A PAST ADAPTS TO THE FUTURE :
An Old Japanese City Will Adapt To The Future with Preserving Its Past

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A Past Adapts to the Future : An Old Japanese City will Adapt to the Future with Preserving its Past

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ABSTRACT

Over the last quarter of a century, historic preservation has become a major component of urban revitalization in the US. Along with the cultural and economic benefits, the restoration of historic structures and environments has also produced a distinct improvement in the quality of life in several American cities.

Japan, on the other hand, has only recently begun to recognize the potential contribution of historic preservation to urban revitalization; and, in general, its recent revitalization efforts, especially in several small cities, have not been well formulated or well executed. It is proposed here that small, declining Japanese cities can be revitalized, both economically and culturally, by making effective use of their historic resources.

The concept of historic preservation as an urban revitalization tool is first discussed with emphasis on several major theories of preservation in an urban setting. Next, actual instances in which historic preservation was successfully integrated into urban revitalization programs are analyzed. Finally, a revitalization strategy for Otaru, a small declining city in northern Japan, is formulated based on the Urban Cultural Park concept implemented in the city of Lowell, Massachusetts.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Originating in Europe in the mid-nineteenth century, the historic preservation movement spread to America in the beginning of this century. Preservation activity in America began as a citizen-initiative at the local level and has developed into a key urban planning issue.

I first recognized the importance of historic preservation as an urban issue three years ago when I came to Boston from Japan. For over twenty-five years I had lived in downtown Tokyo where much of the historic environment had been destroyed either by war or urban modernization. Although I had visited many of Japan's historic cities such as Kyoto, I had never developed a strong attachment to them, but instead regarded them and all the historic elements in Japanese urban life as unimportant and totally unrelated to my personal, everyday experience of city life. In my college days, as an architecture student, I concentrated my attention on contemporary design and ignored older structures, thinking that "new is always better".

During my first year in Boston, I became interested in its many preserved historic environments and began to realize that my experience of them was actually enriching the quality of my life in the city. Walking in downtown Boston I particularly felt relaxed in the historic environments, to the point of thinking that contemporary buildings existed in order to highlight the historic environments. At first I tended to attribute these feelings to my excessive enthusiasm for a new and strange environment.

As time passed, I came to acquire a more practical understanding of Boston's historic structures when I discovered that the value people placed on them was a reflection of their high market value. Furthermore, my studies at MIT made me aware of the significance of historic preservation as a tool for city revitalization. In many of Boston's redevelopment projects, historic preservation efforts were integrated into revitalization strategies and contributed not only to economic development but to cultural development as well. For example, in Beacon Hill, conservation enhanced neighborhood identity and pride by improving the physical conditions which had been in a severe state of disrepair.

In addition, through my research at MIT, I was able to realize the important role the historic environment would play in the urban environments of the future. Based on my research, I learned that in the future, historic urban environments will serve as a "reservoir" of knowledge and information and will help meet the growing personal need for "self-actualization" by providing and enriching cultural and educational environment. These findings encouraged me to concentrate further on historic preservation issues and to search for an opportunity to use this tool for resolving urban problems in Japan after graduating from MIT.

Based on my research and personal experience, I understood one of the major problems facing small Japanese cities was the loss of uniqueness and identity due to the loss of historical resources. During Japan's major post-war development boom in the early 1960's the standard approach used by small cities in economic decline was to destroy historic environments and replace them with

totally new environments which had little connection to the area's past. These cities experienced short-term economic improvements followed by another period of economic decline. In effect, by destroying their historic environments, these cities also destroyed their attractiveness and uniqueness as urban environments. Observing this problem carefully, I was assured of the importance and necessity of historic preservation activity in the revitalization of Japanese cities in the near future.

My research on the role of historic preservation in urban revitalization was based principally on programs in the US, not only because I studied here but also because Japan lags behind the US in this area. While my US studies on historic preservation emphasize both the benefits and dangers of its application to city revitalization, the most frequent conclusion is that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. After examining several US programs, I chose to focus on the revitalization project in Lowell, Massachusetts. An old mill town which has seen economic decline, Lowell has been drastically revitalized through effective use of its historic resources. The significance of the Lowell case is the imaginative way it integrated historic preservation activity into its revitalization strategy by developing a new concept called the Urban Cultural Park. Originated by a Lowell educator and developed by several local agencies, the U.C.P. concept was based on a comprehensive revitalization perspective and succeeded in revitalizing Lowell not only economically but also culturally. The success of the Lowell project has much to teach small Japanese cities about the role of historic preservation in urban revitalization.

The goal of my research is to propose strategies for the revitalization of Japanese cities in Japan (such as Otaru in Hokkaido Prefecture) by means of the preservation of its historic resources. Otaru was chosen because it is a small city in economic decline which has seriously underused its considerable historic resources. Also, because Otaru happens to have an industrial and economic background similar to that of Lowell, I will propose a conceptual plan for an Urban Cultural Park in Otaru based on the Lowell model and aimed at revitalizing Otaru by utilizing its historic resources to their fullest extent.

Chapter Two of this thesis identifies the current economic problems facing small Japanese cities and provides an overview of past and current historic preservation activity in Japan. **Chapter Three** examines the effects of historic preservation activity on the formation of the urban environment and the quality of life people can experience in a restored urban environment. **Chapter Four** reviews the theories and applications of historic preservation for city revitalization in the US and suggest some major goals of historic preservation for the future. **Chapter Five** formulates strategies for a small Japanese city's revitalization through historic preservation, referring to the US experience and examining the issues affecting transferability of strategies from the US to Japan.

2.0 PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

The purpose of this chapter is to focus on the reasons why revitalization efforts in small Japanese cities have been misdirected. This chapter demonstrates my approach to this problem. First, I will explain the development of historic preservation activity in Japan from a merely property preservation movement to an urban revitalization methodology. Next, I will discuss the declining importance of small cities within the national development movement. Finally, I will discuss solutions to this problem by focusing on key issues affecting small cities.

2.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORIC PRESERVATION AS AN URBAN REVITALIZATION TOOL

The historic preservation movement in Japan is not new. In Japan or in any country, there has always been some recognition of the value of historic preservation, and there are numerous instances of the preservation of paintings, artifacts, and traditional kinds of performance by individuals and institutions. However, concerted historic preservation activities in an urban context were not begun until after World War II. Since that time, as Japanese society matured due to economic expansion, historic preservation activity has become a key element of city planning and is now being recognized as a city revitalization tool. A review of post-war preservation developments follows.

1) The Preservation Movement in Reaction to Aggressive Post-war Development

The first major historic preservation movement arose in reaction to the aggressive redevelopment boom of the 1940's and 50's. The reconstruction of Japan was proceeding very rapidly, but many urban problems emerged because development focused exclusively on economic growth. Large scale environmental pollution was rampant and many historic buildings and entire parts of cities were destroyed. Even Kyoto, exempted from the war-damage, with its thousand year old avenues, temples, and palaces was the target of a major development plan aimed at bringing in a modern city design.

Observing this flood of destructive actions in historical Japanese cities, some groups insisted on the need for legal protection. Finally, "Koto-hou", the law for protecting important Japanese historic cities, was established in 1966. However, the law's jurisdiction was limited to just a few important historic cites and did not cover the smaller cities. Furthermore, preservation objectives were focused on the constructed environment, such as temples and shrines, and the surrounding natural environment, such as green areas and forests. Therefore, even though many neighborhoods of large cities were designated as historical districts, valuable and unique living environments, such as residential buildings and street scenery, were not protected from new development.

2) The Environmental Protection Movement

It was not until the 1970's that people in Japan began to recognize destruction of the historical environment as an important environmental threat. Earlier, in the 1960's, the industrial pollution problem was so severe that it consumed nearly all of the nation's environmental concern. People were not able to extend their attention to broader environmental issues such as historic preservation.

By the 1970's, as a result of experiencing the effects of environmental pollution, communities and individuals had become sensitive to threats to their natural environment and aware of its destruction. In many parts of the country, environmental protection movements appeared aimed at preventing highway construction projects. As public awareness of natural environment issues increased, people started to pay attention to the historical environmental issue as well. People began to see that destruction of Japan's historic and cultural heritage had a major impact on everyday life. They recognized that in the past this heritage had served as a focal point of spiritual unity for the community and the nation, and that while environmental pollution affects the health and physical quality of life, cultural destruction affects the intangible aspects of the quality of life. Once people saw that the destruction of historic structures inevitably damaged cultural life as well, they began to recognize the importance of the historic environment for living a meaningful, communal life.

3) Changed Value

In 1973 and again in1979, Japan underwent major crises caused by surges in energy prices. Because Japan is almost entirely dependent on foreign sources for fuel resources, these surges were catastrophic and their economic reverberations are known as the "Oil Shocks." However, one unexpected consequence of these events was that they caused people to place a higher value on their city environment. People began to care more about the quality of life rather than the material satisfactions of modernization. Until Japan's first spurt of rapid economic growth was suddenly ended by the Oil Shocks, every city had been developed aggressively, aiming to become a metropolis with "modern", one-size-and design-fits-all physical settings. As a result, many smaller cities were homogenized in the modernization process, losing their original environments and being transformed into small Tokyos. Fortunately, the Oil Shocks awoke the Japanese to the dangers of excessive dependency on modern technology and reminded people of the importance of their traditional environment and cultural heritage. Many local governments started to establish laws to preserve their original city environments which had been so recently regarded as a nuisance, something old and obsolete.

4) Historic Preservation as a Revitalization Tool

In the late 1980's, a second period of rapid economic expansion has made people pay attention again to the historic resources of their cities. The current expansion has brought about the subsequent revitalization boom and has stirred competition among Japanese

cities. Increased tax revenues made public funds available for the improvement of urban environments, and in 1988, Japan's federal government declared that it would distribute one hundred million yen (about six hundred thousand dollars) to each of 3057 cities, towns and villages as a resource for urban revitalization. The government gave responsibility to the cities themselves to decide how to use this money and to devise their own methods of revitalization. This was a departure from earlier programs in which the federal government offered several alternatives for the cities to choose from. The government's support of a revitalization plan in which each city would chart its own course was broadly praised and stimulated self-efforts of small cities (although some people pointed out the imbalance of giving the same amount of money to different sized cities.)

Empowered by federal funds, small cities started to seek ways to revitalize itself, often competing with each other to find the most original idea. The results were quite diverse: the attraction of high-tech industry, tourism enhancement, educational innovation welfare programs, internationalization, and so on. However, intending to distinguish themselves from other cities through their unique cultural resources, many cities chose to focus on historical preservation and promotion. This trend has continued to the point that, now, historic preservation has been broadly applied as a revitalization tool.

2.2 PROBLEMS IN SMALL CITIES

In Japan, the gravitation of population, culture and money towards Tokyo has posed a major problem. In response, the government has tried to decentralize economic and cultural activities, moving them to other cities. The objective was to transform several large far-fling cities such as Sapporo (far north), Osaka (west), Nagoya (central), Sendai (north east), and Fukuoka (far south) into "secondary Tokyos." These cities are developing modern urban character, complete with high-rise towers, large shopping areas and smart office buildings. While these efforts have built up regional cities to some extent in terms of population and economy, smaller surrounding cities have started to decline rapidly because both young people and major industries have been drawn to the larger cities. Regrettably, there are now three layers of city structures in Japan with money and resources all being inevitably attracted toward the upper layer. The first layer is Tokyo; the second is the large regional cities; and the third is the small cities. Tokyo is always expanding, absorbing population and business from the regional cities. The regional cities, however, tend to stabilize because they absorb people from the small cities, even though they loose resources at the same time to Tokyo. Under these circumstances, the condition of the small cities is gradually deteriorating.

In order to overcome these problems, many smaller cities have chosen an approach similar to their neighboring regional cities; that is, they are trying to become "mini-Tokyos", and as a consequence, they have lost their individuality in exchange for a modern urban structure and identity. Renewal activities have resulted in large new

station plazas and widened streets, but the drastic changes in urban structure in the small cities have destroyed many remaining historical environments and accelerated the loss of unique and irreplaceable cultural features. Although the new urban structure could temporarily attain attractiveness for the small cities, that kind of attractiveness rapidly fades because other cities have a similar modern urban environment. Borrowed wisdom cannot work for a long time. Small cities which tried to become "mini-Tokyos" have begun to decline again.

Although, in many federally funded projects, small cities tried to use their historic resources as a basis for city revitalization, the basic approaches used were inappropriate and resulted in failure. The main reasons for these failures was the lack of adequate research and the lack of comprehensive perspective on the potential and limitations of historic preservation activity. In small city revitalization, historic preservation should be aimed at contributing to the quality of life in the whole city, by highlighting the hidden resources and utilizing the city's full cultural potential.

However, in many cases, preservation activity was focused solely on producing an economic contribution from enhanced tourism and commercial activities, but not on the potential for cultural contribution through community involvement. Therefore, the activity was isolated from the actual residents of the city. Furthermore, the preserved historic resources were used merely as museums for attracting visitors and to contribute to limited interest groups. They were isolated from the original activities of the area, and the connection between the preserved resource and the residents life

was neglected to to the severe detriment of the program. Although this kind of program succeeds in offering some monetary contribution to a limited area in the short-run, they result in failure in the long-run because people in the city turn their backs on them. It must be recognized, therefore, that successful historic preservation is based on integrating the program into the everyday life of the people who live in the city.

On the other hand, there are several cases of small cities which indicate a new direction in historic preservation activity. In these cases revitalization was approached through cultural development which included the residents. For example, Kusu-town in Oita Prefecture in South of Japan, organized a festival celebrating the fairy tales which had long been part of the town's culture. On festival day, townspeople themselves entertain the children of Kusu and visitors alike with this rich cultural tradition. While the children can learn about their own town's history and folklore, the city itself benefits to some extent monetarily from outside visitors.

The difference between this successful example and other failed cases is that this example focuses on benefiting the town through the cultural activities of the residents. The preservation activity in this case revitalizes the town by reestablishing community pride and city identity rather than just through enhancing economic development from tourism. These lessons learned from both successful and failed cases should prompt Japanese cities to reconsider their approaches to historic preservation for city revitalization.

2.3 FOCUS : Small City Revitalization Through Historic and Cultural Preservation

As discussed above, many small Japanese cities have failed in their revitalization efforts because of the non-use or misuse of their historic and cultural resources. But the small city can avoid these failures by reconsidering its approaches to and expanding its perspective on historic preservation activity. Actually, on the basis of the failures, a number of people have wanted to devise a better direction for historic preservation in small cities by stressing seven basic issues. These issues are large scale preservation; improving city image and community pride; integrating history into the physical environment; and planing and implementation process.

1) Large Scale Preservation

In Japan and in the US, historic preservation activity has expanded in scale from individual buildings to town and urban planning. If an individual building is restored but the historic areas surrounding it are ignored, the building soon loses its value. Therefore, an effective management system for large scale historic preservation is necessary in Japanese small city efforts.

2) Improving City Image and Community Pride

Improved city image and community pride are key elements for successful revitalization of small and declining cities. When the image of the city improves, a new community pride emerges and furthers the implementation of revitalization. Even though it does not make a direct economic contribution, the community pride

generated through collaborative citizen activity is, in itself, a major benefit of urban revitalization.

3) Integrating History into the Physical Environment

As already discused the conventional way to preserve and utilize historic materials has been to warehouse them in museums. Therefore, strategies are needed for making historic resources more tangibly available not only to visitors but also to people in the city.

4) Planning and Implementation Process

In the past, Japanese planners have been prone to pay more attention to physical design and to follow examples of existing layouts rather than to take local conditions and concerns into account. This approach often resulted not only in the loss of uniqueness of physical settings, but also in the failure to involve community and private sectors in the restoration effort.

Focusing on these issues in later chapters, I will devise a viable strategy for revitalization of small Japanese cities by means of historic preservation.

3.0 PEOPLE, HISTORIC RESOURCES, AND CITY ENVIRONMENT : Principles and Goals

This chapter discusses the following issues which have a direct bearing on historic preservation in an urban setting : (1) the human factor or, more specifically , the personal motivations behind historic preservation; and (2) the impact of historic preservation on the urban environment.

3.1 PEOPLE AND HISTORIC RESOURCES : Why People Preserve Historic Resources

People are motivated to preserve an old building for the same reason that they treasure books, folklore, recordings and photographs; they desire to keep the past alive. The desire to keep historic resources alive is motivated by certain unique factors as discussed below.

1) The Physical Link to the Past

In general all historic resources physically link our present to our past. Some portion of the past must be preserved if we are to recognize who we are, how we became so and, most importantly, how we differ from others. Historic structures, when restored, are like living relics of our past existing right in the midst of our everyday environment. Compared to them, archives and photographs and books do not impart the same warmth and immediacy of our physical heritage. The shadow simply does not capture the essence of the object (Williams, 1983, 59).

2) History as an Important Partner in Our Everyday Lives

We strive to integrate our historic heritage into our daily lives simply because we have lived with it, and it has become part of us. The presence of our physical past creates expectations and anticipations that are important parts of our daily lives. Knowing how our environment creates us and how we create our environment, we tend to replace parts of our physical past only when they no longer have meaning, or when other needs are more pressing, and we do so or should do so with caution (Williams, 1983, 59).

3) The Uniqueness of Our Cultural Heritage

The astounding communication technologies which shape modern life contribute to an increasing cultural homogeneity, causing us to consciously and subconsciously reach out for any opportunity to maintain difference and uniqueness in our lives. Preservation of our physical heritage meets this need in a visible and tangible way.

4) Preservation as a Way of Honoring the Past

We preserve historic sites and structures because of their relation to past events, eras, movements and persons that we feel are important to honor and understand (Williams, 1983, 59). Preservation of historic structures and sites is an expression of our respect for the past -- for the events, movements, beliefs, and people which created our present culture and who we fell compelled to honor and to know. Preserving historic structures, in effect,

preserves the historic associations inherent in the structures and respect we feel for them. More than objects of nostalgia and patriotism, they are potential sources of imagination and creativity aiding our attempts to understand, appreciate and above all learn from the past.

5) The Intrinsic Artistic Value of Historical Structures

The architectures and landscapes of the past often have intrinsic value equal to that of the painting, sculpture and decorative arts housed in museums. They are, therefore, an integral part of people's cultural heritage. If we accept the philosophy of architect Walter Gropius, we should give greater consideration to the preservation of architecture than to that of other artistic objects because, in his view, architecture is a synthesis and culmination of artistic endeavor and the supreme medium of human expression. We cannot offer empirical proof of such an opinion, of course, but the thought does express the importance of architecture in our artistic tradition. If we were to value historic structures as we honor our other works of art, much wanton destruction might be prevented (Williams, 1983, 59).

6) The Right to a Esthetic Environment

We seek to preserve our past because we believe in our right to have beauty in our cities and countryside. Here, with much regret, we must recognize the essential tawdriness of contemporary design and construction. Much of it is junk; it assaults our senses (Williams,1983, 59). We seek to preserve the past, not only because

it is unique, exceptional, architecturally significant and historically important, but also because in most cases what replaces it will be inhuman and grotesque (Williams,1983, 59). Potentially, of course, many old buildings could be demolished and replaced with contemporary structures of equal functional or aesthetic value. Yet, recent experience has shown that this is not likely, and until it is, we should preserve our past in order to preserve what is left of our pleasing and humane urban and rural landscapes.

In summary, we seek to preserve historic resources because we have discovered --all too late --that preservation can serve an important human and social purpose in our society. Historic resources display, for those who use the area, a visible manifestation of the passage of historical time and serve as a reservoir of accumulated knowledge and information. Even though modern communication systems are highly developed, and beautifully photographed books, travel films, and the like are readily available, they do not provide the same quality of experience as do the actual physical structures. People can feel an enriched quality of life when they see actual history and culture in the daily environment rather than seeing them in the museums or reading about them in books. In short, historic preservation can provide a unique enrichment to the quality of human life.

3.2 HISTORIC RESOURCES AND FORMATION OF THE CITY: Urban Design and Planning Consideration

From the view point of urban design and planning, historic preservation can have a direct bearing on formation of the city in two major ways. First, historic resources affect the physical formation of the city by their contribution to its physical structure. Secondly, historic resources have an impact on the non-physical formation of the city by helping to create its image and atmosphere.

1) Impacts on Physical Formation

A Basis for the Patterns of City Scape

In Japan, there are many cities which were once castle towns; in these modern times, the present city order is determined by the structure of the old castle townscape. In these cases, historic constructions such as old stone walls and moats have continued to determine the city form until the present time. These historical remnants have much to teach modern city planners. For example, the patterns of old streets were often determined by the symbolic buildings such as castles, or by significant geographical features such as hills. Interestingly, the cities based on the these street patterns are well-organized and functional, while modern cities are sometimes not as well ordered because they have been built strictly on the basis of economic considerations.

Naturally, these traditional street layouts often conflict with the modern urban system based on motor transports. As an

example, in Kyoto, the width of old streets is not adequate for large cars, and frequent traffic jams occur. Many old cities have serious difficulties in resolving these incongruities, but nonetheless, for those cities which do not have the administrative power to build synthetically, the old city orders which were determined with a single objective are still playing an important role in the formation of urban environments.

A Source of Open Space

Historic sites in the city often offer havens of open space in the dense urban environment. These old sites often have a large open space surrounding the buildings, which can be utilized as a park, a plaza for disaster refuge, and a public meeting places or as a buffer against the punishing urban climate in terms of bringing in sunshine and encouraging air circulation. For example, the open space in the Imperial Palace in Tokyo is expected to be used as an important earthquake refuge space, because the surrounding business districts do not have ample spaces for disasters.

