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Improving poor environments: identifying poor quality environments and devising a programme of intervention

Science Report: SC050018/SR4

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It's our job to make sure that air, land and water are looked after by everyone in today's society, so that tomorrow's generations inherit a cleaner, healthier world.

Our work includes tackling flooding and pollution incidents, reducing industry's impacts on the environment, cleaning up rivers, coastal waters and contaminated land, and improving wildlife habitats.

This report is the result of research commissioned and funded by the Environment Agency's Science Programme.

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Science at the Environment Agency

Science underpins the work of the Environment Agency, by providing an up to date understanding of the world about us, and helping us to develop monitoring tools and techniques to manage our environment as efficiently as possible.

The work of the Science Group is a key ingredient in the partnership between research, policy and operations that enables the Environment Agency to protect and restore our environment.

The Environment Agency's Science Group focuses on five main areas of activity:

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- **Providing advice**: To ensure that the knowledge, tools and techniques generated by the science programme are taken up by relevant decision-makers, policy makers and operational staff.

Steve Killeen   Head of Science

Executive summary

This report proposes a programme of intervention for improving poor environments. It presents findings from research undertaken by Brook Lyndhurst on behalf of the Environment Agency and the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra), to develop a mechanism for identifying – and intervening – in those locations where environmental quality is poorest.

This builds on parallel work in five case study areas which investigated the attitudes and perspectives of residents and other local stakeholders towards poor quality environments, which is reported in IPE Research Report 2: *Improving Poor Environments: Perceptions and attitudes of residents and other local stakeholders* (Brook Lyndhurst 2007).

This report reviews the lessons learned from existing initiatives targeting action on local areas to inform partnership programmes of action between local authorities, local service providers and communities.

A mapping tool is presented to help government, local service providers and communities identify where action needs to be targeted.

Accompanying research undertaken by Sustainable Futures (2007) sets out how learning and good practice can be developed and spread across areas and between policy makers, practitioners and communities (*Improving Poor Environments 3: The role of learning architectures in developing and spreading good practice*).

On the basis of these research strands, Brook Lyndhurst have designed and recommended programme of intervention for 'Improving Poor Environments' (IPE). This has both pilot and mainstream elements, and is intended to tackle poor quality local environments in both the short and longer term.

Background and context

While the overall quality of the UK's environment is improving, it can vary between different areas and communities. The causes of these inequalities are often complex, long-standing and cumulative. Often these environmental problems are caused by the actions of others who do not live in the affected community.

There has been a growing interest in and recognition of the relationship between deprivation and environmental quality. There is now a large body of UK-based evidence that shows that people who are socially and economically disadvantaged often live in the worst environments.

Reviews undertaken by Brook Lyndhurst (2004) for the ODPM Neighbourhood Renewal Unit and Lucas *et al.* (2005) for the Sustainable Development Research Network both found the following:

- environmental inequality is a real and substantive problem within the UK;
- patterns of environmental inequality are varied and complex, cautioning against over generalisations;

- nonetheless, problems of environmental inequality afflict many of our most deprived communities;

- environmental inequality has a detrimental effect on the quality of life experienced by members of those communities;

- the causes of these environmental inequalities are often complex, long-standing and cumulative;

- in some cases not only are deprived communities disproportionately exposed to environmental risk, they are also disproportionately vulnerable to its effects.

The Environment Agency and others are already taking action at a local level through local strategic and community planning partnerships, neighbourhood renewal and Communities First programmes. But further action is needed, as are efforts to coordinate this *systematically*.

The UK Sustainable Development Strategy provides a national framework for addressing environmental inequalities and commits the Government to:

> *develop a system for identifying the poorest quality local environments which need most enhancement to improve people's health and quality of life, which can be used as a basis for encouraging all local service providers through local authorities and LSP to focus on these areas, in consultation with the communities who live there, for example through Local Area Agreements.*
> (Defra 2005: 134)

Research components

The overall purpose of the work was:

- to assist the Environment Agency and Defra in developing a mechanism for identifying those locations where environmental quality is poorest, and/or where disadvantaged communities are most exposed to poor environmental quality;

- to devise a programme of sustained support and intervention so as to tackle environmental disadvantage in such locations.

The research comprised four elements:

1. Case study investigation of the attitudes and perspectives of residents and other local stakeholders towards poor quality environments (the subject of IPE Research Report no. 2, Brook Lyndhurst 2007).

2. Analysis of a variety of indicators of local environmental conditions, and the development of a mapping tool bringing these indicators together to support the identification of locations with poor local environmental quality and to enable local stakeholders to engage with local environmental issues.

3. Review of evaluations of 'Area-Based Initiatives', or ABIs, in the UK, across a variety of policy domains including regeneration and health.

4. In addition to these elements undertaken by Brook Lyndhurst, a parallel exercise, conducted by the consultancy Sustainable Futures, investigated possible mechanisms

for developing and sharing the good practice that might emerge from the IPE programme.

Key findings

Developing a tool for identifying Poor Quality Environments

This section summarises our analysis of a variety of indicators of local environmental conditions. It outlines how we developed a mapping tool to bring these indicators together; both to support the identification of locations with poor local environmental quality and to enable local stakeholders to engage with local environmental issues.

Background

In one sense, there is a superabundance of environmental data, statistics and indicators available for local areas in England and Wales, whether through the Index of Multiple Deprivation, Neighbourhood Statistics, Best Value Performance Indicators, Local Quality of Life indicators or through the Environment Agency's own data.

However, and as Brook Lyndhurst remarked in a report to the Neighbourhood Renewal Unit in 2004:

> *The superabundance is more apparent than real – progressively closer inspection of both statistics and indicators reveals more weaknesses. Data are collected in different ways by different organisations; data refer to different and inconsistent geographical areas; data are available for some places and not others; data are rarely available for very small geographical units (of the size typically used in defining areas of social exclusion, for example); data are in many cases gathered but not collated, or collated but not analysed, or analysed but not used.*

The challenge of identifying particular locations in which the IPE programme should operate is therefore a considerable one.

Approach

Our approach to the challenge was thus a pragmatic one, with the following 'guiding principles':

- **Definition** – There is no fixed or widely agreed definition of 'environmental inequalities', so a mechanism is needed that allows for both evolution over time, and that acknowledges variation in perspectives.

- **Choice of indicators** – It is important to select a manageable number of indicators, spread across the range of issues encompassed by the notion of 'poor local environments', while acknowledging data quality.

- **Composite indicator** – An overall indicator poses a wide range of methodological problems, but is implicit to any method for identifying particular locations on an 'overall' basis. The use of weights to amalgamate indicators is thus imperative.

- **Weights** – Weights provide a means of amalgamating indicators in ways that reflect relative importance. Relative importance is highly subjective, however, so a mechanism is required to capture variation in stakeholder values.

- **User needs** – Key prospective users of the IPE indicators operate at national, regional and local level. Judgements on the relative importance of environmental factors at national level will not hold for each and every location. A system is needed that allows both top-down and bottom-up perspectives to be taken into account, and in such a way that is easily accessible for non-specialists.

- **Number of locations** – The indicators and mapping tool need to be 'fit for purpose' so as to identify a particular number of locations. Given the Environment Agency's ambition to work with a pre-determined number of local partnerships, the target number of locations is currently set at 50. The system is not required to distinguish a set of locations that are 'different' from other locations, in the way – for example – that the 88 NRU areas were identified.

- **Size of IPE locations** – The system needs to use data at small levels of resolution (Super Output Areas) but should not presume that the IPE programme should focus on areas of a fixed size – in some cases, neighbourhood-level initiatives will be appropriate, in others district-wide approaches will be appropriate.

- **Top-down/bottom-up** – Given the weighting issues, variation in local environmental circumstances, differing user-needs and the variability in the size of possible IPE locations, the system needs to allow the centre (the 'top-down') to use the indicators to allow identification of districts/boroughs where environmental circumstances are considered to be poor, and local partnerships (the 'bottom-up') to work with the same indicators to identify particular foci for effort at the sub-district level.

- **Designation and blight** – the use and presentation of the material must be sensitive to the risks of 'blight' through designation as having a 'poor quality environment'; the top-down/bottom-up model is a key element of achieving this.

The indicators

In order to identify the poorest quality environments in need of most environmental enhancement, the Environment Agency proposed a small and manageable set of indicators reflecting national and local environmental priorities. The proposed indicators build on those issues identified by residents and local stakeholders in the case study areas, as well as those already used by government to identify areas of multiple deprivation. Drawing on work undertaken by the Environment Agency in 2005, and in the light of the principles just referred to, we have assembled a dataset comprising the following indicators:

- ambient air pollution (PM_{10})
- industrial airborne releases (sulphur dioxide, SO_2)
- green space
- biodiversity
- derelict land
- flood risk
- river water quality
- street cleanliness
- housing in poor condition
- fly-tipping.

These indicators, together with the Index of Multiple Deprivation (for comparative purposes) were then loaded into a mapping environment, described below.

Mapping

A Multi-Overlay Mapping tool (MOM) has been constructed, incorporating all the indicators listed above, and designed in the light of the principles described earlier. User-controlled weighting frames enable the data to be combined and then represented graphically in a variety of ways. The MOM tool has two principal applications:

- First, it provides a means whereby Defra and the Environment Agency, using a commonly agreed set of weights,[1] can identify the areas of England and Wales where poor environmental quality is most pronounced. From this 'central' or 'top-down' perspective, the 'designation' is at the level of districts/boroughs. The system has been configured so as to identify the 50 districts where, under any given weighting frame, environmental conditions are poorest.

- Second, the MOM tool can be used by local stakeholders to further refine the precise specification of target areas – to a spatial level considered appropriate at that local level. This may be as small as a single 'neighbourhood' or estate, or as large as an entire district – bringing together not only the data represented by the indicators, but also other data (hard and soft) that is available at local level.

The approach thus embodies the notion of top-down and bottom-up. The approach is intended to enable national organisations – as the enablers and guiding force of the agenda – to specify/select up to a certain point, and for local stakeholders to make more precise, localised choices, consistent with the idea of devolved local decision-making and accountability. Furthermore, the system has been designed in such a way as to be easily updated, through the addition or replacement of alternative indicators.

Lessons from existing Area-Based Initiatives

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[1] Brook Lyndhurst has recommended a set of three weighting frames.

ABIs have been trialled across most government departments covering a broad range of themes, including health, community engagement, public space, regeneration, employment, crime, energy and business.

We make two overarching observations about the current experience of ABIs:

- There is no 'agreed' single model for designing an ABI. In particular, recent literature on targeted approaches to inequalities makes a clear distinction between ABIs which are essentially *additional funding streams* instigated centrally and administered regionally or locally and ABIs which are formed on the basis of local decisions to target areas or groups differentially from *within mainstream local budgets.* This section looks at both.

- The overall success of ABIs to date has been varied and patchy.

The literature points to a wide range of issues that influence the operation and success of an ABI, which vary in their importance according to local circumstances. In this sense there is no definitive set of success factors that can be readily applied and transferred from place to place. Nonetheless, seven common and key themes do emerge that need to be borne in mind in the design of any ABI. These are:

(i) **Understanding the local 'state of play'**, such as understanding local demographic characteristics, environmental risks, local political/decision-making structures and local community networks.

(ii) **The nature and strength of external partnerships** is critical and can involve engagement with community groups, local politicians, steering groups, agencies, public bodies and businesses. The role that community groups play in the success of ABIs is one of the most prominent themes highlighted in many of the evaluations. The Home Office (2004) review of community involvement in ABIs states that it fosters social cohesion and capital, leads to better planning and delivery of services, and ensures decisions have legitimacy and local 'buy in'.

(iii) **Staffing and diversity**. The National Evaluation of New Deal for Communities (2003) cited the recruitment, retention and skills of staff as one of the most critical problems affecting delivery of the programmes, and this conclusion is mirrored in many of the other evaluations.

(iv) **Location** has an important bearing on the outcomes of programmes. Delimiting the boundaries of ABIs is therefore a highly significant issue, but something that needs to be decided on an individual basis.

(v) **Duration, exit strategies and 'mainstreaming'** of area based initiatives.

(vi) **Design** and the provision of adequate finances, flexible management and appropriate project aims.

(vii) **'Bending' mainstream services** involves using or tapping into existing funding at the local level, as opposed to additional funding streams instigated nationally or regionally. So, for example, a local authority may explicitly recognise variations in deprivation across its wards and target services accordingly, for example through Local Area Agreements.

Across these seven issues, the most important is that of flexibility/ adaptability towards local contexts. It underlies every aspect of ABI design, structure, delivery, engagement and development, and failure to be flexible/adaptable is a significant and regular contributor to failure.

Developing and spreading good practice

There is an extensive range of activity across the public sector that is seeking to enable organisations, both alone and in partnership, to improve their performance through learning approaches. Much of this activity is focused on enabling adaptation, either to local context, or to a rapidly changing context, or to the demands of new ways of working thrown up by partnership, or to some combination of all of these.

From this review, a number of themes emerge that we consider relevant to the design of the IPE programme. These are:

(i)   **A significant shift in approach from training to interactive learning** where practitioner knowledge is as important to learning as knowledge brought in from outside. The review highlighted several reasons for this shift:

- conventional methods alone are not sufficient;

- there is a need for learning and management to be closely linked;

- policy signals are also starting to show recognition of the value of new, more interactive learning approaches.

(ii)   **The development of local 'infrastructures for learning'** to provide a more coherent and systematic approach, drawing on approaches such as action learning, coaching and mentoring, learning protocols, large groups events and evaluation, and visits and study tours.

(iii)   **The application of interactive learning approaches to spreading good practice**, such as communities of practice, e-learning, evaluation frameworks, exemplars and learning networks. Across the public services, spreading good practice has proved hard to do. Selecting exemplars of 'best practice' and holding them up for others to emulate, as in the Beacons model applied to schools, NHS projects or local government, has proved less successful than hoped. In looking at how different public sector domains are addressing this challenge, the review again found substantial evidence of interactive learning approaches being adopted to help extend good practice beyond the immediate 'local' practitioner group.

(iv)   **National design and support for local learning approaches** is needed to link learning and action and to feedback into future policy development. Many public sector domains are creating 'learning infrastructures' which draw on a blend of approaches.

Recommendations for devising a programme of intervention for 'Improving Poor Environments'

Drawing on the research strands presented in this report and IPE Research Report no. 2, we have recommended a programme of intervention – 'Improving Poor Environments', or IPE – with both pathfinder and mainstream elements, intended to tackle poor quality local environments in both the short and longer term.

The IPE programme has been designed in full acknowledgement of the fact that a great number of local projects have been, or are presently, addressing local environmental conditions, and that the Environment Agency and a wide range of other organisations have been instrumental in bringing these about. The distinguishing feature of the proposed IPE programme is the attempt to develop a *systematic approach*, in terms of identification of locations, methods and types of intervention, and appropriate learning mechanisms.

The full details of our proposition can be found in Section 5 of the Main Report, presented under two main headings: design issues and specification. Here we summarise briefly the key elements of the proposition.

(a) Design issues

We identified 11 design issues for designing a programme to improve poor environments:

1. Ensure **definitions and designations of poor** environments are sensitive, appropriate and understood.

2. Take on board **residents' and other stakeholder perspectives** throughout the development and implementation of programmes.

3. Use the lessons from evaluations of existing **Area-Based Initiatives**.

4. Achieve synergy with (rather than duplication of) **existing programmes and funding** streams

5. Local Strategic Partnerships and Local Area Agreements will be central to building on – and developing **multi-agency working.**

6. Consider and be flexible to the relationships between agencies and organisations at different **spatial scales.**

7. Balance 'top down' approaches with respecting **local variation** in environmental conditions, projects, agencies, communities and their relationships.

8. Consider the **timescales** involved in understanding environmental inequalities, engendering trust and commitment and focusing action.

9. Capitalise upon future **funding and resources** for supporting a programme of action.

10. Put in place a bespoke **learning infrastructure** to support the roll out of a wider programme of intervention and development of expertise and capacity.

11. **Monitor and review** in order to evaluate and capitalise on opportunities for understanding cumulative environmental disadvantage.

(b) Specification

Given the design issues, the proposed IPE programme has the following elements:

- **Partnership process** – The process of identifying opportunities for partnership programmes of action will need to involve partners in working with the mapping tool, developing a joint understanding of the impacts for peoples' health and quality of life, integrating research needs and monitoring and evaluation requirements and, where appropriate, seeking suitable funding. As an overarching principle it will be important for the Environment Agency to understand which solutions it will lead on, which solutions will require a partnership approach, and which can be left to others.

- **Action** – A very wide range of possible actions could emerge from the partnership processes outlined. The IPE programme, it is proposed, should therefore have a very simple set of guidelines, or rules, to delimit such actions. For example, any action must be concerned with at least three issues from a predetermined list. The possible actions we can envisage include capital development projects, training for local residents to conduct their own monitoring and action, funding 'planning for real' exercises around new physical developments, or school-based or faith-based outreach projects.

- **The support materials** – So as to enable any given local partnership the means to progress this agenda, and in the absence of a 'from the centre incentive', a range of support materials is proposed, including background materials, the mapping tool alongside user guidance, information on funding sources and examples on which to base learning. Two other factors are worthy of note: the need for 'helping hands' to play a role at key points in the process (e.g. to facilitate partnership dialogue); and a coordination of efforts by key organisations as part of the roll-out.

- **The pathfinders** – The pathfinders will combine a focus both on 'learning by doing' and on research. The aim of 'learning by doing' will be to bring about positive change in the pathfinder locations and subsequently, to facilitate the roll-out of the IPE programme. The research element will be an opportunity to extend understanding of cumulative impacts, building on a recent study commissioned by the Environment Agency (Stephens *et al.* 2007).

- **The roll-out** – Propositions for the roll-out of the IPE programme are, inevitably, less well developed at this stage. In broad terms, and assuming the IPE involves targeted effort in 50 locations around England and Wales, a background set by national guidance and data will enable regional and then local partnerships to engage in the process of identifying those areas most needing structured intervention to address environmental inequalities. In broad terms, this process could/should take about a year,[2] during which time the two pathfinders will have had the opportunity to test the proposed support material and develop the proposed learning infrastructure.

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[2] This is roughly the amount of time allocated to the 88 NRU areas to undertake a similar exercise.

Contents

1 Introduction

This report presents the findings of research, conducted by Brook Lyndhurst, on the improvement of poor environments.

It sits within a wider programme of work, led by the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra) and the Environment Agency and others, to identify and address environmental inequalities in the UK.

This report (IPE Research Report 4) specifically concerns a series of research and development exercises in support of a forthcoming programme of interventions to address environmental inequalities. Participatory research with residents and local stakeholders in five case study areas is the subject of an accompanying report (IPE Research Report 2), presented separately.

1.1 Background and objectives

While the overall quality of the UK's environment is improving, it can vary between different areas and communities. The causes of these inequalities are often complex, long-standing and cumulative. Often these environmental problems are caused by the actions of others who do not live in the affected community.

