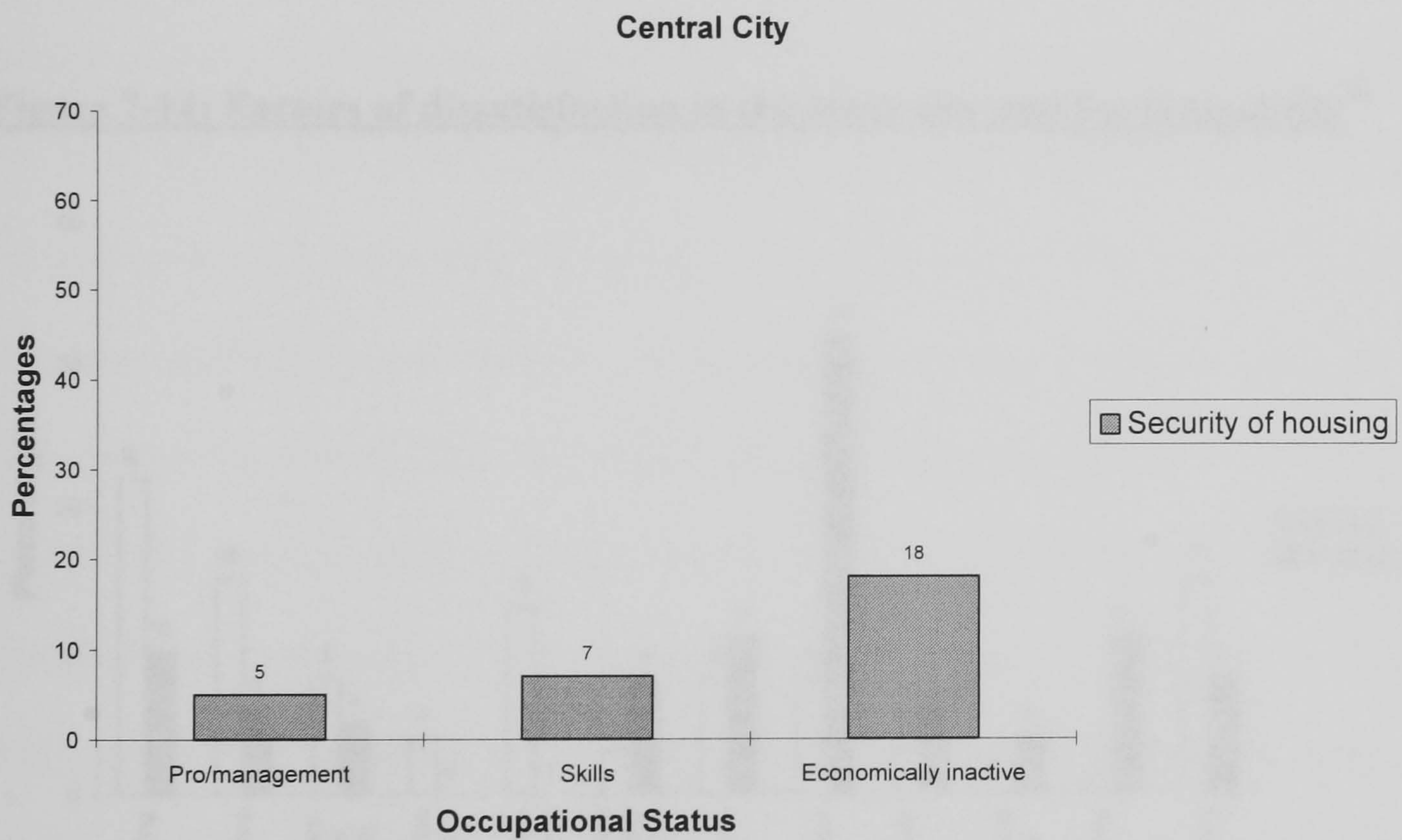
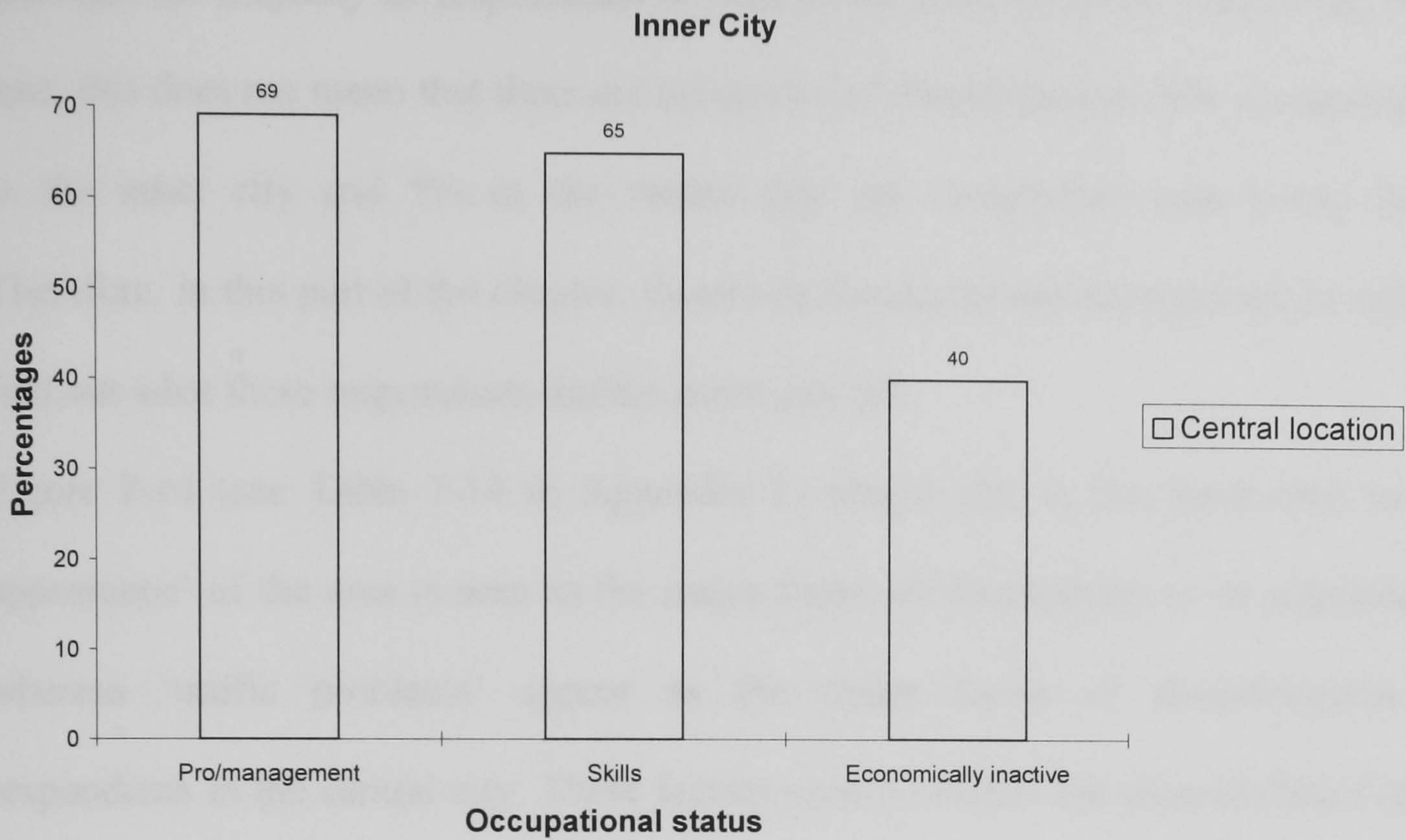
In the central city, one very interesting factor emerged. Economically inactive respondents are more satisfied with ‘the security of housing’ than respondents with professional and managerial occupations. As mentioned in Chapter 6, residents with low economic status might feel more about the risk of crime occurring than respondents with high economic status. Thus, economically inactive respondents are satisfied with the current levels of security<sup>35</sup> in their residence and respondents with professional and managerial occupations might not be satisfied with the current levels of security, or it might not be important to them because it was there.

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<sup>35</sup> During the pilot survey, I found that there are very high levels of security systems, particularly of private housing in the central city. It was very difficult to get into residential building, and when I got in the building, I found that some flats have their own CCTV outside their door.



**Figure 7-13: Factors of satisfaction by occupational status in the inner city and the central city**



**Part 5: What is it that people dislike about city life?**

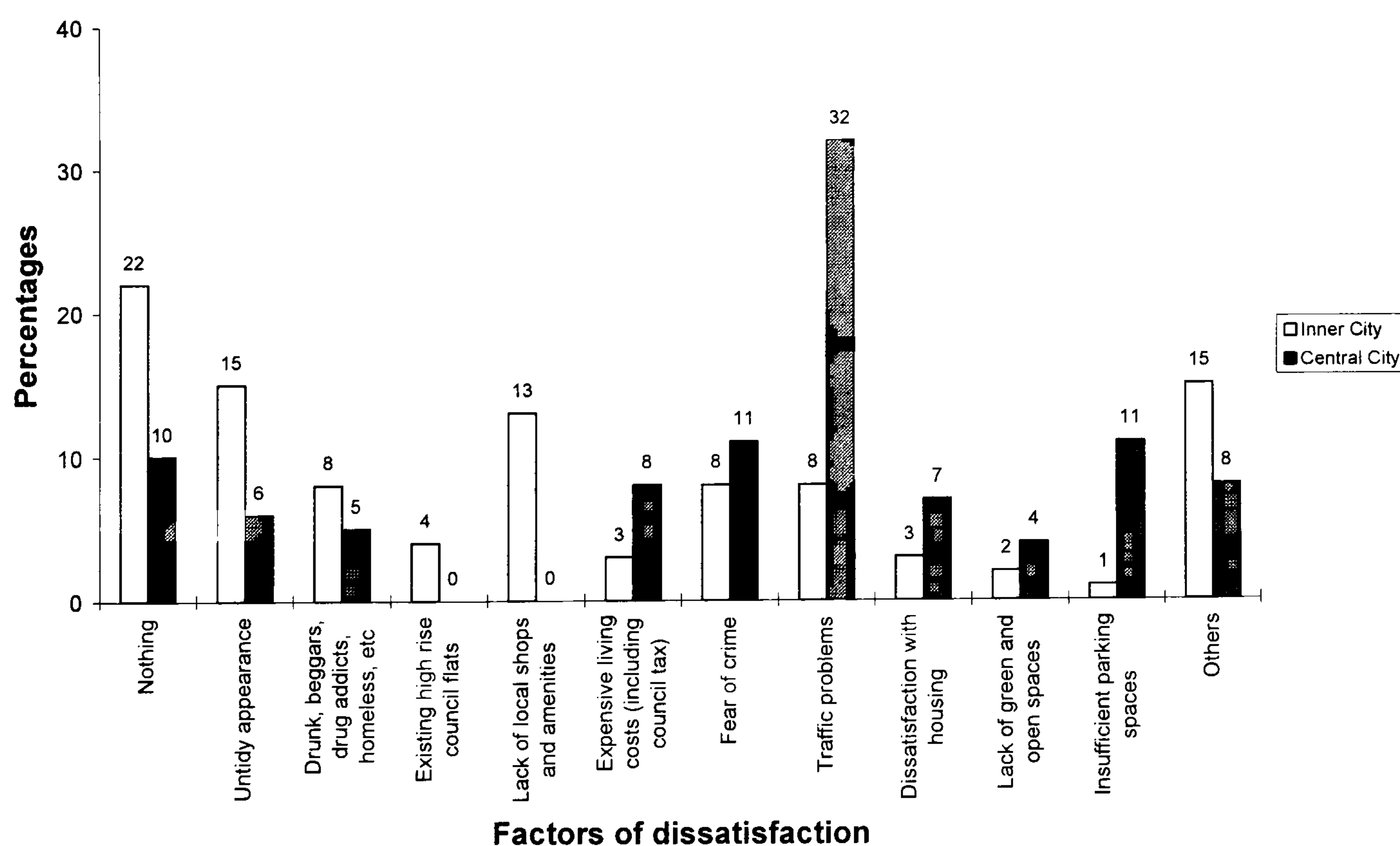
In the previous parts of the chapter, the degree of satisfaction and the factors of satisfaction were analysed. Most respondents in both cities were satisfied with living



in the area, and they mentioned many different factors of satisfaction. However, although the majority of respondents in both cities were satisfied with living in the area, this does not mean that there are no factors of dissatisfaction (4% of respondents in the inner city and 5% in the central city are dissatisfied with living there). Therefore, in this part of the chapter, factors of dissatisfaction are analysed in order to find out what these respondents dislike about city life.

Figure 7-14 (see Table 7-14 in Appendix 2) shows that in the inner city ‘untidy appearance’ of the area is seen as the major factor of dissatisfaction for respondents, whereas ‘traffic problems’ appear as the major factor of dissatisfaction for respondents in the central city. These factors seem to reflect the characteristics of the two areas.

**Figure 7-14: Factors of dissatisfaction in the inner city and the central city<sup>36</sup>**



<sup>36</sup> The figure is based on an open-ended question (Are there any things you dislike about living here?), and respondents were allowed to give more than one answers. All respondents, regardless of those who are satisfied or dissatisfied, were also allowed to answer the question. By using a one sample Chi-square test, statistical differences were tested.

In the inner city, new housing and new roads were under construction. This seems to make the area unpleasant, and feel somewhat disorganised. Central city areas of Glasgow and Manchester, like most other large cities, seem to suffer severely from traffic problems, especially during rush hour periods.

There are some, often interesting, differences in factors of dissatisfaction between respondents in the inner city and the respondents in the central city. A large percentage of respondents in the inner city mentioned 'lack of local shops and amenities' as factors of dissatisfaction, whereas no respondents in the central city mentioned this. However, respondents in the central city seem to be much more dissatisfied with the provision of parking facilities near their residence than respondents in the inner city. These findings clearly indicate existing differences in the provision of facilities and amenities between the inner city and the central city. As has been pointed out before, although large areas of new housing were built or are under construction in the inner city, there are no proper social amenities or facilities in the area, particularly in Hulme<sup>37</sup>. In contrast, a variety of social amenities are provided in the central city. The cities' primary policy encourages respondents in central city areas to walk to their workplace and to social and cultural facilities. Therefore, restrictions on the provision of parking facilities are intentional in the area. Thus, respondents in the central city might face a shortage of parking spaces near their residence. Perhaps, policy-makers must note that city centre residents do have cars despite what they would wish. It would have been wiser to restrict incoming or bypassing vehicles rather than to reduce parking facilities for people who live in the area.

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<sup>37</sup> During the survey, there were no local shops in Hulme, but in 1999 a supermarket and some other small shops were open in Hulme, thus it can be assumed that this factor of dissatisfaction might be somehow different if the survey was conducted now.



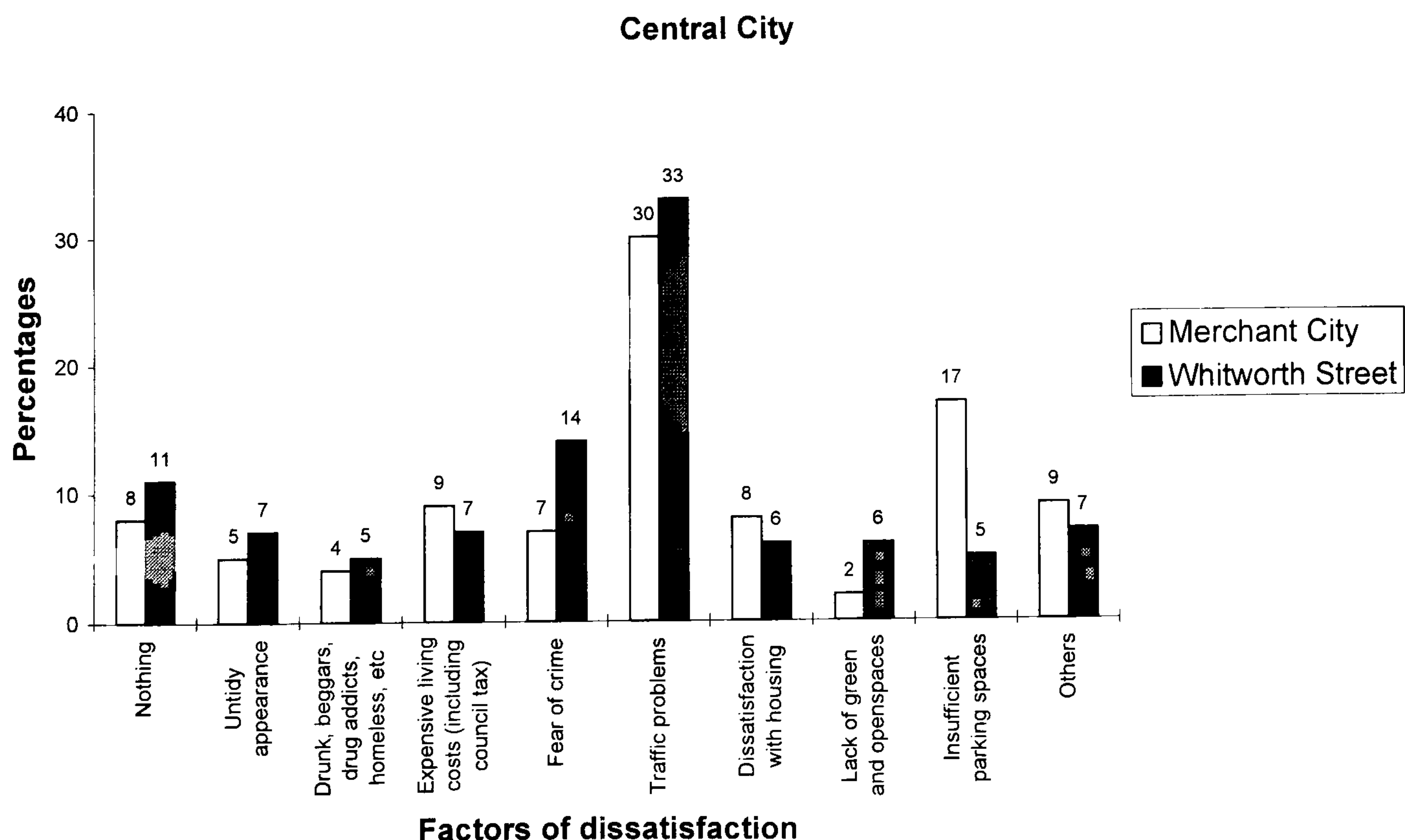
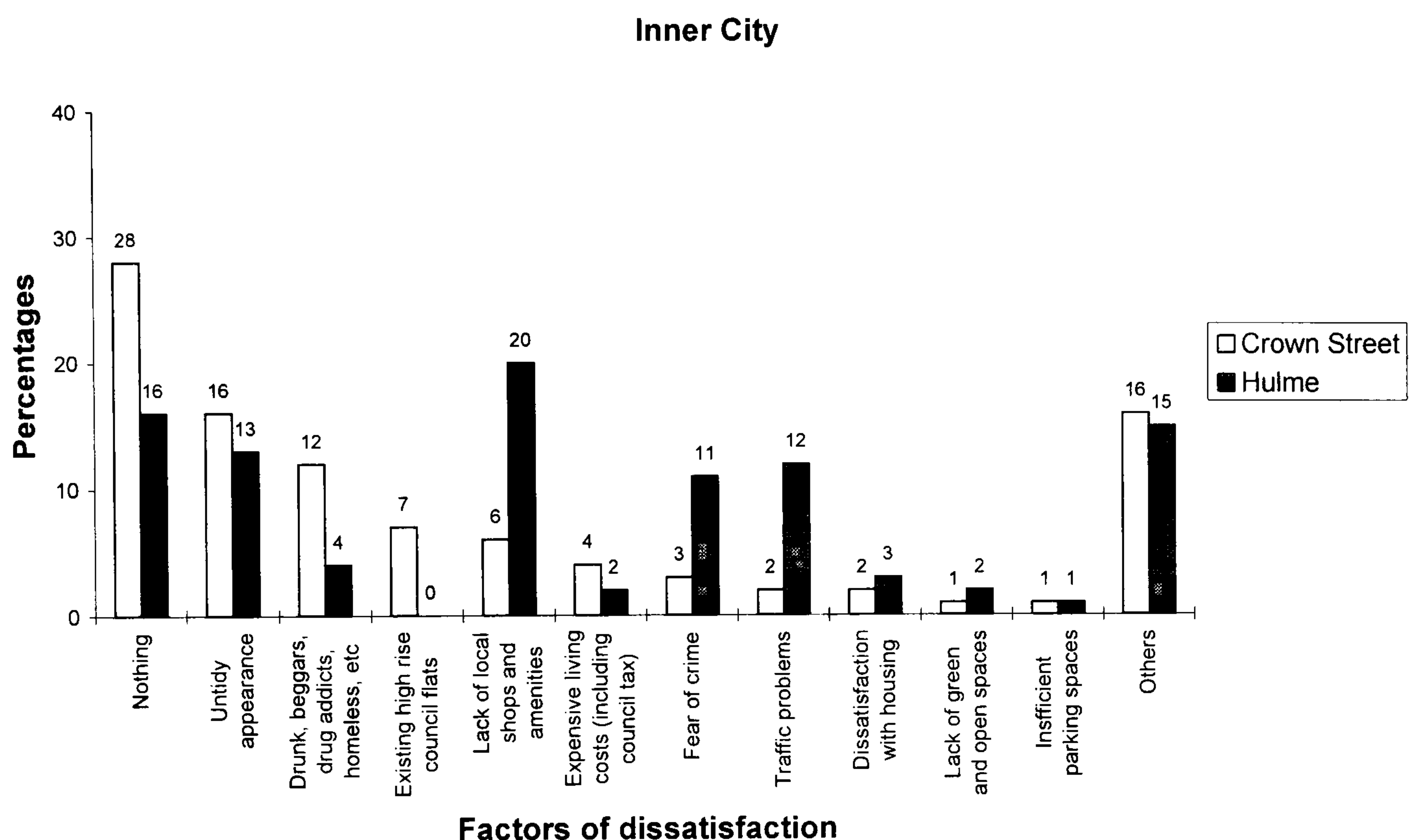
Finally, it is perhaps even more interesting that respondents in the inner city mentioned more on 'nothing' as dissatisfaction than respondents in the central city. It may be assumed that respondents in the inner city are more positive about living in the area than respondents in the central city. Many social housing respondents in the inner city experienced an unbearable condition of the area in the past. These respondents might, therefore, feel that nothing in the present would be worse compared to the past. However, as most respondents in the central city are from outside the city (80%), they have probably never experienced the previous living condition of the area. They might simply expect more for living in the area, and that provision may be seen to be insufficient compared to what they expected.

The overall results indicate that 'traffic problems' in the central city and 'lack of local shops and amenities' in the inner city appeared as the major difficulty with living in the area. However, both the areas have their own problems, which differ from one another, and are also specifically related to the characters of the areas.

Figure 7-15 (see Table 7-15 in Appendix 2) shows that, within the inner city, respondents in Crown Street were concerned with undesirable members of society (e.g., drunks, beggars, drug addicts, homeless, etc.) and 'existing high rise council flats' as factors of dissatisfaction. On the other hand, respondents in Hulme were more concerned with 'lack of local shops and amenities', 'fear of crime' and 'traffic problems' than respondents in Crown Street. This seems to reflect the characters of their residential area. In the area of Crown Street, many old high-rise council flats still exist, whereas there are no such flats now in Hulme. On the other hand, as has been mentioned before, there were no local shops and amenities in Hulme when the survey was conducted, but in Crown Street primary amenities, such as a pharmacy, small shops and a supermarket exist in the area. This difference in the availability of basic

amenities could well result in the different attitudes. Hulme was one of the most dangerous places in Britain in the past. This undesirable reputation might still affect the feelings ‘fear of crime’ of many new residents, even though the area has been regenerated.

**Figure 7-15: Factors of dissatisfaction in the four areas**



One unexpected outcome is that there are large differences in the proportion of respondents indicating ‘traffic problems’ between Crown Street and Hulme. Both



areas are in quiet inner city areas, and the areas do not seem to have any serious traffic problems. Then, why do a large proportion of respondents in Hulme mention traffic problems? It may be that residents in Hulme could have traffic problems in Chorlton Road<sup>38</sup>, which connects it to the central area of Manchester (see a map in the chapter 3). This road is very congested during the peak times in the morning and the afternoon. Many respondents might use this road to reach other parts of the Manchester region and the central city areas for their work. However, this is difficult to confirm, as respondents were not specific about it.

More respondents in Crown Street mentioned 'nothing' as dissatisfaction than respondents in Hulme. This seems to be an obvious outcome since during the survey I found that it would be quite difficult to live in Hulme without a car. This is because there were no local shops within walking distance. It would be particularly difficult for older respondents in the area. Compared to Hulme, primary necessities were fairly well provided in Crown Street. Moreover, the overall environment in Crown Street also seemed to be more organised than in Hulme.

However, some factors of dissatisfaction given by respondents in Crown Street seem to be more difficult to solve than those given by respondents in Hulme. For instance, factors, such as 'drunks, beggars, drug addicts, homeless, etc' and 'existing high rise council housing', given by residents in Crown Street would be quite difficult to solve. On the other hand, factors, such as 'lack of local shops and amenities' and 'untidy appearance' given by respondents in Hulme seem to be temporary problems. These factors could disappear when housing development finishes.

Within the central city, there are no significant differences in factors of dissatisfaction between respondents in Merchant City and respondents in Whitworth Street. It can be

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<sup>38</sup> During the survey, I went to Hulme by my car. I found that Chorlton Road was very congested, particularly in the peak time.

assumed that although the two areas are in different cities, the overall purposes of regeneration in both the areas are similar, thus the problems or factors of dissatisfaction with living in the areas are similar to each other. Only one factor of dissatisfaction was found to be different. Respondents in Merchant City are much more dissatisfied with the provision of parking facilities around their residence than respondents in Whitworth Street. In Merchant City, many residential buildings in the area do not have their own parking spaces. This is in order to encourage residents to walk to shops or to work. Moreover, controlled and selective on-street parking is also imposed to reduce traffic congestion in the area. However, since its rapid development, Merchant City is unable to cope adequately with all traffic demands placed on it, and demand for car parking from shoppers and respondents is not matched by supply (Jones & Patrick, 1992). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, residents in the central city do have a car despite what policy-makers would wish. Giving up car-ownership for living in the area might be too much to ask of residents in the central city. Parking difficulty was the second most mentioned factor (17%) of dissatisfaction in Merchant City. It might happen that people in Merchant City could leave as a result of parking difficulties. Therefore, this parking difficulty seems to provide a conflict of policy objectives.

The overall results indicate that within the inner city there are large differences in factors of dissatisfaction between respondents in Crown Street and respondents in Hulme. The differences seem to reflect each area's own problems. On the other hand, within the central city there are similarities in factors of dissatisfaction between residents in Merchant City and residents in Whitworth Street because the purposes and policies of regeneration are similar to each other.



**Part 6: Factors of dissatisfaction by residents with different social and economic backgrounds**

Factors of dissatisfaction may be expected to be different between residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the survey areas. However, this study found that there is very little significant difference between them. In the inner city, there are no differences between residents with different household size, types of tenure, age, household income, occupational status, and previous location of residence. In the central city, there are no differences between residents with different household size, age, household income, and occupational status. Only in tenure type does a difference show up.

**Factors of dissatisfaction by types of tenure**

**Figure 7-16: Factors of dissatisfaction by types of tenure in the central city**

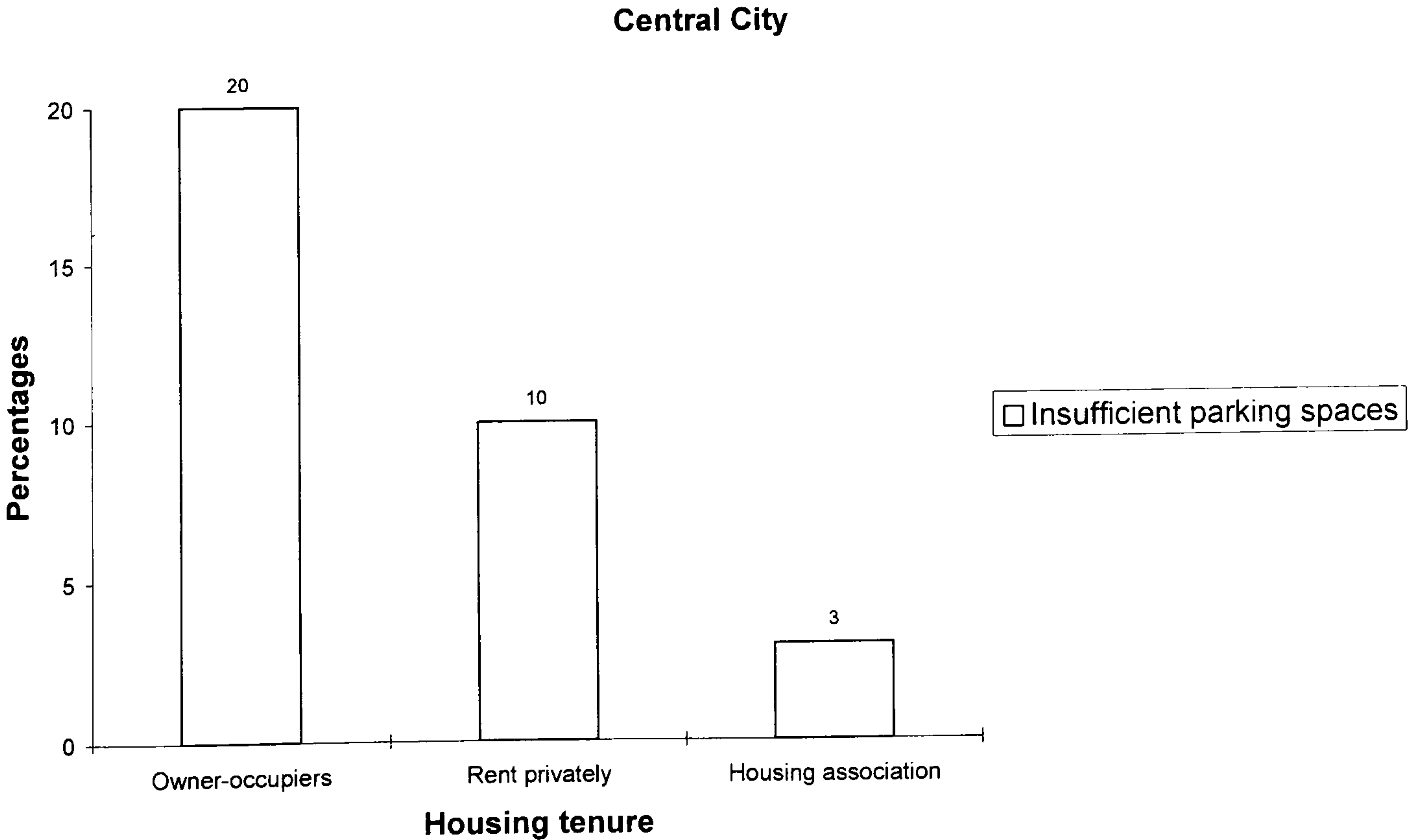


Figure 7-16 (see Table 7-16 in Appendix 2) shows that owner-occupiers in the central city are more disappointed with the provision of parking facilities near their residence than other types of tenure. Owner-occupiers are more likely to be able to afford cars. Also, many residents, who rent housing privately, are likely to be students. These residents may not be able to afford a car, and their university is also quite close to their residence. Residents in social housing might be also less likely to afford a car than owner-occupiers.

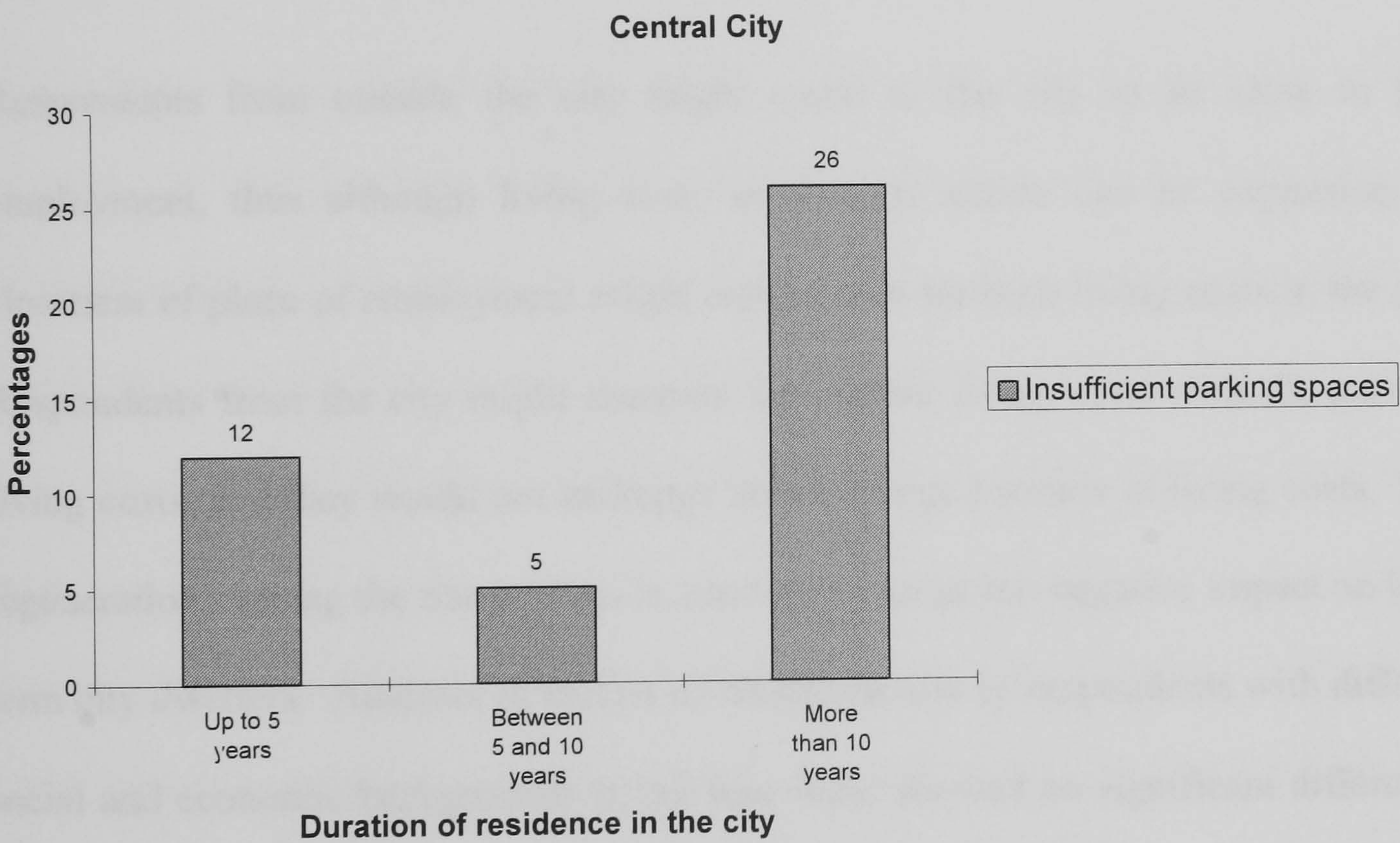
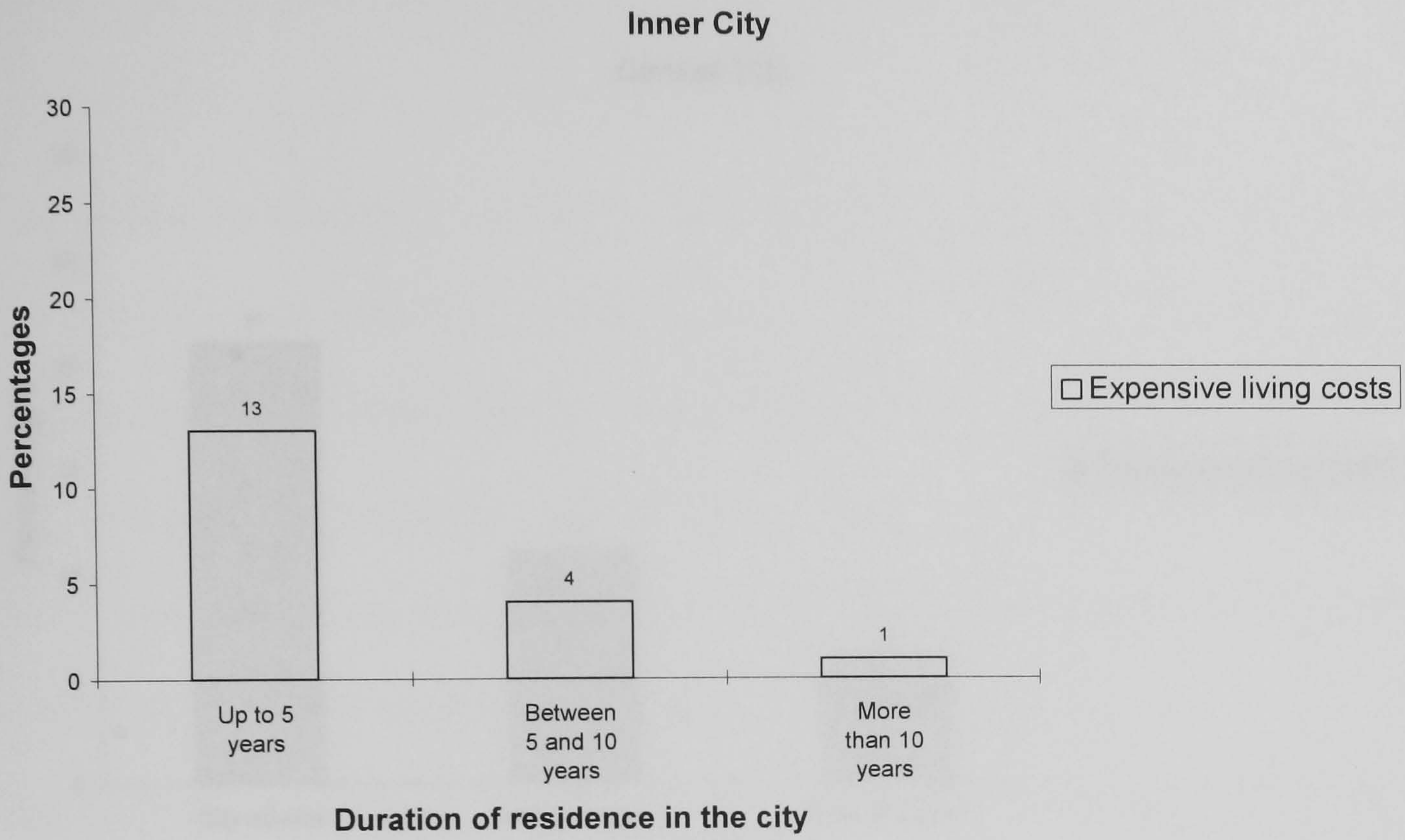
### **Factors of dissatisfaction by duration of residence in the city**

Figure 7-17 (see Table 7-17 in Appendix 2) shows that inner city respondents, who have lived in the city for less than 5 years, are more disappointed with 'expensive living costs' in the area than respondents who have lived in the city for more than 5 years. Respondents with a short period of residence may come to the area for cheaper housing and might not realise or expect the high cost of living in the city. On the other hand, respondents, who have lived in the city for more than 5 years, are more likely to take account of the increasing living costs that has resulted from the regeneration process in the city.

In the central city, respondents who have lived in the city for more than 10 years, are more dissatisfied with the provision of parking facilities near their residence than other respondents who have lived in the city for less than 10 years. This may be because they have lived there before regeneration of the city and, therefore, have more experience of the growing demand for parking facilities in the city centre caused by regeneration in the city.



**Figure 7-17: Factors of dissatisfaction by duration of residence in the central city and the inner city**

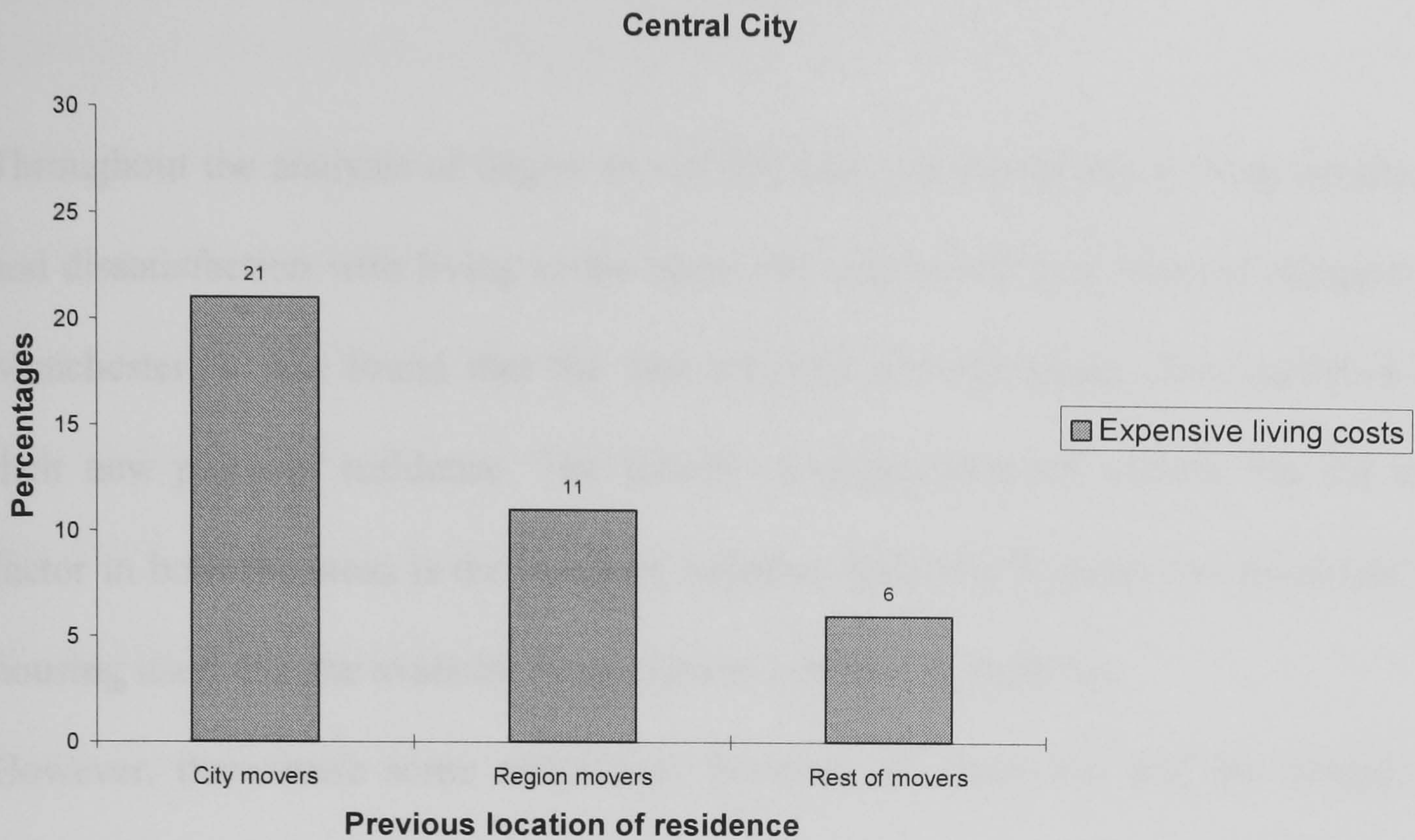


**Factors of dissatisfaction by previous location of residence**

Figure 7-18 (see Table 7-18 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in the central city, who are from the city, are more dissatisfied with 'expensive living costs' in their residence than respondents who are from outside the city.



**Figure 7-18: Factors of dissatisfaction by previous location of residence in the central city**



Respondents from outside the city might come to the city to be close to their employment, thus although living costs in the city centre can be expensive, the closeness of place of employment might compensate for high living costs in the area. Respondents from the city might compare the current living costs with the previous living costs, and they would not be happy about a large increase in living costs. Thus regeneration causing the rise in costs in central city areas has negative impact on long-term city dwellers. Analysis of factors of dissatisfaction by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds in the four areas showed no significant differences with the results in the inner city and the central city.



## **Summary**

Throughout the analysis of degree of satisfaction, and the factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction with living in the inner city and central city areas of Glasgow and Manchester, it was found that the vast majority of respondents were satisfied with their new place of residence. The factors of satisfaction are various but the major factor in both the areas is the location, together with 'the closeness to amenities', the housing itself and the availability of cultural and leisure facilities.

However, there were some differences between the inner city and the central city. Respondents in the inner city areas are more satisfied with location and things related to housing, whereas respondents in the central city although also satisfied with the location, are more satisfied with the availability of facilities in their residential areas than respondents in the inner city areas. Respondents in the inner city areas found the housing itself as the most noticeable beneficial factor for living in the area. On the other hand, residents in the central city found many beneficial factors living in the area.

It was interesting that factors of satisfaction given by new residents in the survey areas showed no similarities with the set of factors of quality of life identified by the specially commissioned survey. This may be because the factors of satisfaction were being specific about their neighbourhood rather than urban living generally.

Another interesting finding is that the major reasons that residents gave for choosing to live in the area seem to be no longer important when actually living in the area. This indicates that the reasons for residence are not the same as factors leading to the continuation and sustainability of reurbanisation.

There were also some differences between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds. Owner-occupiers in the inner city are more satisfied with the location of their residence than respondents in social housing, especially with the 'closeness of all social amenities' than respondents in social housing.

There are different factors affecting the satisfaction of different age groups in the inner city. Young respondents are more satisfied with the location of their residence and the value for money aspect than older respondents. Respondents with different household income in the inner city also have differences in factors of satisfaction. Respondents with household incomes over £35,000 are more satisfied with closeness to the place of employment than respondents with household income under £8,000. Also, respondents with household income over £25,000 are more satisfied with the value for money aspects than respondents with household income under £12,000. In the inner city, respondents with professional and managerial occupations are more satisfied with the location of their residence than economically inactive respondents. In the central city, economically inactive respondents are more satisfied with the security of housing than respondents with professional and managerial occupations. However, although there are some differences between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds, factors of satisfaction given by them do not differ substantially from one another.

Respondents in the areas under study also expressed some factors of dissatisfaction with living in their area. Respondents in the central city seem to be slightly more dissatisfied than respondents in the inner city. In the inner city, 'untidy appearance' of the area is the major dissatisfaction. On the other hand, traffic problems are the major dissatisfaction with living in the central city. The analysis of factors of dissatisfaction is all concerned with problems of the area and not with the housing. However, factors



of dissatisfaction mentioned by respondents in Crown Street seem to be more difficult to solve than the factors mentioned by respondents in Hulme, which are short-term.

The analysis showed no significant differences between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds. This may be because respondents, regardless of social and economic differences, both within the inner city and within the central city face similar problems.

Nevertheless, the overall results indicate that most respondents are satisfied with living in the areas under study. Therefore, initially, the housing development in both Glasgow and Manchester can be regarded as successful in reurbanising the cities, sustaining population in the cities and interest in city living.

## **Chapter 8: Urban regeneration & perceptions of the city**

### **Introduction**

Urban regeneration is an idea that epitomises both the perception of city decline (e.g. in the use of land and buildings, in the quality of the environment and social life, or in local economics) and the hope of renewal, overturning trends in order to discover new bases for economic revival and social well being (Parkinson, 1989).

As mentioned in the main chapter, almost two decades ago the cities of Glasgow and Manchester were seen as two of the worst cities to live in or to visit in Britain.

Over the past decade, numerous developments and improvements (a variety of cultural flagship developments including the construction of prestigious cultural and leisure facilities, such as the Burrell Collection, a new concert hall, and variety of galleries and museums, in Glasgow, and the Bridgewater Hall, the G-Mex, and a variety of galleries, museums, and sports facilities in Manchester) have taken place in both cities which have attempted to change both the physical environment and the economic context of the cities. Moreover, Glasgow's promotional campaign ('Glasgow's Miles Better') and Manchester's bid to host the 2000 Olympic Games also seemed to generate changes in perceptions of the city. One study conducted by the Struther Advertising and Marketing Agency<sup>39</sup> recorded the effect of 'Glasgow's Miles Better' campaign with a survey among people in England and Wales about perceptions of Glasgow before and after the campaign. Perceptions of Glasgow before the campaign were, among this group, extremely negative (e.g., the dominant images

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<sup>39</sup> The agency initiated and carried out the promotional campaign 'Glasgow's Miles Better'.



of Glasgow were unemployment, drunkenness, bad housing and violence). On the other hand, after the campaign negative perceptions of the city undoubtedly changed. An image of the city as a centre for culture and tourism had taken place. The city of Glasgow was also seen as a friendlier and generally more attractive place to live in or visit (Lewis, 1990). In 1990, the city of Glasgow finally became the European City of Culture. This prestigious award also affected the perceptions of people who lived in other parts of Britain. Paddison (1993) collected survey opinions within white-collar households in the south-east of England at the start and end of 1990. His study indicated that there was a substantial increase in those who felt that the city was rapidly changing for the better. However, Paddison's study also indicated that the European City of Culture did not really affect the desirability of relocation to Glasgow- only a small number of respondents said that they would be happy to live and work there. Another survey of Glasgow 1990 conducted by Myerscough (1991) also indicated a negative result in that, even by the beginning of the following year, perceptions of the city, both in general and as a cultural centre, were reverting slightly, and significantly fewer saw the city as an exciting place to visit.

It is assumed that both cities' improvements might produce more positive attitudes from people who live in other parts of Britain, but it does not really indicate whether those people who live in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester also have positive attitudes towards their city. However, the analyses of new residents of the survey areas, so far, indicate that they are very positive about living in their city. This indication suggests that there would be positive perceptions of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester among residents in the areas. In this chapter, therefore, the major aim is to examine what residents in the areas under study feel about the current state of the city and what perceptions of the present city they hold.

## Part 1: Degree of Attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s

Throughout the 1980s and early 1990s, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have attempted to change their image as well as their economic context. It seems that the perceptions of the cities from outside are also more positive. Therefore it is undoubtedly interesting to see how residents in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester feel about their city and whether the present city is more or less attractive when compared to the city in the 1970s.

**Figure 8-1: Attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s in the inner city and the central city**<sup>40</sup>

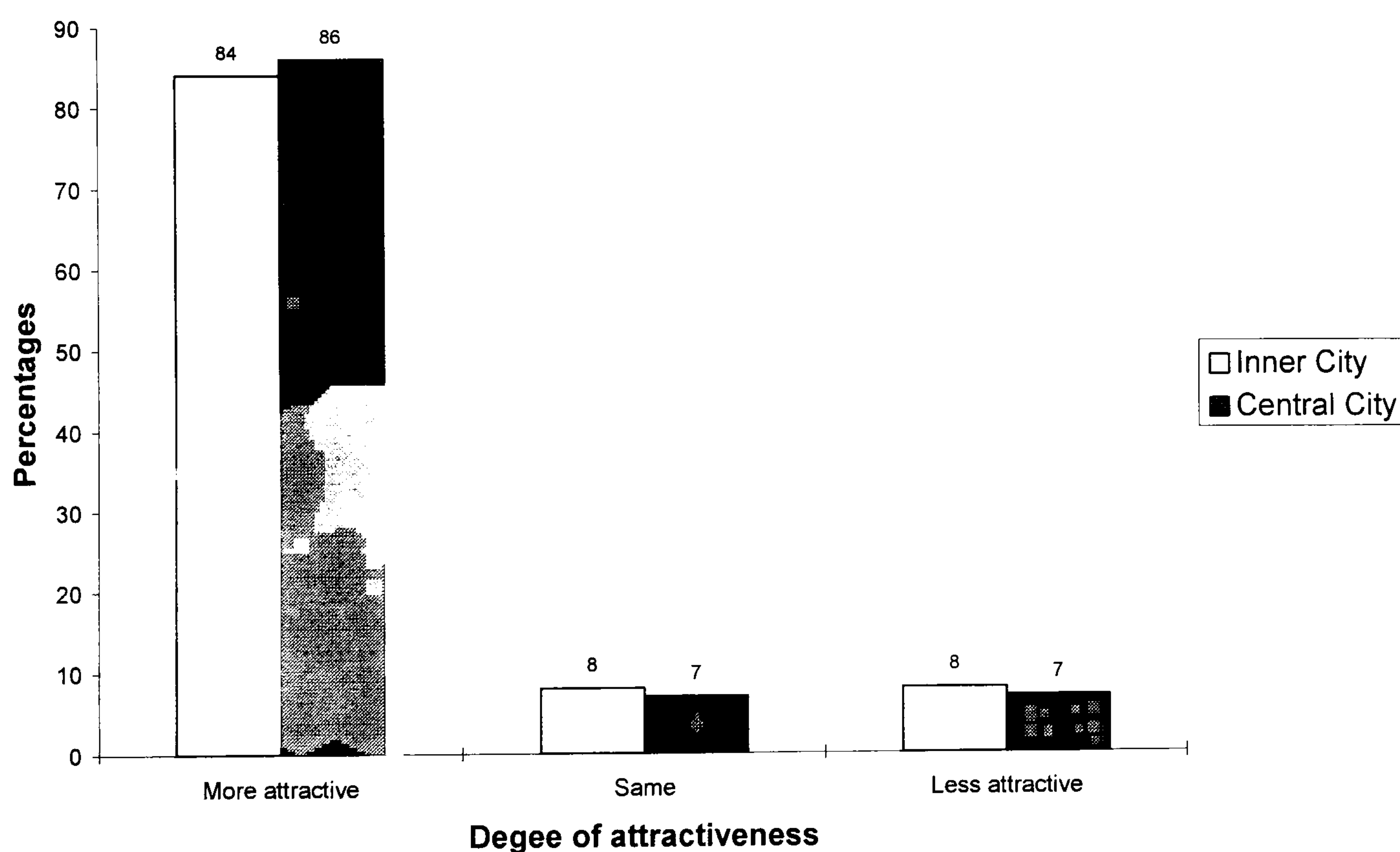


Figure 8-1 (see Table 8-1 in Appendix 2) shows that a vast majority of respondents, who lived in the 1970s, in both the inner city and the central city indicated that the present city is more attractive than the city in the 1970s. This means that most

<sup>40</sup> The figure is based on Q10 (Do you think that the city of Glasgow (Manchester) now is more attractive than in the 1970s?). Here, respondents are only allowed to answer if they lived in the cities in the 1970s, as the main purpose is to compare attractiveness of Glasgow and Manchester between the 1970s and the 1990s.



respondents, who lived in the 1970s in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, are more positive about the present city than the city in the 1970s. However, there are substantial differences in respondents' view on attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s between Glasgow and Manchester.

**Figure 8-2: Attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s in Glasgow and Manchester**

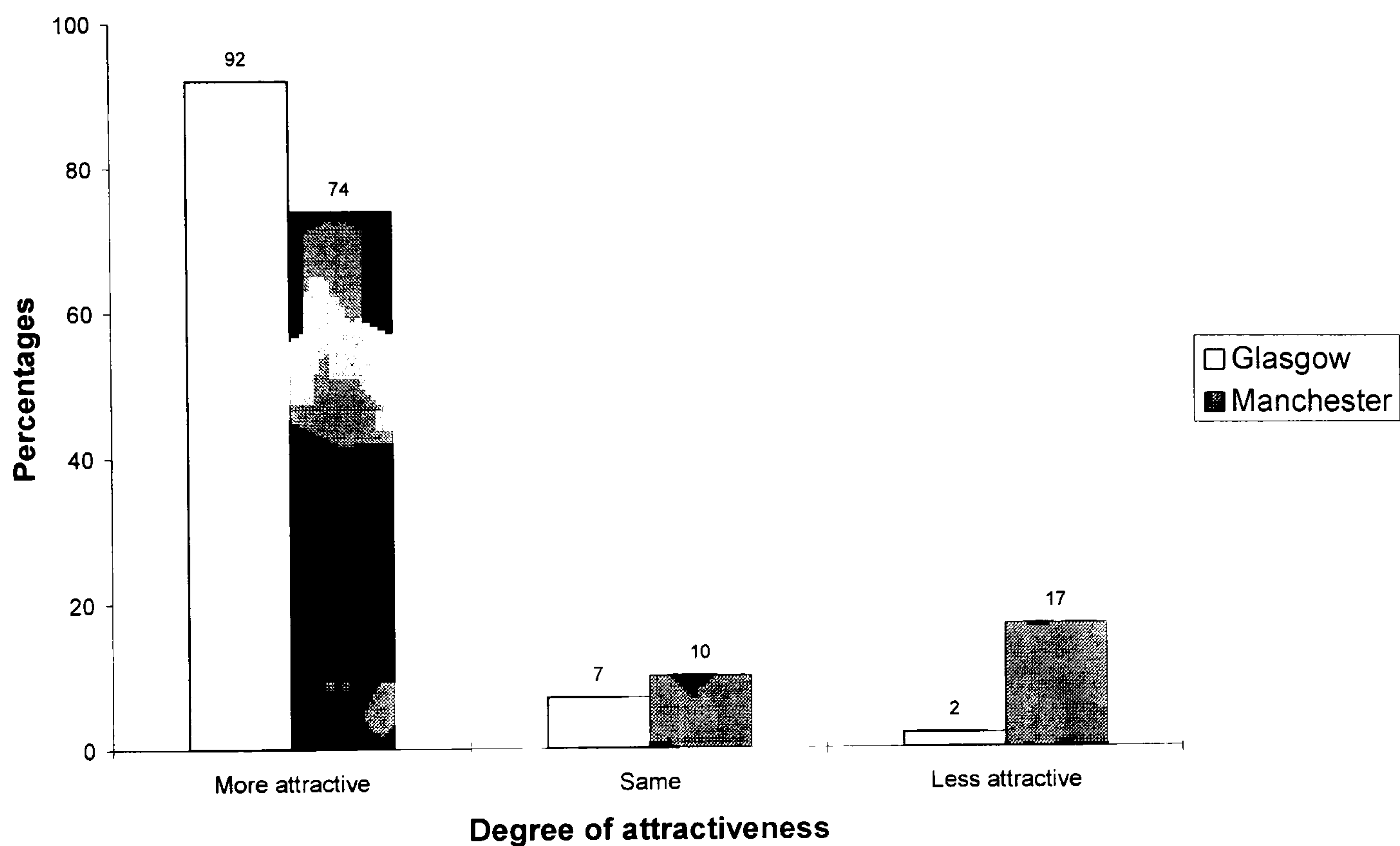


Figure 8-2 (see Table 8-2 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in Glasgow, who lived in the city in the 1970s, are more positive about the present city than respondents in Manchester. The difference raises the question why this is so. There are several possible explanations. Firstly, it may be because Glasgow in the 1970s was much worse than Manchester in terms of its physical environment, thus the changes in Glasgow might be seen as more dramatic than the changes in Manchester. Secondly, Glasgow might publicise more widely or convincingly its progress or improvements than did Manchester, which made more respondents in Glasgow understand what had been going on. Finally, Glasgow actually achieved the title of

European City of Culture in 1990 that respondents are proud of, whereas the city of Manchester failed to host the 1996 and 2000 Olympic Games. The opinions of respondents in Glasgow and Manchester might reflect such different factors. Nevertheless, although there are differences between Glasgow and Manchester, it is clear that most respondents in the survey areas view the present city more positively. Degree of attractiveness of the city when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results of the inner city and the central city. The analysis of respondents' feelings about their present city by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds also found no significant differences between them.

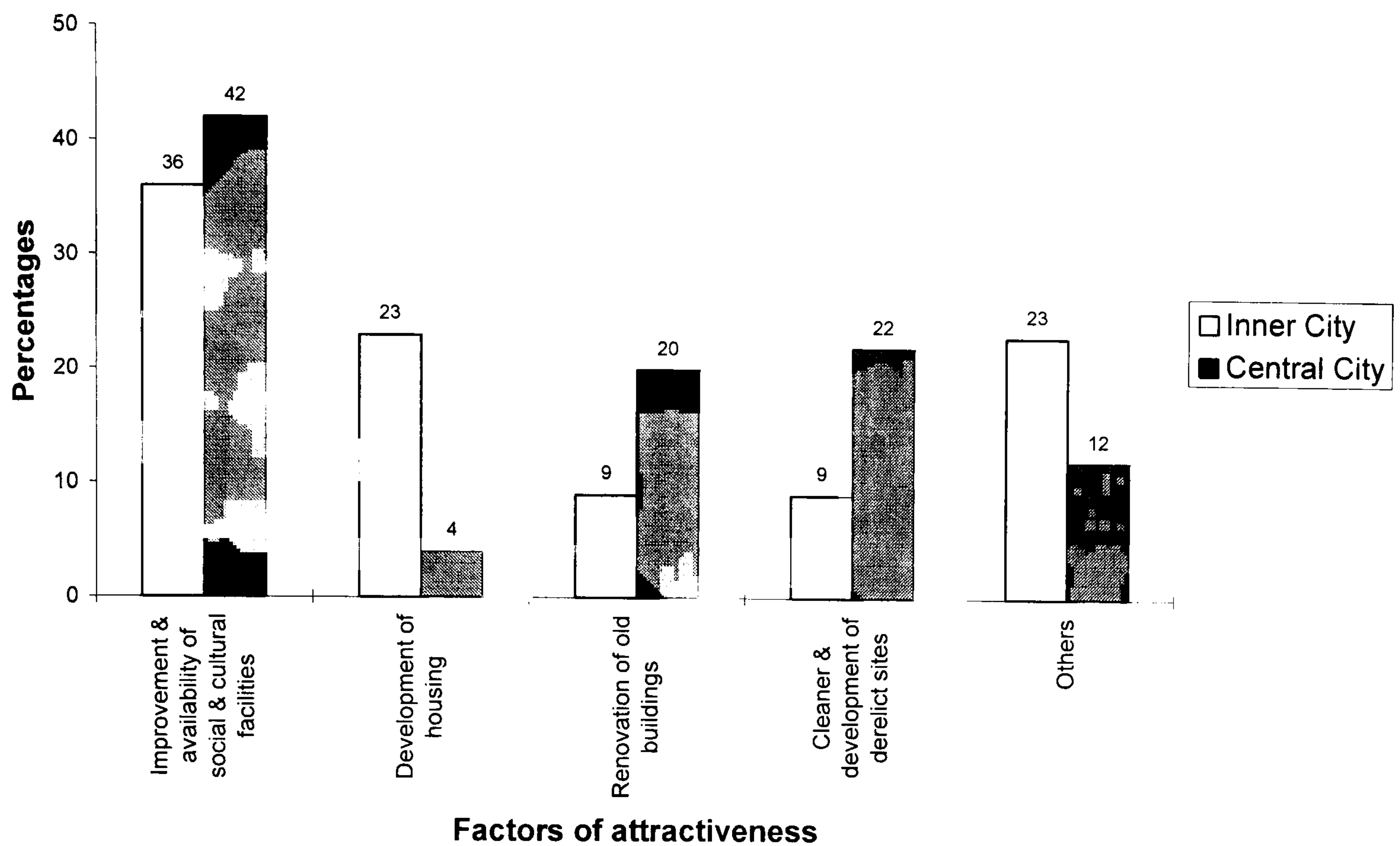
## **Part 2: Factors of attractiveness compared to the city in the 1970s**

In the previous section, a majority of residents in the survey areas showed positive feelings about the present city. Therefore it is interesting to examine what factors in the present city make residents of the inner city and the central city feel that their city is more attractive compared to the past.

Figure 8-3 (see Table 8-3 in Appendix 2) shows that the major factor of attractiveness compared to the 1970s in both the inner city and the central city is 'improvement and availability of social and cultural facilities'. It appears that the provision of social and cultural facilities in both cities is seen by new residents as the most important factor for making the present city more attractive. However, there are substantial differences in factors of attractiveness between respondents in the inner city and the central city.



**Figure 8-3: Factors of Attractiveness compared to the 1970s in the inner city and the central city<sup>41</sup>**



Respondents in the inner city seem to be more appreciative of ‘the development of housing’ than respondents in the central city. On the other hand, respondents in the central city seem to be more convinced by factors, such as ‘renovation of old buildings’ and ‘cleaner and development of derelict sites’ than respondents in the inner city. The results seem to confirm factors that have generated major changes in the areas. Housing development in the inner city has changed the overall environment of the area. Moreover, it has provided decent housing for social housing renters and cheap private housing for lower middle-class owner-occupiers. Housing development is, therefore, not unexpectedly the most important provision for respondents in the inner city. On the other hand, the renovation of historically important buildings and the development of unused old industrial sites can be seen as important actions for the

<sup>41</sup> Respondents, who lived in the 1970s, in both cities are only allowed to answer this question (Q11. What things make the city more attractive to live in now?), and the question is an open-ended question, thus respondents are also allowed to give more than one answer. The overall response in this question is very low- 118 respondents (48.2%) out of 245 total respondents in the inner city and 68 respondents (15.6%) out of 436 total respondents in the central city.

overall changes in the central city. This is because these changes can make the area more liveable in and attractive and this may increase the value of the area (e.g., housing value). This is important, as most respondents in the central city are owner-occupiers. Therefore factors of attractiveness given by respondents in the inner city and the central city seem to be related to the type of regeneration that has largely affected the area.

The analysis of the four areas by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds on this issue showed no significant differences, as few respondents in the survey areas lived there in the 1970s.