The open space of historic sites is important not only for dense downtown areas but also in newly urbanized locations. It is difficult to get a new open space in dense downtown areas because of land scarcity whereas in newly urbanized areas, immediate necessities such as depots and houses take priority. The development of park is, therefore, put off because this kind of open space does not produce direct monetary value for developers. In these areas, the existing open space in the historic districts provide small but needed relief from the harshness of the urban environment.

A Control on Excessive Development

Often regarded by developers as an annoying obstacle, historic sites have in fact indirectly interfered with uncontrolled development. Policies and ordinances project the historic site itself and its surrounding areas from being destroyed to make room for new development; and in this way these sites have played a part in preventing overcrowding of the area. Developers have not shied away from developing the historic sites not because of recognition of their historic value, but rather to avoid the red tape involved in obtaining permission to do so.

2) Non-physical Formation

The City's Image

Historical sites reflect the city's history and culture and can therefore help to create its distinctive image both for its residents and for the outside world. Even when the historic resources are physically scattered, people absorb their collective impact and transform this into their images of the city. The formation of these images depends not only on the value of the sites, but also on the significance associated with them. When these associations are especially interesting, the city's image will tend to remain in people's memories. Therefore, the formation of the city's image is not derived directly from the historical settings, rather it is derived indirectly from the lore and learning resonant in the historic environment.

Regional histories are often unique, and they are able to attract interest because of their accessibility and familiarity. Many recent redevelopment projects in small Japanese towns have used local stories to help establish a unique image of their town. Among the many small cities undergoing revitalization, a unique image can contribute to redevelopment by encouraging civic pride.

Examples of Architectural and Spatial Excellence

Historic structures often exhibit a higher quality of space usage than do modern buildings. In many older buildings the decorations are elaborative and materials are carefully selected because they were designed and built on a grand scale, using great expenditure of time, energy, and planning which cannot be achieved at the present time. As discussed earlier, in the historic architectures beautiful, spiritual, and tense spaces form unique space which are still still capable of impressing people with some aesthetic value. People appreciate the intense aesthetic and spiritual qualities of these old and distinguished structures and can learn by observing the excellence of the design and construction. The architect's education begins with the study of ancient structures and their influence continues to be seen in modern designs of distinction.

Points of Reference in Geographical Orientation

In a crowded urban environment, a prominent and distinguished historic structure can provide geographical orientation as well as historic image and identity. A prime example is that of castles which usually stand in key locations of the city and can be

readily used as points of reference. In Kyoto, the five-story pagoda is a key orientation point for visitors.

The role of historical structures as geographical reference is principally derived from their physical significance but it is also enhanced by their traditional popularity and historical status. Because historic structures have existed in cities for a long time and are more widely known than new structures, people often refer to the historic structures.

4.0 HISTORIC PRESERVATION AND URBAN REVITALIZATION IN THE US

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the issues of historic preservation in the context of urban revitalization based on the US examples. First, I will discuss the theoretical bases for using historic resources in urban revitalization efforts. Next, I will examine an application of historic preservation for city revitalization in the case of Lowell, Massachusetts. Finally, on the basis of the US models, I will suggest major goals for future historic preservation activity for city revitalization.

4.1 THEORETICAL BASIS

4.1.1 History of Preservation Movement and Trends

[Buildings Reborn]

The US's federal recognition of its historic resources to preserve occurred in the early part of this century. In 1916, the National Park Service was created and intended to preserve for public use historic sites, buildings, and objects of national significance. At that time, the Congress proclaimed a national policy for historic preservation, but adherence to the policy was not widespread or consistent.

On the basis of the US's reflection of insufficiency of its early efforts for preservation, the private non-profit National Trust for Historic Preservation was chartered by the Congress in 1949 to encourage public participation in the preservation of sites, buildings,

and objects significant in American history and culture. This trust has worked for preserving American heritage and has expanded in membership since its creation. Then, in 1966, the National Register of Historic Places was created under the aegis of the National Historic Preservation Act, providing for the preservation of local as well as national sites.

Following this series of federal initiatives, the most rapid growth in the preservation movement has occurred during the last decade, when interest in preservation has become a fundamental element in city planning. Preservation activity in the US developed beyond the single-building-oriented, donation-dependent, house-museum approach to a broader perspective embracing community revitalization and commercial adaptive-reuse. The rapid growth of the movement in this period has been empowered by the following trends:

1) Urban Renewal

The movement to preserve urban environments developed as a reaction to the failure of urban renewal activities in the 1950's and 60's. During these years, troubled cities in the US undertook massive renewal programs, bulldozing entire neighborhoods and replacing old but usable buildings with totally new ones. The new city environments were clean and efficient but radically different from the old environments and soon proved to be unsatisfactory as human environments. Many urban renewal projects in this period became breeding grounds for crime, accelerating the decay of downtown areas, and the flight to the suburbs of those who could afford to get

out, aggravating the despair of those who could not. The failure of urban renewals caused people to reflect on the wisdom of preserving the old city environments.

2) Activist Spirit

The activist spirit which flowered in the 1960's, spurred by environmentalist groups, encouraged American society to move toward historic preservation. This activist spirit also produced a confrontational mood among citizens toward all institutions-- and especially toward the local, state, and federal government. Decisions to level landmark buildings or whole districts were no longer silently accepted, nor were they protested by just a few individuals chaining themselves to bulldozers. Instead, decisions were challenged by growing numbers of organized men and women who had taken the trouble to learn about the system and who knew how to apply political pressure.

This activism had also spawned a vigorous environmentalist movement, whose members soon realized that environmental recycling and architectural recycling were intimately linked. James Marston Fitch says "Except for isolated country churches or a castle here or there, any monument worthy of preservation can only be reserved in its context.... The issue is fundamentally an environmental one. This , of course, explains the new kind of unity that exists between conservationists -- the people who are dedicated to the protection of the natural or god-made environment -- and architects and historians who are interested in protection of the

man-made environment. It is now understood that these are two sides to the same coin (Diamonstein, 1978, 17)."

3) Fluctuations in the Economy

The fluctuating economic situation in the US, in the 1960's and 1970's, required increases in historic preservation work in order to mitigate the rising unemployment. The country's unstable economic situations, from the boom of the mid-1960's to one of the worst recessions in the nation's history in the early 1970's, forced preservationists to notice the labor-intense nature of preserving old buildings. In the US, the construction industry has a huge impact on economy. Therefore, mitigating the effects of the declining economic situation, by stimulating the construction industry has been a popular government policy whenever the need arises to counteract negative economic conditions. The preservationists were quick to make the point that renovation work can often generate more jobs than new construction in the same volume of building : every million dollars of renovation work generates 107 jobs, versus 68 for a new building (Dianonstein, 1978, 17).

During the recession period of the 1970's, developers were also looking for a way to expand their businesses and responded to the government tax incentive for historic preservation. Thus government assistance programs stimulated and stabilized the preservation business in the fluctuating economy.

4) Energy Crisis

The energy crisis of the 1970's encouraged the reuse of existing buildings instead of new construction in order to lessen the wasteful use of resources. It has caused a realization of the finitude of resources on the earth and of how little time people have to save them (Diamonstein, 1978,17). During the energy crisis and the energy conservation movement which followed, some studies reported the energy-saving aspect of building rehabilitation of buildings compared with new construction of buildings (Williams, 1983, 235). Another important study investigated the amount of energy needed to build new buildings and the amount necessary to rehabilitate existing ones. It determined that it took 23% less energy to rehabilitate existing buildings. There is little doubt that a large amount of energy is consumed to build, rehabilitate, and operate all the buildings in the country. Therefore, people began to realize the wastefulness of the demolition of these existing buildings and they focused on the preservation or rehabilitation.

5) Decline of Modernism

The growing momentum of the preservation movement was partially in response to the decline in popularity of modern architecture. From the 1970s through 1980s, architecture in the US was undergoing a change from a modernist to a postmodernist style. Diamonstein explains these changes ; "The decline of modernism, with its impersonal and often brutal Minimalism, brought the beginnings of a more eclectic, less didactic postmodernist era. While many spare, unadorned modern structures continue to be built, some

of excellent design, ornament is no longer considered a crime. This change in attitude can only help those buildings once condemned by architects (even before they were condemned by zoning boards) largely because they were not sufficiently functional. This does not necessarily mean that we will soon be seeing new buildings with gargoyles and gingerbread, fretwork and corbels, spirals and turrets; it is just that such wild flowering of the designer's imagination will no longer be dismissed out of hand (Diamonstein, 1978, 17)."

Until this period of reaction to modernization, American society had been transforming its building environment solely on the basis of efficiency and functionality. Many institutional buildings were built with cold-feel materials, such as glass, concrete, and steel frame and they were utterly disconnected from the past. Postmodernism changed architectural attitudes toward reevaluation of the past. Many architects adopted a historic image in their designs, and some preserved parts of existing historic buildings in their new construction. In these ways, the decline of modernism and the beginning of postmoderm significantly enhanced the historic preservation movement.

6) Preparation for the US's Bicentennial Celebration

By increasing the interest in preserving the country's heritage and maintaining its physical identity, the bicentennial celebration of the US caused a preservation boom across the country(Viskanta, 1988, 9). The US Historical Preservation Act of 1976 focused on the bicentennial celebration and Massachusetts enhanced the development of Quincy Market project in Boston at that time. Books

such as Space Aflift, by John J. Costonis, reflected this growing concern and discussed economically viable alternatives to the demolition of historic structures.

7) Economic Incentives to Private Sectors

Several economic incentives to the private sectors with regard to historic preservation accelerated the historic preservation boom in the US. Most important of all for preservation may be a new law which permits the General Service Administration to transfer architecturally and/or historically worthy buildings to a locality for one dollar return for assurance of successful preservation and re-use (Diamonstein, 1978, 21).

The Tax Reform Act of 1976 and the Economic Recovery Act of 1981 also gave real economic incentives to the private sectors to support preservation and reuse of old buildings (Viskanta, 1988, 8). In Section2124 of the Tax Reform Act, there was a provision for the deduction of expenses incurred for demolition and the rapid depreciation of the improved property. This provision also removed accelerated depreciation for new construction that replaced a certified historic property and disallowed deduction of demolition costs as a construction expense. The Economic Recovery Act provided a three-tiered system of investment tax credits depending on landmark status or age of the building. These credits were especially appealing because they were deductible from taxes owed rather than from gross income.

8) New Urban Sophistication

A more sophisticated attitude towards the future has arisen in the US and is requiring the society to preserve and use the historic environment as a source of knowledge. The new sophistication was , spurred by the rising level of education, wider travel, and the far-reaching effects of television and other forms of advanced communication systems. As discussed in an earlier chapter, a historic city can serve as a reservoir of knowledge, and the "knowledge society" of the future in which many people hold jobs connected with one phase or another of communications and education, will require a new evaluation of history (Diamonstein, 1978, 17). The new role of history as a source of knowledge and information and the growing emphasis on education in general will give further impetus to the preservation movement now and in the future.

4.1.2 Large Scale Preservation

Perhaps the most significant recent development in the historic preservation field is the shift in focus from the individual structure or single artifact to the larger scale restoration of total historic environments. This new emphasis is founded on what has been called the "ensemble" concept -- a recognition of the value of the space and buildings surrounding a single structure of major historic value.

The ensemble approach developed as it became increasingly apparent that single structure preservation efforts were not

producing satisfactory results. For instance when the surrounding area was not restored the value of the preserved building itself was adversely affected. The fact that the quality of surrounding buildings not only affected but in many cases determined the value of the historic site led to the realization that restored ensemble areas could be valuable even if they did not center around one focal point of historic significance. Further, ensemble restoration has led to the realization that the quality of a preserved environment depends upon the quality of each element in it ; the removal or incongruity of single building could destroy the "mood" and value of the entire area.

In general, the shift in perspective from the "museum" concept to the recreation of entire historic environments has been responsible for much of the success of recent, large scale urban revitalization. As preservation activity in itself has become a more integrated process, so too has it become more closely interrelated to other major areas of city planning. A good example of this development is the issue of traffic control. While it is relatively simple to ordain that private cars are no longer to have access to historic centers, it is less easy to decide that deliveries are no longer to be made to shops in the area, and that ambulances and fire engines are to be excluded as well (Williams, 1983, 278). In the increasing number of cases like this, city planning is required to achieve two objectives: protecting historic structure as much as possible, and maintaining a "livable" quality in the city. Therefore, recent historic preservation activities have often been undertaken within the framework of overall developmental objectives. Especially

during the past quarter of century, there have been a number of cases of large-scale historic preservation projects following this format, which are discused below.

a) Entire Historic Towns

The largest preservable historic unit is the entire area of original settlement. Preserved original settlements are currently embedded within the larger modern structures of several American cities, including New Orleans, Savannah, and Santa Fe. Certainly one of the most outstanding examples of preservation of this scale is Colonial Williamsburg in which the original colonial configuration is almost complete and is tangent with contemporary Williamsburg only on its eastern boundary (Fitch, 1982, 41).

A few smaller historic American villages have survived the ravages of time and are now preserved in their original rustic condition, e.g., Harrisberg, Vermont; Deerfield Village, Massachusetts; and Pleasant Hill, Kentucky. Unfortunately, due to the extensive urbanization of North America, surviving historic settlements of this kind are scarce and scattered.

2) Historic Districts

Historic districts are currently the most active preservation module in the US. They consist of urban areas whose location and structures both have historic significance. Classic examples are the Vieux Carre in New Orleans, Society Hill in Philadelphia, and College Hill in Providence. In some cities, such as Savanna, Charleston, and Annapolis, the historic districts has been expanded to encompass

almost the entire business district (Fitch, 1982, 41). There are now dozens of such districts across the country, and their number is over three thousand and is still growing.

3) Historic Building Complexes

Dominated mostly by commercial projects, the preservation of complexes entails the revitalization of old and deteriorated buildings such as warehouse complexes and market buildings. Notable examples such as Pike place in Seattle and Faneuil Hall Market Place in Boston have shown that this type of project can make a significant contribution to a city's economic development and also have a major impact on the immediate environment and the overall image of the city. Complex preservation is therefore becoming a major focus of urban planning efforts, while some market place projects in waterfronts failed in business mainly due to lack of their own character and proliferation of similar projects.

4.1.3 Major Contributions of Historic Preservation to Urban Revitalization

The contributions made by historic preservation to urban revitalization can be categorized as physical, economic, and social benefits as follows.

1) Physical Benefits

Historic preservation's most obvious contribution to the urban environment is cosmetic: it improves the way a city looks. While not

dismissing the fact that new construction can do this as well, planners have come to realize that the visual richness of historic structures has a striking impact which captures the vitality and variety of a city's heritage as well as the character of its people. New construction may look attractive but it cannot express the uniqueness of a city's aesthetic and cultural heritage as effectively as preserved structures can (U.S. Dept. HUD, 1977, 7).

A second physical benefit of preservation is its regenerative effect on the surrounding area. Renovations of historic structures focus the attention of the public sector on the need to upgrade contemporary buildings adjacent to the historic area, often leading to a concerted program of supplementary infrastructure improvements in public and private areas alike (ACHP, 1977, 5).

2) Economic Benefits

As discussed in preceding sections, the economic benefits of historic preservation can be considerable. Both in terms of stimulating existing commercial activities and helping to create new ones, it is a decidedly positive influence on a city's economic growth and the profitable promotion of the city's image.

Creating New Employment

The labor-intensive rehabilitation projects have an impact on the local economy. As discussed above, rehabilitation projects are generally more labor-intensive than new construction. According to a study, 75 % of a rehabilitation project's expenditures is for labor, while new construction costs are usually about for 50% labor and for

50% materials (Williams, 1983, 235). What these figures indicate is that the greatest part of the money spent on rehabilitation goes directly into the local economy to support commerce and increase employment. Historic preservation work can, therefore, produce more employment and have a greater impact on the local economy than new construction work.

Stimulating Tourism

People travel to experience the unique and interesting features of other areas, and as discussed above, old buildings constitute the most tangible and accessible source of this kind experience. Clearly, major economic benefit resulting from the renewal of a city's character and identity through historic preservation is an increase in tourism. In fact, increased tourism resulting from large scale preservation has become the chief economic base of some cities. Notable examples are Old Town in Alexandria, Virginia and the historic district in Savannah, Georgia. In Alexandria, visitors increased from 22,200 in 1971 to nearly 106,800 by 1977 after completion of preservation activity. Also, the national attention Old Town has received has drawn numerous customers to its shops and restaurants from all over Alexandria's greater metropolitan area. The economic impact of tourism on Savannah, since restoration of the city's historic district has been extraordinary, revenue from tourism has increased from twenty six million dollars in 1969 to over seventy-five million dollars in 1977, an increase of over 227 %. Conclusively, there is a direct connection between preservation activity and major increases in tourism (ACHP,

1979, 11), and the increased volume of people shopping, dining, and strolling in restored areas creates an attractive atmosphere which enhances the image of a "livable" city. The resultant income from tourism activity revitalizes the city physically and culturally as well as economically. As discussed in a later section, however, an excessive volume of tourism can cause potential physical damage to preserved structures thereby threatening their survival.

Increasing Property Values and Tax Revenues

The increases in tourism and stimulation of commerce which result from preservation activity also bring the benefits of the increased property values and related tax returns. Renovated buildings in the historic district often have a higher value appreciation than the metropolitan average (ACHP, 1979, 10), because people tend to place a high value on the unique, intrinsic values --the hidden assets--in old buildings. In essence, the predictability of the environment increases value. The district itself is also a key factor determining appreciation of property value because the limited area designated for preservation dictates a limited supply of potential historic environments. Developers will usually place these specific values on the preservation project causing total values to rise.

Following the pattern just described, numerous historic locales throughout the US have experienced major increases in property value (e.g., Beacon Hill in Boston, German Village in Columbus, and Charleston, South Carolina). The number of successful district preservation projects has increased greatly in the last few years.

In recent years the adaptive-reuse of old commercial and industrial buildings for modern-day commercial use has become increasingly popular and has caused increases in both property value and tax revenue. One of the many examples of this is San Francisco's Ghiradelli Square, formerly a collection of rundown buildings housing, a chocolate factory and today a successful complex of shops, restaurants, and other services (U.S. Dept. HUD,1974, 8) .

Earning Economic Supports from the Public and Private Sector

Compared to conventional renewal projects which are likely to destroy the old urban fabric, preservation projects more readily wins significant assistance from the public sectors in the form of grants, tax easement, and infrastructure improvements, all of which can greatly benefit the total revitalization program.

Along with a widening of the revitalization program's financial base, a strong preservation effort can accelerate revitalization efforts in those areas in which it specializes,i.e., securing of properties, coordination of planning, and attraction of financial support from the private sector. For example, in Alexandria, the Historic Alexandria Foundation, the Historical Restoration and Preservation Commission and other groups joined forces to oppose a proposed urban renewal project, and were able to win the strong support of city government in their planning and grantsmanship endeavors (ACHP, 1979, 19).

3) Social Benefits

Civic Identity and Pride

The creation of a vital civic identity is one of the most important, albeit intangible, contributions made by historic preservation to community revitalization. Newly restored historic environments engender a new identity by which a community can differentiate itself from others. The fact that this new identity has been created not but eradicating the past but by reviving and highlighting it helps a population value the uniqueness of its cultural heritage.

As is well-known, and often lamented, the existing historic identity of many cities is rapidly being lost as important historic structures and sites are replaced by standard-formula buildings which might be found anywhere. The damage done to civic identity this modernizing trend is aptly expressed in Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath by "How do we know it's us without our past?"

The direct visual experience of the past which preserved structures provide imparts a sense of both permanence and continuity in the life of the community, and reinforces the desire to resist the trend toward sameness which is threatening the entire world. Finally, as discussed above, the social benefit of a unique civic identity can create the major economic benefit of increased tourism.

When civic identity is based on a vital connection with the past, it inevitably and naturally leads to civic pride. At a time when so much of our urban and suburban environments have come to be seen only in the most negative terms, preserved and restored

landmarks can stand out in a positive light and be pointed to with considerable pride. This kind of pride is perhaps most meaningfully expressed by the original residents of historic neighborhoods who, rather than flee a neighborhood, chose to remain and participate in its preservation. Following the same line of thought, a preservationist says, "An interesting statistic would be to total up the number of hosts who show their guests local urban renewal districts and the number that show them historic neighborhoods (U.S. Dept. HUD, 1977, 9)."

Cultural Enhancement

The enhancement of cultural resources is a major advantage of historic preservation. For example, the natural partnership between the arts and preservation efforts has not only resulted in the preservation of old buildings but also in their utilization for the cultural and esthetic benefit of the entire city. In many preservation projects, the new tenants in the restored buildings are cultural and art groups. For example, in the Lowell, Massachusetts revitalization project, the first tenant for the largest preserved mill complex (Bootmill) was a rock'n'roll group. In return, the artistic and cultural groups have wide range of opportunities and resources in the old buildings by virtue of the national attention the projects attract and in the ideal settings they provide for special arts events (ACHP, 1979, 24).

Educational Impact

The educational value of historic preservation is one of its most significant contributions to community revitalization. By preserving the structures of the past, the city retains physical evidence of people, events, trends and movements in its history. At the same time practically all buildings are illustrative of architectural history, whether they be especially noteworthy specimens or the more common "vernacular" architecture. For example, certain structures, such as mill buildings, dams, and canals provide evidence of industrial development, which has played such an important role in the history of most urban areas (U.S. Dept. HUO, 1977, 8). The Lowell revitalization project is a good example of the use of industrial structures as educational materials.

4.1.4 Dangers from Preservation

Some potential dangers and disadvantages of historic preservation do exist and should be given attention. Those which will be reviewed here are the followings: displacement/gentrification; boutiquefication; museumization; over-preservation; excessive tourism; the dual economy, and problems in business-sponsored preservation activities.