There has been a growing interest in and recognition of the relationship between deprivation and environmental quality – there is now a large body of UK-based evidence that shows that people who are socially and economically disadvantaged often live in the worst environments.

> *Historically, the environment in Britain has not been much of a civil rights matter … but we need to address the broader debate. We need to address environmental equity* (Michael Meacher, speech as Minister for the Environment, 2002, quoted in Brook Lyndhurst 2004)

> *There has been a lack of regard for the environmental concerns of disadvantaged communities, based to a degree on the presumption that the environment is a middle class issue* (Sustainable Development Commission, 2003)

> *The environment, not just globally, but locally, in our towns and cities, is overwhelmingly an issue of concern for the poorest citizens in our communities … [who] live in the worst housing, and are most affected by traffic pollution, live closest to landfill sites and have the worst graffiti and litter problems* (Tony Blair, UK Prime Minister, speech to launch Defra's third annual report on sustainable development in the UK, 24 February 2003)

> *Social justice demands that we act … Locally, poor environmental quality leads to spirals of degradation, promotes fear of crime and exacerbates the decline of neighbourhoods* (Margaret Beckett, then Secretary of State for the

Environment, speech to Environment Agency National Conference – Environment 2003, 28 October 2003)

Reviews of the evidence base undertaken by Brook Lyndhurst (2004) for the ODPM Neighbourhood Renewal Unit (NRU) and Lucas *et al.* (2005) for the Sustainable Development Research Network (SDRN) both found the following:

- environmental inequality is a real and substantive problem within the UK;

- patterns of environmental inequality are varied and complex, cautioning against over generalisations;

- nonetheless, problems of environmental inequality afflict many of our most deprived communities;

- environmental inequality has a detrimental effect on the quality of life experienced by members of those communities;

- the causes of these environmental inequalities are often complex, long-standing and cumulative;

- in some cases not only are deprived communities disproportionately exposed to environmental risk, they are also disproportionately vulnerable to its effects.

In response, Defra and the Environment Agency proposed the development of a system for identifying 'the poorest quality environments that need most enhancement to improve people's health and quality of life' (Defra 2005: 134).

The Environment Agency and others are already taking action at a local level through local strategic and community planning partnerships, neighbourhood renewal and Communities First programmes. But further action is needed.

The UK Sustainable Development Strategy provides a national framework for addressing environmental inequalities committed to:

> *develop a system for identifying the poorest quality local environments which need most enhancement to improve people's health and quality of life, which can be used as a basis for encouraging all local service providers through local authorities and LSP to focus on these areas, in consultation with the communities who live there, for example through Local Area Agreements* (Defra 2005: 134)

The Brook Lyndhurst work will contribute to both the identification of poor quality environments and the efforts required to address them. Indeed, the three objectives of the Brook Lyndhurst work are as follows:

1. To undertake research with residents, community organisations and local service providers in five case study areas to identify potential good practice in addressing cumulative negative environmental impacts.

2. To assist the Environment Agency and Defra in developing a mechanism for identifying those locations where environmental quality is poorest, and/or where disadvantaged communities are most exposed to poor environmental quality.

3. In the light of objectives 1 and 2 – and supplementary research on Area-Based Initiatives (ABIs) and learning structures – to devise a programme of sustained support and intervention so as to tackle environmental disadvantage in such locations.

This report is concerned with objectives 2 and 3. Objective 1 is the subject of an accompanying report (Brook Lyndhurst 2007).

1.2 Research components

This report draws on a number of work components. Each of these components was conducted as a discrete piece of work. They were then, alongside the findings from IPE Research Report no. 2, drawn together to form the basis for our proposed programme of action. This report comprises three elements:

- Section 2 – Review of the recent history of ABIs in the UK, drawn from a review of formal evaluations undertaken of ABIs across a variety of policy domains including regeneration and health.

- Section 3 – Analysis of a variety of indicators of local environmental conditions, and the development of a mapping tool bringing these indicators together to support the identification of locations with poor local environmental quality and to enable local stakeholders to engage with local environmental issues.

- Section 4 – In addition to these elements undertaken by Brook Lyndhurst, a parallel exercise, undertaken by the consultancy Sustainable Futures, investigated possible mechanisms for learning and sharing the lessons that might emerge from the Improving Poor Environments (IPE) programme, both among practitioners and the policy and research community (Sustainable Futures 2007). Key findings from this research are summarised in this section.

- Section 5 – This concluding section draws together the research components to set out our recommended IPE programme.

The appendices contain the following sources of information:

- Bibliography for the ABI review (Appendix 1).
- Top 50 districts under different weighting frames (Appendix 2).

2 Developing a tool for identifying poor quality environments

This section presents our analysis of a variety of indicators of local environmental conditions, and outlines the development of a mapping tool bringing these indicators together both to support the identification of locations with poor local environmental quality and to enable local stakeholders to engage with local environmental issues.

2.1 Background

It is important to begin by considering the issue of '**indicators**' at a general level.

Indicators are distinct from data or statistics. While data and statistics are in some senses 'abstract' – that is to say, they comprise no more and no less than an objective measure of a particular variable (whether it is unemployment, air quality or share prices), indicators are always concerned with communication. Indicators invariably take the form of data or statistics, but their selection and use value is predicated on the particular purpose that is intended for them. Data and statistics can, in principle at least, be collected with little regard for what might be done with the material. Indicators, on the other hand, only become indicators when they are specifically communicating something to someone.

Thus, definitions of indicators typically take the form of:

> *Indicators are … powerful tools which can help focus public attention on what sustainable development means and to give a broad overview of whether we are achieving 'a better quality of life for everyone, now and for generations to come'* (DETR 1999)

> *Indicators condense large amounts of information into manageable and meaningful bits. They need to be relevant, scientifically acceptable, and representative of the information they summarise, but they must also reach the people who will use them* (International Institute for Sustainable Development, 2005)

> *Indicators are useful tools because they simplify and aggregate complex information, make issues obvious by means of measurement, and communicate information about objectives and outcomes* (RICS Foundation 2001/02)

An indicator set is therefore a designed entity, which – if it is to be of any use[3] – needs, above all, to do two things: it needs to have a specific purpose; and it needs to have an intended audience.

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[3] Groundwork UK, together with Barclays plc and NEF produced *Prove It! Measuring the Effect of Neighbourhood Renewal on Local People* (2000) in which they suggest that 'if you can't imagine what to do with an indicator once it has data then think again'.

Second, by way of background, it is important to acknowledge the current 'state of play' with regard to **specific indicators** of local environmental (in)equality, and their relationship to other local indicators, particularly those concerned with social (in)equalities.

Given the relative novelty of the issues surrounding environmental (in)equalities, it is unsurprising that the research base is not as well developed as, say, the domain of social exclusion. Nevertheless, emerging empirical research continues to support the overall conclusion that deprivation and poor environmental quality are linked, most notably in terms of:

- **Air quality** – A study for Defra, the National Assembly for Wales and the DOEIN established that for London, Belfast and Birmingham higher pollutant concentrations of nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) and particulates (PM_{10}) are found in deprived areas. Furthermore, recent research by the Environment Agency (2003a) across England also demonstrates that, for five key pollutants, the highest concentrations are found in the most deprived wards. The social distribution of NO_2 is typical, showing that people in the 10% most deprived wards are typically exposed to concentrations 41% higher than wards of average deprivation. However, it is also noteworthy that the least deprived wards experience slightly more exposure than wards of average deprivation (Pye et al, 2001).

- **Integrated Pollution Control (IPC) sites** – Research by the Environment Agency (Walker et al, 2003) and Friends of the Earth (2001) demonstrates that deprived communities are more likely to live near industrial sites. In the FoE research, it was estimated that 66% of carcinogenic emissions occur in the 10% most deprived wards, compared to just 8% in the 50% least deprived wards combined.

- **Flood risk** – There is a strong relationship between deprivation and the sea flooding; there are disproportionate concentrations of the most deprived populations in zones at risk from sea flooding, particularly in Yorkshire and Humberside and London (Burningham *et al*. 2006).

- **Road accidents** – Research for the Department for Transport demonstrates that children in the lowest socio-economic group are five times more likely to die in a pedestrian accident than children in the highest social class. Furthermore, the DfT also note a possible link between deprivation and casualty rates for all road user types and age groups. This is currently subject to more research and better quality data (Department for Transport, 2006).

- **Ethnicity** – Although not subject to detailed research, there is a suggestion that Black and Asian Minority Ethnic (BAME) residents are more likely to suffer environmental exclusion over and above the observed relationship with deprivation. Research for the DfT, for example, shows that – irrespective of social class – Asian children are more likely than white children to be injured in road accidents (Department for Transport, 2006).

- **Local environmental quality** – There appears to be a particularly strong relationship between levels of deprivation and the *local* environment. The English Housing Condition Survey (DETR 1998), for example, reported that in the 88 Neighbourhood Renewal Funding priority areas litter, rubbish and dumping was experienced almost four-fold compared with elsewhere (40% versus 14%). Further, vandalism was experienced by 28% of households compared with only 7% in other areas.

It is still important to note that caveats apply to such findings. For example, the research has only been undertaken for a relatively limited number of environmental factors. Furthermore,

the evidence reveals that the most deprived areas do not *always* have the worst environments, nor do the least deprived areas *always* have the best environments. For example, the Environment Agency research finds that air pollution in Wales – in contrast to England – is inversely related to deprivation; that is, exposure is higher in affluent areas (Walker et al, 2003).

The relationship between environmental exclusion and deprivation is in fact strongest in *certain* areas and for *certain* issues; for example, air pollution 'hot-spots' are often found in 'clusters' of deprived wards. Such nuances are important if policy attempts to address poor environmental quality in deprived areas are to be successful.

While evidence for 'objective' correlations between environmental quality and deprivation is still emerging, the 'subjective' association according to public opinion is already strongly established, most evidently in terms of liveability.

Liveability concerns are consistently felt more severely in deprived areas. Taking litter as an example, and drawing on MORI survey data, while one in seven (14%) report litter as a 'serious' issue nationally, as do one in five in London (21%), the proportion rises substantially within specific parts of London: 24% in North Lambeth, 42% in Enfield's Neighbourhood Renewal area, and 56% in Northumberland Park in Haringey (MORI, 2002).

Likewise, the Survey of English Housing (2001) demonstrates the same pattern across a wide range of issues. The gap between deprived and other areas is evident across most issues, most notably in terms of *crime*, *litter and rubbish*, and *vandalism* (ODPM, 2001).

The general position is thus one in which, in one sense, there is a superabundance of environmental data, statistics and indicators available for local areas in England and Wales, whether through the Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD), Neighbourhood Statistics, Best Value Performance Indicators (BVPIs), Local Quality of Life indicators or through the Environment Agency's own data.

However, and as Brook Lyndhurst (2004) remarked in a report to the NRU:

> *The superabundance is more apparent than real – progressively closer inspection of both statistics and indicators reveals more weaknesses. Data are collected in different ways by different organisations; data refer to different and inconsistent geographical areas; data are available for some places and not others; data are rarely available for very small geographical units (of the size typically used in defining areas of social exclusion, for example); data are in many cases gathered but not collated, or collated but not analysed, or analysed but not used*

The challenge of identifying particular locations in which the IPE programme should operate is therefore a considerable one.

2.2   Approach

Our approach to the design challenge was thus a pragmatic one, with the following 'guiding principles':

- **Definition** – There is no fixed or widely agreed definition of 'environmental inequalities', so a mechanism is needed that both allows for evolution over time and acknowledges variation in the perspectives of different stakeholders.

- **Choice of indicators** – It is important to select a manageable number of indicators, spread across the range of issues encompassed by the notion of 'poor local environments', while acknowledging the importance of data quality.

- **Composite indicator** – An overall indicator poses a wide range of methodological problems, but is implicit to any method for identifying particular locations on an 'overall' basis. The use of weights to amalgamate indicators is thus imperative.

- **Weights** – Weights provide a means of amalgamating indicators in ways that reflect relative importance. Relative importance is highly subjective, however, so a mechanism is required to capture variation in stakeholder values.

- **User needs** – Key prospective users of the IPE indicators operate at national, regional and local levels. Judgements on the relative importance of environmental factors at national level will not hold for each and every location. A system is needed that allows both top-down and bottom-up perspectives to be taken into account, and in such a way that is easily accessible for non-specialists.

- **Number of locations** – The indicators and mapping tool need to be 'fit for purpose' so as to identify a particular number of locations. Given the Environment Agency's ambition to work with a pre-determined number of local partnerships, the target number of locations is currently set at 50. The system is not required to distinguish a set of locations that are 'different' from other locations, in the way – for example – that the 88 NRU areas were identified.

- **Size of locations** – The system needs to use data at small levels of resolution (Super Output Areas, SOAs) but should not presume that the IPE programme should focus on areas of a fixed size – in some cases, neighbourhood-level initiatives will be appropriate, in others district-wide approaches will be appropriate.

- **Top-down/bottom-up** – Given the weighting issues, variation in local environmental circumstances, differing user needs and the variability in the size of possible IPE locations, the system needs to allow the centre (the 'top-down') to use the indicators to allow identification of districts/boroughs where environmental circumstances are considered to be poor, and local partnerships (the 'bottom-up') to work with the same indicators to identify particular foci for effort at the sub-district level.

- **Designation and blight** – the use and presentation of the material must be sensitive to the risks of 'blight' through designation as having a 'poor quality environment'; the top-down/bottom-up model is a key element of achieving this.

In summary, the choice and deployment of indicators, and the mapping system developed especially for this assignment in which those indicators reside, needed to be 'fit for purpose'.

In the short term, this means a pragmatic approach, acknowledging the imperfections of data and the possible perils of misuse. In particular, while the system developed for this assignment can, and does, identify particular districts as having 'poor local environments', **it does not and cannot do so in any definitive way**. Continuous attention, development and improvement will be needed if the system is to fulfil its potential, but it will always be the case that caution will be required in interpreting, and using, its outputs.

2.3   The indicators

There is an infinite array of possible indicator sets that could reasonably be used to identify areas in which local environmental quality is poor.

In Brook Lyndhurst's earlier work for the NRU, for example, a provisional design for a composite indicator set included 18 indicators, under three broad headings: 'access to environmental goods and services'; 'protection of the environment'; and 'place (liveability)'. Proposed indicators included 'warmth', 'food', 'water', 'public space' and 'fear of crime' (Brook Lyndhurst 2004).

For any given indicator, a wide range of potential measures are available. Again, in our NRU work, and for illustrative purposes, we identified the following:

Warmth

- number of households in fuel poverty
- % of single elderly households experiencing fuel poverty
- number of households who receive emergency fuel payment
- number of deaths from hypothermia
- % of total housing stock lacking central heating/adequate heating
- % of (social) housing stock that is energy efficient.

Public space

- number of derelict sites in area and total area of derelict sites
- graffiti clean up rates/areas free to acceptable standard
- number of overflowing bins in a neighbourhood
- number of litter bins on the street and frequency of emptying
- proportion of land in area that is significantly or heavily deposited with litter and rubbish
- amount of litter collected by street cleaners off streets
- number of rat complaints
- proportion of people who use public spaces
- number of abandoned or burnt out vehicles
- number of days after report of abandoned vehicle to clean up
- % of houses boarded up
- % of empty homes
- % of pavements inspected containing dog fouling
- number of prosecutions for dog fouling per 10,000 population.

Building on this work, and drawing on wider experiences within the UK (such as the IMD, BVPI, etc), international experiences (notably the work of the National Environmental Justice Advisory Council in the USA) and its internal data, the Environment Agency undertook a programme of indicator analysis and development during 2005.

This work paid particular attention to the need to have a clear justification for the inclusion or exclusion of a particular indicator, particularly in terms of the distinction between 'proximity' functions (e.g. to green space) and 'risk' functions (e.g. exposure to poor air quality).

Drawing on Fairburn *et al*. (2005), the Environment Agency work noted that for risk to be the basis of the assessment there must be an established pathway between the environmental factor and an effect. For some of the environmental factors, such as derelict land, the risk is unclear. There are a number of ways in which derelict land may have an impact on people and communities, both positive and negative. Fairburn *et al*. discuss how derelict land that is also contaminated may have potential impacts on health through extended and varied pollution pathways. They cite a reference that examined the role of derelict land in the Ruhr, Germany, which suggested that the most significant pathway was the contribution to PM_{10} particles in the air. On the other hand, derelict land can contribute positively to the environment by increasing biodiversity and recreational use. On landfill, Fairburn *et al*. cite the well-known study by Elliot *et al*. (2001) which, when referring to human exposure via dispersion of contaminated air, soil and water (leaching, runoff), and also by animals and birds, comments that 'evidence for any substantial exposures is largely lacking'.

The difference between proximity and risk can be illustrated through two examples. Based on the 2003 SO_2 emissions from large combustion plant, assessed under the Habitats Directive, one can calculate the annual average ground-level concentration from these sources using a dispersion model. The plotted concentration field shows a pattern, with zero ground-level concentrations near to major emitting sources (possibly exaggerated), because plumes from tall stacks tend to rise above the mixing layer. This is an illustrative example where risk derived from a dispersion model gives an effect that is different from an approach based on a measure of proximity (distance from source). (One can imagine situations where, for the same source, two different proximity functions are used. A health risk assessment for an incinerator would rely on a proximity function based on emissions, dispersion, concentrations and health risks, whereas a high quality of life index would be based on perceived public health concerns, which might only involve a simple distance weighting.)

For landfill, by way of a second example, there is no obvious way of assessing risk, so a simple distance-related proximity function has to be used to assess the environmental effect. The question raised is what kind of proximity relation should be used (e.g. the inverse distance from the source to the receptor, the inverse distance squared, etc.)

Building on the Environment Agency's previous work in 2005, and drawing on evidence from the case studies, showing the relative importance of environmental issues at a community level, Brook Lyndhurst compiled an indicator set for the 32,484 SOAs of England as follows:

- ambient air pollution (PM_{10})
- industrial airborne releases (SO_2)
- green space
- biodiversity
- derelict land
- flood risk
- river water quality
- street cleanliness
- housing in poor condition
- fly-tipping.

This set of 10 indicators is judged to comprise a 'balanced' set, across the various dimensions set out by the 'guiding principles' listed above and in the light of the Environment Agency research during 2005.

Rather fewer data were obtained (in the time available) for the 1,896 SOAs in Wales, and at this stage the indicator set is restricted (for Environment Agency rather than Welsh Assembly Government purposes) to the following:

- ambient air pollution (PM_{10})
- industrial airborne releases (SO_2)
- flood risk
- river water quality.

It remains the case that alternative judgements could be reached about the inclusion of other indicators – a composite air quality index, road traffic accidents, quality of green space rather than proximity, and so forth. Continuous work of discussion, review and amendment will be needed to maintain and enhance the indicator sets. The Welsh dataset, in particular, will need further enhancement so that full use can be made of the data.

Each indicator is explained below.

1. Ambient air pollution – PM_{10}

Ambient air pollution is based on a calculation of the PM_{10} concentrations across the country at a 1 x 1 km resolution, then converted to SOA. PM_{10} (particulate matter with a diameter of less than 10 micrometres) is the pollutant with the largest health effect and it dominates other pollution effects.