### **Part 3: Factors of unattractiveness compared to the 1970s**

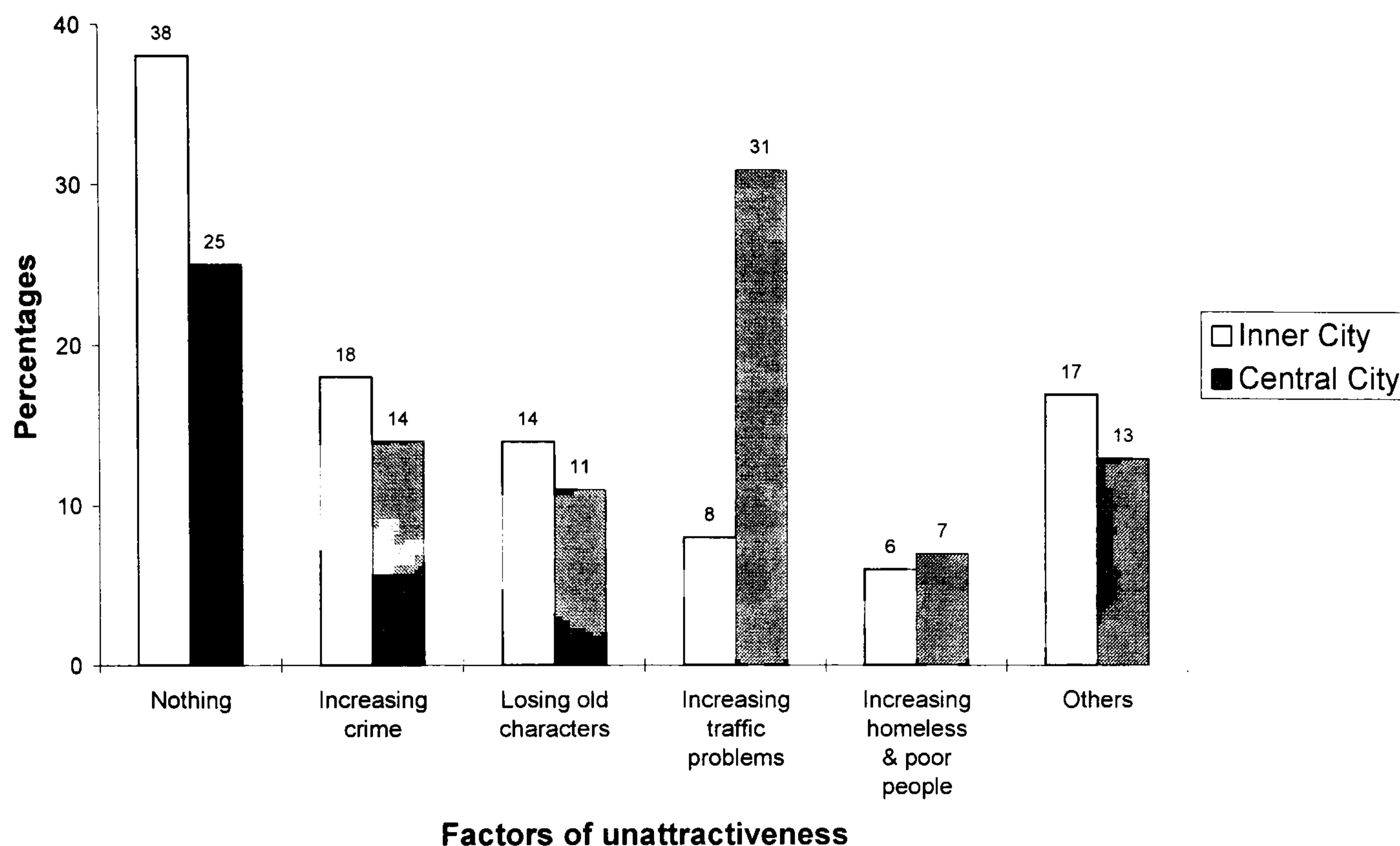
In the previous section, only a small proportion answered but most eligible respondents claimed that the city now is more attractive than the city in the 1970s, and many respondents also indicated that the increase in the provision of social and cultural facilities in the city resulted in making the city more attractive. However, since the cities have largely changed their physical environment, it is possible that there may be some unattractive features in the city today compared to the city in the 1970s.

Figure 8-4 (see Table 8-4 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in the inner city mentioned more on 'nothing' as unattractive compared to the city in the 1970s than respondents in the central city. This can be an indication that respondents in the inner city are more positive about the present city than respondents in the central city. As the inner city was much worse in terms of its overall environment than the central city



in the 1970s, residents in this area might be more appreciative of the changes that have been made than respondents in the central city.

**Figure 8-4: Factors of unattractiveness compared to the 1970s in the inner city and the central city<sup>42</sup>**



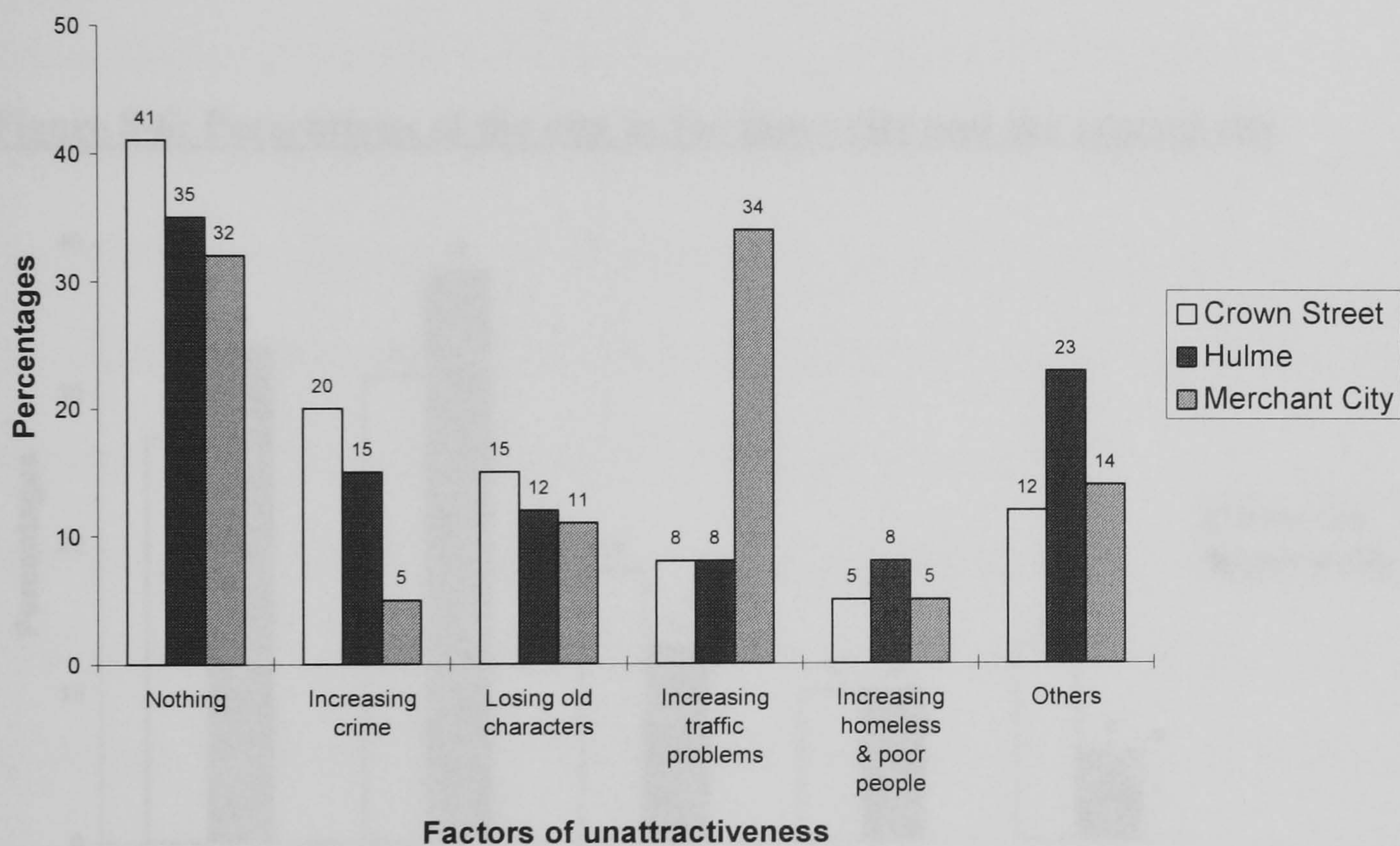
Respondents in the central city would be more likely to face traffic problems nowadays than residents in the inner city, a substantially larger percentage of respondents in the central city mentioned ‘increasing traffic problems’ compared to the 1970s. When dividing the results into the four areas, in Whitworth Street there are no significant differences in factors of unattractiveness between respondents because only a small number of respondents in Whitworth Street lived in the city in the 1970s. Figure 8-5 (see Table 8-5 in Appendix 2) shows that there are some interesting differences in factors of unattractiveness between respondents in the inner city areas (Crown Street & Hulme) and respondents in Merchant City. In the inner city areas,

<sup>42</sup> The figure is made from Q12 (What things make the city less attractive than in the 1970s?), which is an open-ended. Respondents were allowed to give more than one factor, but only respondents who lived in the 1970s were allowed to answer. The overall response in this question is very low- 107 respondents (43.7%) out of 245 total respondents in the inner city and 63 respondents (14.4%) out of 436 total respondents in the central city.



‘increasing crime’ was the most often indicated feature of unattractiveness in the present city compared to the city in the 1970s, but only few respondents in Merchant City mentioned this. It seems that many respondents in the inner city areas felt that the level of crime actually has increased in the current city since the 1970s. On the other hand, respondents in Merchant City saw ‘increasing traffic problems’ as the major factor of unattractiveness, but very few respondents in Crown Street and Hulme thought this was the case.

**Figure 8-5: Factors of unattractiveness in the four areas**



This is because respondents in Merchant City would experience traffic problems more often than respondents in inner city areas, where there is much less traffic problem compared to the city centre.

As there is a small number of respondents who lived in the city in the 1970s, it is not appropriate to analyse factors of unattractiveness by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds. There are no statistically significant differences between them.



## **Part 4: Residents' perceptions of the present day city** <sup>43</sup>

So far, respondents' views of the present city compared to the city in the 1970s were analysed. As mentioned above, both cities had an unpleasant reputation in the past. However, the previous findings in this chapter clearly demonstrated that the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have improved their images from unattractive to attractive. Therefore it is interesting to see what perceptions respondents hold about their present city. In this section, current perceptions of all respondents in the survey will be analysed.

**Figure 8-6: Perceptions of the city in the inner city and the central city**

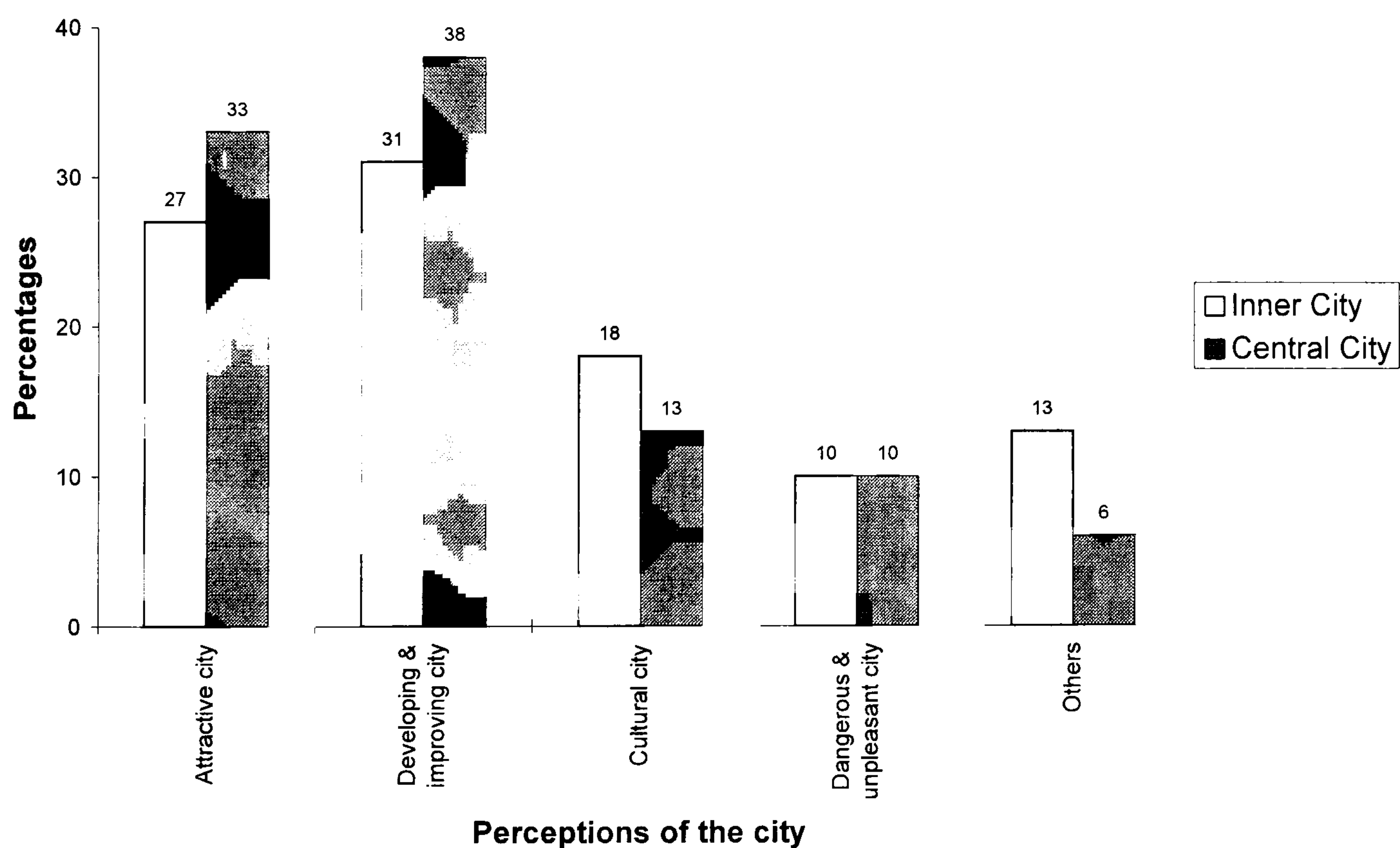


Figure 8-6 (see Table 8-6 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in both the inner city and the central city had very positive perceptions of the present city. Most respondents in the inner city and the central city had positive perceptions of the city today (e.g., 'attractive city', 'developing and improving city', and 'cultural city'), but

<sup>43</sup> For this part of the survey, all residents were asked to answer the questions.

only 10% of residents mentioned negative perceptions, such as ‘dangerous and unpleasant city’. The major perception of the city for respondents in both the inner city and the central city is ‘a developing and improving city’. The analysis shows that there are no significant differences in perceptions of the city today between respondents in the inner city and the central city.

Figure 8-7 (see Table 8-7 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in Crown Street see the city as ‘an attractive and cultural city’, whereas respondents in Hulme see their city predominantly as a ‘developing and improving city’. Moreover, respondents in Hulme have more negative perceptions than respondents in Crown Street.

In the central city areas, there are no significant differences in positive perceptions of the city between respondents in Merchant City and respondents in Whitworth Street.

But residents in Whitworth Street had more negative perceptions than respondents in Merchant City. Therefore the results may suggest that respondents in Manchester as a

whole seem to hold more negative perceptions (e.g., dangerous and unpleasant) about their present city than respondents in Glasgow. This raises an interesting question as

to whether Manchester actually is more dangerous and unpleasant than Glasgow. The negative perceptions of Manchester might be as a result of the IRA bomb on 15 June

1996. It was the biggest bomb to explode on mainland Britain since the Second World War, which devastated Manchester’s city centre, wrecking buildings in a 60-acre

radius and injuring 300 people, 13 seriously (Manchester Evening News, 11. 6. 1997).

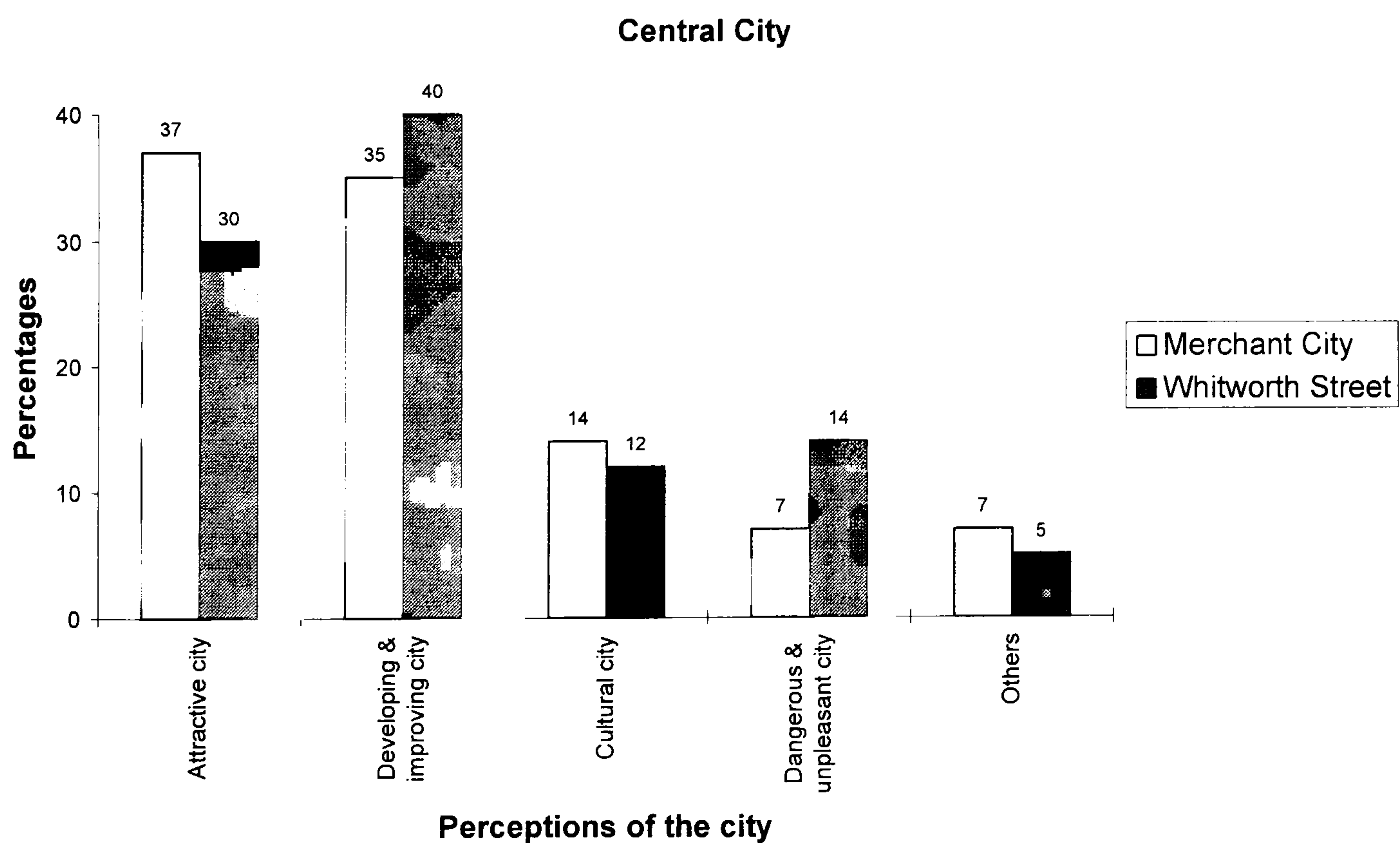
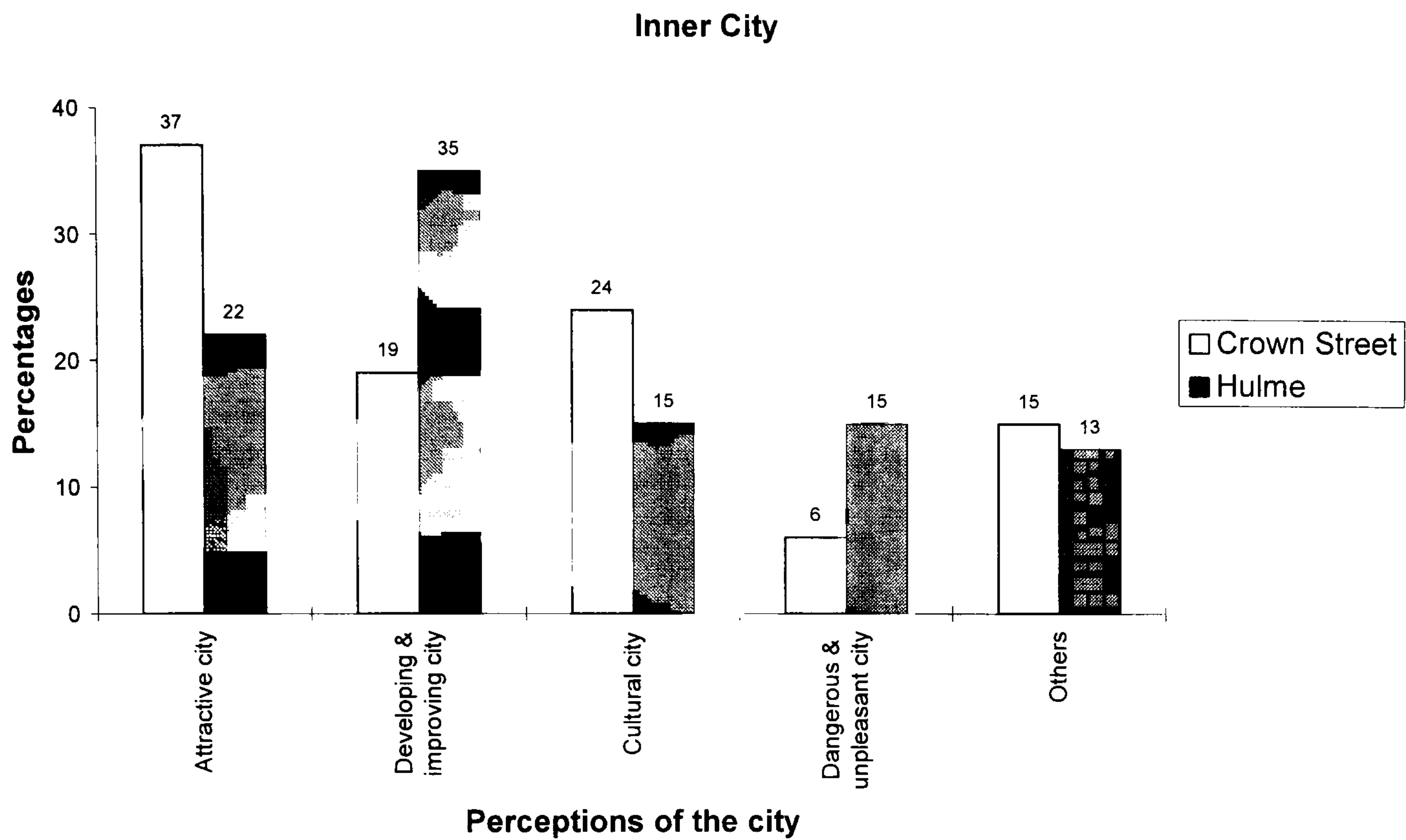
As the survey was conducted in early 1998, the devastating result of the bomb might still affect respondents’ feelings about their city, which might also result in negative

perceptions of the city. Moreover, horrific crime scenes on national press (nicknamed ‘Gunchester’) and TV crime series based on Manchester might also somehow affect



negative perceptions of the city. However, as there are not yet any studies on this, it is hard to confirm whether these had actually affected perceptions of the city.

**Figure 8-7: Perceptions of the present city in the four areas**

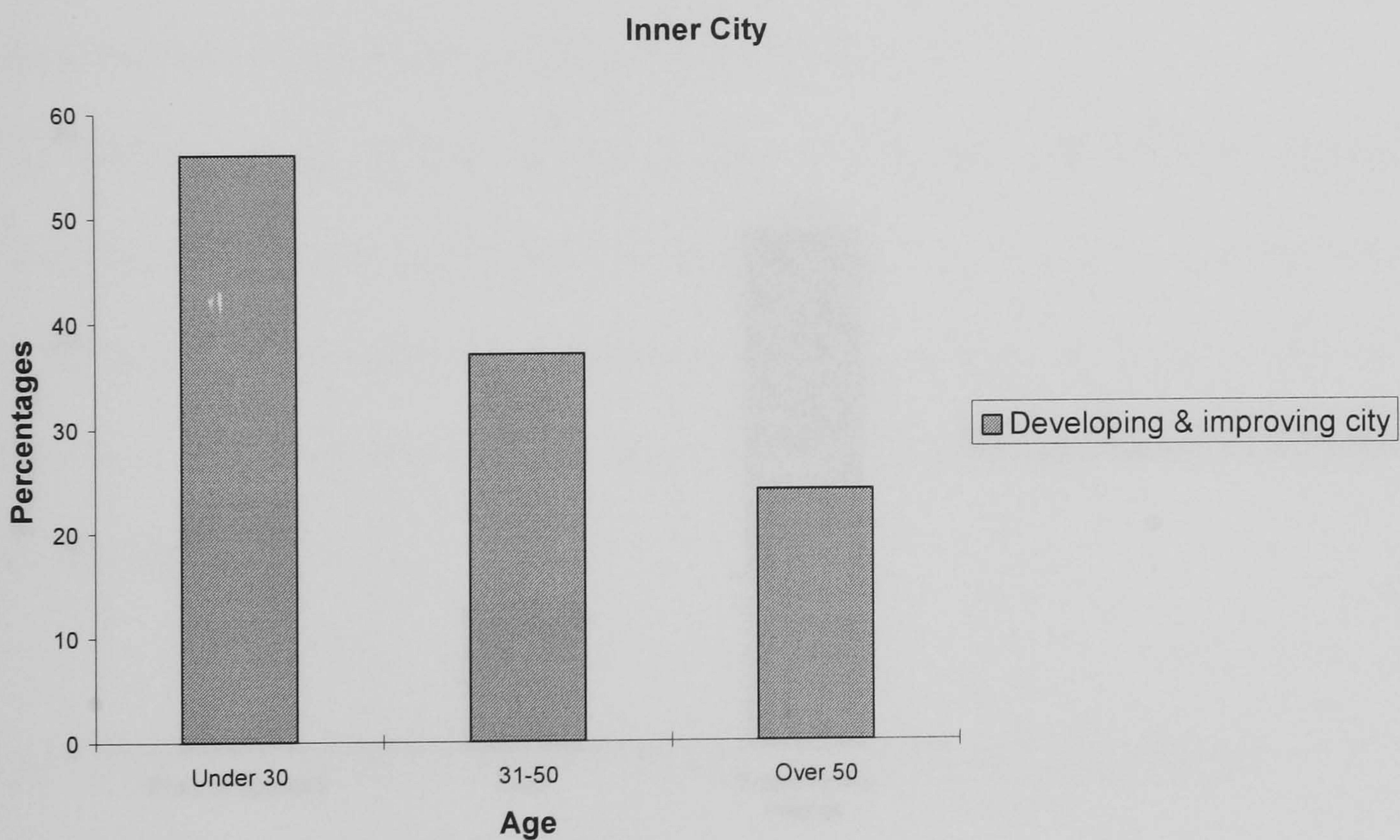


Analysis of perceptions of the city by different social and economic backgrounds found some significant differences between respondents in the inner city and the central city.



Figure 8-8 (see Table 8-8 in Appendix 2) shows that inner city respondents aged under 30 years old see ‘developing and improving city’ more than respondents aged over 50 years old. There are no statistical differences between respondents aged under 30 years old and residents aged 31-50 in this analysis. The difference might be as a result of economic differences between young respondents and older respondents in the area. Respondents aged under 30 years old are more likely to be owner-occupiers and to be in employment. They would be more interested in seeing their city as developing and improving, as they benefit from the transformation in terms of economic and social conditions.

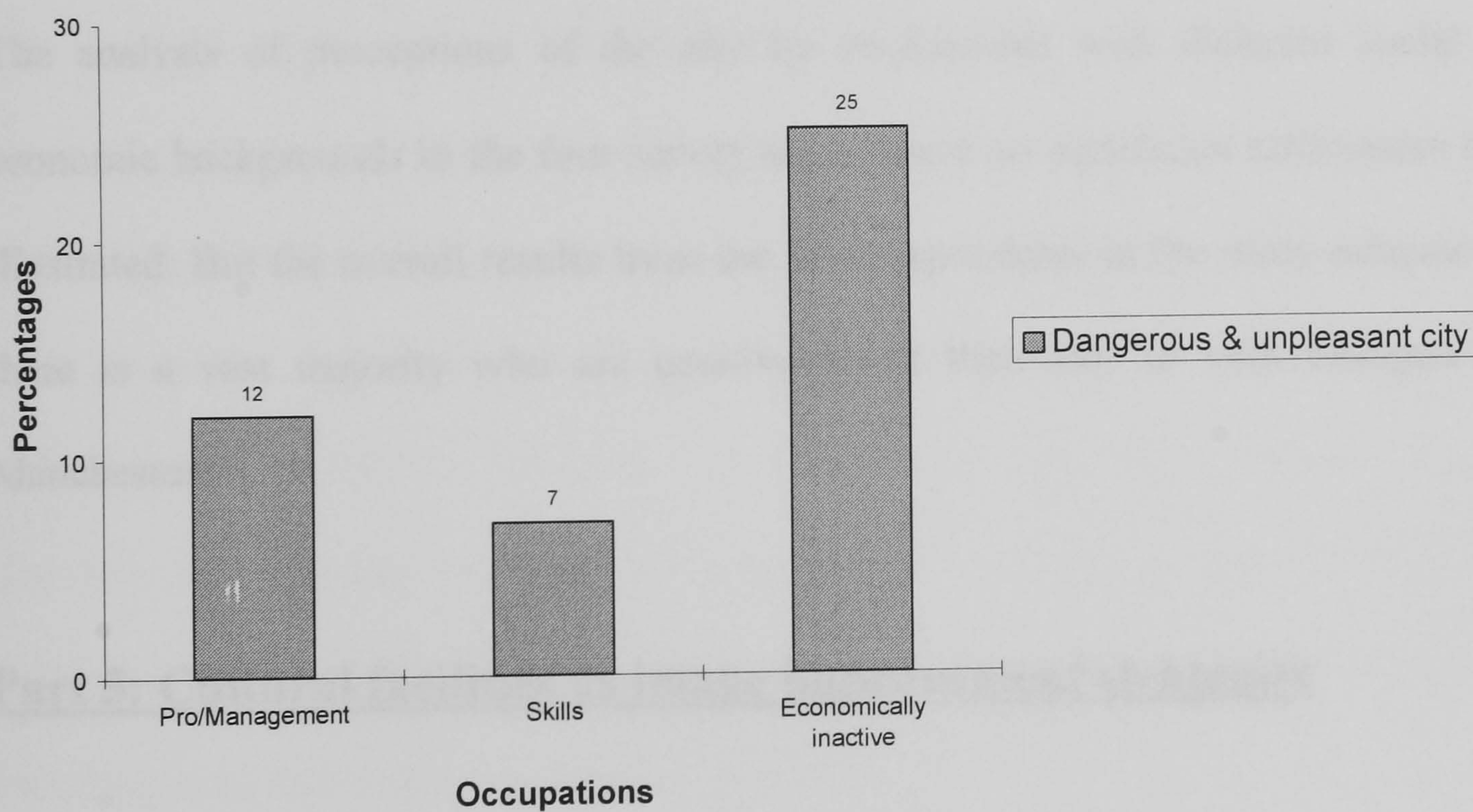
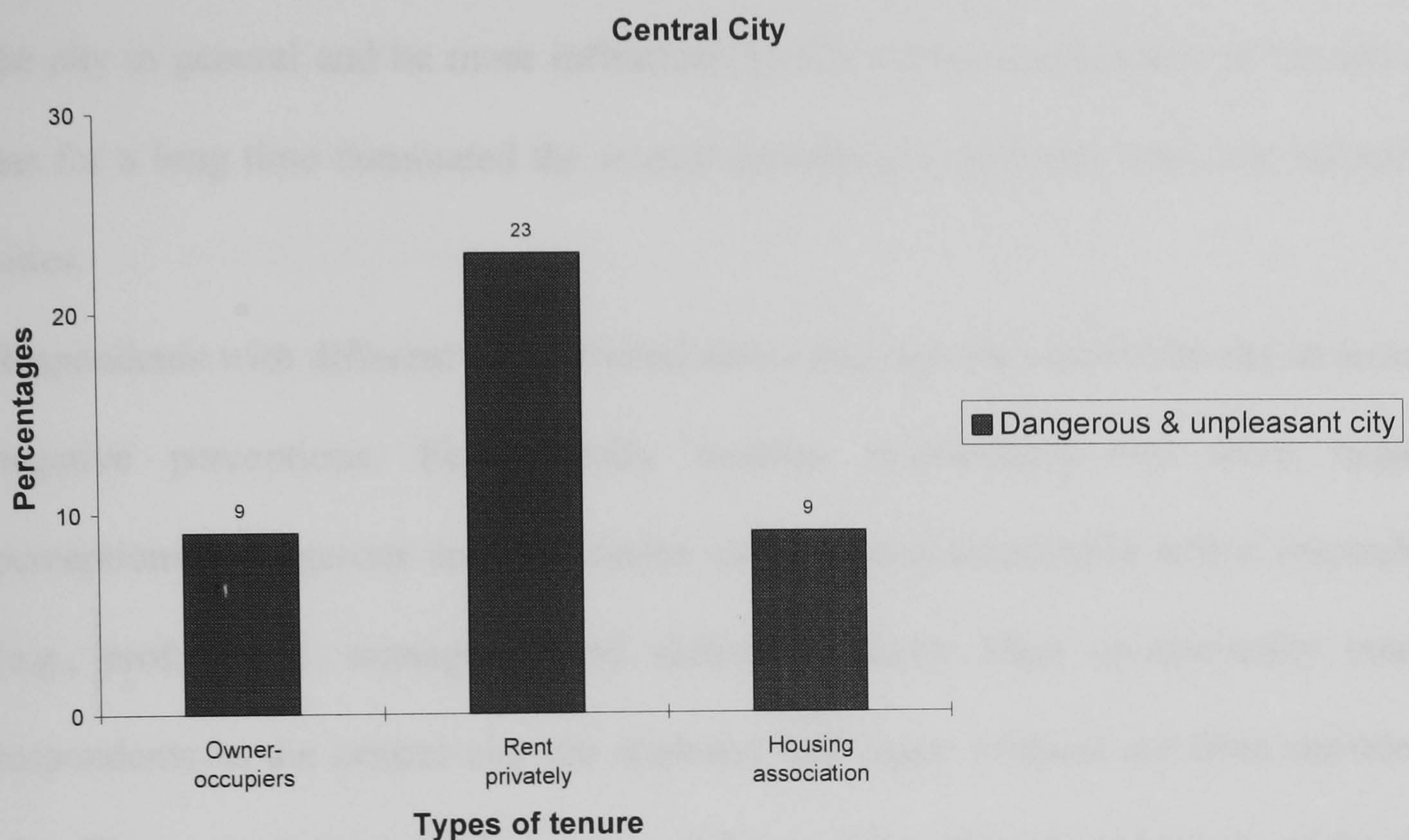
**Figure 8-8: Perceptions of the city by age in the inner city**



Older residents might not feel their city to be developing and improving, as they do not really benefit from the current transformation of their city. Therefore, it would be economic differences that might make respondents of different age groups perceive their city differently.



**Figure 8-9: Perceptions of the city by types of tenure and occupations in the central city**



In the central city, respondents with different types of tenure and occupations see their city differently in terms of negative perceptions. Figure 8-9 (see Table 8-9 in Appendix 2) shows that private renters see the city more negatively ('dangerous & unpleasant city') than owner-occupiers. There are no statistical differences between private renters and social housing renters on this factor. This difference may be a



question of who private renters are. They are more likely to be students and people who are from outside the city. These respondents may have a lack of knowledge about the city in general and be more influenced by the previous reputation of the city that has for a long time dominated the overall perceptions of people who live outside the cities.

Respondents with different occupational status also see the city differently in terms of negative perceptions. Economically inactive respondents had more negative perceptions ('dangerous and unpleasant city') than economically active respondents (e.g., professional, managerial and skilled workers). Most economically inactive respondents in the central city are students, and many of them are from outside the city. These respondents might be more influenced by national perceptions of the cities rather than any positive changes, which have taken place.

The analysis of perceptions of the city by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds in the four survey areas found no significant differences to be illustrated. But the overall results from the new respondents in the study indicate that there is a vast majority who are positive about their city in both Glasgow and Manchester.

## **Part 5: Cultural facilities as image improvement strategies**

Cultural facilities have recently been seen as important parts of the urban regeneration process in many cities in Europe and North America. Prestigious arts festivals, major sports competitions and high-profile cultural events were used to support internationalisation strategies, and to enhance the cosmopolitan image and appeal of their cities. In this way, cultural facilities, such as museums, galleries, concert halls,



opera houses, theatres, exhibition centres, etc., have increasingly become important instruments for image improvement strategies. As mentioned in the introductory chapter (Chapter 2), the city of Baltimore in the US is the first city that used cultural facilities (or leisure facilities) as image promotional strategies. The city provided a variety of cultural and leisure facilities to alter from its old industrial image to a new and more attractive image- e.g., the construction of the Maryland Science Centre, the National Arena, Convention Centre, etc. (De Jong, 1991; Hula, 1990). In Europe, French cities (e.g., Paris and Montpellier), Frankfurt in Germany, Rotterdam in the Netherlands, Birmingham in Britain, etc., all indicate that the use of cultural facilities is not just mere strategic necessity for urban revitalisation, but it is more likely to be the major reinforcement for image enhancement (Kearns & Philo, 1993; Negrier, 1993; Friedriche et al, 1993; Loftman et al, 1993).

The cities of Glasgow and Manchester have used cultural facilities as important remedies for changes in their overall image. As seen before, the ‘improvement and availability of social and cultural facilities’ are seen by residents under study in both cities as major factors of attractiveness compared to the 1970s. In this section, residents under study in Glasgow and Manchester were asked whether cultural facilities have actually improved the city’s image. If residents considered cultural facilities as image improvement remedies, it examines in what ways cultural facilities have improved the image of two cities.

In Glasgow, a variety of cultural facilities, such as the Burrell Collection, Glasgow Royal Concert Hall, Citizens Theatre, Scottish Exhibition & Conference Centre, etc., are used to improve the city’s overall image from an old industrial city to a cultural city. Manchester has also constructed a variety of cultural facilities, such as the



Bridgewater Hall, G-Mex (Greater Manchester Exhibition Centre), Museum of Science and Industry, etc., to create a new environment. However, one must ask whether residents in both cities see such cultural facilities as new image creators, and also whether residents think that cultural facilities help to improve the city's image.

**Figure 8-10: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the inner city and the central city<sup>44</sup>**

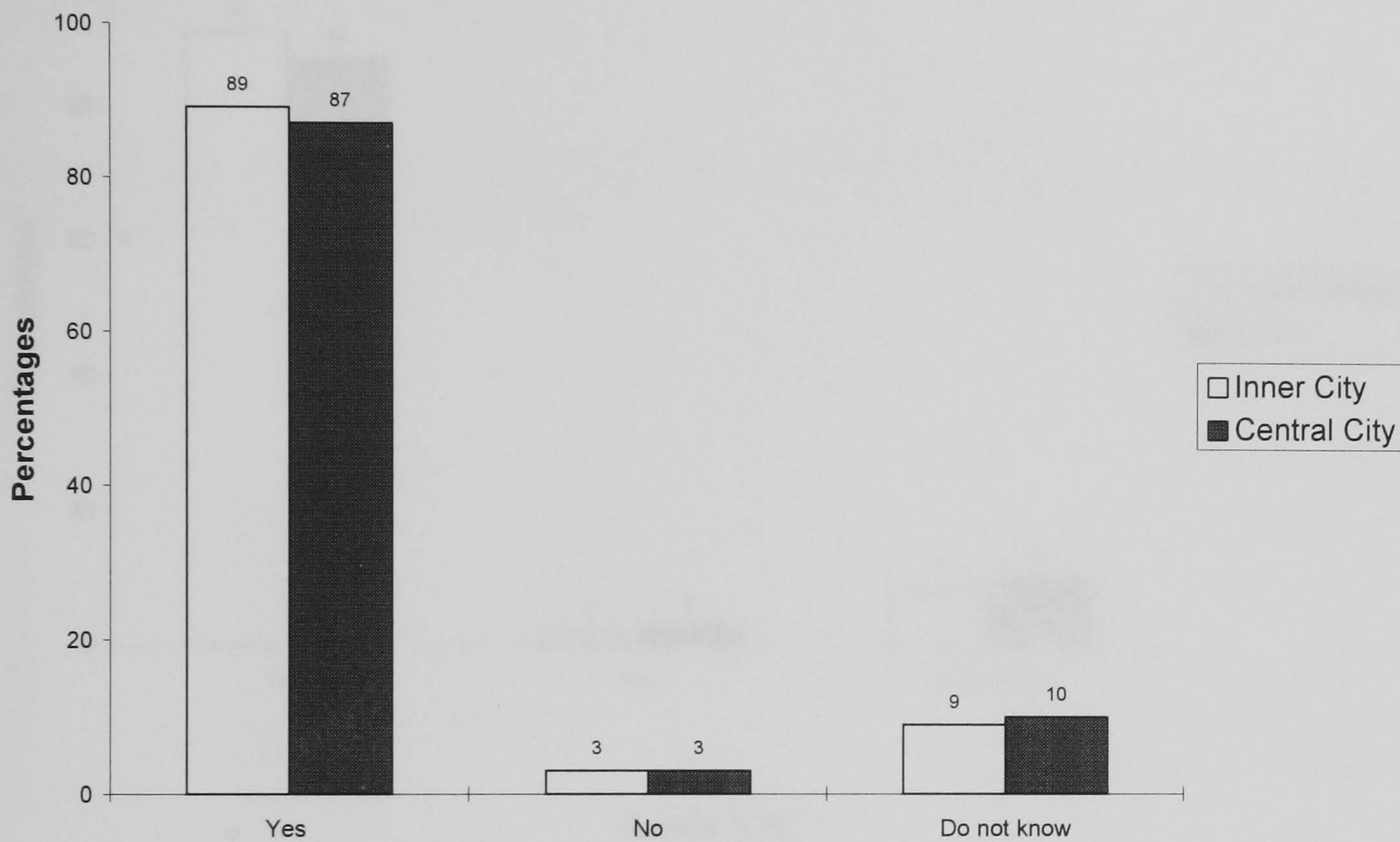


Figure 8-10 (see Table 8-10 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in the inner city and the central city overwhelmingly indicated that cultural facilities in the city have improved the city's image- 89% of respondents in the inner city and 87% in the central city. Only around 3% of respondents in each city thought that cultural facilities have not improved the city' image at all.

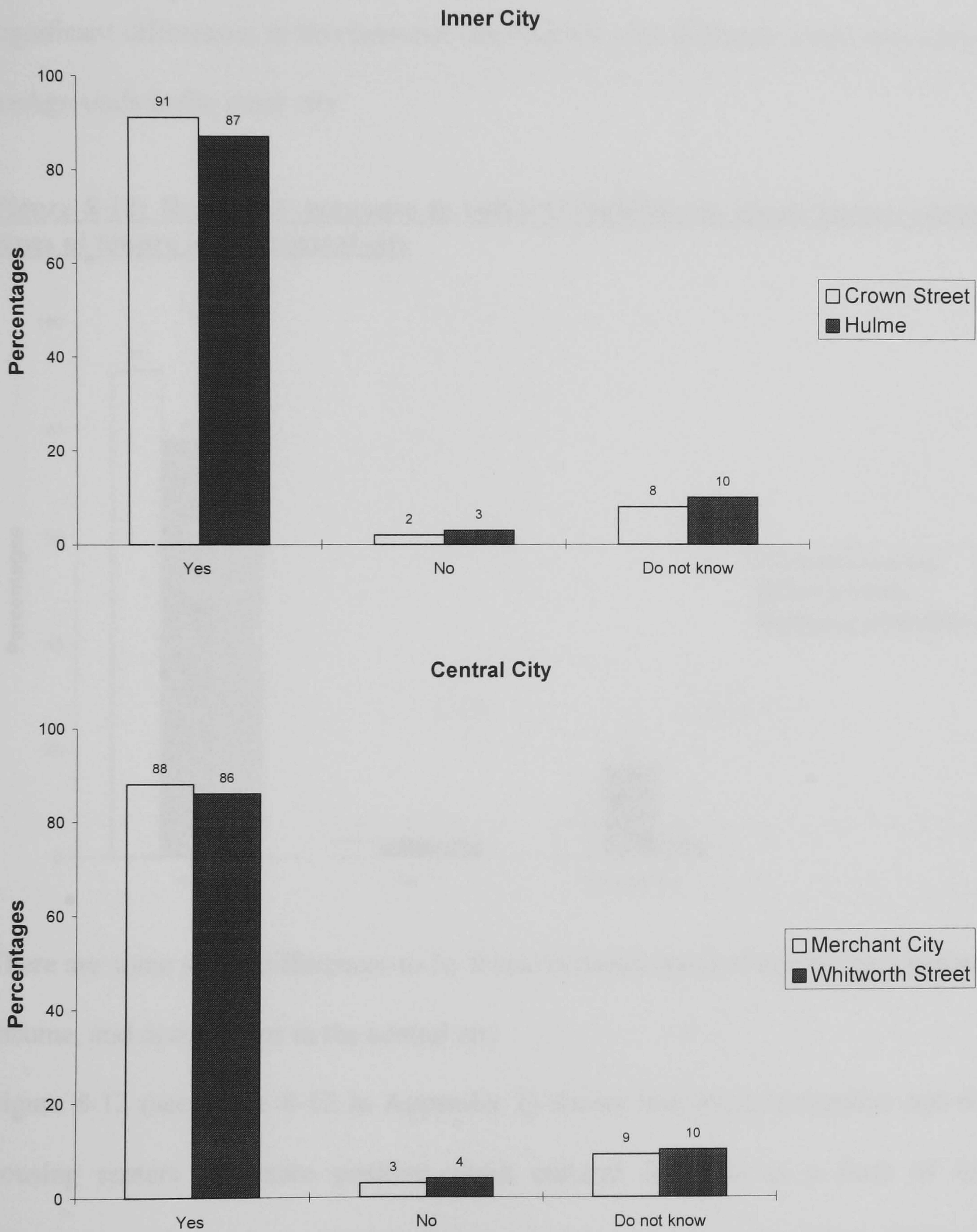
Figure 8-11 (see Table 8-11 in Appendix 2) shows that in all four areas respondents showed a very positive reaction toward the claim that cultural facilities have improved

<sup>44</sup> The figure is based on Q19 (Do you think that these facilities have improved the city's image?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.



the city's image. For instance, 91% in Crown Street, 87% in Hulme in the inner city areas, and 88% in Merchant City and 86% in Whitworth Street thought that cultural facilities are an important factor of image improvement.

**Figure 8-11: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the four areas**<sup>45</sup>



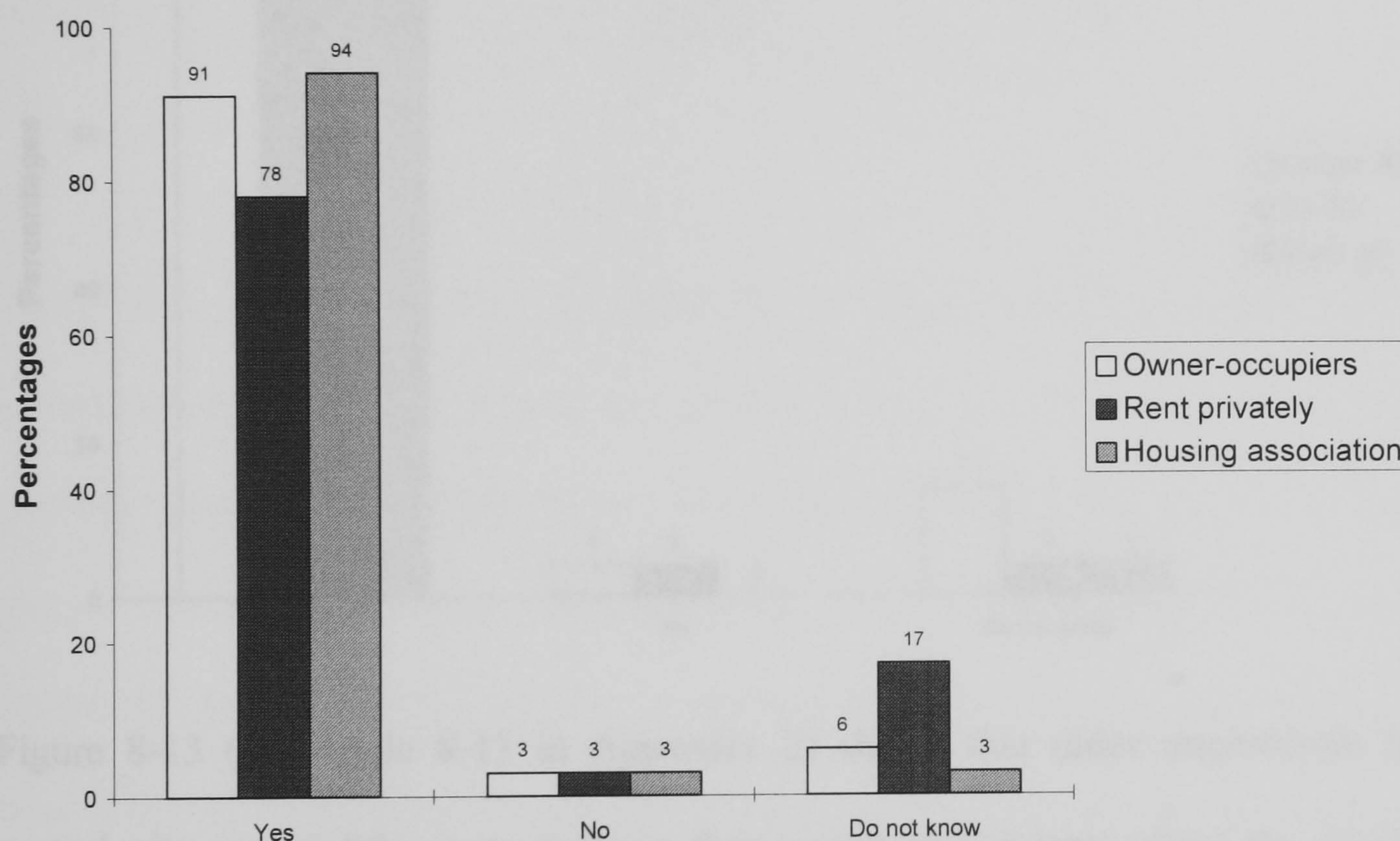
<sup>45</sup> A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.



However, only few respondents in all areas mentioned that cultural facilities have not improved the city's image. The overall result therefore indicates that respondents in both cities positively claim that cultural facilities have renewed their city's image.

The vast majority of respondents in the survey areas indicated a positive reaction toward the use of cultural facilities for image improvement, and there are no significant differences in this between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds in the inner city.

**Figure 8-12: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement by types of tenure in the central city**



There are some slight differences to be found between types of tenure, age, household income, and occupations in the central city.

Figure 8-12 (see Table 8-12 in Appendix 2) shows that owner-occupiers and social housing renters are more positive about cultural facilities as a form of image improvement than private renters. Owner-occupiers and social housing renters have lived in the city longer than private renters, thus they are more interested in what has been changed and its effect on the city. Private renters might come to the city because



of the relocation of their employment or their education, thus they might be less likely to be aware of what changes there have been.

Age differences also showed interesting differences in this subject between young respondents and older residents.

**Figure 8-13: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement by age in the central city**

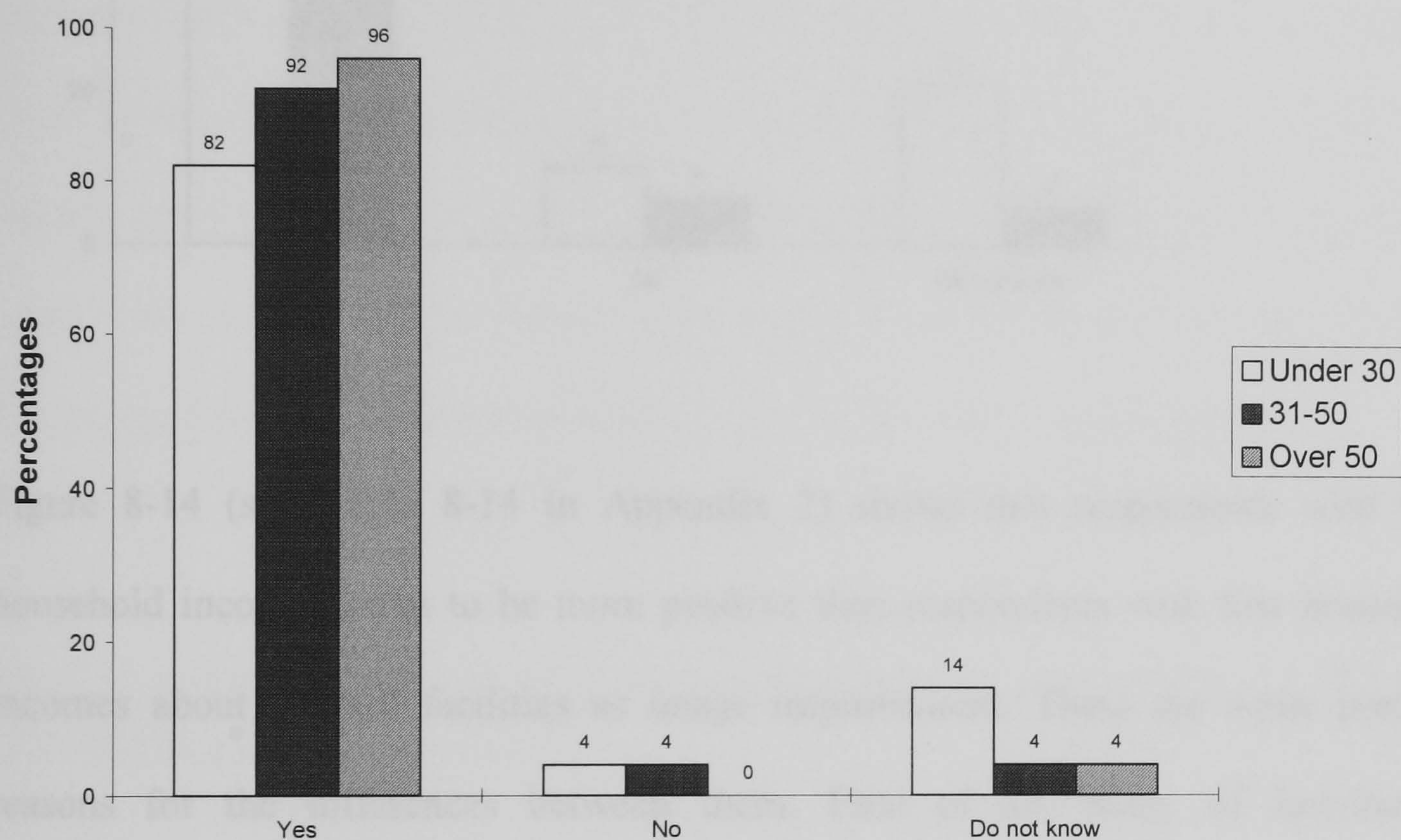


Figure 8-13 (see Table 8-13 in Appendix 2) shows that older respondents in the central city are slightly more positive than young respondents about the claim that cultural facilities have improved the city's image. Older respondents similarly have lived in the city longer than young respondents, and, therefore, have been seen and experienced the overall process of changes in the cities that have been generated by the provision of cultural facilities.

There are also differences in response to cultural facilities as image improvement between respondents with high household incomes (over £35,000) and respondents with low household incomes (under £8,000) in the central city.



**Figure 8-14: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement by household incomes in the central city**

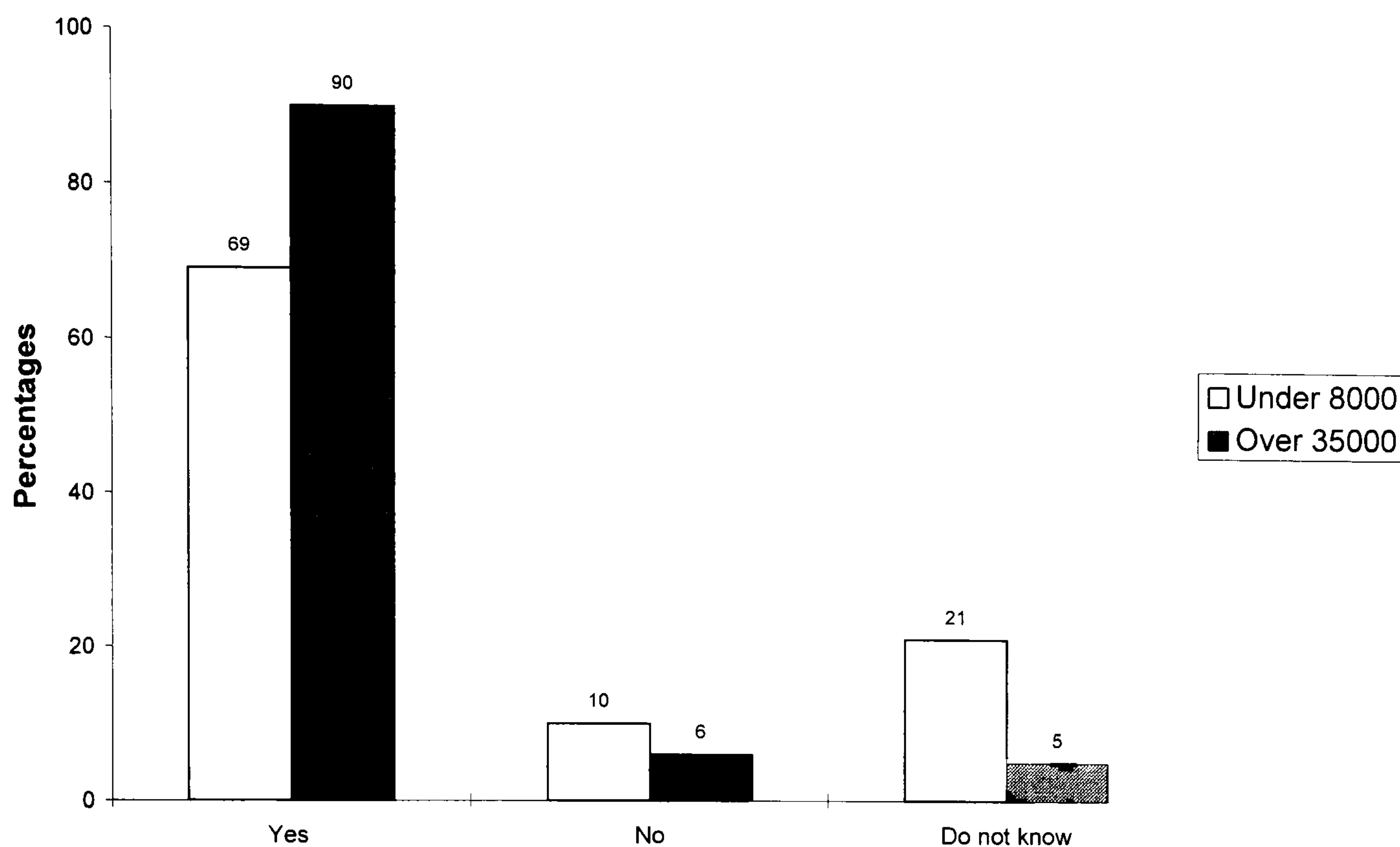


Figure 8-14 (see Table 8-14 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents with high household incomes seem to be more positive than respondents with low household incomes about cultural facilities as image improvement. There are some possible reasons for the differences between them. First of all, many of low-income households in the central city are, as mentioned previously, students, and they are more likely to be from outside the city. Therefore, they might be less likely to realise the importance of cultural facilities in transforming the city's image. Another possible reason is that most cultural facilities in the area are quite expensive, and low-income households may not be able to afford to visit them. Thus, they might not really be interested in whether or not cultural facilities has improved the image of the cities because it may not affect their life.

The analysis of results in the four areas does not seem to be significant differences with the results of the inner city and the central city.



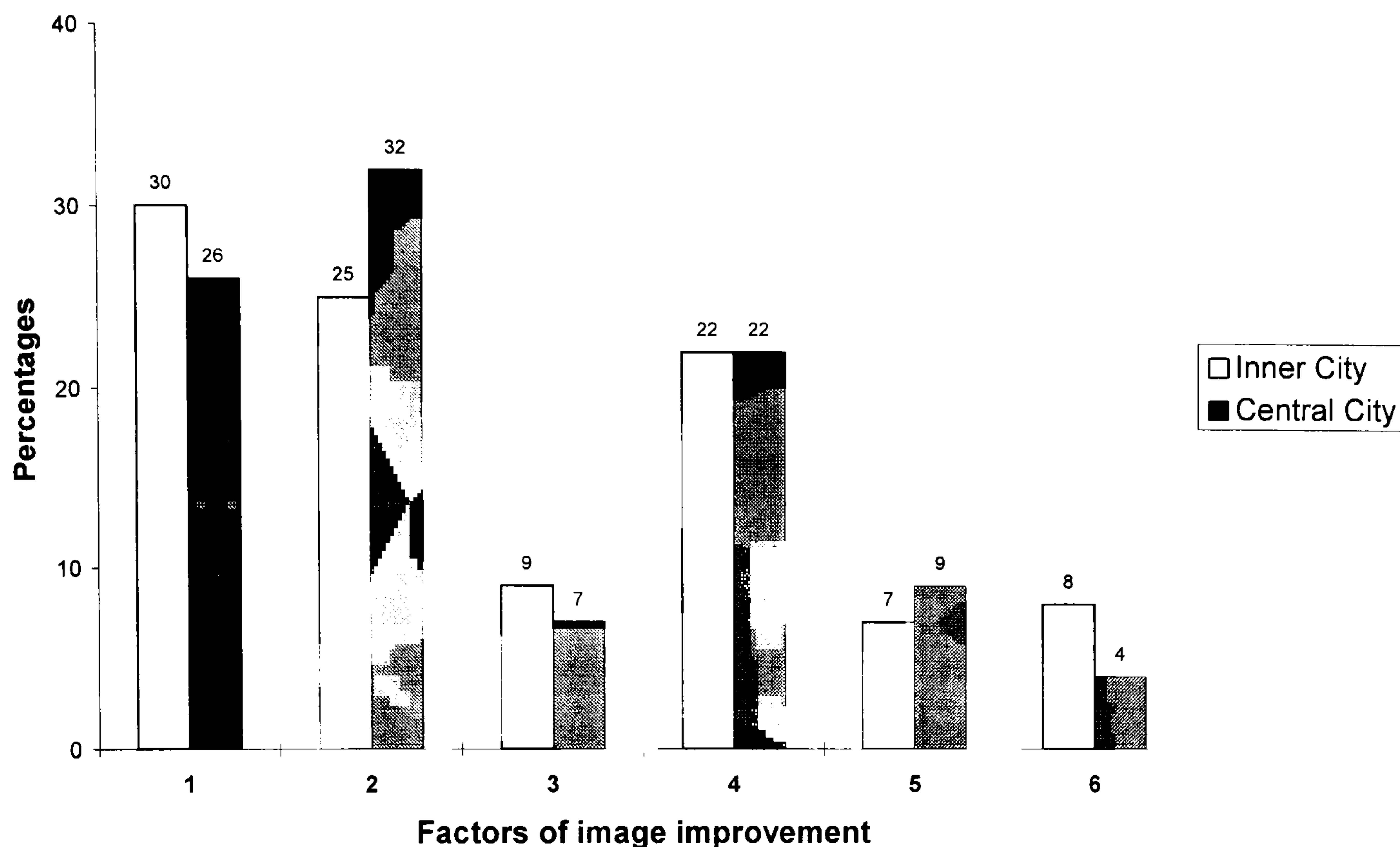
The overall results indicate that although there are some differences in respondents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement between types of tenure, age and household incomes in the central city, the vast majority of respondents in both the central city and the inner city, or respondents with different social and economic backgrounds are positive about the claim that cultural facilities are important in terms of improving their city's image. This result raises an interesting discussion that although some respondents in the survey areas might never see or use cultural facilities that have been provided by their city authority, they are positive about the value of these cultural facilities. It seems to be related to the concept of 'existence value'- the hypothesis that people value some things even if they never see or use them. This concept will be further discussed in the next chapter (Chapter 9) when discussing the relationship between the quality of life and cultural facilities.

### **Part 6: How has the use of cultural facilities for regeneration affected the image of the two cities?**

In the previous section, most residents in the survey areas pointed out that cultural facilities in their cities have improved the city's image. As already mentioned, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester were very poor in terms of their image internally as well as externally, thus it is interesting to find out how and in what ways respondents thought that cultural facilities have improved the city's image.

Figure 8-15 (see Table 8-15 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in the inner city mentioned that the major factor of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities is 'cultural facilities have been bringing more people into the city' (e.g., tourists and residents).

**Figure 8-15: Factors of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city<sup>46</sup>**



1. Bringing more people into the city
2. Increasing reputation as a cultural city (e.g., tourists and residents)
3. Increasing business profile
4. Increasing accessibility & availability of a variety of different forms of culture
5. Increasing the awareness of changes in the city to outside
6. Others

For respondents in the central city, on the other hand, the major factor is that ‘cultural facilities have increased reputation as a cultural city’. However, it seems that, for residents in both the inner city and the central city, three factors appeared to be dominant (‘bringing more people into the city’, ‘increasing reputation as a cultural city’, and increasing accessibility & availability of a variety of different forms of culture’).

Figure 8-16 (see Table 8-16 in Appendix 2) shows that in the overall analysis of the four areas there seems to be no significant differences with the analysis of the inner city and the central city. However, an interesting difference appears between

<sup>46</sup> In this part, respondents were given an open-ended question (Q 20 If yes, in what ways?), and were also allowed to answer more than one factor. Moreover, as it allowed multi-responses from one respondent, responses in each category were weighted for statistical test (a one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance).