1) Displacement/Gentrification

Preservation activity is generally most appealing to middle and upper income individuals and families. This means that only a higher income population can accommodate the increased real estate

value resulting from preservation, and they will therefore replace low-income people living in the preserved area after the completion of renovation. This internal migration, popularly termed "gentrification," has a number of unfortunate consequences. It alienates the displaced population even further from its urban base, transporting the slum and ghetto instead of eliminating it. It also has the effect of pushing a wide range of small stores, workshops, and ateliers either into bankruptcy or out of the central city altogether (Fitch, 1982, 40).

2) Boutiquefication

Some of the most ardent defenders of preservation are concerned with what one critic has called the "boutiquefication" phenomenon - the cheapening of restoration and recycling work with excessive "chic". A random or loosely-defined approach to historic preservation may result not only in making an incoherent city environment but also in a disordered or disjointed environment in the preserved area.

James Marston Fitch says "It's obvious that there will be fuzzy edges. Kitsch is being perpetrated around the perimeter". Other people argue that boutiquefication is already penetrating much deeper than that. The National Trust's James Biddle reports that "we have to fight constantly against the desire to make a lovely 1980s town look like a 17th-century New England village." Architect Charles Peterson, an eminent restorer, warns of "the boutique-guitar-and-drippy-candle boom. There is nothing too wrong about that but it is a fad that next year might quickly turn into a craze for

parachute jumping, Chihuahua dogs, and Polynesian nose flutes." (Williams, 1983, 22)

Boutiquefication often emerges in historic districts preserved for commercial activities. For example, many gift shops in the historic district of Vieux Carre, New Orleans use decorations which are inconsistent with the district's past in building facades because they attract passers-by. To avoid this cheapening of the environment and undermining of its historic integrity, standards for preservation activity and subsequent commercial practices must be soundly based in historical research and uniforming upheld.

3) Museumization

Preserved buildings are often isolated from their surroundings and neighborhoods as if they were museums containing "mumified" historic remnants. Historic preservations in active and busy areas, are especially prone to the "museueumization" process, disconnecting the preserved building from its surroundings. Once this occurs, the existing vitality of the area cannot be transferred to or be integrated with the historic buildings.

Trying to address this problem, Walter Muir Whitehill writes "We cannot crystalize or pickle the past, nor can we, where there is vigorous life in a community, turn back the clock as it was possible to do, through a combination of hardly-to-be repeated circumstances, in Williamsburg. But we can and should, through imaginative adaptation, preserve, in large segments, not only isolated historic sites but whatever architectural and natural features will give continued grace and variety to our cities, towns and countryside

(Diamonstein, 1978, 25)." Accordingly, because the objective of historic preservation activity should not be preservation alone but also the improved quality of life, architects and planners ought not to strive only to meet their technical or professional standards but to accommodate new and productive use of the structures as well. The antidote to museumization is therefore an awareness of the structure's potential place and role in its environment.

4) Over-preservation

The concern is often voiced that an excessive number of old buildings with nothing but age to recommend them will be saved if preservation is not properly controlled. Feeing this concern is the fear of loss of the individual right to modify property located in historic districts. These concerns warrant attention. If building were valued on the basis of age alone and all old buildings were designated as landmarks, the result would be stagnation and petrification of the city's activities.

The movement toward appreciation of contemporary vernacular along with turn-of-the-century vernacular as a means of studying ourselves and our culture further legitimates the fear of over-preservation. MacDonalds has already been twice "museumized" once at the Renwick Gallery in Washington and once at the Cooper-Hewitt Museum in New York. Preservationists must, therefore, face the question: Do we, a generation from now, save the moldering burger stand because it is an artifact, a reminder of how we once lived? (Diamonstein, 1978, 25)

5) Excessive Tourism

Excessive tourism generated by preservation activity can in itself be a threat to the survival of the preserved heritage. As discussed earlier, tourism resulting from historic preservation effort contributes to urban revitalization. This economic improvement can in turn generate further economic aid for the preservation of the historic heritage. On the other hand, tourism can become a major threat to historic structures because the excessive volume of tourists threatens their actual physical fabric. This paradox is compounded by the fact that the very means of modern transportation which are inimical to historical areas also make mass tourism possible and thereby support preservation and revitalization (Fitch, 1982, 77).

6) The Dual Economy

The economic revitalization resulting from historic preservation activity often causes a dual economy to arise in the district. In dual economy, a limited number of groups benefit from the project while most others do not. For example, if preservation activity has been concentrated in the historic urban core alone, leaving surrounding areas as they were, the resultant tourism could produce a dual economy.

7) Problems in Business-sponsored Preservation Activities

Several practical problems are associated specifically with business-sponsored preservation activities. These are problems in obtaining adequate capital, uncertainties and delays in construction

resulting from the unconventional nature of the projects, and employee apprehensiveness about recycling and revitalizing.

The first problem is the availability of capital. Difficulties in obtaining mortgages and loans because of banks' perceptions of greater risk often cause delays in revitalization projects. Also, construction delays occur because contractors and architects are often hesitant to provide firm bids and guaranteed completion dates on recycling projects. Structural problems, initially hidden from view, are at times exposed as work progresses, resulting in extensive delays and/or cost overruns. Finally, community, employee, and management apprehension about the practicality of recycling old buildings also becomes a factor. Managers of public companies are also reluctant to invest in properties that might not appear profitable to stockholders. In addition, communities and sometimes, ironically, preservation groups are hesitant to allow a business reuse for a historic building for fear that the use might destroy the landmark's original character (Williams, 1983, 242).

These problems relate largely to recycling buildings and revitalizing neighborhoods and do not affect charitable contributions to preservation programs (Fortunately, companies are not as hard pressed to raise money as preservation groups are). It is likely that as preservation projects proliferate, construction problems will decrease and financial backing will become easier to obtain.

4.2 APPLICATION : The Lowell Revitalization Project

The revitalization project in Lowell, Massachusetts is an example of successful small city revitalization accomplished through large-scale historic and cultural preservation. The project has been planned and implemented introducing a new idea of using historic resources, the "urban cultural park," in its revitalization scheme. The concept highlights the time dimension of the city's environment, that is, it focuses on the the evolution of a city's identity. As a result of the revitalization effort, Lowell was transformed in a short period of time into a lively, attractive, and interesting city where visitors and downtown workers mingle and enjoy learning about Lowell's role in the American industrial revolution. In effect, the cultural park has given the city a new image and new cultural life by revitalizing the city's previously neglected historic resources, which had long been the focal point of a negative image.

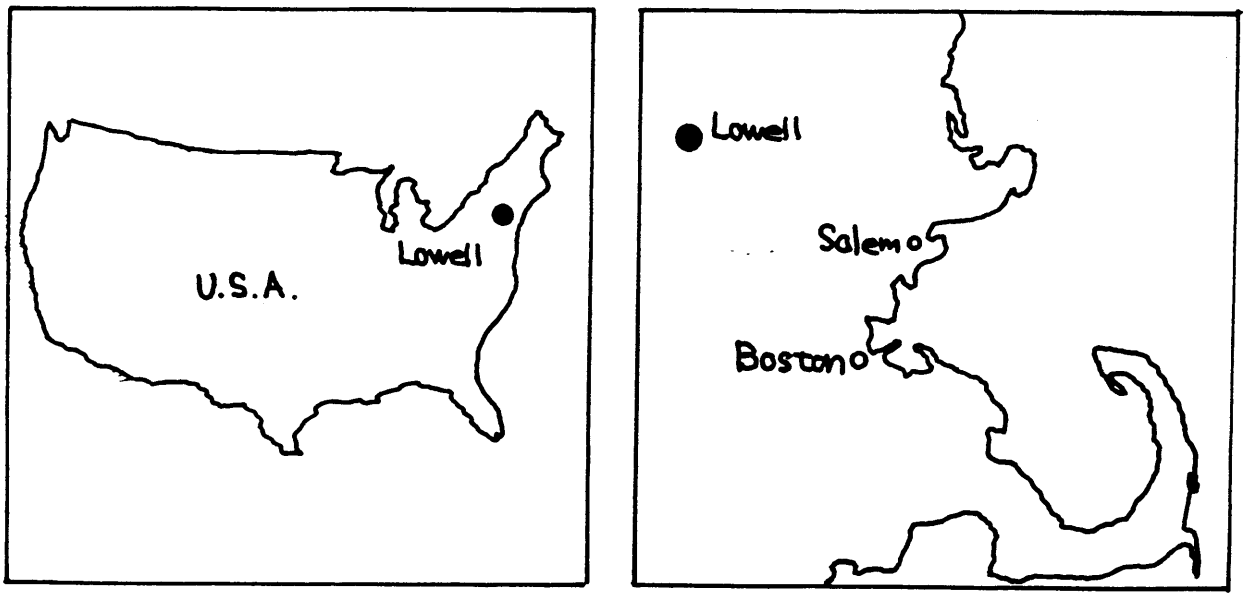

Figure 4-1: Location of Lowell, Massachusetts

In the course of the revitalization, as discused above Lowell achieved the twin goals of economic revitalization and preservation of its historic and human resources (although its economic situation is currently going down mainly because of a statewide economic decline). The success of the urban cultural park concept in Lowell offers many lessons for other small cities facing hard times, and will be used here as a frame of reference for the design of an urban cultural park in Otaru, a small, declining city in Japan.

4.2.1 The Urban Cultural Park Concept

The original urban cultural park concept grew out of the Model Cities program where interaction with local groups produced a set of objectives and projects for the revitalization of downtown areas and individual neighborhoods. Stimulated by this model, Dr. Patrick J. Morgan, a Lowell educator, developed the first urban cultural park concept. From the outset, the concept of the city as a learning laboratory was integral to the Lowell revitalization proposal (Crane, 24). Recognition of physical opportunities in Lowell ultimately led to consideration of the establishment of a "city-as-park" model in Lowell. The concept of city-as-a-park is not a new idea in the field of environmental design. Throughout the history of urbanization, especially since the nineteenth century, urban planners and designers have tried to bring together all the amenities of both town and country into one design (VTN, 1975, 1-3). Over the years the concept has been applied, often unsuccessfully, in certain older cities

in Europe and Asia and in some districts or neighborhoods of American cities.

While the city-as-a-park concept is basically a three-dimensional urban design concept, the idea of an urban cultural park necessarily introduced another dimension to the task of environmental design: time, that is, time as an integral part of the design scheme reflecting the transmission of a community's values, traits, and patterns from generation to generation. The essence of the concept is that the city itself should be seen as a park, not in the traditional sense of a green, open space set off from the activities of urban life, but as a place where people could enjoy themselves by taking advantage of the sounds and smells and sights that can only be experienced in a neighborhood culture or a street that has evolved gradually over time (LHPC, 1987, 6). In brief, an urban cultural park can be variously defined as follows:

- a setting in which a distinctive environment or atmosphere prevails which reflects a particular social and historical heritage

- a social and educational process whereby residents of an area choose to reassert their family heritages and ethnic identities by relating past to present lifestyles and using that heritage as building blocks for future development

- a community which places significant value on its cultural resources through support and active participation in contemporary social-cultural institutions (VTN, 1978, 3-1).

Because of the success of the Lowell project, the urban cultural park concept has attracted a lot of attention in other parts of the country. As a result, several other states have adopted this concept in their revitalization efforts. In 1977, the New York State Legislature mandated the Office of Parks and Recreation (OPR) to prepare a plan for a state-wide urban cultural park system. The system was to provide for the preservation, interpretation, development, and use of urban settings of special significance to the historical and cultural evolution of New York State. In this mandate, an urban cultural park was defined as an historic area of special social significance combined with a revitalization process to utilize that area to enhance the community in which it is located.

4.2.2 Lowell : History and Character

In the late eighteenth century the site that would become Lowell was the location of Indian settlements, family-owned farms, and small scale manufacturing along the Merimack River. In the early nineteenth century, stimulated by the success of a fully-integrated water-powered textile mill in other area, Lowell developed as a large scale textile manufacturing town with water power from the canals. (See Figure 4-2 and 4-3) In time, Lowell became the most important planned industrial city of the nineteenth century and America's first great industrial center. Numerous mill complexes with related housing, social institutions, and urban amenities were constructed. Lowell grew dramatically and

developed into a major population center, drawing immigrants from many countries.

During the first half of the twentieth century, Lowell was in the midst of a fifty year economic depression caused by the moving of textile industry from New England to southern states in 1920's. The collapse of the New England textile industry resulted in unemployment and economic stagnation. Abandoned industrial buildings came to symbolize the city's decline, and some large complexes were vandalized or demolished. The period of depression lasted until the late 1970s. When Lowell was about as depressed as a city could get in the mid-1970s, its unemployment rate at 12.6 percent was the highest in the state and far higher than the rest of the country's. During those years, much of the downtown area was vacated.

In recent years, however, because of tremendous revitalization efforts culminating in the development of the cultural park, the value of Lowell's many surviving structures has been recognized, both in terms of their educational potential to help tell the story of the American industrial revolution and their potential to be converted for other commercial and industrial uses. These structures are now considered to be major artifacts recording the industrialization and urbanization of America. Peter Brates, a researcher at the Library of Congress, has said, "Lowell is like a national university of Americanization" (Halabi, 1988, 78).

4.2.3 Revitalization Effort Through Preservation

In 1978, Congress selected Lowell as the best place to tell the story of the American Industrial Revolution. Since then, tremendous energy has been invested in Lowell's revitalization based on the concept of the urban cultural park which was first advanced to renew the city through deeper appreciation and preservation of its heritage. The project has achieved significant economic and cultural objectives. Since the late 1970s, a major economic revitalization effort has included combined public and private sector initiatives for substantial investment in the city. The creation of the National Historical Park brought local, national, and, international attention to the city's assets as a historic mill town. In the Lowell revitalization projects, many kinds of funds have been used; federal funds from the National Park Service and the Lowell Historic Preservation Commission; state funds from the Massachusetts Heritage Parks and Gate Cities programs; private money through the National Trust for Historic Preservation, as well as a number of donations from foundations, corporations, and individuals for particular projects spawned by the revitalization project.

During the revitalization effort, a new industry which worked as an important economic catalyst moved to Lowell. Wang Laboratories, a major high-tech company, located its new World Headquarters just outside the downtown area and its training center in the heart of downtown Lowell. Although this company was not as large when it moved to Lowell and as it is now, Wang's effect on economic conditions in Lowell was profound and was a major factor in the city's revitalization. Unemployment rates fell under 4% after

the revitalization are were below national figures for the first time in fifty years. In the mid-1970's, actually, Lowell's unemployment rate of 12.6% was the highest in the state and far higher the rest of the US. Lowell's economic success was distinguishable among other urban revitalization projects and was often cited by Governor Michael Dukakis as an outstanding example of what was being called the state's "economic miracle."

Today, Lowell is often regarded as an example of a revitalization project which successfully integrated the efforts of its various communities and the resources of public and private sectors and was able to regenerate an urban environment to meet contemporary needs without abandoning cultural heritage. Vacant mills have been rapidly renovated into first-class office space and housing. Layers of plastic and aluminum have been peeled off downtown buildings revealing handsome Victorian storefronts. Brick sidewalks, granite pavements, tasteful iron streetlights and benches seemed to appear overnight on once garish blocks. Actually, in twelve years, one hundred thirty buildings have been rehabilitated.

Along with physical change, Lowell has experienced a significant shift in attitude. A renewed city image and community pride, a more active sense of history and heritage, and a vigorous cultural life characterize the city today. According to Dr. Patrick J. Morgan, the most distressing aspect of the declining Lowell was that people had lost faith in themselves and in their ability to make use of the tremendous human and physical resources around them. His goal was to turn "liabilities into assets," looking for the hidden potential in the unrecognized remnants of the nineteenth century

industrial city and its culture. Now, Lowell attracts over 800,000 visitors each year to the restored mills, canals, gate houses, and history exhibits that constitute its National and State Parks.

As the revitalization of the city progressed, the arts and culture became an increasingly important part of that process. Culture and history have been utilized to help achieve economic development and a new sense of community. For example, the park regularly offers ethnic festivals held by the ethnic groups in Lowell, and this activity attracts a number of visitors. Current revitalization efforts continue to focus heavily on cultural development.

4.2.4 Strategies and Keys to Success

The revitalization of Lowell succeeded in a relatively short period of time due to the application of a number of different approaches. The implementation plan for these approaches did not exist in a single document, but Sarah Peskins, the former Planning Director for Lowell Historic Preservation Commissions, indicates the following factors responsible for the plan's success :

a) Unique Historic Resources and Official Designation

Two factors which contributed to the success of Lowell's revitalization efforts were its unique historic resources and the official recognition of these resources by the federal government. Although Lowell had long been a city in economic decline, it contained a unique hidden resources in the form of its old buildings and structures. Most other cities which had been major centers of

the industrial revolution has undergone redevelopment at some point in this century, resulting in the destruction of most of their old industrial buildings. However, there had been no intervening period of urban renewal in Lowell, and as a result the old factories, warehouses, mills, canal and gatehouses remained, and although abandoned and neglected, they were an eloquent and unique record of a major phase of American history. (See Figure 4-4 through 4-10)

The uniqueness and variety of Lowell's historic resources was the key factor prompting the federal government to designate the city as a historic site of national significance. This official recognition by the federal government has attracted the interest and respect of visitors, investors, lenders and the residents of Lowell as well, and has therefore been a major factor in the success of the revitalization project. Lowell's designation as a national historic significance gave Lowell nationwide popularity. Along with visitors came private investors and lenders encouraged by the federal designation to have confidence in Lowell's revitalization. In fact, the project continues to depend heavily on private investment for implementation (almost ninety percent of the investment comes from private sectors). Finally, the federal designation resulted in strong political and public support and facilitated rapid implementation of the project by such means as eliminating the need for local permits in many cases (Peskins [interview], 1990).

2) The Major Plans

The success of Lowell's revitalization project was accomplished through a novel approach aimed at two goals: economic development and historic preservation. These goals were used as the framework for a series of planning documents. These plans were the 1977 Report of the Historic Canal District Commission (Brown Book); the 1981 Preservation Plan by the Lowell Historic Preservation Commission; and the 1980 General Management Plan by the National Park Service. Each of these plans had a clearly defined and visible purpose which was designed to be easily understood.

The Brown Book, pulling together a tremendous amount of information on local historical and cultural resources, and presenting the inventories in an attractive and clear graphic format that decision-makers could understand, was the basis for the legislation which authorized the National Park. It was used to convince a skeptical Congress to establish a very untraditional park. City and state plans were summarized and incorporated in it, giving readers a comprehensive overview of what Lowell was all about, and why and how a national park should be created and providing an urban design framework that embodied a vision for the future. More importantly, the plan assigned the agencies including federal, state, and city agencies specific tasks to implement for creation of the park.

The General Management Plan further refined the park themes and outlined specific strategies for carrying out National Park Service's responsibilities mandated in the legislation. The Preservation Plan defined the guide lines for preservation and described how the Lowell Historic Commission would carry out its

legislated tasks which were intended to integrate National Park Service's efforts with those of the city at large (Peskins, 1985, 3).

These plans were expected to be carried out to a large degree by the private sector, through an elaborate array of incentives and controls. But to facilitate implementation, each of the plans were flexible and gave clear direction to the respective private agencies without attempting to control each and every aspect of the proposed projects.

3) The Collaborative Nature of the Project

In order to implement the programs described above, cooperation among various levels of government and the private sector is essential. Accordingly, the National Park Service is developing the park, with the help of a unique federal agency, the Lowell Historic Preservation Commission. The Lowell Heritage State Park, first in a statewide system of urban cultural parks, is another entity actively involved in implementing the program. All three are working in Lowell at the request of the community and coordinate their activities with existing city agencies and organizations (LHPC, 1987, 6).

In addition, although closely related to the city's overall planning and development processes, these plans were to be implemented by federal and state agencies purposely not part of city government. The plans were intended to complement but by no means supplant city efforts. In practice, this has required a high level of intergovernmental cooperation since no single entity has had

anything approaching sole jurisdiction over any site or any policy area.

4) The Innovative Investment Initiative of the Public and Private Sector

The partnership formed by the business leaders and government officials in Lowell, to revitalize the city's declining economy and enhance the overall livability of the community, has been a major factor in the project's success. Between 1974 and now, approximately $400 million in public and private funds were invested in historic preservation and rehabilitation, public improvements, commercial developments, and industrial expansion projects in Lowell. This total investment in revitalization activities does not include totally private development projects; that is, projects which did not utilize any public incentives such grants and loans (LHPC, 1984, 1).

A combination of public and private sector initiatives has also prompted substantial reinvestment in the city. The creation of the National Park brought local, national, and, ultimately, international attention to the city's assets as a historic mill town of considerable richness and even prompted a visit by Prince Charles of the UK. In addition, as well as taking advantage of a wide variety of traditional economic development programs, Lowell has also benefited from innovative initiatives to prepare the infrastructure on which economic development could grow. The initiatives included federal funds from the National Park Service and the Lowell Historic Preservation Commission; State funds from the Heritage Parks and

Gateway Cities programs; private money through the National Trust for Historic Preservation, as well as numerous donations from foundations, corporations, and individuals for particular projects spawned by the recovery. (See Figure 4-11 and 4-12)

Local projects, supported by both public and private funds were launched to widen the scope of revitalization: the Main Street program, the Lowell Plan, and the Lowell Cultural Plan. Together, these initiatives have gone well beyond traditional approaches to urban economic development to embrace a holistic view of a community's revitalization, recognizing that a city's advantages go far beyond the jobs it happens to have but also includes its buildings, its amenities, its people, and its own local culture (Harabi, 1988, 78).

