

Warning, patrons ahead!

A development assessment framework for public space for landscape architects drawing on lessons from the Festival City of Adelaide, Australia.

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EVENT NOTICE

Adelaide Fringe will be installing considerable infrastructure from

7 February – 15 February

Please be aware that access to certain paths and sections of the parklands may be restricted during this time

*** ADELAIDE
* FRINGE ***

Figure T-1: Adelaide Fringe Festival event signage in the Adelaide Park Lands.
(Photo by author 2019)

To Adelaide...our most liveable city!

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Figure T-2: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) event signage. (Photo by author 2018)



Abstract

A deceptively simple and benign sign placed in a public park states, 'Warning: You may find event equipment and patrons on the pathway' (Figure T-2). The sign hints at the complexity and contradictions of public space and poses a curious question that continues to gain currency in multidisciplinary discourse: *How public is public space?* This thesis poses a further question by asking, *Do temporary events pose a threat to public space?* To answer both questions, the thesis draws on the historic trajectory of urban public space, culminating in an extensive appraisal of 20th century forms and programs. In doing so, the thesis examines definitions of 'public space' and 'public', and considers how a more rigorous understanding of these terms can inform the practice of landscape architecture. As a result, the thesis proposes a new definition of public space, focusing on the value of publicly accessible space. It also proposes a new typology of publics—the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public—to better understand perceived and actual threats to public space.

To test these definitions, the thesis critically reviews existing assessment methods, techniques and tools, and their application in landscape architectural assessments. It asks if current approaches adequately depict the typology of publics and the diversity of private use. As a result, the thesis proposes an integrated approach termed the Design Assessment Framework as a guide for alternative design strategies and policy formation for publicly accessible landscapes. The framework measures the degree of 'publicness' in public space by comprehensively capturing and assessing public space elements. The perceived conflict between public space and private use is explored through 16 case study sites in Adelaide, Australia. The city is recognised internationally for its urban plan, which includes a generous provision of public space and it is celebrated for the many festivals and events held within the city.

The thesis offers an important and timely counter point to the majority voice that laments the future of public space, concluding that publicness is a spectrum, not an absolute. It positions landscape architects in a pivotal role to influence the effective design of public space and create a richer place for publics to interact. The typology of publics and the Design Assessment Framework are presented as new tools for landscape architects to assess public spaces and implement a spectrum of inclusivity. Finally, the thesis argues that events are not a threat to the publicness of public space, and should instead be viewed as opportunities to bring the community together for social exchange. Without social exchange, the question of threats to the publicness of public space may be a moot point.



ADELAIDE FESTIVAL

PUBLIC NOTICE - ADELAIDE FESTIVAL'S 60TH BIRTHDAY CONCERT

Please note this site will be partially closed
From: THURSDAY 20TH FEBRUARY 2020
To: FRIDAY 6TH MARCH 2020

There will be a **FULL CLOSURE** of Elder Park and the adjoining River Torrens footpath between Popeye's landing and King William bridge on:

SATURDAY 29TH FEBRUARY 2020, MIDDAY - MIDNIGHT

A detour will be in place during these periods.
Thank you for your cooperation.

Figure T-3: Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) event signage.
(Photo by author 2020)

Thesis Declaration

NAME: Janelle Lea Arbon

PROGRAM: Doctor of Philosophy, Landscape Architecture

I certify that this work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in my name, in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. In addition, I certify that no part of this work will, in the future, be used in a submission in my name, for any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution without the prior approval of the University of Adelaide and where applicable, any partner institution responsible for the joint-award of this degree.

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DATE: 01 October 2021



Figure T-4: Never Ending Tour, Bob Dylan concert tent in Bonython Park/Tulya Wodli (Park 27), Adelaide. (Photo by author 2018)

Acknowledgements

A PhD is a journey that takes unexpected twists and turns and rarely ends where you would expect. It's a journey of passion, sometimes loneliness, with moments of brightness leading to achievement. It's a journey that doesn't end, just one that opens up new lines of investigation and questions. I acknowledge that the journey isn't a solo path and that there are many people to be thanked for their contribution, no matter how small. I apologise if I have missed names.

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This project may be coming to a close but the city awaits.

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Abbreviations

AILA: Australian Institute of Landscape Architects

APPA: Adelaide Park Lands Preservation Association

BDLA: Federation of German Landscape Architects

CABE: Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment

CAD: Computer Aided Design

CBD: Central Business District

COVID-19: Coronavirus disease of 2019

CPTED: Crime prevention through environmental design

DAF: Design Assessment Framework

FAILA: Registered Landscape Architect (Fellow)

GIS: Geographic Information System

GPS: Geographic Positioning System

IDC: Integrated Design Commission

IFLA: International Federation of Landscape Architects

NIMBY: Not In My Back Yard

ODASA: Office for Design and Architecture SA

OED: Oxford English Dictionary

PPS: Project for Public Spaces

PSPL: Public Spaces Public Life

RCC: Royal Croquet Club

SMA: Stadium Management Authority

UCI: Union Cycliste Internationale



Figure T-5: Tidlangga Playspace and Pocket Orchard
FORM Journal Awards. (Photo by author 2017)

Public Space Honours and Awards

2021 AILA SA Landscape Architecture Award for Play Spaces

Wilfred Taylor Reserve Nature Playspace

Australian Institute of Landscape Architects

2021 Healthy Parks Healthy People SA Commendation

Wilfred Taylor Reserve Nature Playspace

Australian Institute of Landscape Architects

2020 Fellowship

Australian Institute of Landscape Architects

The membership category of 'Fellowship' is an honour that Australian Institute of Landscape Architects may bestow upon Registered members, and is made in recognition of distinguished service and/or the profession in Australia.

2020 Commercial Landscape Construction Exceeding \$500,000

Wilfred Taylor Reserve Nature Playspace

Master Landscapers of South Australia

2019 Commercial Landscape Over \$1,000,000—Construction Only

Pelzer Park/Pityarilla Activity Hub, Adelaide

Master Landscapers of South Australia

2019 AILA SA Parks and Open Space Award of Excellence

Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub

Australian Institute of Landscape Architects

2019 City of Adelaide Prize Commendation

Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub

Australian Institute of Architects

2019 Park of the Year Award

Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub

Parks & Leisure Australia SA/NT

2019 Playspace Award (>\$0.5M)

Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub

Parks & Leisure Australia SA/NT

- 2018 Great Places Award**
Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub
Planning Institute of South Australia
- 2018 Planning Minister’s Award—Commendation**
Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub
Planning Institute of South Australia
- 2018 Kidsafe National Playspace Design Awards Category C (over \$1M)**
Commendation
Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub
Kidsafe National
- 2017 Award for Innovation in Landscape Architecture**
Tidlangga Playspace and Pocket Orchard
FORM Journal
- 2017 People’s Choice Award for Innovation in Landscape Architecture**
Tidlangga Playspace and Pocket Orchard
FORM Journal
- 2017 AILA SA Parks and Open Space Award of Excellence**
Tidlangga Playspace and Pocket Orchard
Australian Institute of Landscape Architects
- 2016 Heart Foundation Local Government Awards**
Ityamai-Itpina (Park 15) Skate Park and Community Courts
Development and the Adelaide Design Manual
Heart Foundation Highly Commended Award for their contribution to tackling heart disease and to a healthy community
- 2016 City of Adelaide Achievement Award**
Tidlangga Playspace and Pocket Orchard Project Team
City of Adelaide
- 2015 AILA SA President’s Award**
City Design and Transport Team
Australian Institute of Landscape Architects
- 2015 City of Adelaide Prize ‘People’s Choice’ Award**
Princess Elizabeth Playspace
Australian Institute of Architects and *The Adelaide Review*

- 2015 Adelaide City Council Project Team Award—Princess Elizabeth Playspace**
Adelaide City Council
- 2013 AILA SA Design in Landscape Architecture—M² AND THE PLASSO**
Australian Institute of Landscape Architects
- 2013 National Commendation Public Domain Awards—M² AND THE PALASSO**
CCAA Public Domain Awards
- 2013 Architect’s for Health IHEEM 2013 Gold Award—Glenside Health Services**
Architect’s for Health
- 2013 PIA SA—Princess Elizabeth Playspace Community Engagement (Joint with Jensen Planning & Design)**
Planning Institute Australia, SA group
- 2012 The Jack McConnell Award for Public Architecture—M² AND THE PLASSO**
Australian Institute of Architects
- 2010 South Australian Engineering Infrastructure Project Commendation—South Road Upgrade—Glenelg Tram Overpass Project**
Engineers Australia, South Australia Division
- 2009 Mawson Lakes Fellowship**
University of Adelaide
The Mawson Lakes Fellowship Program provides three scholarships each year for South Australian postgraduate students, whose research focuses on urban innovation and innovative urban development practice, to study in Japan.
- 2007 AILA SA Commendation—Sturt River Masterplan**
Australian Institute of Landscape Architects SA Chapter
- 2005 Hassell Travelling Scholarship Nomination**
Hassell
- 2004 Match: Creative Design Disciplines Collaboration Tournament Stage 4 Group Win**
Match Creative
Group Design Challenge



**TRAFFIC
RESTRICTIONS**

**MONDAY
17th FEB
TO
MONDAY
24th FEBRUARY
EXPECT DELAYS**

FRINGE

RSEA HIRE CALL 13 2HIRE

RSEA
HIRE
13 2HIRE

R92
VICTORIA

Figure T-6: Adelaide Fringe Festival event signage on Grenfell Street, Adelaide.
(Photo by author 2020)

Chapter One

Introduction

Figure 1-1: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Adelaide, South Australia, event signage.
(Photo by author 2018)



1.1 Warning, Patrons Ahead!

A deceptively simple and benign sign placed in a public park states, ‘Warning: You may find event equipment and patrons on the pathway’ (Figure 1-1). The sign was placed by the City of Adelaide, South Australia, in Pelzer Park (Park 19)—also known by its Aboriginal name of Pityarilla—during the park’s community opening. The placement of the sign raises myriad questions about the differentiation of patrons from users, the relationship between events and the everyday function of the park, and circulation versus obstruction. Accordingly, the sign hints at the complexity and contradictions of public space and poses a curious question that continues to gain currency in multidisciplinary discourse on public space: *How public is public space?*

The Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) sign displays terms that feature in current public space debates—such as those discussed by Beauregard (2004), De Backer et al. (2016), Gaffney (2014), Kling (2020) Low and Smith (2006), Minton (2018), Mitchell (2003), Poynter, Viehoff and Li (2015) and Tovey (2020). First, this sign refers to an ‘event’. An event, as described in the Oxford English Dictionary Online (OED Online 2020), can be an occasion or occurrence, including 1. Something that happens or takes place, especially something significant or noteworthy; an incident, an occurrence, 2. A planned public or social occasion and 3. The industry or profession of planning and coordinating public, social or sporting occasions. In the example of Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19), the event was a free, non-ticketed public celebration of the reopening of the park’s Activity Hub on 29 April 2018. The event, planned by the City of Adelaide, offered free activities (including live music and speeches) and commercial paid activities (such as food trucks and face painting). Activities were planned with the intent to draw a crowd for the duration of the event and to encourage the crowd to leave at its conclusion. Once the event concluded, Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) reverted to its usual function—as distinct from the unusual, planned event—as a community hub for passive recreation, accessible to all, for which it was designed. When the event concluded, no trace remained of its occurrence.

Second, the unlikely term of ‘patron’ is introduced in the context of a public event. Patron is described in the OED Online (2020) as 1. A person standing in a role of oversight, protection or sponsorship to another, 2. A person or organisation that uses money or influence to advance the interests of a person, cause, art, etc. 3. A person who supports or frequents a business or other institution, a customer of a shop, restaurant, theatre, etc. The definitions of patron include ideas of financial transaction and private benefit. In the example of Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19), the event was free, celebrating the space instead of an individual, and the commercial offerings were optional. The use of the term ‘patron’ in Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) was at odds with its main

definition of those who attended the event. By common definition, 'patron' is exclusive, the antonym of 'public', which is inclusive, defined as 1. Open to general observation, view or knowledge; existing, performed or carried out without concealment, so that all may see or hear, 2. Of or relating to the people as a whole; that belongs to, affects or concerns the community or the nation, 3. Open or available to all members of a community or all who are legally or properly qualified (as by payment); not restricted to the private use of a particular person or group; (of a service, amenity, etc.) provided by local or central government for the community and supported by rates or taxes, 5. Of or relating to a person in the capacity in which he or she comes into contact with society, as opposed to his or her private or personal capacity; official, professional (OED Online 2020).

The definitions presented above for the terms 'event', 'patron' and 'public' underscore the complexity and contradictions of terms used within public space. Given these definitions, the juxtaposition of terms to warn users in Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) suggests tension between exclusive or private patronage and free public access. Here, the 'patrons' are presented to the public park user as a threat or danger. Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) is thus temporarily transformed from a public space to an exclusive, regulated space with potential conflict.

So, how public is public space? Spanish architect and urban planner, Manuel De Solà-Morales, remarked that the distinction between public space and private space has been defined in terms of opposites since the late 19th century (De Solà-Morales 1992, p. 1). Yet, his own practice suggested that a nuanced approach to design outcomes is required. He debated whether the attributes of public space, being publicly owned and freely accessible, are becoming obsolete or if the notion of public space should be extended. Similarly, Dutch architect Rem Koolhaas, American architect Michael Sorkin and Belgian philosopher Lieven De Cauter, questioned the state of public space in the 2007 Delft Lecture Series. They presented a theoretical discourse on lost public space, 'lamenting the increasingly one-dimensional character of public spaces' created 'exclusively for leisure, tourism and shopping' (Avermaete & Teerds 2007, p. 36). To combat similar concerns, the government of New South Wales, Australia, introduced a public space charter, recommending the formation of an international peer review panel and setting out 10 principles to foster 'more and better' public spaces (ArchitectureAU 2020). As the example of activities at Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) demonstrates, 'public' and 'private' activities can co-exist during events, suggesting that a polarised representation of public and private open spaces in the city is problematic.



**Figure 1-2: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) bird's eye view.
(Image courtesy of LCS Landscapes 2018)**



**Figure 1-3: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) central plaza.
(Photo by author 2018)**

Again, *how public is public space?* More recently, Dr Georgiana Varna, a lecturer in planning and urbanism, has explored this question through ongoing debates about the erosion of public space (2014). Varna, along with De Backer, Melgaço and Menichelli (2016), position this quandary within discussions of management, use and transgression. They remark that public space is a 'slippery concept' (De Backer et al. 2016, p. 1) requiring a pluralistic 'contemporary reading of order, of social interaction', dissent and disruption (De Backer et al. 2016, p. 3). Likewise, Myriam Houssay-Holzschuch, Professor of Geography, proposes that public space—as a constructed narrative of Western society—is a myth formed from concepts of race, class and gender embedded in an ideal of democracy. Houssay-Holzschuch asks whether we 'should ditch the notion' entirely and challenge established 'binaries' that 'frame our knowledge of public space' and the state-centric use of the adjective 'public' (Houssay-Holzschuch 2016 in De Backer et al. 2016, p. 217).

Events are commonplace and are becoming a key activation component of public spaces. With paid access or otherwise, they represent a form of temporary privatisation, regardless of duration, management or commercial participation. As highlighted by Madanipour (2017), events provide an opportunity for government or developers to test changes in the urban environment, promote potential change to funding partners and create opportunities for community interaction (i.e. social exchange). Events can challenge established binaries of public space by temporarily altering levels of control and freedom, negotiation and compromise, commercialisation and charity, within one space during a given timeframe. Events, too, can be ambiguous; they act as a magnet for visitors, encouraging social exchange while simultaneously alienating regular users. An event can be both a magnet and a menace, simultaneously offering public access and privatised activities, for a defined period.

Such a simultaneous offering was on display when Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub reopened to the public on 29 April 2018. Initiated and delivered by the City of Adelaide (by the author), designed by Aspect Studios, a design firm specialising in landscape architecture and urban design (Aspect Studios 2020), and funded by the State Government of South Australia, the park was planned and designed as a hub of community interaction, a place for recreation and an opportunity to take a break from city life. The design of Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) (Figure 1-2 and Figure 1-3) included a central plaza, community courts, play space, Aboriginal cultural meeting space, dog park, promenade, bikeway, shared-use paths, lighting, public artwork, public toilets, realignment of the creek line and 14,500 new plants.