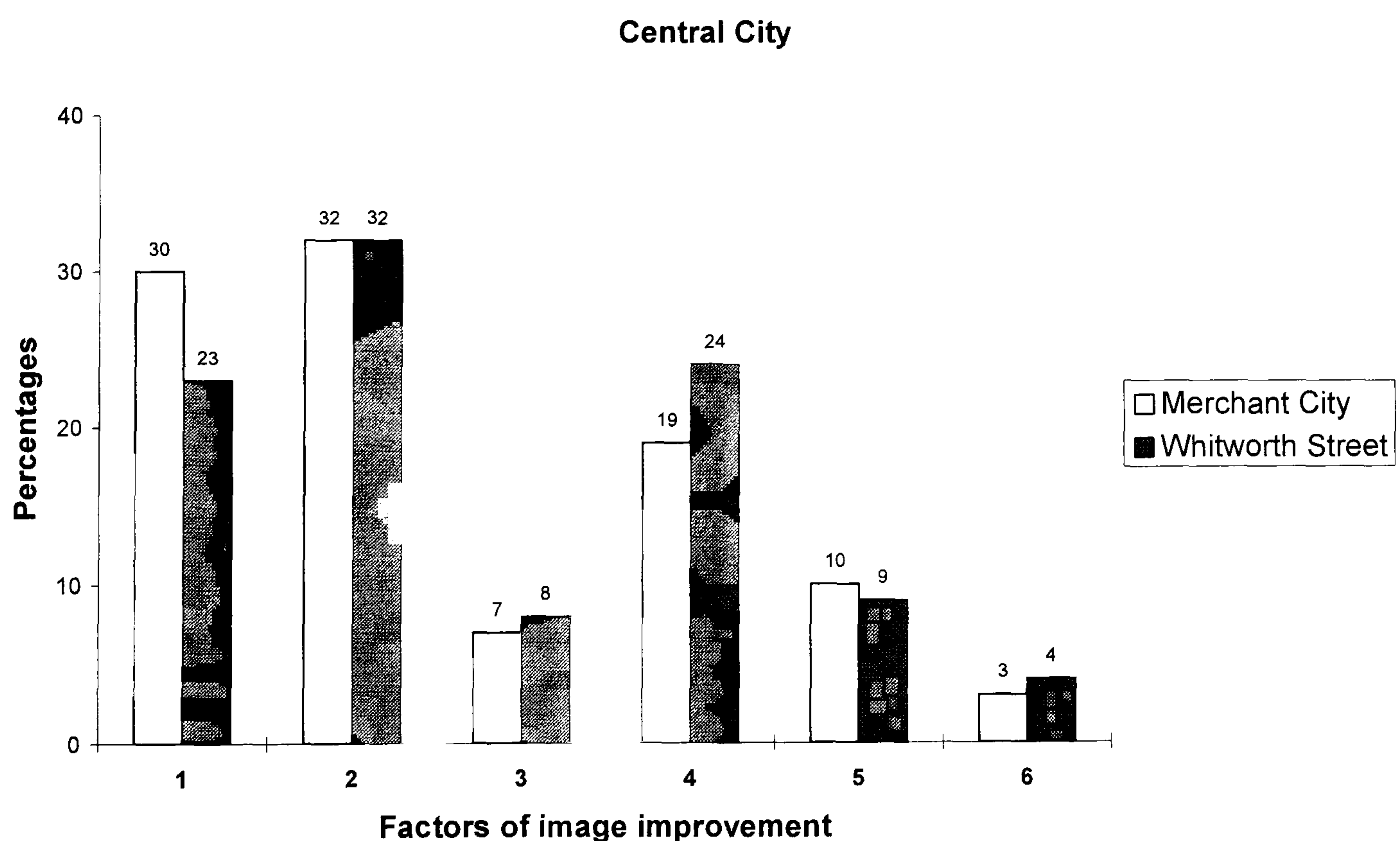
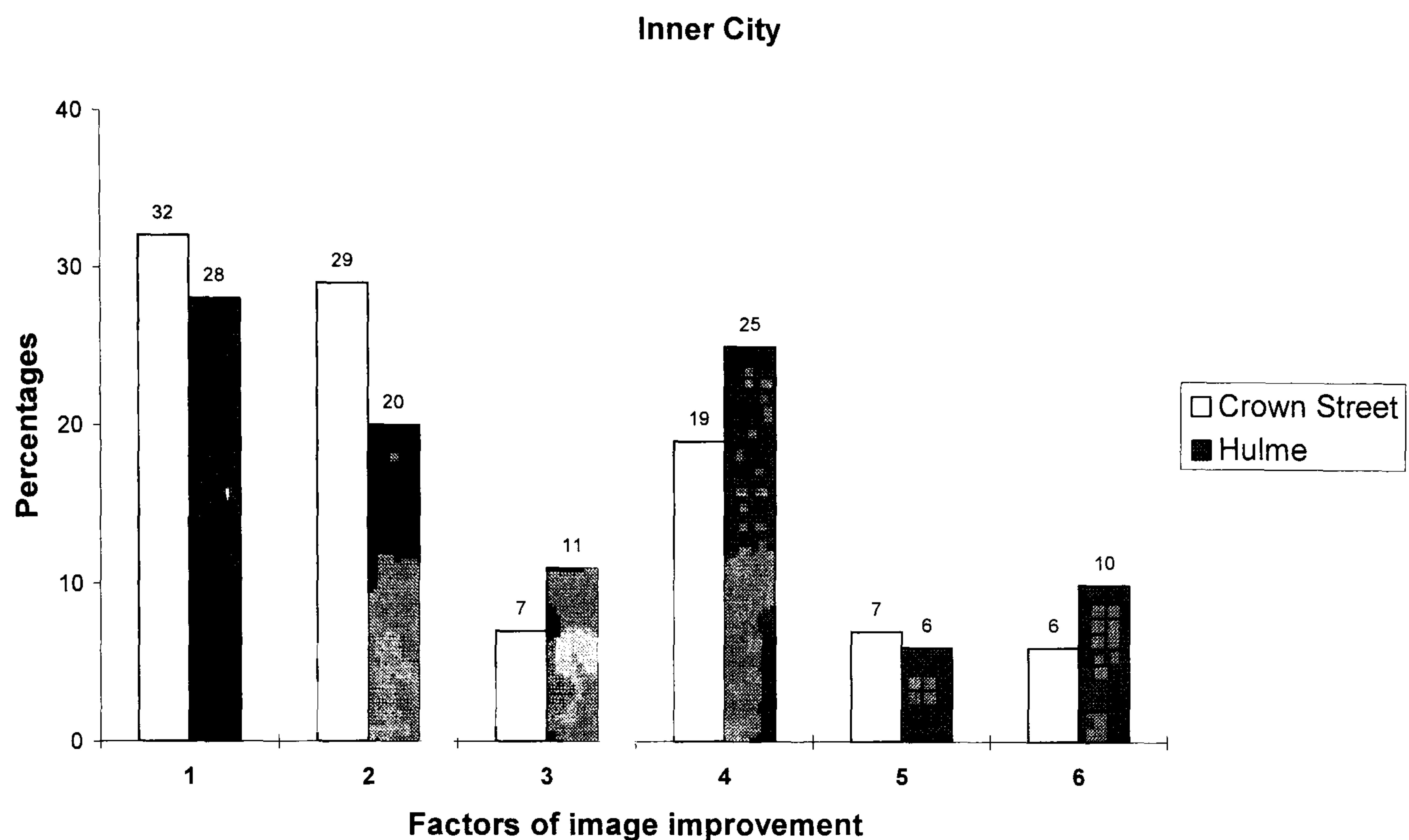
respondents in Glasgow and respondents in Manchester. Respondents in Crown Street and Merchant City seem to regard 'increasing accessibility and availability of a variety of different forms of culture' (19% in each area) as less important than the other major factors ('bringing more people into the city' (32% and 30%) and 'increasing reputation as a cultural city' (29% and 32%). Respondents in Hulme and Whitworth Street regard this factor as the second most important factor. Most cultural facilities in Glasgow are high culture and expensive for ordinary people. On the other hand, Manchester has provided high cultural facilities as well as easily accessible sporting facilities for ordinary people. Therefore, respondents in Glasgow might experience more difficulties with the accessibility of cultural facilities provided by their city than respondents in Manchester.

The analysis of factors of image improvement by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds found no significant differences in the inner city or the central city or in the four areas.

Nevertheless, the overall results seem to be fairly similar in all areas. It is therefore interesting that although between the inner city and the central city or the four areas there are different characteristics in terms of economic status and their location, respondents in both cities and all four areas were similar, in that cultural facilities have 'brought more people', 'increased reputation as a cultural city', and 'increased accessibility and availability of different forms of culture in their city'. It is assumed that the similar outcomes might be as a result of similar policy objectives between Glasgow and Manchester. As mentioned in the introductory chapters, both cities aimed to attract high-income people to live and tourists to visit through the provision of cultural facilities, and also that it would change the image of the cities. The policy

objectives of both cities might affect how residents under study thought about cultural facilities in their city.

**Figure 8-16: Factors of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities in the four areas**



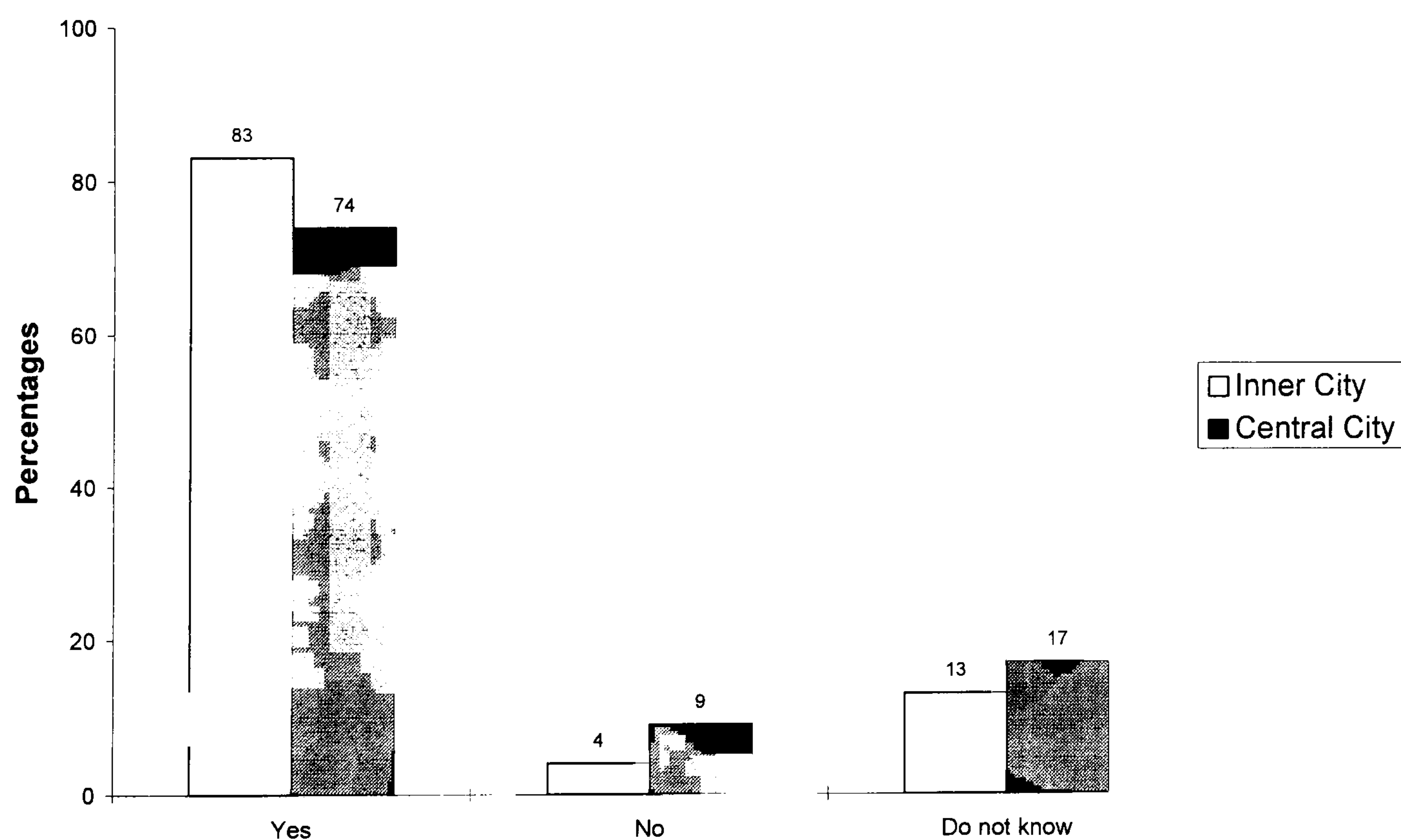
1. Bringing more people into the city
2. Increasing reputation as a cultural city (e.g., tourists and residents)
3. Increasing business profile
4. Increasing accessibility & availability of a variety of different forms of culture
5. Increasing the awareness of changes in the city to outside
6. Others



## Part 7: City pride

In the previous sections, respondents in the survey areas are positive in their perceptions of the city. However, it is possible that although perceptions of the city have improved and are currently positive, it may not mean that new residents Glasgow and Manchester are proud of the present city. Both cities have devoted enormous effort to increase 'civic boosterism' and 'city pride' (Booth & Boyle, 1993; Randall, 1995). Therefore it is the main concern of this section to investigate whether or not residents are proud of their city.

**Figure 8-17: Pride in the city in the inner city and the central city<sup>47</sup>**



<sup>47</sup> In this part, residents were given a close-ended question (Q 14 Are you proud of your city?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.

Figure 8-17 (see Table 8-17 in Appendix 2) shows that a vast majority of respondents in both the inner city and the central city are proud of their city, though there are slight differences between them. Respondents in the central city are less proud of their city than respondents in the inner city. This could be explained by the fact that in the central city more respondents are from outside the city, particularly from outside the UK (around 80% of respondents in the central city are from outside the city, whereas only around 50% in the inner city are from outside the city). However, surprisingly, 74% of respondents in the central city were proud of their city. This indicates that most outsiders become attached to the city.

The data is divided into the central city areas and the inner city areas to see if there are any differences in the pride in the present city. Figure 8-18 (see Table 8-18 in Appendix 2) shows that there are no significant differences in respondents' pride in their city within the inner city areas. However, respondents in Merchant City are more proud of their city than respondents in Whitworth Street. This may be as a result of a higher proportion of respondents in Whitworth Street who are from outside the city than the proportion of respondents in Merchant City. For instance, around 14% of residents in Whitworth Street are from the city, but around 15% in the area are from outside the UK. On the other hand, around 26% of respondents in Merchant City are from the city, but only around 6% are from outside the UK. These respondents who are from outside the UK are more likely to come to the city for temporary purposes (e.g., employment relocation or educational purposes). They would be less likely to regard the city as their city and thus no feelings towards it.



**Figure 8-18: Pride in the city in the four areas**

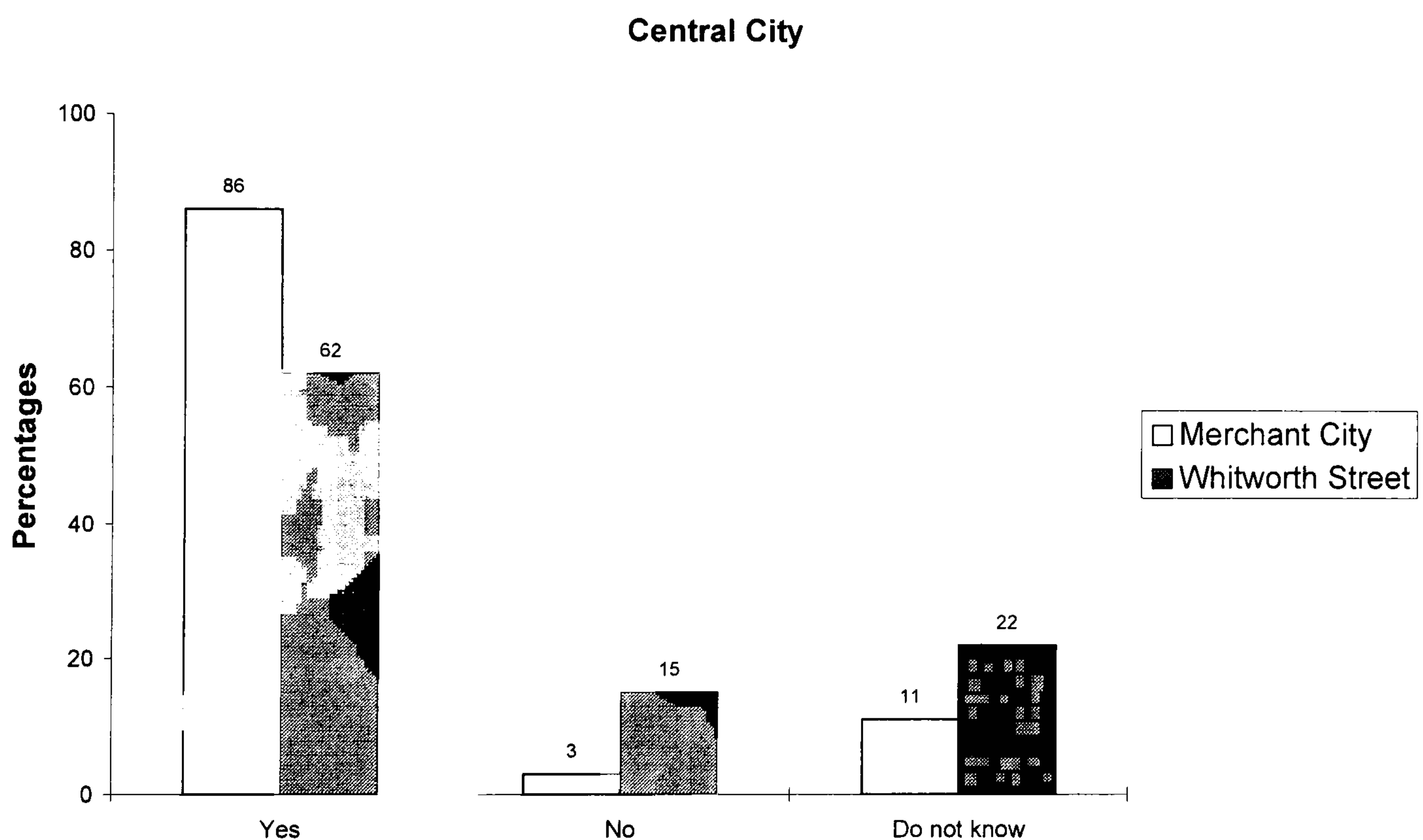
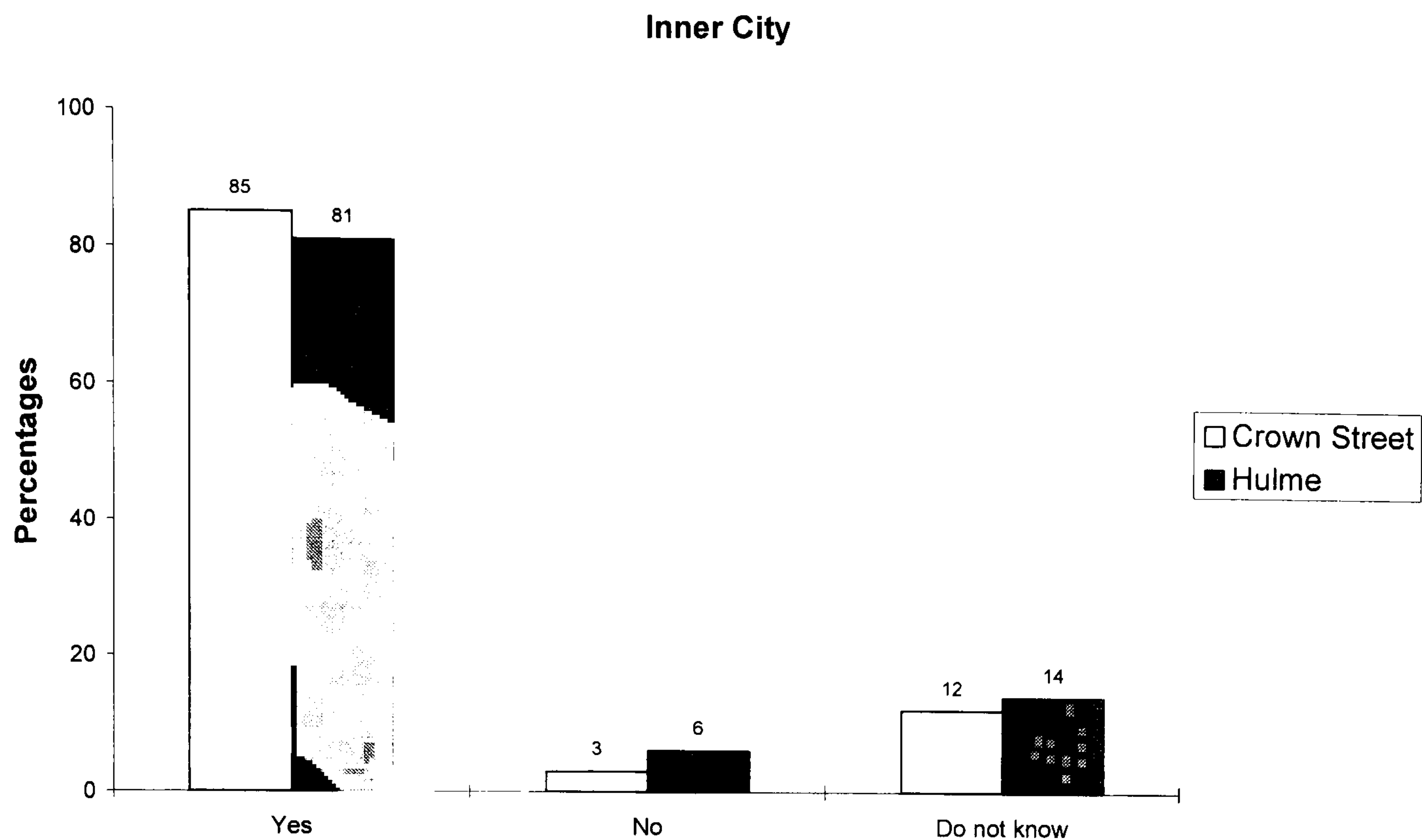
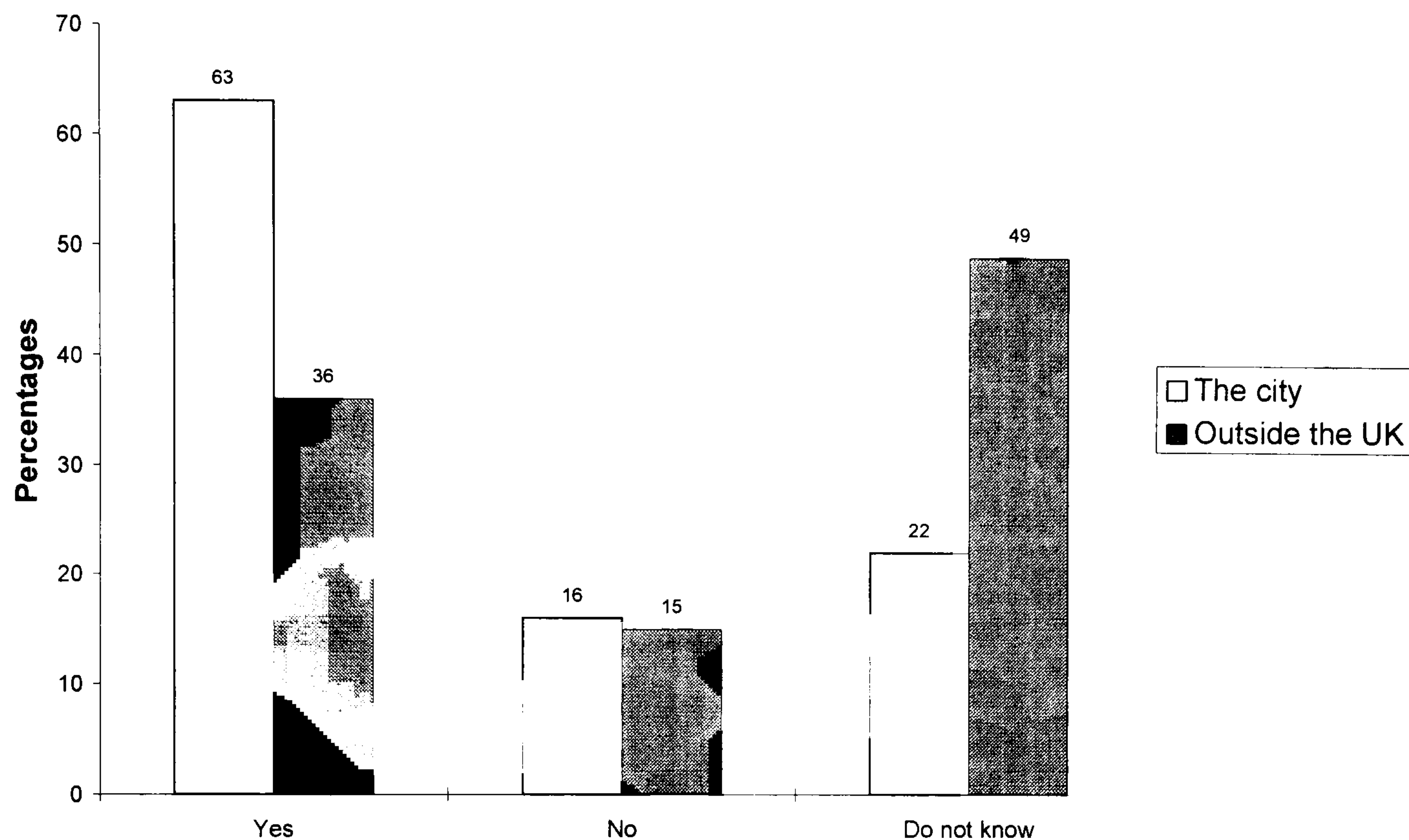


Figure 8-19 (see Table 8-19 in Appendix 2) also shows clearly that respondents in Whitworth Street who are from the city are more proud of their city than respondents from outside the UK. There are no significant differences in the category of 'not proud of the city' between respondents from the city and respondents from outside the UK. Differences are found in the category of 'do not know'. This makes clearer that

respondents from outside the UK are not sure whether or not they are proud of the city, as they do not regard it as their city.

**Figure 8-19: Pride in the city by previous residential location in Whitworth Street**

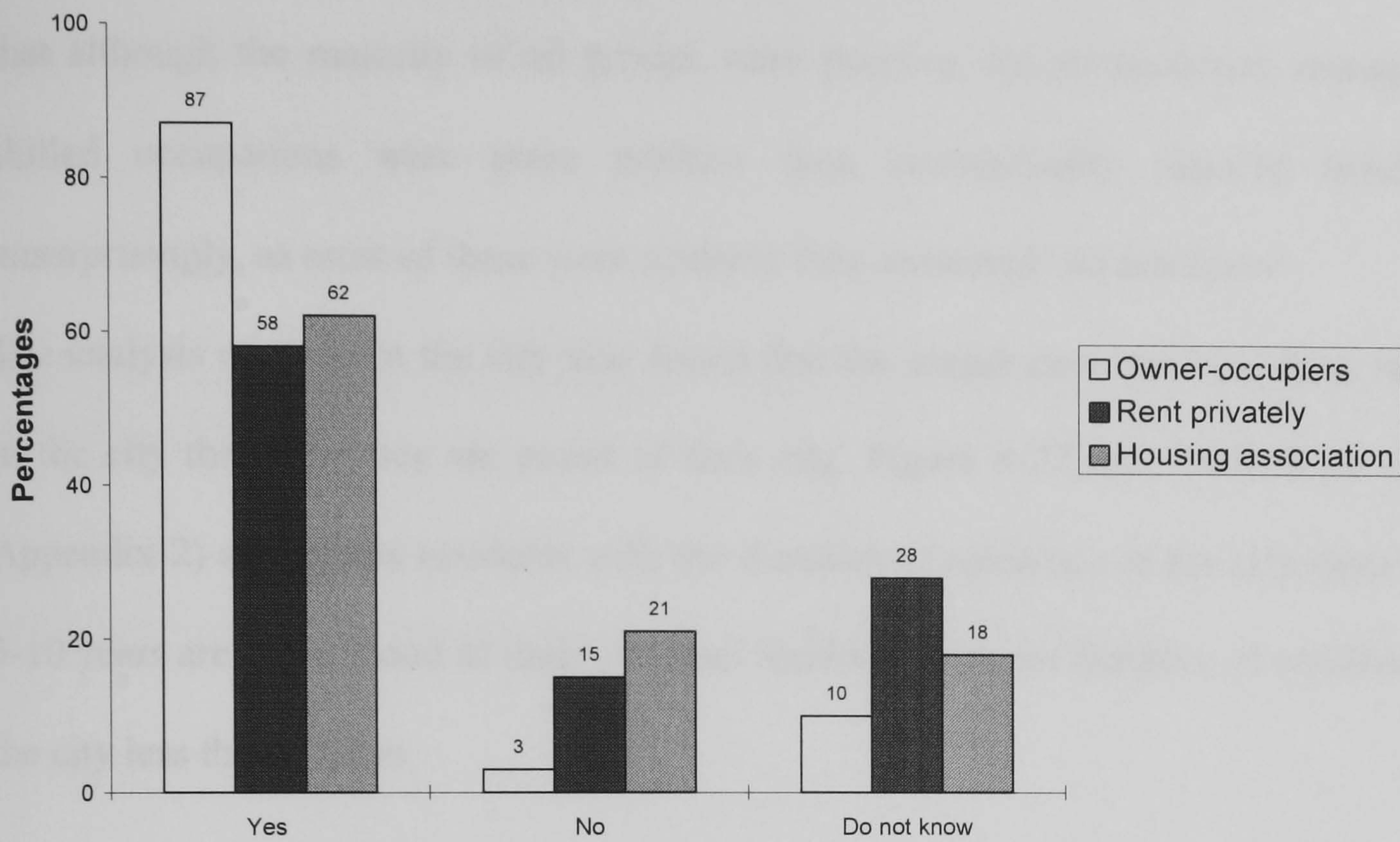


The overall results indicate that a vast majority of respondents in the survey areas are proud of their city, though some differences were found between respondents from the city and respondents from outside the city. The possible reason may be because the latter does not regard the city as their city as they are from other city.

When analysing on the basis of housing tenure, no significant differences to be found in the inner city but some differences were found in the central city. Figure 8-20 (see Table 8-20 in Appendix 2) shows that the majority of all types of tenure experienced pride, but owner-occupiers are more proud of their city than the other types of tenure. Around a fifth of social housing renters mentioned that they are not proud of their city, which is much higher than owner-occupiers (only 3%) who mentioned that they are not proud of their city.

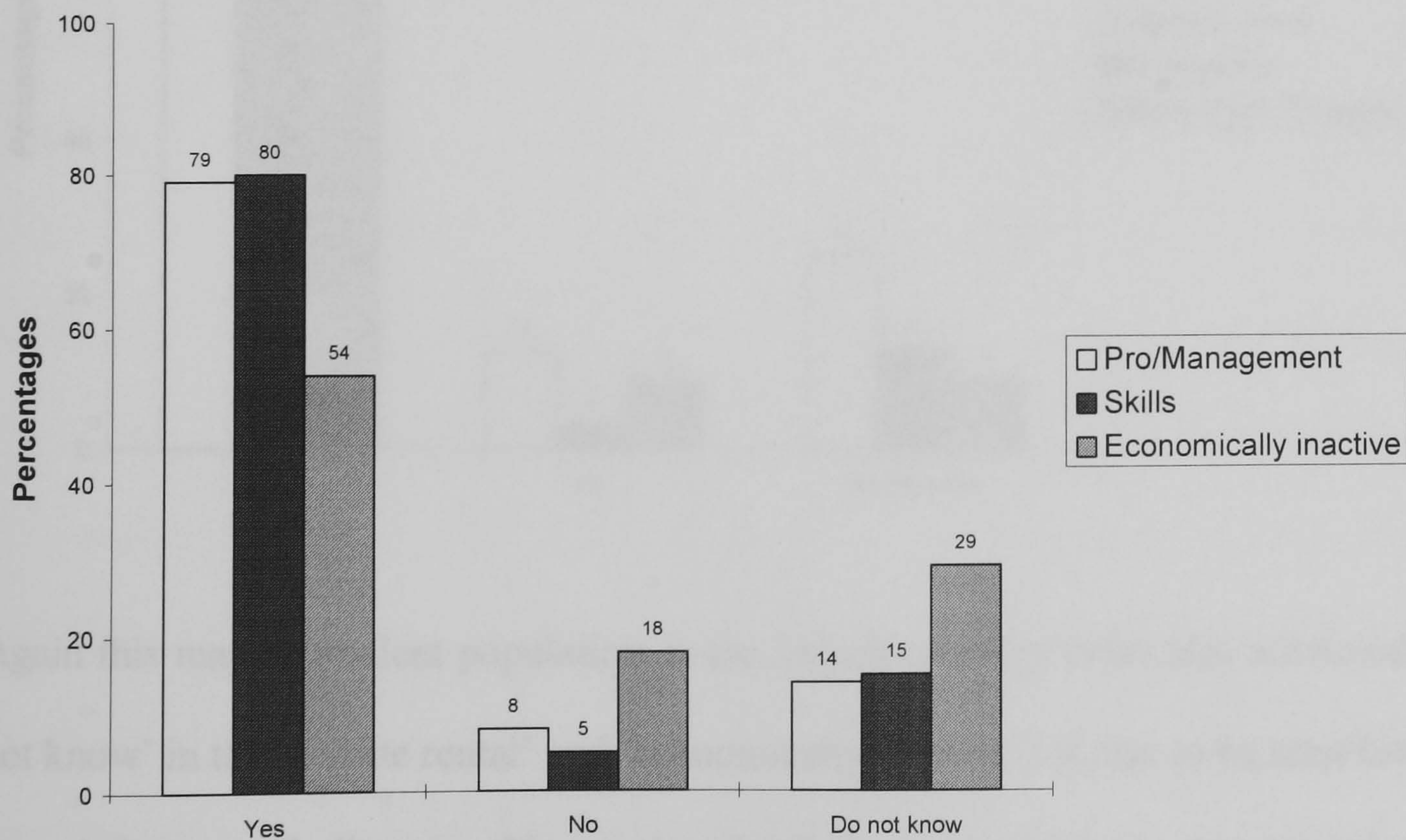


**Figure 8-20: Pride in the city by types of tenure in the central city**



This could be because the current regeneration of the city might increase living expenses that could generate severe pressure on less affluent residents, such as social housing renters, and also the fact that they did not choose to live there.

**Figure 8-21: pride in the city by occupational status in the central city**

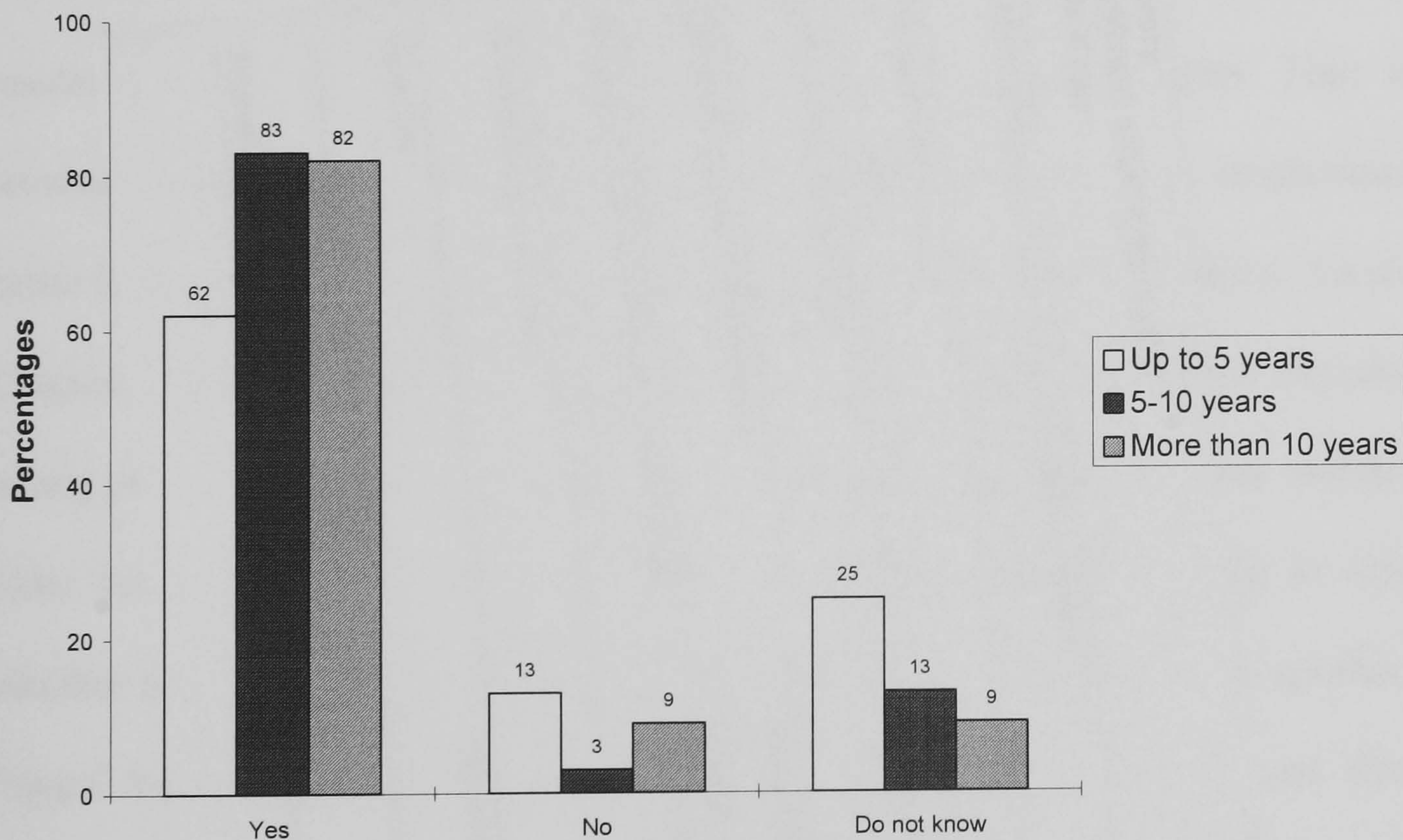




Respondents with different occupational status in the central city also showed differences in pride of their city. Figure 8-21 (see Table 8-21 in Appendix 2) shows that although the majority of all groups were positive, the professional, managerial skilled occupations were more positive than economically inactive residents, unsurprisingly, as most of these were students they answered 'do not know'.

The analysis of pride in the city also found that the longer new residents have stayed in the city the more they are proud of their city. Figure 8-22 (see Table 8-22 in the Appendix 2) shows that residents with the duration of residence in the city more than 5-10 years are more proud of their city than residents with the duration of residence in the city less than 5 years.

**Figure 8-22: Pride in the city by duration of residence in the central city**



Again this may be student population as the largest category (who also answered 'do not know' in the 'private rental' and 'economically inactive') is also to be seen here.

One important finding in this section is that respondents in the central city, particularly in Whitworth Street, seem to be less stable in terms of their pride in the



city compared to respondents in the other survey areas. It could mean that they might be more likely to change their residence to other cities when benefits in the city do not meet their expectation, or it could be because they are students and do not intend to stay there after their education is complete.

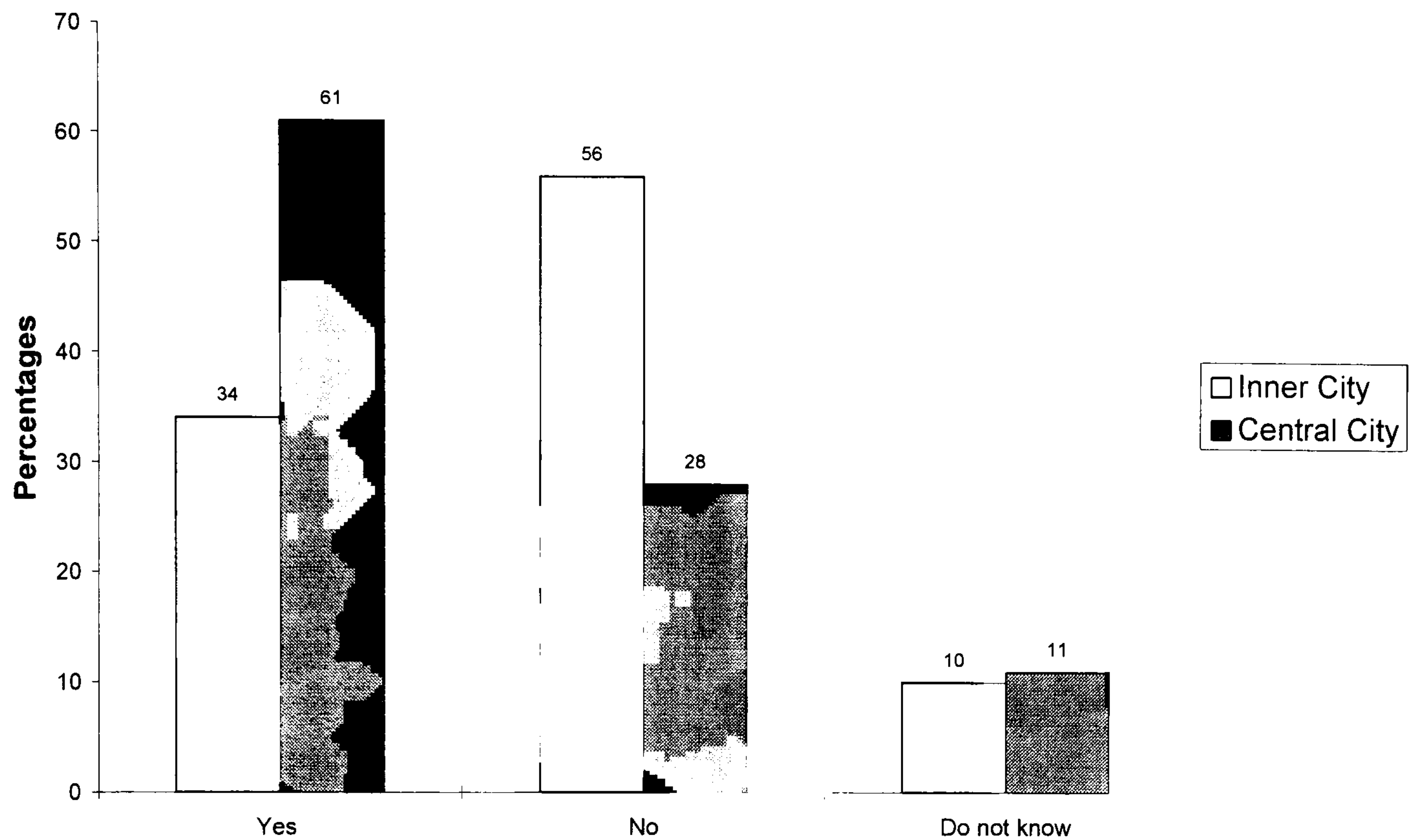
## **Part 8: Would new residents consider relocating their residence to another city?**

### **Residents' consideration of residential relocation to another city**

So far, the analysis in the chapter showed that a vast majority of respondents in the survey areas were very positive about the present perceptions of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. However, the above positive results do not tell whether or not residents in the survey would stay an extensive period in the cities. They might relocate their residence to another city if better opportunities (e.g., employment or better housing with better amenities and facilities) were found elsewhere. As seen in Chapter 5, the vast majority in the survey areas, especially in the central city areas, is young people and small-sized households. These residents could be more mobile than older residents and families with children. Therefore, it is interesting to examine whether new residents would ever consider relocating their residence to another city. Figure 8-23 (see Table 8-23 in Appendix 2) shows that around one third of respondents in the inner city indicated that they would consider moving to another city. However, nearly two thirds of respondents in the central city mentioned that they would consider moving to another city. This result clearly indicates that respondents in the central city are more footloose than respondents in the inner city. A possible

reason may be that many respondents in the central city are temporary residents and younger.

**Figure 8-23: Residents' consideration of residential relocation to another city in the inner city and the central city<sup>48</sup>**



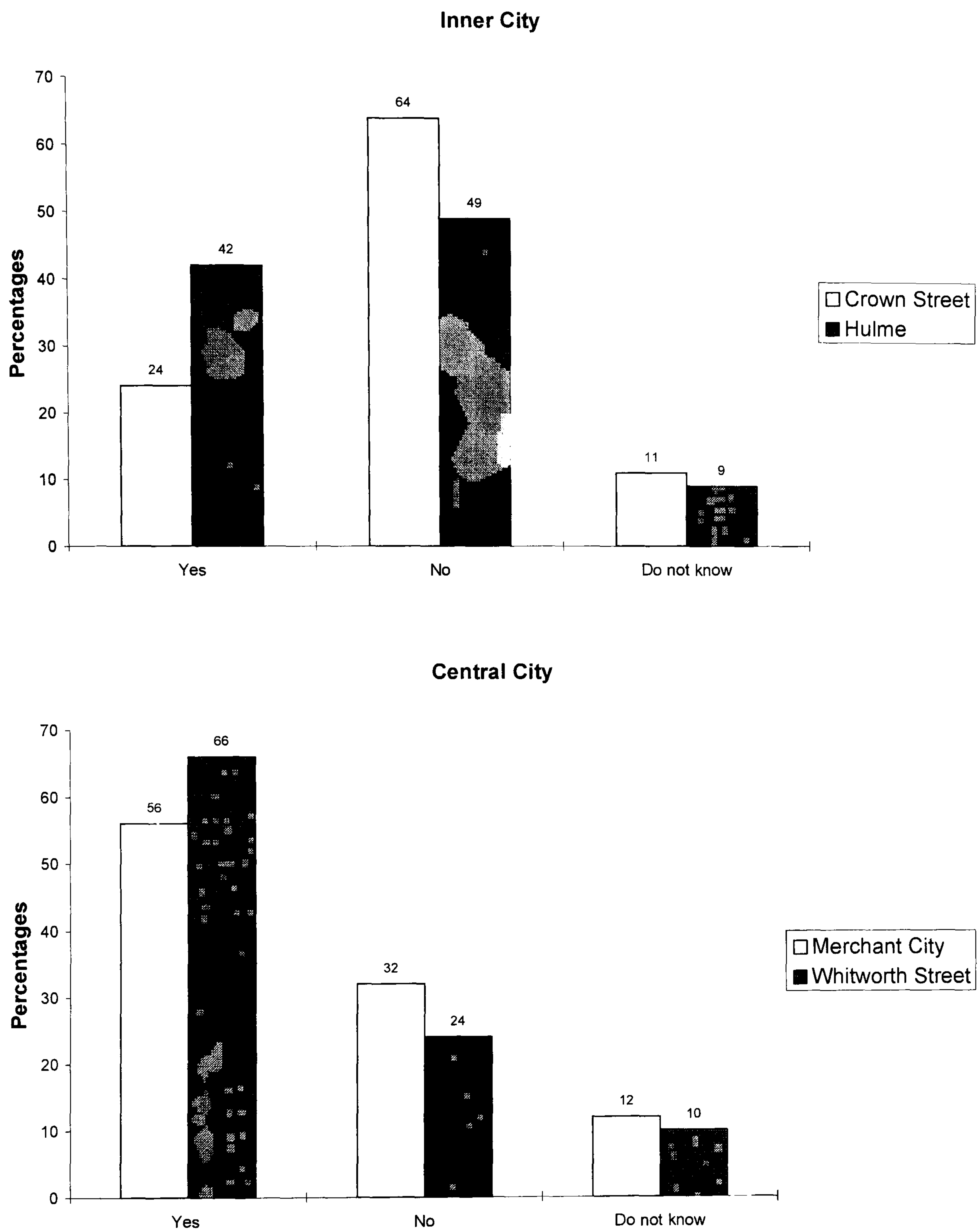
Moreover, many respondents are attracted by the current provision of cultural and leisure facilities in the two cities. If the provision were no longer viable or attractive to residents, they would be more likely to move their residence to another city.

Figure 8-24 (see Table 8-24 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in Manchester seem to be more likely to move to another city than respondents in Glasgow. In other words, respondents in Manchester are much less loyal to their city than respondents in Glasgow. There are some possible reasons. Firstly, there are more residents in Manchester from outside the city or even from outside the UK than residents in Glasgow. Secondly, there are more students in the survey areas of Manchester than in the survey areas of Glasgow who are likely to return to the city or the country from where they came.

<sup>48</sup> In this part, respondents were given a close-ended question (Q 15 Would you consider moving to another city?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.



**Figure 8-24: Residents' consideration of residential relocation to another city in the four areas**



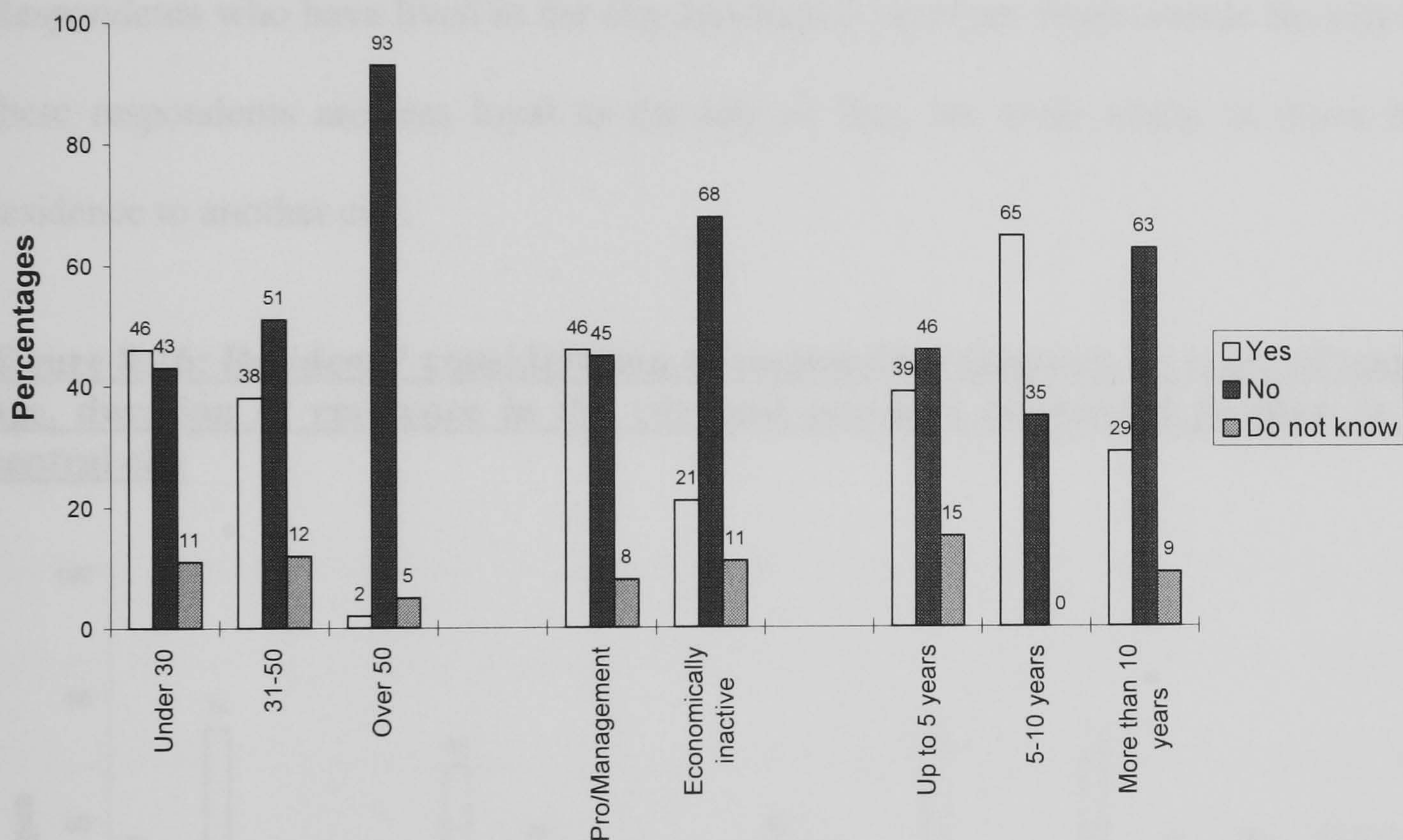
It is also possible that they might want to stay a bigger city (e.g., London) where more opportunities could be found. Finally, simply the city of Manchester may be less attractive to respondents than the city of Glasgow.



## Differences in possible relocation of residence between residents with different social and economic backgrounds

In the inner city, young respondents with professional and managerial occupations, and respondents with a short period of duration in the city (less than 5 years) seem to be more likely to relocate their residence to another city (see Figure 8-25 in the text or Table 8-25 in Appendix 2). Older respondents with economically inactive status are more likely to be social housing renters.

**Figure 8-25: Residents' consideration of residential relocation by age, occupation and duration of residence in the city in the inner city**



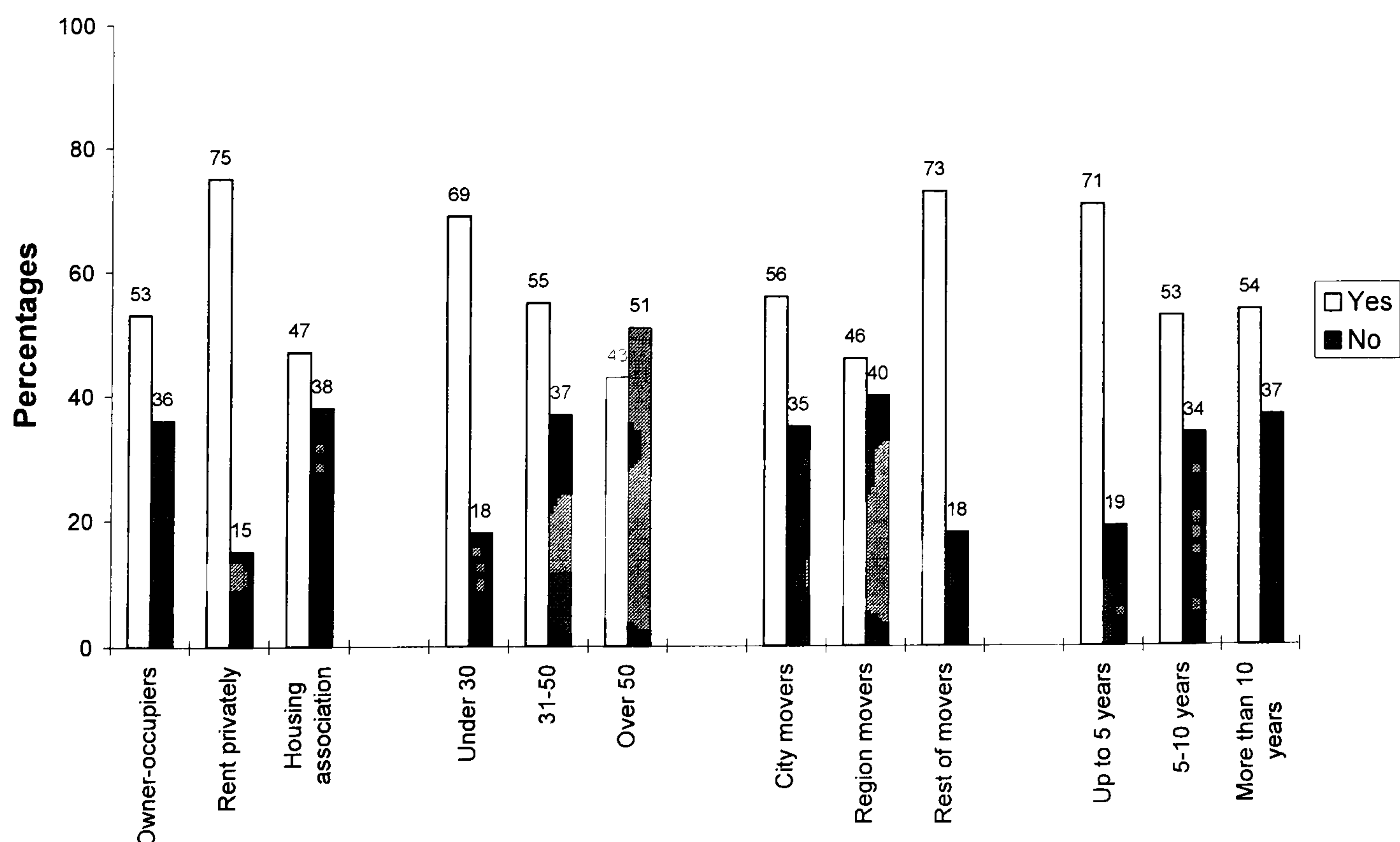
These respondents have lived in the city for a long time. They would find it very difficult to relocate their residence to another city, as they would not be able to afford it. Also one would expect older respondents to be more attached to their long-term home area (as seen before 'relatives and friends in area' are important). On the other hand, young residents with professional and managerial occupations are much more economically footloose, and thus they would be able to move if conditions of elsewhere suited to their preferences more. Therefore, economic conditions of



respondents in the inner city might largely affect their consideration of residential relocation to another city.

In the central city, young respondents and private renters from outside the city who have also lived in the city for a short period of time (less than 5 years) seem to be more likely to consider moving to another city (see Figure 8-26 in the text or Table 8-26 in Appendix 2). However, in the central city the economic condition of respondents does not seem to be the main factor that would determine the consideration of possible residential relocation, but it is respondents who are from outside the city that can largely affect possible residential relocation to another city. Respondents who have lived in the city less than 5 years are from outside the city and these respondents are less loyal to the city so they are more likely to move their residence to another city.

**Figure 8-26: Residents' consideration of residential relocation by types of tenure, age, duration of residence in the city and previous residential location in the central city**



One important point was found in this section that can confirm the prediction in Chapter 5- the formation of age and household structure might lead to less sustainability for the survey areas. Young people (likely to have a small-sized household) are more likely to relocate their residence elsewhere, which would contribute massive problems to the cities, particularly when in economic recession, as the survey areas contain a vast majority of young people. Therefore, it is important for Glasgow and Manchester to provide facilities for families with children in order to sustain the reurbanisation in the survey areas.

The overall results indicate that although new residents in the survey areas were positive about the present city in terms of its perceptions, there is a high possibility that many new residents could relocate their residence to another city.

### **Where would they consider moving their residence?**

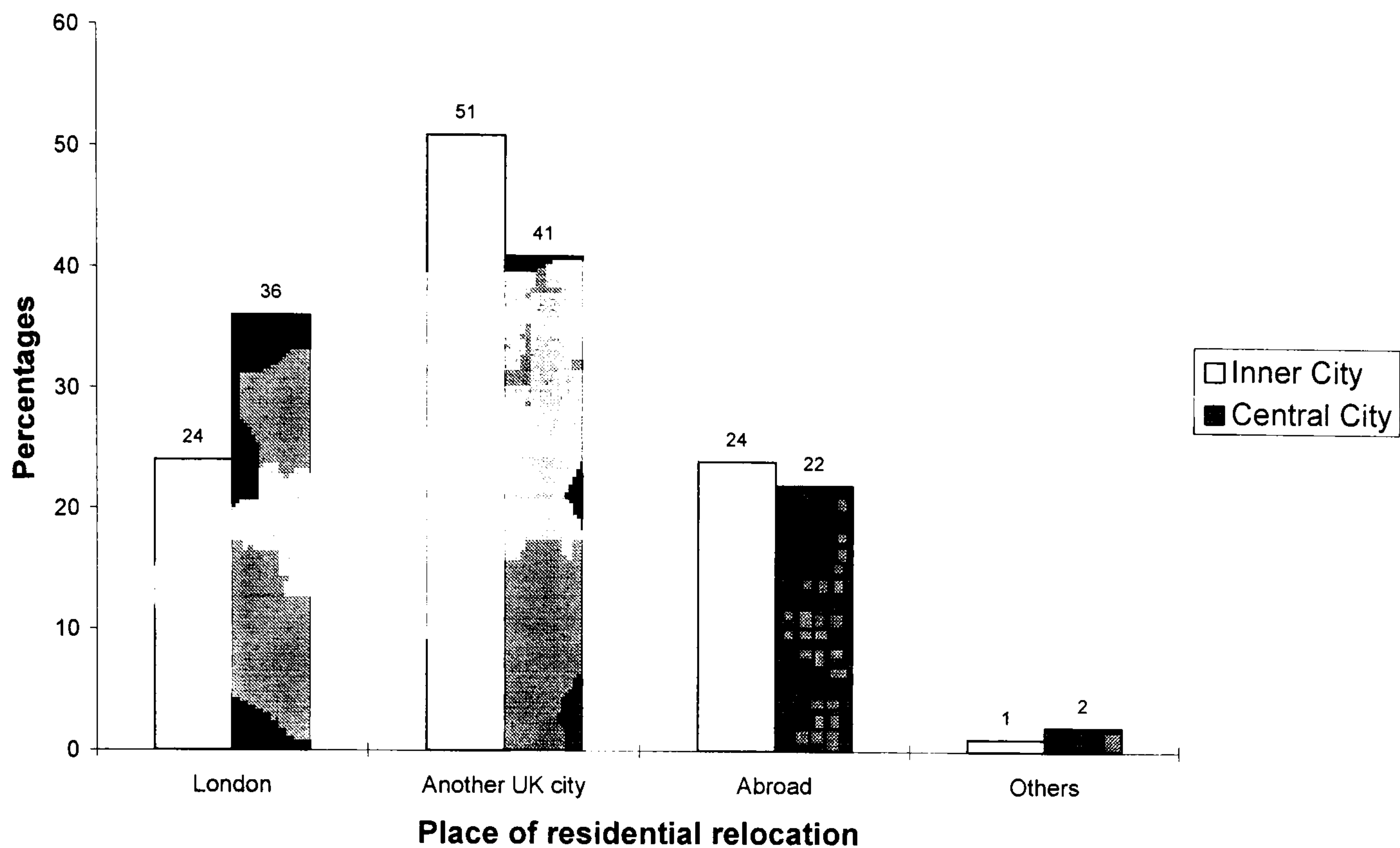
As many respondents would consider relocating their residence to another city, it can be very interesting to examine where they might relocate to their residence. Figure 8-27 (see Table 8-27 in Appendix 2) shows that around 24% of respondents in the inner city and around 36% in the central city, who considered moving, mentioned 'London', which is the single most popular city to be indicated. This may be because 'London' is the capital city and largest city in the UK, and possibly has the most opportunities in terms of employment and social life. A large percentage of respondents in both the inner city and the central city consider moving their residence to 'another UK city'<sup>49</sup>.

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<sup>49</sup> Most respondents in this category were unspecified.



**Figure 8-27: Place of possible residential relocation in the inner city and the central city<sup>50</sup>**



Another interesting factor is that around 24% in the inner city and 22% in the central city would consider moving abroad. As many residents in the central city are from outside the UK, these residents might obviously want to get back to the place where they are from. However, as few residents in the inner city are from outside the UK, it is difficult to understand why around 26% of respondents in the area who consider moving abroad. Possibly, they might feel that cities abroad would give better opportunities in terms of employment, or they might feel that foreign cities would give a better quality of life.

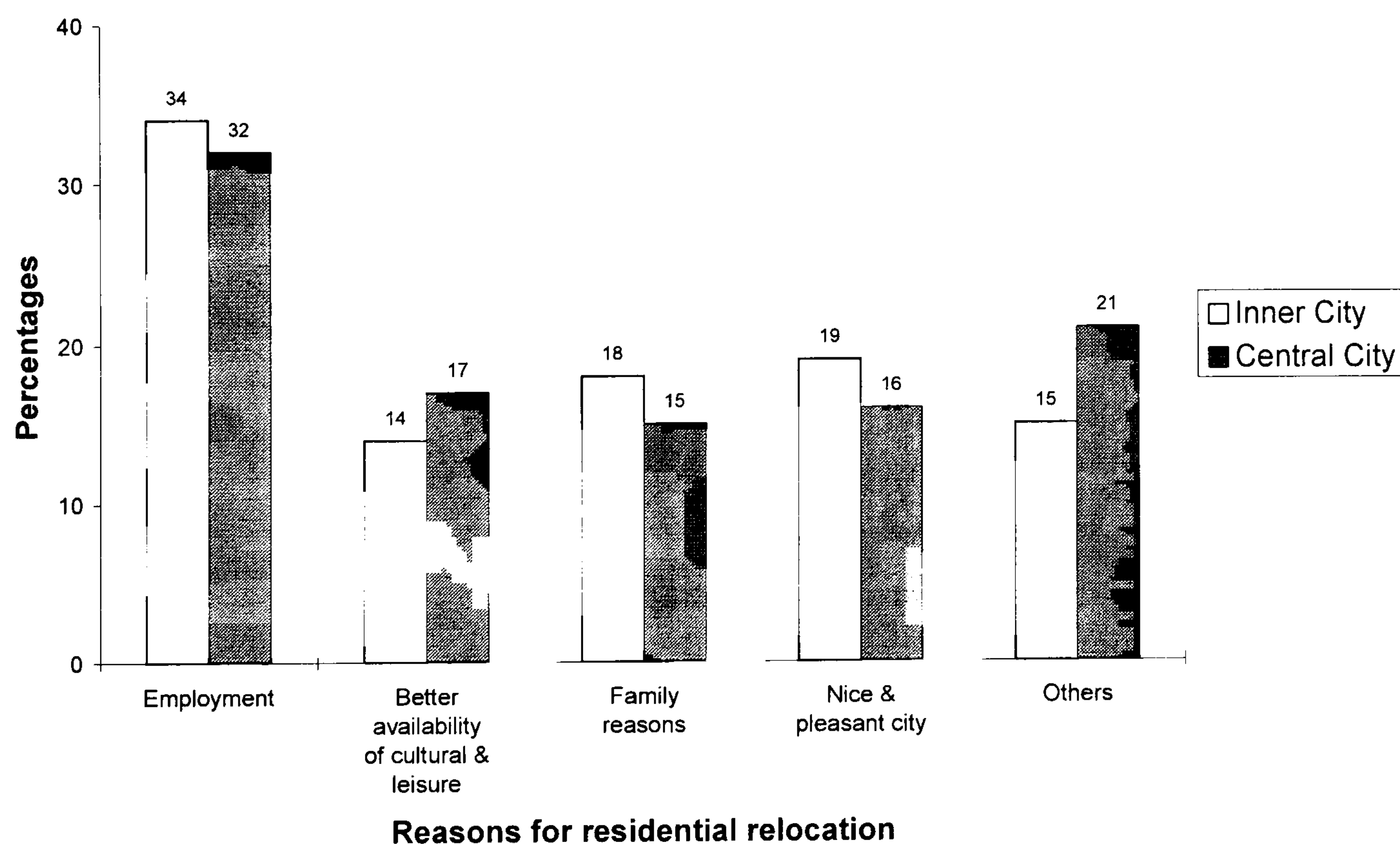
<sup>50</sup> In this part, respondents were given a close-ended question (Q 16.1 Where would you consider living?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.

## What are possible reasons for residential relocation to another city?

As many respondents consider moving to ‘London’, ‘another UK city’ or even to cities abroad, it is important to analyse respondents’ possible reasons for residential relocation to another city.