This figure represents a measure of 'relative harm' to populations based on concentrations of PM_{10}. It has no particular units.
A **high** figure is 'bad' and is shown in the mapping tool (see below) with darker dots.

Source: Environment Agency (2003a)

2. Industrial airborne releases – SO_2

The industrial airborne release indicator consists of SO_2 releases. SO_2 is the main air pollutant which the Environment Agency regulates. This has been calculated at a 1 x 1 km resolution for major sources and then converted to SOA.

This figure, too, is a calculation of 'relative harm' on the basis of releases to air of SO_2. Once again, it has no particular units.

A **high** figure is 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: Environment Agency (2003b)

3. Green space

These figures are percentages showing the proportion of each SOA that is either a garden or public green space.

A **low** figure is therefore 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: ODPM/GLUD (2001)

4. Biodiversity

Biodiversity has been estimated from the Land Cover 2000 database, which provides the percentage cover in each 1 x 1 km grid square of the following land cover categories: broadleaf woodland, coastal, conifers, open water, semi-natural habitats and upland. These are added to give the fraction of habitat deemed to favour biodiversity in each 1 x 1 km grid square. This has then been converted to show the proportion (%) of each SOA deemed to favour biodiversity.

A **low** figure is therefore 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: ODPM/GLUD (2001)

5. Derelict land

These figures are 'weighted kilometres' – that is, a measure of average distance from the centre of an SOA to one or more derelict land sites.

A **low** score is therefore 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: ODPM/GLUD (2001)

6. Flood risk

These data show the proportion of the land area of each SOA that is subject to high, medium and low flood risk.

These data have been calculated from the 10 x 10 m grid square NaFRA dataset.

A **high** score is therefore 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: Environment Agency (2006)

7. River water quality

As with derelict land, these figures are 'weighted kilometres' – that is, calculation of distance from the centre of each SOA to rivers that, based on both chemical and biological sampling, have been graded as D, E or F (i.e. not good).

A **low** figure is therefore 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: Environment Agency General Quality Assessment database (2003e)

8. Street cleanliness

The base data in this case are at district level, so for present purposes each SOA within a district has been allocated the same figure. The figures are percentages, describing the proportion of 'relevant land area' (broadly streets and roads) covered in 'litter and detritus' by the ENCAMS survey and used as BV199 in the BVPIs.

Thus, a **high** figure is 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: Audit Commission (2003)

9. Housing in poor condition

These figures are based on the IMD 2004 data (from the 2001 survey) on 'social and private housing in poor condition'.

The data are percentages. A **high** figure is 'bad' and is shown with darker dots.

Source: ONS (2004)

10. Fly-tipping

Figures are, as with Street cleanliness, district data assumed constant across constituent SOAs, and show 'numbers of incidents' per 1,000 of the population.

A **high** score is 'bad' and is shown in darker dots.

Source: Environment Agency/Defra Flycapture database (2004/05)

These indicators, together with the overall IMD (for comparative purposes) were then loaded into a mapping environment, as described below.

2.4   Mapping

A Multi-Overlay Mapping tool (MOM) has been constructed, incorporating all the indicators listed above, and designed in the light of the principles described earlier.

The MOM tool has two principal applications:

- First, it provides a means whereby Defra and the Environment Agency, using a commonly agreed set of weights,[4] can identify the areas of England and Wales where poor environmental quality is most pronounced. From this 'central' or 'top-down' perspective, the 'designation' is at the level of districts/boroughs. The system has been configured so as to identify the 50 districts where, under any given weighting frame, environmental conditions are poorest.

- Second, the MOM tool can be used by local stakeholders to further refine the precise specification of target areas – to a spatial level considered appropriate at that local level.

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[4]   Brook Lyndhurst has recommended a set of three weighting frames.

Improving poor environments: Identifying poor quality environments and devising a programme of intervention

This may be as small as a single 'neighbourhood' or estate, or as large as an entire district – bringing together not only the data represented by the indicators, but also other data (hard and soft) that is available at local level.

The approach thus embodies the notion of top-down and bottom-up. The approach is intended to enable national organisations – as the enablers and guiding force of the agenda – to specify/select up to a certain point, and for local stakeholders to make more precise, localised choices, consistent with the idea of devolved local decision-making and accountability. Furthermore, the system has been designed in such a way as to be easily updated, through the addition or replacement of alternative indicators.

The operation and functions of MOM are described below.

A   The MOM is an online system, available to (a pre-identified and limited number of) users via the internet.

B   The introductory screen of the MOM presents each indicator in turn. The user selects the indicator of their choice, and the relevant indicator is mapped. The user is able to zoom in and out: from national level (showing districts) down to individual SOAs.

The indicators are represented by coloured dots. Each dot is located at the centre of the relevant geographical unit (either district or SOA). A legend illustrates the meaning of the dots; for consistency, darker dots always indicate 'worse' environmental conditions.[5]

For the purpose of graphical display, the indicators are represented by quintiles. The data for each indicator are normalised (i.e. adjusted so that all figures fall in the range 1 to 100) and then broken into five groups with equal numbers of SOAs.

C   The main feature of the MOM is the second screen, where user-controlled weighted composite indices can be created and graphically represented.

For each indicator, the user can specify a weight (from 0 to infinity), to reflect greater or lesser importance of the indicator relative to other indicators.

Once a set of weights, or 'weighting frame', has been input into the relevant cells, the system calculates a composite environmental index for all the English SOAs. (Since, at this stage of the system's development, there are fewer indicators available for Wales, a separate processing exercise is required to obtain Welsh results.)

The results are presented graphically, as on the introductory screen. The user can zoom in and out, as before.

The districts identified as 'worst' under a specific weighting frame are highlighted by the mapping representation. The system counts SOAs (starting from the 'worst') until the requisite number of districts with poor scoring SOAs have been identified. Districts are then ranked according to the 'worst' SOA they have. For England, the system identifies 50 districts, for Wales, 10.

Data for all the SOAs in a single district – the base data from the introductory screen, plus the composite index – can also be exported. Weighting frames can be saved, revisited and edited, as the user sees fit.

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[5] Dots are used, rather than an in-fill of the area, since this is dramatically faster in data-processing terms.

2.5 Weighting frames

The most innovative and important element of MOM is the use of weighting frames.

Attaching weights to each indicator allows the user to explore how variations in relative significance (e.g. 'I believe air quality is more important than derelict land in considering local environmental quality', or 'I believe biodiversity is more important than river water quality', etc.) affect an overall ranking of local areas.

Some practice is required to use such a system, and, given the number of indicators and the range of the weights, it has to be borne in mind that there are literally billions of possible weighting frames.

Brook Lyndhurst has prepared four weighting frames to serve as an illustration and to function as a starting point for both national and local consideration of the results.

Weighting frame 1

In the first weighting frame, 'large scale' environmental issues have been prioritised, and more localised or 'doorstep' environmental issues have been given less weight. The weights used were:

Indicator	Weight
Ambient air pollution	2
Biodiversity	3
Derelict land	3
Flood risk	5
Fly-tipping	1
Green space	2
Industrial airborne releases	3
River water quality	3
Housing in poor condition	1
Street cleanliness	1

These weights are subjective – that is to say, the Brook Lyndhurst team, using our best judgements in the light of the research work undertaken for this assignment and our wider understanding of environmental issues, have selected these weights.

Weighting frame 2

Weighting frame 2 prioritises doorstep, or 'cleaner safer greener' issues, and gives less importance to 'big picture' issues. The basis for the selection of weights is, again, a mix of the research findings and interviews with residents (in general)[6]. The weights used were:

Indicator	Weight
Ambient air pollution	1
Biodiversity	1
Derelict land	2
Flood risk	1
Fly-tipping	3
Green space	3
Industrial airborne releases	1
River water quality	2
Poor housing	3
Street cleanliness	4

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[6] It is very important to note, of course, that resident perspectives will vary from place to place – and this is why the MOM has been developed in this way. Users will be able to take the weights suggested here as a starting point, and vary them according to local conditions, to see which locations emerge as priorities.

Weighting frame 3

In the third weighting frame, we prioritised those environmental factors which are judged (again, on the basis of wider intelligence) to have a deleterious impact on human health. The weights used were:

Indicator	Weight
Ambient air pollution	3
Biodiversity	1
Derelict land	1
Flood risk	2
Fly-tipping	1
Green space	1
Industrial airborne releases	2
River water quality	1
Poor housing	4
Street cleanliness	1

Weighting frame 4

In a final weighting frame, all factors were treated equally, and given the same weight.

2.5   Results

The results are presented in five parts:

- First, for England, we present maps and 'top 10s' for the four weighting frames explained above.

- Second, in response to a proposition from the Environment Agency, we present maps and 'top 10s' for England that bring together the results from the four weighting frames with the IMD.

- Third, for Wales, we present maps and 'top 10s' for the four weighting frames.

- Fourth, we provide brief commentary on the results.

- Finally, we present full 'top 50' lists for the four English weighting frames, and the four 'weighting frame plus IMD' lists.

Weighting frame 1 – Big Picture – England

Under the first weighting frame, the picture that emerges is as follows:

Map 1 – Prioritised districts 'Big Picture' (highlighted in green)
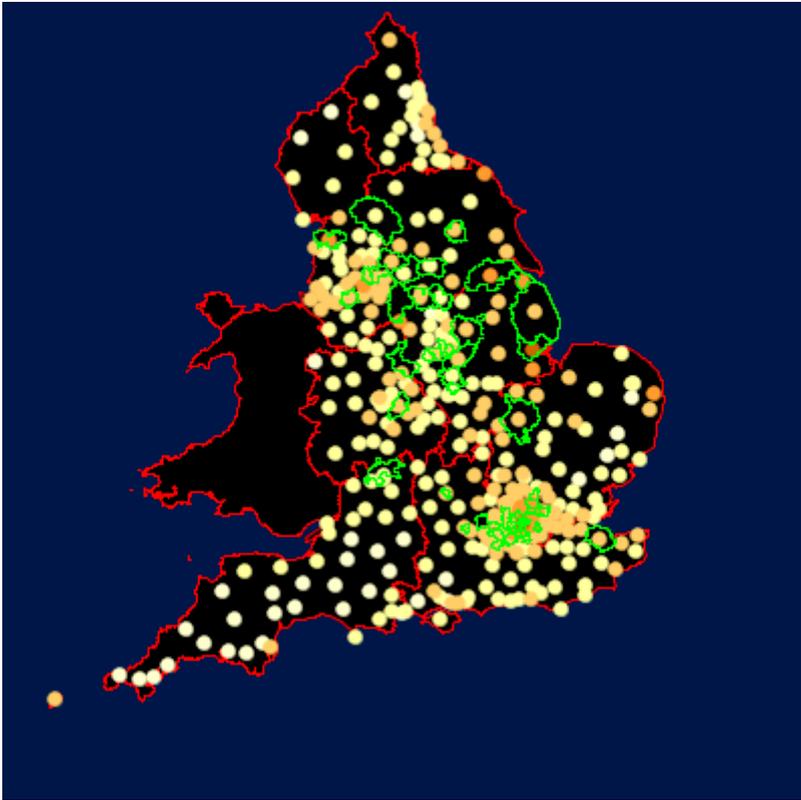
The 'top' 10 districts emerge as:

1   43UG Runnymede
2   00DB Wakefield
3   00AK Enfield
4   00BK Westminster
5   00ME Windsor and Maidenhead
6   30UQ Wyre
7   00CZ Kirklees
8   00FN Leicester
9   17UG Erewash
10   00BD Richmond upon Thames

Weighting frame 2 – Doorstep – England

Under the second weighting frame, the picture that emerges is as follows:

Map 2 – Prioritised districts 'Doorstep' (highlighted in green)
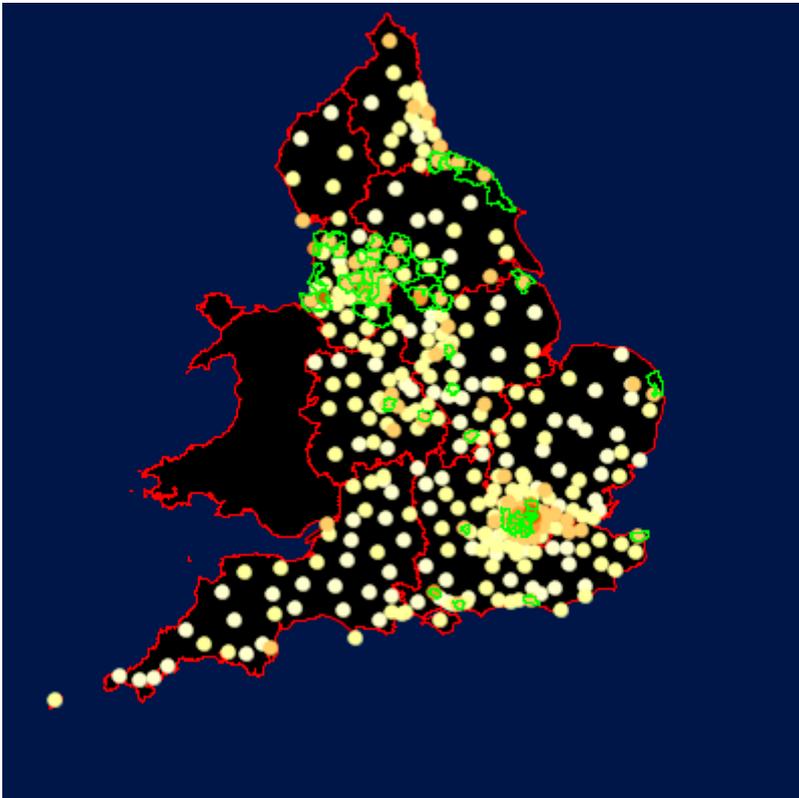
The top 10 districts emerge as:

1   00BY Liverpool
2   00CG Sheffield
3   00MS Southampton
4   00AM Hackney
5   00AP Haringey
6   00BR Salford
7   00FC North East Lincolnshire
8   00CF Rotherham
9   00AK Enfield
10   00CX Bradford

Weighting frame 3 – Health – England

Under the third weighting frame, the picture is:

Map 3 – Prioritised districts 'Health' (highlighted in green)
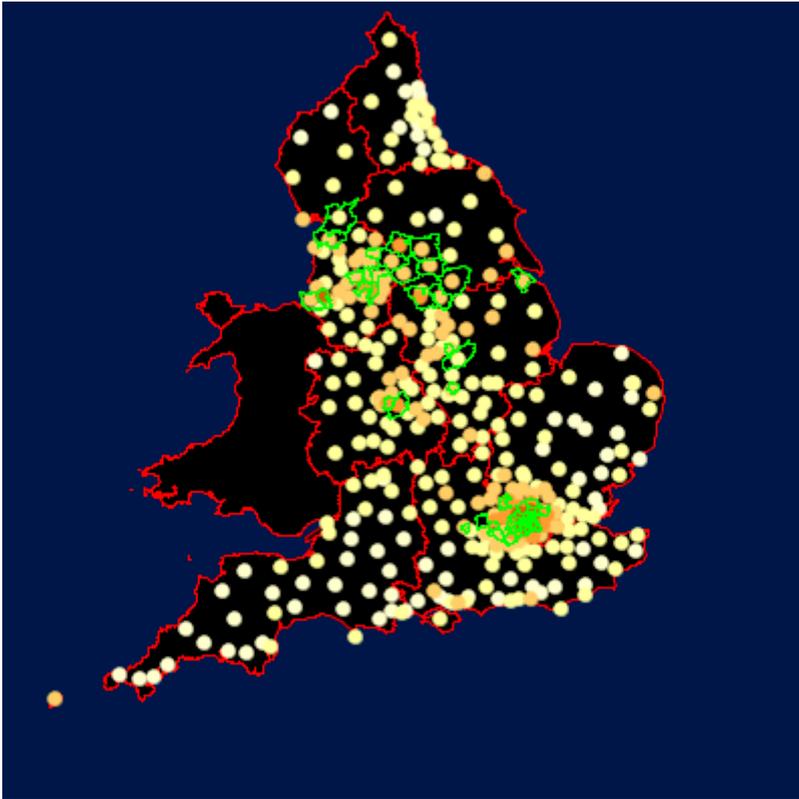
Under this frame, the top 10 districts are:

   1   00BK Westminster
   2   00AP Haringey
   3   00BR Salford
   4   00CG Sheffield
   5   00ME Windsor and Maidenhead
   6   00AM Hackney
   7   00AW Kensington and Chelsea
   8   00BH Waltham Forest
   9   00MC Reading
 10   00CZ Kirklees

Weighting frame 4 – Equal Weights – England

Under the fourth weighting frame, the picture is:

Map 4 – Prioritised districts 'Equal Weights' (highlighted in green)
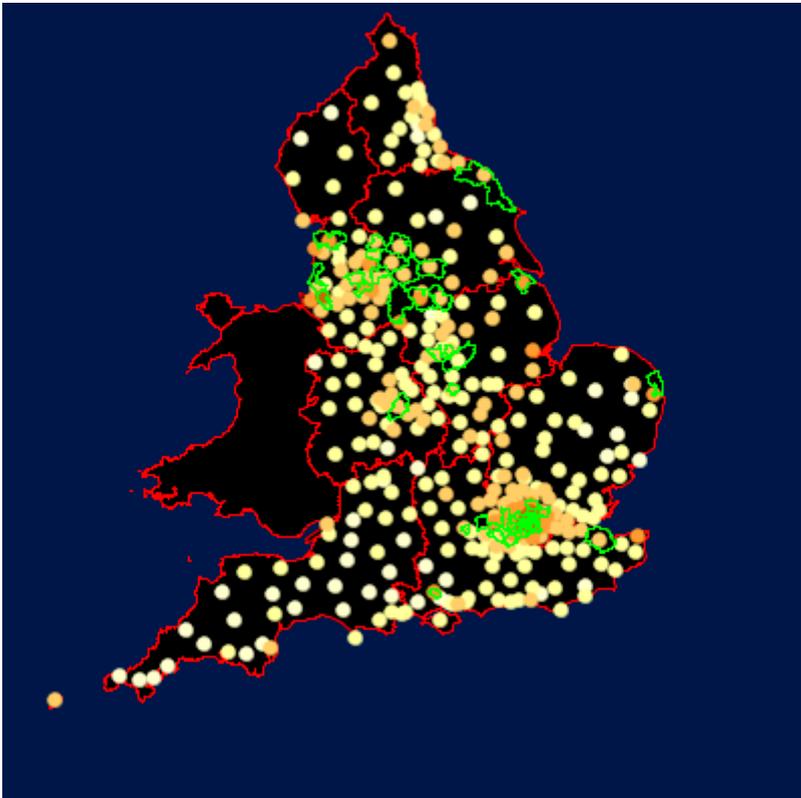
Under this frame, the top 10 districts are:

1   00CG Sheffield
2   00AK Enfield
3   00AP Haringey
4   00DB Wakefield
5   00CF Rotherham
6   00BY Liverpool
7   00FY Nottingham
8   00BK Westminster
9   00BD Richmond upon Thames
10   00AN Hammersmith and Fulham

Weighting frames and the Index of Multiple Deprivation

The Environment Agency and Defra judged that identifying areas with the poorest quality environments, in the most deprived areas, offers the best route to recognising locations where it will best be able to make a difference to people's health and quality of life. Combining the weighted composite index under the four weighting frames with the IMD itself (by giving the IMD a weight equal to the total weights applied to the other indicators) provides a means of eliding the two perspectives and produces the following results.