5) Innovative Approaches to Connect History to Physical Environment

The innovative approaches for employing historic resources actually created a new perspective in historic preservation which helped build people's confidence in the success of the revitalization plan. The first of these approaches focused on the interpretation of historic resources. (See Figure 4-13 through 4-16) The planners not only sought to preserve the historic buildings but also to interpret the stories behind the physical environment (i.e, to present them in an engaging way eliciting visitor involvement). While conventional approaches to historic preservation focus just on physical structures, the Lowell project tried to find significant stories in the city and to use the buildings as transmitters of the stories. For example, an old

mill was restored for an interpretative exhibition on the "Evolution of Lowell, the Urban Industrial Community."

Another innovative approach to the reuse of the old city environment was the concept of the Urban Laboratory. An educational and technical assistance program implemented by the Lowell Historic Preservation Commission, the urban laboratory treats the entire city as a social experiment, and imaginative urban planning and creative cultural development are the new ingredients of the experiment. In the early nineteenth century, Lowell used to be a large research and development center for hydraulics, mechanical engineering, labor organization, industrial technologies, and so on. The current revitalized Lowell is becoming once again a model city for the nation. However, in the new context of the Urban Laboratory, the goal is to improve the quality of urban life. The Urban Laboratory will help achieve the long-standing goal of making Lowell an "educative city," where the physical and human resources are used for maximum benefit.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, people in Lowell are utilized to work as a human resource for enhancing the city's historic resources, thus becoming an integral part of the revitalization process. At the center of much of the history of Lowell is the history of immigration. Throughout the period of economic retrenchment, Lowell's ethnic groups remained strong and cohesive, even though the original forces that had drawn them to Lowell had dissipated. The travail of these diverse groups and the survival of their customs, festivals, and religious traditions have made up the rich cultural life

of Lowell in the past and now facilitate its cultural and social resurgence. (See Figure 4-17)

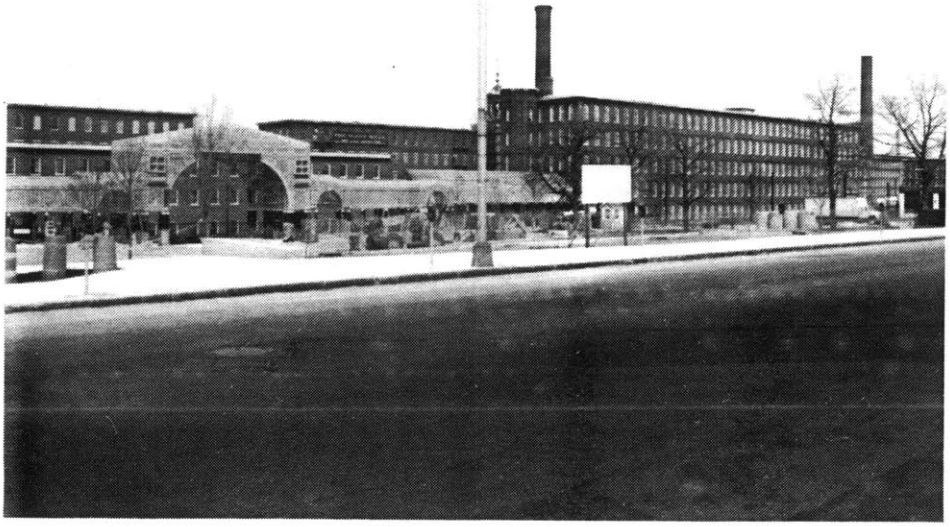

Figure 4-2: Boot Mill

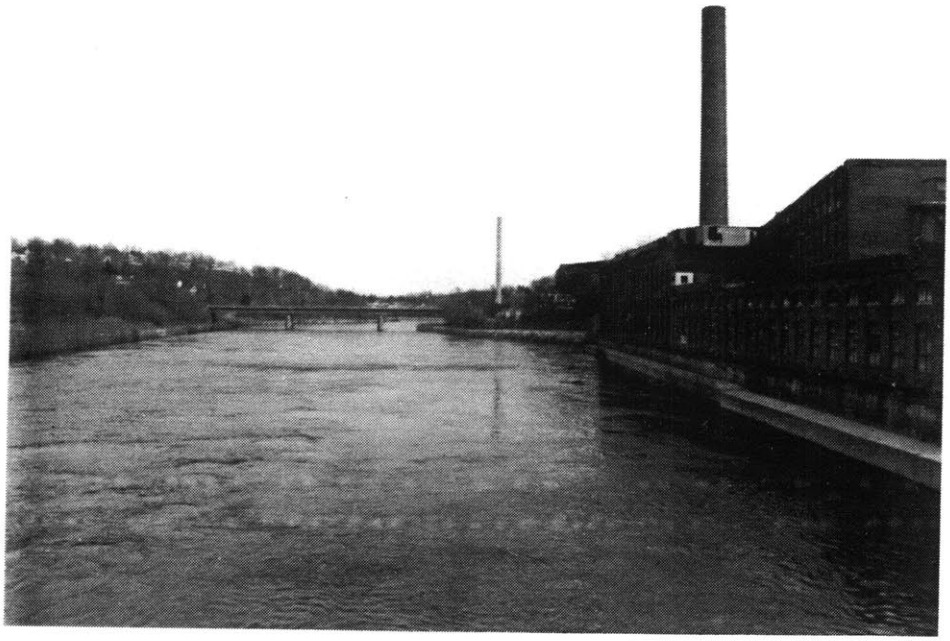

Figure 4-3: Merrimack River and Massachusetts Mill

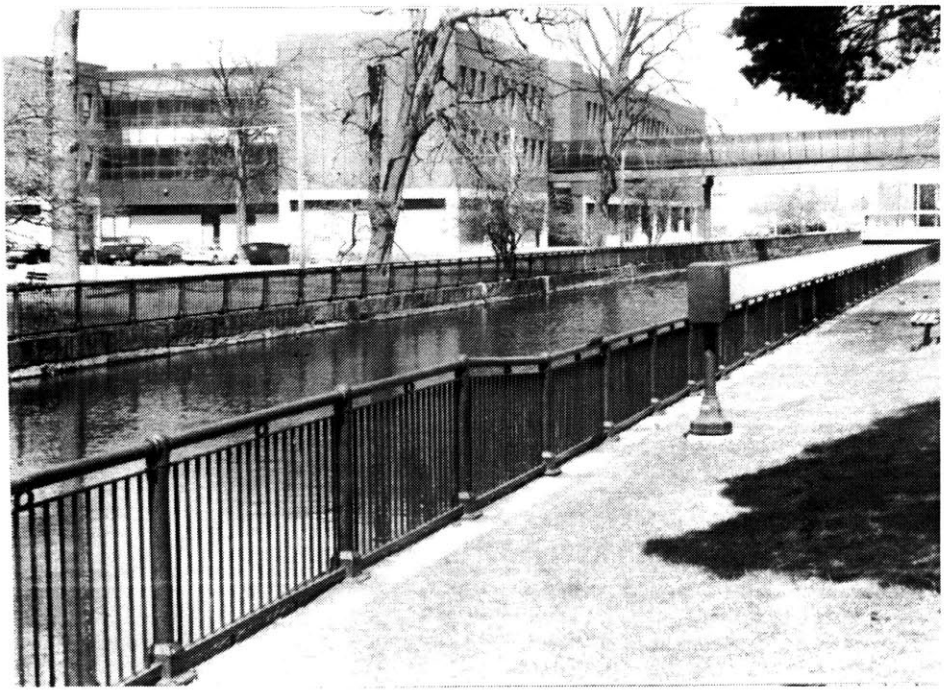

Figure 4-4: Canal (1)

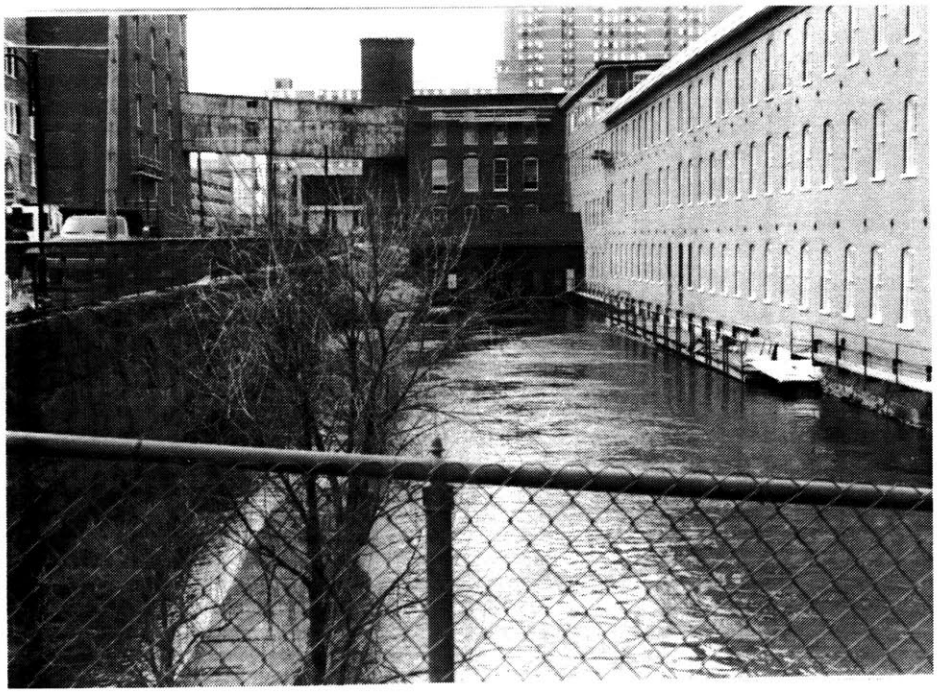

Figure 4-5: Canal (2)

Figure 4-6: Streetscape (1)

Figure 4-7: Streetscape (2)

Figure 4-8: Streetscape (3)

Figure 4-9: Streetscape (4)

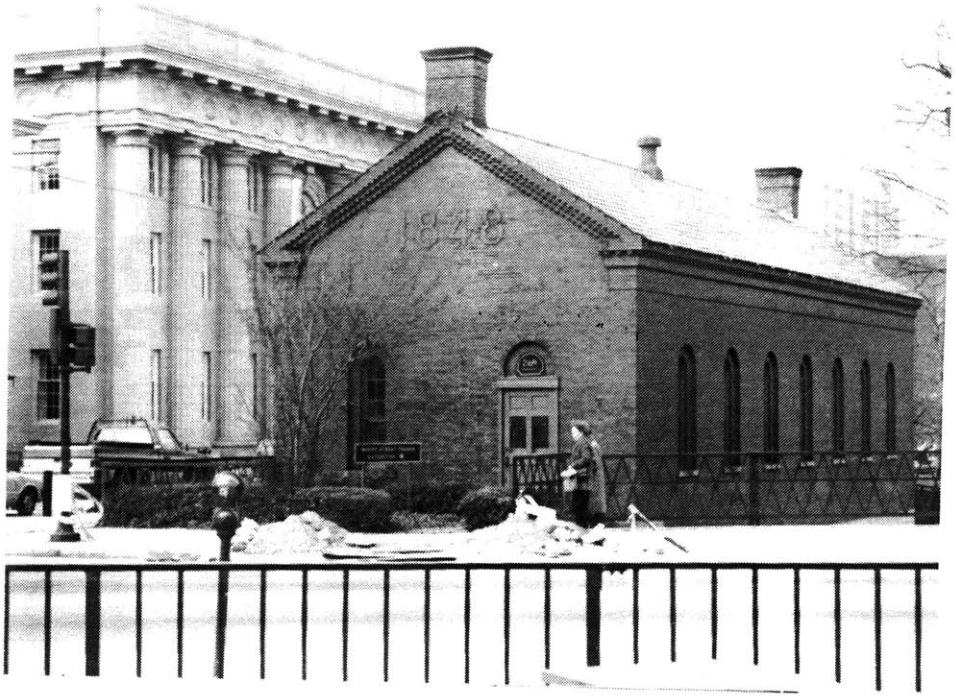

Figure 4-10: Gatehouse

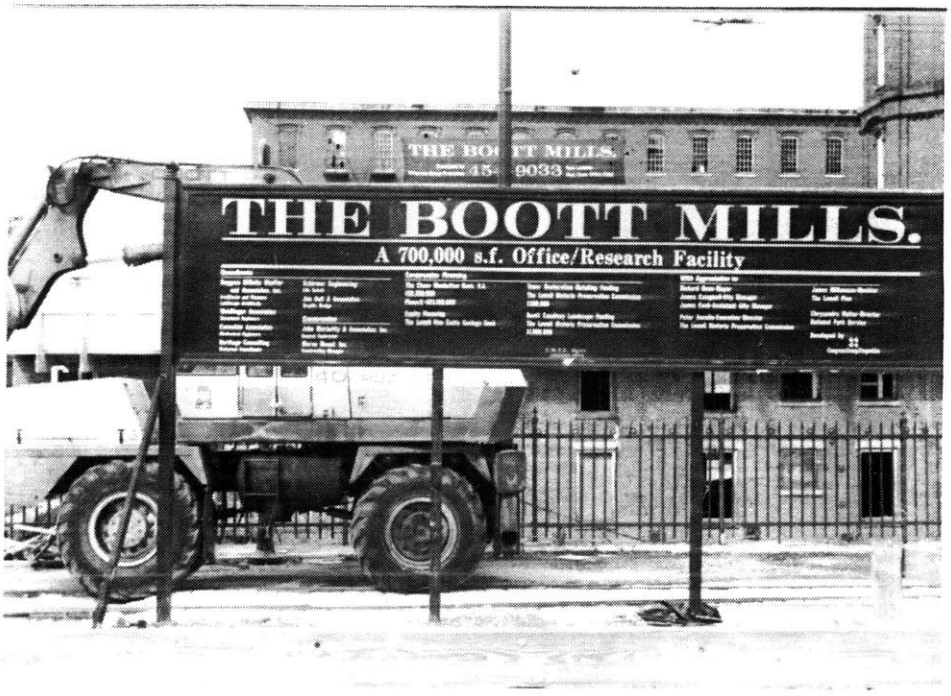

Figure 4-11: The Boot Mill Project

Figure 4-12: Massachsetts Mill Project

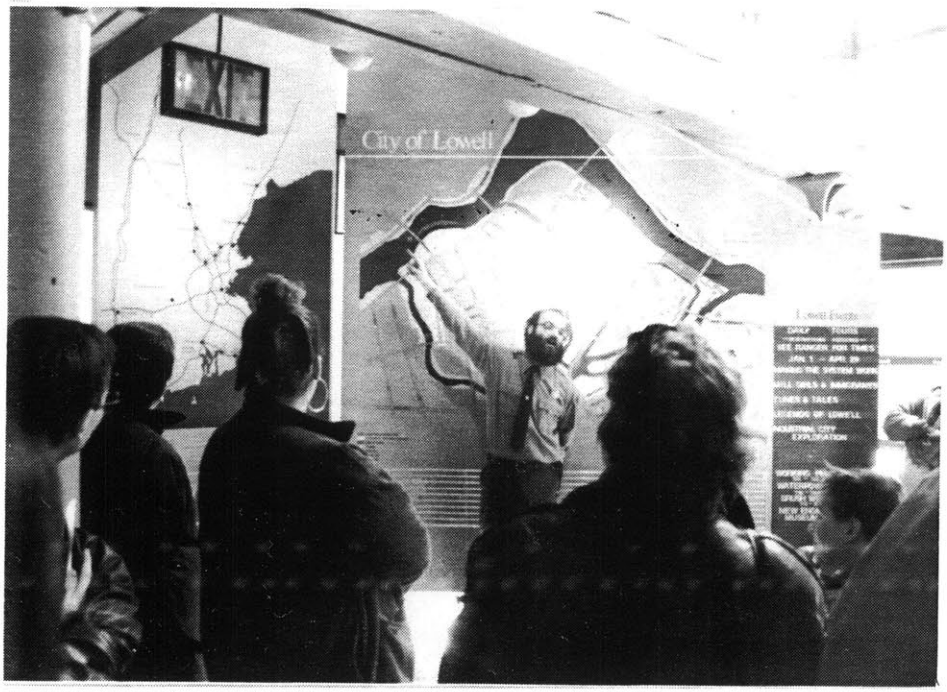

Figure 4-13: Interpretation Tour (1)

Figure 4-14: Interpretation Tour (2)

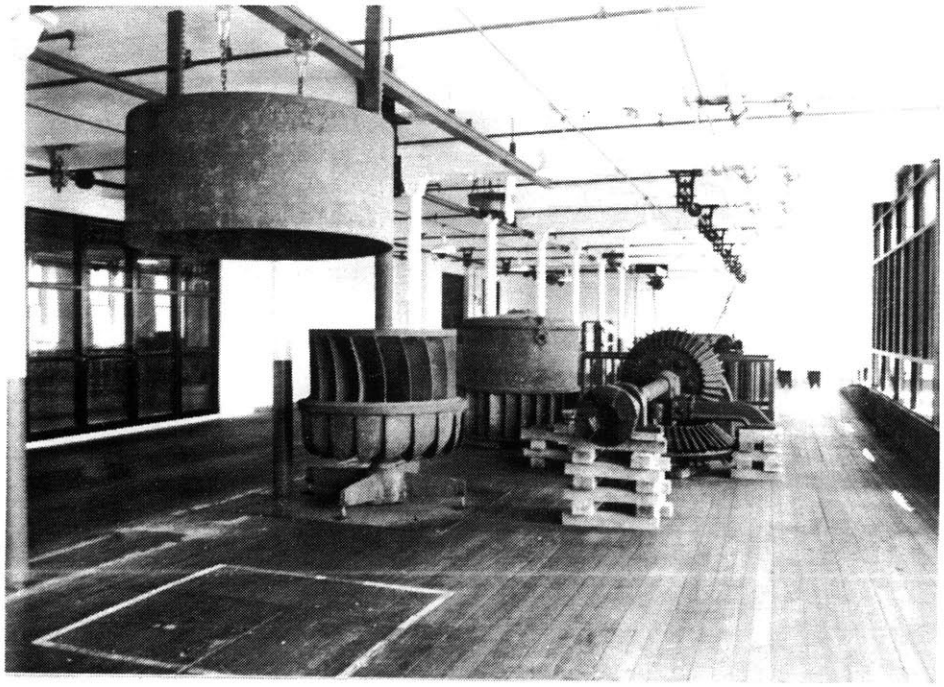

Figure 4-15: Exhibition (1)

Figure 4-16: Exhibition (2)

Figure 4-17: Ethnic Festivals

4.3 OPPORTUNITIES FOR FUTURE REVITALIZATION THROUGH HISTORIC PRESERVATION

4.3.1 Advantages Outweigh Disadvantages

As discussed above, in urban revitalization, there are both advantages and disadvantages in the use of historic preservation, and it is very hard to weigh the advantages against the disadvantages without analyzing specific situations and considering the proper methods of measuring qualitative issues such as aesthetics. It seems that the general trend in mature societies is gradually moving toward reevaluation of the past as a basis for improving the quality of urban life. However, this trend itself does not justify the conclusion that every historic city can adopt the historic preservation for revitalization and succeed. Nevertheless, it is impossible to ignore contributions which historic preservation has already made to urban revitalization efforts.

Furthermore, in a number of old and declined cities the disadvantages of historic preservation can be mitigated by means of innovative approaches (as cited above). In short, historic preservation will be an important strategy principally for those urban revitalization programs which strive to improve the quality of life of its people.

4.3.2 Major Goals of Historic Preservation

On the basis of the revitalizing potential of historic preservation in general and the results of the Lowell project in particular, the major goals of historic preservation activity for future

city revitalization can be proposed. Former historic preservation efforts were limited to achieving physical goals such as preservation, restoration, and improvement of buildings and environment. In the future, however, as discussed earlier, a new sophistication of the urban population will enable historic resources to work not only as objects of tourism but also as a means of improving the quality of life. Within this framework, a combined social/cultural and economic goal can be proposed for the effective use of historic preservation in urban revitalization. The social/cultural goal is to create an urban cultural environment using historic resources, and the economic goal is to capitalize on the value of the cultural environment in order to improve the city's economy.

1) Cultural Environment : Developing the Humane Face of the City

The first goal of historic preservation in future urban revitalization is to help create a humane city with a thriving cultural environment. To humanize cities, we identify, evaluate, preserve and interpret essential elements of the cultural environment, including historic landmarks, cultural conservation districts, and human stories. By preserving its historic resources, a city can be a transmitter of culture, and preserved historic buildings can serve as a medium which transmits the city's history to its people now.

Changing values in today's society will require an enhancement of the livability of cities in the future. People now seek human qualities in their environment where once they sought mere efficiency. Modern collective experience has shown that "new" is not

synonymous with "improved". In many historic cities, people now regret the failure to preserve historic buildings because the modern environments which replaced the historic ones sometimes provided a less comfortable environment lacked human scale. Joseph T. Plummet writes that "A large number of people both in the United States and in other nations are in the midst of a profound and enduring change in basic values. Long-held beliefs about work in one's life, relation between the sexes, expectations for the future - indeed, about many aspects of daily living and - are undergoing a reexamination and reappraisal. The changed value suggests the new emphasis on self-actualization. More people in developed nations are seeking self-actualization rather than security or traditionally defined success. Traditional values focused on a higher standard of living, while the new value seeks better quality of life. (Plummer, 1989, 8)" A cultural environment will be important for future cities so that people can achieve self-actualization while being surrounded by a way of life and learning which suits their more sophisticated concepts of quality of life. Future cities will need to develop and expand a range of cultural and leisure facilities to supply educational experiences.

Historic preservation enhances the cultural depth of the city. Historic buildings work as a transmitter of the story of the buildings and surroundings. How well a city preserves and incorporates its heritage will affect its future livability, appeal and ultimately its viability. In this context, preservation will become a more standard practice throughout the entire built environment and it will become more the rule than the exception (Mackey, 1990, 10).