Figure 8-28 (see Table 8-28 in Appendix 2) shows that the major reason given by respondents for possible residential relocation in both the inner city and the central city is ‘employment’.

**Figure 8-28: Possible reasons for residential relocation to another city in the inner city and the central city<sup>51</sup>**



Young respondents who are in education might feel that another city would provide better employment opportunities than the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. Some

<sup>51</sup> In this part, respondents were given an open-ended question (Q 16.2 Why?), and were allowed to answer more than one factor. A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance. As this is an open-ended question, many less important answers, all these were put together in the category of ‘Others’. Thus the category has a large percentage (21%).



respondents who are in employment might think of possible employment relocation to another city, as many respondents in the survey areas have come to the city for their employment. Other factors, such as 'better availability of cultural and leisure facilities', and 'nice and pleasant city', indicate the importance of environment of cities as reasons for possible residential relocation.

The overall results indicate that an economic benefit, such as employment opportunities, seems to be the most important reason for respondents' possible residential relocation to another city. However, one might ask why do many residents particularly consider moving to London? And why do many residents think that London has better opportunities than Glasgow and Manchester? It is because of the concentration of the economic and cultural power in the capital city. As a large and variety of businesses and a wider availability of cultural facilities are in London, residents, especially young people with high economic status, would be likely to be attracted. Medium and small-sized cities in Britain could not compete with these massive advantages of London. One interesting example is that when Manchester's effort to host the Olympic Games was over the central government announced its intention to support London's bid for the 2008 Olympic Games. Manchester cannot compete with the massive economic and cultural advantages of London. This decision gave even more advantages to London. The unequal distribution of economic and cultural capability is the main reason for the dominance of London. Therefore, it would be important for policy makers in Glasgow and Manchester to consider how to compete with the economic and cultural power of London, though it would be very difficult.

## Summary

Throughout the evaluation of respondents' feelings about the city now, there are many interesting findings on Glasgow and Manchester. First of all, the attractiveness of the present city compared to the city in the 1970s- the majority of respondents, who lived in the cities in the 1970s, found that both cities now are more attractive compared to the city in the 1970s, though there are some slight differences between Glasgow and Manchester. The most important factor of attractiveness compared to the 1970s is 'improvement and availability of social and cultural (or leisure) facilities' for respondents in the survey areas. This indicates that social life in both cities has changed for the better, and also indicates that cultural facilities are an important strategy to change the perceptions of both cities.

Secondly, when looking at factors of unattractiveness of the present city compared to the 1970s- most eligible respondents in the survey areas found no factors as unattractive compared to the 1970s. However, increasing 'traffic problems' (for respondents in the central city) and 'crime' (for respondents in the inner city) appeared as the major problems.

Thirdly, most respondents in the survey areas hold positive perceptions of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. The major perception of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester appear as 'a developing and improving city' from respondents in both the inner city and the central city. A small number of respondents in both cities hold negative perceptions of the city. It appeared to them as 'a dangerous and unpleasant city'.

Fourthly, respondents in the survey areas are very positive about the notion that cultural facilities are important as image improvements. Moreover, although there are



slight differences between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds (which only appeared in the central city), they overwhelmingly supported the notion that cultural facilities are effective in image enhancement.

The major factors of image improvements generated by cultural facilities are ‘bring more people into the city’, ‘increasing reputation as a cultural city’ and ‘increasing accessibility and availability of a variety of different forms of culture’. However, few respondents in both cities considered that cultural facilities improved the city’s business profile. This may imply that cultural facilities have regenerated the physical environment of the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, but the prospect of employment opportunities may not be really improved by cultural facilities.

Fifthly, although the vast majority of respondents in the survey areas are proud of their city, types of housing, occupation and how long respondents have lived in the city largely affected pride in the city, particularly with respondents in Whitworth Street. Finally, one third of respondents in the inner city and two thirds in the central city would consider moving their residence to another city. In the inner city, respondents with better economic conditions seem to be more likely to relocate their residence, whereas in the central city respondents those who are from outside the city are more likely to move their residence to another city. It appears that ‘London’ is the single most popular city among respondents who consider moving their residence. ‘Employment’ seems to be the major factor that might lead to residential relocation from the cities of Glasgow and Manchester.

The overall results indicate that the cities of Glasgow and Manchester seem to be successful in improving the overall perceptions through the use of cultural facilities or through flagship schemes. However, respondents’ attitudes toward residence in the two cities seem to be highly unstable. If there were any slight degeneration of

economic and social conditions in the two cities, there would be a high possibility of residential relocation from the two cities that would take place. The formation of age and household structure and the concentration of the economic and cultural power in London might contribute to the vulnerability of residential location in the cities. Therefore, policy makers should take account of residents' attitudes toward residence in the cities, in order to sustain re-urbanisation in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester.



## **Chapter 9: Quality of social and economic life & cultural facilities**

### **Introduction**

Quality of life is a vague term, which has been used widely in the literature over the last few decades. According to Cutter (1985), it is essentially an individual's happiness or satisfaction with life and thus includes elements of the social, physical and economic environment in which the individual lives.

In recent years, the arts are increasingly seen as a vital ingredient in the quality of urban life, and a number of towns and cities have been turning to a fusion of cultural policy and urban planning as a means of making qualitative improvements in the quality of life for visitors and residents alike (Bianchini et al, 1988). Landry et al (1996) have highlighted the role that arts programmes can play in renewing citizenship. In particular, arts programmes have been demonstrated to enhance social cohesion, improve local image, promote interest in the local environment, build private and public sector partnerships, enhance organisational capacity, and explore visions of the future. However, it is argued that such an approach has encouraged the fragmentation of cities and the development of urban regeneration and planning policies which focus on designated zones or sites (Harvey, 1988; Healey et al, 1992).

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have provided a wide range of cultural facilities through prestigious cultural flagship projects. A vast majority of respondents in the survey areas are positive about these cultural facilities. Whether or not these cultural facilities in the two cities have been

effective, the perception of the two cities was also very positive from respondents in the areas. Most prestigious cultural facilities, however, concentrate upon certain areas, particularly on the CBD. Therefore it is questionable whether the provision of cultural facilities through prestige projects is designed to improve the quality of life for residents in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester as a whole. Moreover, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have used prestigious cultural facilities to promote tourism and to attract businesses. Using cultural facilities to promote tourism and to attract businesses usually means promoting just the sort of prestigious culture, such as opera, classical music, drama, paintings, dance, etc., which is aimed at high income groups, though these facilities are usually maintained by mainly public subsidies. In particular, Glasgow's European City of Culture celebrations were criticised for giving prominence to safe, unchallenging, cultural perspectives and marginalizing other, more critical, voices (Boyle & Hughes, 1991). It is argued that people with high income and educational background are more likely to participate in high culture (Lewis, 1990). Booth and Boyle (1993) see the promotion of specific cultural activities in Glasgow as a reward for upper and middle class commitment to the city. Therefore the provision of cultural facilities in both cities might not adequately reflect all residents' cultural needs.

The cities of Glasgow and Manchester have provided a variety of facilities, such as concert halls, theatres, museums, galleries, sports related facilities, etc., to increase the quality of life in the city. However, does the provision of cultural facilities improve the individual's quality of life? It is open to question whether residents in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester consider the cultural facilities in the city as important factors in their life in the city.



Moreover, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have used cultural flagships to improve the overall image of their city, and in turn, they also believe that it would affect economic development in the cities. Cultural facilities can create a large amount of service employment both directly and indirectly (e.g., bars, restaurants, etc. near cultural facilities). However, the economic benefit from cultural facilities would vary between residents in the survey areas. For instance, young and skilled residents would benefit more than older residents in long-term unemployment. It is interesting to see how cultural facilities affect residents' employment directly or indirectly.

This chapter analyses what respondents in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester feel about cultural facilities in the city, and whether the provision of such facilities actually helps to improve the quality of social and economic life for respondents. It is also an important argument that the provision of cultural facilities through prestigious cultural flagship projects might greatly enhance the quality of social and economic life in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, but there is a critical issue of who actually benefits most from such provision.

## **Part 1: Residents' participation in cultural activities**

In the mid 1980s and early 1990s, the cities of Glasgow and Manchester stimulated increased awareness, participation and cultural developments through the application of prestigious cultural flagship projects. The provision of cultural facilities in both cities seems not just to attempt to improve their city's overall images, but also to try to extend the creativity of their citizens through the availability of a variety of different forms of culture. However, although both cities have provided a variety of prestige cultural facilities, it is questionable whether residents in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester extensively use such prestige cultural facilities. Therefore it is important to analyse residents' participation in prestigious cultural facilities provided by the cities of Glasgow and Manchester.

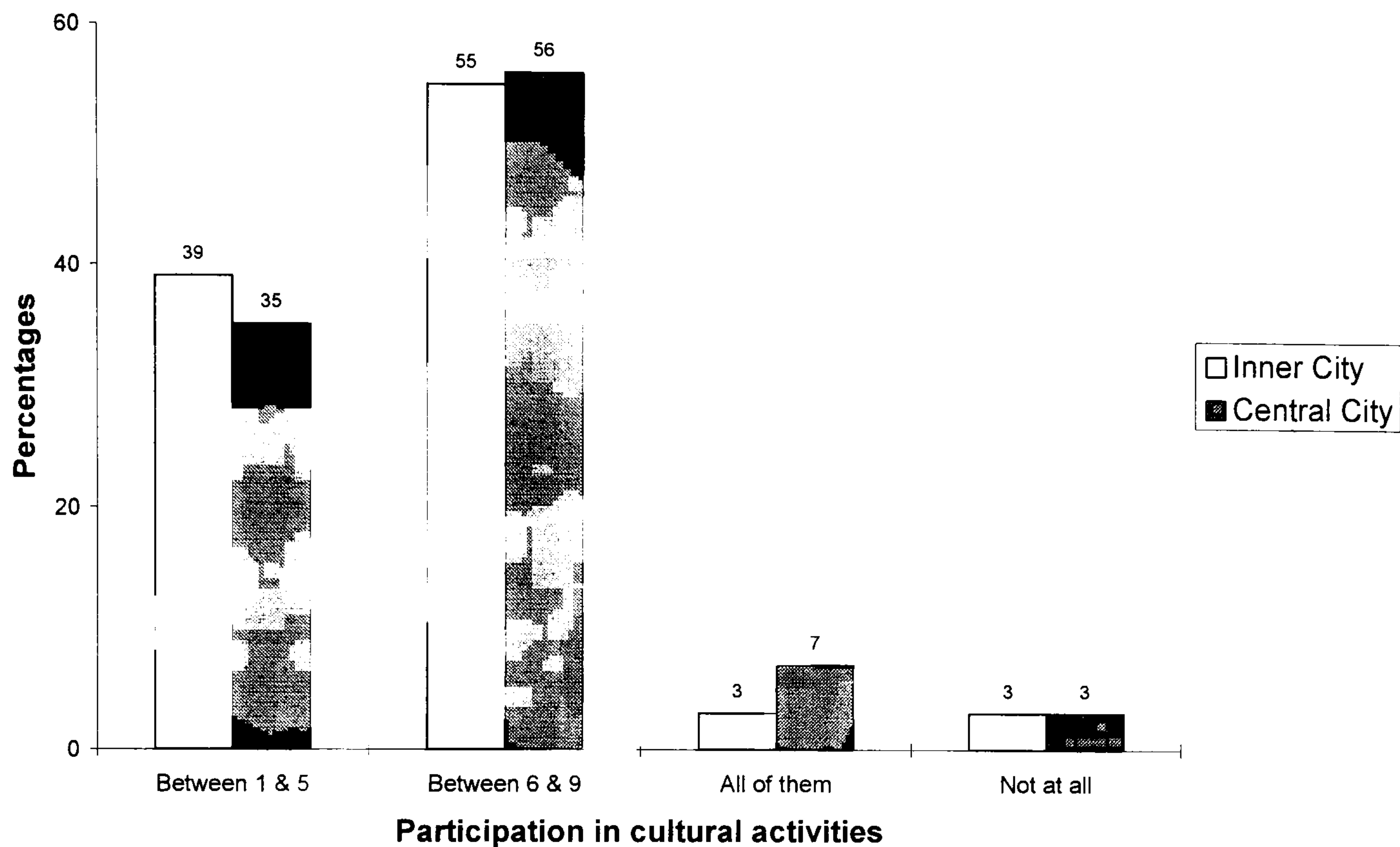
Ten facilities, both well-known and less well-known cultural amenities, in both cities were given to respondents to indicate whether they have visited them or not. The facilities are 'the Burrell Collection, Hunterian Art Gallery, Kelvingrove, People's Palace (the city's history museum), Third Eye Centre, Scottish Exhibition & Conference Centre, Transport Museum, City Halls (concert hall), Glasgow Royal Concert Hall and Citizens Theatre in Glasgow; and Bridgewater Hall, G-Mex, Nynex Arena, Museum of Science and Industry, the Whitworth Art Gallery, Opera House, Palace Theatre, Royal Exchange Theatre, Granada Studios Tour and Transport Museum in Manchester.

Figure 9-1 (see Table 9-1 in Appendix 2) reveals participation in high profile cultural facilities (see the name of cultural facilities on the footnote of Table 9-1 in Appendix 2) between respondents in the inner city and the central city. There are no significant



differences in participation in cultural facilities between respondents in the inner city and the central city.

**Figure 9-1: Residents' participation in cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city<sup>52</sup>**

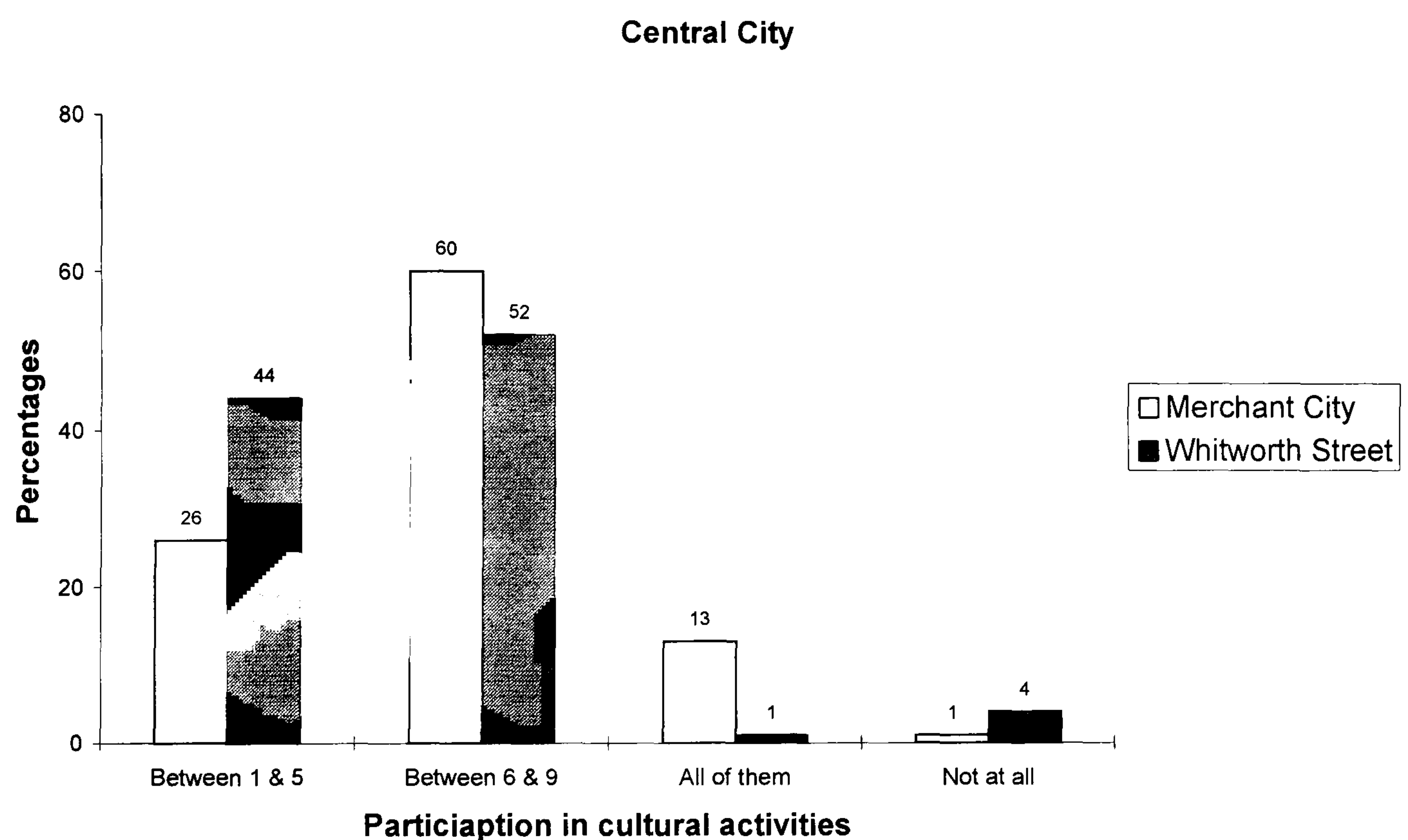
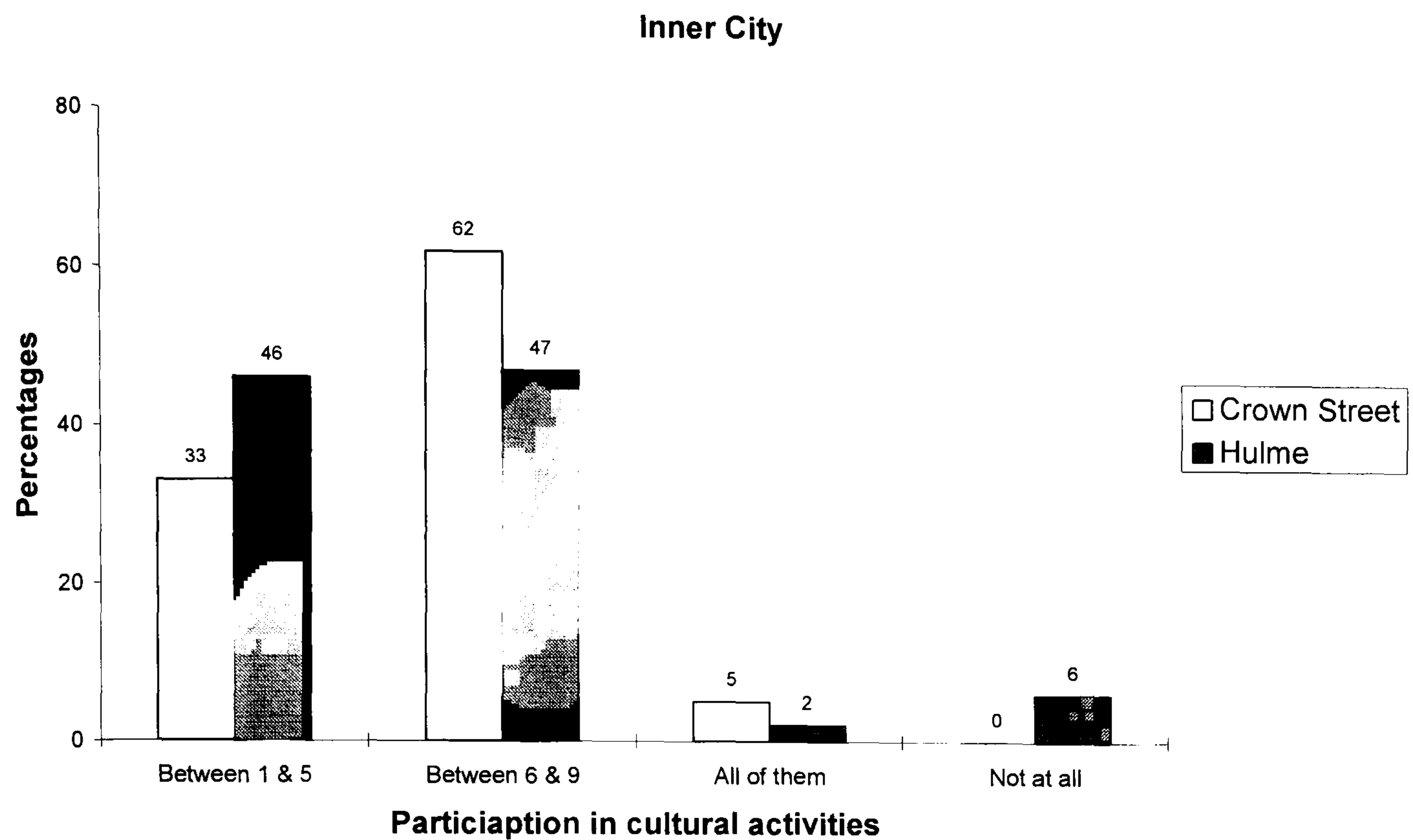


More than half of respondents in both the areas have been to between six and nine out of ten facilities, but very few respondents in both the areas had visited all the facilities or none of the facilities. The overall result indicates that residents in the survey areas seem to have actively participated in cultural activities that were provided by their city.

The information is divided by areas to see if there were any differences between them. Figure 9-2 (see Table 9-2 in Appendix 2) shows that within the inner city areas, respondents in Crown Street showed more participation in cultural activities than respondents in Hulme.

<sup>52</sup> The figure is based on Q18 (Please indicate if you have ever visited the following?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.

**Figure 9-2: Residents' participation in the four areas**



Within the central city areas, respondents in Merchant City showed higher levels of participation in cultural activities than respondents in Whitworth Street. Therefore, it seems that respondents in Glasgow as a whole participate more in cultural activities than respondents in Manchester. There could be several reasons for differences in participation between respondents in Glasgow and respondents in Manchester. Firstly, the city of Glasgow might provide cultural facilities, which are more accessible in



terms of low-ticket prices for their residents than the city of Manchester. In fact, some facilities in Manchester are quite expensive to visit, such as ‘Granada Studio Tour’ and ‘Museum of Science and Industry’, compared to facilities in Glasgow, such as ‘People’s Palace (the city’s museum)’ and the ‘Burrell Collection’. Therefore, high prices might discourage residents in Manchester from participating in cultural activities. Secondly, there are more residents in Manchester who are from outside the city and who have been in the city for a short period of time than in Glasgow. These residents might not have had enough time in the city to visit cultural facilities. Finally, simply residents in Manchester might be less enthusiastic about participation in cultural activities than residents in Glasgow or might be less informed about cultural facilities that are available in their city than residents in Glasgow. For instance, as Glasgow hosted the European City of Culture in 1990, this might increase residents’ interest in cultural facilities in their city and awareness of the importance of cultural facilities.

### **The participation of residents with different social and economic backgrounds in cultural facilities**

It can be assumed that different social and economic backgrounds might affect residents’ participation in cultural facilities. A British Market Bureau survey (1986) revealed that people in a high social class are more likely to show an interest in the traditional arts (e.g., ballet, opera, classical music, art galleries, theatre, etc.) than people in a low social class. Prestigious cultural facilities provided in both cities concentrate on high culture. Therefore it is interesting to see how different



participation in cultural activities is among residents under study with different social and economic backgrounds under study in Glasgow and Manchester.

**Figure 9-3: Participation in cultural activities by residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the inner city**

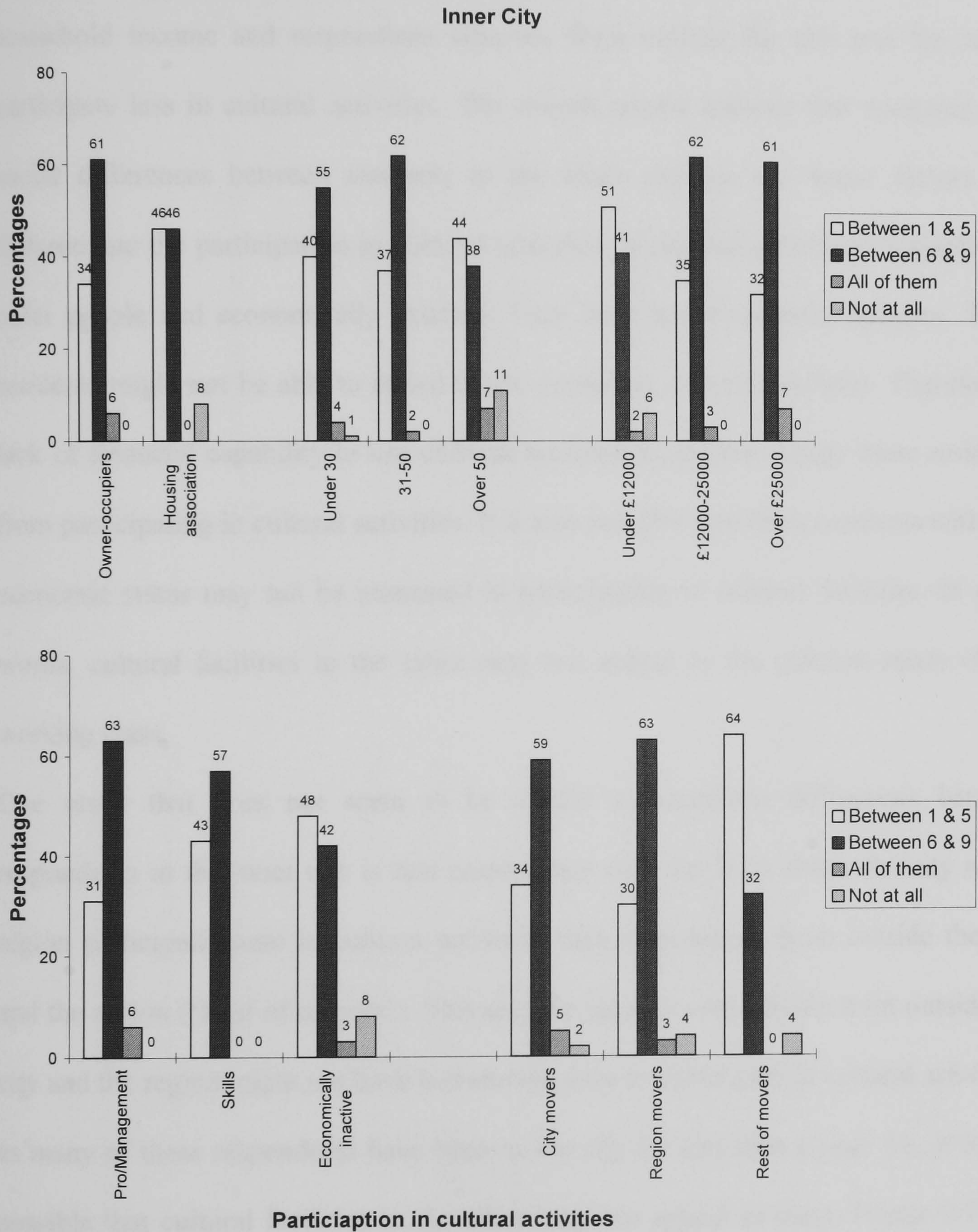


Figure 9-3 (see Table 9-3 in Appendix 2) reveals differences in the participation in cultural activities by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds (e.g., types of tenure, age, household income, occupations and previous residential



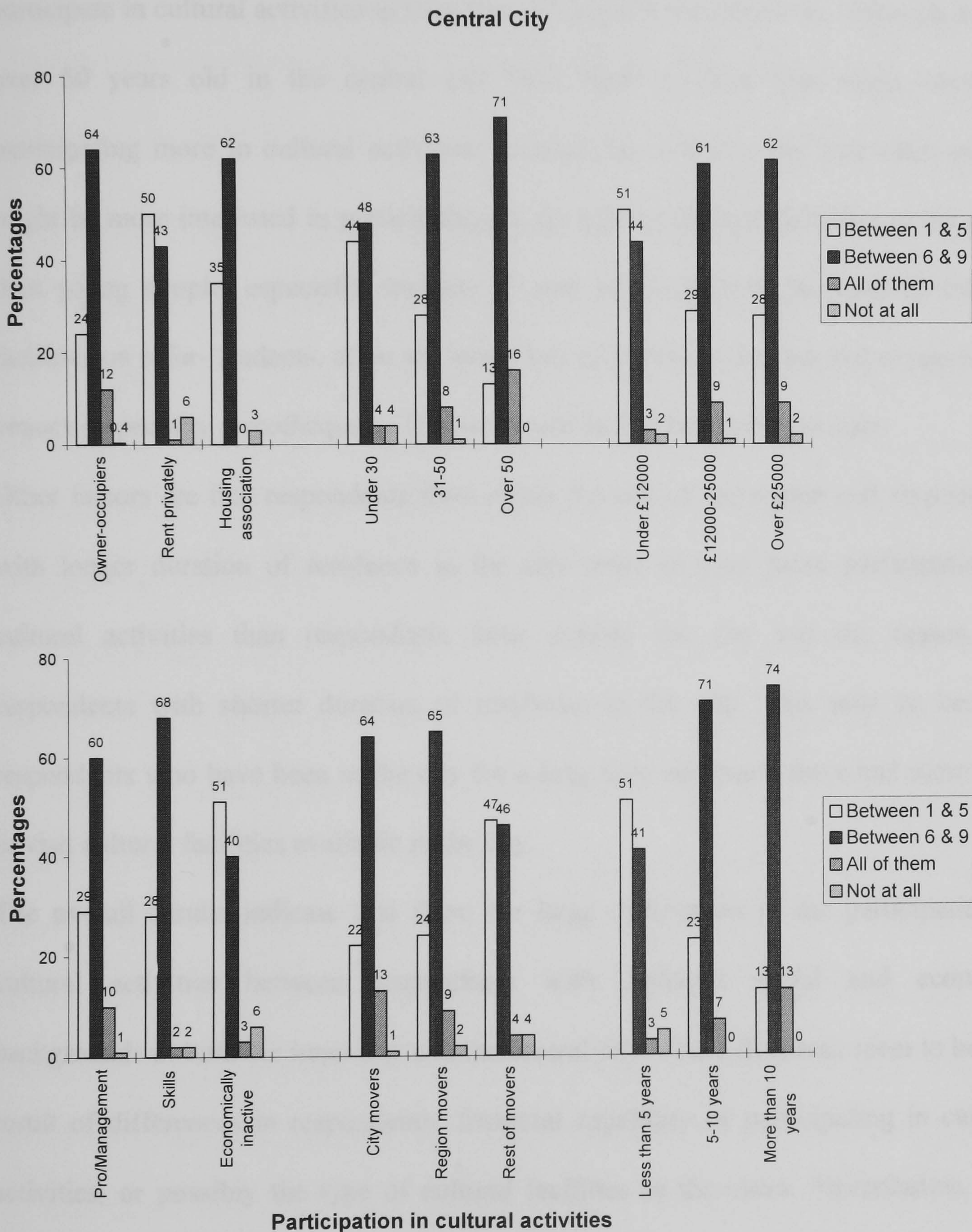
location). Young respondents and owner-occupiers with professional and managerial occupations and high household incomes, and respondents who are either from the city or the region appear to participate more in cultural facilities. Older respondents, social housing renters, economically inactive respondents, respondents with low household income and respondents who are from outside the city and the region participate less in cultural activities. The overall results indicate that economic and social differences between residents in the inner city are the major factors that differentiate the participation in cultural activities. Many social housing residents are older people and economically inactive. They have low household incomes. These residents might not be able to afford to use expensive cultural facilities. Therefore, a lack of financial capability to use cultural facilities might discourage these residents from participating in cultural activities. It is also possible that these residents with low economic status may not be interested in participating in cultural facilities. In other words, cultural facilities in the cities may not appeal to the cultural tastes of the working class.

One result that does not seem to be related to economic differences between respondents in the inner city is that respondents who are from either the city or the region participate more in cultural activities than respondents from outside the city and the region ('Rest of movers'). This may be because respondents from outside the city and the region might not have had enough time to participate in cultural activities, as many of these respondents have been in the city for less than a year. Or, it is also possible that cultural facilities in the cities may not appeal to them. Figure 9-4 (see Table 9-4 in Appendix 2) reveals similar outcomes with the results of the inner city. Economic differences between respondents in the central city also seem to be the



major factor that differentiates the participation in cultural activities among respondents.

**Figure 9-4: Participation in cultural activities by residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the central city**



Owner-occupiers with high household incomes and professional and managerial occupations seem to participate more in cultural activities than private renters, respondents with low household incomes and economically inactive respondents.



One interesting factor is that, unlike in the inner city, older respondents seem to participate more in cultural activities than young respondents. However, this is also related to economic differences between older and young respondents. Many young residents in the central city are students. They might not be able to afford to participate in cultural activities as they are on low incomes. However, although people over 50 years old in the central city have high incomes that might result in participating more in cultural activities, it might be also possible that older people might be more interested in participating in the type of cultural facilities in the cities than young people, especially students. It may be to do with the kind of cultural facilities on offer- students, often all, spend lots of money in the pub and at pop music venues (especially discotheques). This issue will be further discussed later.

Other factors are that respondents from either the city or the region and respondents with longer duration of residence in the city seem to have more participation in cultural activities than respondents from outside the city and the region and respondents with shorter duration of residence in the city. This may be because respondents who have been in the city for a long time obviously have had more time to visit cultural facilities available in the city.

The overall results indicate that there are large differences in the participation in cultural activities between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds in both the inner city and the central city. The differences seem to be as a result of differences in respondents' financial capability of participating in cultural activities, or possibly the type of cultural facilities in the cities. Nevertheless, it is remarkable that regardless of economic status and other variables over 40% of all respondents had visited between 6 and 9 facilities. It implies that cultural and leisure facilities are an important social life for residents in both cities.

The analysis of the participation in cultural activities by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results between the inner city and the central city.

### **In what types of cultural facilities do new residents participate?**

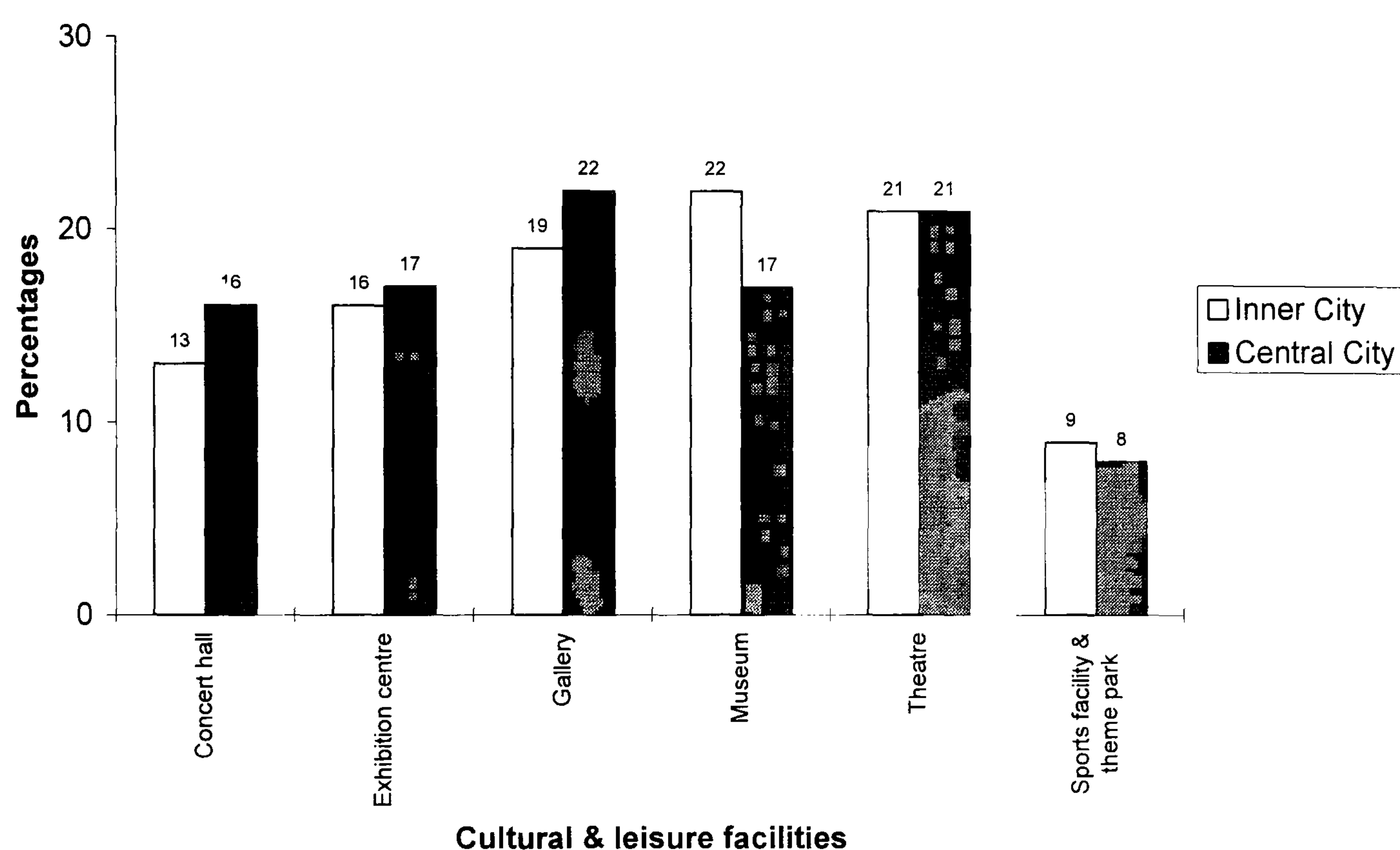
The previous analysis indicated that respondents in the survey areas have actively used cultural facilities provided by the cities of Glasgow and Manchester, though there were some differences in participation between respondents with different social and economic backgrounds. This section looks at what types of cultural facilities new residents in the survey areas most often use. The ten cultural facilities in both Glasgow and Manchester were classified by six types, such as ‘concert hall’, ‘exhibition centre’, ‘gallery’, ‘museum’, ‘theatre’ and ‘sports & theme park’.

Figure 9-5 (see Table 9-4 in Appendix 2) shows that for respondents in the inner city ‘museums’ are the most often used cultural facility among the six classified facilities, whereas for respondents in the central city, ‘galleries’ are seen as the most often used cultural facility. It can be said that visiting art galleries might require more understanding of art than visiting museums. As many respondents in the inner city areas are economically inactive and live in social housing, these respondents might be assumed to have low educational backgrounds (although it would be very interesting to know about their educational background, it is not the major concern of this study.). Therefore, one may assume that respondents in the inner city would prefer to visit museums rather than galleries.



'Theatres' are mentioned as the second most often used cultural facilities for respondents in both the inner city and the central city. Visiting theatres might also require extensive understanding of art, for example dramatic performance, opera, ballet, etc., but easily understandable performances, such as children's pantomimes and popular plays, are often to be seen in theatres.

**Figure 9-5: Residents' use of types of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**<sup>53</sup>

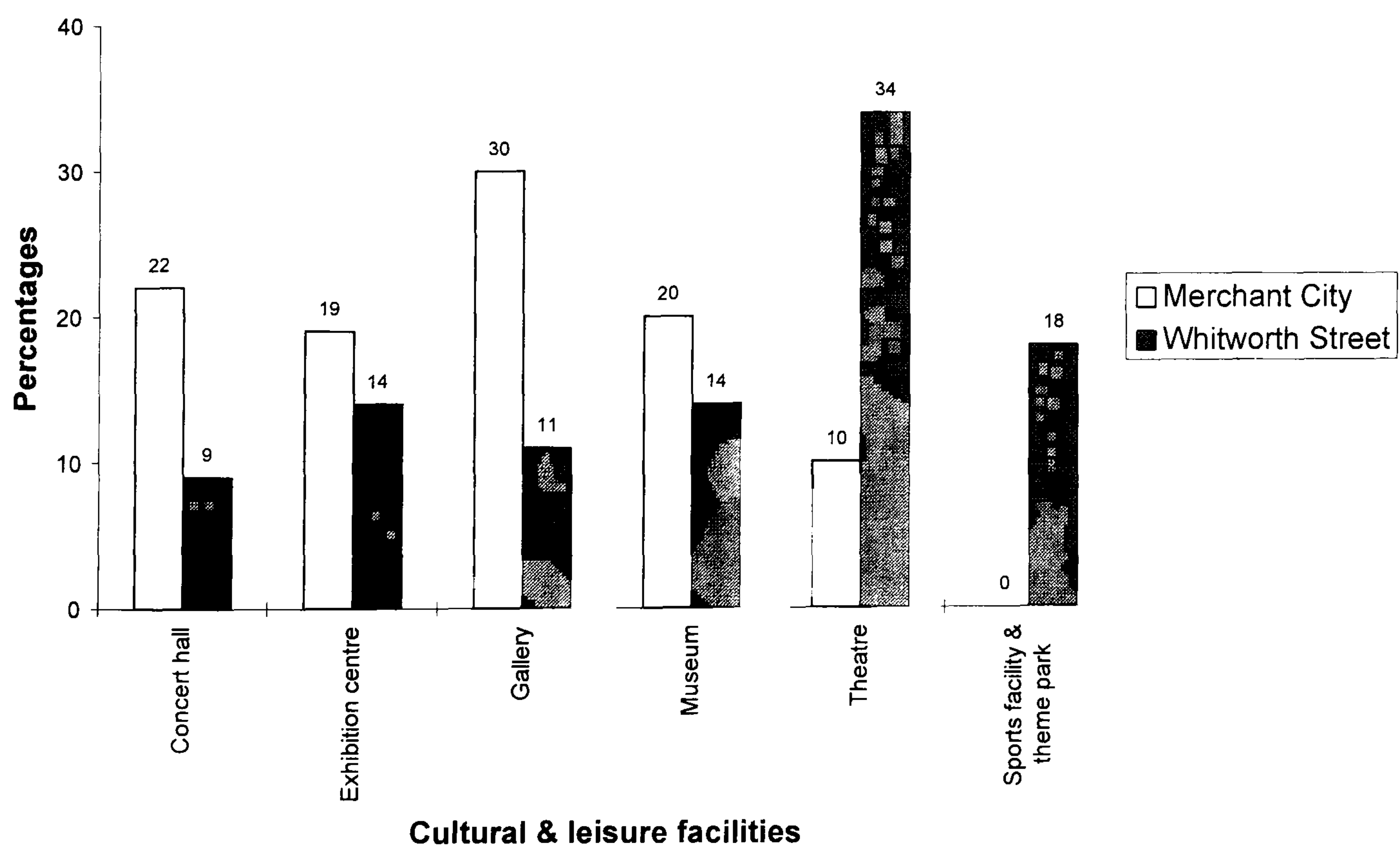
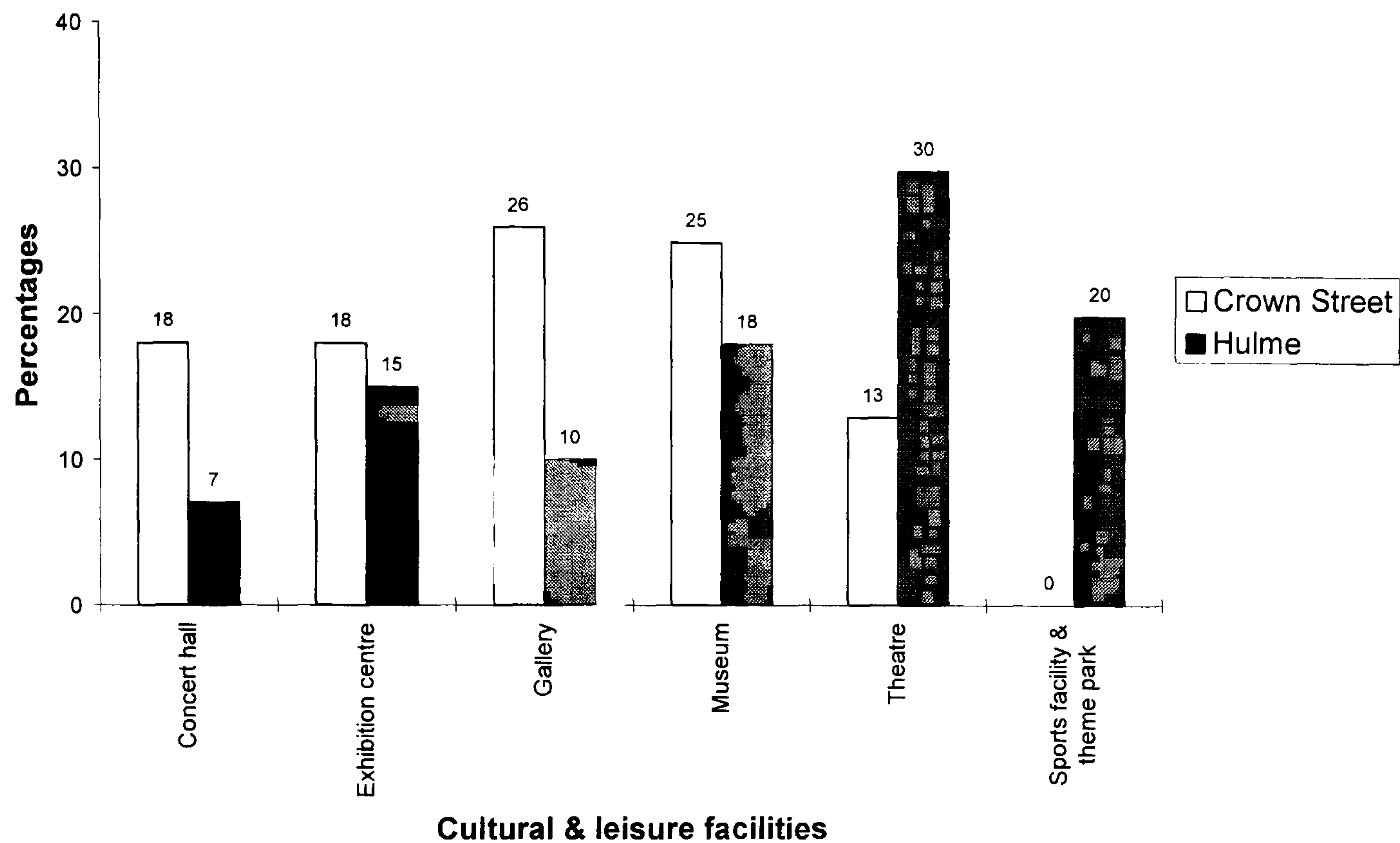


'Sports facility and theme park' are not listed in Glasgow and, therefore, total participation appears as low. When analysing participation into the four areas (below) a different pattern emerges.

<sup>53</sup> The figure is also based on Q18 (Please indicate if you have ever visited the following?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance. The classification of six categories contains: Concert Hall ('City Halls', & 'Glasgow Royal Concert Hall' in Glasgow and 'The Bridgewater Hall' in Manchester); Exhibition Centre ('Third Eye Centre' & 'Scottish Exhibition and Conference Centre' in Glasgow and 'G-Mex' in Manchester); Gallery ('The Burrell Collection', 'Hunterian Art Gallery' & 'Kelvingrove' in Glasgow and 'The Whitworth Art Gallery' in Manchester); Museum ('People's Palace' & 'Transport Museum' in Glasgow and 'Museum of Science and Industry' & 'Transport Museum' in Manchester); Theatre ('Citizens Theatre' in Glasgow and 'Opera House', 'Palace Theatre' & 'Royal Exchange Theatre' in Manchester); and Sports facility & Theme park ('Nynex Arena' & 'Granada Studio Tour'). The classification of the six categories was based on the characteristics of facilities.

Figure 9-6 (see Table 9-6 in Appendix 2) shows that there are significant differences in respondents' use of types of cultural facilities within the inner city areas and within the central city areas.

**Figure 9-6: Residents' use of types of cultural facilities in the four areas**



However, the differences are much more visible between the survey areas of Glasgow and the survey areas of Manchester. More respondents in Glasgow use 'galleries' than respondents in Manchester. On the other hand, more respondents in Manchester use



‘theatres’ than respondents in Glasgow. The main reason may be because in Manchester few famous art galleries are available compared to Glasgow, but there are many big theatres available.

Another interesting factor is that, as mentioned above, ‘sports facilities & theme park’ are only available in Manchester. These particular facilities are the second most often used facilities for residents in Hulme and Whitworth Street among the six classified facilities. This finding indicates that types of popular culture can be more attractive to residents than types of high culture. This may be because popular culture might be easily participated by all sorts of people, whereas high culture might be difficult for some people to participate in, particularly those people who have no knowledge of the arts. Popular cultures would also be participated in by all members of family. The facilities could be an entertainment for the family. Thus, the facilities could be attractive to a large number of people. However, the type of cultural facilities provided in both cities seems largely to ignore the importance of popular culture.

## **Part 2: Awareness and approval of public funding on cultural facilities**

### **Awareness of public funding on cultural facilities**

Prestigious cultural flagship facilities in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester were constructed at enormous capital cost<sup>54</sup>, and high running expenses are expected to be needed to keep the facilities up to date. Most prestige cultural facilities in both cities are partly funded by public subsidies<sup>55</sup>. Are residents in the cities of Glasgow and

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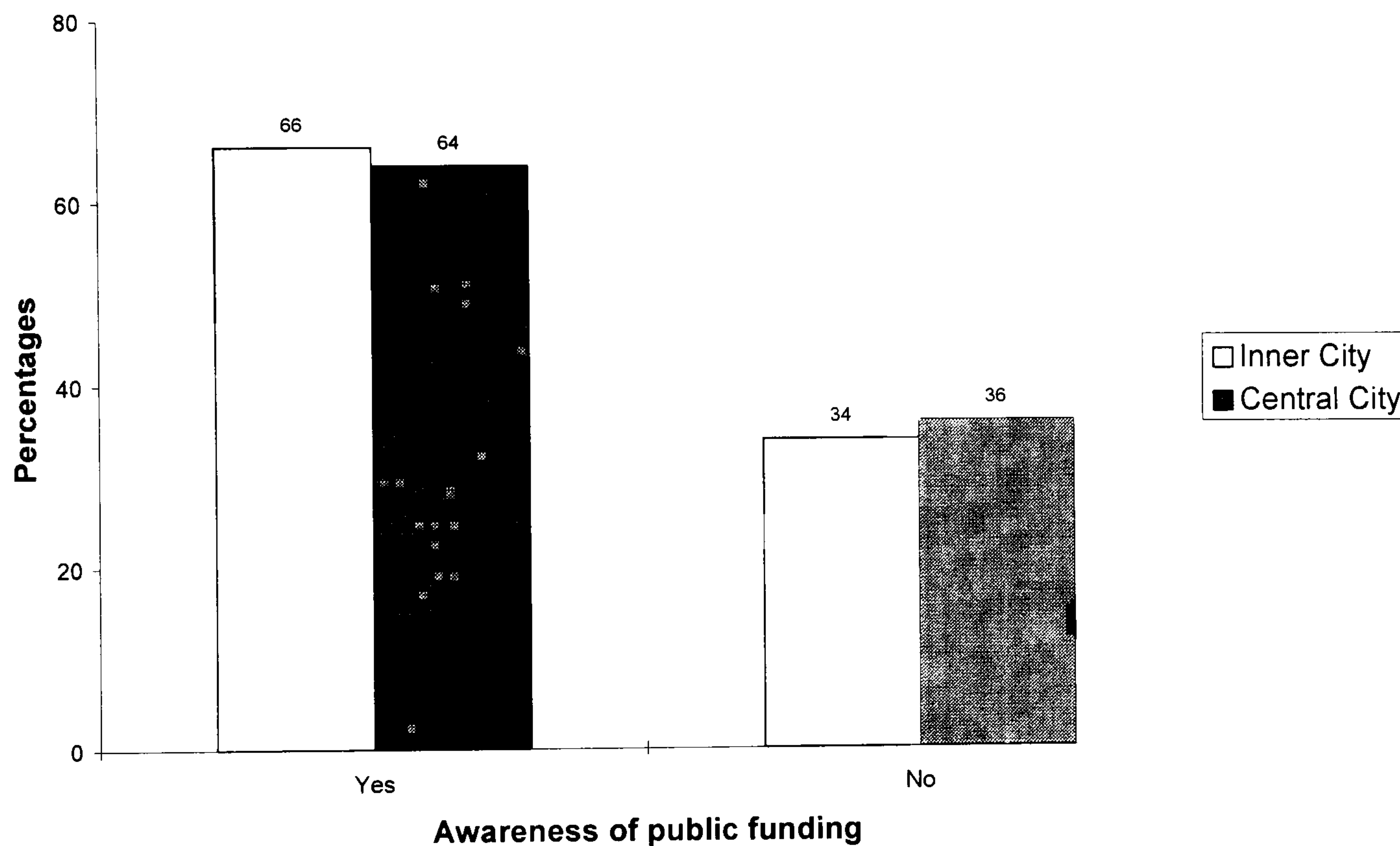
<sup>54</sup> For example, the construction of a new concert hall (Glasgow Royal Concert Hall) in Glasgow took £28.5m, and the Bridgewater Hall in Manchester was constructed at a cost of £43m.

<sup>55</sup> Granada Studio is privately owned (the Granada Group), thus it is maintained by private funding.

Manchester aware of public funding on arts or cultural facilities? If they did know about public subsidy of such facilities, do they approve of it?

Figure 9-7 (see Table 9-7 in Appendix 2) shows that around two thirds of respondents in both the inner city and the central city are aware of public funding of the facilities which indicates that most respondents are well informed about public funding of cultural facilities.

**Figure 9-7: Awareness of public funding of the facilities (the inner city and the central city)**<sup>56</sup>



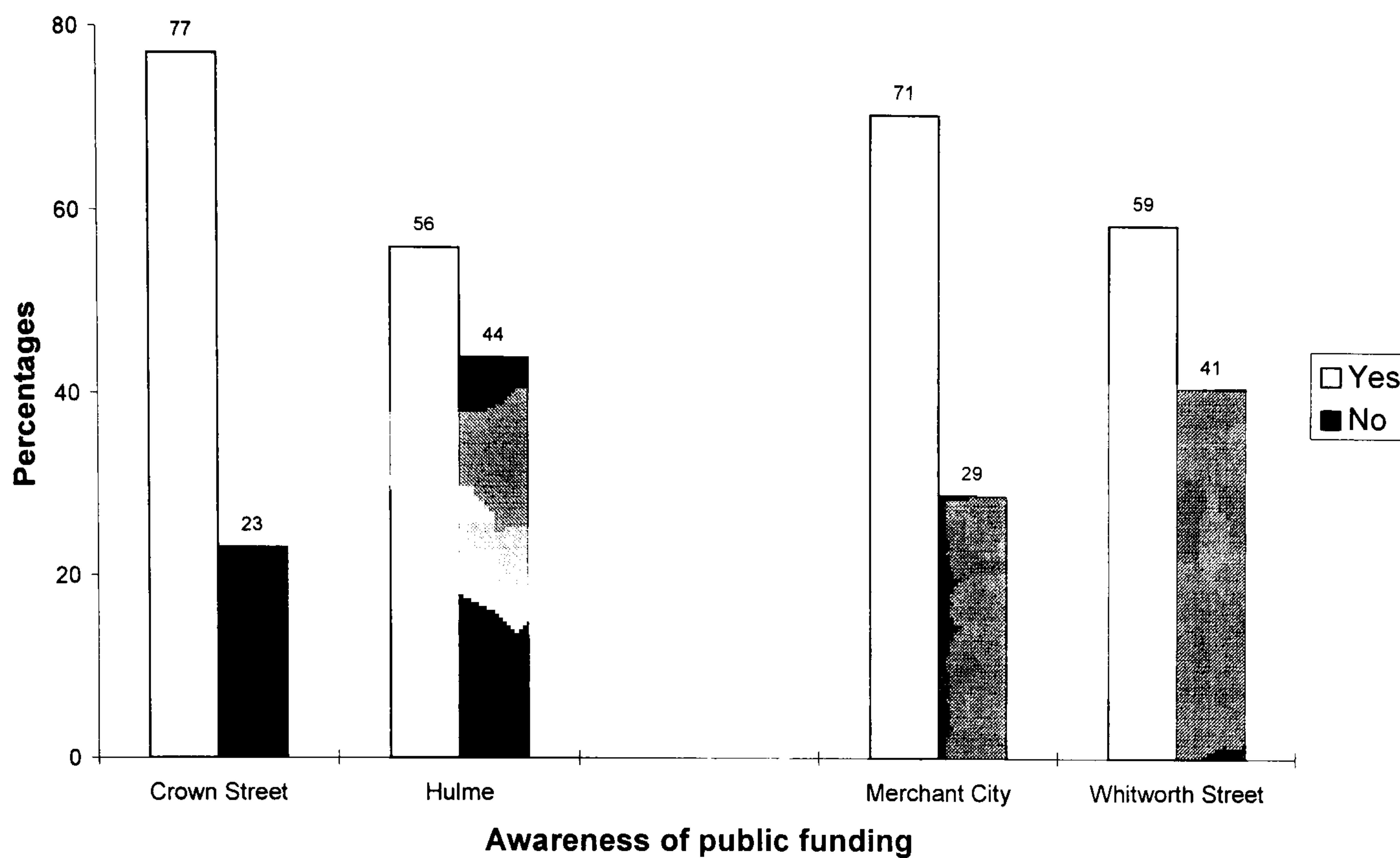
The information is divided into the four survey areas to see if there are any differences in the awareness of public funding of the facilities.

Figure 9-8 (see Table 9-8 in Appendix 2) shows that there are large differences between Glasgow and Manchester. Respondents in Crown Street and Merchant City are more aware of public funding of the facilities than respondents in Hulme and Whitworth Street.

<sup>56</sup> The figure is based on Q 19 (Do you know that some of these facilities were subsidised?) A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical differences.



**Figure 9-8: Awareness of public funding of the facilities (the four areas)**



Unlike in Glasgow, in Manchester the facilities were funded by Manchester Development Corporation, but the city council was not so involved. Thus, respondents in Manchester might be less well informed about public funding on cultural facilities.

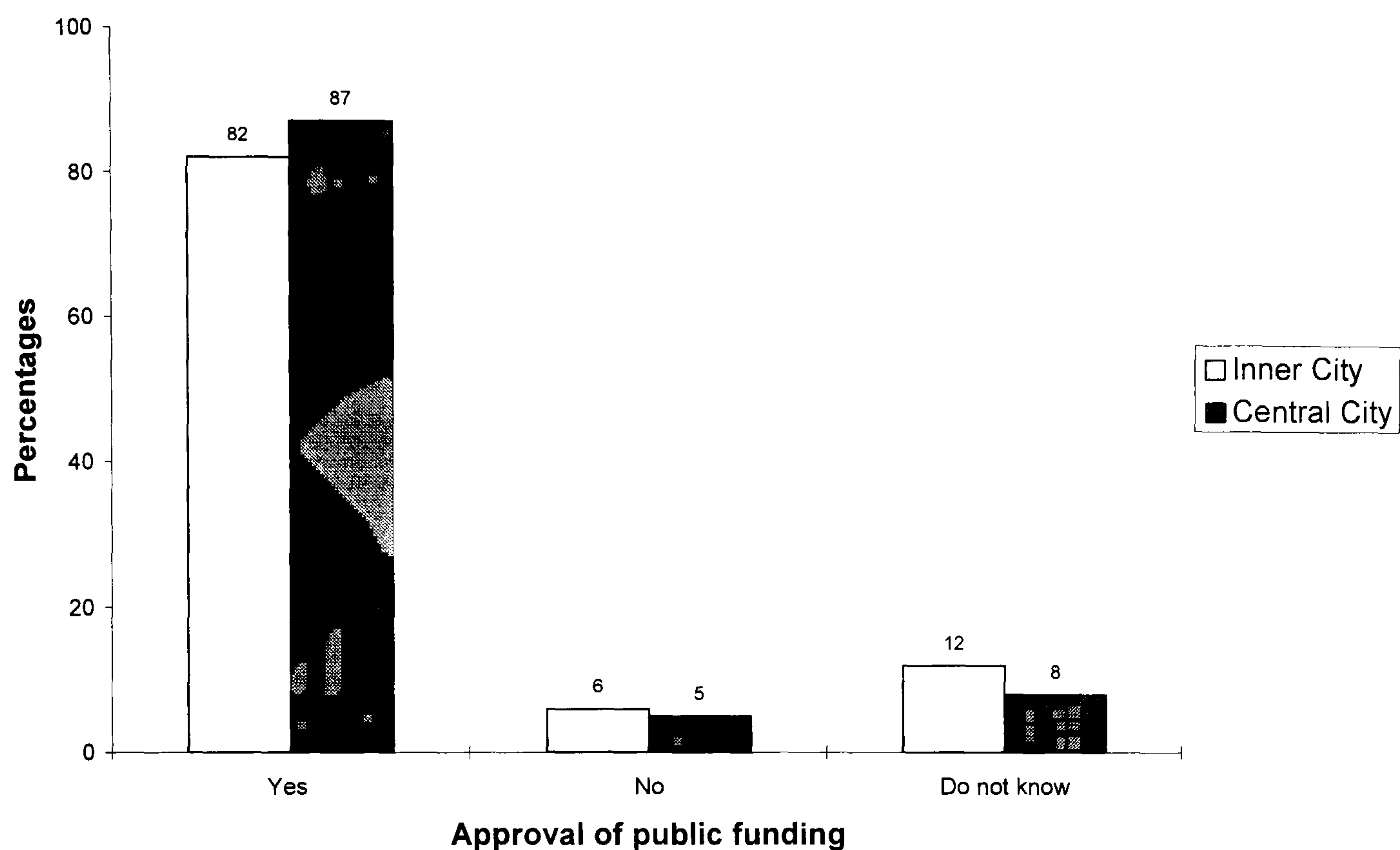
### **Approval of public funding on cultural facilities**

Although the results clearly show that many respondents in both cities are aware of public funding, it does not tell us whether they approve of public funding of the facilities.

Figure 9-9 (see Table 9-9 in Appendix 2) shows that the vast majority of respondents in both the inner city and the central city are positive about public funding of facilities. One of the reasons may be that Glasgow and Manchester often publicise the importance of art or cultural facilities in regenerating their local economy and the physical regeneration of the city. Therefore such promotional campaigns in both cities

might affect the attitude of residents in a way that residents may regard public funding of the facilities as an important process of development.

**Figure 9-9: Approval of public funding of the facilities (the inner city and the central city)** <sup>57</sup>



However, this might not be the only reason why residents approved of public funding of the facilities. Residents may use them regularly or the facilities may be essential to their life. But there are differences between the rate of approval and the rate of participation, thus they may approve of cultural provision for its own sake.

The approval of public funding of the facilities when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results between the inner city and the central city. The analysis of the approval of public funding of the facilities by residents with different social and economic backgrounds also found no differences between them.

<sup>57</sup> The figure is based on Q20 (Do you think that it is a good idea that they should receive subsidies?). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical differences.



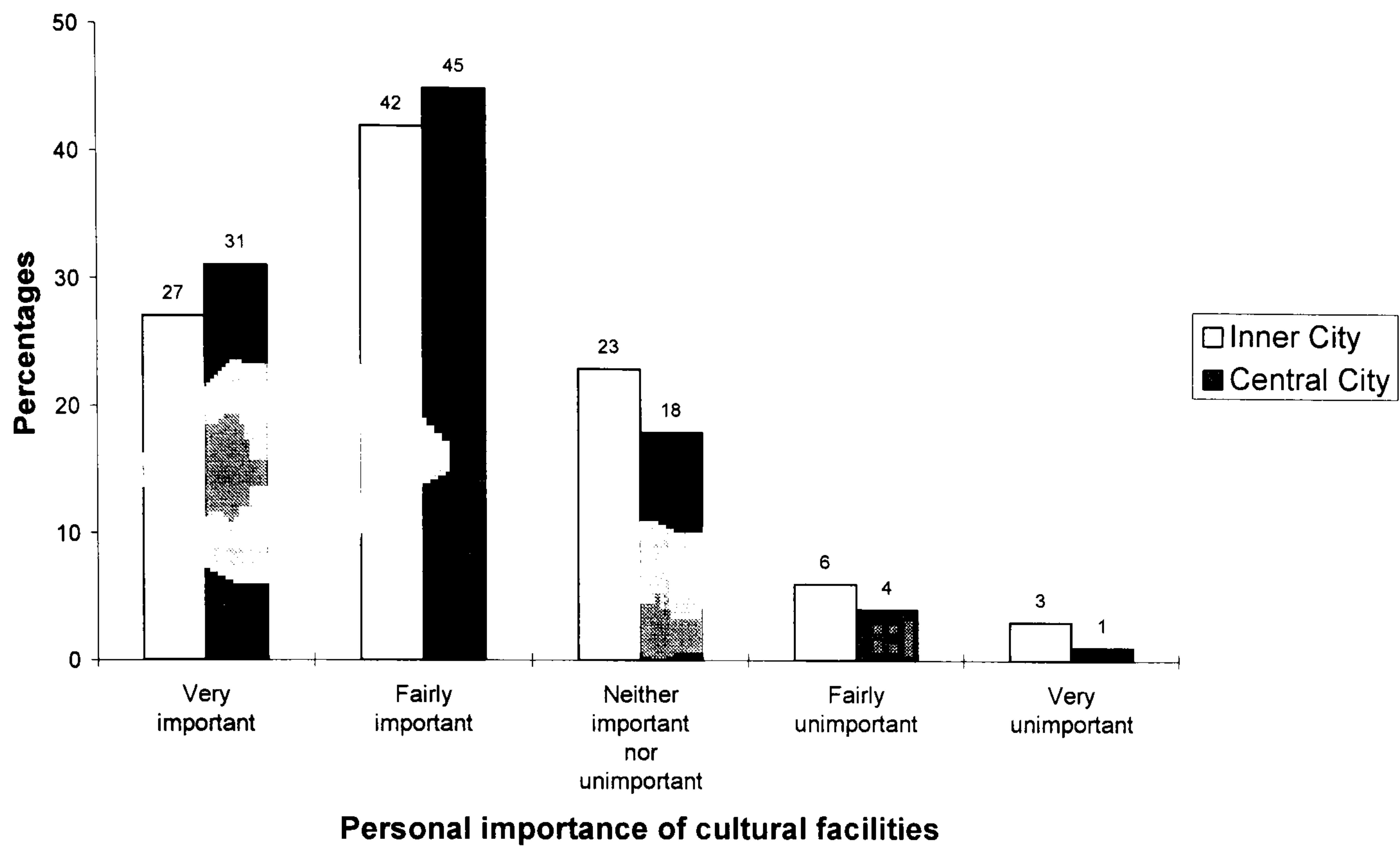
### **Part 3: Importance of cultural facilities to individual residents**

#### **Importance of cultural facilities in residents' life**

As mentioned above, both Glasgow and Manchester have adopted prestigious cultural flagship developments to improve their city's image, economic context, and quality of life for their citizens. However, it is an interesting question as to whether residents also consider cultural facilities to be an important factor in their life. It is possible that although residents in both cities may think that cultural facilities are important for their city's economy and overall physical improvement, they may feel that the facilities are not important to them personally. Moreover, as has been pointed out, wealthier residents seem to participate more in cultural activities than economically worse-off residents. Therefore, it can be assumed that the former would consider cultural facilities more important to their life than the latter.