Weighting frame 1 and the IMD – England
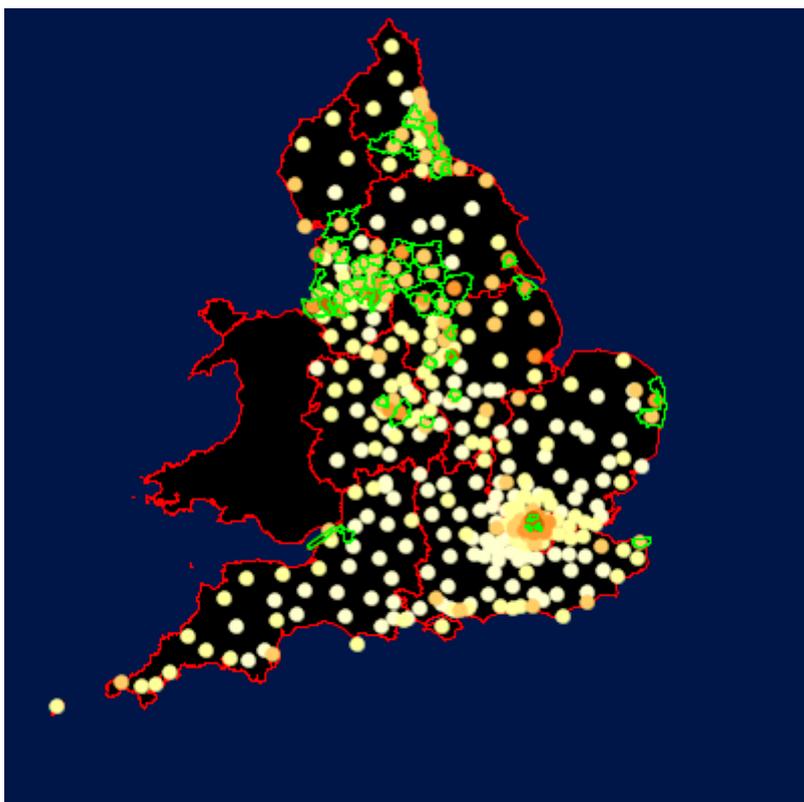
Under this frame, the top 10 districts are:

1   00BQ Rochdale
2   00FC North East Lincolnshire
3   00BN Manchester
4   00BY Liverpool
5   33UD Great Yarmouth
6   00EC Middlesbrough
7   00BR Salford
8   00BX Knowsley
9   00EF Stockton-on-Tees
10 00BP Oldham

Weighting frame 2 and the IMD – England
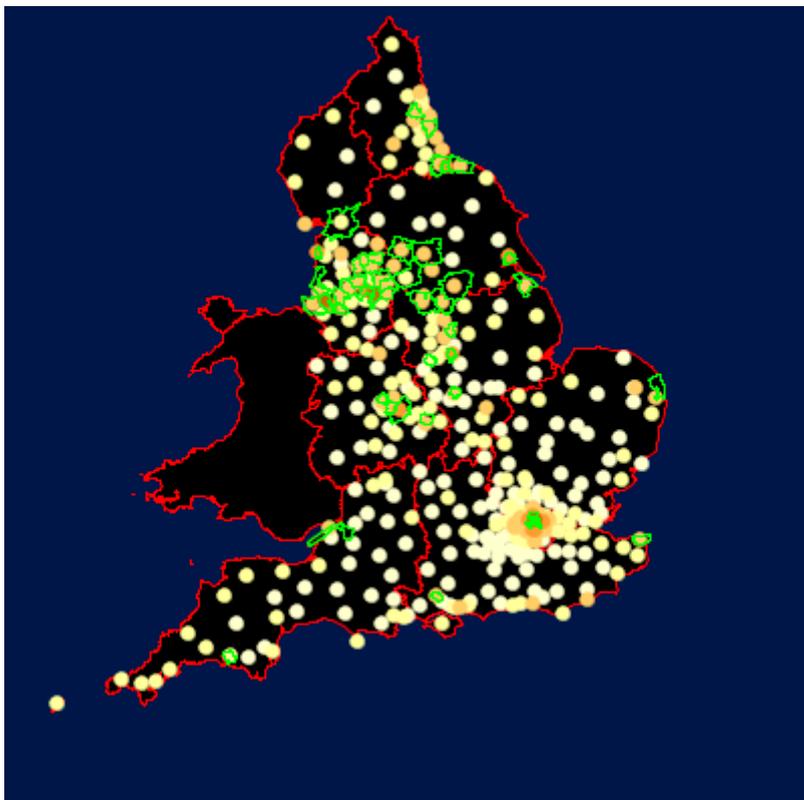
Under this frame, the top 10 districts are:

1   00BY Liverpool
2   00BQ Rochdale
3   00BN Manchester
4   00BR Salford
5   00FC North East Lincolnshire
6   33UD Great Yarmouth
7   00CX Bradford
8   00CG Sheffield
9   00CQ Coventry
10   00BX Knowsley

Weighting frame 3 and the IMD – England
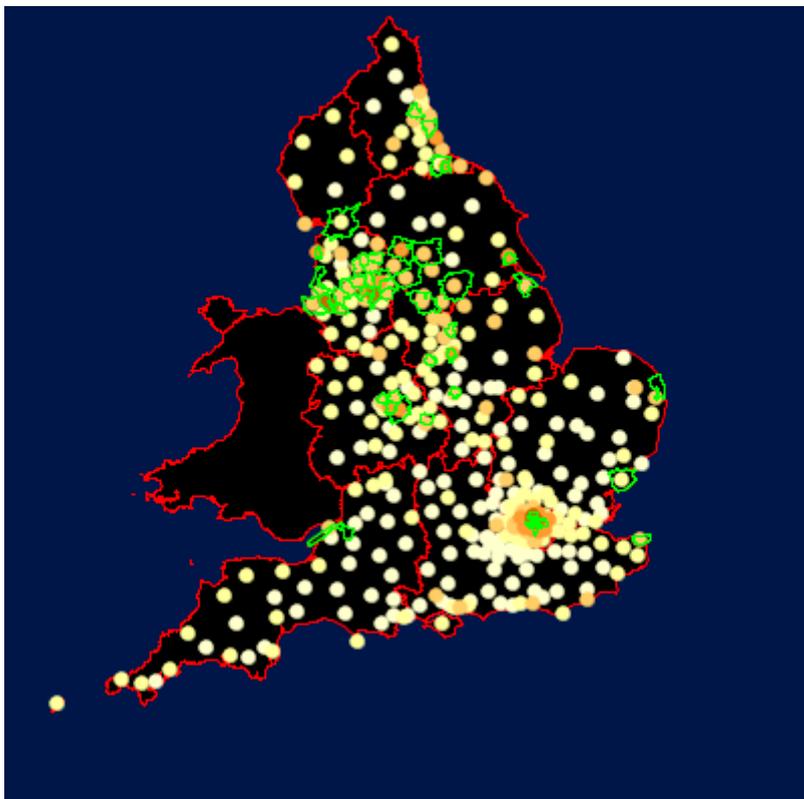
Under this frame, the top 10 districts are:

1 00BY Liverpool
2 00BQ Rochdale
3 00BN Manchester
4 00BX Knowsley
5 00BR Salford
6 00DA Leeds
7 00CX Bradford
8 33UD Great Yarmouth
9 00CB Wirral
10 00CE Doncaster

Weighting frame 4 and the IMD – England
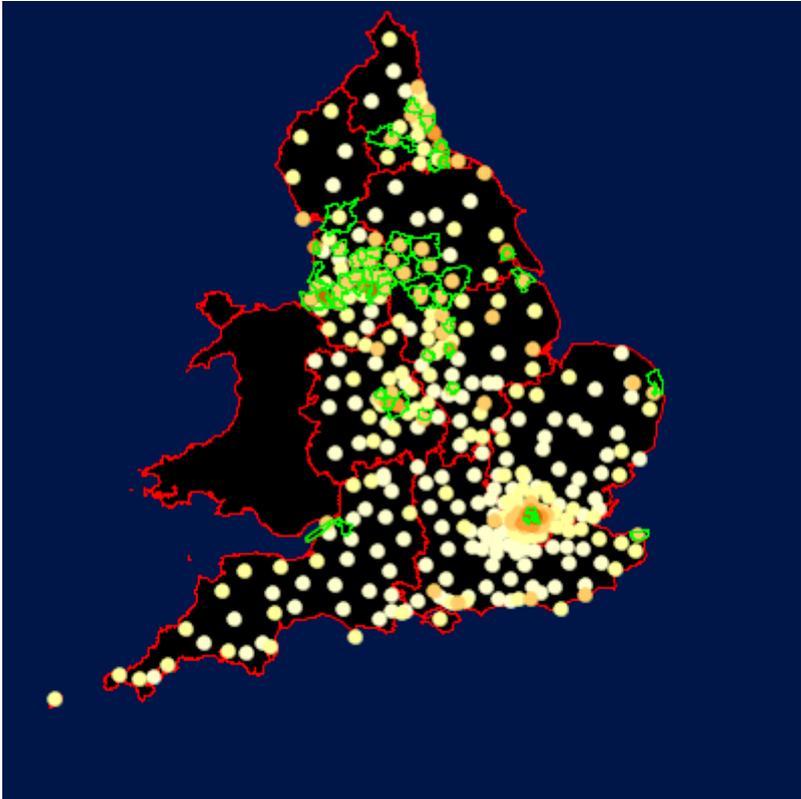
Under this frame, the top 10 districts are:

1   00BY Liverpool
2   00BQ Rochdale
3   00BN Manchester
4   00FC North East Lincolnshire
5   00BR Salford
6   33UD Great Yarmouth
7   00BX Knowsley
8   00CG Sheffield
9   00BP Oldham
10   00CB Wirral

The results for Wales

Applying the relevant weights from the four weighting frames to the indicators available for Wales (i.e. ambient air pollution, industrial airborne releases, flood risk and river water quality) gives the following:

Weighting frame 1 – Big Picture – Wales
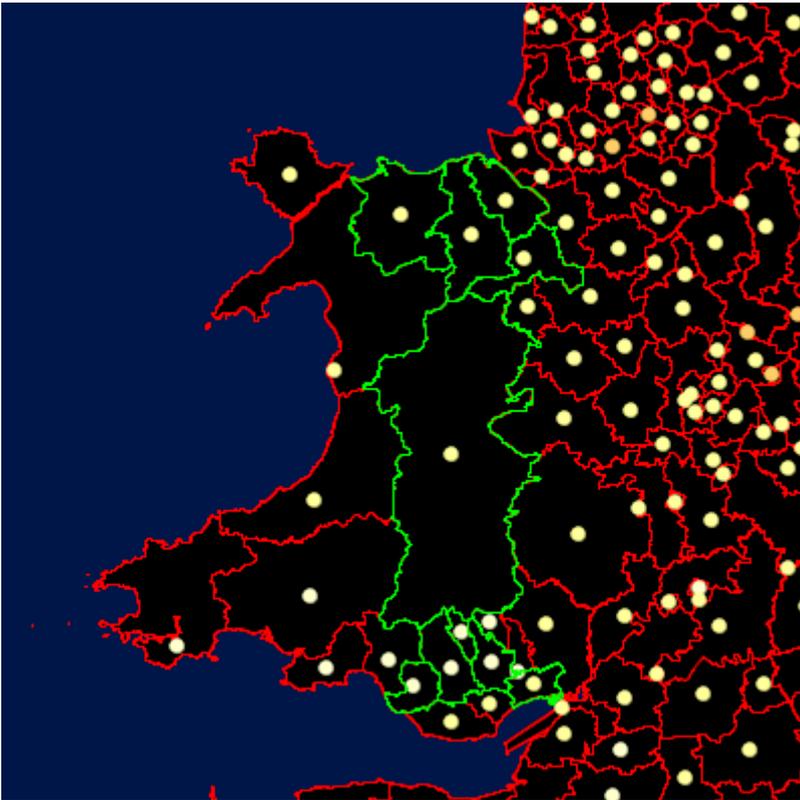
The 'top' 10 districts identified under this weighting frame are:

1.   00NJ Flintshire
2.   00PR Newport
3.   00NN Powys
4.   00PB Bridgend
5.   00NG Denbighshire
6.   00NL Wrexham
7.   00NE Conwy
8.   00PF Rhondda Cynon Taff
9.   00PK Caerphilly
10. 00NZ Neath Port Talbot

Weighting frame 2 – Doorstep – Wales
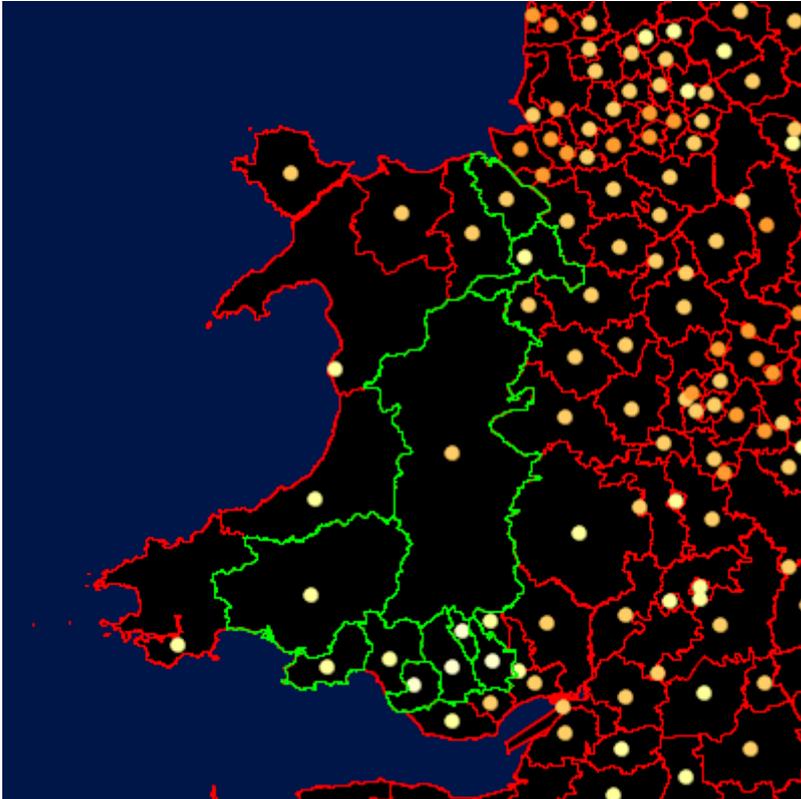
The 'top' 10 districts identified under this weighting frame are:

1   00NN Powys
2   00PK Caerphilly
3   00PB Bridgend
4   00PH Merthyr Tydfil
5   00PF Rhondda Cynon Taff
6   00NU Carmarthenshire
7   00NL Wrexham
8   00NJ Flintshire
9   00NX Swansea
10 00PM Torfaen

Weighting frame 3 – Health – Wales
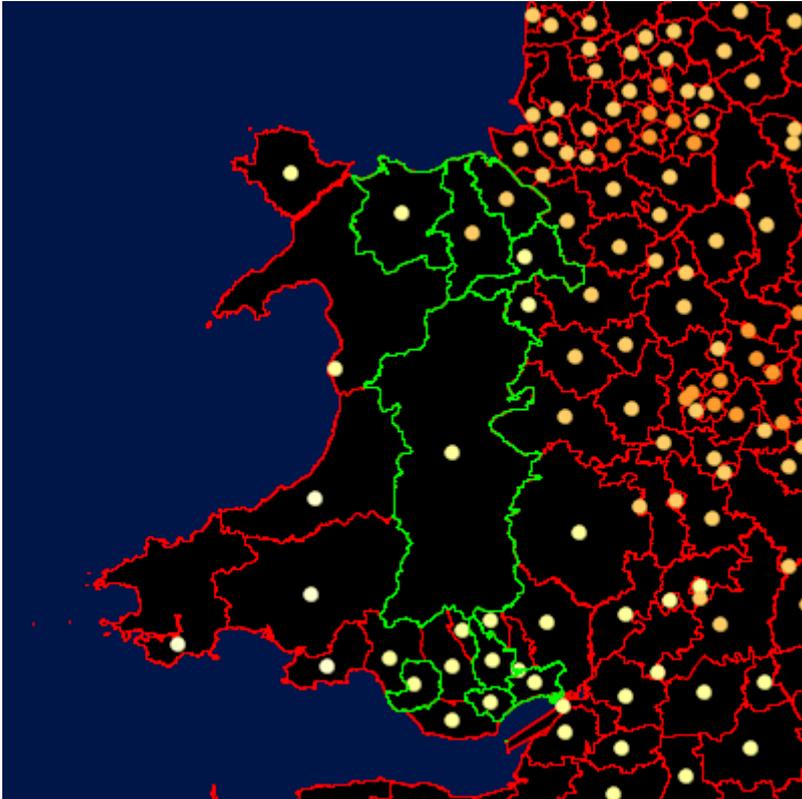
The 'top' 10 districts identified under this weighting frame are:

1 00NJ Flintshire
2 00PR Newport
3 00NL Wrexham
4 00NG Denbighshire
5 00NE Conwy
6 00NN Powys
7 00PB Bridgend
8 00PK Caerphilly
9 00PT Cardiff
10 00PF Rhondda Cynon Taff

Weighting frame 4 – Equal Weights – Wales
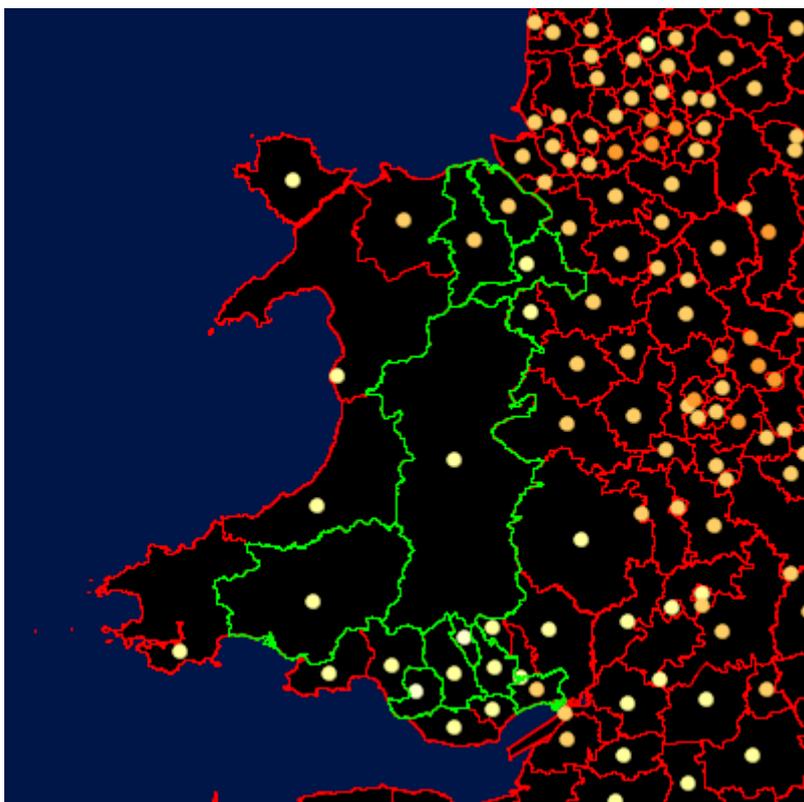
The 'top' 10 districts identified under this weighting frame are:

1 00NJ Flintshire
2 00NN Powys
3 00PR Newport
4 00PK Caerphilly
5 00NL Wrexham
6 00PB Bridgend
7 00PF Rhondda Cynon Taff
8 00NG Denbighshire
9 00NU Carmarthenshire
10 00PH Merthyr Tydfil

Commentary

There are many alternative ways of using the results presented above to identify particular locations in which to focus effort. Three broad possibilities are:

1. Look for districts that occur repeatedly in 'top 10' or 'top 50' lists.

2. Take the 'top 10' from several weighting frames to assemble a 'preferred' longer list.

3. Choose a 'preferred' weighting frame as a starting point, and allow subsequent refinements (particularly at local level) to take on board the lessons from other weighting frames.