**Figure 1-4: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Kaurna smoking ceremony.
(Image courtesy of City of Adelaide 2018)**



**Figure 1-5: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) ribbon cutting.
(Image courtesy of City of Adelaide 2018)**

To celebrate the reopening of Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19), the City of Adelaide held a free community event. The reopening was celebrated with live music, face painting, food trucks, a Kurna (traditional Aboriginal owners) Welcome to Country (Figure 1-4) and an official opening by the former Lord Mayor of Adelaide, Martin Haese, and the former Minister for Planning, Stephan Knoll MP (Figure 1-5). During the event, over 600 people visited the park for one to three hours. The opening was considered a success by the City of Adelaide, attracting media coverage by local network television stations, radio stations, print media and numerous play space blogs.

There are many logistical requirements for staging an open-air event such as the Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub opening. The minimum requirements set out by the City of Adelaide's (2020) *Adelaide Park Lands Events Management Plan 2016–2020* typically include fencing, signage (regulatory and wayfinding), security and the provision of additional temporary public toilets, seating and bins. In this case, the logistical requirements were complicated since the City of Adelaide aimed to maintain access to all users, irrespective of whether they were attending the opening, using the bikeway, visiting the dog park or accessing the community courts. As a result, the event was unfenced. The City of Adelaide events team was required by their own guidelines, as set out in the *Adelaide Park Lands Events Management Plan 2016–2020* (City of Adelaide 2020), to place signage in key pedestrian areas leading to the event space, warning users that an event was taking place (Figure 1-1). Additional warning signage was placed throughout the park, stating that a photographer would be present and photos would be taken.

The event signage in Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) is not an anomaly. Similar signage can be found throughout central business districts including Adelaide (Figure 1-6 and Chapter Eight) and Melbourne, Australia (Figure 1-7), Tokyo and Kyoto, Japan (Figure 1-8), Shanghai, China (Figure 1-9) and Vancouver, Canada (Figure 1-10). The signage appears in different types of urban public spaces including laneways, city squares, playgrounds, gardens, public parks, train stations, riverbanks and streetscapes. These examples represent warning and regulatory signage found in a small cross-section of public spaces. The selection suggests there is an interrelationship between the public, the intentional activation of the public space (events) and the expectation for public space to perform differently throughout the day or the year. Therefore, events—even public ones—might be considered threats to expected public rights of access. The Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) example and the examples shown in Figure 1-6 to Figure 1-10 are indicative of the current contestation of public space where temporary and permanent users are subject to varying degrees of access, surveillance, instruction and control, where the expected right to public space is taken for granted.



Figure 1-6: Examples of signage in Adelaide's public spaces.
(Photos by author 2008–2019)



Figure 1-7: Examples of signage in Melbourne's public spaces.
(Photos by author 2014–2018)



Figure 1-8: Examples of signage in Japan's public spaces.
(Photos by author 2017–2019)



Figure 1-9: Examples of signage in Century Park, Shanghai, China.
(Photos by author 2013)



Figure 1-10: Examples of signage in Vancouver, Canada's public spaces.
(Photos by author 2019)

The contest and expected right to public space are further evident in the wider context of Adelaide, South Australia, and the 1837 city plan set out by Colonel William Light (Figure 1-11 and Chapter Eight). Of significance in the city plan is the 7.6 km² of Park Lands and six city squares, which were dedicated for the provision of public space. The plan received national heritage status (National Heritage List Place ID: 105758) in 2008 because of the grid layout of the city, which is a rare and complete exemplar of 19th century colonial planning, reflecting early theories and ideas of the Garden City movement (Adelaide City Council 2015; Australian Government Department of the Environment 2015; DASH Architects 2018; Summerling 2011).

The use of and ownership of the Park Lands has been contentious since the 1870s, with calls to preserve the public space and statements such as 'hands off' continually being raised (Morton 1996, p. 147) in the face of private development encouraged by the state government. In the 1800s, the calls were

from the city council, which sought and received 'care, control and management' of the Park Lands through the Municipal Corporation Act in 1849. The Act was revised in 1928 to manage competing uses and prevent private development. Prior to 1928, key institutions such as the West Terrace Cemetery, Adelaide Zoo, Adelaide Festival Theatre, Adelaide Railway Station, Royal Adelaide Hospital, Government House, Adelaide University and Adelaide Botanic Gardens were established on Park Lands. Since 1928, the public status of 'Park Lands' has been retained by issuing and managing private restrictive leases for sporting clubs and commercial vendors for events.



Figure 1-11: Original 1837 plan of the City of Adelaide.
(Image courtesy of Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts)

The 'hands off' call is now spearheaded by the Adelaide Park Lands Preservation Association (APPA 2020), which objects to privatisation, commercialisation and the fencing in of the Park Lands other than for short-term events. Its concern parallels the City of Adelaide's from 1928; however, it is now directed at the City, which is seen to be privatising the Park Lands for commercial use. The City of Adelaide sought public feedback in 2019 regarding the number of events taking place in the Park Lands and whether the number of events should be increased. The outcomes of this engagement noted the importance of striking 'a balance between supporting events in the Park Lands and on roads as well as the needs and wellbeing of City residents and businesses' (City of Adelaide 2019), thereby balancing the magnet and menace, so to speak.

The contentious use of the Park Lands since the 1870s is comparable to the concerns of many Western democratic cities (Mitchell 1995; Parkinson 2009). Again, this brings us to the question, *how public is public space?* when events are commonplace with a historic record of varying access, surveillance, instruction and control. Interestingly, events that temporarily privatise public space have received little scholarly attention (see Smith 2018), compared with permanent threats. Yet, temporarily privatised public space significantly influences how public spaces are used and appreciated.

While private land or commercial development is clearly demarcated and zoned, the boundary with public space is increasingly ambiguous. Privatisation of public space is not always a fixed, measurable effect of built interventions. It is increasingly layered and structured in varying degrees of subtle or overt demonstrations of use, ownership and management. For instance, events (temporary activation and private–social exchange) that regularly occur as part of everyday life are often overlooked or misinterpreted as privatisation by being linked to legal ownership and management. Privatisation in these instances may be a once-off private event, for example, lectures (Figure 1-12), a child's birthday party in a playground or a public protest (Figure 1-13). Alternatively, these events could be programmed to take place on a regular schedule for an extended period of time such as fashion weeks, royal shows, circuses, food trucks, tours such as street art walking tours (Figure 1-14) or street closures for outdoor dining (Figure 1-15). Within this thesis, privatisation includes private or public activation of public space that excludes the user or alters how the space is expected to function.



Figure 1-12: Australian Institute of Landscape Architects, South Australian Chapter, open-air lecture by Lawn Solutions, held in the South Park Lands, Adelaide. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 1-13: Public protest in the City of Melbourne, 20 March 2016, crossing Flinders and Swanston Street intersection to Federation Square. The protest in support of refugees blocked traffic and disrupted pedestrian access to civic institutions and commercial businesses. The protest was closely monitored by police. (Photo by author 2016)



Figure 1-14: Street Art & Craft Beer Tour, run by Toonie Tours Vancouver, explores the back streets of Vancouver, promoting street art and local breweries. (Photo by author 2019)



Figure 1-15: Example of an ephemeral public space. During set timeframes this street in Tokyo, Japan, is closed to vehicle traffic and becomes an outdoor dining area. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 1-16: Advance notice of events and restriction of park use. (Photo by author 2019)

The simultaneous offering of public and private activities, before, during and after events, requires further in-depth discussion (Figure 1-16). Debates are typically founded on a polarised representation of space as being publicly and freely accessible or a private commodity (Hayward 2016 in De Backer et al. 2016; Raymen 2016). This was evident at the 2019 International Festival of Landscape Architecture, which adopted the public space typologies of the Square and the Park to explore how landscape architects conceive, design, fund, construct and manage urban open space. Swiss designer Günther Vogt, North American academic and critic Julia Czerniak and South Korean academic and designer Kyung-Jin Zoh's critical reflections of urban space alluded to the 'slippery' concept and simultaneous offerings of public space. Yet, the language throughout their presentations was decisive, placing urban open space in one of two conditions—public or private (Australian Institute of Landscape Architects [AILA] 2019).

Debates about public space are located in disciplines that range from practical applications in surveillance or the policing of public space in metropolitan areas (architecture, criminology, political geography, law, political theory) to questions of policy and governance (planning, urban planning, urban design, geography, new urbanism, sociology), to debates regarding the social and health benefits of exposure to green space (anthropology, social anthropology, environmental psychology, planning, psychology, social science, political sciences, health science), to the characteristics and accessibility of public space (landscape architecture, architecture, political geography). These findings are examined at length in this dissertation. Key themes explored include representations of public space as a fragmented area of dysfunction, exclusion, authority and control (Davis 1992; Harvey 1992; Iveson 1998, 2003, 2007; Houssay-Holzschuch 2016 in De Backer et al. 2016; Mitchell 1995); a space that is eroded for commercial and security interests (De Backer et al. 2016); and the diminishing social life of public space (Gaffikin et al. 2010).

This dissertation demonstrates that there is a significant body of literature that demonises the temporary privatisation of public space and laments the future of public space. Such studies are predicated on the value of public space as a necessary site of social exchange, whereby public space is an integral and inescapable dimension of civic and civilised life, lending identity and meaning to our experiences (Alexander 1979; Canter 1977; Charlesworth 2005; Danieri & Douglass 2009; Dempsey 2008; Frumkin 2002, 2003; Jayne et al. 2006; Kivanç Ak 2013; Matsuoka & Kaplan 2008; Norberg-Schulz 1980; Ortega 2004; Relph 1976, 1981, 1993; Sotoudehnia & Comber 2011; Tuan 1974). The thesis then questions whether predominant appreciations of such temporary, exclusionary occupations of public space are as damaging to the bigger picture of their publicness as is supposed.

1.2 Research questions

Concerns for the use and role of public space coincide with the researcher's professional experience as a landscape architect working in the public realm within local government. The City of Adelaide offers an opportune laboratory to investigate these concerns, given the history of its city plan and its recognition internationally. Both scholarly and professional perspectives have led to the formulation of research questions, which provide direction for the thesis.

The main research question is:

- Do temporary events pose a threat to public space and, if so, how can landscape architects assess these spaces for effective design?

The following hypothesis has been developed:

This study identifies interdisciplinary concerns about public space and perceived conflicts between public space and the private use of this space. Events are an example of such use. This is significant for landscape architects and the role they play in the design of public space. Interrogation of the concept of the public is critical for an awareness and understanding of a perceived erosion of publicness. Current design theory is inadequate in capturing the range of publics—the typologies identified in this thesis—who use public spaces. This identification of publics (in the plural) is necessary to make assessments about publicness. The increasing presence of diverse publics is inversely proportional to levels of privatisation. Current methodologies, techniques and tools used by landscape architects to assess public space are inadequate to capture this range of publics and assess the value of events in increasing the publicness of public space.

To investigate this hypothesis, five subsidiary research questions are defined.

- How public is public space?
- Is there a blurring of public and private space and what consequences does this have?
- How do temporary events affect the use of public space?
- What are the implications of temporary events for the effective design of urban public space?
- What analytical methods, techniques and tools are missing in the design of public spaces?

1.3 Aims and method

This study navigates between theory and practice to investigate contemporary understandings of publicness, dominant and polarised views of how the ‘public’ and ‘private’ operate in the public realm, the impacts of events and the role of landscape architects to better assess and design urban public space. The research questions are examined through a multidisciplinary literature review (theory) and physical site analysis (practice).

The thesis approach is a practice-based research paradigm using descriptive methods. The paradigm was developed as an iterative research framework in which data collection, interpretation and analysis are informed by the literature review (Figure 1-17). The framework and area of research required staged reflection and analysis, as queries and insights were uncovered.

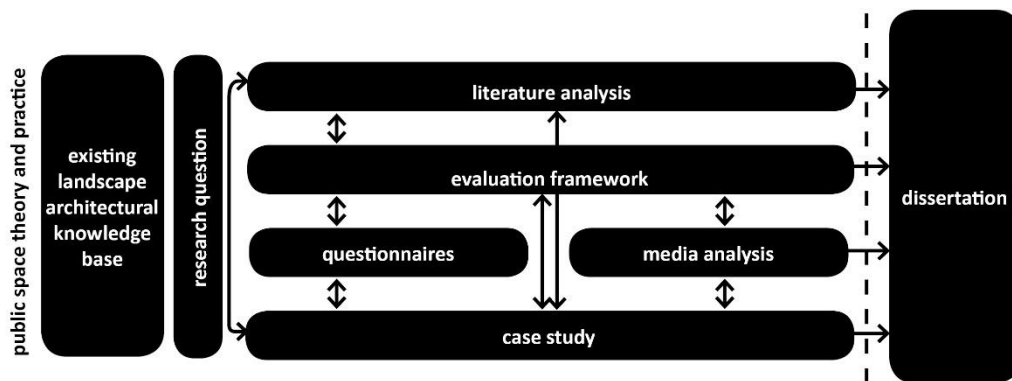


Figure 1-17: Iterative research framework

The Iterative Research Framework is underpinned by a number of assumptions:

- People relate to their environments and therefore, influence how their environments are used;
- Theories in the field of the built environment are not objective and should be considered as providing a set of general principles (Allmendinger 2002); and
- Adelaide, South Australia, Australia, is an appropriate case study. Adelaide is an international standard benchmark because of its historical and contemporary patterns of planning, governance and the City of Adelaide’s ongoing dedication to the provision of public space. The city is recognised internationally for its arts festivals and events that are staged in public spaces.

The goal of the research is to expand the practice and theory of landscape architecture by:

- challenging notions of privatisation that are linked solely to ownership, management, use and accessibility;

- presenting a spectrum of uses that challenge notions of privatisation, particularly with regard to the exclusivity of events;
- examining the diverse groups that use public space and defining a typology of publics; and
- identifying the responsibility of landscape architects to design public spaces for a diverse spectrum of use. This responsibility is particularly important within agencies driven by market privatisation and economic rationalism.

Taking into consideration these assumptions, the study addresses the research questions through an analysis of current theory and a rigorous examination of 16 public spaces throughout Adelaide, recording people, site and weather conditions across various times of day and night, on weekdays and weekends. The following are considered:

- analysing current practice and theories pertaining to public space and critically examining their application or lack of application in the discipline of landscape architecture;
- examining the range of publics who use public space and proposing a new typology of publics;
- analysing current methods, techniques and tools used to assess and evaluate public space and proposing a new design assessment framework;
- investigating, documenting and comparing the use of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia; and
- investigating the varied forms of events within public space and the associated implications for landscape architects.

1.4 Contribution

The example of Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Figure 1-1 to Figure 1-5) and the examples shown in Figure 1-6 to Figure 1-16 immediately highlights the disciplinary focus of this dissertation in the profession of landscape architecture. Landscape architects have long been recognised for their contributions to public space design. This recognition can be traced in part to the influential work of Frederick Law Olmsted, widely regarded as the founder of American landscape architecture (Schnadelbach 2001 in Cooper & Palmer 2001), for his contribution to the design of metropolitan public parks, including Central Park in New York City, in collaboration with Calvert Vaux.

Landscape architecture is a professional discipline that focuses on the spatial design of built environments to enhance the amenity and ambience of place (AILA n.d.; Federation of German Landscape Architects [BDLA] n.d.; International Federation of Landscape Architects [IFLA] World n.d.) through the

manipulation of objects on the land and the ‘creation of unique spaces’ (Cook 2000, p. 23). Landscape architecture appropriates and shares theories, methodologies and frameworks with other disciplines, primarily architecture, urban planning and urban design as well as the bio-physical sciences of ecology and geography and the human sciences of sociology, psychology and anthropology. As a discipline, it is not bound to one type of place, one environment, one specialisation nor is it tied to specific cities and sites. As a profession, it is responsible for interventions—from small domestic gardens to large-scale infrastructure projects, theoretical works and cultural constructs, from the local level to global strategies (Desimini 2014; Meyer 2011, para. 6).