Figure 9-10 (see Table 9-10 in Appendix 2) shows that there are no significant differences in the personal importance of cultural facilities between respondents in the inner city and respondents in the central city. A vast majority of respondents in both the inner city and the central city mentioned cultural facilities as either a very or fairly important factor in their life, but few respondents mentioned cultural facilities as being a fairly or very unimportant factor in their life. The result indicates that most respondents under study might not just be influenced by the promotional campaigns conducted by their city authority, but seem to regard cultural facilities as important to them personally. Therefore, the provision of a variety of cultural facilities in Glasgow and Manchester is not only merely a tool for the promotion of the cities' regeneration purposes, but it also increases the quality of life for residents in the two cities.

**Figure 9-10: Personal importance of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**<sup>58</sup>



The analysis of the personal importance of cultural facilities when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the result between the inner city and the central city, thus confirming that respondents in both cities feel the same.

**The personal importance of cultural facilities by residents with different social and economic backgrounds**

As mentioned earlier, economically better-off residents have used more cultural facilities than economically worse-off residents in the survey areas. Therefore, one might expect that there would be large differences in the personal importance of cultural facilities between residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the areas. However, the analysis of the importance of cultural facilities by residents

<sup>58</sup> The figure is based on Q24 (How important are facilities such as museums, theatres, galleries, concert halls, opera houses and exhibition centres to you personally?). A one-sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical differences.



with different social and economic backgrounds found no differences in both the central city and the inner city. Age differences only were found to be significant.

**Figure 9-11: Personal importance of cultural facilities by age in the inner city and the central city**

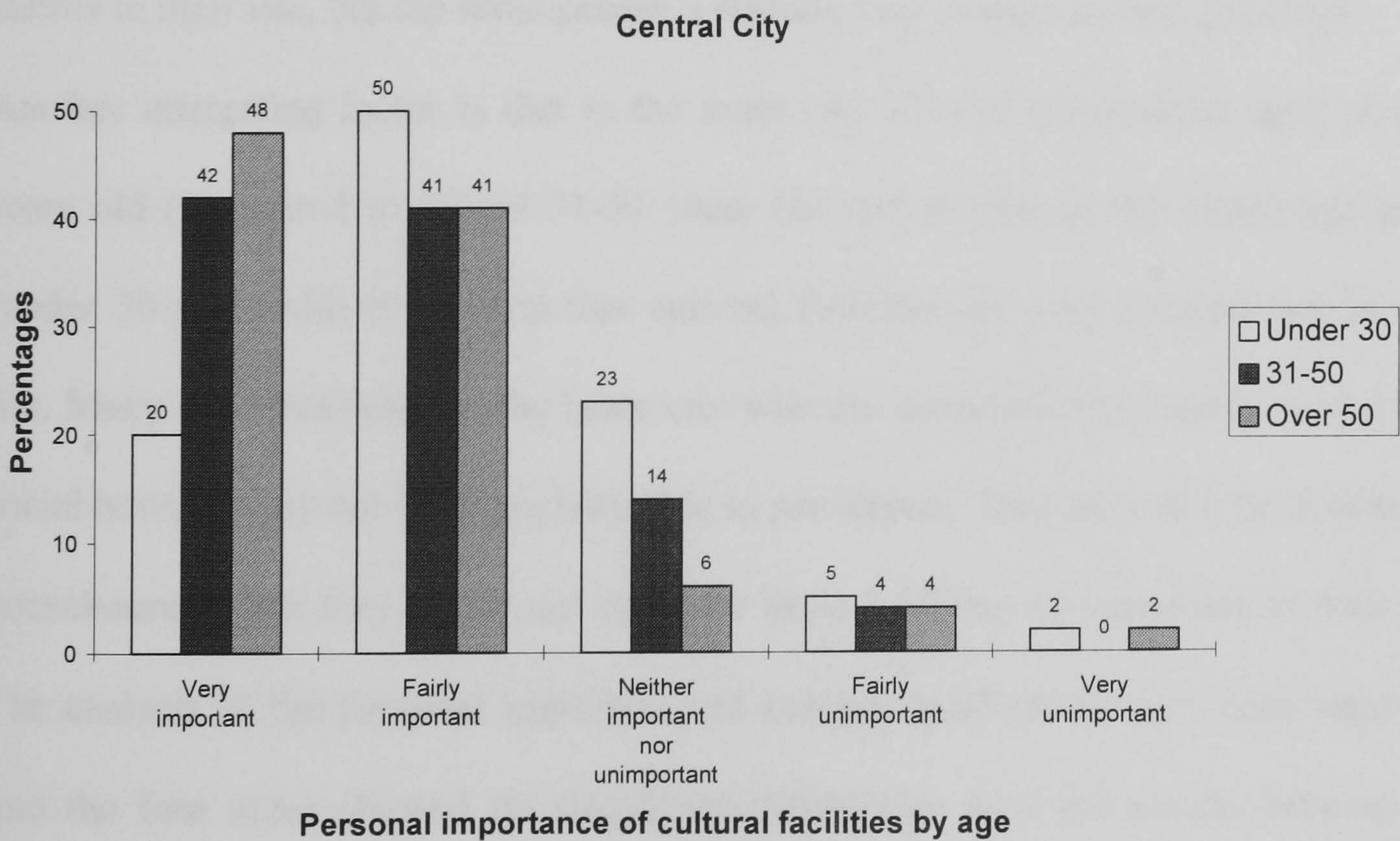
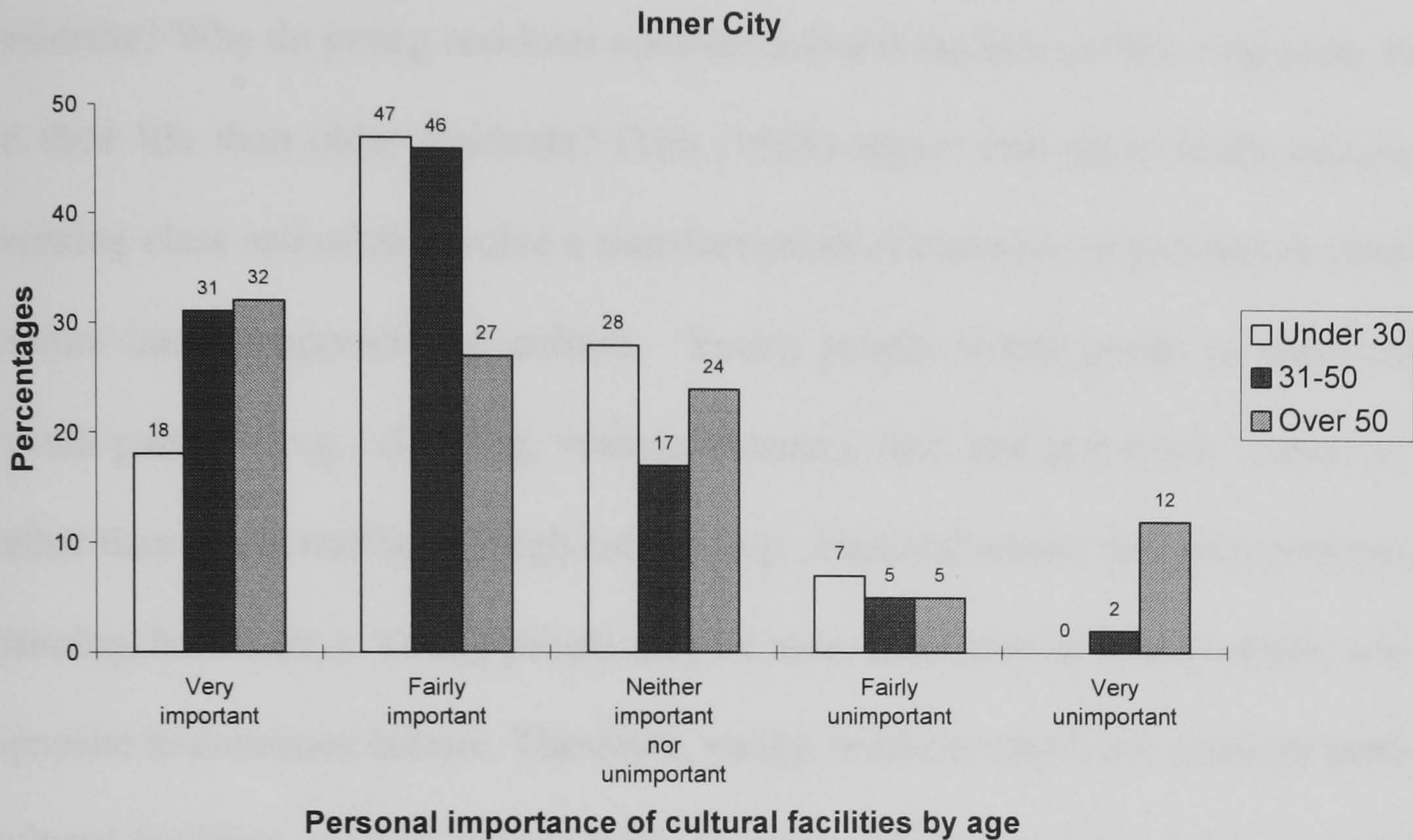


Figure 9-11 (see Table 9-11 in Appendix 2) shows that in both the inner city and the central city young respondents seem to regard cultural facilities as less important in their life compared to older respondents. A large percentage of young residents in



both the areas (around 28% in the inner city and 23% in the central city) indicated 'neither important nor unimportant'. As seen in the previous section, young residents in the central city participated in cultural activities less than older residents. Is the type of cultural facilities provided in the cities more attractive to older residents than young residents? Why do young residents consider cultural facilities as less important factors in their life than older residents? Frith (1984) argues that most youth cultures are working class and often involve a transformation of elements of parental or dominant culture into an oppositional culture. Young people would prefer to participate in 'youth culture' (e.g., clubbing, visiting cinemas, bars and pop-music concerts, etc.) rather than in old traditional high culture (e.g., classical music, dramatic performance, painting, ballet, etc.). Young people may be more interested in youth culture, which is opposite to dominant culture. Therefore, young residents might not consider particular cultural facilities, such as concert halls, theatres, galleries and museums, as important factors in their life, but the same people's attitude may change as they get older.

Another interesting factor is that in the inner city 12% of respondents aged over 50 years old (compared to 2% of 31-50 years old and no-one in the young age group (under 30 years old) mentioned that cultural facilities are very unimportant in their life. Many older residents in the inner city who are economically inactive and live in social housing may not be financially able to participate. They may also be disabled or housebound. Thus they might not consider these facilities as important to their life. The analysis of the personal importance of cultural facilities by age when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results between the inner city and the central city.

Throughout this section, one very interesting aspect was discovered. As has been pointed out, there were some differences in the participation of cultural activities



between residents with different social and economic backgrounds. However, there were no significant differences in the approval of public funding of the facilities and the importance of the facilities in their life between residents with different social and economic backgrounds. This ambiguity raises an interesting point. Although some residents do not often or never use cultural facilities in their city, they value these facilities in their life. It may mean that residents in the survey areas might be just satisfied with the existence of these facilities. Whether or not they use these facilities does not seem to be so important, but they seem to be proud of the existence of these facilities in their city. They also seem to believe that the existence of the facilities could be an important factor for improving the overall quality of life in their city. These factors might generate valuing of the cultural facilities in Glasgow and Manchester. However, even though this value might not be practical, it would have emotional value.

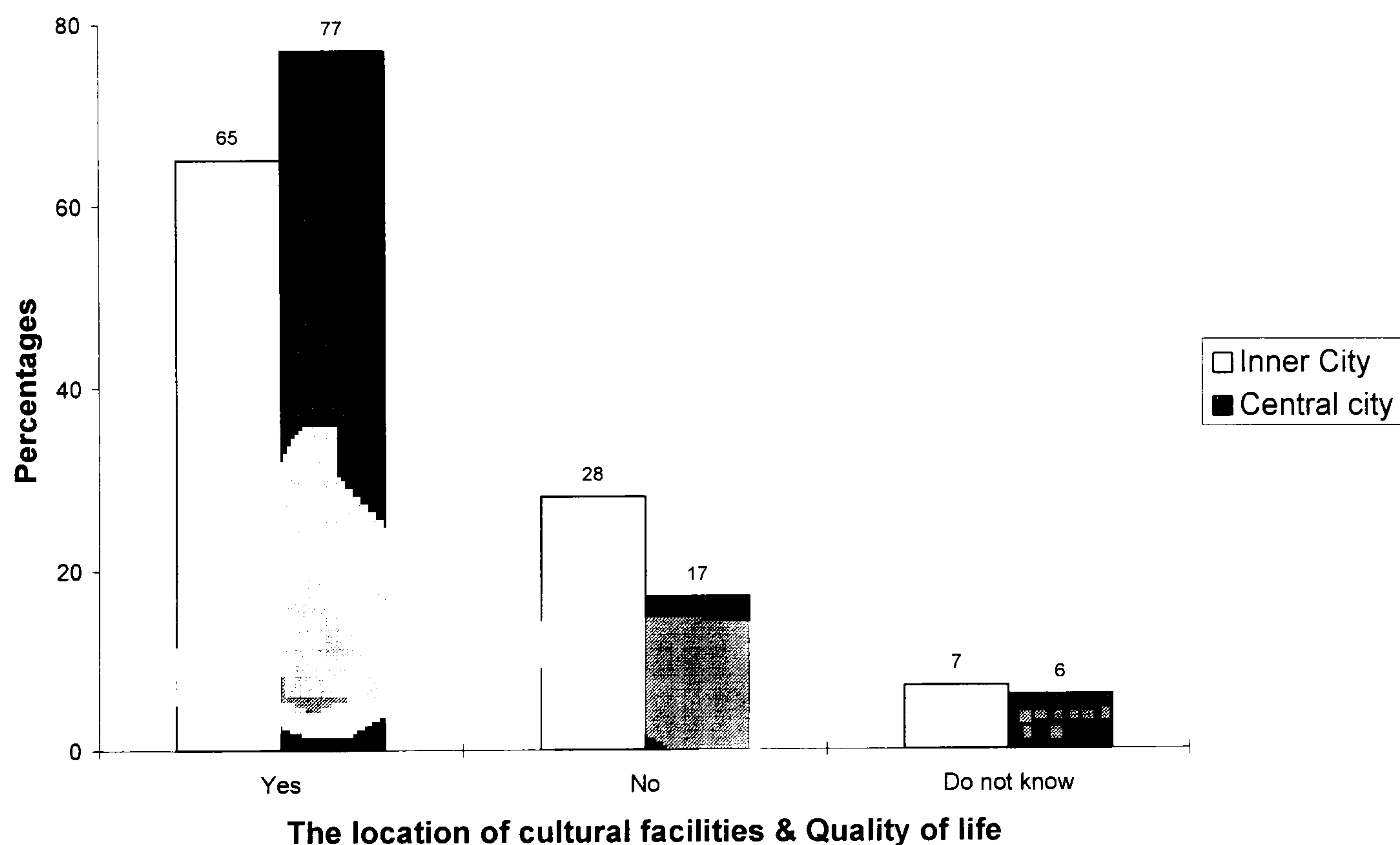
### **Importance of the location of cultural facilities to the quality of life**

As has been pointed out many times throughout the study, most prestigious cultural facilities are located fairly close to the residential areas in the central city (Merchant City and Whitworth Street). It has been mentioned in the previous chapters (Chapter 5 and 6) that a large percentage of residents in the survey areas mentioned that the attractions of the city and availability of cultural and leisure facilities in the city were important reasons for their residence in the city. It has also been seen in this chapter that residents living in the central city, where most cultural facilities are located, participated in cultural activities more often than residents in the inner city. Therefore, it is assumed that residents living near the facilities might consider the location of the facilities as more important for the quality of their life than residents who live far

away from the facilities. In this section, residents under study in Glasgow and Manchester were asked whether the location of cultural facilities close to their home helps to improve the quality of their life.

Figure 9-12 (see Table 9-12 in Appendix 2) shows that more than three quarters of respondents in the central city and two thirds of respondents in the inner city admitted that the location of cultural facilities close to their home helps to improve the quality of their life.

**Figure 9-12: Improvement in the quality of life through the location of cultural facilities**<sup>59</sup>



This result indicates that there is a close relationship between the location of cultural facilities and improvement in the quality of life. However, the result also indicates that residents in the central city are more concerned about the location of cultural facilities close to their home than residents in the inner city. As has been pointed out, residents in the inner city use cultural facilities less than residents in the central city.

<sup>59</sup> The figure is based on Q25 (Does the location of these facilities close to your home help to improve the quality of your life). A one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical differences.



However, they seem to appreciate the existence of the facilities in their city. Therefore, for residents in the inner city the location of cultural facilities may be less important, but the actual existence of the facilities in their city may be more important. Or, it is possible that people who live in the inner city may consider the facilities to be near to them- after all they are relatively close by compared to others in the city (e.g., the suburbs).

The analysis of the improvement in the quality of life through the location of cultural facilities when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the results between the inner city and the central city. Moreover, the improvement in the quality of life through the location of cultural facilities by residents with different social and economic backgrounds also found no significant differences.

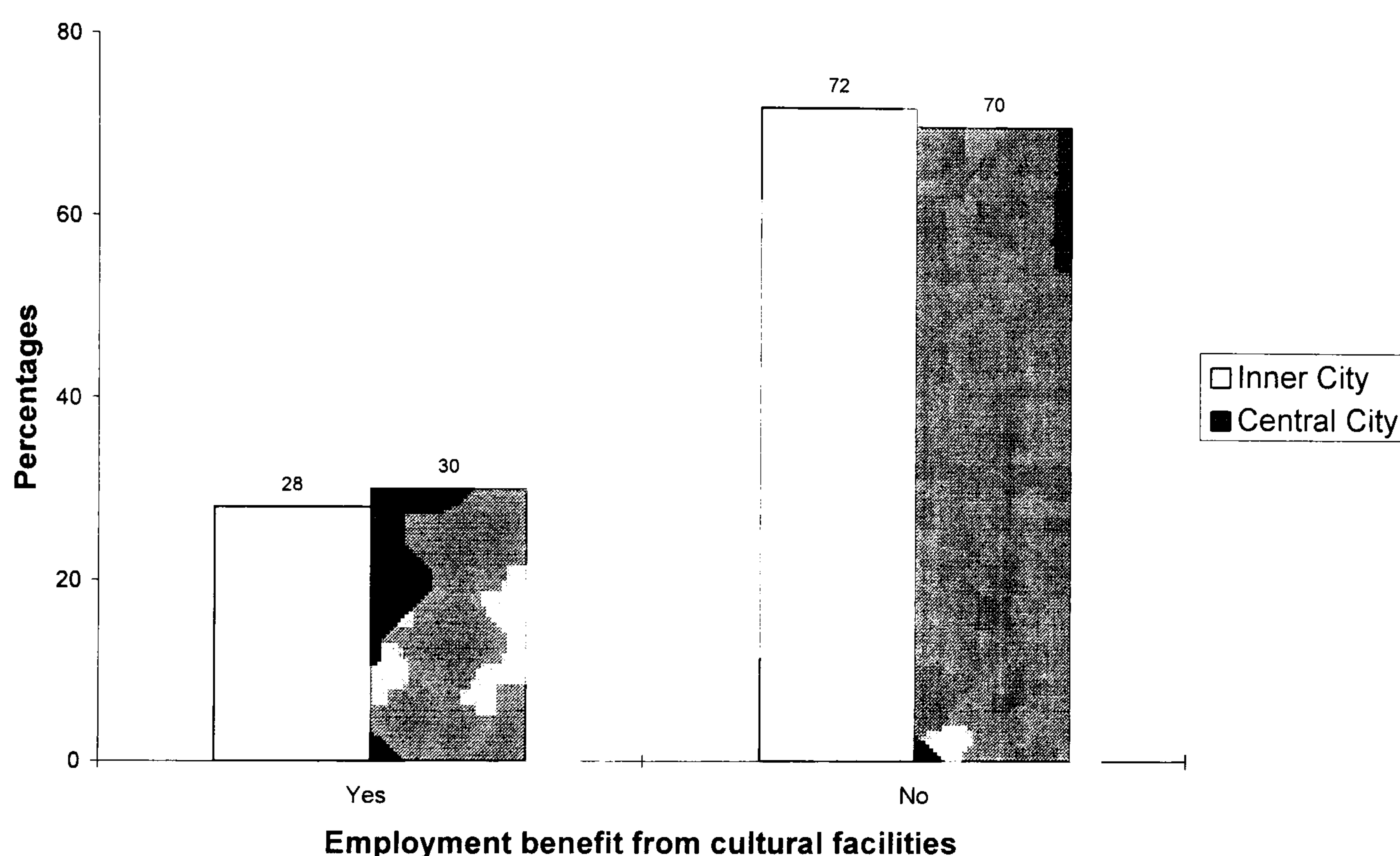
#### **The effect of cultural facilities on the employment of residents in the survey areas**

Cultural facilities can be important sources of directly or indirectly producing high quality employment, such as art related employment, as well as less skilled employment, such as cleaning, catering, etc., in service industries. The study of the economic importance of the arts in Glasgow by Myerscough (1988) indicated that the city of Glasgow produced a large amount of direct and indirect employment through the development of cultural facilities in the city. Therefore, it is important to examine the direct or indirect effect of cultural facilities on the employment of residents in the research areas.

Figure 9-13 (see Table 9-13 in Appendix 2) shows that around 28% of respondents in the inner city and around 30% of respondents in the central city indicated that their work directly or indirectly benefits from cultural facilities, such as galleries, museums, concert halls, opera houses, etc. Slightly more than one quarter of

respondents might not be seen as a huge creation of employment through the use of cultural facilities. However, the survey areas are small areas in the city of Glasgow and Manchester. Around one third of respondents in these areas alone seems to be enough to claim that cultural facilities in both cities have had a relatively large effect on the creation of employment. Thus, the effect of cultural facilities on employment in both cities can be considered to be successful.

**Figure 9-13: The direct and indirect effect of cultural facilities on the employment of residents**<sup>60</sup>



The analysis of the direct and indirect effect of cultural facilities on the employment of respondents when separated into the four areas showed no significant differences with the result between the inner city and the central city. There were also no significant differences in this factor by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds.

<sup>60</sup> The figure is based on Q26 (Does your work benefit directly or indirectly from facilities, such as galleries, museums, concert halls, opera houses, theatres and exhibition centres?). A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance.



## **Part 4: The effectiveness of the city council in regenerating the city**

The analyses in the previous chapter and this chapter have focused on residents' feeling about their city and about cultural facilities in their city- whether residents are positive about their city; whether cultural facilities have improved their city's image; and whether cultural facilities have improved the quality of their life. In general, most residents in both cities seem to be positive about their city and about cultural facilities in their city. In this section, residents were questioned about how effective they thought their city council was in regenerating their city.

**Figure 9-14: Effectiveness of city council in the inner city and the central city<sup>61</sup>**

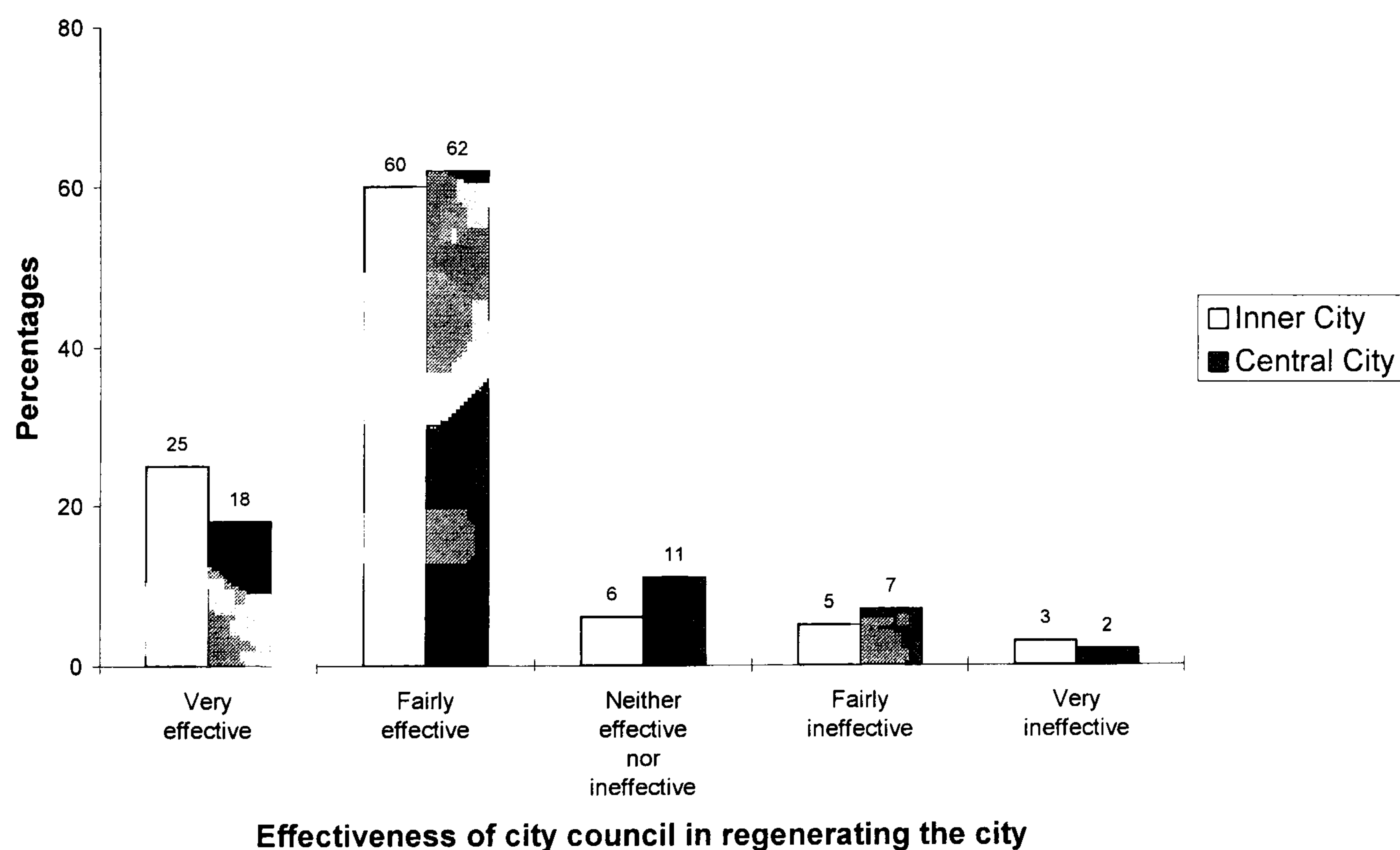


Figure 9-14 (see Table 9-14 in Appendix 2) shows that a vast majority of respondents in both the inner city (around 85%) and the central city (around 80%) indicated that the city council was either 'very' or 'fairly effective' in regenerating the city.

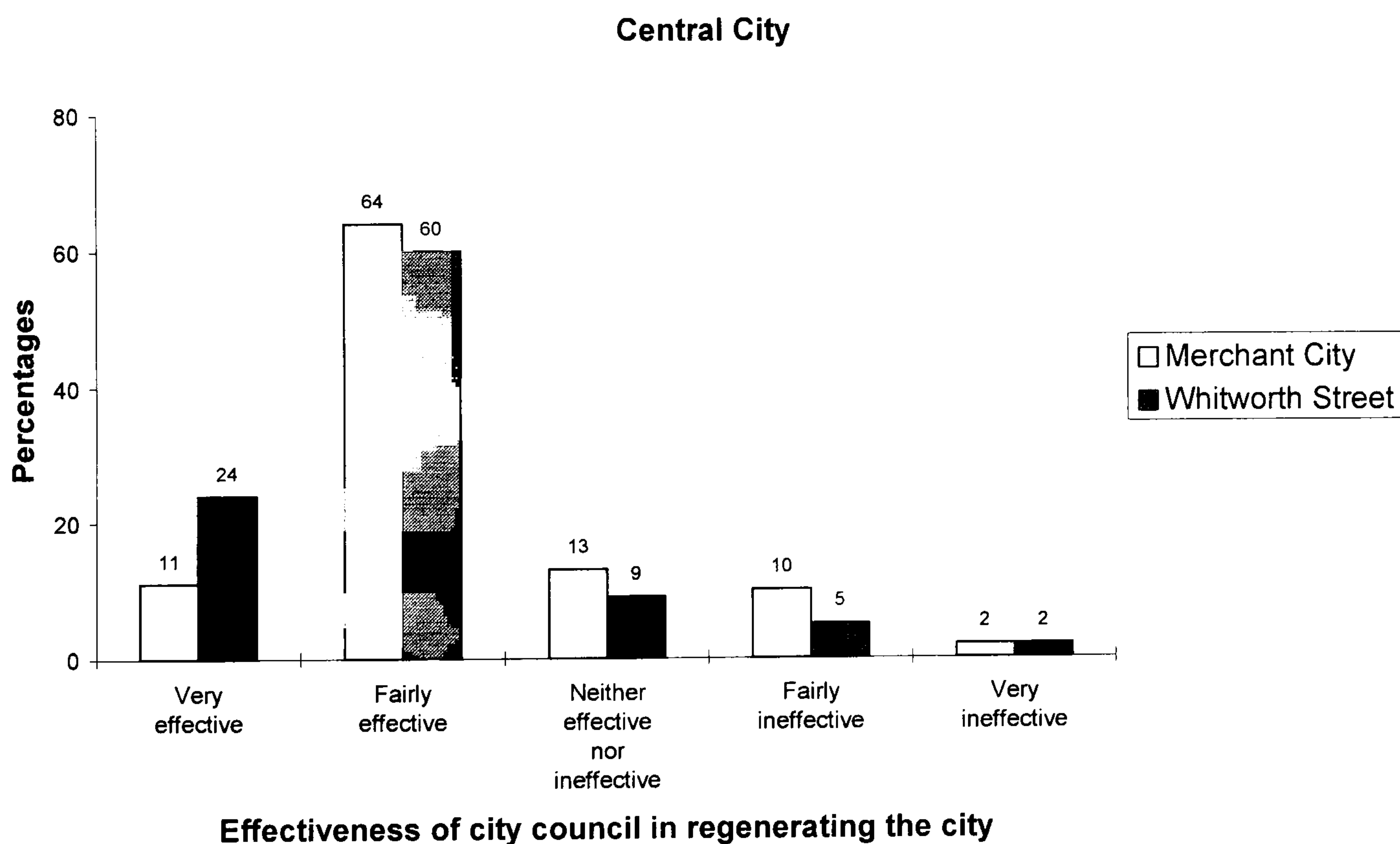
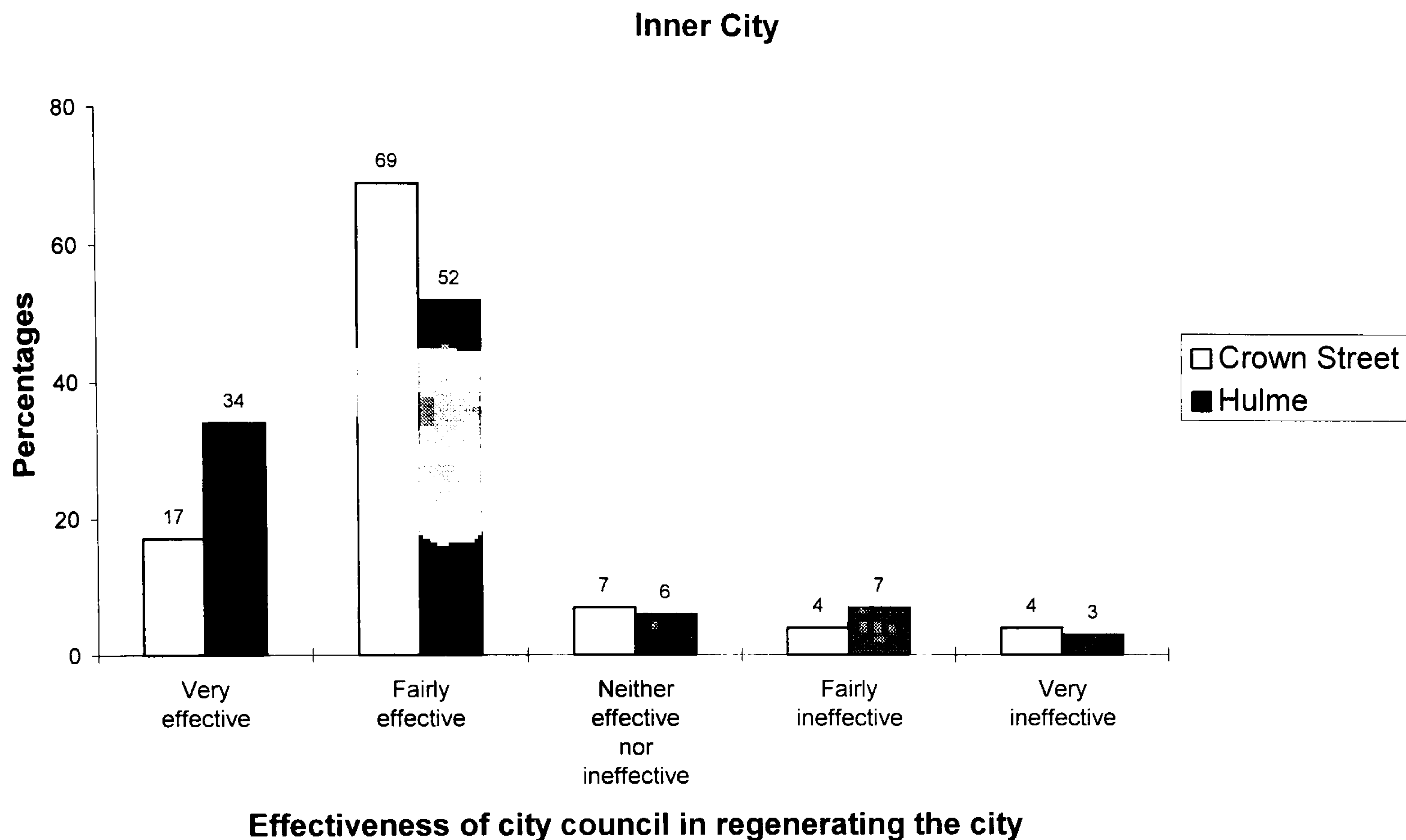
<sup>61</sup> The figure is based on Q17 (How effective do you think that your city council has been in regenerating your city?). A one-sample t-test and a one sample Chi-square test were conducted to evaluate statistical differences.

Few respondents in both the areas mentioned that the city council was either 'very' or 'fairly ineffective'. Therefore, most respondents in the survey areas seem to be positive about their city council's effort to regenerate their city. Although there are slight differences in the effectiveness of the city council in regenerating the city between respondents in the inner city and respondents in the central city, the differences do not seem to be significant.

The information is divided into the four areas to see if there were any differences in the effectiveness of the city council in regenerating the city. Figure 9-15 (see Table 9-15 in Appendix 2) shows that respondents in Hulme and Whitworth Street seem to be more positive about their city council's effort to regenerate their city than residents in Crown Street and Merchant City. The differences, therefore, are between respondents in Glasgow and residents in Manchester. More than twice the percentage of respondents in Manchester (around 28%) than the percentage of respondents in Glasgow (around 13%) mentioned that the city council was 'very effective' in regenerating the city. On the other hand, more respondents in Glasgow than in Manchester thought that the city council was 'fairly effective' in regenerating the city. One reason may be that residents in Glasgow trusted their city council less, for example some respondents criticised Glasgow City Council's corruption on the questionnaires, and they also believe that the improvement in the city of Glasgow is not a result of the city council's effort, but that the Scottish Office has done most of the improvements. Nevertheless, the differences are minimal and do not seem to be important. The important finding is that a vast majority of respondents in both the inner city and the central city, as well as respondents in the four areas, are positive about their city council's effort to regenerate their city.



**Figure 9-15: Effectiveness of city council in the four areas**



The analysis of the degree of effectiveness of the city council by respondents with different social and economic backgrounds found no significant differences between them in both the inner city and the central city, or in the four areas.

## **Part 5: What the city council should do in its effort to regenerate the city further**

The final analysis in this chapter is to examine what both city councils should do to improve Glasgow and Manchester further, from the point of view of residents in the survey areas.

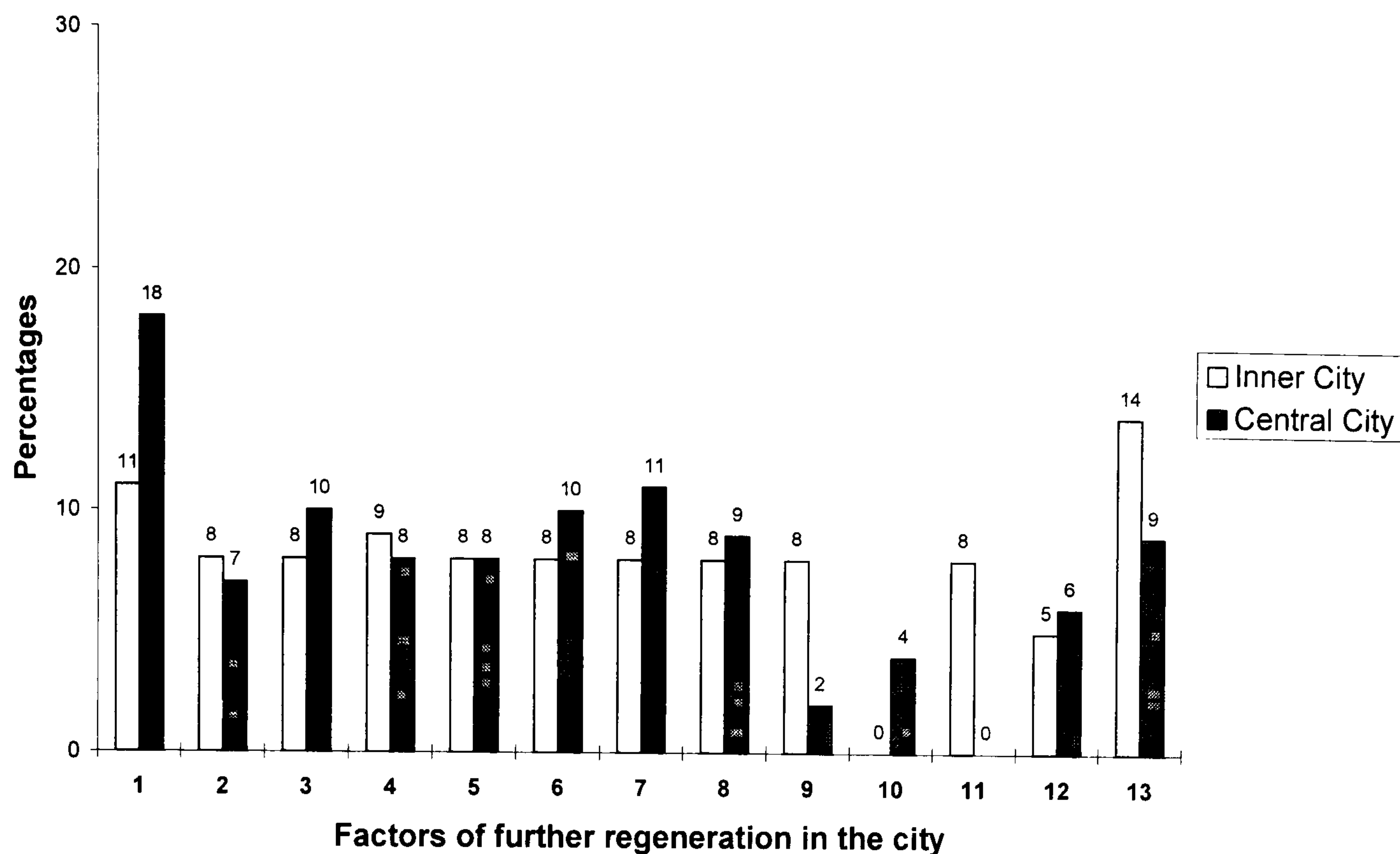
As seen in the previous chapters and in this chapter, residents in the survey areas showed a very positive attitude towards the use of cultural facilities in regenerating their city and the city councils' effort to regenerate their cities. However, although residents in the areas seem to be positive about what has been done in their city, this does not mean that there would not be anything else that could be done to make the city better. Therefore, this final section examines what residents think their city council should do for regenerating their city further.

Figure 9-16 (see Table 9-16 in Appendix 2) shows that for respondents in both the inner city and the central city 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands' is the major factor that their city council should do in order to improve their city further. Although there were already large areas of unused buildings renovated and new buildings built on derelict land in both Glasgow and Manchester, there are still many unused buildings in the city centre and derelict lands in inner city areas in both cities. Respondents, therefore, might well think that the improvement of these aspects could be of vital importance in further regenerating their city.

Some interesting factors emerged. Respondents in the inner city seem to be more concerned with 'generating more businesses and employment' and 'providing facilities for children and teenagers' than respondents in the central city. As seen before, many residents in the inner city are economically inactive.



**Figure 9-16: Residents' ideas of what the city council should do for regenerating the city (the inner city and the central city) <sup>62</sup>**



- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Improving unused buildings &amp; derelict lands</li> <li>2. Developing more housing</li> <li>3. Reducing traffic problems</li> <li>4. Improving public transport</li> <li>5. Providing more cultural &amp; leisure facilities</li> <li>6. Making the city cleaner</li> <li>7. Providing more green &amp; open spaces</li> </ol> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>8. Reducing crime and increasing safety</li> <li>9. Generating more businesses &amp; employment</li> <li>10. Providing more parking facilities</li> <li>11. Providing facilities for children &amp; teenager</li> <li>12. Solving the problems of homeless &amp; beggar</li> <li>13. Others</li> </ol> |
|---|---|

Most of them are unemployed. For these residents, the creation of new businesses and employment can be vital importance to their life. Moreover, more households in the inner city than in the central city are three or more than three people households. These households probably have children. Thus, they would be more concerned with their children's welfare than residents in the central city, which were predominantly one and two person households.

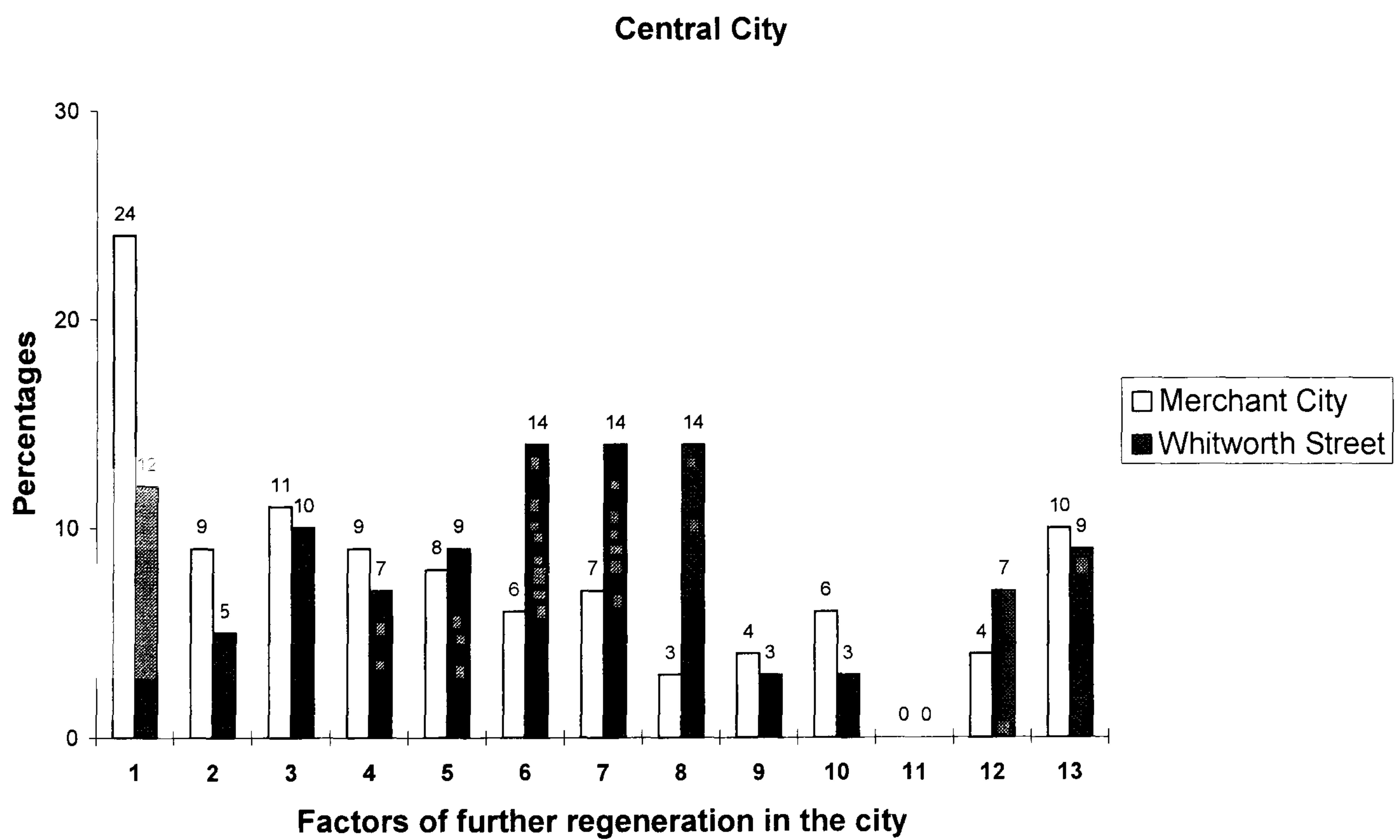
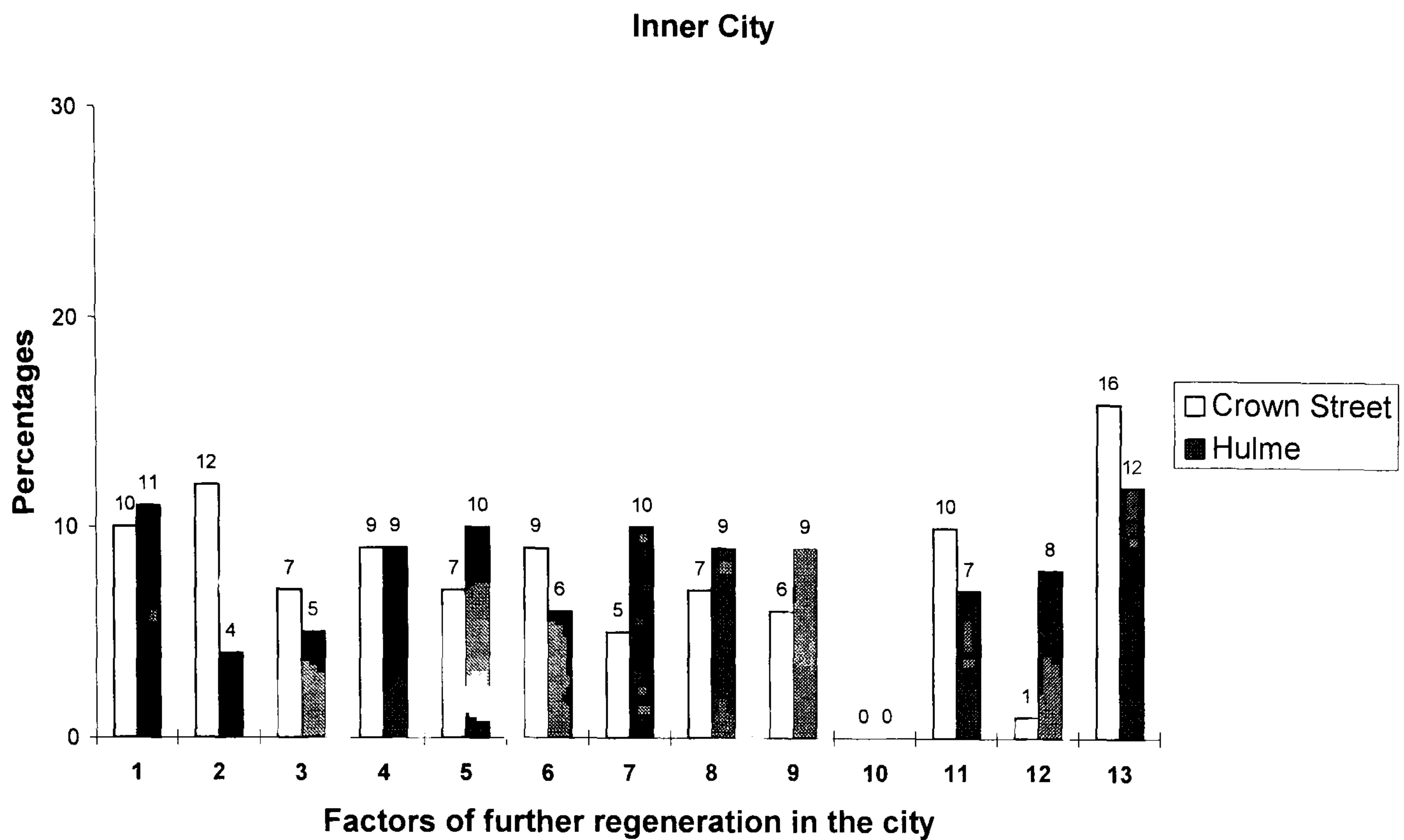
<sup>62</sup> In this part, residents were given an open-ended question (Q23. What other things, if any, do you think that your city council should do in its effort to regenerate your city?), and were also allowed to answer more than one factor. Moreover, as it allowed multi-responses from one respondent, response in each category was weighted for statistical test (a one sample Chi-square test was conducted to evaluate statistical significance).

The information is divided into the inner city areas and the central city areas to analyse any differences between them. Figure 9-17 (see Table 9-17 in Appendix 2) shows that in the inner city area respondents (12%) in Crown Street mentioned 'develop more housing' as the major factor for improving their city further, compared to only 4% of respondents in Hulme. However, around 11% of respondents in Hulme indicated 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands' as the major factor, which also appeared an important factor for respondents in Crown Street (10%). On the other hand, in Merchant city around 24% of respondents mentioned 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands' as the major factor, compared to only 12% of respondents in Whitworth Street. Respondents in Whitworth Street were more interested in factors such as 'provide more green and open spaces' (14%), 'make the city cleaner' (14%) and 'reduce crime and increase safety' (14%), as the major factors for improving their city.

Nevertheless, the overall results indicate that most factors seem to be related to environmental concerns rather than economic development. Therefore, respondents in the survey areas think that the environment of their city should be further regenerated, and this should be the task of their city council. Moreover, respondents in the survey areas regarded many factors as important in order to regenerate the city further that were already being undertaken by their city council currently (e.g., 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands', 'develop more housing', 'provide more green and open spaces', 'provide more cultural facilities' etc.).



**Figure 9-17: Residents' ideas of what the city council should do for regenerating the city (the four areas)**



- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Improving unused buildings &amp; derelict lands</li> <li>2. Developing more housing</li> <li>3. Reducing traffic problems</li> <li>4. Improving public transport</li> <li>5. Providing more cultural &amp; leisure facilities</li> <li>6. Making the city cleaner</li> <li>7. Providing more green &amp; open spaces</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>8. Reducing crime and increasing safety</li> <li>9. Generating more businesses &amp; employment</li> <li>10. Providing more parking facilities</li> <li>11. Providing facilities for children &amp; teenager</li> <li>12. Solving the problems of homeless &amp; beggar</li> <li>13. Others</li> </ul> |
|---|---|

This means that respondents in both cities support what their city council has recently done. However, the city council has not provided more parking facilities and more facilities for children, reduced traffic problems, made the city clearer, reduced crime, or solved problems of homeless and beggars- all important to residents.

## **Summary**

Throughout the analysis of the relationship between cultural facilities and the quality of social and economic life in Glasgow and Manchester, most residents in the survey areas showed a very positive attitude toward cultural facilities provided by city authorities. There is a very high rate of participation of residents in cultural activities, and a large number of residents were aware of public funding on major cultural facilities in the city and were positive about public funding, though some small differences appeared between residents in the central city areas and residents in the inner city areas, as well as between residents with different social and economic backgrounds. The main reason for the differences in the participation in cultural activities is the differences in the economic conditions of residents in the areas.

For residents in the survey areas, 'theatres', 'galleries' and 'museums' are the most often used cultural facilities. Moreover, most residents also regarded cultural facilities as an important factor in their life, and most residents agreed that the location of cultural facilities close to their residence would improve the quality of their life.



However, only age differences between residents in the areas appeared to be significant in the personal importance of cultural facilities and the importance of the location of cultural facilities. The reason seems to be partly economic differences between residents in the areas, but, more importantly, the provision of cultural facilities in the cities may not be attractive to youth culture. Young people may be more interested in youth culture (e.g., clubbing, visiting bars, pop-music concerts, etc.).

Residents in the survey areas also seem to benefit quite substantially, either directly or indirectly from cultural facilities in terms of employment. The overall result seems to be that cultural facilities in both Glasgow and Manchester are seen as very positive aspects contributing to the quality of urban life.

Residents under study in Glasgow and Manchester were questioned about the effectiveness of their city council in regenerating their city. Most residents showed a positive reaction toward their city council's efforts to regenerate the city, though reaction was more positive in Manchester than in Glasgow. Moreover, residents in the survey areas considered factors, such as 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands', 'develop more housing', 'provide more green and open spaces' and 'provide more cultural and leisure facilities', as things for future regeneration, that are also what their city councils currently concentrate on. However, many other things mentioned, including the conflict of aims on parking, the reduction of traffic, homeless and beggars, and the improvement in the appearance of the city and the provision of facilities for children, do not seem to be effectively dealt with.

Nevertheless, residents in the survey areas are very positive about the quality of life provided through the use of cultural facilities and about the way their city council has used cultural facilities to regenerate their city.

## **Chapter 10: Synthesis and Conclusions**

Since the 1970s and the 1980s many older industrial cities in the US and Europe have enthusiastically adopted cultural flagship development as a way of tackling their urban problems, such as the decrease in population and economic activities, and social unrest caused by the effect of social and economic decline. Prestigious cultural facilities were provided to change their city's image.

There are many studies on some general issues of cultural flagship schemes, such as their possible credibility in solving urban problems in older industrial cities; gainers and losers from the schemes; and their potential economic development; but there is a lack of studies focusing on the point of view of people who live in cities which have adopted the schemes as a redevelopment strategy. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to examine the residents' (Crown Street & Merchant City in Glasgow and Hulme & Whitworth Street in Manchester) views on the current cultural flagship developments in their city and how it has personally affected them, which has never been studied by other scholars before.

As no other types of city (smaller or less industrial) were studied, anything which the study has found out about cultural flagship strategies, may not be valid in other areas. However, throughout the study of residents' views on urban regeneration through the use of cultural flagship strategies in Glasgow and Manchester, there were remarkable similarities between residents in Glasgow and residents in Manchester in their views on cultural flagship developments, and only occasionally a few differences were found. This is because the essential aims of cultural flagship strategies in both cities are the same (e.g., attracting inward movements of high income residents and



investment through changing the overall image of the city, and which in turn regenerates social and economic conditions). As seen in the introductory chapters, many examples of previous studies about cities in the USA and in Europe which adopted cultural flagship strategies, illustrated similar policy objectives as Glasgow and Manchester. This may indicate that the results of this study might be transferable to cities which have used cultural flagship strategies as a way of improving the image of their city.

The information gained from the study can contribute in two ways to policy makers. The study provides the inside information about the characteristics of people who live in the regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester. It also gives an understanding of why these people come to the areas under study, and how important cultural flagship strategies are in terms attracting these people to live there. This would be particularly important for those policy makers who are currently involved with these kinds of projects in terms of comparing their policy objectives with the findings of the study.

The study also provides some useful information about whether or not cultural flagship strategies could achieve the long-term sustainability of the regenerated areas in the cities through the analysis of residents' feelings about the areas and the strategies. It illustrates the attitudes of residents in the surveys toward cultural flagship strategies and their cities' development. It also reveals important factors for further improvement in the cities from the point of view of residents. It would be particularly important for policy makers in Glasgow and Manchester and other cities, which have already adopted cultural flagship strategies, in terms of assessing their policy objectives and improving the sustainability of their city.

The analysis was largely done on the basis of differences between the inner city and the central city areas as two very different data sets (city centre/inner city), as putting the data together for each city and just aggregating figures could result in a false insight into data results.

It was fundamental to know in this study the characteristics of people who live in the research areas. The study found that they are predominantly young people, single adults or couples without children; most of them have full-time white-collar occupations; many of them have high household incomes, though there are some differences between the residents in the inner city areas and the residents in the central city areas. A large number of the residents in the inner city areas are economically inactive. Most of these are unemployed, have low income and live in social housing. On the other hand, two thirds of the residents in the central city have professional and managerial occupations, and nearly a third had household incomes of over £35,000.

The vast majority of young people and small-sized households, especially in the central city areas, could, however, lead to less sustainability for the cities. This is because young people and small-sized households might be more footloose than older people and families with children. They would be more likely to relocate their residence if other cities provided better opportunities, for instance in terms of employment. In order to increase the sustainability of the cities in the long-term, the cities should provide adequate facilities for families with children that would balance the age and household structure in the study areas.

There is also a large number of residents who are non-local people, who are from outside the city, particularly in the central city areas. Therefore it seemed that the research areas, particularly the central city areas, form a type of 'gentrification' as the characteristics of the residents in the areas strongly suggested this. However, it



seemed not to be a traditional type of gentrification where new comers (middle-class) displace old residents (working-class). The central city areas were entirely new residential areas, which attracted white-collar workers with high incomes and some affluent students. Therefore it may result in high economic viability for these areas and for the city as a whole. In this sense, this type of gentrification can be seen as a positive aspect. On the other hand, this type of gentrification also seems to discourage low-income households from living in central city areas, where most useful amenities and facilities are located, in the sense that low income households would not be able to afford to live in central city areas as they are too expensive. This is a negative aspect of central city gentrification.

The study of urban regeneration in Glasgow and Manchester concentrated on two major issues. Firstly, why did the residents move into the research areas of Glasgow and Manchester? Secondly, were these current cultural flagship developments seen by the residents of the research areas as the major factor that has led to changes in terms of social and economic conditions? Although there were occasionally some differences between the residents in the inner city areas and the residents in the central city areas, and differences between different types of tenure, economic classes, household incomes, age differences, etc., the study found that factors, such as 'close to work' and 'its central city location', appeared as the major reasons for choosing the research areas in which to live. The study showed that although the housing in the research areas was not the main attraction causing residents to move there, the location of the housing was the most important factor attracting residents. The location was often associated with other factors, such as easy access to their place of employment and to all social amenities, and the availability of

cultural and leisure facilities in the areas. Therefore one can say that the location, with its variety of opportunities, has been the major factor of attraction for residents to move into the research areas.

However, when the areas were divided into two area groups (the inner city areas and the central city areas), there was an interesting comparison between the residents in the inner city and the residents in the central city in terms of their reason for moving to the area. The residents in the inner city areas were less interested in having facilities available in their area, but they were more interested in having cheap housing which was the prime reason for them to move to there. On the other hand, residents in the central city seemed to be overwhelmingly concerned with the 'closeness to the place of employment', and showed a high interest in facilities available near their residence, but they were much less concerned with 'value for money' aspects when moving to the area. It seems that the characteristics of the areas largely affected the reasons for the residents to move into their residence. For instance, the inner city areas (Crown Street & Hulme) were one of the worst areas of Glasgow and Manchester in terms of housing condition prior to redevelopment. The areas are, therefore, largely designed to provide good affordable private housing for owner-occupiers and social housing for ex-tenants. Thus the residents, particularly owner-occupiers, were more likely to choose the area as their residence because of the availability of cheap housing. On the other hand, central city areas (Merchant City & Whitworth Street) were industrial areas, and the surrounding areas are still important industrial areas in Glasgow and Manchester. The purpose of building residential housing in these areas seemed to focus on increasing the population in the city centre, and on the provision of housing for those people who work in the city centre, an interactive purpose of working and living in the same area. Therefore the residents in



the areas were more likely to choose the areas because of employment and the ease of access to their workplace.

The division of different types of tenure, economic classes, household incomes and age has also shown some interesting reasons among residents for moving to the areas. Owner-occupiers and private renters with high economic status, household incomes and the young, particularly in the central city areas, were largely concerned with location-related factors, such as easy access to their work and social amenities, also the cultural facilities close to their residence, as reasons for choosing to live there. These residents clearly expressed the benefits they would have from their residence. On the other hand residents living in social housing with low household incomes, and the older age group, many of them inactive or unemployed, in inner city areas, were mainly concerned with family in the area or related social and emotional reasons. Different economic conditions of the residents seemed to be the main factor that differentiates the reasons for moving to the survey areas. The social housing residents might not be able to consider possible benefits in the areas, as they have not necessarily chosen the area, but they were chosen to live there. Decent social housing would be a good reason for the social housing renters to live in the areas.

The evaluation of the reasons for the residents relocating their residence showed a variety of factors, but it was open to question whether they were satisfied with living in the areas after relocating. The study found that most residents in the areas were satisfied with, and were very positive about their residential relocation. The factors of satisfaction with living in their new residence were predominantly 'the location' itself in both cities. However, the comparison with the relative importance of the quality of life established by a specially commissioned survey (Findley et al,

1988) found that there were no similarities between the factors that were found in the commissioned survey ('minimal crime both violent and non-violent', 'best possible health services', 'low levels of pollution', 'low cost of living', 'good shopping facilities', 'racial harmony') and the factors that were found by this study ('central city location', 'satisfaction with housing', 'close to work', 'availability of cultural & leisure facilities', 'security of housing', 'nice environment', 'value for money', 'close to all social amenities'). This finding indicates that the set of factors of the quality of life identified by the commissioned survey does not represent what the new residents in the survey areas regard as important factors for living there. Therefore, although the former factors would be quite important for people's everyday life, these factors seem to be generalised factors and residents might not directly feel they are important when choosing an area in which to live.

Another important finding is that the original reasons for moving to the areas were largely because of easy access to employment. But after moving into the area residents seemed to regard this factor as less important, and they were more interested with factors, such as 'close to social amenities' and 'the availability of cultural and leisure facilities'. Moreover, residents in the inner city areas also showed less interest in the original 'value for money' aspects, but more interest in the location and the housing itself. It, therefore, seems that the primary reason for many residents to move into the areas was easy access to their employment, but once they lived there they found other factors were more beneficial. This indicates that one set of factors is important in the reurbanisation process, to persuade people to move, but another set of factors is important in sustaining the reurbanisation. This finding is very important in terms of future urban policy.



However, once again, there are large differences between the residents in the inner city areas and the residents in the central city areas in terms of factors of satisfaction with living in the areas. The residents in the inner city areas were predominantly satisfied with the location and the housing itself, whereas the residents in the central city areas were satisfied with more varied factors, such as the location, social amenities close to their residence, and the availability of cultural and leisure facilities. This might be because of the high concentration of social and cultural amenities or facilities in the central city areas, but it may also be that there is a large number of social housing renters in the inner city areas who are unemployed, and have low household incomes. These residents would not be able to enjoy facilities available in the city, as they cannot afford them.

The study also found a variety of factors of dissatisfaction with living in the areas, such as 'traffic problems', 'insufficient parking spaces', 'untidy appearance', 'expensive living costs', 'unwanted members of society' (drunks, beggars, drug-addicts, homeless, etc.), 'dissatisfaction with housing', 'fear of crime', 'existing high rise council flats', 'lack of local amenities and shops'. The major dissatisfaction was with 'traffic related problems' (e.g., noisy, pollution, traffic jam, etc.) for residents in the central city and with 'untidy appearance' for the residents in the inner city. However, there is also a large number of residents who did not find any factors of dissatisfaction. As there are different characteristics between the inner city areas and the central city areas, the city centre is normally associated with some traffic problems, whereas the inner city areas are currently undergoing a massive transformation, which produces an unattractive appearance at present. Therefore, factors of dissatisfaction between the residents in the inner city and the residents in the central city seemed to be largely related to their area's character. However,

residents in the inner city areas seemed to be more positive about their area than the residents in the central city areas as more residents in the inner city areas found no factors as dissatisfaction at all compared to residents in the central city areas. Moreover, social housing renters and elderly residents, particularly in the inner city areas, were more positive about their area as more of them found no factors of dissatisfaction. This might be because the residents in the inner city areas, particularly social housing renters who had experienced bad housing in the past, found nothing to be dissatisfied about when comparing the past with the areas at present.

Another big issue in this study was whether residents' perceptions of Glasgow and Manchester have improved. The study found that most residents in the survey areas, in both cities who lived there in the 1970s thought that their city now is more attractive than the city in the 1970s. The overall result was that the residents in all the research areas were very positive about their present city compared to the city in the 1970s. The major factors of attractiveness to the residents in both the central city and the inner city compared to the 1970s were, not surprisingly, 'the improvement and availability of social and cultural facilities'. However, residents in the inner city appreciated 'the development of housing' in their city more than other factors, such as 'renovation of old buildings' and 'cleaner' and 'development of derelict sites'. On the other hand, residents in the central city saw that 'the development of housing' was much less important than these other factors in terms of being more attractive compared to the city in the 1970s. The main reason might be that for residents in the inner city 'the development of housing' directly benefited the quality of their life. Housing development generated new dwellings for social housing renters and affordable housing for owner-occupiers in the inner city. On the other hand, the renovation of historically important buildings and the development of unused old



industrial sites in the city centre can be seen as important actions for the overall changes in the central city. These changes can make the area more liveable and attractive, and may increase the value of the area, including house prices. This is important, as most residents in the central city are owner-occupiers.