The Environment Agency signalled a preference to equally weight the indicators alongside the Index of Multiple Deprivation as the most transparent method of presenting a national picture of poor environmental quality, which can then be used as a basis for discussion with local partners.

Given the caveats presented earlier (i.e. that there can be no such thing as a definitive listing of 50 locations), and the outcomes from the weighting frames (that an easily identifiable 'common set' of districts does not emerge under the various perspectives), Brook Lyndhurst's view is that is it the *process* that is more important than the precise listing. It is, in our view, essential that the process is as inclusive as possible – that is, that local stakeholders are able to participate in the precise selection of areas for focus. The best way forward might therefore be to assemble a longer list of districts from those identified under different weighting frames, and work in those locations initially, refining where appropriate. Our preference is thus for the second option above.

The data used within each weighting frame can be used to examine environmental quality within districts and compare that between Super Output Areas, but was beyond the scope of this project.

Finally, for illustrative purposes, the tables presented in Appendix 2 show:

- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 1 'Big Picture'.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 2 'Doorstep'.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 3 'Health'.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 4 'Equal Weights'.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 1 with the IMD.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 2 with the IMD.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 3 with the IMD.
- Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 4 with the IMD.
- Top 50 districts identified when only 'flood risk' is weighted.
- Top 50 districts identified when only 'Ambient air pollution' and 'Industrial airborne releases' are [equally] weighted.
- Top 50 districts identified using only the IMD.[7]

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[7] Note that this does not produce exactly the same set of locations at the official IMD, since, to be consistent with the other indicators used in MOM, the method of prioritising districts on the basis of SOAs is different.

3   Lessons from existing Area-Based Initiatives

The purpose of this section is to report on a rapid review of the recent history of 'Area-Based Initiatives', or ABIs, in the UK, drawn from a review of formal evaluations undertaken of ABIs across a variety of policy domains including regeneration and health. The section is presented as follows:

- Background and context (3.1)

- Key lessons (3.2)

3.1   Background and context

The ODPM Regional Coordination Unit (2003) defines ABIs as:

> *Publicly funded initiatives targeted towards areas of social or economic disadvantage, which aim to improve the quality of life of residents. They are usually aimed at particular geographical areas; are managed through regional, sub-regional or local partnerships; are intended to support a number of objectives locally which are the responsibility of more than one department; and they are put forward as pilots or pathfinders for programmes that will ultimately be rolled out nationally.*

ABIs have been trialled across most government departments covering a broad range of themes, including health, community engagement, public space, regeneration, employment, crime, energy and business.

This review draws on 40 evaluations of ABIs and related initiatives (e.g. formative review of Local Strategic Partnerships, LSPs) across a spectrum of issues and policy domains, with a particular focus on those aimed at tackling multiple dimensions of deprivation. The ABIs, together with details of reports/web links and the aims of the evaluation, are listed in the tables in Appendix 1.

We make two important overarching comments here. First, it is crucial to recognise that there is no single 'agreed' model of an ABI. In particular, recent literature on targeted approaches to inequalities makes a clear distinction between ABIs that are essentially *additional funding streams* instigated centrally and administered regionally or locally and ABIs that are formed on the basis of local decisions to target areas or groups differentially (for whatever reason) from *within mainstream local budgets.* This section looks at both.

Second, the overall success of ABIs to date has been varied and patchy. While some have reported improvements in response to geographic targeting, ABIs have thrown up a range of challenges and barriers. These challenges include:

- unintended consequences outside the designated area (e.g. migration of the problem to another location);

- problems defining the geographic area in a way that reflects the community's perception of 'their neighbourhood';

- accusations of a 'postcode lottery' where, for example, one side of a street is included but the other is not;

- resentment in those areas not receiving funding (which at its worst can contribute to tensions between different groups – the most obvious of which were the disturbances in Oldham and Bradford in 2001);

- inability to target small patches of deprivation that sit within otherwise affluent areas and are therefore not prioritised.

3.2   Key lessons

The literature points to a wide range of issues that influence the operation and success of an ABI, which vary in their importance according to local circumstances. In this sense there is no definitive set of success factors that can be readily applied and transferred from place to place. Nonetheless, seven common and key themes do emerge that need to be borne in mind in the design of any ABI. These are:

- understanding the local 'state of play';

- the nature and strength of partnerships (and in particular the role of community groups);

- staffing and diversity in the partnership;

- the importance of location;

- duration, exit strategies and 'mainstreaming';

- specific design considerations;

- 'bending' mainstream service provision.

These themes are now discussed in turn.

1. Understanding the local 'state of play'

One of the most important factors in the design and operation of an ABI is the need to understand the local context. Here we outline three issues of particular importance: 'mapping' the area, continuous learning and coordination with existing initiatives.

'Mapping' the area

Most literature acknowledges the importance of gathering as much information as possible before roll-out. In evaluation of the experience of Health Action Zones (HAZs) in England, Bauld *et al*. (2005) found that a lack of baseline data hampered the setting of realistic objectives. Furthermore, the choice of targets often appeared to have been selected without the evidence of routinely collected data, while project aims were decided upon without the identification of problems through a needs assessment.

In response, the literature points to the need for information concerning each of the following areas:

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- key local organisations;
- historical background and the 'story' of how the area got to how it is today;
- demographics of the local population;
- community networks and leaders;
- governance arrangements and local decision-making structures;
- existing policies and initiatives on the ground.

Continuous learning

In addition to the initial process of gathering information, the literature suggests there is a need to constantly monitor, review and learn throughout the lifespan of the scheme. For example:

- The evaluation of the Crime Reduction Programme 'Lesson Learnt' (2004) recommends a commitment to continuous review and development in order to achieve proper implementation, including the use of knowledge management systems and infrastructures for learning.

- The Warm Zones Evaluation (2004) identifies a number of reasons why objectives were not always met, including inadequate assessment rates in some zones and the failure to gather information on all relevant energy efficiency programmes.

- The Business Broker Pilot Evaluation (2004) found that brokers particularly welcomed information and advice, while the quarterly broker networking meetings enabled sharing of experience and a sense of community.

Coordination with existing initiatives

In its review of ABIs (2005), the ODPM identified and sought to address the problems caused by too many initiatives on the ground (Epolitix 2003). Recommendations included mainstreaming particular initiatives, merging others and reducing, simplifying and aligning bureaucracy. The guidance promotes coherence, integration and joint working. For instance, it states that 'new initiatives should identify all the related, existing schemes in the areas to be targeted, contact them early, and seek to work as closely as possible with them'.

2. Nature and strength of partnerships

The nature and strength of partnerships between local stakeholders (e.g. public bodies, community groups, businesses) is key to the success of ABIs.

The literature is unanimous in its view that partnership approaches have clear advantages and should continue to be the basis of policy. For example, the Small Retailers in Deprived Areas Initiative 'Lessons Learnt' review (2004) argues that partnerships can bring in valuable expertise and practical knowledge; the Assessment of the Market Towns Initiative (2004) recommends building good relations with key players at a variety of levels; and the Warm Zones Evaluation (2004) found that zones which had strong relationships from the outset remained at an advantage.

However, equally evident from the literature is the fact that successful partnership working – done properly – is not straightforward. In response, the Evaluation of Community Cohesion Pathfinders (2003) suggests that *existing networks* should be exploited rather than inventing new ones, while the Association of Town Centre Management's "Business

Improvement Districts: Best Practice Guide" stresses the importance of partnering with *credible* organisations that have legitimacy (ATCM/DCLG 2005).

Furthermore, to ensure that partnerships remain strong and effective, the Home Office (2004) review highlights a need to build trust and a 'working protocol' (informal or formalised) among partners in order to allow for successful partnership working (the time for which is invariably underestimated).

With the advent of cross-agency working, LSPs have increasingly become important. Although still in their infancy, LSPs have been subject to a formative evaluation, undertaken by the ODPM and DfT (2005). This clearly identifies the strategic capacity of the board as being important. Leadership also remains an area that is 'extremely challenging' and the subject of tension within some partnerships. One final finding also emerges with relevance to this review: the extent to which LSPs have been successful in engaging partners and stakeholders varies greatly. For some LSPs, fundamental processes of engagement such as understanding partners' priorities and sharing information and data still remain largely on the 'to do' list.

The groups given most attention in the literature are community groups. Indeed, the role they can play as partners in the success of ABIs is one of the most prominent themes in many evaluations. Given the emphasis, the remainder of this section looks at this issue in more depth.

Several evaluations note the benefits of engaging the community as partners. The Home Office (2004) review of community involvement in ABIs, for example, points to the fostering of social cohesion and capital, better planning and delivery of services, and ensuring decisions have legitimacy and local 'buy in'. Additionally, the ODPM Single Regeneration Budget report *Turning Areas Around* (2003) argues that it is not enough to address physical characteristics alone, and that the people and communities who inhabit these areas also need to be engaged.

In spite of these findings, the literature also points to a series of barriers to effective community engagement and partnership work. For example:

- There remains a belief among some that low-income communities in deprived areas will not be interested in engaging in environmental initiatives, or do not have the capacity. Elster and Power (2004) provide a counter argument against the former of these beliefs – they contend that low-income communities are often actively thinking about their 'environment' and seeking steps to improve it.

- The Bridge Consortium (2002) evaluation of Healthy Living Centres (HLCs) found that health is not always a priority among communities (a sentiment also applicable to the environment). They also found that some groups involved were suspicious of HLCs and that it was difficult to involve communities in planning when they are unsure of what they want or felt intimidated by professionals.

- There are pitfalls in defining who exactly these 'communities' are. The Joseph Rowntree Foundation (JRF) report (2005) points out that, while agencies often want one 'community perspective', a plurality of perspectives is likely to exist. Furthermore, there is frequently a power imbalance where those with the loudest voices are often afforded more attention.

Several evaluations discuss ways in which such problems have been overcome. For example, the National Evaluation of the New Deal for Communities Initiative (2003) highlights a number of factors that appear to ease the process of community engagement, including the

existence of community networks, being able to overcome community conflicts and ensuring the process is not dominated by small cliques.

Evidence box 1: Successful community involvement

(A) Leeds Health Action Zone Evaluation (2002) highlights the range of channels through which communities can be engaged. Leeds used HAZ funding allocated to the community involvement workstream in three ways:

- to support the appointment of community involvement workers in each of the Primary Care Groups;
- to support a number of existing community and voluntary organisations to develop their role further and thereby contribute to the building of community and voluntary infrastructure;
- to support a number of projects specifically concerned with community, user and carer involvement.

(B) An Evaluation of Slough Education Action Zone (EAZ) (Rickinson *et al*.) alternatively suggests that specifically targeted events can successfully support community engagement. Although many staff in schools in the EAZ said that school–community partnerships still needed further development, some schools did experience an improvement in parental links through involvement with the EAZ. This improvement had been significantly helped by EAZ events, such as a Dance Festival, and EAZ projects such as the Reach Out Worker.

(C) In addition, a Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2001) report on the Lessons Learnt from Home Zones demonstrates the usefulness of independent facilitators in community engagement. These individuals – versed in community development issues, community planning techniques, etc. – helped ensure maximum community involvement and allayed fears of schemes being imposed onto the community. Initial experience suggested that the intermediary could be a design consultancy, a local housing association, or the local authority's own community development workers.

Furthermore, some evaluations go into more detail about practical ways to bring about successful community engagement (see Evidence box 1).

These different means of encouraging successful community involvement essentially equate with a move away from managerial 'top-down' approaches to participation. A recent Joseph Rowntree Foundation report (2002) asserted that these approaches have had limited success, and that building the capacity of community groups from the bottom-up will allow for more successful participation.

Nonetheless, building the capacity of community groups will not take place in a vacuum, and it is necessary to look at the roles of two groups of actors:

- *The individuals* who together comprise a 'community'. The literature cautions against underestimating the role of *specific individuals* who can either promote or block local initiatives.

- *The government,* who provide support and assistance to the community sector – that is, 'top-down' support for 'bottom-up' initiatives. Indeed, while community engagement may, at face value, imply an entirely bottom-up, grass roots effort, this should not overshadow the important role of top-down structures/institutions in enhancing community action.

Indeed, the Joseph Rowntree Foundation research report (2002) found that, in deprived neighbourhoods, the ability of residents to respond to neighbourhood environmental problems can be undermined by the scale of the challenge – residents often feel overwhelmed and there is a belief that their actions will not make a noticeable difference. In these instances, residents and community groups need support from the top in order to lesson the environmental challenges they face and make direct 'quick win' improvements to the environment.

3. Staffing and diversity in the partnership

This theme only applies to ABIs that are centrally determined, represent additional funding, and commonly require a specific and legally enshrined partnership.

The National Evaluation of the New Deal for Communities (2003) cited staffing issues as one of the most critical problems affecting delivery of the programmes, and this conclusion is mirrored in many of the other evaluations. For example:

- The 2004 Evaluation of Healthy Living Centres (HLCs) reported that *recruiting and retaining* suitable staff was a complex task, compounded in some cases by bureaucratic obstacles. Similarly, an ODPM research report (2005) argues that it may be difficult to add to the stock of 'provider capacity' in deprived areas, because of investment and recruitment difficulties. One study in the evaluation mentioned that the financial flexibility in their budget enabled them to bolster recruitment by offering competitive salaries.

- Other evaluations stress the importance of having *appropriately trained* staff and ensuring a developed *skills base*. For example, the Evaluation of Healthy Living Centres (2002) found that a common theme across HLCs was recognition of the value of training staff, volunteers, local residents and users of services. This training would be a way of building capacity, increasing empowerment and social skills and ensuring long-term sustainability/legacy of ideas from projects (in this case food hygiene, dietary Information, etc.) even if HLCs do not continue.

- Similarly, the Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme Evaluation (2004) suggests that training is also vital for staff within other agencies such as the police or housing associations, who would benefit from an increased understanding of the opportunities for working together and the nature of wardens' roles.

A specific staffing issue that receives a significant amount of attention in the literature is inclusion and diversity. While many ABIs have *recognised* the diversity that exists within and between 'communities', a lot of evaluations report difficulties in *reflecting* this diversity in the work of ABIs.

A recurring issue is whether to integrate or separate particular groups (Home Office 2004). This tension is illustrated through the findings of Charnwood's Community Cohesion Pathfinder Programme evaluation (2005), where Bangladeshi workers were invited to a meeting alone but felt they were being 'singled out'.

The New Deal for Communities Evaluation (2003) noted that NDC partnerships encountered particular problems engaging with younger people, businesses and asylum seekers, and the evaluation reported that most partnerships had not done a great deal to instil gender and disability considerations into longer-term planning. The Evaluation of Community Cohesion Pathfinders (2003) also suggests that success depends upon developing networks that focus on the traditionally excluded.

Some evaluations do begin to suggest ways of addressing these inclusion issues. For example, a Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2005) report suggests that there are at least three strands to including black and minority ethnic communities: first, reaching out to include them; second, resourcing specific black and minority ethnic self-organisations; and third, supporting all community, service user and citizens' organisations to be inclusive through race equality training and additional resources.

4. Importance of location

Many evaluations cite how the *exact* localities they operate in have a bearing on the outcomes of their programmes. Delimiting the boundaries of ABIs is therefore a highly significant issue, but something that needs to be decided on an individual basis. The importance of location varies, depending on whether a geographic area or community of interest is the target of the scheme.

For example, the 2004 Evaluation of the Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme advises that 'schemes need to have clear geographical boundaries', whereas the Department for Work and Pensions' Evaluation of the Ethnic Minority Outreach programme found that 'issues may also arise where a provider states an intention to serve a particular client group (e.g. Chinese) and a tightly defined geographical area, as the scattered residential patterns of some ethnic groups mean that they cross administrative boundaries'. The case study in Evidence box 2 highlights some of the problems that can arise when drawing geographical boundaries.

Evidence box 2: Problems drawing geographic boundaries

Northumberland's Single Regeneration Budget Evaluation (2005) noted a tension between a wide dispersal of funding on the one hand, or concentrated intervention in a few places on the other hand.

The evaluation concludes that since there were 170 projects covered by the Single Regeneration Budget, the programme 'spread the jam thinly'. It was said to have been a 'scattergun' approach with 'a little bit of everything everywhere'. Where there was a set of projects concentrated in one particular place – such as in Kielder Village in Northumberland – impact was maximised. The evaluation states that there may well be merit in concentrating resources on a few places, on a few big projects or on just one or two objectives.

The importance of location also relates to local characteristics and local needs, not just geography. As the Market Renewal Pathfinders 'Lessons Learnt' review (2003) argues, 'Yes, you will be able to look at the plans and prospectuses for other people's pathfinders, but you must make your own scheme work for you'.

The Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme Evaluation (2004) suggests that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to developing a wardens' scheme, and guidance will need to reflect this. The best schemes have demonstrated flexibility in responding to the changing needs of their communities, and have developed according to local context. Schemes need to be responsive to the needs of the communities they serve.

The Home Office (2004) summarises the important features of local context that emerge from ABI studies:

- previous history and patterns of community involvement;
- demographic structures (with young people likely to be less involved);

- community organisations and their suitability as vehicles for participation;
- controversial issues in the area, such as a threat to a service;
- geographical aspects such as transport problems;
- national institutional and financial regimes.

5. Duration, exit strategy and 'mainstreaming'

The duration of ABIs, and what will happen in areas after official initiatives end, are key themes that arise from the evaluation literature.