The difference between landscape architecture and other disciplines is evident in the approach to design. Conventional landscape architectural approaches are predominantly process-based understandings of space that conceptualise the relationship between spaces and contexts over an extended period (Balassiano 2013; Cook 2000; Desimini 2014; Dung 2009; Meyer 2011). A typical approach is ‘from a physical perspective’ and involves a formal intervention based on ‘social necessity’ (Balassiano 2013, p. 491), considering the spatial nature of the site (Cook 2000; Cooper Marcus & Francis 1998; Gaffikin et al. 2010; Gehl 2001) and balancing the conflicting interests of clients and users. Planner Katia Balassiano (2013, p. 492) argues that the various means to ‘circumscribe uses’ and methods to establish any ‘alternative uses’ for sustaining spaces for the public lie within the remit of landscape architecture. Desimini (2014) further elaborates on the role of landscape architects compared with other disciplines. While her statements are related to shrinking cities, they are applicable to all landscapes:

They [landscape architects] recognize value in the abundant, cleared land; are comfortable with the slow process of its transformation; understand land management and maintenance as tools of design; and routinely operate across the multiple scales, from parcel to region, required for visionary restructuring. (Desimini 2014, p. 17)

The diverse roles that landscape architects can play distinguish them from others working with public space. ‘Landscape architects work for planning consultancies, for companies in the gardening and landscape industry, for government agencies and for local governments in public works and parks departments, water authorities or nature conservation bodies’ (IFLA World n.d, para. 2). ‘They plan the design of all types of [open] green and external spaces; they supervise the construction and implementation of projects and ensure their long-term maintenance’ (BDLA n.d, para. 2). ‘Landscape Architects research, plan, design and advise on the stewardship, conservation and sustainability of development of the environment and spaces, both within and beyond the built environment’ (AILA n.d.a, para. 9). The diverse professional

roles of landscape architects are again reflected in Olmsted's role in the design, management and fundraising for Central Park. His role is still representative of a landscape architect's, and highlights the importance of how landscape architects are trained to recognise the place, understand its history and contribute to placemaking. Similarly, Olmsted's role underscores the importance of landscape architects in negotiating with diverse stakeholders, often with competing interests and priorities.

Another continuing professional trend, starting with Olmsted, is the presence of landscape architects in the public sector, working for federal, state or local governments, designing public spaces or engaging and managing private practitioners. In Australia, the roles are diverse; '25% of landscape architects are self-employed, another 20% work for government and the rest tend to be in private practices' (AILA n.d.b, para. 7).

The professional role of a landscape architect influences how they approach or research public space. An individual's role is of particular importance for South Australia, given the size of the profession and a landscape architect's ability to directly effect positive outcomes for public spaces. In September 2019, there were 300 landscape architects working in South Australia. One hundred of those were registered with AILA and 26 of those registered members worked in local or state government sectors. The position of these landscape architects in local or state government offers them considerable influence in shaping Adelaide through developing institutional briefs and regulatory planning instruments or creating strategic directions, setting style guides or design principles and finally, advocating for better design. As identified in a study conducted by the Centre for Urban Design and Mental Health (2019), institutional briefs are of concern for many design practitioners, with shortfalls in the brief creating barriers to achieving optimal outcomes. The study highlighted the importance that practitioners placed on their involvement in developing briefs and therefore being considered 'as relevant contributors to a problem solution from the beginning of a project' (2019, n.p.).

How landscape architects identify public space has been influenced by other design professions and disciplines. Their approach to the design and planning of public space is based on the shared views of public benefit and public interest (AILA n.d.; BDLA n.d.; IFLA World n.d.). Yet, some authors, including landscape architect Kevin Thwaites (2001, p. 245), argue that in the decision-making process, landscape architects may not give public space 'the level of attention' and importance required'; consequently, he asks landscape architects to draw from 'environmental psychology' to address users' perceptions of space. Within these discussions, the voice and contribution of landscape architecture is largely lost, which landscape architect Jill Desimini suggests 'stems from both an alternative, cyclical reading of the urban condition within the discipline and

a failure to develop theory and practice specific to different political, economic and demographic situations' (2014, p. 17). This lack of attention and lost voice is of importance and may result from a disconnect between place context and use and the professional roles of landscape architects.

As a Fellow of the Australian Institute of Landscape Architects and practising senior landscape architect who has worked in local government and private practice, the researcher's personal experience suggests there is a distinct difference between how landscape architects in government and those in private practice approach public space. This difference is that landscape architects in government play multiple roles, including client, designer and asset owner. As the asset owner, they also have greater experience and willingness to acknowledge the temporal nature of activities and users by considering the landscape as an asset with a lifespan of 10 to 50 years.

To further understand the challenges of public space, we must also understand the complexity that landscape architects face when designing spaces that are open to 'public scrutiny' (Busquest 2005 in Charlesworth 2005, p. 5) and shifting priorities for use. The complexity demonstrated throughout this thesis is related to the 'city and its inherent contradictions' (Charlesworth 2005, p. 3) of access and rights of access, in particular the inclusion of different members of the public. Inclusion is fundamental to public space and the 'name of the game' according to architect Charles Jencks (in Gaventa 2006, p. 9). How then is this discipline informed by interdisciplinary discourse, which problematises public space? And what insights can a study that draws on such interdisciplinary perspectives offer for the improved professional design of public space? To what degree can these perspectives inform professional understanding of the complex interrelationships between the public (users of space), events (the various means to activate public space) and the expected performance of public space (a potential site of social interaction or exchange)? These are the concerns of this thesis.

This thesis extends the discourse of contemporary landscape architectural design practice by examining the role landscape architecture plays in the design of public space, social constructs of place and the governance of space. By proposing an approach that contemplates the temporary activation of public space events as a positive outcome of urban liveliness questioning perceptions of public space privatisation, it contributes to the discourse of contemporary landscape architectural design practice in local government and private practice. Or as landscape architect Greg Grabasch proposed, research and design within our expanding profession 'is up to us, as practitioners' and our profession can lead by example 'educating and raising the public expectation of 'landscape', including how it can encompass the broader term, 'place'' (AILA n.d.a para 2). The role of landscape architects is examined in the following

chapters by questioning how they can produce new knowledge and effect social change through the applied rethinking of physical space.

As highlighted above, landscape architects play a leading role in the design of public space in the city. Landscape architects have a responsibility to improve the quality of public space. They are in a good position to do so, yet they need to be equipped with an understanding of who the public is and *how public is public space*.

The study devises and proposes a Design Assessment Framework as a starting point for landscape architects to generate analysis-driven, inclusive designed environments. The Design Assessment Framework provides an integrated methodological approach to measure public spaces pre- and post-design and to inform practice. The thesis highlights how assessments of public space are hindered by methods, techniques and tools that tend to overlook events and temporary activation. The assessment of public space must take into consideration more than just the physical space and consider the connections between spaces, users (public), activities and changing attitudes towards space. To demonstrate the requirement of an assessment that enables awareness of public space connections, the study recommends integrating interdisciplinary methods, techniques and tools.

This thesis contributes to debates about public space through a review of multidisciplinary positions that are brought to bear on the discipline of landscape architecture, a people focused discipline, through the literature review, detailed analysis of different publics and the development of a design assessment framework. This framework is tested in an analysis of public spaces in the ideal urban laboratory of Adelaide, with its considerable history as a planned city with generous provision of public space. The healthy contemporary debate and activation of Adelaide's public spaces provides rich data to propose the future of public space design.

1.5 Scope and structure

This thesis is divided into two parts. Part A identifies the historic trajectory of urban public space development, which culminated in a broad establishment of 20th century forms and programs and the theories that support them. The thesis illustrates these with reference to planned 20th century contemporary Western democratic cities recognised for their provision of public space. The efficacy of current theoretical critiques is then reviewed. A focus is placed on Australia for pragmatic reasons, and Adelaide in particular, which provided a useful laboratory to test the study hypothesis.

The effects of temporary events on public space are outlined, drawing on an extensive review of literature on the urban environment. Challenges facing designers are assessed while considering change in contemporary public life not as lamentable, but as a series of new challenges from a range of disciplinary viewpoints, including urban planning, planning, sociology, anthropology, political geography and political science.

Part A continues by exploring scholarship that seeks to mitigate the perceived and actual erosion of public space, noting how solutions can become new problems. A new typology of publics—the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public—is proposed to better grasp the range of contemporary theoretical and disciplinary perspectives on threats to public space. It concludes by questioning contemporary agreements on terminology, meaning and the received need for public spaces.

Part B critically reviews existing assessment methods, techniques and tools regarding their relevance and application in landscape architecture. It asks if the current methods, techniques and tools used by landscape architects to assess and minimise the erosion of public space are adequate to capture the range of publics and the degree of publicness in public space. This review highlights a practical need for insights into how public space functions and is activated by social activities and events that temporarily or actively exclude certain publics, informed by reliable data allowing predictions of user demand. This need emphasises that landscape architects are currently lacking a clear framework that can assist specifically with setting parameters for crafting design approaches for temporary events in public urban spaces. To assess public space and associated contemporary publics, Part B recommends modifications and a reconfiguration of a range of existing methods, tools and techniques, proposing an integrated approach: the Design Assessment Framework. Using the Design Assessment Framework can generate a unique database of public space measurements that considers how forms of privatisation are responsible for the performative value (accessibility) of public space and how this might then be used to inform designs that ensure new means of social exchange (access and equity).

The Design Assessment Framework is demonstrated in the context of Adelaide, recognised internationally for its urban plan, which included a generous provision of public space. Adelaide's public spaces are analysed to identify the role that landscape architects could play in designing public spaces. This is followed by a discussion of how the research contributes to more nuanced and relevant decision-making by design professionals.

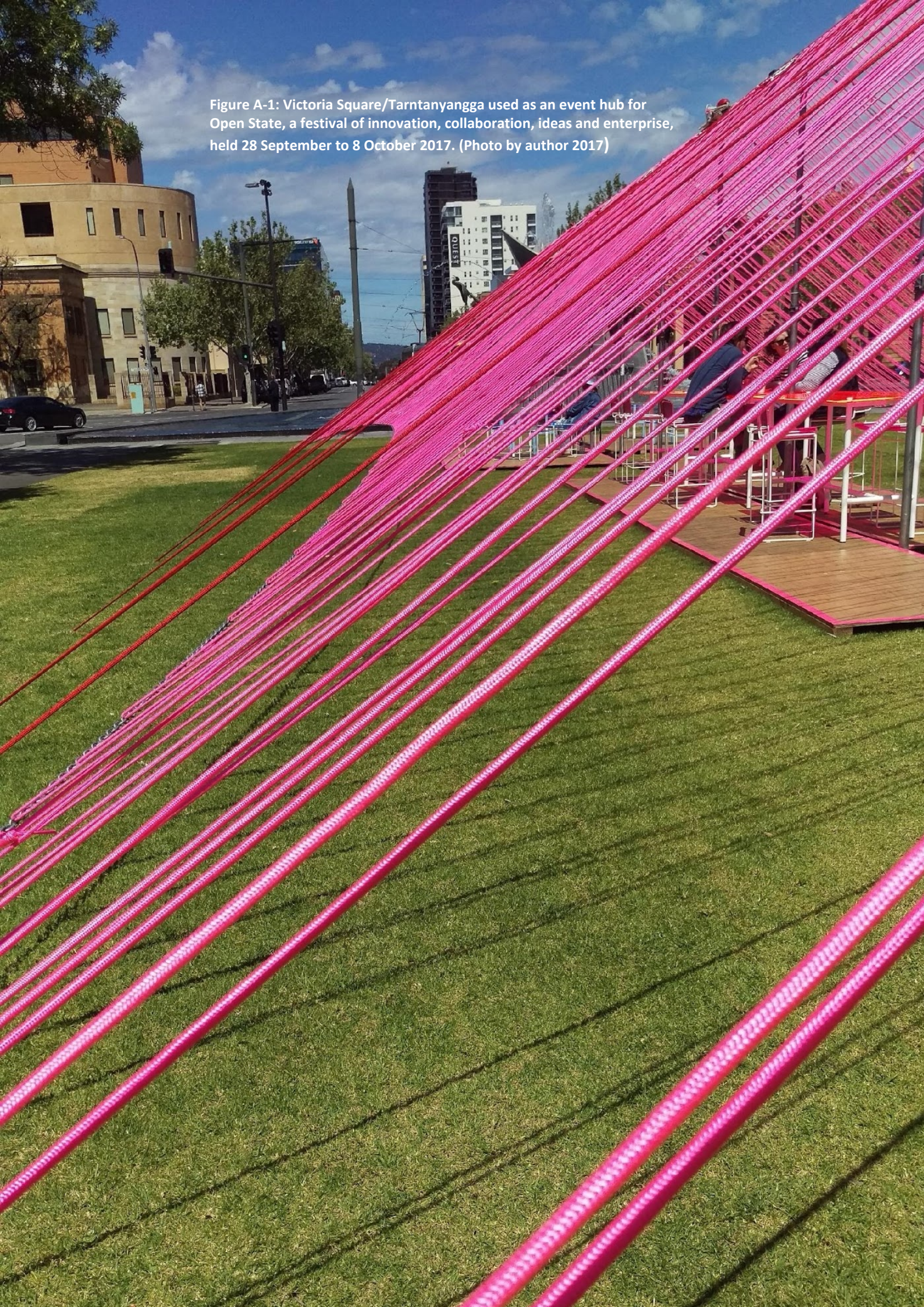
This study concludes that much of current design theory inadequately appreciates the range of publics within public spaces, consequently offering generalised assumptions and models of successful public space. This thesis does not propose an overarching design solution for all public spaces, nor does it conclude that publicly accessible spaces should always be public. Rather, it asks how can landscape architects assess the publicness of public spaces for effective design? And, should we be warned about the patron? Few authors—or designers, for that matter—are asking these questions when considering the public and their relationship to public space. To ask and answer these questions, the thesis proposes that landscape architects should assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space to understand the relationship between private and public use of space. The thesis is motivated by the need for a more rigorous assessment of public space and the influence of various forms of exclusion.

The thesis offers an important and timely counter point to the majority voice that laments the future of public space research. The thesis offers a new typology of publics and a Design Assessment Framework to inform and generate designed environments for contemporary evolving publics.

Part A

Defining public space

Figure A-1: Victoria Square/Tarntanyangga used as an event hub for Open State, a festival of innovation, collaboration, ideas and enterprise, held 28 September to 8 October 2017. (Photo by author 2017)



Part A examines the concepts of 'public space' and 'public', which are highly contested and loaded with social expectations and prejudices.

Chapter Two explores the complexities of 'public space' through an examination of how public space is contested, its significance and its varied definitions. Chapter Three continues with a categorisation of five different types of public space, historically, which have held significance for different publics in different urban contexts. The categories are illustrated with reference to planned Western democratic cities recognised not just for the provision of public space but also for their high-quality design.

Chapter Four reviews literature, which presents an erosion of public space. The effects of this erosion are examined, drawing on an extensive review of literature focusing on the urban environment. Emphasis is placed on activities that are perceived to erode public accessibility and social exchange, have an observable influence on the use of public space or result in public spaces being considered hostile to public activity. The chapter also identifies the challenges facing designers based on this review of disciplinary viewpoints, including urban planning, sociology, anthropology, political geography and political science.

Chapter Five proposes a new typology of publics to counter the homogenous notions of 'public' and 'private' that pervade the disciplines of landscape architecture and urban design. The new typology of publics—the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public—is proposed to better grasp the range of contemporary theoretical and disciplinary perspectives that identify threats to public space. This new typology of publics enables the analysis and discussion of specific case studies in Part B.

Chapter Two

Urban public space:

Definitions



Figure 2-1: Moseley Square, pre-eminent Adelaide public space, acts as a common, waterfront and event space. Local radio station Mix 102.3 attempts to capitalise on the prominence and popularity of the square by sponsoring the Ferris wheel, thereby gaining more listeners. (Photo by author 2020)

2.1 A contested space

The definitions used by the authors have considerable differences and cause one to question whether what one author considers public space would be considered so by the other author.

Jan Gehl & Anne Matan 2009, p. 107.

Definitions of public space as a spatial and physical asset in the city are proffered in a wide range of disciplines. Such definitions are important to determine how urban society has divided social life into various spheres of activity and to determine how current public and private spheres adjoin and overlap. As Gehl and Matan (2009) maintain, there are considerable differences in definitions in these disciplines. Talen (2000) argues that public space is complex and difficult to define. This chapter examines how the notion of *public* space emerges as a highly contested concept, hampered by a simplistic nature-culture binary vocabulary (Walliss 2012) which is not as encompassing as assumed, in a wide range of disciplines, including landscape architecture and urban design.