The study also found some factors of unattractiveness in the present city compared to the city in the 1970s. The major factor of unattractiveness was 'the increase in traffic related problems' in the central city, and 'the increase in crime' in the inner city, especially in Manchester. Although traffic problems and increasing crime were the main features of unattractiveness in the present city, a large number of residents in the survey areas also found nothing that was unattractive, compared to the 1970s. However, the overall results showed that the residents in the inner city seemed to be more positive about the present city compared to the city in the 1970s than the residents in the central city. This is because the inner city areas were much worse in terms of the environmental condition of the areas, thus the change that had occurred in their area they would be more appreciated.

When asked to describe the city nowadays, most residents in both cities expressed positive perceptions of their city, comments such as a 'attractive', 'developing & improving', and 'cultural city', though a very small number of residents expressed negative perceptions of their city such as a 'dangerous' and 'unpleasant' city. It indicates that both cities have certainly improved their image for residents. However, there were differences in perceptions of the city between residents in Glasgow and residents in Manchester. Residents in Manchester seemed to be more negative about their present city than residents in Glasgow. The violence of the IRA in 1996 may have negatively affected perceptions of Manchester.

As we saw earlier, ‘the improvement and availability of social and cultural facilities’ were major factors of attractiveness in the present city compared to the city 1970s. In the question about the relationship between cultural facilities and the improvement of the city’s image, most residents in both cities and all the survey areas also expressed the view that cultural facilities have improved their city’s image, regardless of whether they lived in the inner city or in the central city. This indicates that cultural facilities have had a positive impact on the image of both Glasgow and Manchester. However, there were some differences between residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the central city, but not in the inner city. Private renters, young residents, low-income households and economically inactive residents were less positive about the claim that cultural facilities have improved the city’s image. Many of these were students. Therefore, they do not seem to be benefiting from the existence of cultural facilities in their city, either from the point of view of affordability or possibility because they do not appeal to ‘youth culture’.

The residents thought that cultural facilities brought ‘more people into their city’ (tourists and residents), ‘increased reputation as a cultural city’, ‘increased accessibility and availability of a variety of different forms of culture’, ‘increased the awareness of changes in their city to outside’, ‘increased their city’s business profile’, ‘promoted an attractive cosmopolitan image’, etc. These lists of the effect of cultural facilities on Glasgow and Manchester certainly indicate that the residents in the survey areas did not just see cultural facilities as mere enjoyment in their life, but regarded them as important factors for social, economic and environmental improvement.

The cities of Glasgow and Manchester have devoted enormous effort to urban regeneration. It was open to question whether or not their residents were proud of the



improvements. The study found that although a vast majority of the residents in the survey areas are proud of their city, and that residents in the inner city are more proud of their city than residents in the central city. Moreover, the study also found that the residents of Glasgow are more proud of their city than the residents of Manchester. The differences may be because more residents in central city Manchester come from outside the city, particularly residents in Whitworth Street. Residents, who are from outside Glasgow and Manchester, seemed to be less loyal to the city, as the city is not their city. It also appeared in types of tenure, occupational status and duration of residence in the city, particularly among residents in the central city. Private renters and economically inactive residents in the central city are less loyal than other types of tenure and economically active residents.

Throughout Chapter 8, most residents in the survey areas were positive about their city. However, the positive attitudes of the residents toward their city might not guarantee that all residents in the areas would permanently stay in the cities of Glasgow and Manchester. It would be possible that they would leave their present city if the conditions in their city were not right for them. Therefore, it was open to question whether residents would be prepared to relocate to another city. If they would, where and what reasons might lead to this? More residents in the central city and in Manchester as a whole considered moving their residence to another city than residents in the inner city and Glasgow as a whole. The main reason could be because more residents in the central city and in Manchester are from outside the city. Overall, it is young, residents with professional and managerial occupations, and residents of short duration who were more likely to consider moving elsewhere. The city of London is the most popular city that those who considered moving are willing to go to. The main reason for potentially relocating their residence is ‘more employment

opportunity'. Therefore, it could be possible that residents would move their residence to another city if the developments and improvements in Glasgow and Manchester did not meet their expectation. The concentration of economic and cultural power in the capital city is the main factor that can contribute to the vulnerability of residential location in the cities.

In Glasgow and Manchester, there is a variety of cultural and leisure facilities available. The study found that the residents in all survey areas showed high participation in cultural activities. Although the residents' participation rate in cultural activities was slightly different between the inner city and the central city, the main differences appeared between the residents in Glasgow and the residents in Manchester. Residents in Glasgow have visited more facilities than residents in Manchester. The reasons might be: (1) higher accessibility in terms of low price; (2) more residents in Glasgow have longer duration of residence in the city, so had more time to spend for visiting cultural facilities; and (3) higher enthusiasm because of the European City of Culture celebration. However, perhaps, more interesting differences appeared between residents with different social and economic backgrounds. In the inner city, owner-occupiers, high-income households, young residents, economically active residents and residents from either the city itself or the region seemed to have participated in cultural activities more than residents with other social and economic backgrounds. Similarly, in the central city, owner-occupiers, older residents, high-income households, residents from either the city or the region and residents with a long duration of residence in the city participated more in cultural activities. The study found that the residents' economic condition was the major factor that determined the level of participation in cultural activities.



The study also found that ‘galleries’, ‘museums’ and ‘theatres’, are the most often used cultural facilities for new residents in the survey areas. There were slight differences in the use of types of cultural facilities between the residents in the inner city and the residents in the central city. ‘Museums’ are the most often used facilities for residents in the inner city. On the other hand, for residents in the central city, ‘galleries’ are the most often used facilities. Although the educational backgrounds of the residents in the survey areas were not examined in this study, it might be assumed that the residents in the inner city might have lower educational backgrounds than the residents in the central city, as there are more economically inactive low-income residents in the inner city than in the central city. The possible differences in educational backgrounds between the residents in the inner city and the residents in the central city might lead to differences in the participation in different types of cultural facilities, as one might assume that museums would be more culturally accessible than art galleries.

The provision of prestigious cultural facilities usually involves enormous public subsidies. The study questioned the residents about the awareness of public funding of cultural facilities in both cities, and found that the majority of residents in the survey areas were aware of public funding. However, residents in Glasgow knew more about it than residents in Manchester. This might be because many more residents in Manchester are from outside the city and many of these are foreigners. The study also found that residents in the all survey areas were very positive about public funding of cultural facilities.

The cities of Glasgow and Manchester have used cultural flagship development to improve their city’s image, economic context, and the quality of life for their citizens. It was open to question in this study whether the residents in the

research areas also regard cultural facilities as important factors for their quality of life. A vast majority of the residents in the survey areas expressed the view that cultural facilities were important factors in their life. Although there were slight differences between the residents in the inner city areas and the residents in the central city areas, the overall result suggested that the residents in the research areas generally regarded cultural facilities as important for the quality of their life. Therefore, the provision of cultural facilities in Glasgow and Manchester is not just a mere tool for regeneration in the cities, but it is also seen as an important aspect for improving the quality of life for the residents in the area.

Another important factor emerged. Young residents in both the inner city and the central city regarded the cultural facilities as less important than older residents. As most prestige cultural facilities in both the cities are mainstream culture (e.g., theatres, concert halls, galleries, museums, etc.), young residents in the survey areas might prefer to participate in 'youth culture' (e.g., clubbing, cinemas, bars, pop-music concerts, etc.). Therefore, they might not really enjoy such high and dominant cultures in their city. Another interesting factor is that older residents (over 50 years old) in the inner city regarded cultural facilities as very unimportant for their life. Many older residents in the inner city are economically inactive and live in social housing and might not be able to afford to participate in expensive cultural facilities.

So for the youngest and the poorer older residents cultural facilities had less to offer. But, although economically worse-off residents in the survey areas participated less in cultural activities than economically better off residents, all residents, regardless of social and economic backgrounds, are very positive about the provision of cultural facilities in their city. This would indicate that residents in the survey,



particularly those economically worse-off, might be satisfied by the existence of cultural facilities in the city even though they rarely or never use the facilities.

The location of cultural facilities is also important, as most cultural facilities are located in the city centre area. The question about the relationship between the location of cultural facilities and the quality of life found that the majority of the residents in the survey areas mentioned that the location of cultural facilities close to their residence helped to improve the quality of their life. The residents in the central city areas seemed to be slightly more affirmative about the relationship. This may be because they used cultural facilities more often than the residents in the inner city. The location of cultural facilities close to their residence made it easier to participate. Nevertheless, there is a strong relationship between the location of cultural facilities and the quality of life.

Cultural facilities could directly or indirectly create employment in service industries. It was important to see whether cultural facilities affected the residents in the survey areas in terms of employment opportunities. More than one quarter of the residents in the survey areas were directly or indirectly engaged in the 'culture industry'. The amount of job creation by cultural facilities for the residents in the areas might be seen as insufficient. But the survey areas are small parts of Glasgow and Manchester. More than one quarter may be sufficient to claim that the effect of cultural facilities on employment is successful.

Since Glasgow and Manchester have devoted enormous effort to regenerating their city, it was open to question whether the effort city councils of both cities were seen by their citizens as effective. The study found that the vast majority of the residents in the survey areas thought that their city council's effort was effective, though there were slight differences in attitude between the residents in Glasgow and

the residents in Manchester. Residents in Glasgow seemed to trust their city council less than residents in Manchester. Nevertheless, the majority of the residents in both cities expressed very positive reactions toward their city council's effort to regenerate their city.

In the question about what factors the residents thought that their city council should take into account to regenerate their city further, a variety of factors was expressed. These included factors related to current development, such as 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands', 'develop more housing' and 'provide more cultural and leisure facilities'. Also, factors related to what they did not like about living in the city, such as 'reduce traffic problems', 'make the city cleaner', 'reduce crime and increase safety', 'providing more parking facilities' and 'solve the problem of the homeless and beggars'. Other factors, which seem to be lacking in their city, such as 'improve public transport', provide more green and open space', 'generate more business and employment' and 'provide facilities for children and teenagers' were also mentioned. Residents in both the inner city and the central city considered 'improve unused buildings and derelict lands' as the major factor for future regeneration of their city. One interesting fact is that the residents in the inner city were more concerned with 'provide facilities for children and teenagers' and 'generate more businesses and employment' than the residents in the central city. Many residents in the inner city are economically inactive. For these residents, more businesses and employment opportunities could be a vital importance. Since many households in the inner city contained more than two people (compared to the dominance of one or two persons in the central city), these households are also likely to have young children or teenagers.



Nevertheless, most factors mentioned by the residents in the survey areas seemed to be related to environmental concerns as important in future city regeneration.

The overall results of the study showed that residents in the research areas of both cities are very positive about their residential relocation and their city's use of cultural flagship developments to improve their city's image. However, some aspects, which appeared in the study, should be considered cautiously. What seems to be lacking in culture-led urban regeneration schemes in both cities is that the schemes do not show a clear commitment that provides for those who are more likely to be left out from the benefits that are generated by the schemes. We have seen the experience of an American city, Baltimore, in which cultural flagship schemes for urban regeneration were begun. Many scholars refer to the city as a 'dual city' with two extreme sides. One part of the city consists of extremely poor living conditions and largely black people on low-incomes, and the other consists of lavishly decorated harbour areas with wealthy middle-class, largely white residents. The dual nature of Baltimore increased social and economic inequality. As a result, this seems to have damaged the city's reputation, which exceeds what the city has achieved through the use of cultural flagship development.

In this study, the cultural flagship strategies in both cities seem to have some dual effects on residents and areas: the strategies have a direct effect on certain groups of residents (high income groups) and areas (central city areas) in the cities, but they only slowly effect other residents (low income groups) and areas (inner city areas). This is because the strategies are fundamentally designed to achieve economic success (e.g., changing the images of the cities through the use of cultural flagship developments that attracts high income groups and inward investment, in turn,

obtaining economic success). The study showed that it is those who live in the central city, and who are owner-occupiers with high household incomes benefit most from the development. Residents in social housing, who are largely unemployed and less interested in and able to participate in cultural activities, seem to benefit less from the development. They seemed to be positive about the developments in their city, but not for themselves. Decent housing for them seems to be much more important than the glossy looking cultural facilities in the city centre. Moreover, prestigious cultural facilities seem to be concentrated in certain areas of Glasgow and Manchester where they could produce maximum promotional effect. This may result in separating the city into two very different forms. On the one hand, areas might have mainly poor and under-class people with bad living condition, and on the other hand areas might have largely affluent middle-class people with good living condition (all sorts of amenities and facilities are located close to the residents' door step). It is not just a mere fiction that would occur in the future, but it actually exists in both cities. Many parts of Glasgow and Manchester (e.g., Moss Side in Manchester) are still suffering an unacceptable social and economic standard of life, while certain parts of the cities, particularly the city centre area, are celebrating the prominent success of their urban regeneration, including being the host of the European City of Culture 1990 in Glasgow and the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester. One might say that the cities of Glasgow and Manchester have also regenerated less profitable areas- Hulme and Crown Street. However, Hulme and Crown Street have, in fact, a focal importance for their urban regeneration strategies. In particular, Hulme is not only close to the city centre, but also close to one of the most prominent areas in Manchester, which contains Manchester University and other famous universities (Manchester Business School, Manchester Metropolitan University, and the UMIST)



where many outsiders would be expected to visit. Moreover, the two areas are well-known to outsiders for their past disastrous housing schemes. The regeneration in the two areas is, therefore, vital for promoting the city's regeneration to those outsiders. Another aspect that should be considered is that both city authorities intended to create mixed-tenure housing, particularly in the inner city areas. However, the mixture of private housing and social housing in the inner city areas seems not to be balanced. A large amount of private housing was or is being built in the areas (particularly in Crown Street), but is a considerably smaller amount of social housing. As residents in social housing usually have low-income and low occupational status, the imbalance of mixed-tenure housing in the inner city areas may lead to the isolation of social housing tenants from the rest of the population in the areas.

This research mainly concentrated upon regenerated areas of Glasgow and Manchester. Further research should compare feelings about the use of cultural flagship strategies between residents in regenerated areas and residents in unregenerated areas. This should produce interesting insights on cultural flagship strategies between them, as one might expect that the strategies are less likely to affect the lives of people in unregenerated areas.

The success of cultural flagship strategies in Glasgow and Manchester seems to be largely affected by the current economic boom in Britain. Therefore, it would be useful to see whether the success of cultural flagship strategies will still continue when the British economy is in recession. As seen in Chapter 8, many residents in the survey areas considered moving to another city, particularly those young people with professional and managerial occupations. The main reason was more employment opportunities in there. The formation of age and household structure in the survey

areas can be seen as a contribution to the vulnerability of residential location. The vast majority of residents are young people and small-sized households. They would be likely to move if more opportunities were found elsewhere. Therefore, it could be highly possible that if the cities of Glasgow and Manchester were in economic trouble, a large number of residents would relocate to another city. A further study could test how effective cultural flagship strategies are in differing economic circumstances.

Nevertheless, throughout the study, it is undeniable that the transformation of Glasgow and Manchester, in terms of their image, improvement in social and economic conditions, through the use of cultural flagship strategies seems to be remarkable, and the overall attitude of and effect on people who live in the survey areas are very positive.



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## **Appendix 1: Questionnaires**

## **Survey Questionnaire: Merchant City & Crown Street of Gorbals in the city of Glasgow**

My name is Joon-Kyo Seo. I am a post-graduate research student at Goldsmiths' College University of London. I am very interested in finding out residents' views on the quality and provision of current urban regeneration policies in the city of Glasgow, and ask for your help with an important research project. The results from this survey will be used to complete my doctoral thesis, and, as I come from Korea, the results would be extremely helpful to use as an example for cities in Korea.

Although, the questionnaire has some spaces to put your own words down, most questions are designed to be straightforward and should not take too long to complete.

I would be grateful if you would complete the following survey. Please would you personally complete the form and answer questions about your experiences. Your responses will be treated in the strictest of confidence.

I also enclose a stamped envelope. It would be the most grateful, if you would return the questionnaire to me within a week. However, if you do not have enough time to return it, I would visit you to collect the questionnaire a week later.

I would like to thank you in advance for your time in helping me.

Joon-Kyo Seo  
Research student  
Goldsmiths' College  
University of London.



**Q1. Where did you live before moving here?**

**In the city of Glasgow**

**In the Glasgow region**

**Elsewhere in Scotland**

**Other (specify)**

**Q2. When did you move here?**

**Q3. Why did you want to move here? (Please only tick the 2 or 3 most important reasons)**

**1) Value for money (e.g. house)**

**2) Close to work**

**3) Employment opportunities**

**4) Close to all social amenities**

**5) Central city Location**

**6) High degree of security**

**7) Attractions of the city in general**

**8) Availability of cultural and leisure facilities**

**9) Born in the area**

**10) Relatives living in the area**

**11) Other (specify)**

**Q4. Do you own or rent house / flat?**

**Owner-occupier**

**Rent privately**

**Housing association**

**Other (specify)**

**Q5. How many people are there in your household?**

**Q6. Are you satisfied with living here?**

**Very satisfied**

**Fairly satisfied**

**Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied**

**Fairly dissatisfied**

**Very dissatisfied**

**Q7. What do you like about it?**

**Q8. Are there any things you dislike about living here?**

**Q9. How long have you been living in Glasgow?**

(If lived in Glasgow in the 1970s, answer from Q10 to Q12, and if not, go to Q13)

**Q10. Do you think that the city of Glasgow now is more attractive to live than in the 1970s?**

**More attractive**

**Same**

**Less attractive**

**Q11. What things make the city more attractive to live in now?**

**Q12. Are there any things that make the city less attractive than in the 1970s?**

**Q13. How would you describe Glasgow now?**

**Q14. Are you proud of your city?**

**Yes**

**No**

**Do not know**

**Q 15. Would you consider moving to another city?**

**Q 16. (If yes)**

**1. Where would you consider living?**

**2. Why?**

**Q17. How effective do you think that Glasgow City Council has been in regenerating the city?**

**Very effective**

**Fairly effective**

**Neither effective nor ineffective**

**Fairly ineffective**

**Very ineffective**



**Q18. Please indicate if you have ever visited the following (Please tick the appropriate boxes) ?**

- 
- 1) The Burrell Collection
  - 2) Hunterian Art Gallery
  - 3) Kelvingrove
  - 4) People's Palace (the city's museum)
  - 5) Third Eye Centre
  - 6) Scottish Exhibition & Conference Centre
  - 7) Transport Museum
  - 8) City Halls (concert hall)
  - 9) Glasgow Royal Concert Hall
  - 10) Citizens Theatre
- 

**Q19. Did you know that these facilities were subsidised?**

- Yes
- No

**Q20. Do you think that it is a good idea that they should receive subsidies?**

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

**Q21. Do you think that these facilities have improved the city's image?**

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

**Q22. (If Yes) In what ways?**

**Q23. What other things, if any, do you think that Glasgow City Council should do in its effort to regenerate the city?**

**Q24. How important are facilities such as museums, theatres, galleries, concert halls, opera houses and exhibition centres to you personally?**

- Very important**
- Fairly important**
- Neither important nor unimportant**
- Fairly unimportant**
- Very unimportant**

**Q25. Does the location of these facilities close to your home help to improve the quality of your life?**

- Yes**
- No**
- Do not know**

**Q26. Does your work benefits directly or indirectly from facilities such as galleries, museums, concert halls, opera houses, theatres and exhibition centres?**

- Yes**
- No**

**Q27. Are you?**

- In full Time Employment**
- In part Time Employment**
- Unemployed**
- Other**

**Q28. (If Working) Where do you work? (Please tick the appropriate bracket)**

- |                                     |                                     |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <b>1) Central Glasgow City</b>      | <b>12) Hamilton</b>                 |
| <b>2) Inner Glasgow City</b>        | <b>13) Inverclyde</b>               |
| <b>3) Argyll &amp; Bute</b>         | <b>14) Kilmarnock &amp; Loudoun</b> |
| <b>4) Bearsden &amp; Milngavie</b>  | <b>15) Kyle &amp; Carrick</b>       |
| <b>5) Clydebank</b>                 | <b>16) Clydesdale</b>               |
| <b>6) Cumbernauld &amp; Kilsyth</b> | <b>17) Monklands</b>                |
| <b>7) Cumnock &amp; Doon Valley</b> | <b>18) Motherwell</b>               |
| <b>8) Cunninghame</b>               | <b>19) Renfrew</b>                  |
| <b>9) Dumbarton</b>                 | <b>20) Strathkelvin</b>             |
| <b>10) East Kilbride</b>            | <b>21) Elsewhere in Scotland</b>    |
| <b>11) Eastwood</b>                 | <b>22) Other (specify)</b>          |

**Q29. Where did you work before coming to live at this address?**

- Same place as now**
- In the Glasgow city**
- In the Strathclyde region**
- Elsewhere in Scotland**
- Other (specify)**
- Not working**



**Q30. What is your occupation now?**

**Q31. Could you please tell me into which of these categories your total household income falls?**

**Under £8.000**  
**£8.000~12.000**  
**£12.000~18.000**  
**£18.000~25.000**  
**£25.000~35.000**  
**Over £35.000**

**Q32. Sex:**

**Male**  
**Female**

**Q33. Age:**

**20~30**  
**31~40**  
**41~50**  
**51~65**  
**Over 65**

**I would like to thank you very much for your co-operation.**

**\* NB: I should be grateful if you could post this questionnaire in the SAE enclosed.**

## **Survey Questionnaire: Whitworth Street & Hulme in the city of Manchester**

My name is Joon-Kyo Seo. I am a post-graduate research student at Goldsmiths' College University of London. I am very interested in finding out residents' views on the quality and provision of current urban regeneration policies in the city of Manchester, and ask for your help with an important research project. The results from this survey will be used to complete my doctoral thesis, and, as I come from Korea, the results would be extremely helpful to use as an example for cities in Korea.

Although, the questionnaire has some spaces to put your own words down, most questions are designed to be straightforward and should not take too long to complete.

I would be grateful if you would complete the following survey. Please would you personally complete the form and answer questions about your experiences. Your responses will be treated in the strictest of confidence.

I also enclose a stamped envelope. It would be the most grateful, if you would return the questionnaire to me within a week. However, if you do not have enough time to return it, I would visit you to collect the questionnaire a week later.

I would like to thank you in advance for your time in helping me.

Joon-Kyo Seo  
Research student  
Goldsmiths' College  
University of London.



**Q1. Where did you live before moving here?**

**In the city of Manchester**

**In the Manchester region**

**Elsewhere in England**

**Other (specify)**

**Q2. When did you move here?**

**Q3. Why did you want to move here? (Please only tick the 2 or 3 most important reasons)**

**1) Value for money (e.g. house)**

**2) Close to work**

**3) Employment opportunities**

**4) Close to all social amenities**

**5) Centre city Location**

**6) High degree of security**

**7) Attractions of the city in general**

**8) Availability of cultural or leisure facilities**

**9) Born in the area**

**10) Relatives living in the area**

**11) Other (specify)**

**Q4. Do you own or rent house / flat?**

**Owner-occupier**

**Rent privately**

**Housing association**

**Other (specify)**

**Q5. How many people are there in your household?**

**Q6. Are you satisfied with living here?**

**Very satisfied**

**Fairly satisfied**

**Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied**

**Fairly dissatisfied**

**Very dissatisfied**

**Q7. What do you like about it?**

**Q8. Are there any things you dislike about living here?**

**Q9 How long have you been living in Manchester?**

(If lived in Manchester in the 1970s, answer from Q10 to Q12, and if not, go to Q13)

**Q10. Do you think that the Manchester city now is more attractive to live than in the 1970s?**

**More attractive**

**Same**

**Less attractive**

**Q11. What things make the city more attractive to live in now?**

**Q12. Are there any things that make the city less attractive than in the 1970s?**

**Q13. How would you describe Manchester now?**

**Q14. Are you proud of your city?**

**Yes**

**No**

**Do not know**

**Q 15. Would you consider moving to another city?**

**Q 16. (If yes)**

**1. Where would you consider living?**

**2. Why?**

**Q17. How effective do you think that Manchester City Council has been in regenerating the city?**

**Very effective**

**Fairly effective**

**Neither effective nor ineffective**

**Fairly ineffective**

**Very ineffective**



**Q18. Please indicate if you have ever visited the following (Please tick the appropriate boxes)?**

- 
- 1) The Bridgewater Hall**
  - 2) G-Mex**
  - 3) Nynex Arena**
  - 4) Museum of Science and Industry**
  - 5) The Whitworth Art Gallery**
  - 6) Opera House**
  - 7) Palace Theatre**
  - 8) Royal Exchange Theatre**
  - 9) Granada Studios Tour**
  - 10) Transport Museum**
- 

**Q19. Did you know that some of these facilities were subsidised?**

- Yes**
- No**

**Q20. Do you think that it is a good idea that they should receive subsidies?**

- Yes**
- No**
- Do not know**

**Q21. Do you think that these facilities have improved the city's image?**

- Yes**
- No**
- Do not know**

**Q22. (If yes) In what ways?**

**Q23. What other things, if any, do you think that Manchester City Council should do in its effort to regenerate the city?**

**Q24. How important are facilities such as museums, theatres, galleries, concert halls, opera houses and exhibition centres to you personally?**

- Very important**
- Fairly important**
- Neither important nor unimportant**
- Fairly unimportant**
- Very unimportant**

**Q25. Does the location of these facilities close to your home help to improve the quality of your life?**

- Yes**
- No**
- Do not know**

**Q26. Does your work benefit directly or indirectly from facilities such as galleries, museums, concert halls, opera houses, theatres and exhibition centres?**

- Yes**
- No**

**Q27. Are you?**

- In full time employment**
- In part time employment**
- Unemployed**
- Other (specify)**

**Q28. (If Working) Where do you work? (Please tick the appropriate bracket)**

- |                                   |                                 |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <b>1) Central Manchester City</b> | <b>8) Bolton</b>                |
| <b>2) Inner Manchester City</b>   | <b>9) Bury</b>                  |
| <b>3) Tameside</b>                | <b>10) Rochdale</b>             |
| <b>4) Stockport</b>               | <b>11) Oldham</b>               |
| <b>5) Trafford</b>                | <b>12) Elsewhere in England</b> |
| <b>6) Salford</b>                 | <b>13) Other (specify)</b>      |
| <b>7) Wigan</b>                   |                                 |

**Q29. Where did you work before coming to live at this address?**

- Same place as now**
- In the Manchester city**
- In the Manchester region**
- Elsewhere in England**
- Other (specify)**
- Not working**



**Q30. What is your occupation now?**

**Q31. Could you please tell me into which of these categories your total household income falls?**

**Under £8.000**  
**£8.000~12.000**  
**£12.000~18.000**  
**£18.000~25.000**  
**£25.000~35.000**  
**Over £35.000**

**Q32. Sex:**

**Male**  
**Female**

**Q33. Age:**

**20~30**  
**31~40**  
**41~50**  
**51~65**  
**Over 65**

**I would like to thank you very much for your co-operation.**

**\* NB: I should be grateful if you could post this questionnaire in the SAE enclosed.**

## **Appendix 2: Tables**



## Chapter 5: Who moves to the city?

**Table 5-1: Previous residential location of residents in the inner city and the central city**

• Inner City

| Location            | (Crown Street & Hulme) |            |
|---------------------|------------------------|------------|
|                     | No                     | %          |
| City                | 120                    | 49.2       |
| Local Region        | 74                     | 30.2       |
| Rest of the country | 35                     | 14.2       |
| Elsewhere in the UK | 8                      | 3.3        |
| Other               | 7                      | 2.9        |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>244</b>             | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 244) = 190.71, p < .001$

• Central City

| Location            | (Merchant City & Whitworth Street) |            |
|---------------------|------------------------------------|------------|
|                     | No                                 | %          |
| City                | 87                                 | 20.0       |
| Local region        | 133                                | 30.6       |
| Rest of the country | 140                                | 32.2       |
| Elsewhere in the UK | 28                                 | 6.4        |
| Other               | 37                                 | 10.8       |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>425</b>                         | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 425) = 128.07, p < .001$

**Table 5-2: Previous residential location of residents in the four areas**

• Inner city areas

| Location            | Crown Street |            |
|---------------------|--------------|------------|
|                     | No           | %          |
| City                | 62           | 53.0       |
| Local region        | 34           | 29.1       |
| Rest of Scotland    | 15           | 12.8       |
| Elsewhere in the UK | 4            | 3.4        |
| Other               | 2            | 1.7        |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>117</b>   | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 117) = 107.15, p < .001$

| Location            | Hulme      |            |
|---------------------|------------|------------|
|                     | No         | %          |
| City                | 58         | 45.7       |
| Local region        | 40         | 31.5       |
| Rest of England     | 20         | 15.7       |
| Elsewhere in the UK | 4          | 3.1        |
| Other               | 5          | 3.9        |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>127</b> | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 127) = 85.80, p < .001$

• Central city areas

| Location            | Merchant City |            |
|---------------------|---------------|------------|
|                     | No            | %          |
| City                | 55            | 26.2       |
| Rest of Scotland    | 60            | 28.6       |
| Local region        | 59            | 28.1       |
| Elsewhere in the UK | 23            | 11.0       |
| Other               | 13            | 6.2        |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>210</b>    | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 210) = 47.24, p < .001$

| Location            | Whitworth Street |            |
|---------------------|------------------|------------|
|                     | No               | %          |
| City                | 32               | 14.2       |
| Rest England        | 80               | 35.6       |
| Local region        | 74               | 32.9       |
| Elsewhere in the UK | 5                | 2.2        |
| Other               | 24               | 15.1       |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>225</b>       | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 225) = 87.91, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted for table 5-1 and 2 to assess the previous residential location of new residents in the inner city and the central city, and between the four survey areas. The results of test for both the inner city and the central city in table 5-1 were significant: the inner city ( $X^2(4, N = 117) = 107.15, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2(4, N = 127) = 85.80, p < .001$ ). Moreover, the results of test for the four areas in the table 5-2 were also significant: Crown Street ( $X^2(4, N = 117) = 107.15, p < .001$ ), Hulme ( $X^2(4, N = 127) = 85.80, p < .001$ ), Merchant City ( $X^2(4, N = 210) = 47.24, p < .001$ ) and Whitworth Street ( $X^2(4, N = 225) = 87.91, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001. The population value below .005 was statistically significant.

**Table 5-3: Areas of workplace of residents in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Inner city</u>                    |            |            | <u>Central city</u>                   |            |            |
|--------------------------------------|------------|------------|---------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| (Crown Street & Hulme)               |            |            | (Merchant City & Whitworth Street)    |            |            |
| Location                             | No         | %          | Location                              | No         | %          |
| CBD                                  | 78         | 46.7       | CBD                                   | 207        | 60.9       |
| Rest of city                         | 39         | 20.4       | Rest of region                        | 55         | 14.1       |
| Rest of region                       | 25         | 18.0       | Rest of city                          | 35         | 12.1       |
| Rest of Scotland                     | 12         | 7.2        | Rest of England                       | 19         | 5.9        |
| Other                                | 13         | 7.8        | Other                                 | 24         | 7.1        |
| <b>Total</b>                         | <b>167</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                          | <b>340</b> | <b>100</b> |
| $X^2 (4, N = 167) = 86.08, p < .001$ |            |            | $X^2 (4, N = 340) = 363.09, p < .001$ |            |            |

**Table 5-4: Areas of workplace of residents in the four areas**

• Inner city areas

| <u>Crown Street</u>                 |           |            | <u>Hulme</u>                        |           |            |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Location                            | No        | %          | Location                            | No        | %          |
| CBD                                 | 44        | 51.8       | CBD                                 | 34        | 41.5       |
| Rest of city                        | 18        | 22.2       | Local region                        | 21        | 25.6       |
| Local region                        | 9         | 10.6       | Rest of city                        | 16        | 19.5       |
| Rest of Scotland                    | 5         | 5.9        | Rest of England                     | 7         | 8.5        |
| Other                               | 9         | 10.6       | Other                               | 4         | 4.9        |
| <b>Total</b>                        | <b>85</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                        | <b>82</b> | <b>100</b> |
| $X^2 (4, N = 85) = 58.94, p < .001$ |           |            | $X^2 (4, N = 82) = 34.95, p < .001$ |           |            |

• Central city areas

| <u>Merchant City</u>                  |            |            | <u>Whitworth Street</u>               |            |            |
|---------------------------------------|------------|------------|---------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| Location                              | No         | %          | Location                              | No         | %          |
| CBD                                   | 110        | 62.5       | CBD                                   | 97         | 59.1       |
| Rest of city                          | 28         | 15.9       | Local region                          | 27         | 16.5       |
| Local region                          | 21         | 11.9       | Rest of England                       | 14         | 8.5        |
| Rest of Scotland                      | 6          | 3.4        | Rest of city                          | 13         | 7.9        |
| Other                                 | 11         | 6.3        | Other                                 | 13         | 7.9        |
| <b>Total</b>                          | <b>176</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                          | <b>164</b> | <b>100</b> |
| $X^2 (4, N = 176) = 207.01, p < .001$ |            |            | $X^2 (4, N = 164) = 161.37, p = .001$ |            |            |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted for table 5-3 and 4 to assess the areas of workplace of new residents. The results of test for both the inner city and the central city in table 5-3 were significant: the inner city ( $X^2 (4, N = 167) = 86.08, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2 (4, N = 340) = 363.09, p < .001$ ). The results of test for table 5-4 were also significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (4, N = 85) = 58.94, p < .001$ ), Hulme ( $X^2 (4, N = 82) = 34.95, p < .001$ ), Merchant City ( $X^2 (4, N = 176) = 207.01, p < .001$ ) and Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (4, N = 164) = 161.37, p = .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the acceptable value of .005.



**Table 5-5: Age structure of residents in the central city and the inner city**

**Inner City**

| Age          | (Crown Street & Hulme) |            |
|--------------|------------------------|------------|
|              | No                     | %          |
| 20 ~ 30      | 83                     | 34.4       |
| 31 ~ 40      | 77                     | 32.0       |
| 41 ~ 50      | 36                     | 14.9       |
| 51 ~ 65      | 25                     | 10.4       |
| Over 65      | 20                     | 8.3        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>241</b>             | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 241) = 73.9, p < .001$

**Central City**

| Age          | (Merchant City & Whitworth Street) |            |
|--------------|------------------------------------|------------|
|              | No                                 | %          |
| 20 ~ 30      | 239                                | 55.2       |
| 31 ~ 40      | 97                                 | 22.4       |
| 41 ~ 50      | 42                                 | 9.7        |
| 51 ~ 65      | 47                                 | 10.7       |
| Over 65      | 8                                  | 1.8        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>433</b>                         | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 433) = 381.86, p < .001$

**Table 5-6: Age structure of residents in the four areas**

• **Inner city areas**

| Age          | Crown Street |            |
|--------------|--------------|------------|
|              | No           | %          |
| 20 ~ 30      | 40           | 34.5       |
| 31 ~ 40      | 37           | 31.9       |
| 41 ~ 50      | 19           | 16.4       |
| 51 ~ 65      | 12           | 10.3       |
| Over 65      | 8            | 6.9        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>116</b>   | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 116) = 36.50, p < .001$

| Age          | Hulme      |            |
|--------------|------------|------------|
|              | No         | %          |
| 20 ~ 30      | 43         | 34.4       |
| 31 ~ 40      | 40         | 32.0       |
| 41 ~ 50      | 17         | 13.6       |
| 51 ~ 65      | 13         | 10.4       |
| Over 65      | 12         | 9.6        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>125</b> | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 125) = 37.04, p < .001$

• **Central city areas**

| Age          | Merchant City |            |
|--------------|---------------|------------|
|              | No            | %          |
| 20 ~ 30      | 124           | 59.0       |
| 31 ~ 40      | 37            | 17.6       |
| 41 ~ 50      | 20            | 9.5        |
| 51 ~ 65      | 23            | 11.0       |
| Over 65      | 6             | 2.9        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>210</b>    | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 210) = 211.67, p < .001$

| Age          | Whitworth Street |            |
|--------------|------------------|------------|
|              | No               | %          |
| 20 ~ 30      | 115              | 51.6       |
| 31 ~ 40      | 60               | 26.9       |
| 41 ~ 50      | 22               | 9.9        |
| 51 ~ 65      | 24               | 10.7       |
| Over 65      | 2                | 0.9        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>223</b>       | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 223) = 178.10, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted for table 5-5 and 6 to assess the age structure of new residents. The results of test for both the inner city and the central city in table 5-5 were significant: the inner city ( $X^2(4, N = 241) = 73.9, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2(4, N = 433) = 381.86, p < .001$ ). The results of test for the four areas were also significant: Crown Street ( $X^2(4, N = 116) = 36.50, p < .001$ ), Hulme ( $X^2(4, N = 125) = 37.04, p < .001$ ), Merchant City ( $X^2(4, N = 210) = 211.67, p < .001$ ) and Whitworth Street ( $X^2(4, N = 223) = 178.10, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 5-7: Household size of residents in the central city and the inner city**

| <u>Inner City</u> |                        |            | <u>Central City</u> |                             |            |
|-------------------|------------------------|------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|------------|
| Household size    | (Crown Street & Hulme) |            | Household size      | (Merchant City & Whitworth) |            |
|                   | No                     | %          |                     | No                          | %          |
| One               | 107                    | 46.3       | One                 | 226                         | 52.9       |
| Two               | 77                     | 33.3       | Two                 | 178                         | 41.7       |
| Three             | 27                     | 11.7       | Three               | 17                          | 4.0        |
| Four              | 12                     | 5.2        | Four                | 5                           | 1.2        |
| Five or more      | 8                      | 3.5        | Five or more        | 1                           | 0.2        |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>231</b>             | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>        | <b>427</b>                  | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 231) = 165.43, p < .001$        $X^2(4, N = 427) = 545.78, p < .001$

**Table 5-8: Household size of residents in the four areas**

• Inner city areas

| Household size | Crown Street |            | Household size | Hulme      |            |
|----------------|--------------|------------|----------------|------------|------------|
|                | No           | %          |                | No         | %          |
| One            | 45           | 39.5       | One            | 62         | 53.0       |
| Two            | 39           | 34.2       | Two            | 38         | 32.5       |
| Three          | 18           | 15.8       | Three          | 9          | 7.7        |
| Four           | 7            | 6.1        | Four           | 5          | 4.3        |
| Five or more   | 5            | 4.4        | Five or more   | 3          | 2.6        |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>114</b>   | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>   | <b>117</b> | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 114) = 58.98, p < .001$        $X^2(4, N = 117) = 113.90, p < .001$

• Central city areas

| Household size | Merchant City |            | Household size | Whitworth Street |            |
|----------------|---------------|------------|----------------|------------------|------------|
|                | No            | %          |                | No               | %          |
| One            | 113           | 55.4       | One            | 113              | 50.7       |
| Two            | 79            | 38.7       | Two            | 99               | 44.4       |
| Three          | 8             | 3.9        | Three          | 9                | 4.0        |
| Four           | 3             | 1.5        | Four           | 2                | 0.9        |
| Five or more   | 1             | 0.5        | Five or more   | 0                | 0.0        |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>204</b>    | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>   | <b>223</b>       | <b>100</b> |

$X^2(4, N = 204) = 263.75, p < .001$        $X^2(3, N = 223) = 183.37, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted for the household size of new residents in the inner city and the central city, and between the four areas. The results of test for table 5-7 were significant: the inner city ( $X^2(4, N = 231) = 165.43, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2(4, N = 427) = 545.78, p < .001$ ). The results of test for the four areas in table 5-8 were also significant: Crown Street ( $X^2(4, N = 114) = 58.98, p < .001$ ), Hulme ( $X^2(4, N = 117) = 113.90, p < .001$ ), Merchant City ( $X^2(4, N = 204) = 263.75, p < .001$ ) and Whitworth Street ( $X^2(3, N = 223) = 183.37, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 5-9: Occupational status of residents in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Inner City</u>                   |            |            | <u>Central City</u>                           |            |            |
|-------------------------------------|------------|------------|---|------------|------------|
| <u>(Crown Street &amp; Hulme)</u>   |            |            | <u>(Merchant City &amp; Whitworth Street)</u> |            |            |
| <u>Occupation</u>                   | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   | <u>Occupation</u>                             | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   |
| Pro/Managerial                      | 96         | 41.7       | Pro/Managerial                                | 250        | 61.0       |
| Skilled                             | 46         | 20.0       | Skilled                                       | 48         | 11.7       |
| Semi/Unskilled                      | 12         | 5.2        | Semi/Unskilled                                | 12         | 2.9        |
| Economically inactive               | 58         | 25.2       | Economically inactive                         | 15         | 3.7        |
| Other                               | 18         | 7.8        | Other   | 85         | 20.7       |
| <b>Total</b>                        | <b>230</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                                  | <b>410</b> | <b>100</b> |
| $X^2 (4, N= 230) = 99.65, p < .001$ |            |            | $X^2 (4, N= 312) = 472.90, p < .001$          |            |            |

**Table 5-10: Occupational status of residents in the four areas**

| <u>Inner City areas</u>             |            |            |                                    |            |            |
|-------------------------------------|------------|------------|------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| <u>Crown Street</u>                 |            |            | <u>Hulme</u>                       |            |            |
| <u>Occupation</u>                   | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   | <u>Occupation</u>                  | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   |
| Pro/Managerial                      | 52         | 46.8       | Pro/Managerial                     | 44         | 37.0       |
| Skilled                             | 24         | 21.6       | Skilled                            | 22         | 18.5       |
| Semi/Unskilled                      | 4          | 3.6        | Semi/Unskilled                     | 8          | 6.7        |
| Economically inactive               | 23         | 20.7       | Economically inactive              | 35         | 29.4       |
| Other                               | 8          | 7.2        | Other                              | 10         | 8.4        |
| <b>Total</b>                        | <b>111</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                       | <b>119</b> | <b>100</b> |
| $X^2 (4, N= 111) = 64.18, p < .001$ |            |            | $X^2 (4, N=119) = 41.04, p < .001$ |            |            |

| <u>Central City areas</u>            |            |            |                                      |            |            |
|--------------------------------------|------------|------------|--------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| <u>Merchant City</u>                 |            |            | <u>Whitworth Street</u>              |            |            |
| <u>Occupation</u>                    | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   | <u>Occupation</u>                    | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   |
| Pro/Managerial                       | 136        | 67.3       | Pro/Managerial                       | 114        | 54.8       |
| Skilled                              | 25         | 12.4       | Skilled                              | 23         | 11.1       |
| Semi/Unskilled                       | 2          | 1.0        | Semi/Unskilled                       | 10         | 4.8        |
| Economically inactive                | 9          | 4.5        | Economically inactive                | 6          | 2.9        |
| Other                                | 30         | 14.2       | Other                                | 55         | 26.4       |
| <b>Total</b>                         | <b>202</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                         | <b>208</b> | <b>100</b> |
| $X^2 (4, N= 202) = 295.67, p < .001$ |            |            | $X^2 (4, N= 208) = 193.11, p < .001$ |            |            |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the occupational status of new residents. The results of test for the inner city and the central city in table 5-9 were significant: the inner city ( $X^2 (4, N= 230) = 99.65, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2 (4, N= 312) = 472.90, p < .001$ ). The results of test for the four areas in table 5-9 were also significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (4, N= 111) = 64.18, p < .001$ ), Hulme ( $X^2 (4, N=119) = 41.04, p < .001$ ), Merchant City ( $X^2 (4, N= 202) = 295.67, p < .001$ ) and Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (4, N= 208) = 193.11, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Figure 5-11: Housing tenure and employment in Crown Street and Hulme**

| <u>Crown Street</u>          |                       |             |                            |             |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------|
| <u>Employment status</u>     | <u>Owner-occupier</u> |             | <u>Housing Association</u> |             |
|                              | <u>No</u>             | <u>%</u>    | <u>No</u>                  | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Economically active</b>   | <b>71</b>             | <b>88.8</b> | <b>6</b>                   | <b>33.3</b> |
| <b>Economically inactive</b> | <b>9</b>              | <b>11.3</b> | <b>12</b>                  | <b>66.7</b> |

$X^2 (1, N= 98) = 26.80, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .523$

| <u>Hulme</u>                 |                        |             |                            |             |
|------------------------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------|
| <u>Employment status</u>     | <u>Owner-occupiers</u> |             | <u>Housing Association</u> |             |
|                              | <u>No</u>              | <u>%</u>    | <u>No</u>                  | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Economically active</b>   | <b>51</b>              | <b>96.2</b> | <b>22</b>                  | <b>41.5</b> |
| <b>Economically inactive</b> | <b>2</b>               | <b>3.8</b>  | <b>31</b>                  | <b>58.5</b> |

$X^2 (1, N= 106) = 37.01, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .591$

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate the relationship between housing tenure and employment. The results of test for Crown Street and Hulme in table 5-11 showed that housing tenure and employment were found to be significantly related: Crown Street ( $X^2 (1, N= 98) = 26.80, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .523$ ) and Hulme ( $X^2 (1, N= 106) = 37.01, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .591$ ). The population value in both tests was less than .001, which is lower than the value of .005, and Cramer's V in both tests was much greater than .300, which is evidence of a very strong relationship.

**Figure 5-12: Residents in employment by industry groups: the central city and the inner city**

| <u>Inner City</u>                |                                   |             | <u>Central City</u>              |   |             |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|----------------------------------|---|-------------|
| <u>Types of job</u>              | <u>(Crown Street &amp; Hulme)</u> |             | <u>Types of job</u>              | <u>(Merchant City &amp; Whitworth Street)</u> |             |
|                                  | <u>No</u>                         | <u>%</u>    |                                  | <u>No</u>                                     | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Manufacturing</b>             | <b>8</b>                          | <b>5.2</b>  | <b>Manufacturing</b>             | <b>8</b>                                      | <b>2.6</b>  |
| <b>Distribution &amp; others</b> | <b>28</b>                         | <b>18.1</b> | <b>Distribution &amp; others</b> | <b>64</b>                                     | <b>20.5</b> |
| <b>Transport &amp; others</b>    | <b>12</b>                         | <b>7.7</b>  | <b>Transport &amp; others</b>    | <b>10</b>                                     | <b>3.2</b>  |
| <b>Banking &amp; others</b>      | <b>58</b>                         | <b>37.4</b> | <b>Banking &amp; others</b>      | <b>154</b>                                    | <b>49.4</b> |
| <b>Public services</b>           | <b>49</b>                         | <b>31.6</b> | <b>Public services</b>           | <b>76</b>                                     | <b>24.4</b> |
| <b>Total</b>                     | <b>155</b>                        | <b>100</b>  | <b>Total</b>                     | <b>312</b>                                    | <b>100</b>  |

$X^2 (4, N= 155) = 62.97, p < .001$        $X^2 (4, N= 312) = 228.90, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess new residents in employment by industry groups. The results of test for the inner city and the central city in table 5-12 were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2 (4, N= 155) = 62.97, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2 (4, N= 312) = 228.90, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 5-13: Household incomes of residents in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Inner City</u>                 |            |            | <u>Central City</u>                           |            |            |
|-----------------------------------|------------|------------|---|------------|------------|
| <u>(Crown Street &amp; Hulme)</u> |            |            | <u>(Merchant City &amp; Whitworth Street)</u> |            |            |
| <u>Household income</u>           | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   | <u>Household income</u>                       | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>   |
| Under £8000                       | 58         | 26.5       | Under £8000                                   | 53         | 13.6       |
| £8000 ~ 12000                     | 25         | 11.4       | £8000 ~ 12000                                 | 40         | 10.3       |
| £12000 ~ 18000                    | 41         | 18.7       | £12000 ~ 18000                                | 51         | 13.1       |
| £18000 ~ 25000                    | 40         | 18.3       | £18000 ~ 25000                                | 75         | 19.2       |
| £25000 ~ 35000                    | 38         | 17.4       | £25000 ~ 35000                                | 61         | 15.6       |
| Over £35000                       | 17         | 7.8        | Over £35000                                   | 110        | 28.2       |
| <b>Total</b>                      | <b>219</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>Total</b>                                  | <b>390</b> | <b>100</b> |

$X^2 (5, N= 219) = 27.66, p < .001$        $X^2 (5, N = 390) = 47.79, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess household incomes of new residents. The results of test for the inner city and the central city in table 5-13 were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2 (5, N= 219) = 27.66, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2 (5, N = 390) = 47.79, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 5-14: Housing tenure and Household income in the inner city**

| <u>Household income</u> | <u>(Crown Street &amp; Hulme)</u> |          |                            |          |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------|----------------------------|----------|
|                         | <u>Owner-occupier</u>             |          | <u>Housing Association</u> |          |
|                         | <u>No</u>                         | <u>%</u> | <u>No</u>                  | <u>%</u> |
| Under £8000             | 13                                | 9.8      | 39                         | 52.0     |
| £8000-12000             | 9                                 | 6.8      | 16                         | 21.3     |
| £12000-18000            | 31                                | 23.3     | 10                         | 13.3     |
| £18000-25000            | 35                                | 26.3     | 3                          | 4.0      |
| £25000-35000            | 31                                | 23.3     | 6                          | 8.0      |
| Over £35000             | 14                                | 10.5     | 1                          | 1.3      |

$X^2 (5, N= 208) = 70.10, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .581$

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate the relationship between housing tenure and household income. The results of test for the inner city in table 5-14 showed that housing tenure and household income were found to be significantly related:  $X^2 (5, N= 208) = 70.10, p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .581$ ). The population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005, and Cramer's  $V$  was much greater than .300, which was evidence of a very strong relationship.

**Table 5-15: Household incomes of the residents in the four areas**

• Inner city areas

| Household incomes | Crown Street |            |
|-------------------|--------------|------------|
|                   | No           | %          |
| Under £8000       | 22           | 21.4       |
| £8000 ~ 12000     | 11           | 10.7       |
| £12000 ~ 18000    | 18           | 17.5       |
| £18000 ~ 25000    | 27           | 26.2       |
| £25000 ~ 35000    | 14           | 13.6       |
| Over £35000       | 11           | 10.7       |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>103</b>   | <b>100</b> |

$X^2 (5, N = 103) = 12.05, p = .034$

| Household incomes | Hulme      |            |
|-------------------|------------|------------|
|                   | No         | %          |
| Under £8000       | 36         | 31.0       |
| £8000 ~ 12000     | 14         | 12.1       |
| £12000 ~ 18000    | 23         | 19.8       |
| £18000 ~ 25000    | 13         | 11.2       |
| £25000 ~ 35000    | 24         | 20.7       |
| Over £35000       | 6          | 5.2        |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>116</b> | <b>100</b> |

$X^2 (5, N = 116) = 28.93, p < .001$

• Central city areas

| Household incomes | Merchant City |            |
|-------------------|---------------|------------|
|                   | No            | %          |
| Under £8000       | 25            | 12.6       |
| £8000 ~ 12000     | 13            | 6.6        |
| £12000 ~ 18000    | 32            | 16.2       |
| £18000 ~ 25000    | 46            | 23.2       |
| £25000 ~ 35000    | 35            | 17.7       |
| Over £35000       | 47            | 23.7       |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>198</b>    | <b>100</b> |

$X^2 (5, N = 198) = 25.93, p < .001$

| Household incomes | Whitworth Street |            |
|-------------------|------------------|------------|
|                   | No               | %          |
| Under £8000       | 28               | 14.6       |
| £8000 ~ 12000     | 27               | 14.1       |
| £12000 ~ 18000    | 19               | 9.9        |
| £18000 ~ 25000    | 29               | 15.1       |
| £25000 ~ 35000    | 26               | 13.5       |
| Over £35000       | 63               | 32.8       |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>192</b>       | <b>100</b> |

$X^2 (5, N = 192) = 38.00, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess household incomes of new residents in the four areas. The results of test for the four areas in table 5-15 were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (5, N = 103) = 12.05, p = .034$ ), Hulme ( $X^2 (5, N = 116) = 28.93, p < .001$ ), Merchant City ( $X^2 (5, N = 198) = 25.93, p < .001$ ) and Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (5, N = 192) = 38.00, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 5-16: Housing tenure and Household income in the Crown Street and Hulme**

| <b><u>Crown Street</u></b> |                        |             |                            |             |
|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Household income</b>    | <b>Owner-occupiers</b> |             | <b>Housing Association</b> |             |
|                            | <b>No</b>              | <b>%</b>    | <b>No</b>                  | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Under £8000</b>         | <b>8</b>               | <b>10.4</b> | <b>9</b>                   | <b>52.9</b> |
| <b>£8000-12000</b>         | <b>6</b>               | <b>7.8</b>  | <b>5</b>                   | <b>29.4</b> |
| <b>£12000-18000</b>        | <b>15</b>              | <b>19.5</b> | <b>3</b>                   | <b>17.6</b> |
| <b>£18000-25000</b>        | <b>25</b>              | <b>32.5</b> | <b>0</b>                   |             |
| <b>£25000-35000</b>        | <b>14</b>              | <b>18.2</b> | <b>0</b>                   |             |
| <b>Over £35000</b>         | <b>9</b>               | <b>11.7</b> | <b>0</b>                   |             |

$X^2 (5, N= 94) = 30.13, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .566$

| <b><u>Hulme</u></b>     |                        |             |                            |             |
|-------------------------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Household income</b> | <b>Owner-occupiers</b> |             | <b>Housing Association</b> |             |
|                         | <b>No</b>              | <b>%</b>    | <b>No</b>                  | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Under £8000</b>      | <b>5</b>               | <b>8.9</b>  | <b>30</b>                  | <b>51.7</b> |
| <b>£8000-12000</b>      | <b>3</b>               | <b>5.4</b>  | <b>11</b>                  | <b>19.0</b> |
| <b>£12000-18000</b>     | <b>16</b>              | <b>28.6</b> | <b>7</b>                   | <b>12.1</b> |
| <b>£18000-25000</b>     | <b>10</b>              | <b>17.6</b> | <b>3</b>                   | <b>5.2</b>  |
| <b>£25000-35000</b>     | <b>17</b>              | <b>30.4</b> | <b>6</b>                   | <b>10.3</b> |
| <b>Over £35000</b>      | <b>5</b>               | <b>8.9</b>  | <b>1</b>                   | <b>1.7</b>  |

$X^2 (5, N= 114) = 37.62, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .574$

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate the relationship between housing tenure and household income in Crown Street and Hulme. The results of test showed that housing tenure and household income were found to be significantly related: Crown Street ( $X^2 (5, N= 94) = 30.13, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .566$ ) and Hulme ( $X^2 (5, N= 114) = 37.62, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .574$ ). The population value of the two areas was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005, and Cramer's V was much greater than the value of .300, which was evidence of a very strong relationship.

**Table 5-17: The social & economic profiles of non-local movers in the inner city and the central city**

| <b>Age</b>  | <b>Inner City</b> |             | <b>Central City</b> |             |
|---|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|   | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b>    | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Under 30</b>   | <b>51</b>         | <b>41.1</b> | <b>185</b>          | <b>53.5</b> |
| <b>31-50</b>  | <b>54</b>         | <b>43.5</b> | <b>115</b>          | <b>33.2</b> |
| <b>Over 50</b>  | <b>19</b>         | <b>15.3</b> | <b>46</b>           | <b>13.3</b> |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>124</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>346</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (18.21), df (2), N (124), p (.000)</b>   |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b>Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (83.76), df (2), N (346), p (.000)</b> |                   |             |                     |             |

| <b>Household size</b>  | <b>Inner City</b> |             | <b>Central City</b> |             |
|--|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|  | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b>    | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>One</b>   | <b>51</b>         | <b>44.7</b> | <b>183</b>          | <b>53.8</b> |
| <b>Two</b>   | <b>44</b>         | <b>38.6</b> | <b>140</b>          | <b>41.2</b> |
| <b>Three or more</b>   | <b>19</b>         | <b>16.7</b> | <b>17</b>           | <b>5.0</b>  |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>114</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>340</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (14.90), df (2), N (114), p (.001)</b>    |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b>Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (130.98), df (2), N (340), p (.000)</b> |                   |             |                     |             |

| <b>Household income</b>   | <b>Inner City</b> |             | <b>Central City</b> |             |
|---|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|   | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b>    | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Under £12000</b>   | <b>37</b>         | <b>27.2</b> | <b>73</b>           | <b>23.6</b> |
| <b>£12000-25000</b>   | <b>41</b>         | <b>30.1</b> | <b>94</b>           | <b>30.4</b> |
| <b>Over £25000</b>  | <b>58</b>         | <b>42.6</b> | <b>142</b>          | <b>46.0</b> |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>136</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>309</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (5.49), df (2), N (136), p (.064)</b>    |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b>Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (24.29), df (2), N (309), p (.000)</b> |                   |             |                     |             |

| <b>Occupations</b>   | <b>Inner City</b> |             | <b>Central City</b> |             |
|--|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|  | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b>    | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Pro/Management</b>  | <b>54</b>         | <b>45.0</b> | <b>198</b>          | <b>60.6</b> |
| <b>Skilled/Unskilled</b>   | <b>29</b>         | <b>24.2</b> | <b>49</b>           | <b>15.0</b> |
| <b>Economically inactive</b>   | <b>23</b>         | <b>19.2</b> | <b>13</b>           | <b>4.0</b>  |
| <b>Others</b>  | <b>14</b>         | <b>11.7</b> | <b>67</b>           | <b>20.5</b> |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>120</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>327</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (29.40), df (3), N (120), p (.000)</b>    |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b>Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (238.91), df (3), N (327), p (.000)</b> |                   |             |                     |             |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the social and economic profiles of non-local movers in the inner city and the central city. The results of test for the inner city and the central city in table 5-17 were statistically significant with the exception of household income differences in the inner city. The inner city- Age ( $X^2 (2, N= 124) = 18.21, p < .001$ ); Household size ( $X^2 (2, N= 114) = 14.90, p = .001$ ); Household income ( $X^2 (2, N=136) = 5.49, p = .064$ ); Occupations ( $X^2 (3, N=120) = 29.40, p < .001$ ). The central city- Age ( $X^2 (2, N=346) = 83.76, p < .001$ ); Household size ( $X^2 (2, N=340) = 130.96, p < .001$ ); Household income ( $X^2 (2, N= 309) = 24.29, p < .001$ ); Occupations ( $X^2 (3, N= 327) = 238.91, p < .001$ ). All tests with the exception of household incomes in the inner city showed that the population value was less than .005.



## Chapter 6: Why do people move into the city?

**Table 6-1: Reasons for residence in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Reasons</u>   | <u>Inner City</u> |            | <u>Central City</u> |            |
|--|-------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|  | <u>N</u>          | <u>%</u>   | <u>N</u>            | <u>%</u>   |
| <u>Value for money</u>                                   | 104               | 21.5       | 40                  | 9.7        |
| <u>Close to work</u>                                     | 71                | 14.7       | 235                 | 25.2       |
| <u>Employment opportunity</u>                            | 10                | 2.1        | 37                  | 4.0        |
| <u>Close to all social amenities</u>                     | 42                | 8.7        | 142                 | 15.2       |
| <u>Central city location</u>                             | 84                | 17.4       | 198                 | 21.2       |
| <u>High degree of security</u>                           | 10                | 2.1        | 46                  | 4.9        |
| <u>Attractions of the city in general</u>                | 37                | 7.6        | 101                 | 10.8       |
| <u>Availability of cultural &amp; leisure facilities</u> | 8                 | 1.7        | 67                  | 7.2        |
| <u>Born in the area</u>                                  | 43                | 8.9        | 7                   | 0.8        |
| <u>Relatives living in the area</u>                      | 42                | 8.7        | 14                  | 1.5        |
| <u>Other</u>   | 33                | 6.8        | 45                  | 4.8        |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>484</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>932</b>          | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City:  $X^2(10, N=484) = 220.82, p < .001$  / Central City:  $X^2(10, N=932) = 680.68, p < .001$**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess reasons for residence among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2(10, N=484) = 220.82, p < .001$ ) and the central city ( $X^2(10, N=932) = 680.68, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 6-2: Reasons for residence in the four areas**

• Inner city areas

| Reasons  | Crown Street |      | Hulme |      |
|--|--------------|------|-------|------|
|  | N            | %    | N     | %    |
| <u>Value for money</u>                                   | 63           | 24.8 | 41    | 17.8 |
| <u>Central city location</u>                             | 52           | 20.5 | 32    | 13.9 |
| <u>Close to work</u>                                     | 35           | 13.8 | 36    | 15.7 |
| <u>Close to all social amenities</u>                     | 26           | 10.2 | 16    | 7.0  |
| <u>Born in the area</u>                                  | 25           | 9.8  | 18    | 7.8  |
| <u>Relatives living in the area</u>                      | 18           | 7.1  | 24    | 10.4 |
| <u>Attractions of the city in general</u>                | 16           | 6.3  | 21    | 9.1  |
| <u>Employment opportunity</u>                            | 4            | 1.6  | 6     | 2.6  |
| <u>Availability of cultural &amp; leisure facilities</u> | 4            | 1.6  | 4     | 1.7  |
| <u>High degree of security</u>                           | 3            | 1.2  | 7     | 3.0  |
| <u>Other</u>   | 8            | 3.1  | 25    | 10.9 |

**Crown:  $X^2 (174.05)$ , df (10), N (254),  $p < .001$  / Hulme:  $X^2 (72.45)$ , df (10), N (230),  $p < .001$**

• Central city areas

| Reasons  | Merchant City |      | Whitworth Street |      |
|--|---------------|------|------------------|------|
|  | N             | %    | N                | %    |
| <u>Close to work</u>                                     | 112           | 24.3 | 123              | 26.1 |
| <u>Central city location</u>                             | 88            | 19.1 | 110              | 23.3 |
| <u>Close to all social amenities</u>                     | 77            | 16.7 | 65               | 13.8 |
| <u>Attractions of the city in general</u>                | 61            | 13.3 | 40               | 8.5  |
| <u>Availability of cultural &amp; leisure facilities</u> | 33            | 7.2  | 34               | 7.2  |
| <u>Value for money</u>                                   | 22            | 4.8  | 18               | 3.8  |
| <u>Employment opportunity</u>                            | 21            | 4.6  | 16               | 3.4  |
| <u>High degree of security</u>                           | 9             | 2.0  | 37               | 7.8  |
| <u>Relatives living in the area</u>                      | 8             | 1.7  | 6                | 1.3  |
| <u>Born in the area</u>                                  | 6             | 1.3  | 1                | 0.2  |
| <u>Other</u>   | 23            | 5.0  | 22               | 4.7  |

**Merchant:  $X^2 (321.05)$ , df (10), N (460),  $p < .001$ ; Whitworth:  $X^2 (382.83)$ , df (10), N (472),  $p < .001$**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess reasons for residence among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (10, N= 254) = 174.05$ ,  $p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (10, N= 230) = 72.45$ ,  $p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (10, N=460) = 321.05$ ,  $p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (10, N=472) = 382.83$ ,  $p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 6-3: Reasons for residence by types of tenure<sup>1</sup>**

| <b>Inner City</b> |       |       |      |       |       |       |      |       |       |       |       |
|-------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Tenure            | C-W   | C-L   | C-S  | V-M   | A-G   | A-C-L | R-A  | E-O   | B-A   | H-S   | O-T   |
|                   | %     |       |      |       |       |       |      |       |       |       |       |
| O-O               | 41.8  | 48.5  | 23.9 | 70.9  | 17.2  | 4.5   | 12.7 | 2.2   | 10.4  | 4.5   | 8.2   |
| H-A               | 13.3  | 16.9  | 8.4  | 7.2   | 13.3  | 2.4   | 30.1 | 7.2   | 32.5  | 4.8   | 25.3  |
| X <sup>2</sup>    | 19.56 | 22.16 | 8.30 | 83.50 | .59   | .62   | 9.98 | 3.21  | 16.31 | 0.01  | 11.91 |
| p                 | .000  | .000  | .004 | .000  | .441* | .432* | .002 | .073* | .000  | .907* | .001  |
| V                 | .300  | .320  | .196 | .620  | .052  | .053  | .242 | .122  | .274  | .008  | .234  |

\* No significance

| <b>Central City</b> |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
|---------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Tenure              | C-W   | C-L   | V-M   | C-S   | A-G   | A-C-L | H-S   | R-A   | E-O   | B-A   | O-T   |
|                     | %     |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
| O-O                 | 54.3  | 47.0  | 12.3  | 38.8  | 32.0  | 16.9  | 7.8   | 4.1   | 8.7   | 2.3   | 8.7   |
| P-R                 | 64.5  | 51.3  | 5.9   | 30.3  | 13.2  | 14.5  | 17.1  | 2.6   | 7.9   | 0.7   | 11.2  |
| H-A                 | 41.9  | 48.4  | 12.9  | 35.5  | 32.3  | 25.8  | 9.7   | 3.2   | 12.9  | 3.2   | 12.9  |
| X <sup>2</sup>      | 6.97  | 0.66  | 4.44  | 2.87  | 17.96 | 2.40  | 7.83  | .59   | .81   | 1.82  | .96   |
| p                   | .031* | .719* | .109* | .238* | .000  | .301* | .020* | .745* | .666* | .403* | .620* |
| V                   | .031  | .041  | .105  | .152  | .211  | .077  | .140  | .038  | .045  | .067  | .049  |

\* No significance

| Comparison<br>Reasons | O-O vs P-R     |         |            | O-O vs H-A     |         |            | P-R vs H-A     |         |            |
|-----------------------|----------------|---------|------------|----------------|---------|------------|----------------|---------|------------|
|                       | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V |
| A-G                   | 17.27          | .000    | .216       | .001           | .974*   | .002       | 6.85           | .009*   | .194       |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether different housing tenure have different reasons for residence in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test showed that there was statistically significance on several factors between owner-occupiers and social housing renters in the inner city: Close to work ( $X^2 = 19.56$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .216$ ); Central city location ( $X^2 = 22.16$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .320$ ); Close to all social amenities ( $X^2 = 8.30$ ,  $p = .004$ , Cramer's  $V = .196$ ); Value for money ( $X^2 = 83.50$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .620$ ); Relatives living in the area ( $X^2 = 9.98$ ,  $p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .242$ ); Born in the area ( $X^2 = 16.31$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .274$ ). All these tests in the inner city showed that the population value was less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed under the value of .300, which was evidence of a moderate relationship, the exception with Value for money (a very strong relationship). In the central city, only one factor was found statistically significant: Attractions of the city in general ( $X^2 = 17.96$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .216$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005. The test of Cramer's  $V$  showed the value of .211, which was evidence of a moderate relationship. A follow-up test indicated that between owner-occupiers and social housing and between private-renters and social housing renters there were no statistically significant differences, but a statistical significance between owner-occupiers and private renters was found ( $X^2 = 17.27$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .216$ ). The test of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship.