First, there is general consensus that the time required for much of the initial scoping, fact finding and relationship building work is underestimated. The Bristol Home Zone Evaluation (2002) stated 'experience suggests that about one year should be allowed for this consultation period alone'. Furthermore, the Evaluation of Business Brokers (2004) stressed that significant time was needed for brokers to embed themselves locally.

Second, there are concerns that the duration of some schemes as a whole – not just the set-up phase – is insufficient. For example, the Warm Zones Evaluation (2004) stated that the limited lifespan of zones worked against the need for zones to build stronger relationships with local community organisations and to support community-building activities. Similarly, the ODPM Assessment of the Neighbourhood Renewal Fund (2002) suggested that key barriers to the use of the NRF were the fact that it is a short-term concept and, in particular, there is insufficient time to properly engage the community.

Finally, many evaluations highlight the importance of planning ahead for the programme's end, long before it nears completion. The Evaluation of Business Brokers (2004) suggests that local management groups need early consideration of what needs to be done to continue the work of brokers where their activities are bearing fruit. Local partners should also consider future funding options early and ensure that it is not left to the broker alone.

In particular, the issue of 'mainstreaming' – incorporating successful pilot initiatives within standard service delivery – remains a key (and not entirely resolved) issue for government. The formative evaluation of LSPs offers some insights here. They distinguish between 'strategic' mainstreaming (i.e. the refocusing of mainstream programmes and funding onto shared targets) and 'initiative mainstreaming', which concerns adopting innovative approaches and learning from localised, short-term pilot projects. On both counts the evaluation finds that this issue remains 'largely undiscussed, ambiguous and a major challenge', other than in a few experienced LSPs.

We also make two observations here. First, there needs to be consideration from an early stage as to the objective of the ABI – is it intended to be a time-limited effort to redress an inequality or catalyse self-sustaining change, or is it the intention to influence service delivery in the longer term? If it is the latter, then efforts to engage local providers in the design of the initiatives is key, since they will ultimately be responsible for any wider roll-out of the initiative/scheme.

6. Specific design considerations

Three key issues are identified from evaluations as being integral to the successful *design* of ABIs: adequate finances, flexible management and appropriate project aims. Although the pitfalls surrounding these issues are discussed in the literature, not a great deal is said about ways to overcome them, and they are often not explored in the same depth as many other themes.

Financial continuity/stability

Across the evaluations, many initiatives have flagged-up the issues they have encountered with funds and funding. Within the Evaluation of Community Participation Programmes (2005) for example, several organisations were concerned about the longer-term sustainability of funds.

There are many examples from the literature of financial difficulties affecting the success of ABIs. The Evaluation of Healthy Living Centres (2004) stresses that financial difficulties have had a significant effect on the running of HLCs. Less funding than requested, delays in receiving match funding and limited experience in financial management have caused anxiety over securing further income. The nature of the funding means that staff are often only offered one-year contracts, and quick staff turnover has affected partnership stability. The Evaluation of the Community Champions Fund (2004) similarly argues that the instability of funding available at any particular time meant it was not unusual for marketing efforts to be turned on and off *'like a tap'*.

The Evaluation of the Partnership Development Fund (2003) is one of the few pieces of literature that recommends ways to overcome funding issues. It suggests a closer relationship between funder and funded organisations to ensure that problems in development are promptly identified and addressed. The 2004 Review of the Crime Reduction Programme (which states that major programmes – such as the New Deal for Communities – have experienced patterns of under-spend and delays) also recommends improving funding delivery and accountability.

Management flexibility

Many evaluations of ABIs suggest the positive need for ABIs to be structured as flexibly as is feasibly possible. As the Home Office (2004) suggests, flexibility is needed to allow change and development.

The Evaluation of the Community Champions Fund (2004) suggests that an influential success factor is adaptability and flexibility, and the Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme Evaluation (2004) similarly recommends that policy should support flexible and tailored responses. Furthermore, the Review of the Crime Reduction Programme (2004) states that an important lesson learnt was the need for a flexible project management process. Exact mechanisms for achieving flexible management are thinly covered in the literature, and this is an area that needs to be explored more deeply.

Aims

The ways in which to address project aims and overviews are mentioned in vague terms in many evaluations, but recommendations often lack substance, and are also often contradictory. Some broad suggestions include:

- **Narrow scheme objectives** – The Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme Evaluation (2004) suggested that schemes might be at risk of not implementing successfully if they have diverse scheme objectives.

- **Strategic overview** – The Evaluation of the Partnership Development Fund (2003) suggests that a lack of a strategic overview is a factor not conducive to success – although other evaluations would strongly suggest that this overview needs to be flexible and agreed upon between a range of partners.

- **Sustainability (in the sense of funding and long-term legacy)** – The Small Retailers in Deprived Areas 'Lessons Learnt' review (2004) states that a desire to create a sustainable project must underlie all initial plans. It is not just something to think about after implementation.

7. 'Bending' mainstream service provision

'Bending' mainstream services involves using or tapping into existing funding at the local level, as opposed to additional funding streams instigated nationally or regionally. So, for example, a local authority may explicitly recognise variations in deprivation across its wards and target services accordingly.

This is a relatively new development and, through vehicles such as Local Area Agreements, represents in some respects the evolution of traditional forms of ABIs.

The evidence base for this approach is still in development but some research has been conducted, most notably by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2005). This study is based on a survey of 49 chief officers in local authority (LA) environmental service departments. The report acknowledges that some deprived neighbourhoods face environmental challenges that are more severe than in affluent neighbourhoods, especially in relation to litter and fly-tipping. However, responses to this challenge vary, with local authorities taking four main approaches to delivering their core environmental services:

- *Standardisation (16/49 LAs)*: provision of universal levels of services with no variation between neighbourhood types – i.e. there is no focus on neighbourhood deprivation.

- *Hot-spotting (8/49 LAs)*: a base, standardised service, but the authority additionally provides reactive supplementary services to tackle specific problems as they arise – such as excess litter.

- *Tacit-targeting (17/49 LAs)*: service levels vary according to the need for the service – e.g. places with greater environmental problems receive additional service levels. Although areas with the poorest environments do often tend to be the most deprived, there is no explicit recognition of a focus on deprived areas.

- *Formal targeting (8/49 LAs)*: explicitly recognises that deprived neighbourhoods routinely require higher service levels and differentiates services accordingly.

An example of the last approach is Birmingham City Council, which formally uses ward-level deprivation indicators to provide differential resources for a range of street-scene services. Its key elements are:

- Increasing the provision of core services to deprived neighbourhoods. For example, the street cleansing allocation in the most deprived wards is over twice that in the least deprived.

- Allocating 'special' environmental services according to deprivation. For example, the most deprived wards get 35 days of 'special collections' – where any item will be lifted free of charge – while the least deprived wards receive four days.

- Providing additional, devolved budgets (financed from NRF) to be spent on locally defined priorities. Crucially, the size of the budget allocated depends on relative

deprivation: in 2004/05 the most deprived areas received £18 million, while the least deprived received £8 million.

- Developing neighbourhood management – the 'Going Local' agenda – as a means to put into operation the various dimensions of targeting highlighted above and more generally to improve service coordination and increase its responsiveness to local people. Since April 2004, 11 devolved districts have been established, each with a director responsible for coordinating, prioritising and managing core environmental services, as well as 'purchasing' additional services if it is felt that these are required, via the devolved budget mentioned above. The directors are supported by ward-level committees and neighbourhood forums.

The Birmingham approach is still in its early stages, which makes evaluation difficult. The council has, however, succeeded in delivering additional resources and enhanced services to deprived neighbourhoods. And, although the deprived neighbourhoods that formed the case studies for this research still faced significant environmental problems, the Joseph Rowntree Foundation report notes an emerging consensus that conditions are improving.

Despite some local authorities beginning to differentiate, few others explicitly target extra service provision towards deprived neighbourhoods. This is largely attributed to the political barriers in doing so.

It is also important to note that 'bending' mainstream services is not just about increasing overall service provision in deprived areas. It could also involve making changes to the *structure* and *delivery* of mainstream services, for example sequencing street cleaning to follow rubbish collection; or moving away refuse collectors and street sweepers towards 'environmental operatives' who are empowered to address a range of problems on the ground. Finally, differentiation could also take place in terms of community engagement and outreach programmes, so that those communities least equipped to take action (and responsibility) are the focus of these programmes and funding.

4 Developing and spreading good practice

This section builds on the findings from the previous chapter, that an influential success factor underlying ABIs is the need for them to be managed as flexibly as possible, to ensure that they are able properly to adapt to their local context. To understand better how local partnership initiatives can ensure appropriate flexibility and adaptability, a rapid review of 'learning infrastructures' was commissioned from the consultancy Sustainable Futures. This drew both on relevant literature and on targeted interviews across a range of public sector domains and organisations, including the Environment Agency. The purpose of this section is to:

- report the main findings of this review (4.1);

- highlight their relevance to the design of the IPE programme (4.2).

4.1 Key findings

The review highlights the extensive range of activity across the public sector that is seeking to enable organisations, both alone and in partnership, to improve their performance through learning approaches. Much of this activity is focused on enabling adaptation, either to local context, or to a rapidly changing context, or to the demands of new ways of working thrown up by partnership, or to some combination of all of these.

From this review, a number of themes emerge that we consider relevant to the design of the IPE programme. These are:

- a significant shift in approach from training to more interactive learning;

- the development of local 'infrastructures for learning';

- the application of interactive learning approaches to spreading good practice;

- national design and support for local learning approaches.

A significant shift in approach from training to interactive learning

The review found evidence of a significant shift away from conventional training methods to deliver learning and towards a much more interactive approach. In the latter, practitioner knowledge is as important to learning as knowledge brought in from outside. The review highlighted several reasons for this shift:

- conventional methods alone are not sufficient;

- the need for learning and management to be closely linked;

- policy support for new interactive learning approaches.

Conventional methods alone are not sufficient

There was some evidence from the review for the limited effectiveness of conventional training approaches when used on their own. For example, the evaluation of pilot training courses for the NRU's Delivering Skills Programme found that participants gained more from the networking element of these residential courses than from the training element.

Evidence from the literature provides an explanation for this. Where tasks are routine, then tried and tested approaches can be imparted through training. But where new, more flexible ways of working are required, as in many partnership situations, then tried and tested sources of knowledge may no longer be appropriate, and other sources are required.

One interviewee from the National College of School Leadership expressed this as follows: 'Traditional directions of knowledge transfer are less effective in a knowledge-intensive world. New learning cannot be gathered to the centre and disseminated. There is too much and that approach is too slow.'

The need for learning and management to be closely linked

The review found extensive evidence of new learning approaches where the focus was on 'learning by doing' and on the use of interactive approaches, such as mentoring, action learning and learning networks, as a means of crystallising and embedding learning. An emphasis across all these approaches is on learning as an integral part of the daily job of managing and partnership working, rather than something that exists in a separate world of training courses. Examples included:

- The 'whole school improvement' model developed through the National College for School Leadership (NCSL), in which schools are involved jointly with parents and the local community in interpreting new national policy interventions within their local context.

- 'Bradford Vision' (the LSP for Bradford) which uses learning as its overall delivery method rather than as a stream of activity parallel to delivery.

Policy support for new interactive learning approaches

Policy signals are also starting to show recognition of the value of new learning approaches. This was signalled particularly forcefully in the Egan Report on Skills for Sustainable Communities (2007): 'We firmly believe that attempting to upskill professionals in isolation will not produce the outcomes we are seeking. Instead success will depend on changing the attitude, behaviour and knowledge of everyone involved … To do this, we will need cultural change in professional skills and training'.

The development of local 'infrastructures for learning'

Not only did the review highlight the range of interactive learning approaches now in use but it also found evidence for the ways in which organisations are increasingly drawing on a number of different approaches in concert to provide a much more coherent and systematic approach to learning than in the past. Typically, these 'infrastructures of learning' draw on one or more of the following approaches (Table 4.1):

- **Action learning**, in which people work in small groups to tackle issues or problems that are facing their organisation/partnership, and through a process of supported reflection learn from their attempts to change things.

- **Coaching**, which aims to help a person plan for actions, carry them out and then reflect on outcomes; and **mentoring**, which is similar to coaching but more focused on a person's career or life and may be longer term than coaching.

- **Learning protocols**, which are used by the National College for School Leadership to set out a range of options for structuring and enabling on-the-job learning.

- **Whole systems methodologies and large group**, which provide opportunities to bring together diverse stakeholders to review, learn and plan together. For example, the LSP Bradford Vision has made extensive use of these methods.

- **Visits and study tours**, which provide opportunities for partnership members to visit partnerships managing a similar set of issues and explore with them how they are addressing these.

Table 4.1 Learning approaches used by different public sector organisations to support better local delivery

	Action learning	Coaching and mentoring	Learning protocols	Whole systems methods & arge group events	Visits and study tours
Academy of Sustainable Communities	Yes	Yes			
Bradford Vision	Yes			Yes	Yes
Communities First		Yes			
Creating Excellence	Yes	Yes			Yes
Improvement and Development Agency (IDeA)	Yes	Yes			
National College for School Leadership	Yes	Yes	Yes		Yes
National School of Government		Yes			Yes
Neighbourhood Renewal Unit		Yes			
Public Services Management Wales	Yes	Yes			
Wales Council for Voluntary Action	Yes				

The application of interactive learning approaches to spreading good practice

Across the public services, spreading good practice has proved hard to do. Selecting exemplars of 'best practice' and holding them up for others to emulate, as in the Beacons model applied to schools, NHS projects or local government, has proved less successful than hoped.

In looking at how different public sector domains are addressing this challenge, the review again found substantial evidence of interactive learning approaches being adopted to help

extend good practice beyond the immediate 'local' practitioner group. Approaches included (Table 4.2):

- **Communities of practice**, which connect individuals working in different localities and provide a professionally facilitated collaborative framework for them to find solutions where there are common interests. For example, the Improvement and Development Agency is in the process of setting up Communities of Practice, which they expect to operate at local, regional and national levels.

- **e-learning**, to support the learning both of individuals and of communities of practice.

- **Evaluation frameworks**, which provide an opportunity for reflection on and learning from individual learning programmes. For example, RENEW NorthWest is planning an evaluation framework that will capture outcomes from learning activities and events.

- **Exemplars**, which provide a forum in which to share the experiences of different local initiatives.

- **Learning networks**, which aim to facilitate learning and exchange within and between people who are working in a defined field. Examples include:

  – Communities First in Wales, which has a national network of nine partner organisations and also supports regional and local networks;

  – the NHS Institute for Innovation and Improvement, which is developing a Practice Partner Network through which 25 or more organisations agree to act as a test bed for initiatives and are contracted to spread learning.

Table 4.2 Learning approaches used by different public sector organisations to support better local delivery

	Communities of practice	e-learning	Evaluation frameworks	Exemplars	Learning networks
Academy of Sustainable Communities		Yes			
Bradford Vision				Yes	
Communities First					Yes
Creating Excellence			Yes		
Department of Constitutional Affairs	Yes	Yes	Yes		
Improvement and Development Agency (IDeA)	Yes	Yes		Yes	
National College for School Leadership	Yes	Yes			Yes
Neighbourhood Renewal Unit		Yes	Yes		Yes
NHS East Midlands Improvement Network					Yes
NHS Institute for Innovation and Improvement		Yes			Yes
RENEW NorthWest			Yes	Yes	
Wales Council for Voluntary Action					Yes

National design and support for local learning approaches

The review found that many public sector domains are not only drawing on interactive learning approaches as a means of stimulating the sharing of good local practice, but are also creating 'learning infrastructures' which draw on a 'blend' of approaches (as shown in Table 4.2).

Of key interest in relation to the design of the IPE programme is the approach being taken by national organisations in providing support for local learning approaches. The review found that, while there is no standard blueprint for building learning infrastructures for this purpose, the cases reviewed all highlight the need to:

- link learning and action very closely;
- build on what is already happening;
- provide policy support for such approaches, including feedback to inform future policy development.

4.2   Implications for the design of the IPE programme

These findings suggest that employing a range of interactive learning approaches within the IPE programme could significantly strengthen the capacity and effectiveness of local partnership arrangements.

Furthermore, they point to the value of an overarching learning infrastructure which will enable those managing the IPE programme to blend a variety of learning approaches within a design that provides for both national consistency and local flexibility.

It is suggested that three key design issues should underpin this national learning infrastructure:

- the learning infrastructure cannot be separated from the overall design and management of the IPE programme;

- guidance and support for learning should be made available through a central resource hub;

- there should be provision for ensuring that learning from the programme overall feeds into future policy development and research agendas.

In summary, it is suggested that if it is to successfully improve poor environments, the IPE programme will need to place equal emphasis on developing and extending good practice in partnership working. Whereas a stand-alone programme to improve poor environments is likely to be short-lived and of very limited influence, a programme to improve poor environments based on a learning model is likely to be sustainable in the long term, and have significant influence on future policy and research agendas as the lessons will be able to be fed into those agendas as the programme progresses.

5 Recommendations for developing a programme of interventions for 'Improving Poor Environments'

In this final section, we set out our proposed design for a recommended programme of intervention – 'Improving Poor Environments', or IPE. It has both pilot and mainstream elements, and is intended to tackle poor quality local environments in both the short and longer term.

The IPE programme has been designed in full acknowledgement of the fact that a great number of local projects have been, or are presently, addressing local environmental conditions, and that the Environment Agency and a wide range of other organisations have been instrumental in bringing these about. The distinguishing feature of the proposed IPE programme is the attempt to develop a *systematic approach*, in terms of identification of locations, methods and types of intervention, and appropriate learning mechanisms.

In the longer term, it is hoped that the IPE programme will help to move the issues of local environmental quality, and inequality, into the mainstream of national and local governance.

The recommendations are presented here under two main headings:

- Design issues (5.1)

- Specification (5.2)

5.1 Design issues

We identified 11 design issues for the IPE programme, in the light of the research elements highlighted above:

- **Defining 'poor environments'** – It is important to use definitions and designations that are sensitive, appropriate and understood.

- **Resident and other stakeholder perspectives** – It is essential to take on board the perspectives and attitudes of local stakeholders, throughout both the development and implementation of IPE.

- **Area-Based Initiatives** – It is imperative to take on board the lessons learned from recent evaluations of ABIs.

- **Other programmes** – It is important to acknowledge that multiple funding streams – from regeneration, public health, housing and so forth – will already be in operation in any particular location where the IPE is focused, and achieving synergy rather than duplication will be a priority.

- **Multi-agency working** – Multi-agency working is increasingly ubiquitous, and sets a key challenge for IPE, particularly since different agencies are more or less experienced at multi-agency working, and patterns and histories of multi-agency working vary from one location to another. Local Strategic Partnerships and Local Area Agreements will be central.

- **Spatial issues** – It will be essential for the IPE to have considered, and addressed, the relationships between agencies and organisations at different spatial levels (i.e. national, regional, local and neighbourhood), as well as to have a flexible approach to the precise geographic scale at which IPE operates.