2) Economic Development : Marketing the Culture

The revitalization of cities involves a second major goal: to encourage economic development through publicizing and enlivening the history and character of the city. As discussed above, a vibrant cultural environment will be a crucial part of future life in the city and our evolving human society. But economic benefit can also be derived from a cultural environment which helps attract tourists and increased private investment.

It is generally agreed that tourism will be one of the largest service industry sectors in the future. Because basic needs are increasingly taken for granted in industrialized societies, and also because the horizons of personal fulfillment are ever-widening, people are looking for opportunities to escape work routines and experience something missing in their daily life. They want to experience first-hand things they have only read about. Philip Cutler writes that "With the greater incomes, people can purchase 'experience' that they have missed in their life, rather than material possessions. Satisfied with goods, people are buying services instead"(Cutler, 1984, 8). The greater range of unique and satisfying experiences which a city has to offer, the greater the revenues it can attract. Well-preserved historical resources can offer the enriching experiences tourists will desire and enhance economic development for the city at the same time.

The positive city image resulting from an enhanced cultural environment will also attract new investment. Business owners place a high value on their corporate image, and they know that a

good city image can enhance a corporate image. Some new Japanese venture companies have built their headquarters or back offices in smaller cities which have significant cultural resources, such as festivals and histories, not only because of the lower cost of land but also to utilize the cities' cultural image to bolster their corporate identity. Preservation activities also can provide a sophisticated advertising vehicle whereby awareness of both the company and its products is increased. Older buildings usually reflect quality, stability, and continuity in the community. For example, many banks converted old buildings for their use and these activities brought the banks extensive local publicity, and by its unique identity the old buildings often provide positive business benefit in themselves (Williams, 1983, 241). Many companies have realized the value of investing energy in cultural resources which form and improve their image. Some companies have recycled buildings as discussed, others have worked to renew neighborhoods and older business districts, and still others have made donations to projects working towards historic preservation activities. Cities working to create an appealing cultural environment, and companies involving themselves in restoration efforts make a mutually rewarding and productive relationship.

5.0 FORMULATING HISTORIC PRESERVATION STRATEGIES FOR SMALL JAPANESE CITIES

5.1 ISSUES AFFECTING TRANSFERABILITY OF U.S. STRATEGIES TO JAPAN

In recent years, a favorable climate for historic preservation has started to develop in Japan. Among the important indications of this trend are extraordinary voluntary efforts by ordinary Japanese townpeople to educate themselves on local restoration issues and to from delegations to investigate restoration programs both in Japan and abroad. Another significant development which has recently come into play is the national governments strong support of restoration programs at local level.

However, despite this encouraging trend, numerous conditions exist in Japan today, which make preservation activity more difficult that it is in the US. Since it is the purpose of this thesis to propose an actual plan for a particular small Japanese city, I feel it is best, in developing this proposal, to focus on these problem areas in order to recommend ways to avoid common pitfalls.

My primary approach is to formulate a revitalization strategy for Otaru based on American models. Accordingly, my analysis focuses on the issues affecting the transferability of strategy from the US to Japan. While certain cultural issues may be difficult to compare and reconcile, it is clear that the two countries share a common societal impetus toward the effective utilization of historic resources in the urban environment. But significant differences in attitude and policies exist between the two countries, and these

differences need to be reviewed in order to pinpoint those problems which Japanese preservation efforts must solve before American strategies can be successfully implemented in Japanese cities.

5.1.1 American vs. Japanese Attitudes Toward the Value of Historic Environment

In terms of legislation and official policy on historic preservation, the US is generally considered to be ahead of Japan. Perhaps the main reason for this is simply that the US has been actively involved in preservation much longer than Japan has. Preservation activity in the US has been on-going since because of significant support from all levels of government. In Japan, preservation activity by citizen initiative is a recent phenomena, emerging over the past two decades -- The Tsumago Resident Charter of 1971 being one salient example.

Another area in which Japan lags behind the US is the emphasis placed on national history in the educational system. This may seem surprising in light of how much attention is now being focused on the inadequacy of American education vis-a-vis the Japanese system; but, nonetheless, American schools are much stronger in the area of history in general and national history in particular compared to Japanese schools. Furthermore, modern history is virtually ignored in Japan.

The Japanese Association of Teachers has for a long time been contending with the Ministry of Education regarding the importance of national history in the curriculum; the issue is far from settled. Underlying the apparent disparity between American and Japanese

concerns for national history in the areas of public policy and education is a similar disparity on a more basic level, that of national identity. Perhaps because the US has had a relatively brief and, at the same time, important role in history, the sense of national history is particularly fresh and vital among Americans. Moreover, the majority of Americans come from remembered immigrant backgrounds, a fact which made and continues to make national history important as a foundation for a common national identity in the US.

In contrast, while Japanese people have a strong sense of national identity and national pride, they do not look to their history as a source of these feelings. This has been especially true since World War II when the stimulation of patriotism via history and, for that matter, the promotion of any overt nationalistic sentiments have been deliberately downplayed by government leaders, educators, and the general adult population. It is quite likely that this phenomenon has contributed to the apparent lack of sensitivity among Japanese to the destroying of historic environments to make way for new construction.

Post World War II acceptance of the replacement of the old with the new in urban Japan can be further attributed to other typically Japanese attitudes. For instance, due to its relative inaccessibility, historically, Japan is one of the few nations which has not been highly concerned with the threat of national invasion in spite of a lot of inter country wars. Consider that while the US has never been invaded, individuals and family living structures appear to assume a defensive position toward the outside environment;

houses have been basically built as barriers, for protection from the outside enemy. This contrast is reflected in the built environments in the two countries. For example, in Japan, houses have been conceived for fusion with the environment, as evidenced in structures such as the Japanese veranda and the sliding paper door. There are of course some exceptions, such as impregnable walls around mansions of federal lords. In traditional Japanese houses, the walls between rooms consist of several sliding doors which can be lifted out to create larger open spaces and to allow inside and outside to merge.

Another factor influencing the Japanese indifference to the destruction of historic environment is the long-standing Japanese practice of incorporating aspects of other cultures into its own, a practice which can be said to be held in common with the US. While Japan has traditionally drawn in elements of other cultures especially other Asian cultures, into its own and created new Japanese versions of them, the US has tended more to introduce foreign elements without modifying or adapting them. We can see this contrast in the difference between the ethnic areas in the two countries. While the signs of Korean towns in the US often use their own language and character, Korean towns in Japan often use Japanese character in their signs. Although Japan was closed to the outside almost as late as 1900, in this century it has both consciously and unconsciously adopted new types of culture and purposefully cast aside the forms of indigenous, or at least, older culture. Especially during the American occupation which followed World War II, a wide-spread rejection of traditional Japanese culture took

place. The US occupation government tried to force the Japanese to abandon their nationalism and to accept western democracy. As a result, people saw traditional culture as inferior to the new culture transported from overseas; and throughout the post-war reconstruction of the country, Japanese people readily accepted modern Western environments without attempting to recreate the old forms.

This phenomenon reflects the sentiment of a popular Japanese saying: "Misfortune can be turned into a blessing." This almost total embracing of foreign culture has been sometimes allayed in recent years by movements to promulgate indigenous culture, which have included new-found national pride in educational attainment, industrial productivity, and so on. On the negative side, these nationalistic movements have also included right wing efforts at historical revisionism.

In contrast to the post-war Japanese trend to forsake the old, we see in the US, following the modernization period in architecture, a widespread effort to preserve and restore old structures, spurred on by a yearning for a sense of history in connection with the sources of prestigious European cultural traditions.

5.1.2 Current Urban Structure

The urban structure which is now dominant in both the US and Japan is the result of major economic and industrial changes which took place during two crucial periods: the nineteenth century industrial revolution and the rapid growth period after World War II. Although the evolution of the city was a continual process

throughout history, the most dramatic changes occurred in these two periods with changes occurring much more rapidly and extensively in Japan than in the US. For example, the number of old buildings in Japan was drastically reduced and then replaced because of war damage. The abrupt and disorderly nature of this change in Japanese building stock helps to explain the lack of time and consideration for the preservation of the historic environment in post-war Japan. Broadly speaking, the urban structure has evolved more slowly and methodically in the US than in Japan; and furthermore during the renewal of historic districts, the US took considerable time to make decisions , taking into account such issues as gentrification. While Japanese rebuilding sought to replace destroyed structures, American rebuilding focused on replacing existing structures. This difference affected the restoration approach considerably, making it possible in the US to restore many of the decayed historic areas have been renewed while preserving not merely historic settings, while still preserving the surrounding neighborhoods.

Another element affecting historic restoration is the limited capacity for expansion of Japanese cities. In particular, the preservation of low density historic areas in Japanese cities was adversely affected by this factor. In many cases, Japanese planning administrations could not avoid tearing down the old low-density historic areas in order to meet the need for increasing density and the scarcity of alternative space even if they had wanted to preserve these areas for cultural development. Actually the place in Japan where historic preservation has been most successful is not in cities

and dense areas but in the areas of lower density where the population has decreased. In the US, on the other hand, this issue has been often resolved because of the availability of ample surrounding space for expansion, and of the air-right-transfer technique in the high density areas like Manhattan, New York, without tearing down the low-density historic areas.

Finally, the differences between Japanese and American building materials offers an additional insight into Japan's difficulty in preserving old buildings. In Japan, almost all of the older, historic buildings are wood and over the centuries they have undergone frequent and often extensive repairs. This situation requires Japan to devise restoration procedures quite different from those of other countries whose structures many be predominantly stone or brick. Obviously, wooden materials have a shorter life span, thus requiring more sophisticated techniques and greater repair and maintenance costs to significant degree. These and related factors have contributed to the difficulty of developing a feasible preservation strategy in Japan.

5.1.3 Institutions for Preservation

1) Legislation

Both Japan and the US have developed laws regarding the protection of historic properties which cover both individual properties and groups of historic buildings. In Japan the present Law for the Protection of Cultural Properties was enacted in 1950,

and legislation to also include the protection of historic districts, not only single buildings, was added to it in 1975. The expanded law, however, is still not flexible enough to deal with diverse historic areas. Faced with variety of different circumstances, preservationists were unable to apply the law effectively because of its strict requirements and uniformity. Consequently, in many instances, the preservation program has not been successful.

The law has also discouraged people from preserving historic environments because of the stringent requirements for management and operation which it imposes after preservation. Because current law does not assume any future change in the preserved properties due to change in life style but requires permanent preservation. As far as the building is changing according to the changing people's living, the law does not designate it as its object. In essence, in order to expand the number and variety of cases eligible for preservation, legal approaches are needed, each addressing different conditions and requirements for application in order to encompass the diversity of urban situations.

While some legislation has been passed in Japan, which promotes historic preservation, the two primary nationwide legal systems concerned with buildings and construction, the building code and city planning law, have hindered rather helped preservation efforts. Applied in unison on a nationwide scale, the building code and the city planning law forbid individuals to repair and begin to reuse historic buildings which do not meet legal standards, even if those buildings have great value as a historic property as is often the case. This situation has produced a dilemma for owners of historic

buildings: they are forced to choose either to tear them down and build new structures on the property or to leave the historic buildings untouched until they finally rot away.

Numerous examples of how the building code and the city planning law interfere with preservation efforts can be cited. The fire regulation in the building code requires the use of only authorized fire protection material for all new construction and with few exceptions, for historic buildings as well. As mentioned above, most Japanese historic buildings use wood as a main material, and according to the current building code, wooden materials without a fire protection device such as coating cannot be approved. Most historic buildings cannot be adapted to this requirement because it demands the use of modern construction materials in their main structure. The width of public streets required by the city planning law has been another obstacle to historic preservation. A width of 4 m is required in front of all buildings to allow access for fire engines; but under this regulation, it is impossible to maintain the traditional narrow street scape in the renewal of the historic districts. The city planning law also requires every building to have direct access of a specified width from the facing street. This requirement results in the disappearance of terraced houses, a common Japanese traditional house style which does not have direct access to the street.

Compared with Japanese legislation, American laws affecting historic preservation are enacted in an integrated and coordinated fashion, and are applied flexibly according to the particular characteristics and conditions of the sites in question. Furthermore, local governments in the US are able to create codes which allow

indigenous styles of historic environment to survive, thus playing a more central role in the preservation process.

2) Funding

The market economies for historic properties in Japan and the US differ significantly, and for this reason the two countries have very different philosophies of historic preservation funding. In the US, the philosophy is that except for initial government assistance, preservation should pay for itself. Federal and local governments provide incentives to encourage developers to earn initial profits from preservation; and thereafter to keep the preserved properties, the need for government assistance to a minimum. Historic buildings have monetary value in the US and developers can increase this value through preservation. As a result, there is a large market for historic properties in the US and the market economy largely supports this concept of preservation paying for itself after limited initial governmental assistance.

The basic Japanese philosophy of historic preservation, on the other hand, is that preservation cannot pay for itself because the market for preserved historic properties is more limited than in the US. Furthermore, the value added by preservation of historic buildings is almost insignificant compared to the much higher value of the land on which it is located. These limited conditions have discouraged the private sector, including both owners of historic buildings and potential developers, from preserving historic buildings without government subsidy. Therefore, while historic preservation is economically viable in the US market economy, it has

had great difficulty in working out in the Japanese market economy; and, as a result, many historic projects have had to depend heavily on assistance programs. Forms of assistance include repair and maintenance subsidies, and some property tax exemptions at the local level, but these programs are not adequate to support a majority of the potential preservation projects in Japan today. Because of the economic dis-incentives, which are inherent in the Japanese system, Japan needs to establish social programs.

5.1.4 Planning and Decision-making Systems

1) Planning System

The Japanese planning system for historic preservation has been awkward and innefective mainly because of the administration for cultural property and the administration for city planning are separate entities. Historic preservation has therefore not been treated as an urban issue, and as a result, in many preservation projects, the historic districts have been isolated from the surrounding environments. This Japanese system contrasts dramatically with the American system in which historic preservation is planned and implemented with the express purpose of addressing urban issues such as urban redevelopment and the environment. An outstanding example of this integrated American approach is Pike Place in Seattle, a project which undertook the preservation of an old market district in order to solve the low income housing problem in the area. The obvious advantage of the

American system over the less coordinated Japanese system clearly reflects the disparity in the progress of historic preservation activity between the two countries.

2) Consensus Building System and Community Involvement

In both counties, popular interest in preservation activity has been increasing because people are recognizing the effects which it has on daily life. Many community groups have been involved in the processes of implementing preservation projects, and;in fact it is now nearly impossible to complete a historic preservation project on a large scale without community consensus and involvement. The emerging patters for local residents to decide what to do about a project to ensure that the outcome will conform to their vision of the future needs of the community.

This new trend of increased community involvement in the preservation process depends upon consensus-building between community, developer and city. In general, this process has been more successful in the US than in Japan mainly because each resident's opinion was not reflected in the final plan for the project. There are two possible reasons for this. The first reason is that in Japanese society, the basis for consensus-building is not the opinions of the individual but those of the family or the community. In Japanese small cities, in particular, patriarchy is still a potent force; most decisions are made by the head of the family, which is almost without exception the father or the eldest son. Also, in small communities, people often decide issues unanimously because the

elders have near absolute power, leaning the majority of people little opportunity to express their opinions.

The second factor that hinders the participation of individual residents in the decision-making process in Japan is the malfunction of the public hearing and appeal system. These systems exist in Japan mainly in theory, in fact, they do not achieve even their basic stated objectives in many cases. In public hearings in Japan, the local administrators tend to give weight to the "experts' " opinions and discount the opinions of the residents. Therefore, public hearings are actually geared toward the narrowest group of people who will be affected by the project -- for example, those who will be forced to relocate -- and usually only this small group can express opinions. Those who are not immediately or physically affected by the project are not eligible to participate in the consensus-building process. In an extreme case of denying citizen participation, a highway project along the Kamo River in Kyoto, there was no public hearing process at all; the local government simply announced the construction plan for the highway after major parts of the detailed plan had been completed. In circumstances like this, nearby residents or other concerned parties have little chance of appealing, and the "consensus" is derived only from a small number of individuals who are considered to be directly affected.

5.1.5 Supporting Systems for Preservation Activities

1) Human Resources

It is difficult to attract and keep experts to lead the projects for revitalization and preservation projects in Japan, especially in smaller cities although local people are resourceful and industrious in their efforts to do so. As discussed in earlier sections, the availability and quality of human resources is an essential element for success in revitalization projects. In Japan, however, it is not realistic to expect to attract experts from other areas to the small city where a preservation project is planned because the total number of these experts is small, and they are concentrated in a very few large city areas.

In the US, on the other hand, the number of expert project leaders is larger, and their mobility is much greater than in Japan. An American city will seek out experts from other places around the country, and there are usually many applicants for the available positions. Once the project is completed the experts move to other cities for new projects. This degree of volume and mobility of available human resources has contributed to the successful implementation of projects in the US, whereas in Japan, local people have few alternatives but to handle implementation themselves.

Finally, Japan has greater difficulty in soliciting or incorporating volunteer participation for preservation projects than do communities in the US. In the US, it is possible to attract a far-ranging array of volunteers motivated by civic interest, while in Japan volunteers are drawn only from the immediate community.

As a result, the total number of volunteers for preservation projects in Japan is smaller. For example, if preservation of an important historic area in Cambridge is planned, volunteers will most likely come not only from the immediate neighborhood and surrounding neighborhoods in Cambridge, but also from the metropolitan area of greater Boston. In Japan, with a few exceptions such as the Otaru Canal Preservation Activity which attracted nationwide attention due to sophisticated local efforts to publicize and promote the project, usually only neighborhood groups, termed "chonaikai," have worked as volunteers for preservation projects.

While many people might feel they would like to participate in the preservation projects, an appropriate system capable of managing a wide range of volunteer contributions simply does not exist in Japan. It has been proven in the US that volunteers in the community are of critical importance in the implementation and management of preservation projects. Clearly then, the difficultly of attracting and utilizing volunteers in Japan deprives preservation projects of the momentum that would ensure their viability.

2) Organization

In the area of organization for supporting preservation projects, Japan lags behind the US. While the US has developed a structure of organizational support at this level over the long course of its preservation activity, Japan is still trying to give form to its preservation efforts and strategies.

The various support structures for preservation activity established in the US are designed to meet a diversity of local

situations. For example, as discussed earlier, the Lowell Historic Preservation Commission involves local, state, and federal governments and the private sector , giving it both a comprehensive capability and a needed flexibility. Therefore, the commission is able to smoothly implement the development of a number of historic properties and still ensure continuity with prior community efforts.

In Japan, on the other hand, as mentioned earlier, the various administrative agencies which deal with historic preservation are all separate entities and there is rarely any collaboration between them. Furthermore, the authority of each agency is severely limited. For example, in local government, the education commission or the cultural commission is usually in charge of historic preservation, but it does not have authority to acquire historic properties. Observing this problematic situation, some local governments and residents have joined forces to establish foundations for historic preservation. The Tsumago Preservation Foundation was established to acquire historic buildings in the city before outside speculators and developers could acquire and destroy them. The basis for the foundation's actions is the legitimate assumption that the actions of people who do not live in the city would not contribute to local preservation efforts. Especially, in the case of developers, the motivating interest is purely monetary because they place no value on the city's image or its heritage in the long-run.

Many local governments have also established tertiary sectors (a joint effort of the public and private sectors) to implement preservation projects. While this approach is feasible, it has not been widely successful thus far due to its excessive dependence on private

money. In response to this problem, the federal government has recently started to control establishment of tertiary sectors (Nihon Keizai News, 1990, 3).

5.2 OTARU CITY REVITALIZATION

The transformation of Otaru city from a small town into an industrial urban port is a symbol of the success of an early Japanese modernization. The development of Otaru was a major part of the Hokkaido Development, a large Japanese development started in the nineteenth century. Today, the city's warehouses, banks, canals, and western-design institutional buildings continue to illustrate the impact that early modernization has had on the quality of small city life in Japan. In addition, the city's traditions, its roots, its array of international cultures, and the civic involvement of its people offer a unique opportunity to explore the essence of working and living in a modernizing Japan.

In order to propose a strategy for Otaru's revitalization which makes use of its historic resources, I will first discuss about the city's; background, current conditions, and developmental potential Next, I will present the conceptual framework for the development of an urban cultural park in Otaru.

5.2.1 Otaru

1) Background

Geography and Population

Otaru, located in the southwestern part of Hokkaido, Japan's largest northern island, is a port city bounded by hills and the Sea of Japan and consists of limited flat land is limited around reclaimed bay area and a large area of sloping ground (See Figure 5-1).