From the ancient *agora* in Athens to Central Park in New York City or Federation Square in Melbourne, people throughout history have been drawn to the square and the common for social exchange and interaction (Balassiano 2013; Charlesworth 2005; Cybriwsky 1999; Kostof 1991; Lefebvre 1974; Low & Smith 2006; Thwaites 2001; Tuan 1979; Varnelis & Friedberg 2008; Whyte 1980; Young 1990). These conventional ideals of public space, hard and softscape, play an important role in creating opportunities for social interaction, which has a wider effect on the health of cities, which in turn are 'a grand collaboration involving many players and forces' (6° Urban 2013, p. 8). At the same time, these complexities add to the difficulty of pinning down a definition of public space. These three public spaces, examined below, are generally considered preeminent examples of democratic spaces accessible to all, yet, the Athenian democracy was not all encompassing, Central Park was created at the expense and exclusion of the residents of Seneca Village and further crowded with private institutions and Federation Square is a magnet for corporate, commercial and institutional entities' private events, and is routinely fenced off. Accessibility is rarely universal and these examples immediately trigger considerations about the contest for public space, which troubles any assumptions about the 'public' and, in turn, 'public' space.

Athens is considered the birthplace of democracy (Fleck & Hanssen 2006) and its *agora* offers an important precedent for urban public space, both in antiquity and in neo-classical experiments from the Renaissance to the Enlightenment (acknowledging the many and varied hurdles to citizenship

during these different epochs). However, it is Olmsted's vision for Central Park and his seminal role in the profession of landscape architecture that is most widely celebrated in this discipline, notably, his creation of an urban public space, specifically a city park (acknowledging, again, British forerunners such as Birkenhead Park in Liverpool). Central Park was conceived as a democratic place for city dwellers to thrive, to find respite and as a place of moral improvement—an antidote to the widespread criminality and depravity of New York's slums, poignantly immortalised in the photography of Jacob Riis. The design is a demonstration of Olmsted's belief that parks should be 'a meeting ground for citizens' (Olmsted 1995, p. 48), providing benefits to the poor and the rich alike where 'all classes would meet and mix' (p. 49). According to Carol J. Nicholson, Professor of Philosophy, Olmsted maintained that 'nature is a civilizing force' with the power to 'democratize a society', attitudes that were 'the primary inspiration for his work on Central Park' (Nicholson 2004, p. 337). The project was hailed as 'revolutionary in a social response, power and control, in layout and organisation and emotional content' (Schnadelbach 2001 in Cooper & Palmer 2001, p. 123).

Yet, the original inhabitants of Seneca Village (1825–1857), comprising predominantly African–Americans as well as Irish and German immigrants, were effectively evicted from the site under the banner of eminent domain. From the outset, Central Park was home to private event spaces and institutions. While Olmsted was concerned about proposals for advertising displays, restaurants, steeple chases and circuses, which would ruin the landscape experience (Olmsted 1995, p. 51), critics today decry Fashion Week, protests, further private development or ticketed events to exclude the public and compromise this public space, and not least, exclusive events, such as the 2018 Ralph Lauren 50th Anniversary Celebration held near the iconic Bethesda Fountain (Figure 2-2). The formal design language of the fountain itself was against Olmsted's design sensibility and desire to create a rural space in the city. The Ralph Lauren event also contradicted all Olmsted stood for when designing this park. His concerns about commercial encroachments on urban public space also spurred his petitions for the protection of wilderness areas like Yosemite or Niagara Falls (Cooper & Palmer 2001; Nicholson 2004; Rybczynski 1999).

Federation Square (Figure 2-3), which hosts numerous free public events, is an award-winning civic space, celebrated as Melbourne's public square, symbolic of a pluralistic democracy (Carter 2005; Gilson 2018). The space is highly monitored by security and heavily programmed by Fed Square (appointed management team), who work closely with the Victorian State Government and Melbourne City Council. The community's expectation of the Square as a democratic public space has been sorely tested since its inception, with

numerous proposals for high-profile commercial development. The most recent was the 2018 Apple flagship store proposal, which many interpreted as the State privatising the square for commercial gain (Gilson 2018; Heritage Council of Victoria 2019; Lucas 2019). This proposal represents a global trend whereby commercial enterprises, like Mix 102.3 (Figure 2-1), Samsung, Starbucks or Marvel, market or seek to capitalise on the prominence of public spaces to increase foot traffic (Raco 1993; Sircus 2001). The character and form of marketed public spaces create a particular desirable vision of social life (Cybriwsky 1999; Zukin 1995) linked to the social image (further discussed in Chapter Four).



Figure 2-2: Bethesda Fountain, Central Park, in early spring. (Photo courtesy of Matt Gaetjens 2018)

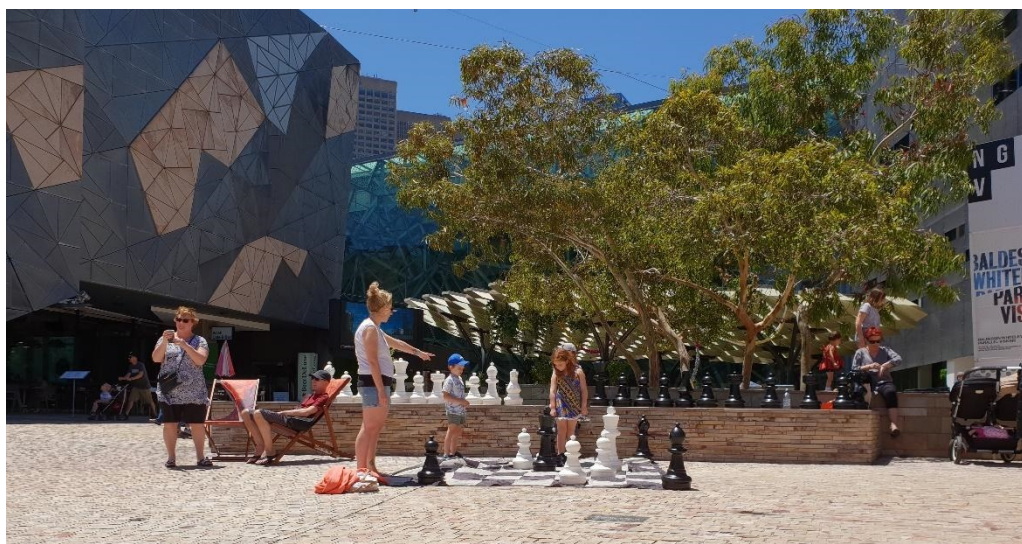


Figure 2-3: Federation Square subtle activation activity. (Photo by author 2019)

Following Apple’s proposal for Federation Square, outrage and debate ensued. The public, critics and design professionals lamented the commercialisation of the square, loss of heritage and loss of ‘cultural and creative tenancy’ (Citizens

for Melbourne in Gilson 2018). These concerns were played out in the media in three stages.

First, Apple was challenged regarding its relevance for the public of Melbourne. Second, the management, maintenance and financial woes of public spaces were presented as a reason to accept Apple into the square. Donald Bates, from the Office of the Victorian Government Architect and Federation Square's co-architect, supported the move to ensure the ongoing operation of the square for the people (Gilson 2018). Last, the debate turned to the use of the square. Bates argued that activation of the square by events was required to keep the square alive, while Dr Robin Canniford, senior lecturer in Management and Marketing (in Gilson 2018) disagreed, stating dead space 'is space in which to create; to move freely without any outside influences or psychological prompts from brands'. Other stakeholders, such as the Citizens for Melbourne, were concerned that increased visitors to a commercial enterprise would have a negative impact on established community use, thereby undermining Federation Square's civic focus (Foreground 2019).

The proposal was withdrawn (ABC News 2019; Lucas 2019). By April 2019, Federation Square was heritage listed to protect the space from similar commercial developments because the square was considered 'significant as a notable example of a public square. It is highly intact and its size, civic prominence and design illustrate the principal characteristics of a public square' (Heritage Council of Victoria 2019). Throughout this decision-making process, public access and the rights of the public (explored further in Chapter Four) to the square were at the forefront of the debate about this public space, as was the goal of private enterprise to capitalise on the critical mass of people who use Federation Square.

These three spaces—the Athenian *agora*, Central Park and Federation Square—introduce the contest for public space and signpost concerns about the public's right of access to public space. This contest is further complicated by the changing relationship between public and private spaces. This relationship has shifted historically, with emphasis moving from private domains to public spaces in the 18th century, particularly in London and Paris (Krupa 1993) during the Enlightenment. This shift in emphasis is linked to a desire to exert control over the external world; it can also be attributed to a person's perceptual attitude to public space (Cosgrove 1984; Mitchell 1995). A personal level of control also influences how a space is appreciated and described, and this is intimately linked to an individual's anticipation of what might happen there, which further complicates the delineation between public and private space.

Definitions of private and public space are neither fixed nor mutually exclusive (Relph 1976). Definitions of space need to be reconsidered in today's global

context of increasing human mobility, militarisation, corporatisation, ecological destruction and the renewed focus on cities in the context of inexorable urbanisation amplified by increasing densification. Landscape architects and architects have an ability to spatialise an ideal normative society by imposing subtle distinctions between what is private and what is public (Verschaffel 2009). Concerns have been raised in a number of disciplines because of the perception that the distinction between private and public realms is no longer self-evident and is being compromised by design and management. Additionally, as Fraser (2007) contends, such notions of private and public space are further complicated because the distinction between them is a cultural construct. Similarly, De Magalhães (2010, p. 562) proposes the following argument:

The very notion of public space as a distinct concept is itself a historical product, which came into being with the differentiation between the representative state, civil society and the market and the consolidation of modern notions of private property.

This chapter examines the difficulty of defining publicly accessible urban space. The chapter explores definitions of the terms 'public' and 'space', which variously define 'public space'. The chapter continues by outlining various types and categories of public space that have held significance for different publics in different urban conditions historically in the Western tradition. The subsequent sections of this chapter speculate on the emergence and identification of new types of public space.

2.2 Significance

Much of this debate about public space is unavoidably ideological, in the sense that it reflects broader reflections about the way we should understand cities in late capitalism and the potential for and the scope of, a politics of public space as an important component of a progressive urban politics.

Claudio De Magalhães 2010, p. 561

Access to public space plays an important role in people's lives. People throughout history have been drawn to public spaces for diverse modes of social interaction (Carter 2006; Cattell et al. 2008; Cybriwsky 1999; De Solà-Morales 1992; Goad 2002; Goodman 1992; Johnson & Walliss 2014; Kostof 1991; Németh & Schmidt 2011; Pasaogullari & Doratli 2004; Thwaites 2001; Tuan 1979; Varnelis & Friedberg 2008; Whyte 1980). Public spaces are characterised by diverse physical characteristics including size, shape, grade, materiality and orientation, as much as they are by location, ownership and

use. It can be argued that their significance lies in the way they allow people to interact in a public forum and to feel part of a community. This opportunity for interaction is important for civil non-verbal communication (Drucker & Gumpert 1998; Ellickson 1996; Madanipour 1996; Parkinson 2009) and it has been linked by urban sociologist Michael Bounds (2004) and others, to how an individual perceives public space. The ability to spatialise communication and social settings within public space is where landscape architects continue to play an important role.

There is a growing body of literature, too, which recognises the restorative qualities of public space (a case Olmsted made for city parks). The quality of public life, the role of public spaces and the benefits for mental health and physical health are discussed in medicine, social ecology, geography, environmental psychology and other health-based disciplines.

Verschaffel (2009) states that the importance of public spaces lies in their role as a stabilising force for human experience (Figure 2-4). From this perspective, public space is seen as space made through the struggle for rights, for example, by the activism of the Civil Rights Movement championed at the Washington Mall in 1963 or the protests in Tiananmen Square in 1989. The power and importance of social movements representing the struggle for rights and equality are shown by how and when they are brought into public space, recently demonstrated by the diffusion of the #metoo movement. The growing show of support for the movement against sexual abuse was clearly demonstrated by simultaneous marches in Sydney, Brisbane, Melbourne, Washington, New York, Los Angeles and hundreds of other cities across the US and the world in 2017 and 2018. The 2020 Global Strike 4 Climate is another key example of protests held throughout the world as a signal to our politicians that the public will stand up to confront the climate crisis (Figure 2-5).



Figure 2-4: Adelaide Parking Day 2013 combining protest for more public space, freedom of speech, urban regeneration and design creativity to transform vehicle-dominated spaces for one day a year. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 2-5: Global Strike 4 Climate protest and march departing from Victoria Square/Tarntanyangga, Adelaide. (Photo courtesy of Jean McIntyre 2019)

Ironically, these same spaces can become less public because of such struggles as a particular group takes temporary control (Mitchell & Staeheli 2009) through appropriation of spaces, excluding all others and politicising public space. This stability and importance, as identified by Verschaffel (2009), is waning because of the increasing number of electronic devices, which redefine the meaning and experience of being 'someplace' (Mitchell & Staeheli 2009, p. 133). In this light, an increasing disconnection between specific places and publics stems from the rise of virtual communication and information networks. From the outset, then, it is apparent that the relationship between 'public' and 'space' is nebulous.

Nonetheless, government agencies like the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE Space, UK) or the Integrated Design Commission (IDC, South Australia, Australia) continue to define the value of public space at the highest political echelons. While both programs have been decommissioned, in 2011 and 2012 respectively, the processes and strategies they put in place have been taken on by related government agencies and departments including the Office of Design and Architecture South Australia (ODASA). CABE Space (2004) determined that the quality of public space and the built environment has a direct bearing on people's wellbeing, concluding that the value and use of public space could be grouped under the following seven headings:

1. Economic Value of Public Space
2. Impact on Physical and Mental Health
3. Benefits for Children and Young People
4. Reduction of Crime and Fear of Crime

5. Social Dimension of Public Space
6. Movement in and Between Spaces
7. Value from Biodiversity and Nature.

Acknowledging these values, the creation of stronger societies and communities is seen by many as a key function of public space, closely linked to social sustainability and the governance of daily life (Sorensen et al. 2009). This relates to the notion that society needs both political and physical spaces in which to gather and flourish—an idea that is examined by Sorensen et al. (2009) with regard to Japan's social changes since the 1990s. In a similar vein, Borja (1998) argues that public space is of interest for two reasons: it allows the crisis of the city to be manifested in its emphatic forms while allowing for more pragmatic functions.

2.3 Definitions

There's a big misunderstanding of how you make public space work in the 21st century.

Professor Donald Bates 2017 in Ogden & Florance 2017

The important central role that public space plays in urban life is defended in diverse disciplines. To define 'public', the OED Online (2020) emphasises accessibility; public refers to people as a whole and belonging to a community, distinguished from private affairs in the context of business or community interests. In turn, space is acknowledged by giving space a name and a definition (Perec 1997). Such definitions are not fixed and a variety of terms has been used interchangeably by governments, disciplines (not least, within the discipline of landscape architecture), property developers and even the public.

Public space is a legal concept of property subject to regulation and administration (Borja 1998). Public space can be defined by its function, yet it is also linked to the emergence of the idea of the individual (Ortega 2004). As a result, definitions are frequently used in instinctive ways and they can be taken for granted (Varna & Tiesdell 2010), with ambiguous associations and moral connotations.

The difficulty of defining public space is further complicated when one considers the range of physical settings, as well as how these physical settings are represented in all forms of media. The definition of public space is complicated by many factors:

- There is a variety of closely related terms and phrases used to describe public space including public realm, public sphere and public domain;

- Terms are often used interchangeably;
- There are cultural differences that, considered in tandem with the phenomenon of human mobility, have further complicated the use of the terms public space and public realm;
- There is a variety of ways in which public space is presented and represented and potentially infinite variations in how it is experienced;
- There is a focus on the physical and the concrete aspects, which can and do sideline other aspects—legal, economic, political and aesthetic—that affect a public space;
- Public spaces can be perceived as static physical entities rather than sites of ideas or actions;
- There are implicit values associated with ‘public spaces’;
- There are different disciplinary priorities regarding the purpose and use of public spaces;
- There are different physical forms of public space catering for different uses. Neither form nor type are consistent indicators of the use of public space, its quality or its success; and
- Definitions of public space in academic literature are highly varied and extensive and government-based literature favours broad, inclusive definitions (Carmona & De Magalhães 2006; Madanipour 1996) (Table 2-1).

In the following sections, these factors will be discussed in a review of the terms employed in over 52 different disciplines by 493 authors to describe publicly accessible urban space and varied uses (Table 2-1 and Appendix 1.A). The categorisation of disciplines used throughout the thesis and in Table 2-1 demonstrates how a term is used differently in the same context.

In this thesis, public space is considered a subset of urban space, which is, in turn, one aspect or type of urban landscape. ‘Public’ is distinguished from ‘civic’, which emphasises a specifically institutional mode of occupation, such that its importance is proportional to access and rights of citizenship. Broadly, terms can be grouped around the adjective ‘public’, with nouns specifying common subsets, ‘realm’, ‘domain’ and ‘sphere’, as shown below in Figure 2-7.