<sup>1</sup> Alphabet symbols represent categories of reasons given by the residents, for instance C-W means 'Close to work', C-L (Central city location), C-S (Close to all social amenities), V-M (Value for money), A-G (Attractions of the city in general), A-C-L (Availability of cultural and leisure facilities), R-A (Relatives living in the area), E-O (Employment opportunity), B-A (Born in the area), H-S (High degree of security), and O-T (Other). There are also alphabet symbols, which represent types of tenure in Table 2-3, for example O-O (Owner-occupier), P-R (Private renter), and H-A (Housing Association renter).

**Table 6-4: Reasons for residence by household income in the inner city**

| Incomes                | C-W        | C-L        | C-S        | V-M        | A-G<br>No | B-A<br>& % | R-A        | E-O      | A-C-L    | H-S      | O-T        |
|------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|------------|
| <b>Under<br/>£8000</b> | 10<br>17.9 | 12<br>21.4 | 10<br>17.9 | 12<br>21.4 | 7<br>12.5 | 13<br>23.2 | 11<br>19.6 | 3<br>5.4 | 1<br>1.8 | 2<br>3.6 | 13<br>23.2 |
| <b>Over<br/>£35000</b> | 9<br>52.9  | 9<br>52.9  | 2<br>11.8  | 10<br>58.8 | 4<br>23.5 |            | 1<br>5.9   | 1<br>5.9 | 1<br>5.9 |          | 3<br>17.6  |
| <b>X<sup>2</sup></b>   | 8.34       | 6.32       | .35        | 8.66       | 1.24      | 4.80       | 1.80       | .01      | .82      | .62      | .24        |
| <b>p</b>               | .004       | .012*      | .553*      | .003       | .266*     | .028*      | .180*      | .934*    | .365*    | .429*    | .627*      |
| <b>V</b>               | .338       | .294       | .069       | .344       | .130      | .256       | .157       | .010     | .106     | .092     | .057       |

\* No significance

| Incomes                 | No & %     |            |            |            |            |            |            |          |          |          |            |
|-------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|------------|
| <b>Under<br/>£12000</b> | 15<br>18.8 | 17<br>21.3 | 14<br>17.5 | 20<br>25.0 | 9<br>11.3  | 21<br>26.3 | 17<br>21.3 | 4<br>5.0 | 1<br>1.3 | 3<br>3.8 | 19<br>23.8 |
| <b>Over<br/>£25000</b>  | 26<br>48.1 | 29<br>53.7 | 12<br>22.2 | 32<br>59.3 | 11<br>20.4 | 3<br>5.6   | 5<br>9.3   | 3<br>5.6 | 1<br>1.9 | 1<br>1.9 | 5<br>9.3   |
| <b>X<sup>2</sup></b>    | 13.12      | 15.06      | .46        | 15.93      | 2.11       | 9.39       | 3.38       | .02      | .08      | .04      | 4.60       |
| <b>p</b>                | .000       | .000       | .498*      | .000       | .146*      | .002       | .066*      | .887*    | .778*    | .527*    | .032*      |
| <b>V</b>                | .313       | .335       | .059       | .345       | .126       | .265       | .159       | .012     | .024     | .055     | .185       |

No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different household incomes differentiate reasons for residence in the inner city. The results of the test showed that there were statistically significant differences on two factors between residents with household incomes under £8000 and residents with household incomes over £35000: Close to work ( $X^2 = 8.34$ ,  $p = .004$ , Cramer's  $V = .338$ ) and Value for money ( $X^2 = 8.66$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .344$ ). These two tests showed that the population value was .004 for close to work and .003 for value for money, which was lower than the value of .005. The tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed the value of .338 and .344, which were evidence of a strong relationship in both factors. The results of the test between residents with household incomes under £12000 and residents with household incomes over £25000 also showed statistically significant differences on four factors: Close to work ( $X^2 = 13.12$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .313$ ); Central city location ( $X^2 = 15.06$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .335$ ); Value for money ( $X^2 = 15.93$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .345$ ); and Born in the area ( $X^2 = 9.39$ ,  $p < .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .265$ ). All these results showed that the population value was less than .005. The tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed over .300 for close to work, central city location and value for money, which were evidence of a strong relationship, but the test of Cramer's  $V$  for born in the area was .265, which was evidence of a moderate relationship.



**Table 6-5: Reasons for residence by household income in the central city**

| Incomes        | C-W        | C-L        | C-S        | V-M        | A-G        | B-A      | R-A      | E-O       | A-C-L      | H-S       | O-T        |
|----------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
|                | No         |            | &          |            | %          |          |          |           |            |           |            |
| Under<br>£8000 | 28<br>56.0 | 23<br>46.0 | 11<br>22.0 | 2<br>4.0   | 11<br>22.0 | 2<br>4.0 | 0        | 6<br>12.0 | 4<br>8.0   | 9<br>18.0 | 8<br>16.0  |
| Over<br>£35000 | 66<br>61.7 | 54<br>50.5 | 37<br>34.6 | 11<br>10.3 | 20<br>18.7 | 2<br>1.9 | 2<br>1.9 | 10<br>9.3 | 17<br>15.9 | 4<br>3.7  | 14<br>13.1 |
| X <sup>2</sup> | .46        | .27        | 2.54       | 1.77       | 1.24       | .62      | .95      | .26       | 1.83       | 9.13      | .24        |
| p              | .499*      | .602*      | .111*      | .183*      | .266*      | .430*    | .331*    | .609*     | .176*      | .003      | .624*      |
| V              | .054       | .042       | .127       | .106       | .130       | .063     | .078     | .041      | .108       | .241      | .039       |

\* No significance

|                 |            |            |            |           |            |          |          |            |            |            |            |
|-----------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|----------|----------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Under<br>£12000 | 48<br>55.2 | 37<br>42.5 | 23<br>26.4 | 3<br>3.4  | 20<br>23.0 | 3<br>3.4 | 5<br>5.7 | 10<br>11.5 | 13<br>14.3 | 14<br>16.1 | 11<br>12.6 |
| Over<br>£25000  | 97<br>48.1 | 83<br>50.9 | 58<br>35.6 | 16<br>9.8 | 36<br>22.4 | 2<br>1.2 | 3<br>1.8 | 16<br>9.8  | 28<br>17.2 | 11<br>6.7  | 20<br>12.3 |
| X <sup>2</sup>  | .44        | 1.60       | 2.17       | 3.28      | .03        | 1.43     | 2.80     | .17        | .21        | 5.50       | .01        |
| p               | .508*      | .206*      | .141*      | .070*     | .870*      | .232*    | .095*    | .679*      | .649*      | .019*      | .932*      |
| V               | .042       | .080       | .093       | .114      | .010       | .076     | .106     | .026       | .029       | .148       | .005       |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different household incomes differentiate reasons for residence in the central city. The results of the test showed that there were statistically significant differences on only one factor between residents with household incomes under £8000 and residents with household incomes over £35000: High degree of security ( $X^2 = 9.13$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .241$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .005, and the test of Cramer's  $V$  showed .241, which was evidence of a moderate relationship. However, the tests between residents with household incomes under £12000 and residents with household incomes over £25000 showed no statistically significant differences on any factors.

**Table 6-6: Reasons for residence by age in the inner city**

| <u>Inner City</u>    |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |             |              |              |
|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| Reasons<br>Age       | C-W          | C-L          | C-S          | A-G          | V-M<br>No    | A-C-L<br>&   | E-O<br>%     | H-S          | R-A         | B-A          | O-T          |
| Under 30             | 39.5         | 44.7         | 18.4         | 19.7         | 64.5         | 5.3          | 3.9          | 2.6          | 11.8        | 11.8         | 7.9          |
|                      | 30           | 34           | 14           | 15           | 49           | 4            | 3            | 2            | 9           | 9            | 6            |
| Over 50              | 20.5         | 20.5         | 20.5         | 11.4         | 34.1         |              | 2.3          | 9.1          | 34.1        | 25.0         | 18.2         |
|                      | 9            | 9            | 9            | 5            | 15           | 0            | 1            | 4            | 15          | 11           | 8            |
| <b>X<sup>2</sup></b> | <b>4.60</b>  | <b>7.15</b>  | <b>.75</b>   | <b>1.41</b>  | <b>10.34</b> | <b>2.40</b>  | <b>.24</b>   | <b>2.45</b>  | <b>8.62</b> | <b>3.47</b>  | <b>2.86</b>  |
| <b>p</b>             | <b>.032*</b> | <b>.008*</b> | <b>.785*</b> | <b>.236*</b> | <b>.001</b>  | <b>.122*</b> | <b>.622*</b> | <b>.118*</b> | <b>.003</b> | <b>.062*</b> | <b>.091*</b> |
| <b>V</b>             | <b>.196</b>  | <b>.244</b>  | <b>.025</b>  | <b>.108</b>  | <b>.293</b>  | <b>.141</b>  | <b>.045</b>  | <b>.143</b>  | <b>.268</b> | <b>.170</b>  | <b>.154</b>  |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate reasons for residence in the inner city. The results of the test showed that there were statistically significant differences on two factors between residents aged under 30 years old and residents aged over 50 years old: Value for money ( $X^2 = 10.34$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .293$ ) and Relatives living in the area ( $X^2 = 8.62$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .268$ ). The population value of the tests showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  were less than .300, which were evidence of a moderate relationship.

**Table 6-7: Reasons for residence by age in Hulme**

| <u>Hulme</u>         |             |             |              |              |              |             |              |              |              |              |              |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Reasons<br>Age       | V-M         | C-W         | C-L          | A-G          | C-S<br>No    | R-A<br>&    | B-A<br>%     | E-O          | H-S          | A-C-L        | O-T          |
| Under 30             | 51.4        | 45.9        | 35.1         | 27.0         | 16.2         | 10.8        | 8.1          | 5.4          | 5.4          | 2.7          | 8.1          |
|                      | 19          | 17          | 13           | 10           | 6            | 4           | 3            | 2            | 2            | 1            | 3            |
| Over 50              | 16.0        | 12.0        | 12.0         | 8.0          | 8.0          | 44.0        | 28.0         | 4.0          | 12.0         | 0            | 32.0         |
|                      | 4           | 3           | 3            | 2            | 2            | 15          | 7            | 1            | 3            |              | 8            |
| <b>X<sup>2</sup></b> | <b>7.99</b> | <b>7.87</b> | <b>4.17</b>  | <b>3.46</b>  | <b>.90</b>   | <b>8.96</b> | <b>4.36</b>  | <b>.06</b>   | <b>.88</b>   | <b>.69</b>   | <b>5.84</b>  |
| <b>p</b>             | <b>.005</b> | <b>.005</b> | <b>.041*</b> | <b>.063*</b> | <b>.344*</b> | <b>.003</b> | <b>.037*</b> | <b>.800*</b> | <b>.350*</b> | <b>.407*</b> | <b>.016*</b> |
| <b>V</b>             | <b>.359</b> | <b>.356</b> | <b>.259</b>  | <b>.236</b>  | <b>.120</b>  | <b>.380</b> | <b>.265</b>  | <b>.032</b>  | <b>.119</b>  | <b>.105</b>  | <b>.307</b>  |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate reasons for residence in Hulme. The results of the test showed that there were statistically significant differences on three factors between residents aged under 30 years old and residents aged over 50 years old: Value for money ( $X^2 = 7.99$ ,  $p = .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .359$ ); Close to work ( $X^2 = 7.87$ ,  $p = .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .356$ ); and Relatives living in the area ( $X^2 = 8.96$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .380$ ). The population value was .003 and .005 respectively, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed higher than .300, which was evidence of a very strong relationship.



**Table 6-8: Reasons for residence by employment status in the inner city and the central city**

| <b><u>Inner City</u></b> |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Reasons Status</b>    | <b>V-M</b>   | <b>C-W</b>   | <b>C-L</b>   | <b>A-G</b>   | <b>C-S</b>   | <b>R-A</b>   | <b>B-A</b>   | <b>E-O</b>   | <b>H-S</b>   | <b>A-C-L</b> | <b>O-T</b>   |
|                          |              |              |              |              | <b>No</b>    | <b>&amp;</b> | <b>%</b>     |              |              |              |              |
| <b>Active</b>            | <b>78</b>    | <b>56</b>    | <b>60</b>    | <b>25</b>    | <b>25</b>    | <b>24</b>    | <b>19</b>    | <b>5</b>     | <b>6</b>     | <b>6</b>     | <b>18</b>    |
|                          | <b>54.9</b>  | <b>39.4</b>  | <b>42.3</b>  | <b>17.6</b>  | <b>17.6</b>  | <b>16.9</b>  | <b>13.4</b>  | <b>3.5</b>   | <b>4.2</b>   | <b>4.2</b>   | <b>12.7</b>  |
| <b>Inactive</b>          | <b>10</b>    | <b>6</b>     | <b>12</b>    | <b>9</b>     | <b>11</b>    | <b>15</b>    | <b>15</b>    | <b>3</b>     | <b>3</b>     | <b>1</b>     | <b>11</b>    |
|                          | <b>18.2</b>  | <b>10.9</b>  | <b>21.8</b>  | <b>16.4</b>  | <b>20.0</b>  | <b>27.3</b>  | <b>27.3</b>  | <b>5.5</b>   | <b>5.5</b>   | <b>1.8</b>   | <b>20.0</b>  |
| <b>X<sup>2</sup></b>     | <b>21.66</b> | <b>14.96</b> | <b>7.14</b>  | <b>.04</b>   | <b>.15</b>   | <b>2.69</b>  | <b>5.36</b>  | <b>.38</b>   | <b>.14</b>   | <b>.67</b>   | <b>1.69</b>  |
| <b>P</b>                 | <b>.000</b>  | <b>.000</b>  | <b>.008*</b> | <b>.836*</b> | <b>.696*</b> | <b>.101*</b> | <b>.021*</b> | <b>.537*</b> | <b>.711*</b> | <b>.413*</b> | <b>.193*</b> |
| <b>V</b>                 | <b>.332</b>  | <b>.276</b>  | <b>.190</b>  | <b>.015</b>  | <b>.028</b>  | <b>.117</b>  | <b>.165</b>  | <b>.044</b>  | <b>.026</b>  | <b>.058</b>  | <b>.093</b>  |

\* No significance

| <b><u>Central City</u></b> |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |
|----------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Reasons Status</b>      | <b>V-M</b>   | <b>C-W</b>   | <b>C-L</b>   | <b>A-G</b>   | <b>C-S</b>   | <b>R-A</b>   | <b>B-A</b>   | <b>E-O</b>   | <b>H-S</b>   | <b>A-C-L</b> | <b>O-T</b>   |
|                            |              |              |              |              | <b>No</b>    | <b>&amp;</b> | <b>%</b>     |              |              |              |              |
| <b>Active</b>              | <b>31</b>    | <b>171</b>   | <b>136</b>   | <b>81</b>    | <b>114</b>   | <b>9</b>     | <b>4</b>     | <b>32</b>    | <b>18</b>    | <b>55</b>    | <b>31</b>    |
|                            | <b>10.6</b>  | <b>58.4</b>  | <b>46.4</b>  | <b>27.6</b>  | <b>38.9</b>  | <b>3.1</b>   | <b>1.4</b>   | <b>10.9</b>  | <b>6.1</b>   | <b>18.8</b>  | <b>10.6</b>  |
| <b>Inactive</b>            | <b>7</b>     | <b>56</b>    | <b>50</b>    | <b>14</b>    | <b>19</b>    | <b>5</b>     | <b>3</b>     | <b>3</b>     | <b>26</b>    | <b>5</b>     | <b>12</b>    |
|                            | <b>7.4</b>   | <b>59.6</b>  | <b>53.2</b>  | <b>14.9</b>  | <b>20.2</b>  | <b>5.3</b>   | <b>3.2</b>   | <b>3.2</b>   | <b>27.7</b>  | <b>5.3</b>   | <b>12.8</b>  |
| <b>X<sup>2</sup></b>       | <b>.79</b>   | <b>.04</b>   | <b>1.31</b>  | <b>6.25</b>  | <b>11.03</b> | <b>1.03</b>  | <b>1.34</b>  | <b>5.17</b>  | <b>32.70</b> | <b>9.83</b>  | <b>.34</b>   |
| <b>P</b>                   | <b>.374*</b> | <b>.835*</b> | <b>.253*</b> | <b>.012*</b> | <b>.001</b>  | <b>.310*</b> | <b>.248*</b> | <b>.023*</b> | <b>.000</b>  | <b>.002</b>  | <b>.557*</b> |
| <b>V</b>                   | <b>.045</b>  | <b>.011</b>  | <b>.058</b>  | <b>.127</b>  | <b>.169</b>  | <b>.052</b>  | <b>.059</b>  | <b>.116</b>  | <b>.291</b>  | <b>.159</b>  | <b>.030</b>  |

No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different employment status differentiate reasons for residence in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test showed that in the inner city there were statistically significant differences on two factors between residents in economically active and residents in economically inactive: Value for money ( $X^2 = 21.66$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .332$ ) and Close to work ( $X^2 = 14.96$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .276$ ). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a strong relationship for value for money and a moderate relationship for close to work. In the central city, there were also statistically significant differences on three factors: Close to all social amenities ( $X^2 = 11.03$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .165$ ); High degree of security ( $X^2 = 32.70$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .291$ ); and Attractions of the city in general ( $X^2 = 9.83$ ,  $p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .159$ ). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship for high degree of security, but a weak relationship for close to all social amenities and attractions of the city in general.

**Table 6-9: Reasons for residence by previous residential location of residents in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Inner City</u> |            |            |           |            |            |          |            |          |            |            |            |
|-------------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|----------|------------|----------|------------|------------|------------|
| Reasons Location  | V-M        | C-W        | E-O       | C-S        | C-L<br>No  | H-S<br>& | A-G<br>%   | A-C-L    | B-A        | R-A        | O-T        |
| (1)               | 51<br>46.8 | 21<br>19.3 | 2<br>1.8  | 21<br>19.3 | 41<br>37.6 | 3<br>2.8 | 9<br>8.3   | 3<br>2.8 | 36<br>33.0 | 29<br>26.6 | 16<br>14.7 |
| (2)               | 38<br>54.3 | 30<br>42.9 | 2<br>2.9  | 14<br>20.0 | 28<br>40.0 | 5<br>7.1 | 12<br>17.1 | 2<br>2.9 | 5<br>7.1   | 10<br>14.3 | 5<br>7.1   |
| (3)               | 15<br>30.6 | 20<br>40.8 | 6<br>12.2 | 7<br>14.3  | 15<br>30.6 | 2<br>4.1 | 16<br>32.7 | 3<br>6.1 | 1<br>2.0   | 3<br>6.1   | 12<br>24.5 |

|                | (1) Within city movers | (2) Region movers | (3) Rest of movers |
|----------------|------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| X <sup>2</sup> | 6.63                   | 13.79             | 9.30               |
| P              | .036*                  | .001              | .010*              |
| V              | .170                   | .246              | .202               |

\* No significance

| Comparison Reasons | (1) vs (2)     |         |            | (1) vs (3)     |         |            | (2) vs (3)     |         |            |
|--------------------|----------------|---------|------------|----------------|---------|------------|----------------|---------|------------|
|                    | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V |
| C-W                | 11.64          | .001    | .255       | 8.17           | .004    | .227       | .05            | .824*   | .020       |
| A-G                | 3.25           | .071*   | .135       | 15.11          | .000    | .309       | 3.85           | .050*   | .180       |
| B-A                | 16.17          | .000    | .301       | 18.10          | .000    | .338       | 1.57           | .211*   | .115       |
| R-A                | 3.80           | .051*   | .146       | 8.78           | .003    | .236       | 1.97           | .160*   | .129       |

\* No significance

| <u>Central City</u> |            |             |            |            |            |            |            |            |          |           |            |
|---------------------|------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|-----------|------------|
| Reasons Location    | V-M        | C-W         | E-O        | C-S        | C-L<br>No  | H-S<br>&   | A-G<br>%   | A-C-L      | B-A      | R-A       | O-T        |
| (1)                 | 11<br>13.4 | 47<br>57.3  | 5<br>6.1   | 37<br>45.1 | 43<br>52.4 | 14<br>17.1 | 19<br>23.2 | 12<br>14.6 | 4<br>4.9 | 2<br>2.4  | 6<br>7.3   |
| (2)                 | 19<br>15.2 | 72<br>57.6  | 3<br>2.4   | 51<br>40.8 | 62<br>49.6 | 15<br>12.0 | 39<br>31.2 | 27<br>21.6 |          | 1<br>0.8  | 9<br>7.2   |
| (3)                 | 10<br>4.9  | 116<br>56.6 | 29<br>14.1 | 54<br>26.3 | 93<br>45.4 | 17<br>8.3  | 43<br>21.0 | 28<br>13.7 | 3<br>1.5 | 11<br>5.4 | 30<br>14.6 |

|                |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| X <sup>2</sup> | 11.36 | .36   | 14.15 | 12.33 | 1.35  | 4.68  | 4.49  | 3.80  | 7.19  | 5.22  | 5.78  |
| P              | .004  | .982* | .001  | .002  | .510* | .096* | .106* | .150* | .027* | .074* | .056* |
| V              | .164  | .009  | .185  | .173  | .057  | .107  | .104  | .096  | .132  | .113  | .118  |

No significance

| Comparison Reasons | (1) vs (2)     |         |            | (1) vs (3)     |         |            | (2) vs (3)     |         |            |
|--------------------|----------------|---------|------------|----------------|---------|------------|----------------|---------|------------|
|                    | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V | X <sup>2</sup> | p-value | Cramer's V |
| V-M                | .13            | .721*   | .025       | 6.29           | .012*   | .148       | 10.32          | .001    | .177       |
| E-O                | 1.82           | .177*   | .094       | 3.63           | .057*   | .113       | 12.24          | .000    | .193       |
| C-S                | .38            | .538*   | .043       | 9.54           | .002    | .182       | 7.48           | .006*   | .151       |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether previous residential location of residents affect reasons for residence in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test showed that in the inner city there were statistically significant differences on four factors between local movers, region movers and the rest of movers: Close to work ( $X^2 = 13.79$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .246$ ); Attractions of the city in general ( $X^2 = 14.86$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .255$ ); Born in the area ( $X^2 = 30.15$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .364$ ); and Relatives living in the area ( $X^2 = 10.59$ ,  $p < .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .215$ ). The population value was .005 or less than .005. The tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a strong relationship for born in the area, but for other factors a moderate relationship. The



follow-up tests showed that there was no difference between region movers and the rest of movers in close to work, but between local movers and region movers or between local movers and the rest of movers statistically significant differences were found. In attractions of the city in general, there were no differences between local movers and region movers and between region movers and the rest of movers, but differences were found between local movers and the rest of movers. In born in the area, there was no difference between region movers and the rest of movers, but between local movers and region movers or between local movers and the rest of movers statistically significant differences were found. In relatives living in the areas, between local movers and region movers and between region movers and the rest of movers no statistically significant differences were found, but there was statistical difference between local movers and the rest of movers.

In the central city, there were also statistically significant differences on three factors: Value for money ( $X^2 = 11.36$ ,  $p = .004$ , Cramer's  $V = .164$ ); Employment opportunity ( $X^2 = 14.15$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .185$ ); and Close to all social amenities ( $X^2 = 12.33$ ,  $p < .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .173$ ). The population value was less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship for all factors. The follow-up tests showed that in value for money there were no statistical differences between local movers and region movers and between local movers and the rest of movers, but statistical differences were found between region movers and the rest of movers. In employment opportunity, no statistical differences were found between local movers and region movers and between local movers and the rest of movers, but there was difference between region movers and the rest of movers. In close to all social amenities, between local movers and region movers or between region movers and the rest of movers there were no differences, but between local mover and the rest of movers statistically significant difference was found.

## Chapter 7: Feelings about city life

**Table 7-1: Degree of satisfaction with living in the survey areas given by residents in the inner city and the central city**

| Degree of satisfaction                | Inner City |            | Central City |            |
|---------------------------------------|------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                                       | No         | %          | No           | %          |
| Very satisfied                        | 102        | 42.1       | 197          | 45.4       |
| Fairly satisfied                      | 111        | 45.9       | 190          | 43.8       |
| Neither satisfied<br>nor dissatisfied | 19         | 7.9        | 28           | 6.5        |
| Fairly dissatisfied                   | 8          | 3.3        | 17           | 3.9        |
| Very dissatisfied                     | 2          | 0.8        | 2            | 0.5        |
| <b>Total</b>                          | <b>242</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>434</b>   | <b>100</b> |

**One-sample Chi-square test results**

**Inner City**       $X^2 (4, N = 242) = 236.39, p < .001$

**Central City**       $X^2 (4, N = 434) = 441.42, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess degree of satisfaction among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2 (4, N = 242) = 236.39, p < .001$ ); the central city ( $X^2 (4, N = 434) = 441.42, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 7-2: Degree of satisfaction with living in the survey areas given by residents in the four areas**

• Inner city areas

| Degree of satisfaction                | <u>Crown Street</u> |            | <u>Hulme</u> |            |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                                       | No                  | %          | No           | %          |
| Very satisfied                        | 61                  | 52.6       | 41           | 32.5       |
| Fairly satisfied                      | 45                  | 38.8       | 66           | 52.4       |
| Neither satisfied<br>nor dissatisfied | 8                   | 6.9        | 11           | 8.7        |
| Fairly dissatisfied                   | 1                   | 0.9        | 7            | 5.6        |
| Very dissatisfied                     | 1                   | 0.9        | 1            | 0.8        |
| <b>Total</b>                          | <b>116</b>          | <b>100</b> | <b>126</b>   | <b>100</b> |

One sample Chi-square test results

Crown Street  $X^2 (4, N = 116) = 134.52, p < .001$

Hulme  $X^2 (4, N = 126) = 120.35, p < .001$

• Central city areas

| Degree of satisfaction                   | <u>Merchant City</u> |            | <u>Whitworth Street</u> |            |
|--|----------------------|------------|-------------------------|------------|
|  | No                   | %          | No                      | %          |
| Very satisfied                           | 106                  | 50.5       | 91                      | 40.6       |
| Fairly satisfied                         | 84                   | 40.0       | 106                     | 47.3       |
| Neither dissatisfied<br>nor dissatisfied | 8                    | 3.8        | 20                      | 8.9        |
| Fairly dissatisfied                      | 10                   | 4.8        | 7                       | 3.1        |
| Very dissatisfied                        | 2                    | 1.0        |                         | 0.0        |
| <b>Total</b>                             | <b>210</b>           | <b>100</b> | <b>224</b>              | <b>100</b> |

One sample Chi-square test results

Merchant City  $X^2 (4, N = 210) = 229.52, p < .001$

Whitworth Street  $X^2 (3, N = 224) = 132.54, p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess degree of satisfaction among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (4, N= 116) = 134.52, p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (4, N= 126) = 120.35, p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (4, N=210) = 229.52, p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (4, N=224) = 132.54, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 7-3: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure in the inner city**

| Degree Tenure | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |     | V/D |     | Total |
|---------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|
|               | No  | %    | No  | %    | No      | %    | No  | %   | No  | %   |       |
| O-O           | 64  | 43.8 | 72  | 49.3 | 9       | 6.2  | 1   | 0.7 | 0   |     | 146   |
| H-A           | 35  | 42.2 | 30  | 36.1 | 10      | 12.0 | 7   | 8.4 | 1   | 1.2 | 83    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (4, N = 229) = 15.16, p= .004, Phi & Cramer's V = .257

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different types of tenure differentiate degree of satisfaction in the inner city. The results of the test were statistically significant: ( $X^2 = 15.16$ , p= .004, Cramer's V = .257). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a moderate relationship.

**Table 7-4: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure in the central city**

| Degree Tenure | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |     | V/D |     | Total |
|---------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|
|               | No  | %    | No  | %    | No      | %    | No  | %   | No  | %   |       |
| O-O           | 126 | 54.3 | 88  | 37.9 | 8       | 3.4  | 8   | 3.4 | 2   | 0.9 | 232   |
| P-R           | 64  | 40.3 | 78  | 49.1 | 11      | 6.9  | 6   | 3.8 | 0   |     | 159   |
| H-A           | 6   | 18.2 | 18  | 18.2 | 6       | 18.2 | 3   | 9.1 | 0   |     | 33    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (8, N = 424) = 28.91, p< .001, Phi & Cramer's V = .261

| Comparison | $X^2$ | df | N   | p-value | Phi & Cramer's V |
|------------|-------|----|-----|---------|------------------|
| O-O vs P-R | 10.32 | 4  | 391 | .035*   | .162             |
| O-O vs H-A | 23.94 | 4  | 265 | .000    | .301             |
| P-R vs H-A | 9.38  | 4  | 192 | .025*   | .221             |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different types of tenure differentiate degree of satisfaction in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: ( $X^2 = 28.91$ , p< .001, Cramer's V = .261). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a moderate relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there was no difference between owner-occupiers and rent privately, and between rent privately and housing association, but differences were found between owner-occupiers and housing association.



**Table 7-5: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure and household incomes in Whitworth Street**

| Degree Tenure | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |     | V/D |   | Total |
|---------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|-----|-----|---|-------|
|               | No  | %    | No  | %    | No      | %    | No  | %   | No  | % |       |
| O-O           | 49  | 64.5 | 23  | 30.3 | 3       | 3.9  | 1   | 1.3 | 0   |   | 76    |
| P-R           | 35  | 32.4 | 61  | 56.5 | 9       | 8.3  | 3   | 2.8 | 0   |   | 108   |
| H-A           | 6   | 18.2 | 18  | 54.5 | 6       | 18.2 | 3   | 9.1 | 0   |   | 33    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (6, N = 217) = 33.21,  $p < .001$ , Phi & Cramer's V = .391

| Comparison | $X^2$ | df | N   | p-value | Phi & Cramer's V |
|------------|-------|----|-----|---------|------------------|
| O-O vs P-R | 18.52 | 3  | 184 | .000    | .317             |
| O-O vs H-A | 22.82 | 3  | 109 | .000    | .458             |
| P-R vs H-A | 6.45  | 3  | 141 | .092*   | .214             |

\* No significance

| Degree Incomes | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |     | V/D |   | Total |
|----------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|-----|-----|---|-------|
|                | No  | %    | No  | %    | No      | %    | No  | %   | No  | % |       |
| Under £12000   | 13  | 23.6 | 25  | 45.5 | 13      | 23.6 | 4   | 7.3 | 0   |   | 55    |
| Over £25000    | 50  | 56.2 | 35  | 39.3 | 2       | 2.2  | 2   | 2.2 | 0   |   | 89    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (3, N = 144) = 25.53,  $p < .001$ , Phi & Cramer's V = .421

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different types of tenure and household incomes differentiate degree of satisfaction in Whitworth Street. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 33.21$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's V = .391). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a strong relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there was no difference between rent privately and housing association, but differences were found between owner-occupiers and rent privately, and between owner-occupiers and housing association. The results of the test for residents with household incomes also showed statistically significant: ( $X^2 = 25.53$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's V = .421). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a very strong relationship.

**Table 7-6: Degree of satisfaction by types of tenure and occupational status in Hulme**

| Degree Tenure       | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |      | V/D |     | Total |
|---------------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|------|-----|-----|-------|
|                     | N   | %    | N   | %    | N       | %    | N   | %    | No  | %   |       |
| Owner-occupiers     | 18  | 30.5 | 39  | 66.1 | 2       | 3.4  | 0   |      | 0   |     | 59    |
| Housing association | 21  | 32.8 | 26  | 40.6 | 9       | 14.1 | 7   | 10.9 | 1   | 1.6 | 64    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (4, N = 123) = 15.11, p= .004, Phi & Cramer's V = .350

| Degree Occupational Status | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |      | V/D |     | Total |
|----------------------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|------|-----|-----|-------|
|                            | No  | %    | No  | %    | No      | %    | No  | %    | No  | %   |       |
| Active                     | 22  | 30.1 | 47  | 64.4 | 2       | 2.7  | 2   | 2.7  | 0   |     | 73    |
| Inactive                   | 14  | 40.0 | 9   | 25.7 | 7       | 20.0 | 4   | 11.4 | 1   | 2.9 | 35    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (4, N = 108) = 21.27, p= .001, Phi & Cramer's V= .444

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different types of tenure and occupational status differentiate degree of satisfaction in Hulme. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 15.11$ , p= .004, Cramer's V = .350). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a strong relationship. The results of the test for residents with different occupational status also showed statistically significant: ( $X^2 = 21.27$ , p= .001, Cramer's V = .444). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a very strong relationship.

**Table 7-7: Degree of satisfaction by age in Hulme**

| Degree Incomes | V/S |      | F/S |      | N/S/N/D |      | F/D |      | V/D |     | Total |
|----------------|-----|------|-----|------|---------|------|-----|------|-----|-----|-------|
|                | No  | %    | No  | %    | No      | %    | No  | %    | No  | %   |       |
| Under 30       | 8   | 18.6 | 28  | 65.1 | 6       | 14.0 | 1   | 2.3  | 0   |     | 43    |
| 31-50          | 18  | 32.1 | 34  | 60.7 | 1       | 1.8  | 2   | 3.6  | 1   | 1.8 | 56    |
| Over 50        | 14  | 56.0 | 4   | 16.0 | 4       | 16.0 | 3   | 12.0 | 0   |     | 25    |

Pearson  $X^2$  (8, N = 124) = 25.56, p= .001, Phi & Cramer's V= .454

| Comparison          | $X^2$ | df | N  | p-value | Phi & Cramer's V |
|---------------------|-------|----|----|---------|------------------|
| under 30 vs 31-50   | 7.76  | 4  | 99 | .101*   | .280             |
| Under 30 vs Over 50 | 17.50 | 3  | 68 | .001    | .507             |
| 31-50 Over 50       | 17.95 | 4  | 81 | .001    | .471             |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate degree of satisfaction in Hulme. The results of the test were statistically significant: age ( $X^2 = 25.56$ , p= .001, Cramer's V = .454). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a very strong relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there was no difference between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50, but differences were found between residents aged under 30 and residents with aged over 50, and between residents aged 31-50 and residents aged over 50.



**Table 7-8: Factors for satisfaction in the inner city and the central city**

| <b>Factors</b>   | <b>Inner City</b> |          | <b>Central City</b> |          |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|
|  | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b> |
| <b>Central location</b>                                | 122               | 31.0     | 192                 | 24.1     |
| <b>Close to all amenities</b>                          | 25                | 6.3      | 168                 | 21.1     |
| <b>Satisfaction with housing</b>                       | 98                | 24.9     | 87                  | 10.9     |
| <b>Availability of cultural and leisure facilities</b> | 16                | 4.1      | 128                 | 16.0     |
| <b>Close to work</b>                                   | 21                | 5.3      | 99                  | 12.4     |
| <b>Nice environment</b>                                | 42                | 10.7     | 58                  | 7.3      |
| <b>Value for money</b>                                 | 20                | 5.1      | 9                   | 1.1      |
| <b>Security of housing</b>                             | 17                | 4.3      | 33                  | 4.1      |
| <b>Other</b>   | 33                | 8.4      | 24                  | 3.0      |

**Inner City:  $X^2$  (276.48), df (8), N (394),  $p < .001$  / Central City:  $X^2$  (374.39), df (8), N (798),  $p < .001$**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of satisfaction among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2$  (8, N= 394) = 276.48,  $p < .001$ ); the central city ( $X^2$  (8, N= 798) = 374.39,  $p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 7-9: Factors of satisfaction in the four areas**

**Inner city areas**

| <b>Factors</b>                                  | <b>Crown Street</b> |          | <b>Hulme</b> |          |
|---|---------------------|----------|--------------|----------|
|   | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>     | <b>%</b> |
| Central location                                | 72                  | 35.8     | 50           | 25.9     |
| Satisfaction with housing                       | 56                  | 27.9     | 42           | 21.8     |
| Close to all amenities                          | 18                  | 9.0      | 7            | 3.6      |
| Close to work                                   | 12                  | 6.0      | 9            | 4.7      |
| Nice environment                                | 12                  | 6.0      | 30           | 15.5     |
| Value for money                                 | 10                  | 5.0      | 10           | 5.2      |
| Availability of cultural and leisure facilities | 5                   | 2.5      | 11           | 5.7      |
| Security of housing                             | 3                   | 1.5      | 14           | 7.3      |
| Other   | 13                  | 6.5      | 20           | 10.4     |

**Crown: X<sup>2</sup> (212.51, df (8), N (201), p< .001 / Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (91.97), df (8), N (193), p< .001**

**Central city areas**

| <b>Factors</b>                                  | <b>Merchant City</b> |          | <b>Whitworth Street</b> |          |
|---|----------------------|----------|-------------------------|----------|
|   | <b>N</b>             | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>                | <b>%</b> |
| Close to all amenities                          | 109                  | 27.7     | 59                      | 14.7     |
| Central location                                | 80                   | 20.3     | 112                     | 27.9     |
| Availability of cultural and leisure facilities | 65                   | 16.5     | 63                      | 15.7     |
| Close to work                                   | 47                   | 11.9     | 52                      | 12.9     |
| Nice environment                                | 35                   | 8.9      | 23                      | 5.7      |
| Satisfaction with housing                       | 32                   | 8.1      | 55                      | 13.7     |
| Security of housing                             | 7                    | 1.8      | 26                      | 6.5      |
| Value for money                                 | 4                    | 1.0      | 5                       | 1.2      |
| Other   | 16                   | 3.8      | 8                       | 1.7      |

**Merchant: X<sup>2</sup> (228.55), df (8), N (394), p< .001 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (202.52), df (8), N (402), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of satisfaction among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street (X<sup>2</sup> (8, N= 201) = 212.51, p< .001); Hulme (X<sup>2</sup> (8, N= 193) = 91.97, p< .001); Merchant City (X<sup>2</sup> (8, N=394) = 228.55, p< .001); Whitworth Street (X<sup>2</sup> (8, N=402) = 202.52, p< .001). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 7-10: Factors of satisfaction by types of tenure in the inner city and the central city**

| <b><u>Inner City</u></b>   |                         |             |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Types of tenure</b>     | <b>Central Location</b> |             |
|                            | <b>No</b>               | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Owner-occupier</b>      | <b>94</b>               | <b>70.1</b> |
| <b>Housing association</b> | <b>22</b>               | <b>33.3</b> |

**X<sup>2</sup> (24.60), df (1), p< .001, Cramer's V = .351**

| <b><u>Central City</u></b> |                                      |             |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>Types of tenure</b>     | <b>Close to all social amenities</b> |             |
|                            | <b>No</b>                            | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Owner-occupiers</b>     | <b>108</b>                           | <b>50.9</b> |
| <b>Rent privately</b>      | <b>49</b>                            | <b>34.0</b> |
| <b>Housing association</b> | <b>10</b>                            | <b>29.4</b> |

**X<sup>2</sup> (12.76), df (2), p= .002, Cramer's V = .181**

**Comparison**

**Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: X<sup>2</sup> (9.95), p ( .002), Cramer's V ( .167)**

**Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup> (5.44), p ( .020)\*, Cramer's V ( .149)**

**Rent privately vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup> ( .26), p ( .607)\*, Cramer's V ( .039)**

**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with types of tenure differentiate factors of satisfaction in the inner city and in the central city. The results of the test found only one factor in each area to be statistically significant: the inner city (Central location) -  $X^2 = 24.60$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .351$ ; and the central city (Close to all social amenities) -  $X^2 = 12.76$ ,  $p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .181$ . The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a strong relationship for the inner city, and in the central city the population value showed less than .005, but the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The follow-up tests for the inner city showed that there was no difference between owner-occupiers and housing association, and between rent privately and housing association, but differences were only found between owner-occupiers and rent privately.

**Table 7-11: Factors of satisfaction by age in the inner city**

| Age      | Central location |      | Value for money |      |
|----------|------------------|------|-----------------|------|
|          | No               | %    | No              | %    |
| Under 30 | 55               | 72.4 | 15              | 19.7 |
| 31-50    | 56               | 57.7 | 5               | 5.2  |
| Over 50  | 11               | 32.4 | 0               |      |

**Central location:  $X^2$  (15.65),  $p < .001$ , Cramer's V = .275**

**Value for money:  $X^2$  (14.73),  $p = .001$ , Cramer's V = .267**

**Comparison (Central location)**

**Under 30 vs 31-50:  $X^2$  (3.97),  $p$  (.046)\*, Cramer's V (.151)**

**Under 30 vs Over 50:  $X^2$  (15.67),  $p$  (.000), Cramer's V (.377)**

**31-50 vs Over 50:  $X^2$  (6.49),  $p$  (.011)\*, Cramer's V (.223)**

**Comparison (Value for money)**

**Under 30 vs 31-50:  $X^2$  (8.86),  $p$  (.003), Cramer's V (.226)**

**Under 30 vs Over 50:  $X^2$  (7.77),  $p$  (.005), Cramer's V (.266)**

**31-50 vs Over 50:  $X^2$  (1.82),  $p$  (.177)\*, Cramer's V (.118)**

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate factors of satisfaction in the inner city. The results of the test found only two factors to be statistically significant: Central location ( $X^2 = 15.65$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's V = .275); Value for money ( $X^2 = 14.73$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's V = .267). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a moderate relationship for each factors. The follow-up tests for central location showed that there was no difference between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50, and between residents aged 31-50 and residents aged over 50, but differences were only found between residents age under 30 and residents aged over 50. The follow-up tests for value for money showed that there were no statistical differences between residents aged 31-50 and residents aged over 50, but differences were found between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50, and between residents aged under 30 and residents aged over 50.

**Table 7-12: Factors of satisfaction by household income in the inner city**

| Household income | Close to work |      | Household income | Value for money |      |
|------------------|---------------|------|------------------|-----------------|------|
|                  | No            | %    |                  | No              | %    |
| Under £8000      | 3             | 6.5  | Under £12000     | 1               | 1.5  |
| Over £35000      | 6             | 40.0 | Over £25000      | 8               | 16.7 |

**Close to work:  $X^2$  (10.08),  $p = .001$ , Cramer's V = .407**

**Value for money:  $X^2$  (8.77),  $p = .003$ , Cramer's V = .277**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different household incomes differentiate factors of satisfaction in the inner city. The results of the test found only two factors to be statistically significant: Close to work ( $X^2 = 10.08$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's V = .407); Value for money ( $X^2 = 8.77$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's V = .277). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a very strong relationship for Close to work, but a moderate relationship for Value for money.



**Table 7-13: Factors of satisfaction by occupational status in the inner city and the central city**

**Inner City**

| <b><u>Occupational status</u></b> | <b><u>Central Location</u></b> |                 |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|
|                                   | <b><u>No</u></b>               | <b><u>%</u></b> |
| <b>Pro/management</b>             | <b>60</b>                      | <b>69.0</b>     |
| <b>Skills</b>                     | <b>32</b>                      | <b>65.3</b>     |
| <b>Economically inactive</b>      | <b>25</b>                      | <b>40.3</b>     |

**X<sup>2</sup>(13.33), df (2), p= .001, Cramer's V ( .259)**

**Comparison (Central Location)**

**Pro/management vs Skills: X<sup>2</sup>( .19), p ( .661)\*, Cramer's V ( .038)**

**Pro/management vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup> (12.12), p ( .000), Cramer's V ( .285)**

**Skills vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup> (6.84), p ( .009)\*, Cramer's V ( .248)**

**\*No significance**

**Central City**

| <b><u>Occupational status</u></b> | <b><u>Security of housing</u></b> |                 |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
|                                   | <b><u>No</u></b>                  | <b><u>%</u></b> |
| <b>Pro/management</b>             | <b>11</b>                         | <b>4.8</b>      |
| <b>Skills</b>                     | <b>4</b>                          | <b>7.1</b>      |
| <b>Economically inactive</b>      | <b>17</b>                         | <b>18.3</b>     |

**X<sup>2</sup>(15.85), df (2), p= .001, Cramer's V ( .204)**

**Comparison (Security of housing)**

**Pro/management vs Skills: X<sup>2</sup>( .52), p ( .473)\*, Cramer's V ( .042)**

**Pro/management vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup> (15.35), p ( .000), Cramer's V ( .218)**

**Skills vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup> (3.58), p ( .058)\*, Cramer's V ( .155)**

**\*No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different occupation differentiate factors of satisfaction in the inner city and in the central city. The results of the test found only one factor in each area to be statistically significant: the inner city (Central location) -  $X^2 = 13.33$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .259$ ; and the central city (Security of housing) -  $X^2 = 15.85$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .204$ . The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship for the inner city, and in the central city the population value showed less than .005, the tests of Cramer's  $V$  also showed a moderate relationship. The follow-up tests for the inner city showed that there was no difference between residents with professional and managerial occupations and residents with skilled occupations, and between residents with skilled occupations and economically inactive residents, but differences were only found between residents with professional and managerial occupations and economically inactive residents.

**Table 7-14: Factors of dissatisfaction in the inner city and the central city**

| <b>Factors</b>                                 | <b>Inner City</b> |            | <b>Central City</b> |            |
|--|-------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|  | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b>   | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b>   |
| Traffic problems                               | 21                | 7.8        | 164                 | 32.2       |
| Nothing  | 58                | 21.6       | 50                  | 9.6        |
| Insufficient parking facilities                | 2                 | 0.7        | 58                  | 11.4       |
| Untidy appearance                              | 39                | 14.6       | 30                  | 5.9        |
| Expensive living costs (including council tax) | 8                 | 3.0        | 42                  | 8.2        |
| Drunks, beggars, drug addicts, homeless, etc.  | 21                | 7.8        | 24                  | 4.7        |
| Dissatisfaction with housing                   | 8                 | 3.0        | 36                  | 7.1        |
| Fear of crime                                  | 20                | 7.5        | 54                  | 10.6       |
| Existing high rise council flats               | 11                | 4.1        | 0                   |            |
| Lack of green and open spaces                  | 4                 | 1.5        | 21                  | 4.1        |
| Lack of local shops and amenities              | 36                | 13.4       | 0                   |            |
| Other  | 40                | 10.8       | 40                  | 7.8        |
| <b>Total</b>                                   | <b>268</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>519</b>          | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City:  $X^2$  (149.85), df (11), N (268),  $p < .001$  / Central City:  $X^2$  (295.12), df (9), N (519),  $p < .001$**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of dissatisfaction among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2$  11, N= 268) = 149.85,  $p < .001$ ); the central city ( $X^2$  (8, N= 519) = 295.12,  $p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 7-15: Factors of dissatisfaction in the four areas**

| <u>Inner City areas</u>                        |                     |          |              |          |
|--|---------------------|----------|--------------|----------|
| <b>Factors</b>                                 | <u>Crown Street</u> |          | <u>Hulme</u> |          |
|  | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>     | <b>%</b> |
| Nothing  | 35                  | 28.0     | 23           | 15.9     |
| Untidy appearance                              | 20                  | 16.0     | 19           | 13.1     |
| Drunks, beggars, drug addicts, homeless, etc.  | 15                  | 12.0     | 6            | 4.1      |
| Existing high rise council flats               | 11                  | 6.8      | 0            |          |
| Lack of local shops and amenities              | 7                   | 5.6      | 29           | 20.0     |
| Expensive living costs (including council tax) | 5                   | 4.0      | 3            | 2.1      |
| Fear of crime                                  | 4                   | 3.2      | 16           | 11.0     |
| Traffic problems                               | 3                   | 2.4      | 18           | 12.4     |
| Dissatisfaction with housing                   | 3                   | 2.4      | 5            | 3.4      |
| Lack of green and open spaces                  | 1                   | 0.8      | 3            | 2.1      |
| Insufficient parking spaces                    | 1                   | 0.8      | 1            | 0.7      |
| Other  | 19                  | 16.0     | 21           | 15.2     |

**Crown: X<sup>2</sup> (113.18), df (11), N (124), p< .001 / Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (73.10), df (10), N (144), p< .001**

| <u>Central City areas</u>                      |                      |          |                         |          |
|--|----------------------|----------|-------------------------|----------|
| <b>Factors</b>                                 | <u>Merchant City</u> |          | <u>Whitworth Street</u> |          |
|  | <b>N</b>             | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>                | <b>%</b> |
| Traffic problems                               | 77                   | 30.1     | 87                      | 33.1     |
| Insufficient parking spaces                    | 45                   | 16.6     | 13                      | 4.9      |
| Expensive living costs (including council tax) | 23                   | 9.0      | 19                      | 7.2      |
| Dissatisfaction with housing                   | 21                   | 8.2      | 15                      | 5.7      |
| Nothing  | 21                   | 8.2      | 29                      | 11.0     |
| Fear of crime                                  | 17                   | 6.6      | 37                      | 14.1     |
| Untidy appearance                              | 13                   | 5.1      | 17                      | 6.5      |
| Drunks, beggars, drug addicts, homeless, etc.  | 11                   | 4.3      | 13                      | 4.9      |
| Lack of green and open spaces                  | 6                    | 2.3      | 15                      | 5.7      |
| Other  | 22                   | 8.6      | 18                      | 6.8      |

**Merchant: X<sup>2</sup> (157.75), df (9), N (256), p< .001 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (175.82), df (9), N (263), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of dissatisfaction among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street (X<sup>2</sup> (11, N= 124) = 113.18, p< .001); Hulme (X<sup>2</sup> (10, N= 144) = 73.10, p< .001); Merchant City (X<sup>2</sup> (9, N=256) = 157.75, p< .001); Whitworth Street (X<sup>2</sup> (9, N=263) = 175.82, p< .001). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 7-16: Factors of dissatisfaction by types of tenure in the central city**

| <b>Types of tenure</b>     | <b>Insufficient parking spaces</b> |             |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------|
|                            | <b>No</b>                          | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Owner-occupiers</b>     | <b>41</b>                          | <b>19.9</b> |
| <b>Rent privately</b>      | <b>14</b>                          | <b>9.8</b>  |
| <b>Housing association</b> | <b>1</b>                           | <b>3.0</b>  |

**X<sup>2</sup>: 10.80, df: 2, p-value: .005, Cramer's V: .168**

**Comparison (Insufficient parking spaces)**

**Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: X<sup>2</sup> (6.50), p-value (.011)\*, Cramer's V (.136)**

**Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup> (5.59), p-value (.018)\*, Cramer's V (.153)**

**Rent privately vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup> (1.57), p-value (.210)\*, Cramer's V (.094)**

**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure differentiate factors of dissatisfaction in the central city. The results of the test found only one factor to be statistically significant: Insufficient parking spaces ( $X^2 = 10.80$ ,  $p = .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .168$ ). The population value showed equal to .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there were no differences between all types of tenure.



**Table 7-17: Factors of dissatisfaction by duration of residence in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Inner City</u>             |                               |             |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|
| <u>Duration of residence</u>  | <u>Expensive living costs</u> |             |
|                               | <u>No</u>                     | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Up to 5 years</b>          | <b>6</b>                      | <b>13.3</b> |
| <b>Between 5 and 10 years</b> | <b>1</b>                      | <b>4.0</b>  |
| <b>More than 10 years</b>     | <b>1</b>                      | <b>0.9</b>  |

X<sup>2</sup>: 11.73, df: 2, p-value: .003, Cramer's V: .255

Comparison (Expensive living costs)  
Up to 5 years vs Between 5 and 10 years: X<sup>2</sup> (1.56), p-value (.212)\*, Cramer's V (.149)  
Up to 5 years vs More than 10 years: X<sup>2</sup> (11.55), p-value (.001), Cramer's V (.272)  
Between 5 and 10 years vs More than 10 years: X<sup>2</sup> (1.35), p-value (.245)\*, Cramer's V (.100)  
 \* No significance

| <u>Central City</u>           |                                    |             |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------|
| <u>Duration of residence</u>  | <u>Insufficient parking spaces</u> |             |
|                               | <u>No</u>                          | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Up to 5 years</b>          | <b>23</b>                          | <b>11.6</b> |
| <b>Between 5 and 10 years</b> | <b>3</b>                           | <b>5.4</b>  |
| <b>More than 10 years</b>     | <b>22</b>                          | <b>25.6</b> |

X<sup>2</sup>: 13.98, df: 2, p-value: .001, Cramer's V: .202

Comparison (Insufficient parking spaces)  
Up to 5 years vs Between 5 and 10 years: X<sup>2</sup> (1.84), p-value (.176)\*, Cramer's V (.085)  
Up to 5 years vs More than 10 years: X<sup>2</sup> (8.88), p-value (.003), Cramer's V (.177)  
Between 5 and 10 years vs More than 10 years: X<sup>2</sup> (9.56), p-value (.002), Cramer's V (.260)  
 No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether duration of residence in the city differentiates factors of dissatisfaction in the inner city and in the central city. The results of the test found only one factor in each area to be statistically significant: the inner city (expensive living costs) - X<sup>2</sup> = 11.73, p= .003, Cramer's V = .255; and the central city (insufficient parking spaces) - X<sup>2</sup> = 13.98, p= .001, Cramer's V = .202. The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V showed a moderate relationship for the inner city, and in the central city the population value showed less than .005, the tests of Cramer's V also showed a moderate relationship. The follow-up tests for the inner city showed that there was no difference between up to 5 years and 5-10 years, and between 5-10 years and over 10 years, but differences were only found between up to 5 years and over 10 years.

**Table 7-18: Factors of dissatisfaction by previous location of residence in the central city**

| <b>Previous location of residence</b> | <b>Expensive living costs</b> |             |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|
|                                       | <b>No</b>                     | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>City movers</b>                    | <b>17</b>                     | <b>21.0</b> |
| <b>Region movers</b>                  | <b>13</b>                     | <b>11.3</b> |
| <b>Rest of movers</b>                 | <b>12</b>                     | <b>6.2</b>  |

**X<sup>2</sup>: 13.08, df: 2, p-value: .001, Cramer's V: .183**

| <b>Comparison</b>                       | <b>(Expensive living costs)</b>                                 |
|---|---|
| <b>City movers vs Region movers:</b>    | <b>X<sup>2</sup> (3.44), p-value (.064)*, Cramer's V (.132)</b> |
| <b>City movers vs Rest of movers:</b>   | <b>X<sup>2</sup> (13.27), p-value (.000), Cramer's V (.220)</b> |
| <b>Region movers vs Rest of movers:</b> | <b>X<sup>2</sup> (2.54), p-value (.111)*, Cramer's V (.091)</b> |

**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether previous location of residence differentiates factors of dissatisfaction in the central city. The results of the test found only one factor to be statistically significant: Expensive living costs ( $X^2 = 13.08$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .183$ ). The population value showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there were no differences between city movers and region movers, and between region movers and rest of movers, but differences were only found between city movers and rest of movers.



## **Chapter 8: Urban Regeneration & Perceptions of the City**

**Table 8-1: Attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s in the inner city and the central city**

|                        | <u>Inner City</u> |             | <u>Central City</u> |             |
|------------------------|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|                        | No                | %           | No                  | %           |
| <b>More attractive</b> | <b>112</b>        | <b>83.6</b> | <b>63</b>           | <b>86.3</b> |
| <b>Same</b>            | <b>11</b>         | <b>8.2</b>  | <b>5</b>            | <b>6.8</b>  |
| <b>Less attractive</b> | <b>11</b>         | <b>8.2</b>  | <b>5</b>            | <b>6.8</b>  |
| <b>Total</b>           | <b>134</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>73</b>           | <b>100</b>  |

**Inner City ( $X^2 (2, N = 134) = 152.25, p < .001$ )**

**Central City ( $X^2 (2, N = 73) = 92.16, p < .001$ )**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: the inner city ( $X^2 (2, N = 134) = 152.25, p < .001$ ); the central city ( $X^2 (2, N = 73) = 92.16, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-2: Attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s in Glasgow and Manchester**

|                        | <u>Glasgow</u> |             | <u>Manchester</u> |             |
|------------------------|----------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|
|                        | No             | %           | No                | %           |
| <b>More attractive</b> | <b>114</b>     | <b>91.9</b> | <b>61</b>         | <b>73.5</b> |
| <b>Same</b>            | <b>8</b>       | <b>6.5</b>  | <b>8</b>          | <b>9.6</b>  |
| <b>Less attractive</b> | <b>2</b>       | <b>1.6</b>  | <b>14</b>         | <b>16.9</b> |
| <b>Total</b>           | <b>124</b>     | <b>100</b>  | <b>83</b>         | <b>100</b>  |

**Glasgow ( $X^2 (2, N = 124) = 192.07, p < .001$ )**

**Manchester ( $X^2 (2, N = 83) = 60.89, p < .001$ )**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s among residents in Glasgow and Manchester. The results of the test were statistically significant: Glasgow ( $X^2 (2, N = 124) = 192.07, p < .001$ ); Manchester ( $X^2 (2, N = 83) = 60.89, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-3: Factors of Attractiveness compared to the 1970s in the inner city and the central city**

| Factors   | Inner City |             | Central City |             |
|---|------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
|   | No         | %           | No           | %           |
| <b>Improvement &amp; availability of social &amp; cultural facilities</b> | <b>58</b>  | <b>35.6</b> | <b>41</b>    | <b>42.3</b> |
| <b>Development of housing</b>   | <b>38</b>  | <b>23.3</b> | <b>4</b>     | <b>4.1</b>  |
| <b>Renovation of old buildings</b>  | <b>14</b>  | <b>8.6</b>  | <b>19</b>    | <b>19.6</b> |
| <b>Cleaner &amp; development of derelict sites</b>                        | <b>15</b>  | <b>9.2</b>  | <b>21</b>    | <b>21.6</b> |
| <b>Others</b>   | <b>38</b>  | <b>23.3</b> | <b>12</b>    | <b>12.4</b> |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>163</b> | <b>100</b>  | <b>97</b>    | <b>100</b>  |

**Inner City**  $X^2 (41.69), df (4), N (163), p < .001$

**Central City**  $X^2 (39.24), df (4), N (97), p < .001$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of attractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: Inner City ( $X^2 (4, N= 163) = 41.69, p < .001$ ); Central City ( $X^2 (4, N= 97) = 39.24, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-4: Factors of unattractiveness compared to the 1970s in the inner city and the central city**

| Factors                                      | Inner City |             | Central City |             |
|--|------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
|  | No         | %           | No           | %           |
| <b>Nothing</b>                               | <b>45</b>  | <b>38.1</b> | <b>18</b>    | <b>25.0</b> |
| <b>Increasing crime</b>                      | <b>21</b>  | <b>17.8</b> | <b>10</b>    | <b>13.9</b> |
| <b>Losing old characters</b>                 | <b>16</b>  | <b>13.6</b> | <b>8</b>     | <b>11.1</b> |
| <b>Increasing traffic problems</b>           | <b>9</b>   | <b>7.6</b>  | <b>22</b>    | <b>30.6</b> |
| <b>Increasing homeless &amp; poor people</b> | <b>7</b>   | <b>5.9</b>  | <b>5</b>     | <b>6.9</b>  |
| <b>Others</b>                                | <b>20</b>  | <b>16.9</b> | <b>9</b>     | <b>12.5</b> |
| <b>Total</b>                                 | <b>118</b> | <b>100</b>  | <b>72</b>    | <b>100</b>  |

**Inner City**  $X^2 (47.36), df (5), N (118), p < .001$

**Central City**  $X^2 (17.83), df (5), N (72), p = .003$

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of unattractiveness of the city compared to the 1970s among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: Inner City ( $X^2 (5, N= 118) = 47.36, p < .001$ ); Central City ( $X^2 (5, N= 72) = 17.83, p = .003$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .004, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 8-5: Factors of unattractiveness in the four areas**

| <b>Factors</b>                               | <b>Inner city areas</b> |            |              |            |
|--|-------------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|  | <b>Crown Street</b>     |            | <b>Hulme</b> |            |
|  | <b>No</b>               | <b>%</b>   | <b>No</b>    | <b>%</b>   |
| <b>Nothing</b>                               | 27                      | 40.9       | 18           | 34.6       |
| <b>Increasing crime</b>                      | 13                      | 19.7       | 8            | 15.4       |
| <b>Losing old characters</b>                 | 10                      | 15.2       | 6            | 11.5       |
| <b>Increasing traffic problems</b>           | 5                       | 7.6        | 4            | 7.7        |
| <b>Increasing homeless &amp; poor people</b> | 3                       | 4.5        | 4            | 7.7        |
| <b>Others</b>                                | 8                       | 12.1       | 12           | 23.1       |
| <b>Total</b>                                 | <b>64</b>               | <b>100</b> | <b>52</b>    | <b>100</b> |

| <b>Factors</b>                               | <b>Central city areas</b> |            |                         |            |
|--|---------------------------|------------|-------------------------|------------|
|  | <b>Merchant City</b>      |            | <b>Whitworth Street</b> |            |
|  | <b>No</b>                 | <b>%</b>   | <b>No</b>               | <b>%</b>   |
| <b>Nothing</b>                               | 14                        | 31.8       | 4                       | 14.3       |
| <b>Increasing crime</b>                      | 2                         | 4.5        | 8                       | 28.6       |
| <b>Losing old characters</b>                 | 5                         | 11.4       | 3                       | 10.7       |
| <b>Increasing traffic problems</b>           | 15                        | 34.1       | 7                       | 25.0       |
| <b>Increasing homeless &amp; poor people</b> | 2                         | 4.5        | 3                       | 10.7       |
| <b>Others</b>                                | 6                         | 13.6       | 3                       | 10.7       |
| <b>Total</b>                                 | <b>44</b>                 | <b>100</b> | <b>28</b>               | <b>100</b> |

**Crown Street: X<sup>2</sup> (33.64), df (5), N (66), p< .001 / Merchant: X<sup>2</sup> (22.82), df (5), N (44), p< .001**

**Hulme : X<sup>2</sup> (17.23), df (5), N (52), p< .004 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (5.43), df (5), N (28), p< .366\***

**\* No significance**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of unattractiveness compared to the 1970s among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant with the exception of the test of Whitworth Street: Crown Street (X<sup>2</sup> (5, N= 66) = 33.64, p< .001); Hulme (X<sup>2</sup> (5, N= 52) = 17.23, p= .004); Merchant City (X<sup>2</sup> (5, N=44) = 22.82, p< .001); Whitworth Street (X<sup>2</sup> (5, N=28) = 5.43, p< .366). Tests of Crown Street, Hulme and Merchant City showed that the population value was less than .005, which was lower than the acceptable value of .005, but the test of Whitworth Street showed no statistical significance.

**Table 8-6: Perceptions of the city in the inner city and the central city**

| Perceptions                 | Inner City |            | Central City |            |
|-----------------------------|------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                             | No         | %          | No           | %          |
| Attractive city             | 75         | 27.4       | 172          | 33.2       |
| Developing & improving city | 86         | 31.4       | 195          | 37.6       |
| Cultural city               | 50         | 18.2       | 67           | 12.9       |
| Dangerous & unpleasant city | 27         | 9.9        | 54           | 10.4       |
| Others                      | 36         | 13.1       | 30           | 5.8        |
| <b>Total</b>                | <b>274</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>518</b>   | <b>100</b> |

|                     |  |
|---------------------|--|
| <b>Inner City</b>   | <b>X<sup>2</sup> (46.18), df (4), N (274), p&lt; .001</b>  |
| <b>Central City</b> | <b>X<sup>2</sup> (214.76), df (4), N (518), p&lt; .001</b> |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess perceptions of the present city among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: Inner City ( $X^2(4, N= 274) = 46.18, p< .001$ ); Central City ( $X^2(4, N= 518) = 214.76, p< .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-7: Perceptions of the present city in the four areas**

| Perceptions                 | Inner city areas |            |            |            |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------|------------|------------|
|                             | Crown Street     |            | Hulme      |            |
|                             | No               | %          | No         | %          |
| Attractive city             | 46               | 37.1       | 29         | 21.6       |
| Developing & improving city | 23               | 18.5       | 47         | 35.1       |
| Cultural city               | 30               | 24.2       | 20         | 14.9       |
| Dangerous & unpleasant city | 7                | 5.6        | 20         | 14.9       |
| Others                      | 18               | 14.5       | 18         | 13.4       |
| <b>Total</b>                | <b>124</b>       | <b>100</b> | <b>134</b> | <b>100</b> |

| Perceptions                 | Central city areas |            |                  |            |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|                             | Merchant City      |            | Whitworth Street |            |
|                             | No                 | %          | No               | %          |
| Attractive city             | 92                 | 36.9       | 80               | 29.7       |
| Developing & improving city | 87                 | 34.9       | 108              | 40.1       |
| Cultural city               | 35                 | 14.1       | 32               | 11.9       |
| Dangerous & unpleasant city | 17                 | 6.8        | 37               | 13.8       |
| Others                      | 18                 | 7.2        | 12               | 4.5        |
| <b>Total</b>                | <b>249</b>         | <b>100</b> | <b>269</b>       | <b>100</b> |

**Crown Street: X<sup>2</sup>(33.98), df(4), N(124), p< .001 / Merchant City: X<sup>2</sup>(109.86), df(4), N(249), p< .001**  
**Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (21.75), df (4), N (134), p< .001 / Whitworth Street: X<sup>2</sup> (113.92), df (4), N (269), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess perceptions of the present city among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2(4, N= 124) = 33.98, p< .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2(4, N= 134) = 21.75, p< .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2(4, N=249) = 109.86, p< .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2(4, N=269) = 113.92, p< .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 8-8: Perceptions of the city by age in the inner city**

| <b>Perception<br/>Age</b> | <b>Developing &amp; improving</b> |             |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|
|                           | <b>No</b>                         | <b>%</b>    |
| <b>Under 30</b>           | <b>40</b>                         | <b>56.3</b> |
| <b>31-50</b>              | <b>37</b>                         | <b>37.4</b> |
| <b>Over 50</b>            | <b>9</b>                          | <b>24.3</b> |

**X<sup>2</sup>(11.63), p= .003, Cramer's V= .237**

**Comparison (Developing & improving)**  
**Under 30 vs 31-50: X<sup>2</sup>(6.00), p (.014)\*, Cramer's V (.188)**  
**Under 30 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(10 .06), p (.002), Cramer's V (.305)**  
**31-50 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(2.05), p (.152)\*, Cramer's V (.123)**  
**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate perceptions of the present city in the inner city. The results of the test were statistically significant: age ( $X^2 = 11.63$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .237$ ). The population value showed equal to .003, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there were no differences between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50 and between residents aged 31-50 and residents aged over 50, but differences were found between residents aged under 30 and residents with aged over 50.