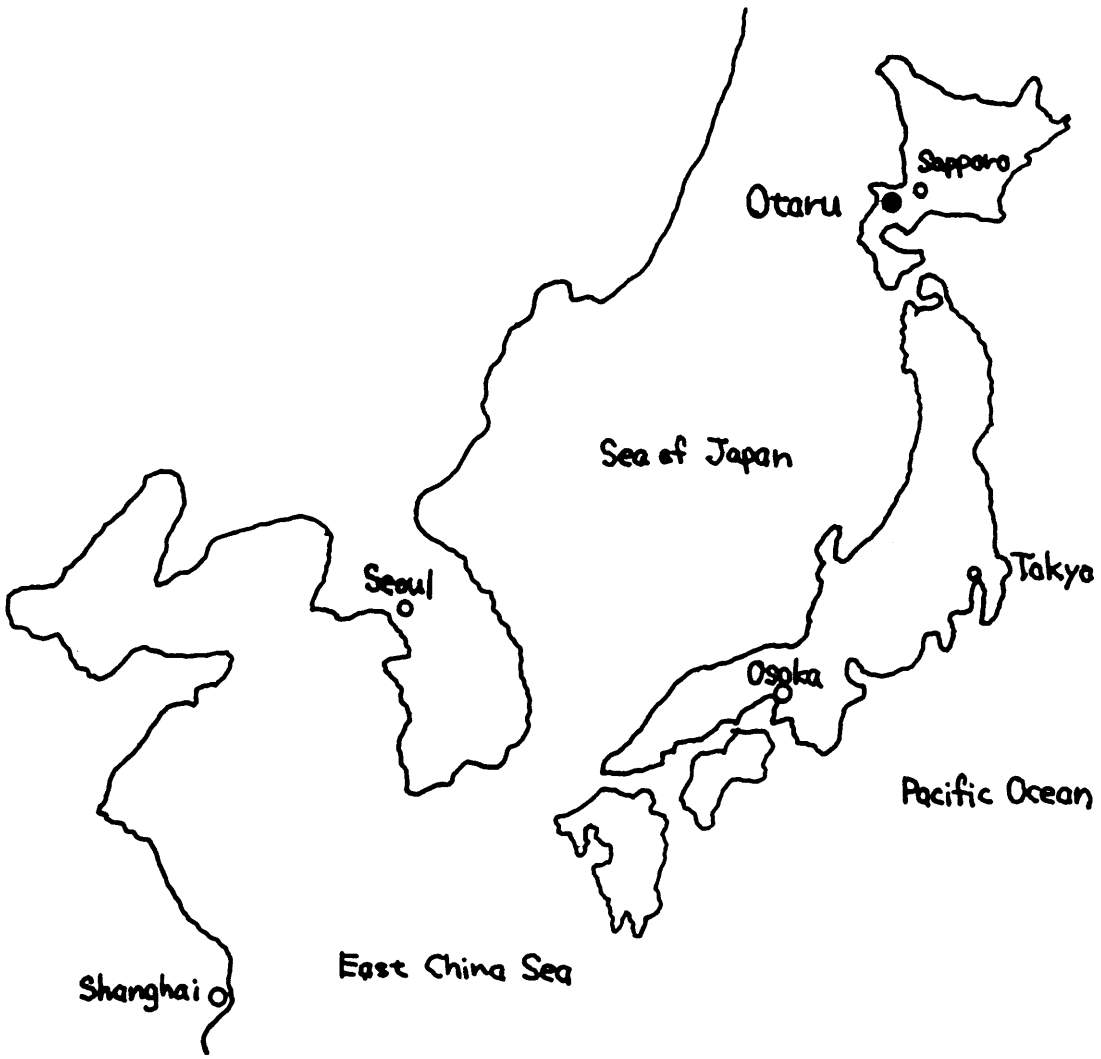

Figure 5-1 : Location of Otaru

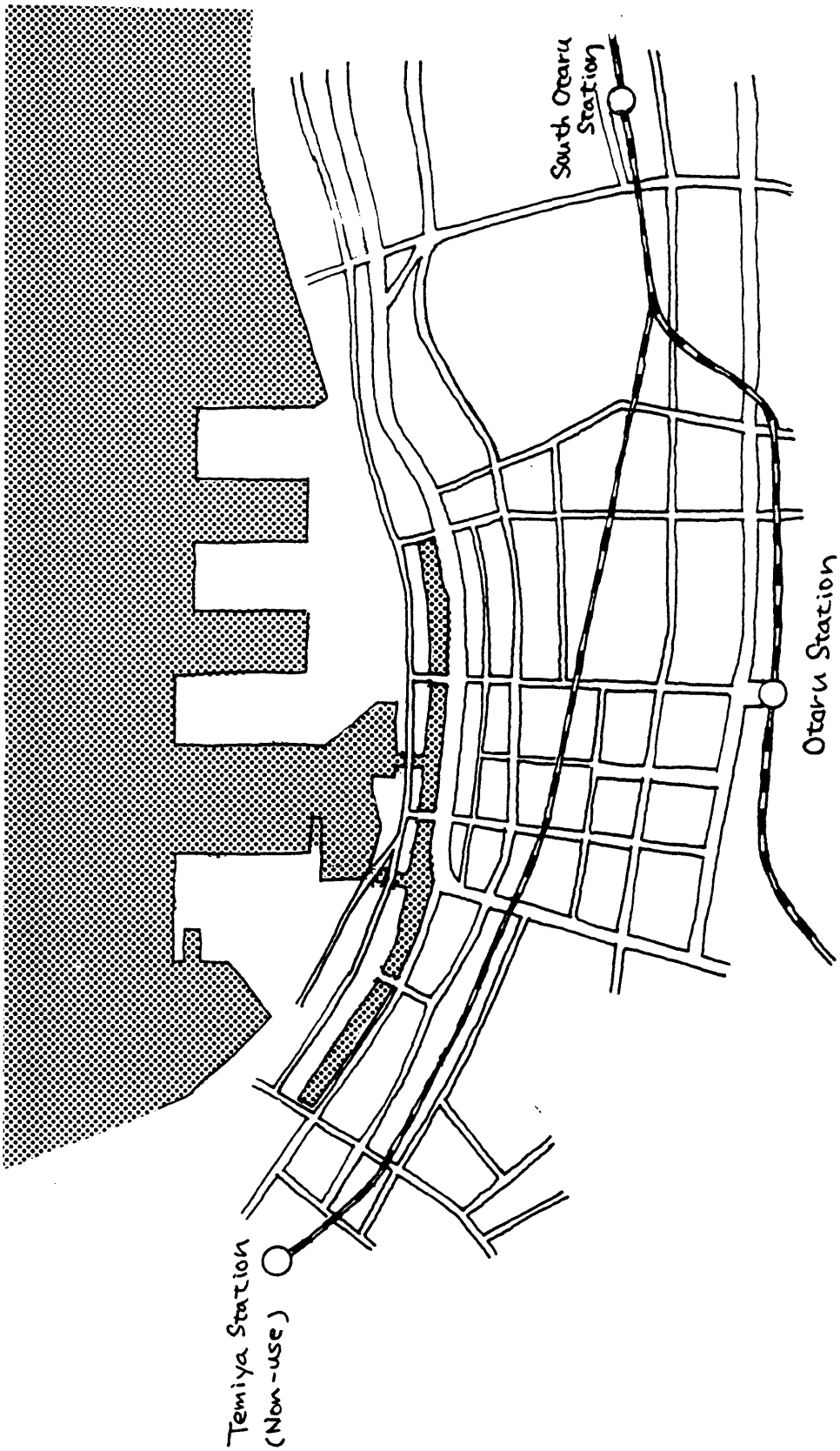

Figure 5-2: Downtown Otaru

Although the city has a 36 km X 20 km dimensions and a total 244 km2 area, its downtown area is relatively small with a 2km X 5km dimension facing the Otaru Port. Almost eighty percent of the population (150,000 people) reside in the downtown area.

The land use pattern of Otaru is determined by its geography, that is, elevation above sea level is the key to determining the land use. 50 m above sea level is the upper limit for commercial and industrial use; and 100 m above sea level is the upper limit for residential use. The areas above 100m are mostly mountain areas and occupy the almost half of the city's entire area.

History

The city's name was derived from a word of the original inhabitants of Hokkaido (Ainu people) and meant "a sandy beach in a small river." In 1865, approximately three hundred families, totalling one thousand people, working a herring and salmon fishery resided in this area. The fishery resulted in the establishment of a self-governing system for the city.

When the Colonization Commission was established in Sapporo (the current capitol city of Hokkaido and thirty miles from Otaru City) in 1869, the development of Hokkaido was accelerated, resulting in Otaru's becoming a commercial port city. During Otaru's development, a rail road was built between Otaru and Sapporo; it was Japan's third operational line. At that time, the Temiya Station in Otaru served as a bustling center for product transportation, enabling Otaru to flourish as the center of development for Hokkaido.

From 1887 until World War II, Otaru City thrived as a commercial port city experiencing commercial growth through the improvement of harbor facilities, the modernization of shipping, and the large scale reclamation of land from the sea. In 1900, the Otaru Port was recognized as an international commercial port.

During World War I, the trading of grain with European countries proved very lucrative for Otaru. In this period, a succession of stone warehouses and banks were constructed forming what is presently downtown Otaru. During World War II, Otaru City suffered major damage from the impositions of severe economic controls which decreased the amount of goods wholesalers could deal with and forced the business to cease operation. Furthermore, because many of the institutions for the controlled economy were established in Sapporo, and also because the political power center had shifted to Sapporo, Otaru's economic and political position declined.

Despite the revival of a free economy after the war, Otaru's economic decline continued due to the expansion of direct trade between producer and consumer and development of other new ports. Wholesalers which had previously supported Otaru's economy ceased operation, and most of the banks which had had offices in Otaru closed by 1970.

In order to solve Otaru's economic problems, the port facilities have been modernized and new highway construction, reclaiming the Otaru Canal, was authorized in 1966. Unfortunately, despite these efforts, Otaru City has not yet regained the level of economic vitality it enjoyed before the war. However, because it was not in the main

stream of Japanese post-war economic expansion, Otaru city has not also been "over-developed" with the result that many historic buildings have survived (although the new highway construction destroyed several historic warehouses and a portion of the canal). The cityscape formed before the war still remains giving Otaru seems to have a character and atmosphere different from other more developed cities.

2) Significance

Historic Buildings

The urban design and city form of Otaru are characterized by the buildings and streets built between the Meiji era (1868- 1912) and the beginning of Showa Era (1925-1989). This was the Otaru's most prosperous period of commercial expansion. The cityscape itself seems to tell the story of Otaru. Many warehouses built in the bay area and along the canal are actually still in use, although the warehouse industry is not presently active any more in Otaru. During Otaru's economic period of expansion, wholesalers and banks had established their offices in downtown Otaru, which used to be called "North Wall Street" in Japan. Along the main street of Downtown Otaru, many financial institutions built modern buildings designed by famous architects. Many of them still survive and are in use, although some of them have changed ownership.

The most peculiar characteristic of the historical buildings of Otaru is the material used to build them. Usually traditional Japanese buildings are made of wood, but most of historic buildings in Otaru were made of stone. Stone was an unusual and relatively

new building material at the end of the Japanese national isolation period in the Meiji era; but after the reopening of the country Japan adopted stone building technology from Western countries. People used stone material especially in institutional buildings with Western building technology and design style as the symbol of Japanese modernization after the national isolation. There still exist 450 stone buildings in Otaru city, all built during the period of modernization. The durability of stone material enables these historic buildings to survive while many of the other older buildings which are made of wood have disappeared.

Because the historic buildings in Otaru are relatively new compared to other Japanese historic buildings, such as the shrines in Kyoto, they have not been valued as highly as structures built centuries ago. Actually many of the historic buildings in Otaru were destroyed during the post-war development movement either because they had deteriorated or were considered obsolete. However, recently people have recognized the historic value of the "newer" historic buildings in Otaru, and some of them have been repaired and are being used once again.

Canal

A canal close to the Otaru Port was formerly a thriving center of Hokkaido Development. Now, with its well-designed path, bridges, and landscape, it remains as an attractive vestige of the prosperity of old Otaru. Repairs on the canal were completed in 1978, after many years of discussion, ending a long period in which the canal had remained in a deteriorated state.

Originally completed in 1923, the canal's construction actually had taken sixteen years and was hampered by intense arguments among interest groups. The methodology for canal construction was not conventional digging, but reclamation of sea area. It was designed for lighters (small barges) which carried freight between large cargo vessel anchored in the bay and the warehouses along the canal. The completed canal was 40 m wide, 1,324 m long, and 2.4 m deep. The canal supported Otaru's most flourishing period as a port city which continued until the shipping industry declined.

After World War II, along with the decline of the shipping industry in Otaru and changes in barging method, the canal started to loose its importance and fell into disuse. In 1965, a central pier was built in the bay and barging in the canal ceased altogether. The water of the canal became polluted, and the canal was ignored and generally disliked by the people of Otaru.

To improve upon this situation and to redevelop the city with a new infrastructure, in 1966 Otaru City proposed the construction of a new six lane highway that would reclaim half the length of the canal. This proposal caused serious arguments between the preservation groups and the development groups. This controversy attracted national attention and actually increased the popularity of Otaru to some extent.

In 1978, after years of debate, a compromise plan for reclamation was proposed and chosen as a final plan, in spite of many disagreements in the two groups. The plan was that half the width of the canal was reclaimed and used for a new highway. Although many people still did not not agree with the compromise

plan, the construction started in 1979 and was just recently completed. The new canal with cleaned water and historic warehouses is a an attractive reminder of the old Otaru.

Stories and People

Compared with other small cities, Otaru has many stories which tell of its past periods of prosperity and decline. While not so old as the myths which tell of the oldest Japanese cities, Otaru's stories tell of the end of Japanese national isolation a hundred years ago, when Otaru was not only a thriving commercial center but also a place where many significant people lived and interesting events occurred. Several famous Japanese writers such as Takuboku Ishikawa, Takiji Kobayashi, and Sei Ito used Otaru as a setting for their popular books, and recently a popular modern writer, Tomomi Muramatsu, wrote about Otaru in his best-selling book, Guest of Uminekoya. Together, the old and new stories have formed an important aspect of Otaru's public image.

Visual art is also a significant heritage in Otaru. Many painters have emerged from Otaru, and they established one of Japan's major painting groups which produced many distinguished lyrical realist paintings expressive of everyday life in a small Japanese city.

People in Otaru have also cultivated many festival traditions over the years. Just in the summer period, there are twelve different festivals in Otaru. Most of these festivals celebrate some aspect of life by the sea. One of the newest and most vibrant festivals is the Port Festival started in 1967.

3) Planning Context

Related Planning Activities in Otaru

In the past ten years, plans for Otaru's revitalization have been proposed by the public and private sectors alike. There have been over fifteen plans from the public sector and eight from the private sector. Several of these plans will directly affect the feasibility of my proposal, and are summarized below.

* *Otaru City New General Plan (Otaru Shinsogo Keikaku)*

In 1988, the Otaru City proposed a general development plan for the twenty-first century. The plan focuses on possible future problems such as decreasing population, declining economy, and care for the elderly. To deal with these problems, it proposes several agendas for new development: establishment of new industries for internationalization and informitization; differentiated and attractive urban design; cultural development, attraction of private investment for revitalization projects; historic preservation programs; and so forth.

* *Environmental Improvement Plan for Otaru Canal and Surroundings*

In 1982, Otaru City developed plan for the development and preservation of the anal area. This plan focuses attention on (1) the reuse of the canal area with the addition of new avenues for relieving traffic problems, and (2) on the preservation and reuse of historic buildings in order to create a new city identity.

* *Shape-up My Town Plan*

In 1986, Otaru City focused on downtown revitalization with the Shape-up My Town Plan. This plan aims at stopping population outflow, revitalizing the existing industries, establishing new industries, and creating an attractive urban environment. The strategies for revitalization are comprehensive downtown development; repair of the streets to provide easier access to the downtown area; formation of districts for tourism; cultural development; historic preservation; retaining the city's night population; and creating a new city environment for the winter.

* *Waterfrontier 21 Plan*

The plan was proposed by a group of Otaru business people in 1987. The objective of this plan is to utilize and develop the wharfs and bay areas as a stimuli for the revitalization of Otaru. It highlights the drastic decline of industries, worsened living environment and cityscape, the plentiful resources which exist for revitalization, and easy access to a large city (Sapporo). It also proposes not only new urban facilities in the wharfs, such as offices and resorts, but also preservation of the historic environment in the site.

Preservation Ordinance of Otaru

In 1983, Otaru City created a preservation ordinance for historic buildings and districts. It establishes the first historic preservation system in Otaru and aims at stopping the destruction of historic buildings and at subsidizing their repair and maintenance.

The ordinance's designation is divided into three categories: historic buildings, historic districts, and surrounding districts. Regarding the first category, the historic commission, which is the education commission of the Otaru city designates valuable historic buildings and regulates their exterior renovation. In the second category, the Mayor designates historic districts in the city and controls any exterior changes in buildings and streetscape within them. For the third category, surrounding district, the Mayor also targets districts surrounding historic districts for repair and upkeep of streets, lights, and trees in order to highlight the historic district.

In the designation of historic buildings, the education commission has to obtain the owner's agreement, and in the designation of historic and surrounding districts, the mayor has to review the opinions of the residents in the districts. For deliberation of issues concerning designation and regulation, the education commission organizes the historic building council which consists of academic experts and resident representatives. Subsidies for designated buildings and areas are of two kinds: grants and lending. The amount of these subsidies depends on the category of designation.

According to this ordinance, a part of the downtown area, a neighboring part of the canal where many historic institutional buildings stand, and two groups of historic warehouses along the canal were designated as historic districts. The whole canal area and some streets close to the canal and historic districts were designated as surrounding districts. These designated areas are concentrated

around the canal area. Other historic residential buildings in the mountain areas have-not yet been designated.

4) Current Problems

Because of its commercial and historical importance, Otaru city used to function as a core city of the region. However, over the years as Sapporo has grown as the capital city of Hokkaido prefecture, Otaru has undergone a decline marked by the outflow of population and economic power. Now, Otaru is functioning as a satellite city or suburb of Sapporo rather than a regional core city. Furthermore, among the several peripheral cities of Sapporo, only Otaru has declined economically while other peripheral cities have expanded to some extent. Because Otaru has an industrial structure similar to Sapporo's, Sapporo has absorbed economic power from Otaru. Before formulating strategies for revitalization, I will discuss several aspects of Otaru's decline.

Decreasing and Aging Population

The population of Otaru has been decreasing since the peek(196,000 people) of 1955, and the decrease in population is still continuing. This phenomenon is unusual compared to the general trend for Hokkaido prefecture, and even compared to other small cities in the region. Sapporo now has a population of 1,500,000 and is still expanding. Moreover, its peripheral cities are also increasing in population deriving with some benefit from their proximity to a large magnet city. Within this general expanding population trend, only Otaru is exceptional and decreasing its population.

Regarding the aging population, Otaru shows the highest portion of aged people in the population of all the cities in Hokkaido. In turn, the percentages of the middle age (30 - 50 years) and the young age (20 - 29 years) populations are lower than any other cities in Hokkaido which have a similar scale. These figures show that Otaru has failed to attract young people, and furthermore, that young people have been attracted by the large cities which have more developed urban environments.

Declining and Outflow of Industry

Otaru used to possess a large share (30%) of the entire Hokkaido wholesale industry in the period of Otaru's thriving. However, recently Otaru occupies 1.3% of whole Hokkaido wholesale industry while Sapporo has 48.1 %. Not only in terms of whole amount sales but also in terms of sales per capita Otaru shows weakness in the wholesale industry. Actually its sales per capita is half of the average sales of other cities in Hokkaido, and the increase rate in Otaru's sale is lower than that of other cities. These data show the current poor condition and declining trend of Otaru's wholesale industry, despite the fact that the wholesale industry is the largest industry in Otaru's commerce. If this declining trend continues further, Otaru would certainly loose its remaining power and influence as an urban commercial center.

In terms of its retail industry, Otaru shows a weakness and declining trend compared to other cities in Hokkaido. Not only has is Otaru's retail industry below average for Hokkaido, but it also shows the outflow character of sales, that is, people in Otaru tend to buy

goods in other cities. This shows clearly that Otaru's decline is linked to other cities' expansion as well as to demographic changes.

The tourism industry in Otaru shows only a stabilizing trend over the past ten years while Sapporo's has expanded dramatically due to new resort developments in Hokkaido. In spite of the large amount of resources available for tourism in Otaru, those resources: sightseeing points, are scattered in the city; and facilities such as hotels, signs, and information centers have not been developed adequately, showing that Otaru has not yet used its resources for tourism effectively.

Decline and Isolation of Otaru Port

Otaru Port which used to be the economic center of Otaru City has been devastated along with the general decline of port industry and has been isolated from the life of the city. Because the site of the port covers a vast area close to downtown, its further decline must be prevented.

Otaru Port was once the third largest port in the Taisho era, and Otaru city developed with the expansion of port activity. However, major changes occurring after World War II initiated the decline of the port. Those changes are Japan's loss of northern territories to the USSR territories, which used to actively do business with Otaru, changes in freight system from shipping to trucking; and the change in the main energy source from coal (which was one of Hokkaido's major natural resources) to oil. Otaru Port did not respond quickly to these changes and its decline accelerated.

Diminishing Image of Otaru

As is usually the case with cities in economic decline, Otaru's "image" has diminished in the estimation of outsiders and Otaru residents alike. This situation eventuates in a vicious circle in which as the city's image worsens, residents loose their attachment to the city and leave; and as a result the city declines further. Otaru has been caught in just such a situation.

The image of Otaru all over Japan is that of a small and unimportant northern port city. Many people are not even aware of its exact location. In terms of its distance from Sapporo, people have an idea that Otaru is three times as far from Sapporo as it actually is. This, of course, prevents tourists visiting Sapporo from even considering a visit to Otaru. To make matters worse, a popular Japanese song, "People in Otaru," reflects the decline of Otaru city and caused Otaru to be associated with the image of "decline" and "darkness" with its words " The northern town, Otaru, is cold and far away."

As already mentioned, people in Otaru do not have a positive image of their city's future. Sixty percent of Otaru residents think that Otaru's economic condition will be worsening or at best remain stable over the next ten years. (HRPI, 1985, 114) They also believe that there are no factors likely to contribute to Otaru's expansion at this point in time. Furthermore, they believe that the decline and economic stagnation result not from federal policies but from Otaru's own policies and its people's attitudes.

Ineffective Approach to Revitalization

Otaru's decline is generally attributed to the external forces, such as changes in industrial structure, but it was in fact also caused by Otaru's internal problems, as Otaru residents aver. What has been lacking is an effective consensus. A basic policy for civic improvement which integrates existing economic and cultural resources with communal effort.

When Otaru developed as a commercial city based on prosperous port activity, most of the political power was supported by business groups. Under these circumstances, the city did not make an effort to establish a strong political system. Even after the economy declined and the business society lost its political power, many urban issues continue to be determined just on the basis of business considerations. For the reasons, bitter disputes over issues and political disharmony continue to plague and incapacitate Otaru.