The subsequent subsections provide an overview of and expand on, the interpretation of terms commonly used to define urban public space, including public realm, public sphere and public domain; emphasis is placed on English language terms with a focus on Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Table 2-1: Public space terminology by discipline

| Discipline | Term | | | |
|--|--------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| | Public Space | Public Realm | Public Sphere | Public Domain |
| Urban Planning, Urban Design and Urban Theorists | x | x | x | x |
| Planning | x | x | x | x |
| Sociology, Urban Sociology | | | | |
| Anthropology and Social Anthropology | x | x | x | x |
| Ecopsychology, Environmental Psychology and Psychology | x | | x | x |
| Geography - political, social, cultural, human and urban | x | x | x | |
| Architecture | x | x | x | x |
| Landscape Architecture | x | x | x | x |
| Philosophy | x | x | x | x |
| Social Sciences | x | x | x | x |
| Political theorist, science and politics | x | x | x | x |
| Historian | x | x | x | |
| Writer/author/journalist | x | | x | |
| Artist | x | | | |
| Humanities | x | | x | |
| Designer | x | | | |
| Transport planning/engineering | x | | | |
| Cinema/media studies/film theory | x | x | x | |
| Digital media | x | x | | |
| Open space administrator | x | | | |
| Criminology | x | | | |
| English | x | x | x | |
| Theorist | x | | | |
| Ecologist | x | | | |
| Architecture critic | x | | | |
| Communication/communication theorist | x | | x | |
| Medicine | | x | | |
| Language studies | x | x | x | |
| Law | x | | | |
| Womens Studies | x | | x | |
| Education | x | | x | |
| Social Work | | | x | |
| New Urbanism | x | | | |

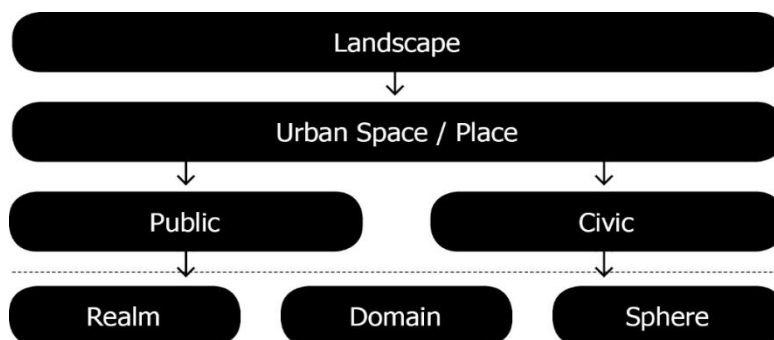


Figure 2-6: Public space terminology classification

2.4 Public space

A public place is commonly defined as a place (or space) created and maintained by public authority, accessible to all citizens for their use and enjoyment.

J.B. Jackson 1987c, p. 276

In the discipline of landscape architecture, J.B. Jackson employed the terms 'public space' and 'public place' interchangeably in his influential, ground-breaking study *The American Public Space* (1987c). Jackson identified the increasing variety of public spaces in the context of urbanisation. This variety ranged from remarkable natural spaces or educational spaces to mundane functional spaces such as parking lots. Bertolini (1999), Cattell et al. (2007), Cybriwsky (1999), Ellickson (1996), Gehl and Svarre (2013), Kurniawati (2012) and Pasaogullari and Doratli (2004) reiterate J.B. Jackson's definition of a public place whereby—in alignment with generalist definitions of public—it is open to public use, everyone can enter, it is accessible by the public and created for the public by public representatives.

Property (physical asset)

Public space as a physical spatial property includes streets, sidewalks, parks, plazas, squares, malls, cafés, accessible interior courtyards and much more (Figure 2-7). The focus on public space as a property (physical asset) is common in design-based disciplines including Urban Design, Architecture and Landscape Architecture. Property (physical asset) and the social context are two themes that recur in scholarly discussions of public space (Borja 1998; Gaffikin et al. 2010; Goodsell 2003; Harrison 2009; Iveson 2007; Kurniawati 2012; Madanipour 2003; Németh & Schmidt 2011; Pasaogullari & Doratli 2004). Iveson (2007) identifies common public spaces as topographical models of social space with collective visible actions and as embedded public spaces, which are currently undergoing a social transformation from embodying the co-presence of strangers to neo-liberal conceptions of public space. Kohn (2004) states that it is necessary to define public spaces based on their ontological attributes by considering the essential qualities that give public space its publicness (public accessibility). Low and Smith (2006) define public space based on the determination of and differentiation between access in public and private spaces by considering the nature of control over entry.

Function

The notion of public space as a site for social interaction is also proposed in works by Carr et al. (1992), Goodsell (2003) and Mitchell and Staeheli (2009) as a definition with historical lineage and legitimacy and ongoing practical application and relevance for contemporary urban life. Cattella et al. (2007),

Lofland (1998) and Whyte (1988) observe a desire for people to be around others regardless of personal connections for discourse. Ortega (2004) states that the emergence of public space is linked to the notion of the individual. This theme combines neo-liberal ideals, which emphasise the values of mainstream society (Iveson 2007), and focuses on where social and cultural rules of public behaviour are evident and public social interaction is possible. This theme encompasses the right of access for citizens, which Arendt (1958), Mitchell and Staeheli (2006) and Staeheli and Thompson (2007) view as the essence of public space as well as offering spaces for encounters. Mitchell and Staeheli's position



Figure 2-7: Examples of public space. Top left: Hindley Street, Adelaide, streetscape. (Photo by author 2014). Top right: Meiji Jingu Tokyo, Japan, public park, garden and shrine. (Photo by author 2018). Bottom left: Gardens by the Bay, Singapore, park and garden. (Photo by author 2012). Bottom right: Passeig de Gràcia, Barcelona, streetscape. (Photo by author 2015)

is also highlighted in research by Berney (2010) on the transformation of Bogotá, Colombia, where public spaces underwent social and physical changes through the reinvention of civil society in public space.

Public space, then, emerges as a forum in which public life is acted out (De Solà-Morales 1992; Ehrenfeucht & Loukaitou-Sideris 2010; Hajer & Reijndorp 2001; Krupa 1993), where difference is encountered and negotiated (Cattel et al. 2007). The function of space as forum for social exchange is described by Hajer and Reijndorp (2001, p. 12) as 'concrete, physical experience in the presence of others, of other cultural manifestations and of the confrontation with different meanings associated with the same physical space'. Accordingly, Cattel et al. (2007) consider social cohesion in public space and the necessary social structures for community sustainability or integration. These interpretations of space have been discussed by geographers, planners and landscape architects among other disciplines.

As argued below, there is no archetypal public space (Amin 2008). Public space is difficult to characterise because of variations in scale, form or location. Public space is further defined by how people choose to use it, whether for recreation, self-expression or, as suggested by geographer Ronald A. Davidson, as an area for independent thought and expression (Davidson, 2013). The concept of public space can extend to spaces that are not strictly public regardless of ownership (Borja 1998; De Magalhães 2010; Ellin 1996) but incorporate imaginative, discursive, virtual and physical sites of trial and resistance (Burk 2003). The use of the term depends on the disciplinary or social context, given that academics, disciplines and communities all have subtle nuances inflected in the term 'public space'.

Accessibility

Landscape architect Kristine F. Millers (2007) considers that the notion of public space within design disciplines as being publicly owned and accessible does not necessarily have a basis. The notion of public space as a story of place is 'not a concrete reality but rather a tenuous condition. What we believe are its essential and enduring qualities – openness and accessibility, public ownership, and ties to democratic life – are at best temporary conditions, and more often are completely absent' (Millers 2007, p. x). The notion that public space does not reflect reality is shared by numerous authors (e.g. Carr et al. 1992; De Solà-Morales 1992; Iveson 1998; Laughlin & Johnson 2011; Massey 2005). These works consider social transformation as a key element to determine spatial use, with access at the discretion of state, landowners or other users engaged in consumption or recreation.

What is private and what is public differs in different cultural groups or nations based on changing historical conditions, traditions, perceptions and conditions

of access. For example, traditional public spaces in Japan include the grounds and gardens of temples and shrines, which have private ownership yet are perceived to be public and open to all (Figure 2-8). This may be due to the fact that these spaces were not owned or regulated by the government until the Meiji era (1868 to 1912). In contrast, spaces such as streets and parks—which in Australia are traditionally perceived as public spaces—are not referred to or perceived as public in Japan. In Japan these spaces are often labelled ‘open space’, a term with ambiguous connotations. For instance, Gottlieb (2010) examines language encountered within Japanese public space, arguing that it provides a barometer of social transformation. She proposes that private space can exist within public and semi-public space to highlight the shifting role of personal, private and public space.

In the United States, J.B. Jackson (1987a, 1987b, 1987c) differentiated between public and civic space, stating that not every public space is intended to be a setting for collective civic action. Civic spaces are public spaces in which people perform a particular public service or role (Gaffikin et al. 2010). Jackson argues that clear regulations and laws set aside public space for civic action, creating specialised public spaces that are not available to the majority of the public (Figure 2-9). Public space provided and maintained by the state is viewed by De Magalhães (2010) and Marne (2001) as a historically specific construct attributed to particular states, specific forms of governance and specific mediated relationships between the state and the citizens. The relationship is temporary, established and held accountable by election.



Figure 2-8: Fushimi Inari-taisha shrine, Kyoto, Japan. (Photo courtesy of Nicole Arbon 2013)



**Figure 2-9: Boston Common is a central public park in downtown Boston, Massachusetts.
(Photo by author 2019)**

Political space

The political dimension of public space relating to rights of use and association has been apparent since the *agora*, with public space serving as sites of protests and political agenda (De Magalhães 2010; Drucker & Gumpert 1998; Iveson 1998). These include anti-war demonstrations, women's rights campaigns or the collapse of the Berlin Wall. Protests and demonstrations as a 'physical performance have an 'impressive' effect both by showing leaders that large numbers of people care about an issue and by impressing the seriousness of binding collective decision-making on participants' (Parkinson 2009, p. 112). The importance of public space as a physical arena for protest or expressions of independence is still current, with Tahrir square in Cairo (2011, 2013), Taksim Square in Istanbul (2013) or Maidan Nezalezhnosti in Kiev (2014) providing the locus for nascent democratic movements. These spaces of protest were largely precipitated through social media, yet they still present the tension of cultural diversity and ethnicity within public space.

Political agendas continue to shape public space with election promises for public space. In 2014, the South Australian state election campaign saw promises by the Labor Government to improve the Adelaide Park Lands. This election promise was met in 2018 by the \$4.5 million spend on Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub, the \$3.2 million netball court upgrade in Josie Agius Park/Wikaparntu Wirra (Park 22) and the \$6.7 million spend on Gladys Elphick Park/Narningga (Park 25) (Figures 1-1 to 1-6 and Figure 2-10). The driver for expenditure was the creation of projects that would yield visible achievements before the next election cycle. Such examples can be multiplied

internationally. Public spaces are leveraged for political gain through promises for improved mobility and the promotion of greater interaction between different socio-economic groups. Berney (2010), among others, argues that such initiatives (when they are delivered) create more problems than solutions, with exclusion persisting.



Figure 2-10: Media call for the netball court opening at Josie Agius Park/Wikaparntu Wirra (Park 22). (Photo by author 2018)

Whether the term is used to refer to an idea or to a specific physical space, the notion of public space as a democratic social space facilitating social encounters amongst strangers is continually discussed. Advocates of democratic social space concentrate on typology, arguing that freedom of speech, of opinion, of the right to be heard and of the right to act are granted to everyone in a democracy (Lefort 1988; Verschaffel 2009). The democratic right to freedom of speech is not guaranteed by all laws, but as Lefort (1988, p. 37) states, it is an ‘expectation of public confirmation because it appeals to the conscience of the public’. The democratic ideal is highlighted by Gehl and Svarre (2013) in a discussion about Barcelona’s public spaces after 1979, which celebrated public expression through the freedom to assemble—an activity that was banned prior to the free elections. This version of democratic space assumes a thin unproblematic concept of both ‘democracy’ and ‘space’. The public is presented as an entity with power and opportunity to speak out and to listen without suppression or manipulation by others. The notion of the public in a democracy is shorthand for the expression of an ideological imagination (Harrison 2009; Low 2009). Accordingly, social and economic inequalities are ignored, with a focus on the universal norms of a privileged middle class and a presumption of a single cultural and social frame (Verschaffel 2009).

This democratic ideal is often structured around significant exclusions. Crawford (1995) states that revisionist history demonstrates non-liberal and non-bourgeois publics produced alternative definitions through the activation of public space, for example, the work and protests of female voluntary organisations and male unions, lodges and political organisations. The Athenian *agora* 'was limited to a group of men recognised by formal assembly' (Rogers 2016, p. 93). This example of democratic space excluded the majority of the population, including women or slaves and many others, who were not classed as citizens. Crawford and others redefine public space as a male space, with feminist research focusing on gendered exclusions.

Non-liberal and non-bourgeois publics and the emergence of other counter-publics arose because of competing interests between a dominant user group and others. In present day public space, the public may be formally equated with a dominant user group. Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht (2009) and Mitchell and Staeheli (2009) highlight this equation as a limiting and exclusion-based process (discussed at length in Chapter Four and Chapter Five). In their examination of sidewalks (footpaths), Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht note that mobile pedestrians are equated with the public—the main user group—which led to municipal (council) ordinances favouring pedestrians over others for efficient movement. Municipal (council) ordinances that privilege pedestrians over other users have the negative effect of controlling or prohibiting other social, economic or political uses of sidewalks. The delimitation of one type of public to define public space further complicates a singular or monolithic definition of public space.

Lefort's (1988) definition of democratic public space draws attention to gathering spaces and places where people can congregate for a public purpose. This essentially mediates private relations balanced with the varied understanding of 'public' and 'space' and the potential of space belonging to no individual, while being large enough to accommodate a greater number of people. This definition is identified with political space—a place for discussion and decision-making, linked by Verschaffel (2009) to architectural and urban planning works. However, geographers such as Amin (2008) question whether public spaces remain political spaces within urban cities.

The use of public space for private activities adds another layer of complexity. Private ownership of public spaces and regulations restricting use in spaces classified as public are altering how spaces are seen and used. General interpretations of private and public spaces have always been complicated. Interpretations are increasingly unclear, with the rise of privately owned spaces, including building façades (Figure 2-11), pocket parks, forecourts and courtyards. These spaces are public spaces through their contribution to public infrastructure and public accessibility. Yet, as Lefort (1988) and Ranson (2012),

among other critics, argue, these public spaces blur the boundaries between political and non-political activities and between civil society and government responsibilities. This blurring of boundaries between private ownership and public spaces has been exacerbated by notions of the value and investment potential of public space (Harrison 2009; Kohn 2004; Madanipour 2017).

As discussed above, who owns public space, who maintains it, who has access to it, who benefits from it and who does not, all influence how a space is represented as public or private; '[i]n brief, what is required of public space is nothing more or less than contributing towards giving sense to our urban life' (Borja 1998, p. 7). Definitions of public space as a democratic space connected to all publics and citizens emerges as an idealised notion (Carmona, De Magalhaes & Hammond 2008; Lefort 1988). The notion of democratic space is linked to distinct historical antecedents that rarely materialised the utopia of an exemplary democratic state. Changing property regimes, the equation of ownership with control, competing uses or the agitation of counter-publics, all defy singular notions of public space. Considering these diverse definitions of public space, articulated in different disciplines, public space does not emerge as a space that is accessible to all. Every example presented here can be linked to a design intervention that further underscores the need, in the discipline of landscape architecture, to interrogate and challenge definitions of urban 'public' space.



Figure 2-11: Privately owned spaces regulating public use. Left: Building facade on Pirie Street, Adelaide, Australia. Right: Signage in a public plaza in Tokyo Midtown, Minato, Tokyo. (Photos by author 2018)

2.5 Public realm

[The public realm comprises] *social, not physical territories. Whether any actual physical space contains a realm at all and, if it does, whether that realm is private or parochial or is public is not the consequence of some immutable culturally or legally given designation ... It is, rather, the consequence of the proportions and densities of relationship types present and these proportions and densities are themselves fluid.*

Lyn Lofland 1998, p. 11.