- **Local variation** – Local variation is manifest not only in terms of environmental conditions but also in terms of the projects, agencies, communities, relationships and funding at play. Accordingly, an approach is required that acknowledges 'top-down' objectives while respecting 'bottom-up' perspectives.

- **Timescales** – Unwinding or unpicking environmental inequalities will take considerable periods of time. Initiatives that are too 'short-lived' will be and will appear ephemeral and will not engender trust or commitment; initiatives with timetables that are too long may appear insufficiently focused on 'doing' something.

- **Resources and funding** – In the short-term, specific resources have been identified by the Environment Agency for the purposes of funding a pilot exercise (see below). Since further dedicated funds are not presently available, the IPE programme needs to be developed in such a way that it can capitalise upon, or segue into, a range of possible future funding and resourcing mechanisms as and when they become available.

- **Learning infrastructure** – For both the short-term transfer from a pilot phase to a wide programme of intervention, as well as the longer-term maintenance of expertise and capacity, the IPE programme needs a bespoke learning infrastructure in place.

- **Monitoring and review** – Finally, there is no doubt that the IPE programme will (a) need careful monitoring and evaluation as it rolls forward, and (b) offers excellent opportunities for (participatory) research so as to continue the development of our collective understanding of 'cumulative environmental disadvantage' and the methods we may have at our disposal to address those disadvantages.

5.2   Specification

Given these design issues, the proposed IPE programme has the following elements:

- a means of **identifying locations** in which effort should be focused (as set out under 'Indicators' and 'Mapping', above);

- clear guidance on **nature of the effort** that could/should be expended in these locations;

- appropriate **support materials** to facilitate the expenditure of that effort;

- an initial focus on **pathfinder locations** in which the programme can be tested;

- a preliminary procedure for **rolling out** from the pathfinder locations to a wider set of locations.

The nature of the effort

The IPE programme will, in each location, be concerned with two types of task.

A – Partnership process

The *process* of identifying opportunities for partnership programmes of action will need to involve partners in:

- working with the MOM tool to visualise and explore the multiple environmental issues in local areas;

- developing a joint understanding of the impacts of these issues for people's health and quality of life;

- developing joint agreement on which issues (or sets of issues) most need addressing, and opportunities for delivering multiple benefits;

- developing joint understanding of the options for addressing these issues, and of the cost effectiveness of different options, for the short, medium and longer term;

- integrating research needs, and monitoring and evaluation requirements, within the decision-making process;

- where appropriate, seeking suitable funding to implement the most cost-effective solutions.

For the Environment Agency, it will be important to understand which solutions it will lead on, which solutions will require a partnership approach, and which can be left to others. The initial partnership approach will be critical to identifying this mix.

B – Action

A very wide range of possible actions could emerge from the partnership processes outlined. The IPE programme, it is proposed, should therefore have a very simple set of guidelines, or rules, to delimit such actions, as follows:

- any actions **must** be concerned with at least **three** issues from a predetermined list (such as 'flooding', 'green space' and 'biodiversity', or 'flooding', 'pollution' and 'traffic');

- any actions **must** be focused on communities that are locally judged to be disproportionately environmentally disadvantaged;

- any actions **must** have been determined in a transparent fashion by the partnership process referred to above.

Possible actions could therefore include:

- capital development projects, such as integrated flood protection and green space reclamation projects that promote both biodiversity and social inclusion;

- training for local residents to conduct their own air quality monitoring at busy junctions;

- use of consultants to deploy deliberative engagement techniques (*not* consultation) so as to develop community capacity around environmental issues;

- funding 'planning for real' exercises around new physical developments likely to have consequences for environmental equalities;

- provision of small-value equipment to disadvantaged communities to conduct community clean-up operations;
- developing a local 'impact assessment tool' to append to, for example, Health Impact Assessments specifically to take account of environmental inequalities;
- school-based or faith-based outreach projects to raise awareness of environmental issues among disadvantaged communities.

The support materials

In order to provide any given local partnership with the means to progress this agenda, and in the absence of a 'from the centre incentive' (in the form either of a funding stream or a key performance indicator), a range of support materials is proposed.

We have identified **seven** key requirements:

- **Background material** – briefing material explaining the IPE concept and programme.
- **MOM** – the mapping tool, with appropriate documentary guidance.
- **Funding sources** – indications of potential funding sources, together with guidelines on 'the rules' for such funding.
- **Issues** – outlining both the IPE issues in general, as well as specifying the 'action' requirements referred to above.
- **Perspectives** – summary of the kinds of language and conceptualisation used by different stakeholder groups around the IPE agenda.
- **Learning** – access to the learning infrastructure associated with the IPE programme, so as to share and learn in an ongoing fashion.
- **Examples** – information on illustrative examples of indicative projects.

Two other factors are also worthy of attention at this point:

- **Helping hands** – It is likely that, both at inception, and at points during the IPE process, some sort of 'helping hand' will be required. This may be needed, for example, to facilitate partnership dialogue, or to explain the MOM tool.
- **Institutional arrangements** – Notwithstanding the immense variability in the pattern of stakeholder interaction in different localities throughout England and Wales, the roll-out of the IPE programme will require a range of coordinated actions by key organisations.

The pathfinders

The pathfinders will focus on action to improve poor environments in disadvantaged locations. They will combine a focus on 'learning by doing' and a focus on research. The aim of the 'learning by doing' will be not only to bring about positive change in the pathfinder locations, but also to facilitate the roll-out of the IPE programme, by developing good practice both in processes of partnership development *and* of implementing action.

The research element will be an opportunity to extend understanding of cumulative impacts, building on a recent study commissioned by the Environment Agency (Stephens *et al*. 2007).

Given evidence provided from the indicator set referred to above, evidence from the case study research undertaken by Brook Lyndhurst, interest from regional and local Environment Agency partners, assessment of 'on the ground' capacity and input from the IPE Advisory Group,[8] we propose two pathfinders:

- **Teeside** – The suggested pathfinder location is in Stockton-on-Tees, because of its social and environmental deprivation.

- **London** – The likely pathfinder location is in East London, in the Lower Lea Valley, close to the main 2012 Games development site, where social and environmental disadvantage is very pronounced, where communities are at risk of further marginalisation by the development process, and where Environment Agency engagement is already beginning but not well developed. This should be consistent with work on the environmental disadvantage agenda already in play.

The roll-out

Propositions for the roll-out of the IPE programme are, inevitably, less well developed at this stage. In broad terms, and assuming the IPE involves targeted effort in 50 locations around England and Wales, a background set by national guidance and data will enable regional and then local partnerships to engage in the process of identifying those areas most needing structured intervention to address environmental inequalities.

Agencies that should be involved include Central Government (notably Defra and ODPM), the Environment Agency (at national, regional and local level), Natural England, Groundwork and the Wildlife Trusts, as well as regional government offices, Strategic Health Authorities (SHAs), Primary Care Trusts (PCTs) and, potentially, Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), LSPs, local authorities and local communities.

In broad terms, this process could/should take about a year,[9] during which time the two pilots will have had the opportunity to test the proposed support material, and initiate the proposed learning infrastructure. The intention would therefore be to roll out to a wider group of disadvantaged areas during the second year of the pathfinders.

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[8]   In addition to the Environment Agency, Defra, Brook Lyndhurst and Sustainable Futures project team, the Improving Poor Environments Advisory Group comprises: Ann Power (Sustainable Development Commission); Carolyn Stephens (London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine); Chris Church (Community Development Foundation); Maria Adebowale (Capacity Global); Maxine Holdsworth (London Borough of Islington).
[9]   This is roughly the amount of time allocated to the 88 NRU areas to undertake a similar exercise.

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Appendix 1: Bibliography from the rapid review of Area-Based Initiatives

This section provides an overview of the 40 evaluations reviewed on behalf of this study. In the first table the ABI evaluations are ordered by category, then overarching initiatives and case studies are listed in the other two tables.

ABI evaluations

Name of ABI	Category	Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
Health Action Zones	Health	Commentary on the Lessons Learnt from the Health Action Zone Experience. Benzeval, M. (2003) http://www.haznet.org.uk/hazs/evidence/hazexsum.pdf The final report of the tackling inequalities in health module (2003).	The overall aim of this part of the national HAZ evaluation was to develop an understanding of the different strategies to reduce health inequalities that HAZs have adopted in different contexts.
Healthy Living Centres	Health	Bridge Consortium (2002). Evaluation of the Healthy Living Centres. https://www.nof.org.uk/documents/live/2883p__hlc_eval.pdf The Evaluation of the New Opportunities Fund Healthy Living Centres. First Annual Report of the Bridge Consortium 2002. Bridge Consortium Team.	The objectives of the evaluation include: - to evaluate HLC programme success in terms of the aims of the New Opportunities Fund and HLCs themselves; - to contribute to the evidence-base regarding the successful strategies to improve health and reduce health inequalities.
Healthy Living Centres	Health	Evaluation of Healthy Living Centres (2004) http://www.nof.org.uk/documents/live/3999p__HLC_Evaluation_Year2.pdf Healthy living centres: year two of the programme evaluation. Big Lottery Fund. 2004.	This report summarises findings from the second year of the evaluation's fieldwork.
Community Participation Programmes	Community Groups	An Evaluation of the Community Participation Programmes (2005) http://www.renewal.net/Documents/RNET/Research/Makingconnectionsevaluation.pdf Making Connections: An evaluation of the Community Participation Programmes. ODPM/Neighbourhood Renewal Unit (NRU). Research report 15. 2005	The research team was commissioned to: • assess the extent to which the programmes are meeting the objectives of the NRU'S Community Participation strategy; • assess the impact Community Participation funding is having on the delivery of the Neighbourhood Renewal strategy; • share good practice; • inform future development.
Community Champions Fund	Community Groups	Evaluation of the Community Champions Fund (2004) http://www.renewal.net/Documents/RNET/Research/Evaluationcommunitychampions.pdf Evaluation of the Community Champions Fund. – ASW Consulting (2004). Crowder, M., Ellis, B., Owen, G., Watson, A.. Research Report No. 550.	This reports the key findings of a study undertaken by ASW Consulting for the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), to evaluate the impact of the Community Champions Fund (CCF). The study was undertaken between October 2003 and March 2004.
Community Cohesion Pathfinders	Community Groups	Evaluation of Community Cohesion Pathfinders (2003) http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/activecommunities53.htm Community Cohesion Pathfinders: the first 6 months. (Vantage	This report sets out progress made within the Pathfinder areas in developing and delivering their programmes in the first six months.

Name of ABI	Category	Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
		point/Home Office). Download Acrobat document at bottom of page.	
Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme	Public Space	Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme Evaluation (2004) http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/wardens32.htm ODPM research report 8.	This report summarises the findings of the national evaluation of the Neighbourhood Wardens Programme, carried out between June 2001 and May 2003.
New Deal for Communities	Regeneration Funding Programmes	New Deal for Communities: the National Evaluation http://www.edemocracy.gov.uk/documents/retrieve.asp?pk_docume nt=48&pagepath=http://www.e-democracy.gov.uk:80/knowledgepool/ Annual report 2002/03. Research Report 7. (2003). NRU	This report presents the findings from the first year of the main phase of the evaluation. The evaluation team carried out a range of tasks during 2002/03.
Business Broker Pilot Evaluation	Regeneration Funding Programmes	Business Broker Pilot Evaluation http://www.bitc.org.uk/resources/publications/bbevalfull.html Business Broker Pilot Evaluation Interim report (Jan 2004). CEA and EDuce ltd. Johnstone, D., Johnstone, S., Tyler, P., Warnock, C. Download Acrobat document from right hand side.	This evaluation is Stage one of a two-part evaluation designed to assess the added value that the Business Broker pilots have created and draw out lessons to inform the future development of the programme.
Neighbourhood Renewal Fund	Regeneration Funding Programmes	Assessment of the Neighbourhood Renewal Fund (2002) http://www.neighbourhood.gov.uk/displaypagedoc.asp?id=268 Neighbourhood Renewal Fund: Analysis and Assessment of Statements of Use 2001/02. ODPM NRU (2002)	This report provides a national and regional description of how the NRF has been used during 2001/02 and what impact this spend was expected to have.
Market Renewal Pathfinders	Regeneration Funding Programmes	Market Renewal Pathfinders: Learning Lessons (2003). National conferences report. ODPM http://www.renewal.net/Documents/RNET/Research/Marketrenewal pathfinders.pdf	The theme of the event in Manchester was learning lessons. This report gives a flavour of the emerging issues that the market renewal pathfinder programme – still in its infancy – is facing.
Single Regeneration Budget	Regeneration Funding Programmes	Evaluation of the SRB Challenge Fund: A Partnership for Evaluation. ODPM http://www.odpm.gov.uk/index.asp?id=1128644	A summary of the main findings of an Interim Evaluation of the Single Regeneration Budget Challenge Fund.
Single Regeneration Budget	Regeneration Funding Programmes	Turning Areas Around: The Impact of SRB on Final Outcomes. (summary No 4 ODPM). http://www.odpm.gov.uk/index.asp?id=1128597	The national evaluation of SRB is a long-term research project commissioned by ODPM, partly based on the analysis of 20 case study SRB partnerships. This document draws out some general lessons from the wealth of evidence generated by national evaluation research and provides some insights from the evaluation into the nature of the problems to be addressed by regeneration.
Market Towns Initiative	Regeneration Funding Programmes	Assessment of the Market Towns Initiative http://www.countryside.gov.uk/Images/12600RR039i4_tcm2-20763.pdf Countryside Agency. Assessment of the Market Towns Initiative. Final report. (2004) (Entec UK ltd)	The Countryside Agency, in conjunction with Defra, wish to assess the operation and impacts of the Market Towns Initiative, specifically looking at the problems and achievements arising in the towns to date.
Action Teams for Jobs	Employment	Evaluation of Action Teams for Jobs. Employment Service. (2000–2002) http://www.cesi.org.uk/kbdocs/eval01.pdf	The Employment Service commissioned ECOTEC Research and Consulting Ltd, Insite and MORI to evaluate the Action Teams for Jobs initiative during its first year of operation (Phase I). The overall aim of the initiative is to increase employment rates among disadvantaged groups in deprived areas.
Ethnic Minority Outreach	Employment	Ethnic Minority Outreach Evaluation http://www.dwp.gov.uk/asd/asd5/rports2005-2006/rrep229.pdf	The Department for Work and Pension's (DWP) Ethnic Minority Outreach (EMO) initiative was introduced in April 2002. This report

Name of ABI	Category	Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
		Department for Work and Pensions. Research Report number 229. Ethnic Minority Outreach: An Evaluation. Barners, H., Hudson, M., Parry, J., Sahin-Dickmen, M., Taylor, R., Wilkinson, D. (2005)	covers all aspects of its evaluation.
Partnership Development Fund	Crime Reduction	Evaluation of the Partnership Development Fund http://www.nacvs.org.uk/resources/documents/pdfevaluation.pdf National Association of Councils for Voluntary Service (NACVS). An Evaluation of the Partnership Development Fund. Interim Report September 2003.	The overall purpose of the evaluation was to establish whether the Fund had achieved its stated aims.
Small Retailers in Deprived Areas Initiative	Crime Reduction	Lessons from the Small Retailers in Deprived Areas Initiative (2004) http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs04/dpr29.pdf Home Office Development and Practice Report 29 (2004) Tackling crimes against small businesses – lessons from the Small Retailers in Deprived Areas Initiative.	This report draws on evidence from the SRDA initiative and provides guidelines for practitioners working to increase the security and viability of small businesses.
Crime Reduction Programme	Crime Reduction	Review of the Crime Reduction Programme (2004) http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs05/hors281.pdf Home Office Research Study 281. Investing to deliver: reviewing the implementation of the UK Crime Reduction Programme (2004)	This report discusses findings from a detailed systematic review of the processes through which the CRP was implemented.
Warm Zones	Energy	Warm Zones Evaluation (2004) http://www.cse.org.uk/pdf/pub1043.pdf Warm zones external evaluation second report.	This report is the second review of the Warm Zones pilot programme. The review forms part of the independent external evaluation commissioned by Defra and the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI). The review is being conducted by the Centre for Sustainable Energy (CSE) and National Energy Action (NEA), under the management of the Energy Saving Trust.
Business Improvement Districts	Business	Business Improvement Districts lessons learnt. http://www.ukbids.org/upload/public/Files/1/WoW.pdf Business Improvement districts: 10 words of wisdom from the national pilot.	Ten important lessons that can be learnt from Business Improvement Districts.

Overarching evaluations

Short reference	Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
Home Office (2004)	Home Office Review of Community Involvement in ABIs (2004) http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs04/rdsolr5304.pdf What works in community involvement in Area-Based Initiatives? A systematic review of the literature. Abbot, J., Burton, P., Croft, J., Goodland, R., Hastings, A., Macdonald, G., Slater, T. Home Office Online report: 53/04	This report is the product of a systematic review of research evidence on the effectiveness of community involvement in ABIs.
National Audit Office (2004)	National Audit Office (2004) http://www.nao.org.uk/publications/nao_reports/03-04/03041070es.pdf English Regions – Citizens Getting Involved: Community Participation in Neighbourhood Renewal. Report by the Comptroller and Auditor General.	This examination focuses on the extent to which the Single Community Programme is helping to get deprived communities involved in neighbourhood renewal, influencing local decisions and shaping local policy making.
Epolitix (2003)	Forum Brief: Regeneration Schemes Epolitix (2003).	Comment on Regeneration Schemes.