This volatile political climate has resulted in long, wasteful arguments for the reclaiming of the canal and development of a new highway on the site. It actually took twenty years to reach an agreement on this project. In spite of the waste of a tremendous amount of energy, the result was not only a poor approach but also one which left many unsatisfied. What was missing then and now, was a capable and effective political leader who could develop a long-term perspective and engender a cooperative attitude among Otaru's citizens.

5) Urban Cultural Park Opportunity

Otaru is unique

The history of Otaru's development and decline is a good subject of study, and could have widespread educational and social appeal if marketed properly. Otaru is one of the best places in the country to demonstrate the joint themes of the history of the port industry, Hokkaido development, and early Japanese modernization. As discussed above, the history of Otaru is not a long one compared to typical Japanese historic cities such as Kyoto. But if we focus on the beginning of Japanese modernization at the end of the period of isolation, Otaru is unique because it offers perhaps the best example of this brief but important phase in the history of modern Japan.

Abundance of Cultural Resources

As mentioned above, Otaru has a variety of significant cultural resources. Fortunately, many of its historic buildings have been preserved because of the lack of economic support for development during and after World war II. Also, stories from Otaru's history will be of interest to residents and visitors alike. They can enjoy the cultural environment and learn what have happened in Otaru from it.

Good Accessibility

Otaru is 30 km from a major city, Sapporo which has a population of 2,700,000, including its metropolitan areas. Traveling time from Otaru to Sapporo either by railway (50 minutes) or

highway (40 minutes) is less than an hour. This proximity to Sapporo has up to now worked against Otaru because of the economic and human outflow to Sapporo. However, Otaru can use this good access to large city to its advantage by promoting the benefits of living in a suburb of a major attractive city. Furthermore, if the highway from Chitose Airport, which is the gate airport of Hokkaido through Sapporo, is completed, it would take 45 to 60 minutes to drive from the airport to Otaru. This access will also be a significant boost for Otaru's revitalization.

Change in Citizens' Attitudes

The preservation effort of the Otaru Canal, which attracted widespread interest throughout Japan, changed citizens' attitudes toward their environmental issues. Through 1971 to 1973, several of Otaru's historical warehouses were destroyed because of the construction of the new highway. This situation stimulated some citizens to establish a citizen group for the preservation of the canal, which was to be reclaimed for the new highway construction. Since the birth of this citizen group, people have paid attention to what would happen in Otaru if development were to go unchecked and have actively participated to the political process. Residents have actually made an effort to achieve their objectives by staging events and lectures and have learned about community involvement from their activities. Their level of involvement has recently developed beyond preservation activity to an integrated community effort for city revitalization.

Recent Revitalization Activity and Peripheral Development Project

As mentioned above, plans for a number of activities for revitalization, both public and private, are underway in Otaru, such as a marina development project and a Railroad History Museum at Temiya Station. Numerous agencies have also begun efforts to fund and implement improvements in Otaru, including a plan for an organizational umbrella to maximize the positive impact of a diverse number of projects. Also, outside Otaru, a large resort development project has begun. This project, Akaigawa Resort, is developed by a large company, Yamaha Corporation, and it promises to attract a large number of visitors -- another opportunity for Otaru to exploit its proximity to an attractive area for its own revitalization.

First Demonstration Opportunity

There are several small industrial and port cities comparable to Otaru in size which have been steadily declining. Success of the Otaru Urban Cultural Park project in Otaru's revitalization could spur similar efforts in other locations.

5.2.2 Proposal : Otaru Urban Cultural Park

1) Definition

Most people think of a park as a grassy place with trees and walls where families can picnic and enjoy outdoor recreation. In an "Urban Cultural Park" people would have the opportunity to enjoy not only these natural features, but also historic buildings and

settings which tell the story of a community's growth. In this sense, an urban cultural park is actually the whole environment of a specific historic area. By focusing on a city's historic, recreational and educational potentials, the Urban Cultural Park helps to create a favorable climate for public and private investment. It also creates an environment in which people continue to live, work, play and shop while the area undergoes revitalization (Summary Plan, NY Urban Cultural Park Systems, 1980, 6).

Highlighting the "way of life" of Otaru City, the Urban Cultural Park will serve as a vehicle for cultural expression in Otaru and will tell the human story of early Japanese modernization in a port city setting.

2) Goals

The Urban Cultural Park concept is based on the assumption that certain areas in Otaru have inherent but unrecognized historic value that can be developed to help achieve community revitalization. Not all the old buildings in these areas are architectural landmarks and civic monuments deserving historic designation. Rather, collectively they are an emphatic representation of a common architectural style, which is expressive of the lifestyle and spirit of a bygone era. Unfortunately, many of these areas have been overlooked and some were destroyed in the course of post-war development. The Urban Cultural Park approach to revitalizing these areas focuses on achieving the following goals:

Preservation : to preserve those physical elements of Otaru's environment, such as historic buildings and the canal, which are a social and industrial record of the dawning of modern Japan.

Interpretation and Education : to explain to visitors and residents alike, by means of "living," architectural examples, the social, economic and cultural forces underlying the rise and the decline of a port city in Japan's early period of modernization. They will understand the Otaru's story through the preserved and interpreted settings.

Recreational Development : to help meet the increasing demand for leisure time activities by providing recreational opportunities, both active and contemplative, in an attractive and interesting environment.

Economic Development : to use revenues earned from park-related activities, to help revitalize the city's economy and improve its environment. In summary, the goal of the Urban Cultural Park is to use public and private resources, to preserve and promote Otaru's historic settings in order to enhance the city's physical, cultural, and economic life. Through efficient use of the resources from both the public and private sectors, the park will implement adaptive reuse of old buildings, interpretative attractions, or other activities.

3) Potential Programs and Projects

Intensive-Use Zone and preservation of the Past

The Otaru Urban Cultural Park would include several intensive use zones located primary in those settings, exhibits and activities which explain Otaru's history. (See Figure 5-3) In this park concept, an intensive zone is the locus of most visitor exhibits and activities. In these zones, historical buildings would be preserved and some buildings unfit for the park environment would be modified as needed. Two tour loops, comprised of street, canal, and railroad routes, would connect the intensive zones, enhancing tourists to enjoy an engaging look at the history and romance of a Japanese port city in the early modernization period.

* *Entry and Orientation Area* -- Visitors to the Otaru Urban Cultural Park will be directed into Otaru along the Otaru Port Root and the Midori-Yamanote Avenue, the historic gate ways to the city. Visitors by car will park their car in a area next to the main visitor center. Visitors from Otaru Station will get off the shuttle bus in this location. In the visitor center, a major orientation exhibit will provide an overview of Otaru's history. This area will also include a station for a barge tour of the canal.

There now exist seven warehouses in the block along the canal. These buildings will become the visitor center complex which will include an information desk, educational facilities, shops and restaurants. One of the major educational facilities in the center will be the interpretative exhibit explaining early Japanese

modernization, Hokkaido Development, and an overview of Otaru's history. (See Figure 5-28 through 31)

Not all of the seven warehouses have historical significance; some are relatively new and have contemporary design. These buildings will be redesigned so as to conform to the historical environment, and one of them will be torn down and replaced with an open space for outdoor events, an old barge and shipping exhibit, and a deck leading to the tour barge.

* *Tour Loops* -- The two tour loops in the park are the downtown tour loop and the comprehensive tour loop. (See Figure 5-4 and 5) The downtown tour loop includes the Otaru Station with a subentry for visitors by train, the Financial District Zone, the Center Market Zone, and Entry and Orientation area including the main visitor center. The comprehensive tour loop includes the visitor center, the canal barge tour in the Otaru Canal Zone, the Temiya Station Zone, the train tour on the unused Temiya line, and the Commercial Zone. The terminals for the barge tour and train tour are located at the points of major exhibits and historical settings.

* *Otaru Canal Zone* -- This intensive zone includes the canal, several historic warehouses, such as the Otaru Warehouse (See figure 5-7 through 5-13); the Ohya Warehouse and the Ukon Warehouses; some old industrial buildings, such as the hokkai Seikan; and the Hihon Yusen Building (now the Otaru Museum). This zone will be primarily used for exhibitions of early port activities of Japan. The barge tour

will move up from the visitor center (the south end of the canal) to the Nihon Yusen Building site (the north end of the canal).

Because historical settings are scattered within this zone, the historical image of old Otaru is not particularly strong here except for the well-preserved area between the Chuo Bridge and the Ryugu Bridge. Therefore, to strengthen the historical impact in this area, a new development with a historical design should be implemented.

* *Temiya Station Zone* -- The Hokkaido Transportation Museum has been designated for this zone and is now being planned by a public agency. The museum was originally planned in commemoration of the construction of the Temiya Line, which was the third railroad line in Japan. Focusing on the history of the Temiya Line, the museum exhibits will illustrate the development of transportation in modern Japan. This theme is, of course, one of the major themes of the entire park which is why the Temiya Station will be developed as an intensive zone. In the park plan, this zone is also used as the north end terminal for a major train tour, and will provide the opportunity to experience a historic transportation system and, at the same time, provide a view of Otaru's developing historic environment. (See Figure 5-14 and 15)

* *Central Market Zone* -- This zone includes a row of three market buildings and their surrounding residential and commercial areas. The purpose of this market zone is to enable visitors to have direct contact with the people of Otaru in their actual living environment. Although the market buildings are not old enough to qualify as a

historic environment, they are valuable as a natural expression of contemporary life in Otaru. Accordingly, there is no need at this point to undertake modification of this area. (See Figure 5-16 and 17)

* *Financial District Zone (Midori Yamate Avenue area)* -- The financial district will be an intensive zone in the park. Exhibitions in selected buildings will display the commercial history of Otaru against a background of its prosperous past. This zone includes a number of historical stone buildings and many of which are relatively large institutional buildings: the Bank of Japan, the old Mitsubishi Bank (now Eruni Corp.); the Mitsui Corporation; the old Bank of Hokkaido,;the Daichi Bank; and the Otaru Post Office. The main street, Midori Yamate Avenue, is relatively wide, forming a spacious environment in contrast to the dense and tight environments in most of Otaru. Most of these historic buildings are actually in use and have undergone some interior and exterior modification. Some of them are still being used by the original owner companies, and their rich design and decorations are an alluring reminder of the old days when Otaru flourished. (See Figure 5-18 through 5-21)

* *Commercial Zone (Ironai Street and Irifune area)* -- In the Otaru Urban Cultural Park plan, this zone will not only provide an opportunity for seeing and understanding the old businesses of Otaru through exhibitions and preserved settings to the visitors, but it will also allows them to see the present and future of Otaru business

through new adaptive use of old settings. (See Figure 5-22 through 5-27)

This zone includes the old shops and warehouses which made up the center of Otaru's once-thriving wholesale and textile industries. Many of these buildings have changed their owners and use because of changes in the major industry of the area caused by the decline of Otaru's textile and wholesale industry. In this situation, local entrepreneurs who are succeeding in new retailing and craft enterprises with adaptive reuse of old buildings. Kitaichi Glass converted several old warehouses into a complex of studios and shops manufacturing many kinds of glass ware. Orugol-do is a large music box shop located in a restored old warehouse. Neither glass ware nor music boxes are traditional products of Otaru, but these new companies have succeeded in combining their new products with the traditional image of the old Otaru in these historic settings. These adaptive-use shops attract many visitors and are making a major contribution to the image and identity of the new Otaru.

Interpretation of City

Interpretation will be a key element of the Otaru Urban Cultural Park plan, and it will provide visitors and residents the opportunity to understand and appreciate the city's historical resources on an experiential basis. (See Figure 5-6)

Visitors to the park will be encouraged to experience or "interpret" the city and be involved with the people of Otaru, not just look at the historic buildings. Frenchman writes that "Interpreting should not be conceived in terms of presentation in which the visitor becomes a

passive recipient of historical data, but rather, as a series of interactions between the visitor, the city, and its people" (Frenchman, 1976, 144).

Several important considerations need to be made in order for this interpretive approach to be successful. First, in spite of the fact that they are actually programmed carefully to ensure involvement with the environment, the visitor's experiences should be natural or not staged. Visitors to Otaru do not expect artificial or fake settings but seek the real history of the city through a direct experience of its environment, i.e, finding something real, unique, and unexpected in the area. Otaru's realistic environment will be a competitive advantage over other cities which are not as rich in history and lore.

To ensure that visitor's experiences not be overly structured, interpretation should work mainly as a means of minimizing visitors' confusion by increasing geographical familiarity. The park will therefore, provide a minimum of guiding devices such as large guiding signs, and still maximize the realistic recreation of old Otaru.

The signs and markers used in and around the park will actually help make the city itself more intelligible to visitors by making streets and districts easier to locate. In addition, devices such a small electronic information system boxes will be useful but subdued parts of the interpretive system, enabling visitors to make their own connection with the environment.

On the other hand, while the visitors' experience should be as unstructured as possible, excitement can still be aroused within a programmed environment by means of certain carefully chosen imaginative elements. For example, the barge tour in the canal was

not actually working anytime in Otaru's history but it can significantly enhance visitors' involvement with the environment. Likewise, the deteriorated Temiya Line site should also be refurbished and a small steam-powered train should be made operative. Visitors are likely to be excited by unusual experiences such as these facilities rather than being disappointed with them because they are not historically accurate.

The second consideration for the interpretative approach of the park is that human involvement and visitor participation should be encouraged. Visitors are easily bored with exhibitions when there is no opportunity for interaction. To avoid this problem, local residents should be encouraged to take part in the operation of the facilities. These efforts will also contribute to the local residents' understanding and appreciation for their own historic environment. Daily activity in the Otaru marketplace (cited earlier), along with planned events such as festivals, will also provide opportunity for visitors to enjoy interaction with the people and the environment.

Although the sites of interpretive opportunities will be located throughout the Otaru Urban Cultural Park -- at museums, craft shops, the barge and train tours, and exhibitions -- the sites will be integrated into coherent programs and tour loops. The center of this interpretation system will be the visitor center which provides an overview of Otaru's history as well as park information. Here, this impressive presentation of historical exhibits will act as a preview of what the park has to offer, encouraging the desire to learn more about Otaru. Visitors will then be able to choose which site to visit

first either through conversations with a park interpreter or by using the computer guide system.

The visitor center can also provide space for Otaru residents and business people to use for meetings, conferences, festivals, and so on. As well as providing opportunities for interaction between residents and visitors, community functions held at the center will help convey a positive image of the city to outsiders.

d) Implementation

To implement the proposed park in Otaru, a park management and development mechanism has to be established. The primary function of the mechanism will be to fulfill the park's main objective: to preserve Otaru's outstanding historic resources and revitalize the city by recreating the atmosphere of early modern Japan. The implementation process will be divided into a short-term phase (2 - 3 years) and a long-term phase as follows:

Short-term Phase

For the first several years, it will be necessary to prepare for implementation of the park development. At this stage, because the park concept is not a familiar one, it will be necessary to convince agencies, investors, lenders, and residents of the value of the park. To meet this short-term objective, I propose the establishment of the Otaru Historic Preservation Commission (OHPC) as a presiding entity for park implementation. The commission will be originated by city agencies along with local interest groups and invite participants from a wide range of areas, including federal, prefectural and local

agencies; representatives of local business groups; and local residents. The commission's activities will be as follows:

* *Designation*

Achieving national designation will be very important in making the Otaru historic preservation project a success. OHPC therefore has to develop a strategy for acquiring this designation such as promotions aimed at all levels of government agencies and private groups throughout Japan.

* *Coordination*

As discussed above, a problem inherent in the implementation of the park project is the lack of cooperation between the separate public agencies involved. For example, in the case of Otaru, at federal level, the Ministry of Construction proposes its own urban redevelopment plan while the Ministry of Transportation proposes the waterfront development plan, and there is no coordinative effort between the agencies. Also, at the prefectural level, each of the two agencies, Hokkaido Prefecture and Hokkaido Development Authority function independently and express different ideas. Under these circumstances, the OHPC has to coordinate the activities and tasks of these agencies as well as those of business groups and Otaru residents.

* *Fund-raising*

For managing the OHPC's activities such as research and acquisition of historic properties, the Commission will raise the fund

from public agencies and business groups. The main source of funds will come mainly from federal agencies such as the Ministry of Construction and Transportation, and from private investors such as developers, construction companies, trading companies, and so on. With a national designation, it will be relatively easy to raise funds for the project because a number of private investors are currently seeking a good oinvestment opportunities.

* *Environmental Management*

Throughout the park site, the OHPC safeguards preservation standards by establishing basic guidelines. Because many historic buildings in the site are prone to damage by prospective short-term owners and developers, as soon as the OHPC has to clearly establish and promote the social and economic value of historic preservation within the park site.

* *Research and Recommendation for Long-term Development*

The most important activity of the OHPC is to create a long-term plan for park development, based on extensive research and careful examination of the existing conditions of historic resources in the park site. This plan will show potential activities such as interpretation programs and transportation systems as well as clarifying the mechanism for capitalizing on the value of the historic environment. Its recommendations will be the basis for convincing the participants of the OHPC of the value and need of future innovative developments and uses of the park.

Long-term Phase

In the second phase of the park's development, the period when the park is well under way, a new park management entity, termed the Otaru Park Service (OPS) will be formed. While OHPC continues to focus on the park's organizational concept and plans for future development, OPS's function will be primarily managerial. It will focus on developing and facilitating specific park projects and daily activities such as interpretation, security, maintenance, and administration. On the other hand, the OHPC will supervise renovation and adaptive-reuse of old buildings in the attempt to stimulate private investment through reselling the properties it previously acquired. This parallel existence of the two entities will continue until the OHPC completes all the tasks of park development and then the OPS will take over total management responsibilities.