The public realm is a fluid concept with primarily social dimensions. The terms 'public space' and 'public realm' tend to be used interchangeably. As Lofland (1998) states, the difference lies in the notion that the public realm tends to be distinct from physical territories. The public realm may be considered broadly in two ways: a collection of defined, publicly accessible physical spaces including built form, or a realm (physical or virtual) where a group or unrelated publics may insert their concerns to be acknowledged by others, regardless of ownership. Within the local and state government and education sectors, the term 'public realm' is primarily used to refer to publicly accessible built form and spaces under their control or maintenance (Figure 2-12). Similarly, the physical association is the main area of discussion, reference and research in Planning, Urban Design and Political Geography. Importantly, planners Frank Gaffikin, Malachy McEldowney and Ken Sterrett (2010), and Associate Professor in Landscape Architecture Jillian Walliss (2012,2014,2017a, 2017b) have highlighted that the public realm is both an arena for identity and argument.

The link between physical space and social interaction is defined by Carmona, Heath and Tiesdell (2003) as the ability to support or facilitate public life. This definition considers the public realm as a defined space/s that is separated from private realms by public goals and determined through temporary bonds between unrelated publics and long-term bonds between family and friends (Krupa 1993) (Figure 2-13). Power in the public realm is maintained by the common public and beyond the reach of individuals, regardless of their influence exerted through the expression of opinions or governmental action (Lefort 1988). This places the public realm within the context of democratic theory and political philosophy. It should be noted that in urban design literature, the distinction is not often discussed (Goodsell 2003).

Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht (2009, pp. 62-79) discuss parades and processions in relation to the public realm. They consider parades as tolerated, typically non-threatening—but non-neutral—events in which a public group makes claims to the public realm, breaking ordinary rhythms of daily life in the

process. Participation or observation of a parade results in individuals becoming *de facto* members of the same community (public). However, parades have never been inclusive of all publics and never will be, because of their nature and purpose to celebrate or champion a specific cause. The ability for parades or protests to take place has been linked to the design of public space. Gaffikin et al. (2010) recognise that spatial form can influence conflict, and social conflict has a spatial manifestation although it cannot be corrected through design considerations alone.



Figure 2-12: The University of Adelaide, public realm, the Barr Smith Lawns. Transformed in partnership with major arts events, the Adelaide Festival, Adelaide Fringe and RCC into an event space open to the public (Photo by author 2019)

Arendt (1958) and Lofland (1998), among others, present the public realm as a permanent setting for an individual to be acknowledged. Arendt discusses the public realm as something that enables gatherings of people to present and debate their concerns as equals, to be acknowledged and to leave their mark on their community. This is only possible if multiple differences and perspectives occur in the same place, at the same time, with the ability for those concerns to take time away from private matters. The public realm connects individuals as a community, articulating and presenting what the community holds in common and what the community wishes to share with more than one generation. Arendt's concept of community is still relevant—the concept of access to the public realm without physical connection in today's

age of digital and virtual communication. The discussion above highlights the role of the public within the public realm and the agreement that built form does not constitute the public realm but is a stage where the public can develop. The public realm is distinguished from public space by human activities and people. Activities and people transform public space into the public realm by appropriating built form or virtual space.



Figure 2-13: Melbourne's Flemington Racecourse acting as the public realm during the 2019 Download music festival through the provision of common public goals and facilitating temporary bonds between unrelated publics. (Photo by author 2019)

2.6 Public sphere

No individual is sovereign in this sphere, but each on entering it, renounces the right to dictate the terms upon which he communes and conflicts with others.

Roger Scruton 1984, p. 13.

Public sphere locations are fluid and attached to a gathering of publics, presenting opportunities for debate and allowing the formation of public opinion. Universal access is the key feature of the public sphere (Arendt 1973; Goodsell 2003; Habermas 1989; Ortega 2004). The public sphere is where civil societies develop through the creation of meaningful public exchanges in a manner that is unplanned, with participation 'either in opposition to others or in agreement with them' (Scruton 1984, p. 14). As stated by Ranson (2012, p. 245), the challenge of the public sphere is how to freely engage the public and 'enable them to cooperate in civil society'. Freedom is defined by the ability

of the individual to gather for discussion (Ortega 2004), distinguished from liberty but linked to human rights to be part of public affairs (Arendt 1973). The public sphere is also understood by many researchers and critics as a 'structured setting where cultural and ideological contest among a variety of publics takes place' (Eley 1992, p. 306) and exchanges within are spontaneous unplanned reactions. The unplanned, fluid nature and non-spatial context of the public sphere is its key quality, distinguishing it from the concepts of public space and the public realm.

The notion of meaningful exchange and gathering of publics means that the public sphere does not need to be a physical space for the public to connect, yet the ability to gather in public space is regarded as the 'physical geography or territory of the public sphere' (Low & Smith 2006, p. 3). Public space is therefore considered the physical territory of the public sphere, while the public realm is the virtual territory of the public sphere. Virtual territory is discussed by Squires (2002) with reference to the strengths of public spheres linked by organised forms of publicity, for instance, media outlets, political voices, cultural groups and professional organisations. Online media outlets including blogs, news sites, Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn all provide 'space' for the public to disperse information and engage with others. Media communication is considered by many, including Ortega (2004), as essentially public and a defining factor of the public sphere by controlling the stage for publics. The Occupy Wall Street movement (2011) and the Global Strike 4 Climate (2020) are two examples that spread around the world, including peaceful demonstrations in Adelaide, through online sources (Figure 2-5 and Figure 2-14). Online platforms allow for the emergence and development of identity to be played out in a non-spatial context, which may not be present in the same degree as a physical space (Amin 2008).



Figure 2-14: Outlook of Victoria Square/Tarntanyangga, Adelaide during the 2020 Global Strike 4 Climate. (Photo courtesy of Nicole Arbon 2020)

The separation between the virtual and physical public sphere is evident in German sociologist Jürgen Habermas's influential concept of the early 18th and 19th century modern bourgeois public sphere. Habermas (1989) depicted the Western public sphere as an arena comprising individuals forming a public in which everyone has the protection of universal rights and a system of democratic politics (Eley 1992). Cafés and the salon were noted in particular by Habermas as a part of the public sphere. Varnelis and Freidberg (2008) agree and argue that the link between the café and the public sphere remains, though it is overshadowed by commercialisation.

Parkinson (2009) is in broad agreement with Habermas's definition, linking democracy with the public sphere by discussing it as a performance between actors and audiences on a stage. Similarly, Staeheli and Thompson (1997) discuss the public sphere, with emphasis on accessibility, noting that liberal political theory assumes the public sphere is equally open to all. These distinctions are described differently by Habermas (1989), whose concept emphasises unity and equality independent of government and economy, with strict lines between public and private. Habermas commenced by excluding all those whose behaviour was associated with private or domestic spheres, women, non-white Christian males and workers. Many scholars have criticised Habermas's ideal as underplaying gender roles and relegating women and workers to private and domestic spheres, along with his theorisation of the public sphere as a unitary space separating public and private (Eley 1992). Nevertheless, Habermas's model for the public sphere has become influential in debates on public accessible space, depicting norms of behaviour structured around interaction (Mitchell & Staeheli 2009), with publics identified as citizens in relation to government.

The role of citizens in the public sphere is critical since their rights as active subjects are indispensable if the public sphere is to emerge and develop (Ortega 2004). Staeheli and Thompson (1997) further identify the notion of citizens having a secondary moral definition, provided by the notion of community whereby citizenship can be earned. Privileged middle-class and masculine modes of public speech were considered universal norms; concerns were addressed through political debate and electoral politics within defined categories of discourse of Habermas's ideal democratic space (Crawford 1995; Westwood 2014). Yet, the public sphere is derived equally from blurring public and private space and competition among publics (Crawford 1995). This alternative depicts the public sphere as a flexible entity—not rigid or unified, as many theorists insist—and consistently redefined through the public's appropriation of space. The appropriation of space is a behavioural means of redefining boundaries between public and private and negotiating conflicts within the public sphere.

Mass media, the distribution of information by governments and demonstrations lie at the intersection of the public and private sphere. Through the voicing of domestic, economic and private concerns via public debate, direct action and civil disobedience demonstrations transform private decisions into public ones and transform civil laws to allow for private decisions. Demonstrations and protests include anti-abortion demonstrations, gay rights demonstrations and anti-gay marriage protests. A government's statutory powers are legitimatised through the acceptance of one group's public demands, which first must be inscribed within public space through acts of demonstrations or protests that provide a setting to allow for approval from a broad section of public opinion (Lefort 1988). Conversely, removing a government's power through public protest in public spaces, such as Ukraine's 2004 and 2014 public protests in Maidan Nezalezhnosti (Independence Square), consequently influenced the government structure.

Differing types and forms of space have varying levels of power to influence how the public sphere is used and perceived. The unplanned, fluid nature and non-spatial context of the public sphere is its key quality, distinguishing it from public space and the public realm.

2.7 Public domain

The public domain constitutes an overarching view of public space and the public realm; it is differentiated from public space as a collection of spaces belonging or being available to the public in which public activities occur. Hajer and Reijndorp's (2001) research clearly separates the public domain and public space by public function and public ownership, contending that the former often does not coincide with the latter. The public domain has been related to spaces that belong to citizens, thereby enhancing or frustrating urban existence (Holden & Iveson 2003). It links the right to space with culture, history, society, freedom, equality and responsibility (Cuthbert 1995; Walls & Walliss 2020).

Sennett (1977) argues that the public domain has been in decline since the Romans because of changes in the organisation of cities and planning practices. This in turn influences how users perceive space and their connection to space. In the 12th century, the public domain became separated from the 'person of the king' (monarchy or royal domain) and was 'defined as a domain of inalienable property; and whereby a further division is introduced between a reference to an objective order and a reference to a sacred order' (Lefort 1988 p. 253); an identity in which the King was replaced by the community and individual persons. There has been renewed interest in the term 'public domain' since the 1980s with the rise of urban renewal and urban growth

strategies. It has been used interchangeably with the terms 'civic space', 'public space' and 'public realm'.

2.8 Summary

A renewed importance has been seen in public space since 2000, with strategic significance for emerging social controls, corporate rebranding strategies, radical politics (Iveson 2010) and placemaking. Cities are focusing on their public spaces as areas of quick wins and social engagement. Yet, as stated by Varnelis and Friedberg (2008), the old world of public space has not returned and there are still divergent definitions of what constitutes public space.

The common thread in the definitions presented above is the persistent assumption of a democratic, ideal public space, with recognition of the fact that there are not many spaces, today, that match this ideal. Debates about the definition of public space include whether space is publicly owned or private, inside or outside, restrictive or free, democratic and inclusive, legally defined, politically defined, whether it is real or virtual, whether it is engaging or monochromatic and, not least, meets public expectations.

Common interpretations of the terms 'space', 'realm', 'sphere' and 'domain' separate notions of politics and space, reflecting and influencing power relations and spatial behaviour. This discussion demonstrates that contemporary urban public spaces are plural, open to interpretation and reflective of the current complex socio-economic context. No single ideal exists because public space depends on the nature and degree of public accessibility (publicness) and, how public is attributed.

The relevance of the key arguments above is the assumption that public space definitions present a dichotomous view of the complex history and dynamics of urban life, overlooking rights, roles and attributions regarding the public and spaces, which are continually being redefined. Instead, the importance of public space should be considered by its role as a centre of democratic expression and protest or through deliberate manipulation of urban design as a way for those in power to quash opposition. Therefore, their influence on public space is an influence over the public sphere, public realm and public domain. The control of information and expression that the public can access and how those in power can manipulate the distribution of the information and opinion (Krupa 1993) have profound effects on the quality of public life. Overall, public space brings people together for the sake of being in proximity with other humans.

The relationship between the provision and use of public space is discussed further in Chapter Four as a key concern for public space governance and use.

Chapter Three

Urban public space:

Typologies



Figure 3-1: Gluttony Adelaide Fringe Festival hub set in Rymill Park/Murlawirrapurka (Park 14) transforms yearly from a park and garden public space typology to a commercial event space (photo by author 2020)

3.1 Typologies of urban public space

Cities are composed of a great variety of place types. In between the more constraining ones, the private and enclosed places of the city ... lie public spaces, often outdoors, where definitions and expectations are less exclusive and more fluid.

Karen A. Frank & Quentin Stevens 2007, p. 2.

The discourse surrounding public space is as varied as the public spaces that are found in cities, as Frank and Stevens (2007) argue. This raises questions about who the public is and who public spaces are designed for. An analysis of public space requires scrutiny of these types of spaces. Cities consist of spaces that satisfy the ordinary daily needs of users as well as extraordinary events (Figure 3-1). The distinction between private and public is influenced by city design and planning, which have been criticised for increasing social isolation, health and economic problems through a perceived increase of informal, movement-oriented and loose urban public space. The diversity of spaces within cities results in rapidly changing public space.

The diversity of public space types considerably extends possibilities for public social interaction and for individuals to be seen in and belonging to the 'public' or rather, 'publics', highlighting that the public is not a monolithic entity. The diversity of physical, spatial, material and formal qualities of public space has changed in the 20th century because of ongoing industrialisation, modern urban development, urban densification, new approaches to open space or the transformation of transport infrastructure, which have all challenged traditional city typologies (Gehl & Svarre 2013; Project for Public Space 2009; Le Corbusier 1923; Sitte 1886). The desirable urban form of these spaces has been debated from the end of the 19th century, notably with Sir Ebenezer Howard's Garden City movement, progressing to current debates about bike-friendly cities. Changes are both positive and negative, shaped by political ideals, reinforcing and challenging dominant myths. These are argued by Verschaffel (2009) to be *de facto* outcomes of populism and new technologies.

Different typologies of public space are recognised and categorised by academics in diverse disciplines, design professionals and the publics. The typologies stem from design, socio-cultural, economic and political perspectives (Carmona 2010b) and are based on morphological types and design function. All categorisations are not mutually exclusive to a particular space and vary in terms of location (Burgers 1999; Dines & Cattell 2006; Hall 1966; Wallin 1998). The basis of the categorisations often relates to how users

engage with the spaces. For instance, socio-cultural categorisations tend to be fluid and overlapping (Carmona 2010b), while political-economic perspectives are defined by questions of ownership and responsibility (Carmona, 2010b; Flusty 1997; Kilian 1998; Malone 2002; Sibley 1995; Van Melik, Van Aalst & Van Weesep 2007). This categorisation tends to underscore a division between public and private space, issues of security and branding, questions of consumption and purchase and questions of how the acceptance of difference and diversity is played out in public space.

A breakdown of public space typologies is provided in Table 3-1, which includes definitions from the design professions as well as other disciplinary perspectives, identified as 'socio-cultural' and 'political-economy'. Table 3-1 demonstrates the wide range of public spaces mentioned by the authors cited in this thesis. As shown in the table, the categorisation of public space is complex and becoming increasingly problematic because of the blurring of what is public and private, questions of ownership and accessibility. The complexity of today's public space typologies originates from the decision points required to determine the classification. Figure 3-2 (Public space typology classification system flow chart) has been developed by the author to graphically represent the decision points experts and lay persons go through to classify a space as public or private. The flow chart considers management, function, perception and ownership, which all feed into how a public space is classified.

The balance between the provision of public spaces and the identification of public needs and aspirations shapes the design of public space and the identification of the need for change or redevelopment of these spaces. In their seminal work, *Community and privacy: Toward a new architecture of humanism*, architects Serge Chermayeff and Christopher Alexander (1963), identified six types of public space in the city, highlighting the public spaces that displaced traditional public squares and parks and are linked to their ideals of the public good:

1. Urban/public: Places and facilities in public ownership.
2. Urban/semi-public: Areas of public use under government and institutional control.
3. Group/public: The meeting ground between public services and utilities and private property.
4. Group/private: Secondary areas for the benefit of tenants or legal occupants.
5. Family/private: The spaces within the private domain.
6. Individual private: One's own room.