Improving poor environments: Identifying poor quality environments and devising a programme of intervention

Short reference	Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
	http://www.epolitix.com/EN/ForumBriefs/200307/D4078C9B-A3CA-4759-AD8B-E59A378D9839.htm	
ODPM (2005)	ODPM Research Report 16: Improving Delivery of Mainstream Services in Deprived Areas – the role of community involvement (2005). In collaboration with the Home Office and the Cabinet Office http://www.neighbourhood.gov.uk/displaypagedoc.asp?id=1561	The aim of the study was to address the question: Does service provision in which communities are meaningfully involved produce better outcomes in deprived areas than services delivered in other ways?
Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2005)	JRF (August 2005) Effective Participation in Anti-poverty and Regeneration Work and Research – Ref 0395. Beresford, P. and Hoban, M. http://www.jrf.org.uk/knowledge/findings/socialpolicy/0395.asp Full document available from – http://www.jrf.org.uk/bookshop/eBooks/1859353738.pdf	This project draws together the lessons from seven key initiatives which have sought to involve people with direct experience of poverty. It identifies existing obstacles and a series of helpful elements for improving practice.
Elster and Power 2004	Environmental Issues and Human Behaviour in low-income areas of the UK (ESRC Environment and human behaviour programme). Elster, J. and Power, A. 2004 http://www.esrcsocietytoday.ac.uk/ESRCInfoCentre/Plain_English_Summaries/environment/index512.aspx Sources of information also obtained from: http://www.psi.org.uk/ehb/projectspower.html http://www.psi.org.uk/ehb/docs/annualreport-Power.pdf	This research programme is interested in looking at why people behave as they do towards the environment, how they adapt to environmental change, and how public policy might support positive changes to these behaviours. These questions are looked at in the context of low-income communities in the UK.
	Regional coordination unit guidelines to government departments on doing an ABI: http://213.121.210.181/abi/guidance/guidance.pdf	This guide should be read by any government department proposing to develop a new Area-Based Initiative. The guidance recommends that departments contact the RCU at an early stage in policy development to allow time to reflect on the feedback given by the RCU/GO network on how the policy may work on the ground and current issues which should be given consideration.
Bauld et al. (2005)	Promoting social change: the experience of health action zones in England. Bauld, L., Judge, K., Barnes, M., Benzeval, M., Mackenzie, M., Sullivan, H. Journal of Social Policy, 2005. Vol 34. pp 427-446.	This article draws on findings from the national evaluation of the initiative. It provides an overview of the HAZ experience, and explores why many of the great expectations associated with HAZs at their launch failed to materialise.
Barnes et al. (2004)	Partnership Working in Sure Start Local Programmes: synthesis of early findings from local programme evaluations (June 2004). Barnes, J., Brodie, I. and Myers, P. http://www.ness.bbk.ac.uk/documents/synthesisReports/396.pdf	This report synthesises findings from local programme evaluations addressing partnerships and partnership working in Sure Start Local Programmes. The report is based on early findings from those programmes that have started the task of evaluating the nature and effectiveness of their partnerships.
Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2001)	Joseph Rowntree Foundation (Dec 2001). Planning and Designing Home Zones http://www.clubplan.org/CMS/usr/1517/Streets-for-People/Library/Rowntree%20report.pdf	The Joseph Rowntree Foundation, as a social housing landlord, was keen to understand and implement the home zone concept in its planned New Osbaldwick development in York. It therefore commissioned Mike Biddulph to examine lessons from both long-standing home zone schemes in Northern Europe and 14 recent pilot projects in the UK.

Case studies

Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
Department of Transport, Local Government and the Regions (July 2001).	The Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions appointed AMION Consulting in

Details of report/web link	Aims of evaluation
Urban Regeneration Companies: Learning the Lessons. Policy and Practice. http://www.urcs-online.co.uk/webmaster3/files/urcs/website/backgroundDocuments/Document/Amion_rpt_final_ver.doc	September 2000 to: draw out the wider application, policy and practice issues and lessons of the URC approach from the pilots as they complete their strategies and move towards implementation
Spelthorne Borough Council, Liveability Fund. Giving Power to Park Users. http://www.idea-knowledge.gov.uk/idk/core/page.do?pageId=1002533	Brief summary of an evaluation of a project aiming to improve local parks for the benefit of all residents and increasing ownership through consultation.
Northumberland Single Regeneration Budget Programme Evaluation, (November 2005). Northumberland Strategic Partnership. Clarke, F., Shaw, K. and Robinson, F. http://www.nsp.org.uk/downloaddoc.asp?id=617	This report presents the findings from an independent, external evaluation of the Northumberland Single Regeneration Budget (SRB) programme. The evaluation looks at how the programme was developed and managed, what it has achieved, and what lessons can be learnt.
Charnwood Community Cohesion Pathfinder Programme: Evaluation of Process Report (Feb 2005). Human Relations Network. http://www.charnwoodonline.net/uploads/1542a9b449eb65c606951060.doc?CPID=a462ca7954584b4c652486da8a61ed80	This report is an evaluation of the process for the delivery of Charnwood's community cohesion Pathfinder programme. The report sets out the key areas of weaknesses within the delivery mechanism process in addition to the reporting on the areas of strength within the programme's delivery process.
Thematic Evaluation of Leeds Health Action Zone. Centre for Health Promotion Research, Policy Research Institute, Leeds Metropolitan University. (Feb 2002). Green, J., Moran, G., Percy-Smith, J. and Tilford, S. http://www.haznet.org.uk/hazs/hazmap/leeds_theme-eval-sum-feb02.DOC	The aim of the evaluation was to answer the following questions: What is the added value to Leeds of being a Health Action Zone? What can be learned from our experience as a Health Action Zone that can be transferred into future initiatives?
Slough Education Action Zone: Evaluation and Monitoring Strategy. Rickinson, M., Schagen, S. and Wade, P. http://www.nfer.ac.uk/research-areas/pims-data/summaries/saz-slough-education-action-zone-evaluation-and-monitoring-strategy.cfm	This document summarises the final year evaluation of the EAZ and its work. It aims to provide an overview of the impact of the EAZ on Slough schools in terms of innovation, educational improvement, partnerships, and sustainability implications for the management and operation of the Excellence Cluster.
Doncaster Resident Support Workers Project: a local evaluation New Deal for Communities Evaluation Unit. Evaluation Report (Oct 2004). http://www.doncasterndc.co.uk/images/The%20Resident%20Support%20Workers%20Project%20-%20a%20local%20evaluation.pdf	The NDC Evaluation Unit undertook an evaluation of the RSW project from April to September 2004, and this report provides a written account of the evaluation process.
Home Zones/Residential Street Improvements Report. Bristol City Council (Jan 2002). http://www.clubplan.org/CMS/usr/1517/Streets-for-People/Library/Bristol%20report.pdf	This report outlines the findings of the Home Zones working group and recommendations on Home Zones and Residential Street Improvements for the Council's consideration.

Appendix 2: Top 50 districts under different weighting frames

1. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 1 'Big Picture'.
2. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 2 'Doorstep'.
3. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 3 'Health'.
4. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 4 'Equal Weights'.
5. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 1 with the IMD.
6. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 2 with the IMD.
7. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 3 with the IMD.
8. Top 50 districts identified under Weighting frame 4 with the IMD.
9. Top 50 districts identified when only 'flood risk' is weighted
10. Top 50 districts identified when only 'flood risk' is weighted with the IMD.
11. Top 50 districts identified when only 'Ambient air pollution' and 'Industrial airborne releases' are [equally] weighted.
12. Top 50 districts identified when only 'Ambient air pollution' and 'Industrial airborne releases' are [equally] weighted with the IMD
13. Top 50 districts identified using only the IMD.[11]

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[11] Note that this does not produce exactly the same set of locations at the official IMD, since, to be consistent with the other indicators used in MOM, the method of prioritising districts on the basis of SOAs is different.

Weighting frames

TOP 50	Weighting Frame 1 (Big environmental issues)	Weighting Frame 2 (Doorstep issues)	Weighting Frame 3: Health issues	Equal weightings
1	Runnymede	Liverpool	Westminster	Sheffield
2	Wakefield	Sheffield	Haringey	Enfield
3	Enfield	Southampton	Salford	Haringey
4	Westminster	Hackney	Sheffield	Wakefield
5	Windsor & Maid'head	Haringey	Windsor & Maid'head	Rotherham
6	Wyre	Salford	Hackney	Liverpool
7	Kirklees	N E Lincolnshire	Kensington and Chelsea	Nottingham
8	Leicester	Rotherham	Waltham Forest	Westminster
9	Erewash	Enfield	Reading	Richmond upon Thames
10	Richmond upon Thames	Bradford	Kirklees	Hammersmith & Fulham
11	Reading	Rochdale	Enfield	Hounslow
12	Rushcliffe	Pendle	Lambeth	Lambeth
13	Nottingham	Wakefield	Richmond upon Thames	Kirklees
14	Brent	Calderdale	Camden	North East Lincolnshire
15	Hounslow	Great Yarmouth	Hammersmith & Fulham	Brent
16	East Lindsey	Hyndburn	Wandsworth	Windsor & Maid'head
17	Haringey	Lambeth	Redbridge	Hackney
18	Warrington	Reading	Leicester	Reading
19	Elmbridge	Hammersmith & Fulham	Liverpool	Rochdale
20	Broxtowe	Bolton	Wakefield	Leicester
21	Waltham Forest	Blackpool	Nottingham	Wyre
22	Rotherham	Manchester	Brent	Camden
23	North Lincolnshire	Brent	Islington	Salford
24	Swale	Thanet	Hounslow	Calderdale
25	Redbridge	Sefton	Runnymede	Waltham Forest
26	Charnwood	Camden	Calderdale	High Peak
27	Tewkesbury	Macclesfield	Rushcliffe	Southwark
28	Sheffield	Barnsley	Birmingham	Great Yarmouth
29	Birmingham	Burnley	Sandwell	Wandsworth
30	North East Lincolnshire	Coventry	Leeds	Sefton
31	Broxbourne	Kirklees	Bradford	Southampton
32	York	Scarborough	Southwark	Runnymede
33	Newark and Sherwood	Leicester	Rochdale	Bradford
34	Derby	Hounslow	Lewisham	Hillingdon
35	East Staffordshire	Redcar and Cleveland	Kingston upon Thames	Merton
36	Woking	Islington	Merton	Kingston upon Thames
37	Sutton	Richmond upon Thames	Wyre	Islington
38	Oxford	Brighton and Hove	Ealing	Lewisham
39	Boston	Nottingham	Rotherham	Kensington and Chelsea
40	Hammersmith & Fulham	Stockton-on-Tees	Bolton	Tower Hamlets
41	Hillingdon	Sandwell	Barnet	Swale
42	Huntingdonshire	Bury	Elmbridge	Redbridge
43	Rochdale	Preston	Manchester	Rushcliffe
44	Bury	Hillingdon	Lancaster	Pendle
45	High Peak	Wyre	North East Lincolnshire	Bolton
46	Craven	Portsmouth	Doncaster	Scarborough
47	Kingston upon Thames	Wirral	Burnley	Elmbridge
48	Calderdale	Merton	Wirral	Erewash
49	Merton	Wigan	Bury	Birmingham
50	Lewisham	Northampton	Three Rivers	Burnley

TOP 50	Weighting Frame 1 (Big environmental issues) + IMD	Weighting Frame 2 (Doorstep issues) + IMD	Weighting Frame 3: Health issues + IMD	Equal weightings + IMD
1	Rochdale	Liverpool	Liverpool	Liverpool
2	N E Lincolnshire	Rochdale	Rochdale	Rochdale
3	Manchester	Manchester	Manchester	Manchester
4	Liverpool	Salford	Knowsley	North East Lincolnshire
5	Great Yarmouth	North East Lincolnshire	Salford	Salford
6	Middlesbrough	Great Yarmouth	Leeds	Great Yarmouth
7	Salford	Bradford	Bradford	Knowsley
8	Knowsley	Sheffield	Great Yarmouth	Sheffield
9	Stockton-on-Tees	Coventry	Wirral	Oldham
10	Oldham	Knowsley	Doncaster	Wirral
11	Doncaster	Stockton-on-Tees	Oldham	Bradford
12	Coventry	Leeds	Birmingham	Middlesbrough
13	Sheffield	Middlesbrough	North East Lincolnshire	Coventry
14	Wirral	Bristol, City of	Coventry	Leeds
15	Sunderland	Wirral	Westminster	Stockton-on-Tees
16	Bradford	Oldham	Bristol, City of	Doncaster
17	Bristol, City of	Blackpool	Sheffield	Bristol, City of
18	Blackburn with Darwen	Birmingham	Kingston upon Hull	Blackburn with Darwen
19	Leeds	Newcastle upon Tyne	Derby	Birmingham
20	Birmingham	Blackburn with Darwen	Blackburn with Darwen	Sunderland
21	Hartlepool	Doncaster	Leicester	Bolton
22	Kingston upon Hull	Sefton	Stockton-on-Tees	Westminster
23	Bolton	Nottingham	Sefton	Nottingham
24	Nottingham	Bolton	Burnley	Kirklees
25	Kirklees	Haringey	Nottingham	Kingston upon Hull
26	Wigan	Derby	Kirklees	Derby
27	Rotherham	Burnley	Middlesbrough	Newcastle upon Tyne
28	St. Helens	Leicester	Haringey	St. Helens
29	Westminster	Westminster	St. Helens	Burnley
30	Lancaster	Kingston upon Hull	Lancaster	Sefton
31	Newcastle upon Tyne	Sunderland	Hackney	Blackpool
32	Blackpool	Hackney	Blackpool	Leicester
33	Derby	Thanet	Tower Hamlets	Haringey
34	Wolverhampton	Kirklees	Bolton	Lancaster
35	Burnley	St. Helens	Newcastle upon Tyne	Wigan
36	Waveney	Wigan	Wolverhampton	Rotherham
37	Gateshead	Plymouth	Halton	Thanet
38	Leicester	Tower Hamlets	Sunderland	Wolverhampton
39	Thanet	Mansfield	Mansfield	Hartlepool
40	Hyndburn	Rotherham	Bury	Tower Hamlets
41	Haringey	Hyndburn	Walsall	Hyndburn
42	Sefton	Lancaster	Wigan	Halton
43	Preston	Halton	Islington	Mansfield
44	Wear Valley	Sandwell	Sandwell	Hackney
45	Wakefield	Redcar and Cleveland	Southwark	Preston
46	Tower Hamlets	Bury	Thanet	Wear Valley
47	Mansfield	Islington	Hyndburn	Bury
48	Halton	Wolverhampton	Tendring	Barnsley
49	Barnsley	Southampton	Tameside	Sandwell
50	Easington	Tameside	Newham	Tameside

TOP 50	Flooding only	Flooding + IMD	Air quality + IMD	Air quality only
1	Wyre	32UB Boston	00BK Westminster	Doncaster
2	Westminster	00CH Gateshead	00CE Doncaster	North Lincolnshire
3	Boston	00FY Nottingham	00BN Manchester	West Lindsey
4	Rushcliffe	30UQ Wyre	00BR Salford	Kensington and Chelsea
5	East Lindsey	00EU Warrington	00AU Islington	Westminster
6	Runnymede	00BK Westminster	00BY Liverpool	Brent
7	Warrington	00AP Haringey	00BQ Rochdale	Hammersmith and Fulham
8	Broxtowe	33UD Great Yarmouth	00CN Birmingham	Camden
9	Windsor and Maidenhead	00BR Salford	00BG Tower Hamlets	Barnet
10	Reading	00CN Birmingham	00BP Oldham	Ealing
11	Nottingham	00FA Kingston Upon Hull, City of	00FY Nottingham	Islington
12	Shepway	32UC East Lindsey	00DA Leeds	Haringey
13	Gateshead	00FK Derby	00BE Southwark	Hounslow
14	Gedling	00AK Enfield	00CG Sheffield	North Kesteven
15	Kingston upon Hull, City of	00EC Middlesbrough	00CX Bradford	Richmond upon Thames
16	Enfield	00CZ Kirklees	00AP Haringey	Wandsworth
17	Leicester	00BC Redbridge	00AG Camden	Hackney
18	Exeter	00MC Reading	00CW Wolverhampton	Harrow
19	Blackpool	00FN Leicester	00CQ Coventry	Lambeth
20	Erewash	00HC North Somerset	00BX Knowsley	City of London
21	Great Yarmouth	00KG Thurrock	37UF Mansfield	Southwark
22	Brent	00BN Manchester	00AM Hackney	Tower Hamlets
23	Charnwood	00HB Bristol, City of	00FN Leicester	Enfield
24	Huntingdonshire	37UG Newark and Sherwood	00BB Newham	Waltham Forest
25	Fenland	00AE Brent	00CB Wirral	Newark and Sherwood
26	Chester	00EF Stockton on Tees	00FK Derby	Merton
27	Haringey	42UH Waveney	00CS Sandwell	Hertsmere
28	Waveney	00EB Hartlepool	00BL Bolton	Hillingdon
29	Oxford	30UH Lancaster	00BU Trafford	Lewisham
30	Newark and Sherwood	00EY Blackpool	00AW Kensington and Chelsea	Newham
31	Broxbourne	00DB Wakefield	00FD North Lincolnshire	Kingston upon Thames
32	Broadland	00EX Blackburn with Darwen	00CC Barnsley	Three Rivers
33	North Kesteven	41UC East Staffordshire	00BZ St. Helens	Rotherham
34	East Staffordshire	00BH Waltham Forest	00CA Sefton	Bassetlaw
35	North Norfolk	29UL Shepway	00CZ Kirklees	Greenwich
36	Bedford	26UB Broxbourne	00BW Wigan	Redbridge
37	Redbridge	18UC Exeter	00EX Blackburn with Darwen	Croydon
38	Cherwell	09UD Bedford	32UD Lincoln	Watford
39	Merton	00CJ Newcastle upon Tyne	00AE Brent	Wolverhampton
40	Derby	00BW Wigan	00AY Lambeth	Sandwell
41	South Derbyshire	34UF Northampton	00CF Rotherham	Mansfield
42	Epping Forest	31UC Charnwood	00FA Kingston upon Hull, City of	Walsall
43	Tewkesbury	00CB Wirral	00BH Waltham Forest	South Staffordshire
44	Waltham Forest	43UG Runneymede	37UC Bassetlaw	Dudley
45	Elmbridge	37UJ Rushcliffe	00CU Walsall	Birmingham
46	Wycombe	30UK Preston	00BS Stockport	Bromley
47	Swale	23UE Gloucester	00ET Halton	Barnsley
48	Kirklees	00BX Knowsley	00BT Tameside	Elmbridge
49	Maldon	00HG Plymouth	00AN Hammersmith and Fulham	St Albans
50	Wakefield	12UD Fenland	00FC North East Lincolnshire	Barking and Dagenham

TOP 50	IMD
RANK	
1	Liverpool
2	Manchester
3	Knowsley
4	Rochdale
5	Middlesbrough
6	Bristol, City of
7	Wirral
8	Kingston upon Hull, City of
9	Nottingham
10	Salford
11	Leeds
12	Oldham
13	Coventry
14	Newcastle upon Tyne
15	Great Yarmouth
16	Bradford
17	North East Lincolnshire
18	Birmingham
19	Gateshead
20	Sheffield
21	Westminster
22	Stockton-on-Tees
23	Sunderland
24	Tendring
25	Doncaster
26	Sefton
27	Redcar and Cleveland
28	Blackburn with Darwen
29	Blackpool
30	St. Helens
31	Wigan
32	Wolverhampton
33	Wear Valley
34	Derby
35	Plymouth
36	Leicester
37	Halton
38	Mansfield
39	Barrow-in-Furness
40	Tower Hamlets
41	Bolton
42	North Tyneside
43	Wakefield
44	Kirklees
45	Lancaster
46	Southwark
47	Hartlepool
48	Stoke-on-Trent
49	Preston
50	Barnsley

List of abbreviations

ABI	Area-Based Initiative
BVPI	Best Value Performance Indicator
Defra	Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs
DfT	Department for Transport
EAZ	Education Action Zone
HAZ	Health Action Zone
HLC	Healthy Living Centre
IMD	Index of Multiple Deprivation
IPE	Improving Poor Environments programme
LSP	Local Strategic Partnership
MOM	Multi-Overlay Mapping tool
NaFRA	National Flood Risk Assessment
NDC	New Deal for Communities
NHS	National Health Service
NRU	Neighbourhood Renewal Unit
ODPM	Office of the Deputy Prime Minister
PM_{10}	Particulate matter smaller than 10 micrometres in diameter
SOA	Super Output Area
SO_2	Sulphur dioxide
SRB	Single Regeneration Budget

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