**Table 8-9: Perceptions of the city by types of tenure & occupations in the central city**

| Perception<br>Types of tenure | Dangerous & unpleasant |      |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|------|
|                               | No                     | %    |
| Owner-occupiers               | 19                     | 9.1  |
| Rent privately                | 31                     | 22.8 |
| Housing Association           | 3                      | 9.1  |

**X<sup>2</sup>(13.44), p= .001, Cramer's V = .189**

**Comparison (Dangerous & unpleasant)**  
**Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: X<sup>2</sup>(12.35), p (.000), Cramer's V (.189)**  
**Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(0.00), p (.994)\*, Cramer's V (.001)**  
**Rent privately vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(3.10), p (.078)\*, Cramer's V (.136)**  
 \* No significance

| Perception<br>Occupation | Dangerous & unpleasant |      |
|--------------------------|------------------------|------|
|                          | No                     | %    |
| Pro/Management           | 26                     | 11.8 |
| Skills                   | 4                      | 7.0  |
| Economically inactive    | 22                     | 25.3 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(12.23), p= .002, Cramer's V = .183**

**Comparison (Dangerous & unpleasant)**  
**Pro/management vs Skills: X<sup>2</sup>(1.06), p (.303)\*, Cramer's V (.062)**  
**Pro/management vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(8.68) p (.003), Cramer's V (.168)**  
**Skills vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(7.77), p (.005), Cramer's V (.232)**  
 \* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure and residents with different occupations differentiate perceptions of the present city in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 13.44$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .189$ ). The population value showed less than .001, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there were no differences between owner-occupiers and social housing renters and between private renters and social housing renters, but differences were found between owner-occupiers and private renters. The test of residents with different occupations was also statistically significant: occupations ( $X^2 = 12.23$ ),  $p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V (.183)$ . The population value was equal to .002, and the test of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The following tests were that there were no differences between residents with professional and managerial occupations and residents with skilled occupations, but differences were found between residents with professional and managerial occupations and economically inactive residents, and between residents with skilled occupations and economically inactive residents.



**Table 8-10: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the inner city and the central city**

|              | <u>Inner City</u> |            | <u>Central City</u> |            |
|--------------|-------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|              | <u>N</u>          | <u>%</u>   | <u>N</u>            | <u>%</u>   |
| Yes          | 213               | 88.8       | 375                 | 87.0       |
| No           | 6                 | 2.5        | 14                  | 3.2        |
| Do not know  | 21                | 8.8        | 42                  | 9.7        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>240</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>436</b>          | <b>100</b> |

**Glasgow: X<sup>2</sup> (333.08), df (2), N (240), p< .001**

**Manchester: X<sup>2</sup> (561.47), df (2), N (431), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement among residents in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: Inner City ( $X^2 (2, N= 240) = 333.08, p< .001$ ); Central City ( $X^2 (2, N= 431) = 561.47, p< .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-11: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the four areas**

|              | <u>Inner city areas</u> |            |              |            | <u>Central city areas</u> |            |                         |            |
|--------------|-------------------------|------------|--------------|------------|---------------------------|------------|-------------------------|------------|
|              | <u>Crown Street</u>     |            | <u>Hulme</u> |            | <u>Merchant City</u>      |            | <u>Whitworth Street</u> |            |
|              | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>   | <u>N</u>     | <u>%</u>   | <u>N</u>                  | <u>%</u>   | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>   |
| Yes          | 105                     | 90.5       | 108          | 87.1       | 184                       | 88.0       | 191                     | 86.0       |
| No           | 2                       | 1.7        | 4            | 3.2        | 6                         | 2.9        | 8                       | 3.6        |
| Do not know  | 9                       | 7.8        | 12           | 9.7        | 19                        | 9.1        | 23                      | 10.4       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>116</b>              | <b>100</b> | <b>124</b>   | <b>100</b> | <b>209</b>                | <b>100</b> | <b>222</b>              | <b>100</b> |

**Crown: X<sup>2</sup> (171.33), df (2), N (116), p< .001 / Merchant: X<sup>2</sup> (282.67), df (2), N (209), p< .001**

**Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (162.07), df (2), N (124), p< .001 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (279.00), df (2), N (222), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement among residents in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (2, N= 116) = 171.33, p< .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (2, N= 124) = 162.07, p< .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (2, N=209) = 282.67, p< .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (2, N=222) = 279.00, p< .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-12: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement by types of tenure in the central city**

| Response<br>Tenure  | Yes |      | No |     | Do not know |      |
|---|-----|------|----|-----|-------------|------|
|   | No  | %    | No | %   | No          | %    |
| Owner-occupiers   | 210 | 91.3 | 7  | 3.0 | 13          | 5.7  |
| Rent privately  | 126 | 79.7 | 5  | 3.2 | 27          | 17.1 |
| Housing association   | 31  | 93.9 | 1  | 3.0 | 1           | 3.0  |
| <b><math>X^2(15.86)</math>, df (4), N (421), p (.003), Cramer's V (.194)</b>                        |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Comparison</b>   |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: <math>X^2(13.33)</math>, p (.001), Cramer's V (.185)</b>      |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: <math>X^2(0.40)</math>, p (.821)*, Cramer's V (.151)</b> |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Rent privately vs Housing association: <math>X^2(4.35)</math>, p (.114)*, Cramer's V (.151)</b>  |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| * No significance   |     |      |    |     |             |      |

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure differentiate residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 15.86$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .194$ ). The population value showed equal to .003, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there were no differences between owner-occupiers and social housing renter and between private renters and social housing renters, but differences were found between owner-occupiers and private renters.

**Table 8-13: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement by age in the central city**

| Response<br>Age  | Yes |      | No |     | Do not know |      |
|--|-----|------|----|-----|-------------|------|
|  | No  | %    | No | %   | No          | %    |
| Under 30   | 194 | 81.9 | 9  | 3.8 | 34          | 14.3 |
| 31-50  | 127 | 92.0 | 5  | 3.6 | 6           | 4.3  |
| Over 50  | 51  | 96.2 | 0  |     | 2           | 3.8  |
| <b><math>X^2(14.76)</math>, df (4), N (428), p (.005), Cramer's V (.186)</b>     |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Comparison</b>  |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Under 30 vs 31-50: <math>X^2(9.24)</math>, p (.010)*, Cramer's V (.157)</b>   |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>Under 30 vs Over 50: <math>X^2(6.97)</math>, p (.031)*, Cramer's V (.155)</b> |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| <b>31-50 vs Over 50: <math>X^2(2.02)</math>, p (.364)*, Cramer's V (.103)</b>    |     |      |    |     |             |      |
| * No significance  |     |      |    |     |             |      |

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: age ( $X^2 = 14.76$ ,  $p = .005$ , Cramer's  $V = .186$ ). The population value showed equal to .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a weak relationship. The follow-up tests showed that there were no differences across all age groups.



**Table 8-14: Residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement by household incomes in the central city**

| Response<br>Household incomes | Yes |      | No |     | Do not know |      |
|-------------------------------|-----|------|----|-----|-------------|------|
|                               | No  | %    | No | %   | No          | %    |
| Under £8000                   | 36  | 69.2 | 5  | 9.6 | 11          | 21.2 |
| Over £35000                   | 98  | 89.9 | 6  | 5.5 | 5           | 4.6  |

**X<sup>2</sup>(12.40), df (2), N (161), p (.002), Cramer's V (.278)**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different household incomes differentiate residents' response to cultural facilities as image improvement in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: household incomes ( $X^2 = 12.40$ ,  $p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .278$ ). The population value showed equal to .002, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship.

**Table 8-15: Factors of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**

| Factors   | Inner City |            | Central City |            |
|---|------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|   | N          | %          | N            | %          |
| Bringing more people into the city  | 72         | 29.9       | 106          | 26.4       |
| Increasing reputation as a cultural city  | 59         | 24.5       | 129          | 32.2       |
| Increasing business profile   | 22         | 9.1        | 28           | 7.0        |
| Increasing accessibility & availability of<br>a variety of different forms of culture | 53         | 22.0       | 87           | 21.7       |
| Increasing the awareness of changes<br>in the city to outside                         | 16         | 6.6        | 37           | 9.2        |
| Others  | 19         | 7.9        | 14           | 3.5        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>341</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>401</b>   | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (72.07), df (5), N (341), p < .001**

**Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (164.51), df (5), N (401), p < .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: Inner City ( $X^2 (5, N = 341) = 72.07$ ,  $p < .001$ ); Central City ( $X^2 (5, N = 401) = 164.51$ ,  $p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-16: Factors of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities in the four areas**

| <b>Factors</b>  | <b>Inner City areas</b> |            |              |            |
|---|-------------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|   | <b>Crown Street</b>     |            | <b>Hulme</b> |            |
|   | <b>N</b>                | <b>%</b>   | <b>N</b>     | <b>%</b>   |
| Bringing more people into the city  | 40                      | 31.7       | 32           | 27.8       |
| Increasing reputation as a cultural city  | 36                      | 28.6       | 23           | 20.0       |
| Increasing business profile   | 9                       | 7.1        | 13           | 11.3       |
| Increasing accessibility & availability of<br>a variety of different forms of culture | 24                      | 19.0       | 29           | 25.2       |
| Increasing the awareness of changes<br>in the city to outside                         | 9                       | 7.1        | 7            | 6.1        |
| Others  | 8                       | 6.3        | 11           | 9.6        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>126</b>              | <b>100</b> | <b>115</b>   | <b>100</b> |

| <b>Factors</b>  | <b>Central City areas</b> |            |                         |            |
|---|---------------------------|------------|-------------------------|------------|
|   | <b>Merchant City</b>      |            | <b>Whitworth Street</b> |            |
|   | <b>N</b>                  | <b>%</b>   | <b>N</b>                | <b>%</b>   |
| Bringing more people into the city  | 60                        | 30.0       | 46                      | 22.9       |
| Increasing reputation as a cultural city  | 64                        | 32.0       | 65                      | 32.3       |
| Increasing business profile   | 13                        | 6.5        | 15                      | 7.5        |
| Increasing accessibility & availability of<br>a variety of different forms of culture | 38                        | 19.0       | 49                      | 24.4       |
| Increasing the awareness of changes<br>in the city to outside                         | 19                        | 9.5        | 18                      | 9.0        |
| Others  | 6                         | 3.0        | 8                       | 4.0        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>200</b>                | <b>100</b> | <b>201</b>              | <b>100</b> |

**Crown: X<sup>2</sup> (50.10), df (5), N (126), p< .001 / Merchant: X<sup>2</sup> (91.18), df (5), N (200), p< .001**  
**Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (27.59) df (5), N (115), p< .001 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (78.25) df (5), N (201), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of image improvement through the use of cultural facilities in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (5, N= 126) = 50.10, p< .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (5, N= 115) = 27.59, p< .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (5, N=200) = 91.18, p< .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (5, N=201) = 78.25, p< .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 8-17: Pride in the city in the inner city and the central city**

|   | <u>Inner City</u> |             | <u>Central City</u> |             |
|---|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|   | <u>No</u>         | <u>%</u>    | <u>No</u>           | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>  | <b>197</b>        | <b>82.8</b> | <b>308</b>          | <b>73.5</b> |
| <b>No</b>   | <b>10</b>         | <b>4.1</b>  | <b>38</b>           | <b>9.1</b>  |
| <b>Do not know</b>  | <b>31</b>         | <b>13.0</b> | <b>73</b>           | <b>17.4</b> |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>245</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>436</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b><u>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (264.56), df (2), N (245), p&lt; .001</u></b> |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b><u>Manchester: X<sup>2</sup> (308.71), df (2), N (436), p&lt; .001</u></b> |                   |             |                     |             |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' pride in the city in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: Inner City ( $X^2 (2, N= 245) = 264.56, p < .001$ ); Central City ( $X^2 (2, N= 436) = 308.71, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-18: Pride in the city in the four areas**

|                    | <u>Inner city areas</u> |             |              |             | <u>Central city areas</u> |             |                         |             |
|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|---------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------|
|                    | <u>Crown Street</u>     |             | <u>Hulme</u> |             | <u>Merchant City</u>      |             | <u>Whitworth Street</u> |             |
|                    | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>     | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>                  | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>         | <b>97</b>               | <b>85.1</b> | <b>100</b>   | <b>80.6</b> | <b>177</b>                | <b>85.5</b> | <b>131</b>              | <b>61.8</b> |
| <b>No</b>          | <b>3</b>                | <b>2.6</b>  | <b>7</b>     | <b>5.6</b>  | <b>7</b>                  | <b>3.4</b>  | <b>31</b>               | <b>14.6</b> |
| <b>Do not know</b> | <b>14</b>               | <b>12.3</b> | <b>17</b>    | <b>13.7</b> | <b>23</b>                 | <b>11.1</b> | <b>50</b>               | <b>22.2</b> |
| <b>Total</b>       | <b>114</b>              | <b>100</b>  | <b>124</b>   | <b>100</b>  | <b>207</b>                | <b>100</b>  | <b>212</b>              | <b>100</b>  |

**Crown: X<sup>2</sup> (139.00), df (2), N (114), p< .001 / Merchant City: X<sup>2</sup> (255.42), df (2), N (207), p< .001**  
**Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (126.11), df (2), N (124), P< .001 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (79.82), df (2), N (212), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' pride in the city in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (2, N= 114) = 130.00, p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (2, N= 124) = 126.11, p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (2, N=207) = 255.42, p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (2, N=212) = 79.82, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-19: Pride in the city by previous residential location in Whitworth Street**

| Pride in the city<br>Previous residential location | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|--|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|  | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| The city   | 20  | 62.5 | 5  | 15.6 | 7           | 21.9 |
| Outside the UK                                     | 12  | 36.4 | 5  | 15.2 | 16          | 48.5 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(5.51), df (2), N (65), p (.064), Cramer's V (.291)**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different previous residential location differentiate residents' pride in the city in Whitworth Street. The results of the test were not statistically significant: previous residential location ( $X^2 = 5.51$ ,  $p = .064$ , Cramer's  $V = .291$ ). The population value showed equal to .064, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship.

**Table 8-20: Pride in the city by types of tenure in the central city**

| Pride in the city<br>Types of tenure | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|--------------------------------------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|                                      | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Owner-occupiers                      | 195 | 86.7 | 7  | 3.1  | 23          | 10.2 |
| Rent privately                       | 87  | 57.6 | 22 | 14.6 | 42          | 27.8 |
| Housing association                  | 21  | 61.8 | 7  | 20.6 | 6           | 17.6 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(46.61), df (4), p (.000), Cramer's V (.337)**

**Comparison**

**Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: X<sup>2</sup>(42.73), p (.000), Cramer's V (.333)**

**Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(20.34), p (.000), Cramer's V (.280)**

**Rent privately vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(1.83), p (.401)\*, Cramer's V (.009)**

**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure differentiate residents' pride in the city in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 46.61$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .337$ ). The population value showed equal to .000, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a strong relationship. The comparison between private renters and social housing renters showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between owner-occupiers and private renters and between owner-occupiers and social housing renters.



**Table 8-21: Pride in the city by occupational status in the central city**

| Pride in the city<br>Occupations   | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|--|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|  | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Pro/Management   | 187 | 78.9 | 18 | 7.6  | 32          | 13.5 |
| Skills   | 48  | 80.0 | 3  | 5.0  | 9           | 15.0 |
| Economically inactive  | 52  | 53.6 | 17 | 17.5 | 28          | 28.9 |
| <b><u>X<sup>2</sup>(24.70), df (4), p (.000), Cramer's V (.250)</u></b>                                  |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Comparison</u></b>   |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Pro/Management vs Skills: X<sup>2</sup>(0.54), p (.763)*, Cramer's V (.043)</u></b>                |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Pro/Management vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(21.68), p (.000), Cramer's V (.255)</u></b> |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Skills vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(11.64), p (.003), Cramer's V (.272)</u></b>         |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b>* No significance</b>   |     |      |    |      |             |      |

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different occupations differentiate residents' pride in the city in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: occupations ( $X^2 = 24.70$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .250$ ). The population value showed equal to .000, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship. The comparison between residents with professional & managerial occupations and residents with skilled occupations showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with professional & managerial occupations and economically inactive residents and between residents with skilled occupations and economically inactive residents.

**Table 8-22: Pride in the city by duration of residence in the city in the central city**

| Pride in the city<br>Duration of residence in the city                                   | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|--|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|  | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Up to 5  | 130 | 62.2 | 27 | 12.9 | 52          | 24.9 |
| 5-10   | 50  | 83.3 | 2  | 3.3  | 8           | 13.3 |
| More than 10   | 75  | 82.4 | 37 | 10.3 | 8           | 8.8  |
| <b><u>X<sup>2</sup>(19.54), df (4), p (.001), Cramer's V (.233)</u></b>                  |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Comparison</u></b>   |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Up to 5 vs 5-10: X<sup>2</sup>(9.87), p (.007)*, Cramer's V (.192)</u></b>         |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>Up to 5 vs More than 10: X<sup>2</sup>(12.92), p (.002), Cramer's V (.208)</u></b> |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b><u>5-10 vs More than 10: X<sup>2</sup>(2.33), p (.311)*, Cramer's V (.124)</u></b>    |     |      |    |      |             |      |
| <b>* No significance</b>   |     |      |    |      |             |      |

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different duration of residence in the city differentiate residents' pride in the city in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: occupations ( $X^2 = 19.54$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's  $V = .233$ ). The population value showed equal to .001, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a moderate relationship. The comparison between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years, and between residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years and residents with duration of residence in the city more than 10 years showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence more than 10 years.

**Table 8-23: Residents' consideration of relocation of residence to another city in the inner city and the central city**

|  | <u>Inner City</u> |             | <u>Central City</u> |             |
|--|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|  | <u>N</u>          | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>            | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>   | <b>81</b>         | <b>33.6</b> | <b>264</b>          | <b>61.3</b> |
| <b>No</b>  | <b>136</b>        | <b>56.4</b> | <b>121</b>          | <b>28.1</b> |
| <b>Do not know</b>   | <b>24</b>         | <b>10.0</b> | <b>46</b>           | <b>10.7</b> |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>241</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>431</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b><u>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup>(78.08), df (2), N (241), p (.000),</u></b>   |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b><u>Central City: X<sup>2</sup>(170.76), df (2), N (431), p (.000)</u></b> |                   |             |                     |             |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' possible relocation of their residence in another city in the inner city and the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (2, N= 241) = 78.08, p < .001$ ); central city ( $X^2 (2, N= 431) = 170.76, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-24: Residents' consideration of relocation of residence to another city in the four areas**

|                    | <u>Inner City areas</u> |             |              |             | <u>Central City areas</u> |             |                         |             |
|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|---------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------|
|                    | <u>Crown Street</u>     |             | <u>Hulme</u> |             | <u>Merchant City</u>      |             | <u>Whitworth Street</u> |             |
|                    | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>     | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>                  | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>         | <b>28</b>               | <b>24.3</b> | <b>53</b>    | <b>42.1</b> | <b>118</b>                | <b>56.2</b> | <b>146</b>              | <b>66.1</b> |
| <b>No</b>          | <b>74</b>               | <b>64.3</b> | <b>62</b>    | <b>49.2</b> | <b>67</b>                 | <b>31.9</b> | <b>54</b>               | <b>24.4</b> |
| <b>Do not know</b> | <b>13</b>               | <b>11.3</b> | <b>11</b>    | <b>8.7</b>  | <b>25</b>                 | <b>11.9</b> | <b>21</b>               | <b>9.5</b>  |
| <b>Total</b>       | <b>115</b>              | <b>100</b>  | <b>126</b>   | <b>100</b>  | <b>210</b>                | <b>100</b>  | <b>221</b>              | <b>100</b>  |

**Crown Street: X<sup>2</sup>(52.71), N (115), p (.000); Merchant City: X<sup>2</sup>(61.97), N (210), p (.000)**

**Hulme: X<sup>2</sup>(35.29), N (126), p (.000), Whitworth Street: X<sup>2</sup>(113.93), N (221), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' pride in the city in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (2, N= 115) = 52.72, p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (2, N= 126) = 35.29, p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (2, N=210) = 61.97, p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (2, N=221) = 113.93, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 8-25: Residents' consideration of residential relocation by age, occupation and duration of residence in the city in the inner city**

| Age      | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|----------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|          | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Under 30 | 38  | 45.8 | 36 | 43.4 | 9           | 10.8 |
| 30-50    | 42  | 37.8 | 56 | 50.5 | 13          | 11.7 |
| Over 50  | 1   | 2.3  | 41 | 93.2 | 2           | 4.5  |

**X<sup>2</sup>(32.42), p (.000), Cramer's V (.369)**

**Comparison**

**Under 30 vs 31-50: X<sup>2</sup>(1.26), N (194), p (.533)\*, Cramer's V (.081)**

**Under 30 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(30.81), N (127), p (.000), Cramer's V (.493)**

**31-50 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(25.23), N (155), p (.000), Cramer's V (.403)**

**\* No significance**

| Occupation            | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|-----------------------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|                       | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Pro/Management        | 44  | 46.3 | 43 | 45.3 | 8           | 8.4  |
| Economically inactive | 16  | 21.3 | 51 | 68.0 | 8           | 10.7 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(11.56), N (170), p (.003), Cramer's V (.261)**

| Duration of residence | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|-----------------------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|                       | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Up to 5 years         | 20  | 38.5 | 24 | 46.2 | 8           | 15.4 |
| 5-10 years            | 17  | 65.4 | 9  | 34.6 | 0           |      |
| More than 10 years    | 35  | 28.5 | 77 | 62.6 | 11          | 8.9  |

**X<sup>2</sup>(16.75), p (.002), Cramer's V (.289)**

**Comparison**

**Up to 5 years vs 5-10 years: X<sup>2</sup>(7.19), N (78), p (.027)\*, Cramer's V (.304)**

**Up to 5 years vs More than 10 years: X<sup>2</sup>(4.27), N (175), p (.118)\*, Cramer's V (.156)**

**5-10 years vs More than 10 years: X<sup>2</sup>(13.63), N (149), p (.001), Cramer's V (.302)**

**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age, occupation and duration of residence in the city differentiate possible relocation of their residence from the inner city. The results of the test were statistically significant: age ( $X^2 = 25.23$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's  $V = .403$ ), occupations ( $X^2 = 11.56$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's  $V = .261$ ) and duration of residence ( $X^2 = 16.75$ ,  $p = .002$ , Cramer's  $V = .289$ ). The population value for all results showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's  $V$  showed a very strong relationship for age and a moderate relationship for occupation and duration of residence. For age, the comparison between residents aged under 30 years old and residents aged 31-50 showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents aged under 30 and residents aged over 50 years old, and between residents aged 31-50 and residents aged over 50 years old. For duration of residence, the comparison between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years, and between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city more than 10 years showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years and residents with duration of residence more than 10 years.

**Table 8-26: Residents' consideration of residential relocation by types of tenure, age, duration of residence in the city and previous residential location in the central city**

| Types of tenure     | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|---------------------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|                     | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Owner-occupiers     | 122 | 53.0 | 83 | 36.1 | 25          | 10.9 |
| Rent privately      | 117 | 74.5 | 24 | 15.3 | 16          | 10.2 |
| Housing association | 16  | 47.1 | 13 | 38.2 | 5           | 14.7 |

X<sup>2</sup>(24.14), N (421), p (.000), Cramer's V (.239)

**Comparison**

Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: X<sup>2</sup>(21.61), N (387), p (.000), Cramer's V (.236)

Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(0.62), N (264), p (.732)\*, Cramer's V (.049)

Rent privately vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(11.14), N (191), p (.004), Cramer's V (.242)

\* No significance

| Age      | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|----------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|          | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Under 30 | 162 | 68.6 | 42 | 17.8 | 32          | 13.6 |
| 31-50    | 77  | 55.4 | 51 | 36.7 | 11          | 7.9  |
| Over 50  | 23  | 43.4 | 27 | 50.9 | 3           | 5.7  |

X<sup>2</sup>(32.16), N (428), p (.000), Cramer's V (.274)

**Comparison**

Under 30 vs 31-50: X<sup>2</sup>(17.43), N (375), p (.000), Cramer's V (.216)

Under 30 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(26.46), N (289), p (.000), Cramer's V (.303)

31-50 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(3.25), N (192), p (.197)\*, Cramer's V (.130)

\* No significance

| Previous residence | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|--------------------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|                    | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| City movers        | 49  | 56.3 | 30 | 34.5 | 8           | 9.2  |
| Region movers      | 60  | 45.8 | 52 | 39.7 | 19          | 14.5 |
| Rest of movers     | 155 | 73.1 | 38 | 17.9 | 19          | 9.0  |

X<sup>2</sup>(28.29), N (430), p (.000), Cramer's V (.256)

**Comparison**

City movers vs Region movers: X<sup>2</sup>(2.72), N (218), p (.256)\*, Cramer's V (.112)

City movers vs Rest of movers: X<sup>2</sup>(9.99), N (299), p (.007)\*, Cramer's V (.183)

Region movers vs Rest of movers: X<sup>2</sup>(26.50), N (343), p (.000), Cramer's V (.278)

\* No significance

| Duration of residence | Yes |      | No |      | Do not know |      |
|-----------------------|-----|------|----|------|-------------|------|
|                       | N   | %    | N  | %    | N           | %    |
| Up to 5 years         | 155 | 70.8 | 41 | 18.7 | 23          | 10.5 |
| 5-10 years            | 32  | 52.5 | 21 | 34.4 | 8           | 13.1 |
| More than 10 years    | 50  | 54.3 | 34 | 37.0 | 8           | 8.7  |

X<sup>2</sup>(15.33), N (372), p (.004), Cramer's V (.203)



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**Comparison**

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**Up to 5 years vs 5-10 years:  $X^2(8.01)$ , N (280), p (.018)\*, Cramer's V (.169)**

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**Up to 5 years vs More than 10 years:  $X^2(11.80)$ , N (311), p (.003), Cramer's V (.195)**

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**5-10 years vs More than 10 years:  $X^2(0.78)$ , N (153), p (.679)\*, Cramer's V (.071)**

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**\* No significance**

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure, residents with different age, duration of residence in the city and previous residential location differentiate possible relocation of their residence from the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 24.14$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .239), age, ( $X^2 = 32.16$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .274), previous residential location ( $X^2 = 28.29$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .256) and duration of residence ( $X^2 = 15.33$ ,  $p = .004$ , Cramer's V = .203). The population value for all results showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V for all showed a moderate relationship. For types of tenure, the comparison between owner-occupiers and social housing renters showed no significant differences. But there are significant differences between owner-occupiers and private renters, and between private renters and social housing renters. For age, the comparison between residents aged 31-50 years old and residents aged over 50 years old showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50 years old, and between residents aged under 30 years old and residents aged over 50 years old. For previous residential location, the comparison between city movers and region movers, and between city movers and rest of movers showed no significant differences. But, there are differences between region movers and rest of movers. For duration of residence, the comparison between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years, and between residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years and residents with duration of residence more than 10 years showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city more than 10 years.

**Table 8-27: Place of possible residential relocation in the inner city and the central city**

| <b>Place of residential relocation</b> | <b>Inner City</b> |          | <b>Central City</b> |          |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|
|  | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b> |
| <b>London</b>                          | 24                | 24.2     | 122                 | 35.9     |
| <b>Another UK city</b>                 | 50                | 50.5     | 139                 | 40.9     |
| <b>Abroad</b>                          | 24                | 24.2     | 73                  | 21.5     |
| <b>Others</b>                          | 1                 | 1.0      | 6                   | 1.8      |

**Inner City:  $X^2(48.60)$ , df (3), N (99), p (.000)**

**Central City:  $X^2(125.53)$ , df (3), N (340), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the place of possible residential relocation (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (3, N= 99) = 48.60$ ,  $p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (3, N= 340) = 125.53$ ,  $p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 8-28: Possible reasons for residential relocation to another city in the inner city and the central city**

| <b>Reasons</b>  | <b>Inner City</b> |            | <b>Central City</b> |            |
|---|-------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|   | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b>   | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b>   |
| <b>Employment</b>   | <b>29</b>         | <b>34</b>  | <b>93</b>           | <b>32</b>  |
| <b>Better availability of cultural &amp; leisure facilities</b>             | <b>12</b>         | <b>14</b>  | <b>51</b>           | <b>17</b>  |
| <b>Family reasons</b>   | <b>15</b>         | <b>18</b>  | <b>43</b>           | <b>15</b>  |
| <b>Nice &amp; pleasant city</b>   | <b>16</b>         | <b>19</b>  | <b>46</b>           | <b>16</b>  |
| <b>Others</b>   | <b>13</b>         | <b>15</b>  | <b>61</b>           | <b>21</b>  |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>85</b>         | <b>100</b> | <b>294</b>          | <b>100</b> |
| <b><u>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup>(11.18), df (4), N (85), p (.025),</u></b>   |                   |            |                     |            |
| <b><u>Central City: X<sup>2</sup>(28.04), df (4), N (294), p (.000)</u></b> |                   |            |                     |            |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess possible reasons for residential relocation (the inner city and the central city). The result of the test for inner city was not statistically significant, but for central city was statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2(4, N=85) = 11.18, p = .025$ ), central city ( $X^2(4, N=294) = 28.04, p < .001$ ). The test for inner city showed that the population value was .025, and for central city was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



## **Chapter 9: Quality of social and economic life & cultural facilities**

**Table 9-1: Residents' participation in cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**<sup>2</sup>

| Numbers of facilities | Inner City |            | Central City |            |
|-----------------------|------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                       | N          | %          | N            | %          |
| Between 1 and 5       | 96         | 39.3       | 152          | 34.9       |
| Between 6 and 9       | 133        | 54.3       | 242          | 55.5       |
| All of them           | 8          | 3.3        | 31           | 7.1        |
| Not at all            | 7          | 2.9        | 11           | 2.5        |
| <b>Total</b>          | <b>244</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>436</b>   | <b>100</b> |

**Glasgow: X<sup>2</sup> (198.92), df (3), N (244), p< .001**

**Manchester: X<sup>2</sup> (323.17), df (3), N (436), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' participation in cultural activities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (3, N= 244) = 198.92, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (3, N= 436) = 323.17, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-2: Residents' participation in the four areas**

|               | Inner city areas |            |            |            | Central city areas |            |                  |            |
|---------------|------------------|------------|------------|------------|--------------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|               | Crown Street     |            | Hulme      |            | Merchant City      |            | Whitworth Street |            |
|               | N                | %          | N          | %          | N                  | %          | N                | %          |
| Between 1 & 5 | 38               | 32.5       | 58         | 45.7       | 54                 | 25.6       | 98               | 43.6       |
| Between 6 & 9 | 73               | 62.4       | 60         | 47.2       | 126                | 59.7       | 116              | 51.6       |
| All of them   | 6                | 5.1        | 2          | 1.6        | 28                 | 13.3       | 3                | 1.3        |
| Not at all    | 0                | 0          | 7          | 5.5        | 3                  | 1.4        | 8                | 3.6        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>117</b>       | <b>100</b> | <b>127</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>211</b>         | <b>100</b> | <b>225</b>       | <b>100</b> |

**Crown: X<sup>2</sup> (57.59), df (2), N (117), p< .001 / Merchant: X<sup>2</sup> (160.28), df (3), N (211), p< .001**

**Hulme: X<sup>2</sup> (94.01), df (3), N (127), p< .001 / Whitworth: X<sup>2</sup> (186.25), df (3), N (225), p< .001**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' participation in cultural activities in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (2, N= 117) = 57.59, p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (3, N= 127) = 94.01, p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (3, N=211) = 160.28, p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (2, N=225) = 186.25, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

<sup>2</sup> Ten facilities both well-known and less well-known cultural amenities in both cities were given to respondents to indicate whether they have been there or not. The facilities are 'the Burrell Collection, Hunterian Art Gallery, Kelvingrove, People's Palace (the city's history museum), Third Eye Centre, Scottish Exhibition & Conference Centre, Transport Museum, City Halls (concert hall), Glasgow Royal Concert Hall and Citizens Theatre in Glasgow; Bridgewater Hall, G-Mex, Nynex Arena, Museum of Science and Industry, the Whitworth Art Gallery, Opera House, Palace theatre, Royal Exchange Theatre, Granada Studios Tour and Transport Museum in Manchester.

**Table 9-3: Participation in cultural activities by residents with different social and economic background in the inner city**

| Number of visit<br>Types of tenure | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |     | Not at all |     |
|------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|-----|------------|-----|
|                                    | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %   | N          | %   |
| Owner-occupiers                    | 49            | 33.8 | 88            | 60.7 | 8           | 5.5 | 0          |     |
| Housing association                | 40            | 46.0 | 40            | 46.0 | 0           |     | 7          | 8.0 |

X<sup>2</sup>(20.70), df (3), N (232), p (.000), Cramer's V (.299)

| Number of visit<br>Age | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |     | Not at all |      |
|------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|-----|------------|------|
|                        | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %   | N          | %    |
| Under 30               | 33            | 39.8 | 46            | 55.4 | 3           | 3.6 | 1          | 1.2  |
| 31-50                  | 41            | 36.6 | 69            | 61.6 | 2           | 1.8 | 0          |      |
| Over 50                | 20            | 44.4 | 17            | 37.8 | 3           | 6.7 | 5          | 11.1 |

X<sup>2</sup>(22.86), df (6), N (240), p (.001), Cramer's V (.309)

**Comparison**

Under 30 vs 31-50: X<sup>2</sup>(2.41), df (3), N (195), p (.493)\*, Cramer's V (.111)

Under 30 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(8.69), df (3), N (128), p (.034)\*, Cramer's V (.261)

31-50 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(18.68), df (3), N (157), p (.000), Cramer's V (.345)

\* No significance

| Number of visit<br>Household income | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |     | Not at all |     |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|-----|------------|-----|
|                                     | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %   | N          | %   |
| Under £12000                        | 42            | 50.6 | 34            | 41.0 | 2           | 2.4 | 5          | 6.0 |
| £12000-25000                        | 28            | 35.4 | 49            | 62.0 | 2           | 2.5 | 0          |     |
| Over £25000                         | 18            | 32.1 | 34            | 60.7 | 4           | 7.1 | 0          |     |

X<sup>2</sup>(18.22), df (6), N (218), p (.006), Cramer's V (.289)

**Comparison**

Under £12000 vs £12000-25000: X<sup>2</sup>(10.42), df (3), N (162)\*, Cramer's V (.254)

Under £12000 vs Over £25000: X<sup>2</sup>(10.42), df (3), N (139)\*, Cramer's V (.274)

£12000-25000 vs Over £25000: X<sup>2</sup>(1.68), df (3), N (135)\*, Cramer's V (.112)

\* No significance

| Number of visit<br>Occupation | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |     | Not at all |     |
|-------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|-----|------------|-----|
|                               | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %   | N          | %   |
| Pro/Management                | 30            | 31.3 | 60            | 62.5 | 6           | 6.3 | 0          |     |
| Skills                        | 24            | 42.9 | 32            | 57.1 | 0           |     | 0          |     |
| Economically inactive         | 37            | 48.1 | 32            | 41.6 | 2           | 2.6 | 6          | 7.8 |

X<sup>2</sup>(22.87), df (6), N (229), p (.001), Cramer's V (.316)

**Comparison**

Pro/Management vs Skills: X<sup>2</sup>(5.01), df (2), N (152), p (.082)\*, Cramer's V (.182)

Pro/Management vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(15.35), df (3), N (173), p (.002), Cramer's V (.298)

Skills vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(7.65), df (3), N (133), p (.054)\*, Cramer's V (.240)

\* No significance



| Number of visit<br>Previous residence | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |     | Not at all |     |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|-----|------------|-----|
|                                       | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %   | N          | %   |
| City movers                           | 41            | 34.2 | 71            | 59.2 | 6           | 5.0 | 2          | 1.7 |
| Region movers                         | 22            | 30.1 | 46            | 63.0 | 2           | 2.7 | 3          | 4.1 |
| Rest of movers                        | 32            | 64.0 | 16            | 32.0 | 0           |     | 2          | 4.0 |

**$X^2(20.23)$ , df (6), N (243), p (.003), Cramer's V (.289)**

**Comparison**

**City movers vs Region movers:  $X^2(1.94)$ , df (3), N (193), p (.585)\*, Cramer's V (.100)**

**City movers vs Rest of movers:  $X^2(15.72)$ , df (3), N (170), p (.001), Cramer's V (.304)**

**Region movers vs Rest of movers:  $X^2(14.78)$ , df (3), N (123), p (.002), Cramer's V (.347)**

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure, residents with different age, household income, occupation, and previous residential location differentiate the participation of cultural activities in the inner city. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 20.70$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .299), age, ( $X^2 = 22.86$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's V = .309), household income ( $X^2 = 18.22$ ,  $p = .006$ , Cramer's V = .289), occupation ( $X^2 = 22.87$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cramer's V = .316), previous residential location ( $X^2 = 20.23$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cramer's V = .289). The population value for all results showed less than .005 with the exception of household incomes, and the tests of Cramer's V for types of tenure, household incomes and previous residential location showed a moderate relationship, but for age and occupations a strong relationship showed. For age, the comparison between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50 years old, and between residents aged under 30 years old and residents aged over 50 years old showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents aged 31-50 years old and residents aged over 50 years old. For occupation, residents with professional & managerial occupations and residents with skilled occupations, and between residents with skilled occupations and economically inactive residents showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with professional & managerial occupations and economically inactive residents. For previous residential location, the comparison between city movers and region movers showed no significant differences. But, there are differences between city movers and rest of movers and between region movers and rest of movers.

**Table 9-4: Participation in cultural activities by residents with different social and economic backgrounds in the central city**

| Number of visit<br>Types of tenure | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |      | Not at all |     |
|------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|------|------------|-----|
|                                    | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %    | N          | %   |
| Owner-occupiers                    | 55            | 23.6 | 148           | 63.5 | 29          | 12.4 | 1          | 0.4 |
| Rent privately                     | 79            | 49.7 | 69            | 43.4 | 2           | 1.3  | 9          | 5.7 |
| Housing association                | 12            | 35.3 | 21            | 61.8 | 0           |      | 1          | 2.9 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(54.83), df (6), N (426), p (.000), Cramer's V (.359)**

**Comparison**

**Owner-occupiers vs Rent privately: X<sup>2</sup>(50.82), df (3), N (392), p (.000), Cramer's V (.360)**

**Owner-occupiers vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(8.36), df (3), N (267), p (.039)\*, Cramer's V (.177)**

**Rent privately vs Housing association: X<sup>2</sup>(4.08), df (3), N (193), p (.252)\*, Cramer's V (.145)**

\* No significance

| Number of visit<br>Age | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |      | Not at all |     |
|------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|------|------------|-----|
|                        | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %    | N          | %   |
| Under 30               | 105           | 43.9 | 114           | 47.7 | 10          | 4.2  | 10         | 4.2 |
| 31-50                  | 39            | 28.1 | 88            | 63.3 | 11          | 7.9  | 1          | 0.7 |
| Over 50                | 7             | 12.7 | 39            | 70.9 | 9           | 16.4 | 0          |     |

**X<sup>2</sup>(37.31), df (6), N (433), p (.000), Cramer's V (.294)**

**Comparison**

**Under 30 vs 31-50: X<sup>2</sup>(15.65), df (3), p (.001), Cramer's V (.203)**

**Under 30 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(28.62), df (3), p (.000), Cramer's V (.312)**

**31-50 vs Over 50: X<sup>2</sup>(7.38), df (3), p (.061)\*, Cramer's V (.195)**

\* No significance

| Number of visit<br>Household incomes | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |     | Not at all |     |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|-----|------------|-----|
|                                      | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %   | N          | %   |
| Under £12000                         | 47            | 50.5 | 41            | 44.1 | 3           | 3.2 | 2          | 2.2 |
| £12000-25000                         | 37            | 29.4 | 77            | 61.1 | 11          | 8.7 | 1          | 0.8 |
| Over £25000                          | 47            | 27.5 | 106           | 62.0 | 15          | 8.8 | 3          | 1.8 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(17.96), df (6), N (390), p (.006), Cramer's V (.215)**

**Comparison**

**Under £12000 vs £12000-25000: X<sup>2</sup>(12.39), df (3), p (.006)\*, Cramer's V (.238)**

**Under £12000 vs Over £25000: X<sup>2</sup>(15.23), df (3), p (.002), Cramer's V (.240)**

**£12000-25000 vs Over £25000: X<sup>2</sup>(0.60), df (3), p (.897)\*, Cramer's V (.045)**

\* No significance

| Number of visit<br>Occupation | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |      | Not at all |     |
|-------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|------|------------|-----|
|                               | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %    | N          | %   |
| Pro/Management                | 72            | 28.8 | 150           | 60.0 | 25          | 10.0 | 3          | 1.2 |
| Skills                        | 17            | 28.3 | 41            | 68.3 | 1           | 1.7  | 1          | 1.7 |
| Economically inactive         | 51            | 51.0 | 40            | 40.0 | 3           | 3.0  | 6          | 6.0 |

**X<sup>2</sup>(32.64), df (6), N (410), p (.000), Cramer's V (.282)**

**Comparison**

**Pro/Management vs Skills: X<sup>2</sup>(4.64), df (4), p (.200)\*, Cramer's V (.122)**

**Pro/Management vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(26.06), df (3), p (.000), Cramer's V (.273)**

**Skills Vs Economically inactive: X<sup>2</sup>(12.36), df (3), p (.006)\*, Cramer's V (.278)**

\* No significance



| Number of visit<br>Previous residence | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |      | Not at all |     |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|------|------------|-----|
|                                       | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %    | N          | %   |
| City movers                           | 19            | 21.8 | 56            | 64.4 | 11          | 12.6 | 1          | 1.1 |
| Region movers                         | 32            | 24.1 | 87            | 65.4 | 12          | 9.0  | 2          | 1.5 |
| Rest of movers                        | 101           | 47.0 | 98            | 45.6 | 8           | 3.7  | 8          | 3.7 |

$X^2(35.41)$ ,  $df(6)$ ,  $N(435)$ ,  $p(.000)$ , Cramer's V (.285)

#### Comparison

City movers vs Region movers:  $X^2(0.83)$ ,  $df(3)$ ,  $p(.843)^*$ , Cramer's V (.061)

City movers vs Rest of movers:  $X^2(23.35)$ ,  $df(3)$ ,  $p(.000)$ , Cramer's V (.278)

Region movers vs Rest of movers:  $X^2(22.80)$ ,  $df(3)$ ,  $p(.000)$ , Cramer's V (.256)

\* No significance

| Number of visit<br>Duration of residence | Between 1 & 5 |      | Between 6 & 9 |      | All of them |      | Not at all |     |
|--|---------------|------|---------------|------|-------------|------|------------|-----|
|  | N             | %    | N             | %    | N           | %    | N          | %   |
| Less than 5 years                        | 112           | 50.9 | 91            | 41.4 | 6           | 2.7  | 11         | 5.0 |
| Between 5-10 years                       | 14            | 23.0 | 43            | 70.5 | 4           | 6.6  | 0          |     |
| More than 10 years                       | 12            | 13.0 | 68            | 73.9 | 12          | 13.0 | 0          |     |

$X^2(64.72)$ ,  $df(6)$ ,  $N(373)$ ,  $p(.000)$ , Cramer's V (.417)

#### Comparison

Less than 5 years vs Between 5-10 years:  $X^2(21.84)$ ,  $df(3)$ ,  $p(.000)$ , Cramer's V (.279)

Less than 5 years vs More than 10 years:  $X^2(53.46)$ ,  $df(3)$ ,  $p(.000)$ , Cramer's V (.414)

Between 5-10 years vs More than 10 years:  $X^2(3.65)$ ,  $df(3)$ ,  $p(.161)^*$ , Cramer's V (.155)

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether types of tenure, residents with different age, household income, occupation, previous residential location, and duration of residence differentiate the participation of cultural activities in the central city. The results of the test were statistically significant: types of tenure ( $X^2 = 54.83$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .359), age ( $X^2 = 37.31$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .294), household income ( $X^2 = 17.96$ ,  $p = .006$ , Cramer's V = .215), occupation ( $X^2 = 32.64$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .282), previous residential location ( $X^2 = 35.41$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .285), and duration of residence ( $X^2 = 64.72$ ,  $p = .000$ , Cramer's V = .417). The population value for all results showed less than .005 with the exception of household incomes, and the tests of Cramer's V for types of tenure and duration of residence showed a strong relationship, and for others a moderate relationship showed. For types of tenure, the comparison between owner-occupiers and social housing renters and between private renters and social housing renters showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between owner-occupiers and private renters. For age, the comparison between residents aged 31-50 years old and residents aged over 50 years old showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents aged under 30 and residents aged 31-50 years old, and between residents aged under 30 years old and residents aged over 50 years old. For household income, the comparison between residents with household income under £12000 and residents with household income £12000-25000, and between residents with household income £12000-25000 and residents with household income over £25000 showed no significant differences. But, there are differences between residents with household income under £12000 and residents with household income over £25000. For occupation, residents with professional & managerial occupations and residents with skilled occupations, and between residents with skilled occupations and economically inactive residents showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with professional & managerial occupations and economically inactive residents. For previous residential location, the comparison between city movers and region movers showed no significant differences. But, there are differences between city movers and rest of movers and between region movers and rest of movers. For duration of residence, the comparison between residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years and residents with duration of residence more than 10 years showed no significant differences. But, there are significant differences between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city 5-10 years, and between residents with duration of residence in the city less than 5 years and residents with duration of residence in the city more than 10 years.

**Table 9-5: Residents' use of types of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**

| Types of cultural facilities | Inner City  |            | Central City |            |
|------------------------------|-------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                              | N           | %          | N            | %          |
| Concert hall                 | 184         | 13.1       | 420          | 16.0       |
| Exhibition centre            | 226         | 16.1       | 438          | 16.7       |
| Gallery                      | 261         | 18.6       | 567          | 21.6       |
| Museum                       | 308         | 22.0       | 447          | 17.0       |
| Theatre                      | 292         | 20.8       | 547          | 20.8       |
| Sports & Theme park          | 131         | 9.3        | 210          | 8.0        |
| <b>Total</b>                 | <b>1402</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>2629</b>  | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City:  $X^2(97.32)$ , df (5), N (1402), p (.000)**

**Central City:  $X^2(184.66)$ , df (5), N (2629), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' use of types of cultural facilities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (5, N= 1402) = 97.32, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (5, N= 2629) = 184.66, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-6: Residents' use of types of cultural facilities in the four areas**

| Types of cultural facilities | Inner city areas |            |            |            |
|------------------------------|------------------|------------|------------|------------|
|                              | Crown Street     |            | Hulme      |            |
|                              | N                | %          | N          | %          |
| Concert hall                 | 135              | 18.3       | 49         | 7.4        |
| Exhibition centre            | 129              | 17.5       | 97         | 14.6       |
| Gallery                      | 193              | 26.2       | 68         | 10.2       |
| Museum                       | 187              | 25.3       | 121        | 18.2       |
| Theatre                      | 94               | 12.7       | 198        | 29.8       |
| Sports & Theme park          | 0                |            | 131        | 19.7       |
| <b>Total</b>                 | <b>738</b>       | <b>100</b> | <b>664</b> | <b>100</b> |

**Crown Street:  $X^2(47.37)$ , df (4), N (738), p (.000)**

**Hulme:  $X^2(126.12)$ , df (5), N (664), p (.000)**

| Types of cultural facilities | Central city areas |            |                  |            |
|------------------------------|--------------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|                              | Merchant City      |            | Whitworth Street |            |
|                              | N                  | %          | N                | %          |
| Concert hall                 | 308                | 21.6       | 112              | 9.3        |
| Exhibition centre            | 265                | 18.6       | 173              | 14.4       |
| Gallery                      | 431                | 30.2       | 136              | 11.3       |
| Museum                       | 285                | 20.0       | 162              | 13.5       |
| Theatre                      | 138                | 9.7        | 409              | 34.0       |
| Sports & Theme park          | 0                  |            | 210              | 17.5       |
| <b>Total</b>                 | <b>1427</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>1202</b>      | <b>100</b> |

**Merchant City:  $X^2(153.66)$ , df (4), N (1427), p (.000)**

**Whitworth Street:  $X^2(288.49)$ , df (5), N (1202), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' use of types of cultural facilities in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2 (4, N= 738) = 47.37, p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (5, N= 664) = 126.12, p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (4, N=1427) = 153.66, p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (5, N=1202) = 288.49, p < .001$ ). All tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 9-7: Awareness of public funding of the facilities (the inner city and the central city)**

|   | <u>Inner City</u> |             | <u>Central City</u> |             |
|---|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|   | <u>N</u>          | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>            | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>  | <b>160</b>        | <b>65.8</b> | <b>281</b>          | <b>64.4</b> |
| <b>No</b>   | <b>83</b>         | <b>34.2</b> | <b>155</b>          | <b>35.6</b> |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>243</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>436</b>          | <b>100</b>  |
| <b><u>Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (24.40), df (1), N (243), p (.000)</u></b>  |                   |             |                     |             |
| <b><u>Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (36.41), df (1), N (436), p(.000)</u></b> |                   |             |                     |             |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' awareness of public funding of the facilities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (1, N= 243) = 24.40, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (1, N= 436) = 36.41, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-8: Awareness of public funding of the facilities (the four areas)**

|  | <u>Inner City</u>   |             |              |             | <u>Central City</u>  |             |                         |             |
|--|---------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|----------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------|
|  | <u>Crown Street</u> |             | <u>Hulme</u> |             | <u>Merchant City</u> |             | <u>Whitworth Street</u> |             |
|  | <u>N</u>            | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>     | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>             | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>                | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>   | <b>90</b>           | <b>76.9</b> | <b>70</b>    | <b>55.6</b> | <b>149</b>           | <b>70.6</b> | <b>132</b>              | <b>58.7</b> |
| <b>No</b>  | <b>27</b>           | <b>23.1</b> | <b>56</b>    | <b>43.8</b> | <b>62</b>            | <b>29.4</b> | <b>93</b>               | <b>41.3</b> |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>117</b>          | <b>100</b>  | <b>126</b>   | <b>100</b>  | <b>211</b>           | <b>100</b>  | <b>225</b>              | <b>100</b>  |
| <b><u>Crown Street: X<sup>2</sup>(33.92), df (1), N (117), p (.000)</u></b>    |                     |             |              |             |                      |             |                         |             |
| <b><u>Hulme: X<sup>2</sup>(1.56), df (1), N (126), p (.212)</u></b>            |                     |             |              |             |                      |             |                         |             |
| <b><u>Merchant City: X<sup>2</sup>(35.87), df (1), N (211), p (.000)</u></b>   |                     |             |              |             |                      |             |                         |             |
| <b><u>Whitworth Street: X<sup>2</sup>(6.76), df (1), N (225), p (.009)</u></b> |                     |             |              |             |                      |             |                         |             |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' awareness of public funding of the facilities in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant with the exception of Hulme and Whitworth Street: Crown Street ( $X^2 (1, N= 117) = 33.92, p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2 (1, N= 126) = 1.56, p = .212$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2 (1, N=211) = 35.87, p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2 (1, N=225) = 6.76, p = .009$ ). The tests of Hulme and Whitworth Street showed that the population value was more than .005, but the tests of Crown Street and Merchant city showed less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-9: Approval of public funding of the facilities (the inner city and the central city)**

|              | <u>Inner City</u> |            | <u>Central City</u> |            |
|--------------|-------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|              | N                 | %          | N                   | %          |
| Yes          | 197               | 82.1       | 379                 | 87.3       |
| No           | 15                | 6.3        | 20                  | 4.6        |
| Do not know  | 28                | 11.7       | 35                  | 8.1        |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>245</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>436</b>          | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (257.73), df (2), N (245), p (.000)**

**Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (570.14), df (2), N (436), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' approval of public funding of the facilities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (2, N= 245) = 257.73, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (2, N= 436) = 570.14, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-10: Personal importance of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**

|                                   | <u>Inner City</u> |            | <u>Central City</u> |            |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|                                   | N                 | %          | N                   | %          |
| Very important                    | 63                | 26.6       | 135                 | 31.3       |
| Fairly important                  | 100               | 42.2       | 195                 | 45.2       |
| Neither important nor unimportant | 54                | 22.8       | 76                  | 17.6       |
| Fairly unimportant                | 13                | 5.5        | 19                  | 4.4        |
| Very unimportant                  | 7                 | 3.0        | 8                   | 1.4        |
| <b>Total</b>                      | <b>237</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>431</b>          | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (123.82), df (4), N (237), p (.000)**

**Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (293.17), df (4), N (431), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' personal importance of cultural facilities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (4, N= 237) = 123.82, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (4, N= 431) = 293.17, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 9-11: Personal importance of cultural facilities by age**

| Age<br>Degree of importance       | <u>Inner City</u> |      |       |      |         |      |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|------|-------|------|---------|------|
|                                   | Under 30          |      | 31-50 |      | Over 50 |      |
|                                   | N                 | %    | N     | %    | N       | %    |
| Very important                    | 15                | 18.1 | 34    | 30.9 | 13      | 31.7 |
| Fairly important                  | 39                | 47.0 | 50    | 45.5 | 11      | 26.8 |
| Neither important nor unimportant | 23                | 27.7 | 19    | 17.3 | 10      | 24.4 |
| Fairly unimportant                | 6                 | 7.2  | 5     | 4.5  | 2       | 4.9  |
| Very unimportant                  | 0                 |      | 2     | 1.8  | 5       | 12.2 |

**Pearson X<sup>2</sup> (24.10), df (8), N (234), p (.002), Cramer's V (.321)**

| Comparison          | X <sup>2</sup> | df | N   | p     | Cramer's V |
|---------------------|----------------|----|-----|-------|------------|
| Under 30 vs 31-50   | 7.57           | 4  | 193 | .109* | .198       |
| Under 30 vs over 50 | 15.50          | 4  | 124 | .004  | .354       |
| 31-50 vs over 50    | 10.30          | 4  | 151 | .036* | .261       |

\* No significance

| Age<br>Degree of importance       | <u>Central City</u> |      |       |      |         |      |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|------|-------|------|---------|------|
|                                   | Under 30            |      | 31-50 |      | Over 50 |      |
|                                   | N                   | %    | N     | %    | N       | %    |
| Very important                    | 48                  | 20.3 | 58    | 42.0 | 26      | 48.1 |
| Fairly important                  | 117                 | 49.6 | 56    | 40.6 | 19      | 13.8 |
| Neither important nor unimportant | 54                  | 22.9 | 19    | 13.8 | 3       | 5.6  |
| Fairly unimportant                | 12                  | 5.1  | 5     | 3.6  | 2       | 3.7  |
| Very unimportant                  | 5                   | 2.1  | 0     |      | 1       | 1.9  |

**Pearson X<sup>2</sup> (33.77), df (8), N (428), p (.000), Cramer's V (.281)**

| Comparison          | X <sup>2</sup> | df | N   | p     | Phi & Cramer's V |
|---------------------|----------------|----|-----|-------|------------------|
| Under 30 vs 31-50   | 23.02          | 4  | 374 | .000  | .248             |
| Under 30 vs over 50 | 20.93          | 4  | 290 | .000  | .269             |
| 31-50 vs over 50    | 5.17           | 4  | 192 | .270* | .164             |

\* No significance

A two-way contingency table analysis was conducted to evaluate whether residents with different age differentiate personal importance of cultural facilities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city (age) (X<sup>2</sup> = 24.10, p= .002, Cramer's V = .321) and central city (age) (X<sup>2</sup> = 33.77, p= .000, Cramer's V = .281). The population value for all results showed less than .005, and the tests of Cramer's V for inner city showed a strong relationship, and for central city a moderate relationship.

**Table 9-12: Improvement in the quality of life through the location of cultural facilities in the inner city and the central city**

|                    | <u>Inner City</u> |             | <u>Central City</u> |             |
|--------------------|-------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
|                    | <u>N</u>          | <u>%</u>    | <u>N</u>            | <u>%</u>    |
| <b>Yes</b>         | <b>153</b>        | <b>64.8</b> | <b>331</b>          | <b>77.2</b> |
| <b>No</b>          | <b>66</b>         | <b>28.0</b> | <b>68</b>           | <b>17.0</b> |
| <b>Do not know</b> | <b>9</b>          | <b>7.2</b>  | <b>25</b>           | <b>5.8</b>  |
| <b>Total</b>       | <b>236</b>        | <b>100</b>  | <b>429</b>          | <b>100</b>  |

**Inner City: X<sup>2</sup> (120.62), df (2), N (236), p (.000) / Central City: X<sup>2</sup> (378.80), df (2), N (429), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess residents' feelings about the improvement in the quality of life through the location of cultural facilities (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (2, N= 236) = 120.62, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (2, N= 429) = 378.80, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-13: The direct and indirect effect of cultural facilities on the employment of residents in the inner city and the central city**

| <u>Inner City</u>  | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>    | <u>Central City</u>  | <u>No</u>  | <u>%</u>    |
|--|------------|-------------|--|------------|-------------|
| <b>Yes</b>   | <b>62</b>  | <b>27.9</b> | <b>Yes</b>   | <b>128</b> | <b>30.1</b> |
| <b>No</b>  | <b>160</b> | <b>72.1</b> | <b>No</b>  | <b>297</b> | <b>69.9</b> |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>222</b> | <b>100</b>  | <b>Total</b>   | <b>425</b> | <b>100</b>  |
| <b><u>X<sup>2</sup> (43.26), df (1), N (222), p (.000)</u></b> |            |             | <b><u>X<sup>2</sup> (67.20), df (1), N (425), p (.000)</u></b> |            |             |

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the effect of cultural facilities on employment (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2 (1, N= 222) = 43.26, p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2 (1, N= 425) = 67.20, p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 9-14: Effectiveness of city council in the inner city and the central city**

| Degree of effectiveness           | Inner City |            | Central City |            |
|-----------------------------------|------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                                   | N          | %          | N            | %          |
| Very effective                    | 60         | 25.4       | 72           | 17.9       |
| Fairly effective                  | 142        | 60.2       | 251          | 62.3       |
| Neither effective nor ineffective | 15         | 6.4        | 44           | 10.9       |
| Fairly ineffective                | 12         | 5.1        | 29           | 7.2        |
| Very ineffective                  | 7          | 3.0        | 7            | 1.7        |
| <b>Total</b>                      | <b>236</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>403</b>   | <b>100</b> |

**Inner City:  $X^2$  (276.33), df (4), N (236), p (.000)**

**Central City:  $X^2$  (478.03), df (4), N (403), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the effectiveness of city council in regenerating the city (the inner city and the central city). The results of the test were statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2$  (4, N= 236) = 276.33,  $p < .001$ ), central city ( $X^2$  (4, N= 403) = 478.03,  $p < .001$ ). The test showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-15: Effectiveness of city council in the four areas**

| Degree of effectiveness           | Inner City   |            |            |            |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
|                                   | Crown Street |            | Hulme      |            |
|                                   | N            | %          | N          | %          |
| Very effective                    | 19           | 16.7       | 41         | 33.6       |
| Fairly effective                  | 79           | 69.3       | 63         | 51.6       |
| Neither effective nor ineffective | 8            | 7.0        | 7          | 5.7        |
| Fairly ineffective                | 4            | 3.5        | 8          | 6.6        |
| Very ineffective                  | 4            | 3.5        | 3          | 2.5        |
| <b>Total</b>                      | <b>114</b>   | <b>100</b> | <b>122</b> | <b>100</b> |

**Crown Street:  $X^2$  (179.77), df (4), N (114), p (.000)**

**Hulme:  $X^2$  (114.56), df (4), N (122), p (.000)**

| Degree of effectiveness           | Central City  |            |                  |            |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|                                   | Merchant City |            | Whitworth Street |            |
|                                   | N             | %          | N                | %          |
| Very effective                    | 23            | 11.4       | 49               | 24.3       |
| Fairly effective                  | 129           | 64.2       | 122              | 60.4       |
| Neither effective nor ineffective | 26            | 12.9       | 18               | 8.9        |
| Fairly ineffective                | 19            | 9.0        | 10               | 5.0        |
| Very ineffective                  | 4             | 2.0        | 3                | 1.5        |
| <b>Total</b>                      | <b>201</b>    | <b>100</b> | <b>202</b>       | <b>100</b> |

**Merchant City:  $X^2$  (252.31), df (4), N (201), p (.000)**

**Whitworth Street:  $X^2$  (236.56), df (4), N (202), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the effectiveness of city council in regenerating the city in the four survey areas. The results of the test were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2$  (4, N= 114) = 179.77,  $p < .001$ ); Hulme ( $X^2$  (4, N= 122) = 114.56,  $p < .001$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2$  (4, N=201) = 252.31,  $p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2$  (4, N=202) = 236.56,  $p < .001$ ). The tests showed that the population value was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.

**Table 9-16: Residents' ideas of what the city council should do for regenerating the city (the inner city and the central city)**

| <b>Factors</b>   | <b>Inner City</b> |          | <b>Central City</b> |          |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------------------|----------|
|  | <b>N</b>          | <b>%</b> | <b>N</b>            | <b>%</b> |
| <b>Improve unused buildings and derelict lands</b>       | 27                | 10.6     | 93                  | 17.6     |
| <b>Develop more housing</b>                              | 19                | 7.5      | 36                  | 6.8      |
| <b>Reduce traffic problems</b>                           | 20                | 7.8      | 54                  | 10.2     |
| <b>Improve public transport</b>                          | 23                | 9.0      | 41                  | 7.8      |
| <b>Provide more cultural and leisure facilities</b>      | 21                | 8.2      | 43                  | 8.1      |
| <b>Make the city cleaner</b>                             | 19                | 7.5      | 52                  | 9.8      |
| <b>Provide more green and open space</b>                 | 19                | 7.5      | 56                  | 10.6     |
| <b>Reduce crime and increase safety</b>                  | 20                | 7.8      | 46                  | 8.7      |
| <b>Generate more businesses and employment</b>           | 19                | 7.5      | 9                   | 1.7      |
| <b>Provide more parking facilities</b>                   | 0                 |          | 22                  | 4.2      |
| <b>Providing facilities for children &amp; teenagers</b> | 21                | 8.2      | 0                   |          |
| <b>Solve the problem of homeless and beggars</b>         | 12                | 4.7      | 29                  | 5.5      |
| <b>Other</b>   | 35                | 13.7     | 48                  | 9.1      |
| <b>Total</b>   | 255               | 100      | 529                 | 100      |

**Inner City:  $X^2$  (15.73), df (11), N (255), p (.151)**

**Central City:  $X^2$  (107.45), df (11), N (529), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess factors of further regeneration in the city (the inner city and the central city). The result of the test for the inner city was not statistically significant, but for the central city was statistically significant: inner city ( $X^2$  (11, N= 255) = 15.73, p= .151), central city ( $X^2$  (11, N= 529) = 107.45, p< .001). The test showed that the population value for the inner city was more than .005, but for the central city was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.



**Table 9-17: Residents' ideas of what the city council should do for regenerating the city (the four areas)**

| Factors                                       | Inner City   |            |            |            |
|---|--------------|------------|------------|------------|
|   | Crown Street |            | Hulme      |            |
|   | N            | %          | N          | %          |
| Improve unused buildings and derelict lands   | 12           | 10.3       | 15         | 11.3       |
| Develop more housing                          | 14           | 12.0       | 5          | 3.8        |
| Reduce traffic problems                       | 8            | 6.8        | 7          | 5.3        |
| Improve public transport                      | 11           | 9.4        | 12         | 9.0        |
| Provide more cultural and leisure facilities  | 8            | 6.8        | 13         | 9.8        |
| Make the city cleaner                         | 11           | 9.4        | 8          | 6.0        |
| Provide more green and open space             | 6            | 5.1        | 13         | 9.8        |
| Reduce crime and increase safety              | 8            | 6.8        | 12         | 9.0        |
| Generate more businesses and employment       | 7            | 6.0        | 12         | 9.0        |
| Provide more parking facilities               | 0            |            | 9          | 6.8        |
| Providing facilities for children & teenagers | 12           | 10.3       | 0          |            |
| Solve the problem of homeless and beggars     | 1            | 0.9        | 11         | 8.3        |
| Other   | 19           | 16.2       | 16         | 12.0       |
| <b>Total</b>                                  | <b>117</b>   | <b>100</b> | <b>133</b> | <b>100</b> |

**Crown Street:  $X^2$  (23.00), df (11), N (117), p (.018)**

**Hulme:  $X^2$  (10.55), df (11), N (133), p (.482)**

| Factors                                       | Central City  |            |                  |            |
|---|---------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|   | Merchant City |            | Whitworth Street |            |
|   | N             | %          | N                | %          |
| Improve unused buildings and derelict lands   | 60            | 24.2       | 33               | 11.7       |
| Develop more housing                          | 23            | 9.3        | 13               | 4.6        |
| Reduce traffic problems                       | 26            | 10.5       | 28               | 10.0       |
| Improve public transport                      | 22            | 8.9        | 19               | 6.8        |
| Provide more cultural and leisure facilities  | 19            | 7.7        | 24               | 8.5        |
| Make the city cleaner                         | 14            | 5.6        | 38               | 13.5       |
| Provide more green and open space             | 18            | 7.3        | 38               | 13.5       |
| Reduce crime and increase safety              | 8             | 3.2        | 38               | 13.5       |
| Generate more businesses and employment       | 9             | 3.6        | 0                |            |
| Provide more parking facilities               | 15            | 6.0        | 7                | 2.5        |
| Providing facilities for children & teenagers | 0             |            | 0                |            |
| Solve the problem of homeless and beggars     | 10            | 4.0        | 19               | 6.8        |
| Other   | 24            | 9.7        | 24               | 8.5        |
| <b>Total</b>                                  | <b>248</b>    | <b>100</b> | <b>281</b>       | <b>100</b> |

**Merchant City:  $X^2$  (101.16), df (11), N (248), p (.000)**

**Whitworth Street:  $X^2$  (43.79), df (10), N (281), p (.000)**

A one-sample chi-square test was conducted to assess the effectiveness of city council in regenerating the city in the four survey areas. The results of the test for Crown Street and Hulme were not statistically significant, but for Merchant City and Whitworth Street were statistically significant: Crown Street ( $X^2$  11, N= 117) = 23.00,  $p < .018$ ); Hulme ( $X^2$  (11, N= 133) = 10.55,  $p < .482$ ); Merchant City ( $X^2$  (11, N=248) = 101.16,  $p < .001$ ); Whitworth Street ( $X^2$  (10, N=281) = 43.79,  $p < .001$ ). The tests showed that the population value for Crown Street and Hulme was more than .005, but for Merchant City and Whitworth Street was less than .001, which was lower than the value of .005.