Table 3-1: Public space recognised from traditional and ambiguous perspectives

| Traditional Public Spaces | | | | Ambiguous Public Spaces (movement, service, left over, undefined, transitional spaces) | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------|----------------|-------------------|---|--------|----------------|-------------------|
| | Design | Socio-cultural | Political-economy | | Design | Socio-cultural | Political-economy |
| Amenity green spaces | | | | Alleyways | | | |
| Burial grounds | | | | Beaches | | | |
| Cafés | | | | Bike lanes | | | |
| Campuses | | | | Building frontages | | | |
| Cemeteries/burial grounds | | | | Car parks | | | |
| Churches and churchyards | | | | Concourses | | | |
| City farms | | | | Elevated walkways | | | |
| Civic buildings | | | | Elevators | | | |
| Civic and market squares | | | | Gardens (private) | | | |
| Community gardens | | | | Grey (lost, forgotten) | | | |
| Gardens (public) | | | | Laneways | | | |
| Green corridors | | | | Loose space | | | |
| Markets | | | | Monuments | | | |
| Memorials | | | | Railway terminals | | | |
| Natural and semi-natural spaces | | | | Roadway | | | |
| Outdoor sports facilities | | | | Shared streets | | | |
| Indoor sports facilities | | | | Shorelines | | | |
| Public gardens | | | | Stairs | | | |
| Piazzas | | | | Streetscapes | | | |
| Playgrounds (public) | | | | Tunnels | | | |
| Playgrounds (school) | | | | Vacant lots | | | |
| Promenade | | | | Television | | | |
| Parks | | | | Internet | | | |
| Squares | | | | Erected** | | | |
| Streets | | | | Displayed** | | | |
| Water fronts | | | | Exalted** | | | |
| Shopping mall | | | | Exposed** | | | |
| Schools | | | | Coloured** | | | |
| Rivers | | | | Marginalised** | | | |
| Canals | | | | Places of retreat*** | | | |
| Commons | | | | Everyday places*** | | | |
| Urban forests/woodland | | | | Places of meaning*** | | | |
| Skate parks | | | | Social environments*** | | | |
| Walkways | | | | Negative spaces*** | | | |
| Landscape plazas | | | | Festivals | | | |
| Lobbies | | | | Service yards | | | |
| | | | | Underpasses | | | |
| | | | | Bus interchanges/bus stops/trains stops/tram stops | | | |
| | | | | Retail space | | | |
| | | | | Front gardens | | | |
| | | | | Gated squares | | | |

Note: All spaces listed are publicly accessible. Public or private ownership is not referenced.

** Burgers (1999) Classification of space

*** Dines & Cattell (2006) Classification of space

The typologies can be expanded to include social and virtual spaces, which facilitate and influence the public just as physical spaces do.

Goodsell's (2003) definition of the public builds on Chermayeff and Alexander's propositions by combining political philosophy, democratic theory, urban planning, urban design and architectural definitions to propose six definitions:

1. Generic definition of public space: A space-time continuum for connected and interactive political discourse.
2. Place-bound public space: The above, consisting of face-to-face interaction in a single physical location.
3. Electronic public space: The above, achieved at dispersed geographic locations through information technology.
4. Extended public space: The above, when broadcast by television, radio, Internet or other means.
5. Pure definition of democratic public space: The above, when open to all, unrestricted as to conduct and unconditional as to participation.
6. Practical definition of democratic public space: The above when public access is encouraged, the status of state authority is muted, barriers between governors and governed are minimised, staging is arranged by the people as well as officials and conditions conducive to deliberation are fostered.

In contrast, social scientist and geographer Doreen Massey (2005), argues against the conventional interpretation of space. She discusses space as an event, as something intertwined with time and ever-changing, with or without public occupation. For Massey, there are three proposals that are relevant for the city and that, we can argue, are beyond the physical setting:

1. Space is the outcome of interrelations; it is 'constituted through interactions'.
2. Space is an arena of 'coexisting heterogeneity', reflecting and changing the multiplicities and pluralities of contemporary society.
3. Space is forever a work in progress, continuously being remade.

Massey's stance re-conceptualises place as nuanced ideals that are persistent in geography and are linked to definitions of society, politics and the changing perception and social use of public space in the city.

The definitions of Chermayeff and Alexander (1963), Goodsell (2003) and Massey (2005) are unsatisfactory theoretical variants and interpretations of the term 'public space'. They do not consider the everyday user nor do they interrogate the concept of the public(s). Public space is unravelled within this thesis, appreciating degrees of public accessibility (publicness).

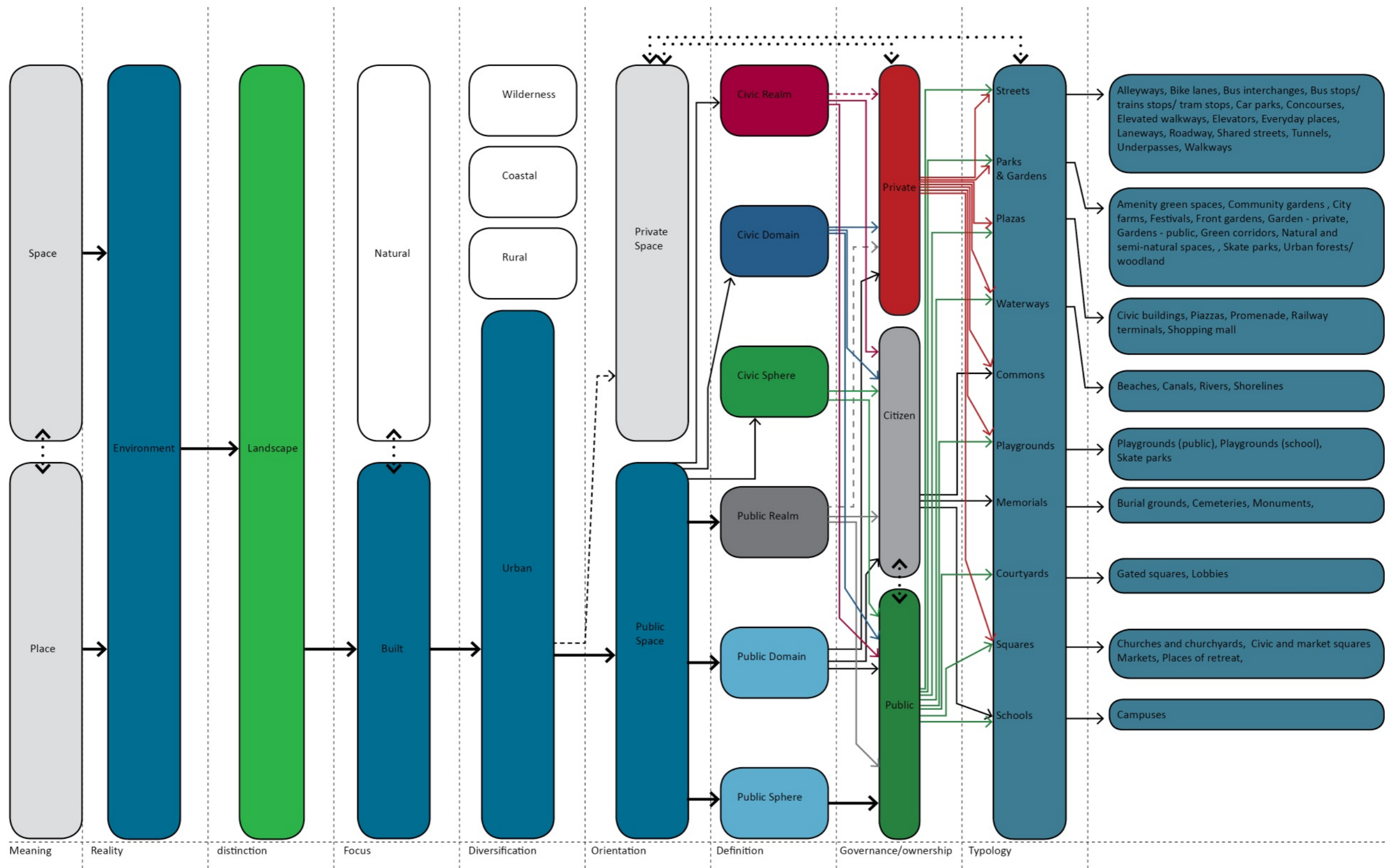


Figure 3-2: Public space typology classification system flow chart

3.2 Five new public space typologies

The way in which 'public space' is viewed is also changing from a traditional focus on formal squares, parks and pavements to a broader conception that recognises the value of less formal 'left-over' spaces and the everyday uses that occur there.

Peter Bishop and Lesley Williams 2012, p. 87

The way in which public spaces are viewed enlarges the definition of what spaces are public. Traditional public space typologies—squares and parks—were questioned in the 1960s by urban designers, in the 1990s by the New Urbanism movement and today, in the 2020s by landscape architects. The renewed interest was motivated by sustainable development, interrogation of car-dependence in the context of urban sprawl and focus on healthy spaces for people. A need for sustainable cultural change was advocated, seeking alternatives to reverse the environmental and social problems of sprawl, minimisation of right of access and creeping social isolation (Alter 2020; Butler-Bowdon 2020; Florida 2020; Honey-Rosés et al. 2020; Iveson 2020; Klinenberg 2020; Kling 2020; Null & Smith 2020; Roberts 2020; Suricio 2020; Tovey 2020; Walker 2020). Literature from these periods reveals spaces that depart from traditional notions of public space managed and maintained by the state (De Magalhães 2010). These spaces are regulated 'not for common civil society interests but rather for state or commercial control' (Daniere & Douglass 2009, p. 199) and provide new social settings.

These new concepts of public space coincided with the post-industrial era in response to changing land use, new technologies, economies and socio-cultural practices (Scazzosi 2004). Increasingly, landscape architects are at the forefront of design for these public spaces, not least in Australia. City spaces that are now reconsidered public spaces include commercial streets, shopping malls, arcades, parklets, outdoor dining areas, vacant lots, car parks, innovation districts and other urban places, often reclaimed by segregated and minority groups. They include spaces that are semi-public, conditionally accessible, separated by thresholds and conditioned for a type of public (Figure 3-3). Often these spaces function as traditional public spaces. Crawford (1995), amongst others, considers these spaces as testing grounds for debates about democracy, where public assertions of identity are acted out daily by alternative publics. These types of spaces raise questions about their accessibility to the public, which De Magalhães (2010, p. 559) views not as privatisation, 'but instead [as the] complex redistribution of roles, rights and responsibilities in public space governance to a range of social actors beyond the state'. The people–place relationship in these spaces is formed through

place attachment, place affiliation, place dependence and place identity, which are all subsets of the sense of place (Francis et al. 2012). Classification of new public spaces has arisen primarily through recognition of a changed sense of place, triggered by chance encounters in which a distinction between public and private may be missing.



Figure 3-3: Tonsley Innovation District, Central Forest 4. A 61-hectare site combining research and education institutions, established businesses and start-ups, government departments and housing. The site features several garden areas that are conditionally accessible to the public. (Photo by author 2021)

The consideration of traditional public spaces, public space emerging in the 1960s and new public space has highlighted five overarching public space typologies that offer an enduring structure to the city. These public space typologies are varied and characterised by their form, accessibility (publicness), location and specific use, as discussed in Chapter Two. These five overarching typologies include Plazas & Squares, Parks & Gardens, Streets & Promenades, Waterfronts and Commercial Spaces. The significance of these five typologies in urban form has been apparent since the *agora* in Athens and is continually linked to territorial identity, defence and public life (Curtis et al. 2007). The five typologies are discussed below.

3.2.1 Plazas & Squares

Plazas and squares are not new. They have offered settings for the expression of urban life in European cities since the 12th century (Ortega 2004). Urban plazas and squares, often located centrally and enlivened by the complexities of public life, can be traced to the mediaeval period. Then, cities were increasingly shaped by new political and mercantile drivers whereby territorial identity became a priority, with commercial laws (merchant law) developed in relation to places rather than individuals (Jackson 1987a, 1987c; Ortega 2004). Like the Piazza San Marco in Venice or Siena's Piazza del Campo, the

significance of plazas and squares lies in the way they link mercantile, civic and public realms. They provide amenity, visual interest, recreational opportunities and they promote standards of public behaviour through a positive sense of participation between different genders, ages and races (Cooper Marcus, Francis & Russell 1998). They are used in a wide variety of ways. They serve a social function that is further variegated for different communities and cultures.

J. B. Jackson (1987b, p. 118) disputed any automatic correlation between a public square and a particular community, underscoring how 'slack our current definition of community can be'. He contended that public squares do not automatically make the public aware that they are part of community with responsibilities as a citizen who may participate in public actions. According to Ortega (2004), community behaviour in plazas and squares has changed from active participation to passive spectatorship. Since the early 1990s, the use of plazas and squares has changed further. CABE Space (2004) notes an increase in regeneration, animation and intensive utilisation of squares, with a return to the provision of high-quality retail and cafés around boundaries or incorporated as part of the fabric of the square. This regeneration is linked to use by multiple types of publics, including shoppers, office workers, children and homeless people, who all have different needs.

A current trend in the design of plazas and squares has seen the decrease in the proportion of hardscape and an increase in soft landscaping aligned with advances in urban heat mitigation. This change in design practice is in keeping with the characteristics for a successful plaza, as identified by Gatje (2010) and Hedman and Jaszewski (1984). These include size, shape, continuity, height, configuration, architectural characteristics of the surrounding buildings and sculpture. Successful consideration of these characteristics can be seen in the redevelopment of Piazza Del Campo in Siena (Gatje 2010; Gehl 2010; Hedman & Jaszewski 1984; Project for Public Spaces 2010), Barangaroo in Sydney and Victoria Square/Tarntanyangga in Adelaide (Figure 3-4; Walliss 2012, 2018). The redevelopment of these squares also highlights the design brief from local government, emphasising provisions for open space retail, events and commercial offerings. This emphasis balances the aesthetics of plazas and squares with economic benefit.

The current trend of plaza and squares as major event spaces and as a city-wide marketing tool invites investment from the private sector. The focus on marketing and investment rather than political functions in the public space may be why many authors believe public spaces are in decline.

Plazas and squares are more than a physical space for urban life and they should be considered a setting in which visible roles of the community cannot be

reduced to aesthetics and where individuals reveal their identity as part of a society.

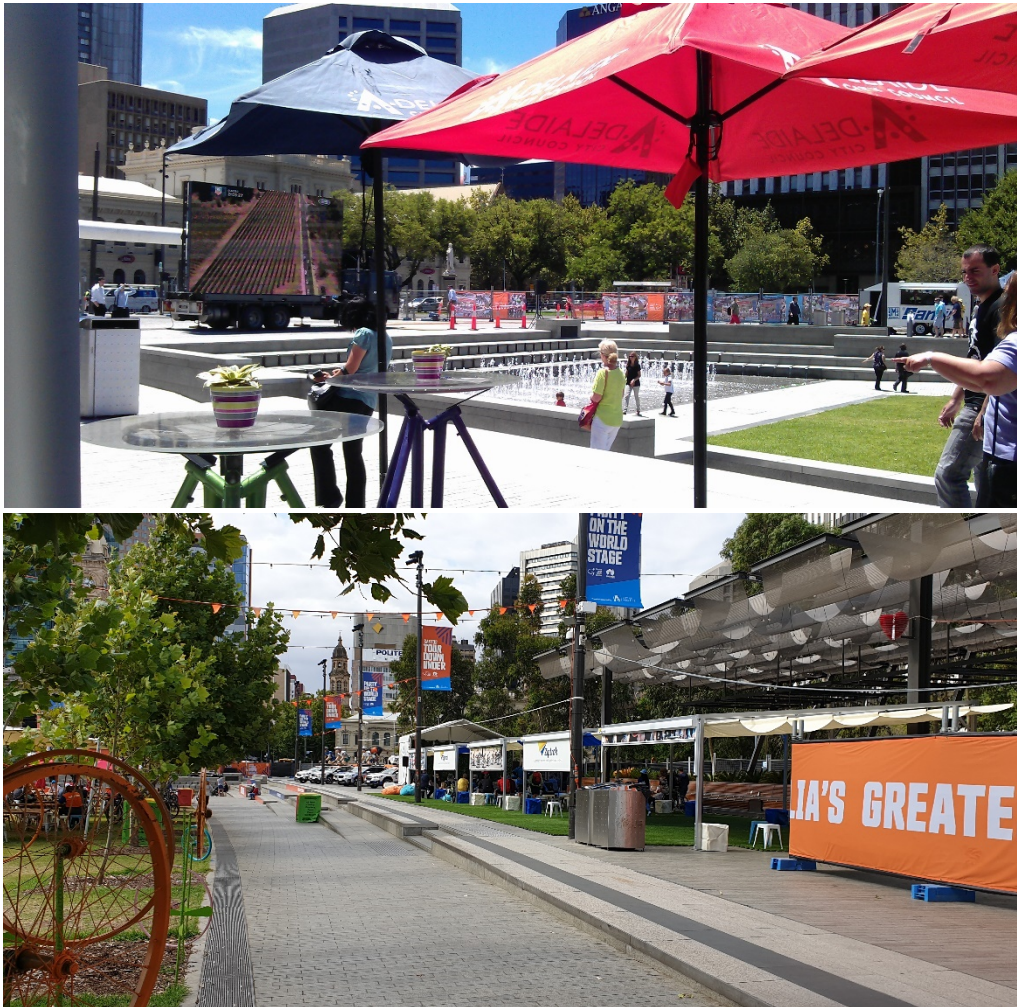


Figure 3-4: Victoria Square/Tarntanyangga, Adelaide, event setup during the Santos Tour Down Under. (Photos by author 2014, 2020)

3.2.2 Parks & Gardens

The prevalent image of parks and gardens stems from 19th century North American and British public spaces such as Olmsted's Central Park in New York, which continues to be celebrated as the epitome of the urban public park (refer Chapter Two). Key to this typology is the separation from the surroundings by fences or streets, rendering the park and garden a distinct space, thought of as a social green realm (Barlow 2001; Jones & Wills 2005; Mehta & Mahato 2020). The difference between parks and gardens lies in the scale, natural characteristics, arrangement of natural features, cultural needs and social structure (Barlow 2001; Olmsted 1997).