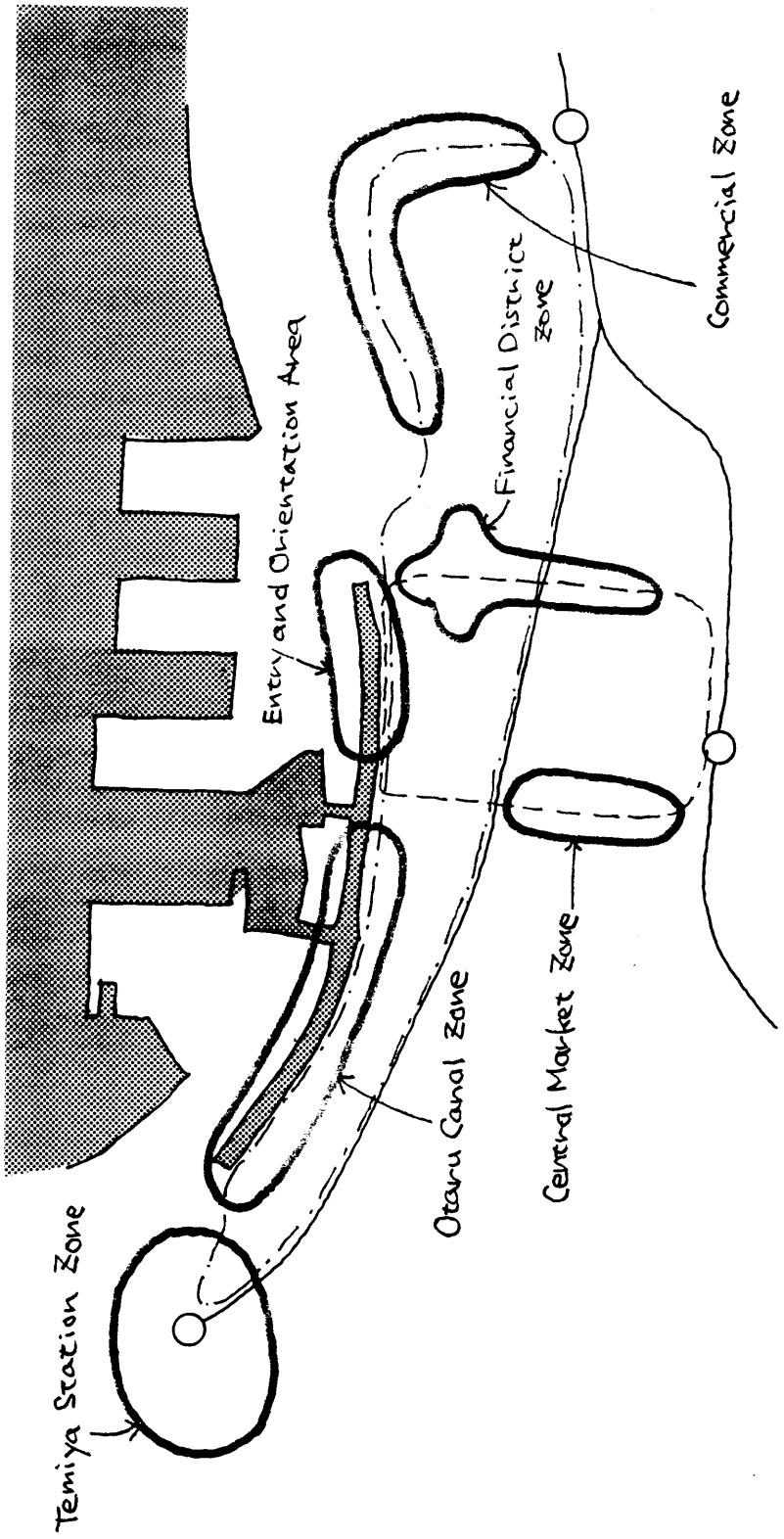

Figure 5-3: Intensive Zones

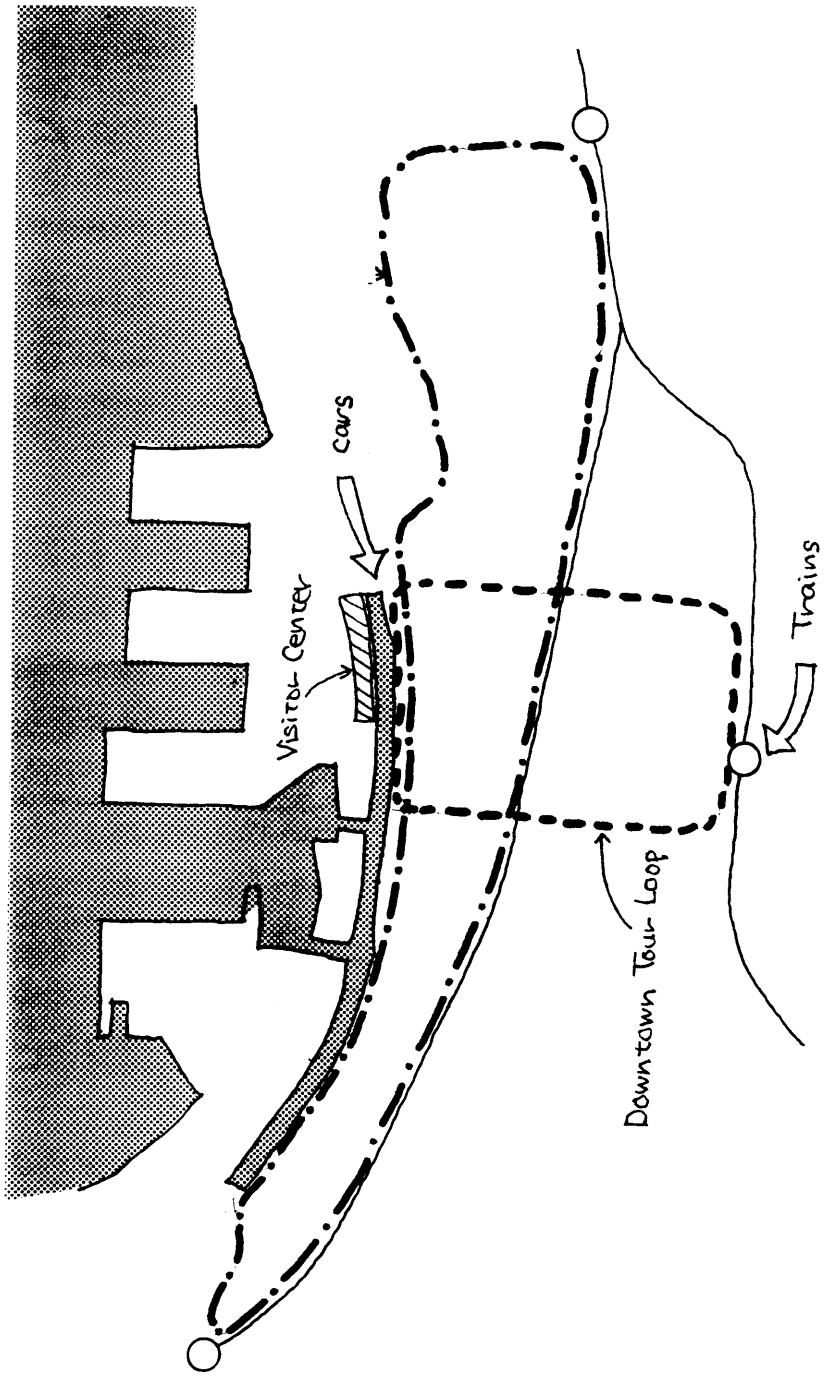

Figure 5-4: Tour Loops and Visitors' Access

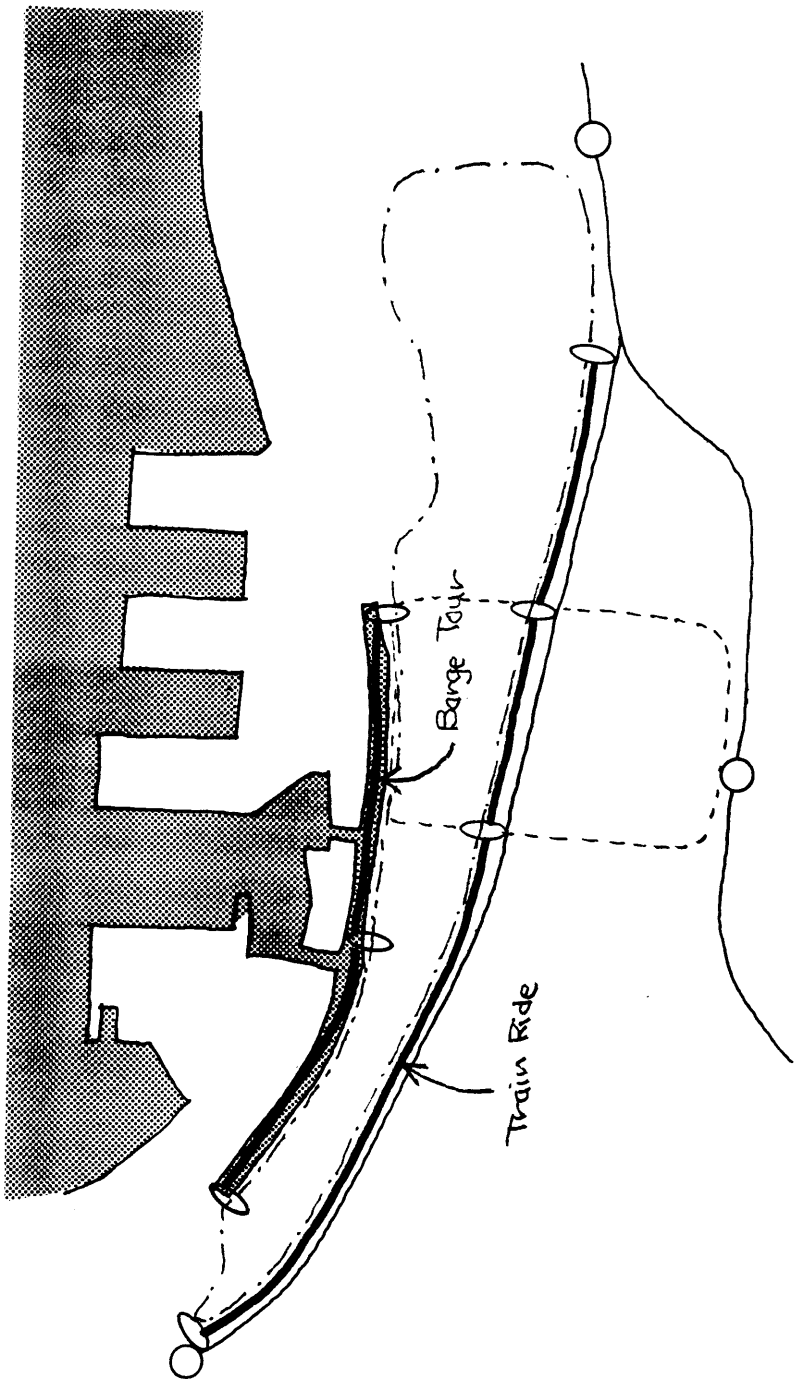

Figure 5-5: Barge Tour and Train Ride

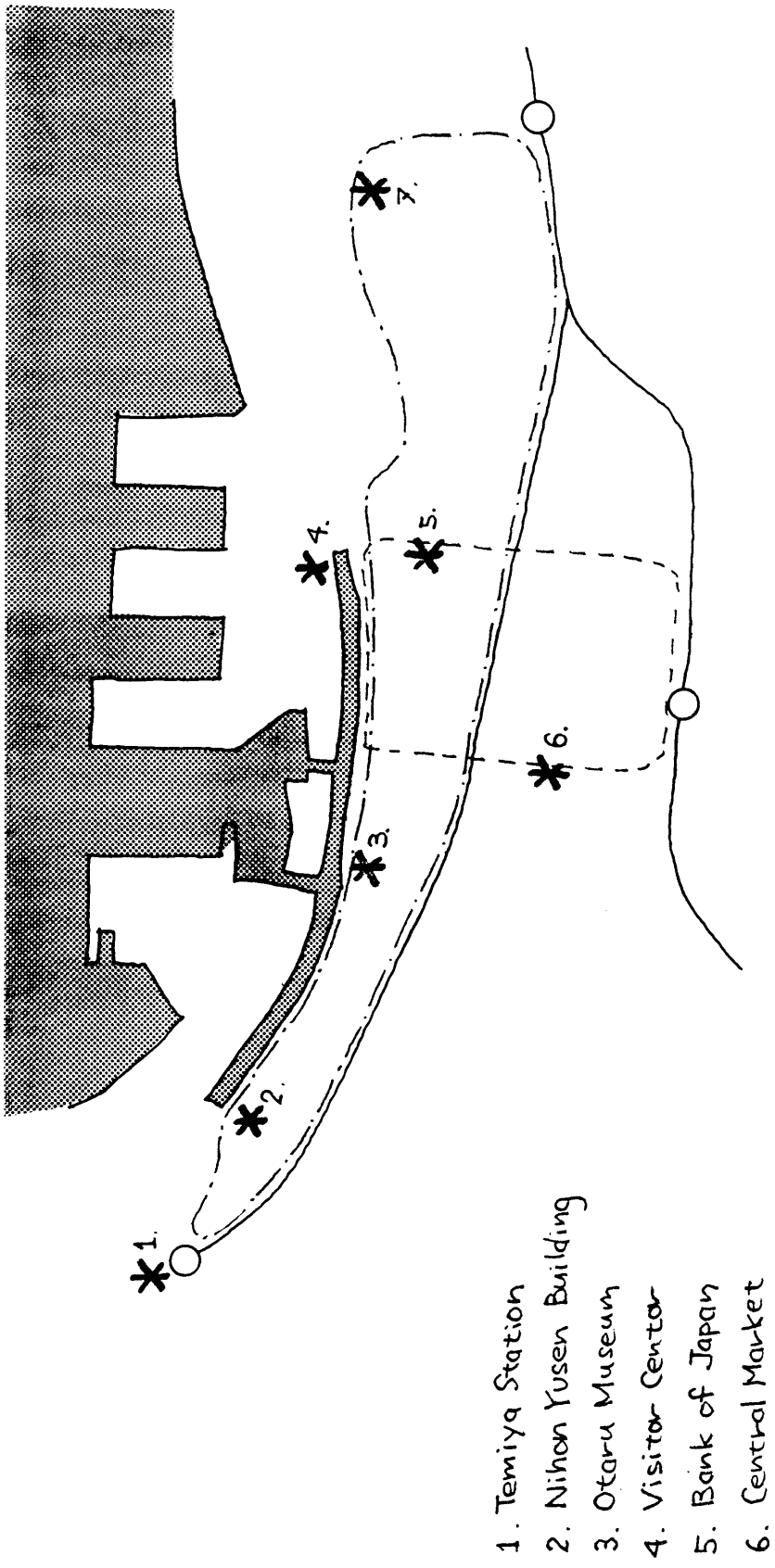

Figure 5-6: Interpretive Sites

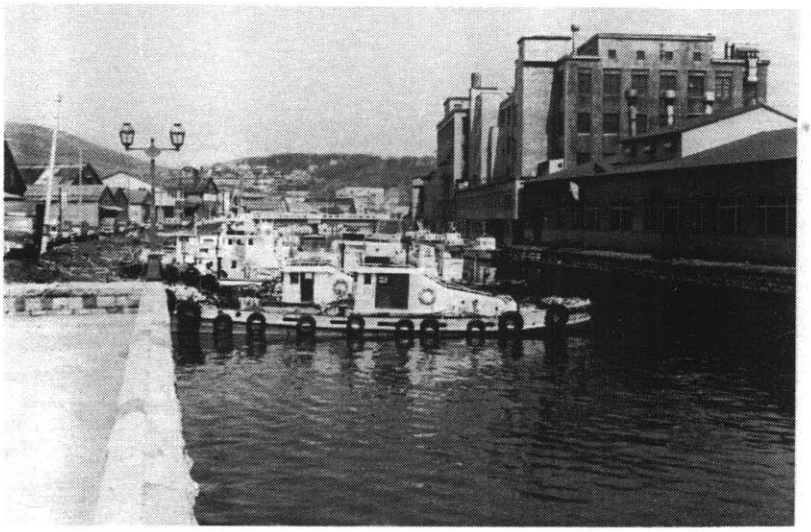

Figure 5-7: Canal Zone (1)

Figure 5-8: Canal Zone (2)

Figure 5-9: Canal Zone (3)

Figure 5-10: Canal Zone (4)

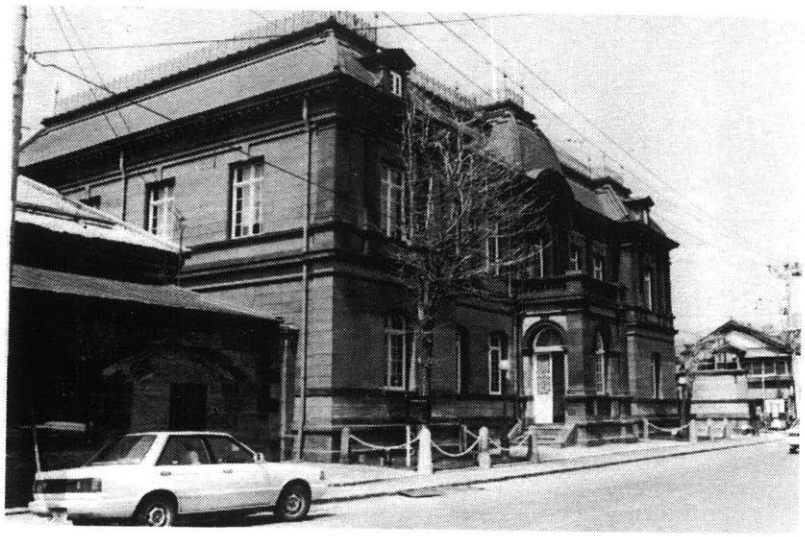

Figure 5-11: Canal Zone (5)

Figure 5-12: Canal Zone (6)

Figure 5-13: Canal Zone (7)

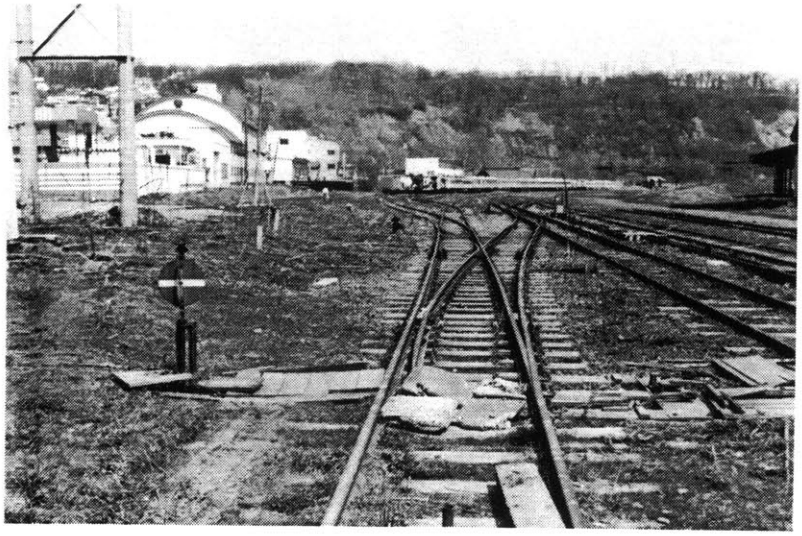

Figure 5-14: Temiya Station Zone (1)

Figure 5-15: Temiya Station Zone (2)

Figure 5-16: Central Market Zone (1)

Figure 5-17: Central Market Zone (2)

Figure 5-18: Financial District Zone (1)

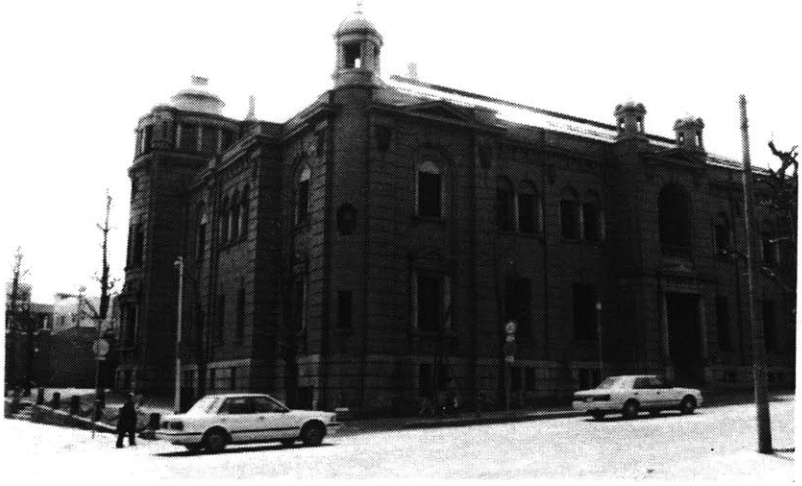

Figure 5-19: Financial District Zone (2)

Figure 5-20: Financial District Zone (3)

Figure 5-21: Financial District Zone (4)

Figure 5-22: Commercial Zone (1)

Figure 5-23: Commercial Zone (2)

Figure 5-24: Commercial Zone (3)

Figure 5-25: Commercial Zone (4)

Figure 5-26: Commercial Zone (5)

Figure 5-27: Commercial Zone (6)

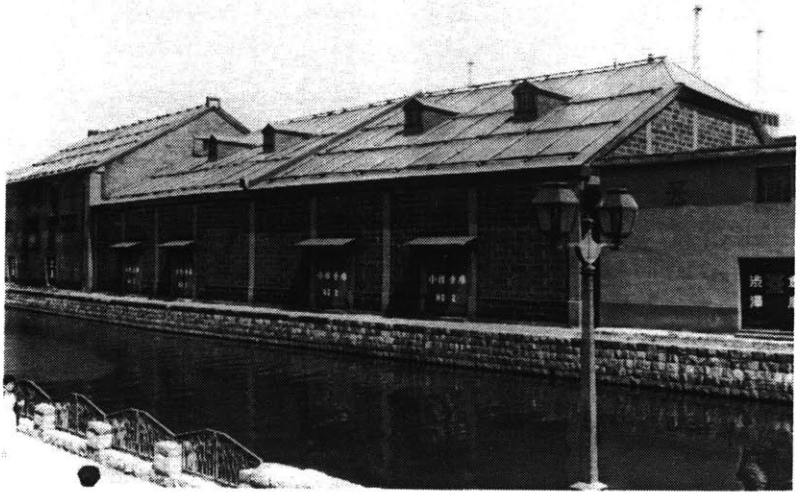

Figure 5-28: Entry and Orientation area (1)

Figure 5-29: Entry and Orientation Area (2)

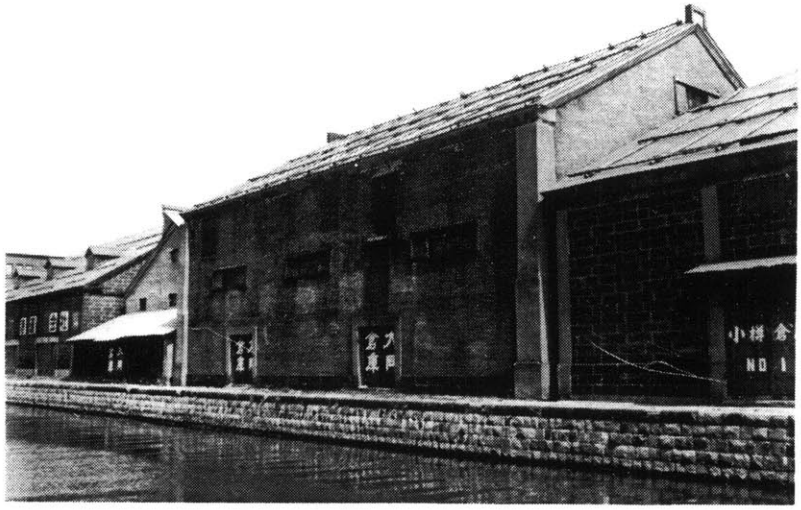

Figure 5-30: Entry and Orientation area (3)

Figure 5-31: Entry and Orientation Area (4)

6.0 CONCLUSION

In the US, extensive research on the effectiveness of historic preservation activity in urban revitalization programs has entailed both quantitative and qualitative evaluation. Quantitative evaluation has produced ample proof of increases in property value, profits from tourism, and lower unemployment rates resulting from historic preservation. Qualitative evaluation, on the other hand, has emphasized preservation's beneficial effect on local identity, civic pride, respect for the cultural and historic heritage, and the general quality of urban life.

It may be easy to insist on the subjective nature of these qualitative effects and thereby undervalue the importance of the historic environment in the life of the city. However, by observing current societal trends, it becomes clear that these qualitative measures will be important criteria for evaluating the quality of life in urban environments of the future. Especially in Japan, people need to understand these less objective benefits of historical preservation in order to avoid further destruction of their past for mere political and economic reasons. Following the American example, Japan needs to develop a comprehensive understanding of the revitalizing potential of historic preservation in both economic and "human" terms.

In order to present a comprehensive picture of the uses and benefits of historic preservation in today's cities, my methodology has necessarily been theoretical and broad-based. But in addition to showing the viability of this approach to urban revitalization on the

theoretical level, several successful preservation programs have been examined and their specific cultural and economic contributions have been reviewed.

Finally, my goal in focusing on the American city of Lowell and the Japanese city of Otaru was to demonstrate the feasibility of a specific form of historic preservation effort, the Urban Cultural Park, as a means of revitalizing small cities in economic decline. The guidelines for development of the Otaru Urban Cultural Park presented here will be used as a conceptual framework for future research leading to a detailed plan for the implementation of this kind of project in Otaru and possibly other Japanese cities as well.

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