The park traditionally reflects the neighbourhood context. To Olmsted, parks were a place where society could be improved. To others, highlighted by Cranz

(1980) and Mehta and Mahato (2020), parks were places to rectify the negative effects of industrialisation and urbanisation in the 19th century. The park was specifically designed for public access as a key component. This is in contrast to gardens, which represent the redevelopment of private spaces for exclusive use (such as sacred sites, hunting parks, royal lodges). The emphasis on public access in parks is differentiated from the exclusivity of gardens since the 5th century sacred grove of Academus, Athens, remodelled by the Greek ruler Cimon, to mediaeval deer parks in Europe (Jones & Wills 2005) or Park Güell in Barcelona, designed by Antonio Gaudí.

The parks soft landscaping (not least, formal and informal planting, including the creation of a wilderness space with sweeping lawns and water features) offered scenic views and amenity in contrast to the built form of the city. The city park provides a green realm for exercise, relaxation, refuge and socialisation where culture and nature collide (Barlow 2001; Jones & Wills 2005; Escobedo, Kroeger & Wagner 2011; Kaplan & Kaplan 1995; Mehta & Mahato 2020). The park traditionally meets the needs of the wider population of the city while the garden, on a smaller scale, tends to cater for individual, private or elite ventures.

The appeal of parks for developers, local government or landscape architects is the potential for urban amenity and outdoor recreation. Use and access to parks and gardens was and still is considered to improve behaviour by providing recreational activities for the public, offering an indicator of the health of the city (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2016; Healthy Parks Healthy People SA 2017 n.d.). However, as discussed by Jones and Wills (2005) and Marne (2001), the provision of activities in parks and gardens also has the potential to segregate class, gender, age and race, creating spaces of marginalisation and exclusion.

Parks and gardens are further compromised by the degree of maintenance they require. For example, a period of neglect (1990 to 2000) due to the cost of maintenance saw the decline of many parks and gardens in the United Kingdom and the United States. With time, such parks can be transformed from spaces of high amenity to places that are avoided. This neglect has seen the rise of corporate sponsors and commercial activities becoming commonplace in many large-scale parks, for instance Millennium Park in Chicago, which received much needed funds to maintain the space. Other new parks require corporate sponsorship and commercial activities for their establishment. Freshkills Park and the Highline, New York (Figure 3-5) are two such parks that would not have existed without the early sponsorship and ongoing support of alliances or benefactors (Freshkills Park Alliance 2021; Friends of the High Line 2021).

Accordingly, parks and gardens in the 21st century are being reinvented. Event spaces, corporate sponsorship and marketing initiatives have resulted in the

overhaul of parks and gardens, which are further enhanced through the introduction of technology to create spaces where artificial interventions collide with culture and nature to attract users.



Figure 3-5: Highline, New York. (Photo courtesy of Matt Gaetjens 2018)

3.2.3 Streets & Promenades

Streets and promenades are less commonly viewed as public space. However, they are increasingly recognised by scholars as important, distinct public spaces in the city with an overt social purpose conducive for public interaction (Amin 2008; Appleyard 1981; Duany, Speck & Lydon 2010; Ehrenfeucht & Loukaitou-Sideris 2010; Engwicht 1999; Friedmann 1987; Gaffikin et al. 2010; Jacobs 1996; Kostof 1992; Marshall 2005; Owens 1993; Pasaogullari & Doratli 2004; Scruton 1984; Talen 2000; Whyte 1988). Streets and promenades are versatile public spaces that arguably engage users more than other types of public spaces because they are navigated by necessity (Figure 3-6). They dictate mobility and the hierarchy of mobility beyond the home; they define movement patterns and direct what users observe and who they interact with by providing a public window onto the surrounding private spaces (Southworth & Owen 1993). They connect the city.



Figure 3-6: Shibuya Crossing in Tokyo, Japan; one of the most identifiable landmarks of the city. (Photo by author 2018)

Streets and promenades accommodate a full range of social activities and these activities directly influence daily experiences of the built environment. They are heavily used spaces that reveal the vitality of the city. Yet, they are often unacknowledged as public spaces because of their transitional nature. This transitional nature often results in streets and promenades becoming potential areas of conflict or struggle because of overlapping uses (Ehrenfeucht & Loukaitou-Sideris 2010). Yet, the link between the public and the city is strongest within streets and promenades because ‘a city can truly be called a city only when its streets belong to the people’ (Friedmann 1987, pp. 136-7).

Since the beginning of urban settlements, streets and promenades have been designed to allow for the dominant form of transport. These thoroughfares were primarily the domain of pedestrians until motorised transport emerged in the 18th century (Crawford 2002; Kostof 1992). Today, streets and promenades allow for gatherings of urban dwellers for socialising, play, recreation, meetings, demonstrations and social change. The importance of streets and promenades is linked to the notion that public spaces imprint a set of values on users (Scruton 1984). Research in Geography has shown that groups of people ‘milling’ on street corners and promenades is a way of physically and psychologically taking control of a particular space, resisting class identity, revealing cultural identity, reinforcing self-perception and revitalising the public domain (Ehrenfeucht & Loukaitou-Sideris 2010; Holden & Iveson 2003; Ware, Bryant & Zannettino 2011). The congestion and continuous activity on

streets and promenades make it harder for them to be 'privately' appropriated, meaning that streets and promenades are not only public spaces but they are a representation of the public and a mediator between private and public realms (Appleyard 1981; Jacobs 1961). They can signal the vitality of a city to residents and visitors, affecting all subsequent experiences.

The definition of streets and promenades as public spaces may be summarised as a form of communication experienced by moving, where the ability of strangers to access each other is not restricted by the private spaces of others (Carmona 2010a; Jackson 1987c; Loukaitou-Sideris & Ehrenfeucht 2009; Matan 2011; Verschaffel 2009). Communication experienced through movement is an ability to read movement and to orientate oneself within economic and social systems. Streets and promenades allow for this without needing to access other spaces removed from workday activities. For Jacobs (1961), streets are public. They offer opportunities for urban dwellers to watch the world. They bring people who do not know each other together. When respect is lacking, streets and promenades become anonymous, impersonal areas of discomfort and unease, creating sites of segregation and racial discrimination.

Streets and promenades, along with the edges of corporate plazas, car parks, mini parks and public housing estates, constitute what Hajer and Reijndorp (2001) and Trancik (1986) refer to as 'lost spaces'. Franck and Stevens (2007) refer to similar areas as 'loose space'. Loukaitou-Sideris (1996) views these as 'cracks in the city'. These public spaces (lost, loose, cracks) have an ability to bring together disparate activities and users in a manner that creates valuable exchanges, connections and behaviours, which, in other circumstances, may be regarded as anti-social. The activities that occur on streets and promenades or the lost, loose, cracks within the city, can offer opportunities for 'leisure, entertainment, self-expression or political expression, reflection and social interaction', activities that are either 'impromptu or planned in advance' (Franck & Stevens 2007, p. 3).

3.2.4 Waterfronts

The decline of industry has led to an increase in available space for new uses in many cities. Spaces that might have been ports, refuse sites, industrial areas, railway yards, highways or other obsolete transport corridors have offered opportunities to re-examine the form and function of public spaces. They also offer opportunities to create bespoke spaces, providing user engagement with the cultural history of a particular site. Waterfronts are a relatively new public space typology with the transformation of industrial and economic sites into multi-use public gathering places in a post-industrial era. This public space typology gives a new dimension to recreational space in the centre of the city

(Gaventa 2006). It places a focus on revitalisation and the economy (Madanipour 2017), providing opportunities to mix urban life with tourism (Gale 2009; Urry 1995). The revitalisation and reconnection to Waterfronts through design, such as the case of Rambla De Mar in Barcelona, Wellington Waterfront Walk in New Zealand and Christopher Columbus Waterfront Park in Boston, can transform a declining area, rebrand the city and create a focal point for new activities and events.



Figure 3-7: Christopher Columbus Waterfront Park in Boston.
(Photo by author 2019)

3.2.5 Commercial public spaces

Commercial public spaces are varied and blur the line between private and public ownership. These spaces are not a result of 20th century planning practices, but rather, they originated from changed property regimes and the codification of vital functions; London's Georgian and Victorian squares are prime examples (De Magalhães 2010). Their ongoing significance and justification as public space relates to the provision of public goods, acting as primary destinations or gathering spaces and allowing for public interaction within a defined arena. The relationship between gathering and interaction is why they are considered places of value and investment by governments and developers (Dark Matter Laboratories 2019; Fraser 2007; Harrison 2009; Madanipour 2017). The role of property regimes, developers, friends' groups, governments and landowners separates commercial public spaces from the typologies discussed above.

Changing property regimes, including those led by investors, transform public space, creating pseudo-private properties zoned as commercial. Public accessibility to these spaces is through highly varied governance models. Key examples include the publicly owned but privately controlled Adelaide Central Market (fruit and vegetable marketplace) in South Australia, (explored later in the thesis), the public land trust-owned, managed and state-sponsored Highline in New York (Figure 3-5) and the state-sponsored, board-managed Adelaide Zoo in South Australia (public attraction, Figure 3-8). All are examples of publicly accessible spaces that provide public goods, social benefits and economic upliftment for their cities.



Figure 3-8: Adelaide Zoo, South Australia, entrance forecourt.
(Photo by author 2021)

Commercial public spaces are in constant flux because of social participation conflicts. The conflicts relate to segregating users from the traditional use of public space as a venue for free speaking and political debate, to one of commercial activities. In these instances, those undertaking political activities are seen as anti-social (refer Chapter Four). The suburban shopping mall is a key example (Mattson 1999), where traditional use is segregated yet viewed as public. The mall is a contemporary iteration of a mediaeval marketplace. Marketplaces' continued significance relates to the relationship between surrounding buildings, location and the cultural use of space (Sitte 1886). Marketplaces, as an example of cultural use, were the first public spaces designed for a specific public with civic authority regulations providing for a defined purpose. They were secular, identified spaces for everyday business, linking early defined public spaces with economics. Congregation of the public was allowed for in marketplaces, but not as an explicit activity against authority. Little has changed with the design and marketing of the mall; they still allow for public interaction within a defined arena and act as primary gathering spaces. Instead of being owned by the city, malls are privately owned, managed and maintained. These spaces do not represent a totality of commercial public space, but they present an emergence of spaces and activities shaped by

contemporary lived experiences, framing a new discourse of commodification, contestation, multiplicity and perceived loss of possibilities. Commodification of public space is further discussed in Chapter Four.

3.3 Summary

To be sure, the old world of public space has not magically returned.

Kazys Varnelis and Anne Friedberg 2008, p. 20.

Existing definitions of public space are often inadequate to clarify what an individual term signifies because of changing contexts and are based on exemplars or typical applications. As such, definitions of public space are often metaphorical, describing a place where some sort of public interaction is practised. Consequently, a definition of public spaces is required that includes the degree of their publicness in relation to surrounding private spaces; for example, homes and offices and public action may take place in private spaces. Sophisticated arguments regarding social construction of boundaries between public and private are directed by a consideration of physical space and the public as two separate elements that shape and structure spaces. Yet, it is often forgotten that typologies of public spaces are as diverse and continually altered in relation to social activity, behaviour, accessibility and governance. This has led to expectations for public space to be the traditional democratic space for all and to act as the stage for events, blurring the distinction between private use and public use. To expand the theoretical debate and to encapsulate the state of play, a new definition of public space has been proposed by this thesis.

Public space comprises social places outside the home and workplace generally accessible by all members of the public, and which allow for interaction and opportunities for contact and proximity.

This definition of public space ignores legal ownership or governance, and focuses on the possibility and occurrence of social activity, exchange and access to space. This definition may suggest new types of spaces. The focus on access rather than ownership opens up the range of spaces that may be or are currently considered public. Public spaces include parks and gardens, streets and promenades, plazas and squares, Waterfronts and commercial spaces. This thesis assesses understandings of public spaces in terms of their performative value and public accessibility (publicness) rather than ownership and governance. The assessment by values and accessibility allows exploration of the notion that landscape architects have a predisposition to design for particular ideals of 'public'. These designs may be responses to institutional briefs, which increasingly serve diverse forms of appropriation of space,

resulting in periods of exclusion. The forthcoming chapter unravels how exclusion is manifested in public space.

Chapter Four

Is it private?



Figure 4-1: Day on the Green, Rochford Wines, Victoria, Australia. Day on the Green is a commercial event which temporarily alters public access (Photo by author 2016)

4.1 Is it private? Is it exclusive?

It is practically a truism to say that the disappearance of civic space is caused by privatization.

Margaret Kohn 2004, p. 4.

Over the past 30 years, in disciplines as diverse as media theory, philosophical anthropology, geography, planning, urban design, urban planning and architectural theory, a persistent narrative has emerged, lamenting the diminishing social life of public space (Gaffikin et al. 2010). Concerns have arisen about the erosion of democratic notions of space as well as a crisis of place identity. These discussions are dominated by narratives of dysfunction, loss, decline, ambiguity, segregation and exclusion, predicated on optimistic ideologies of place. This sense of loss is compounded by concerns about the increasing privatisation of public space. Kurt Iveson, Professor of Urban Geography, argues that ‘the concept of privatisation suggests a past ‘publicness’ is being eroded’ (Iveson 1998, p. 22). Narratives that emphasise privatisation through ownership and commercial use focus on the decline or erosion of public accessibility (Avermaete & Teerds 2007; De Backer et al. 2017; Iveson 1998), offering comparisons with public spaces that are considered successful. A common theme in this literature is the identification of different forms of activation, particularly events and private–social exchange. These can result in periods of public displacement and exclusion, often depicted as privatisation (Figure 4-1 for an event exemplar). This chapter examines these concerns according to specific disciplinary perspectives, drawing attention to clear and recurrent interdisciplinary links.

The chapter introduces the characteristics of successful public space and considers whether compromised public space equates to erosion. The chapter then explores theories decrying the erosion of public space to recognise factors in their production and maintenance. In this exploration of proposals and/or theories to mitigate the erosion of public space, the chapter demonstrates how seemingly benign solutions can become new problems. The chapter then identifies subtle and overt layers of temporary activation (events) that occur as part of everyday life but are often overlooked or misinterpreted as privatisation because they are linked to ownership, management and use.

4.2 What makes a successful public space?

A space that all can enter, however, is a space that each is tempted to abuse.

Robert C. Ellickson 1996, p. 1174.

While Chapter Two reviewed definitions of urban public space, Chapter Three identified different types of urban public space. These reviews revealed shared understandings that public space is (usually) a physical space involving complex reciprocal relationships between users and space. These relationships underpin the significance of public space where social interaction and exchange take place. Robert C. Ellickson, Professor of Property and Urban Law, argues that this accessibility can compromise the success of a public space and flags concerns about potential threats to public space. Cybriwsky (1999), Dempsey (2008), Gehl and Gezőme (2001), Jacobs (1961), Jacobs and Appleyard (1987), Mitchell (1995), Smith (1996), Whyte (1988) and Zukin (1991) argue that access to a city's public spaces determine their success or failure as places to live or work. Central Park in New York and Piazza San Marco in Venice are amongst the most well-known urban public spaces. Cybriwsky (1999, p. 224) argues that the success of these two vastly different public spaces lies in their contribution to each city's quality of urban life. This quality of urban life is the complex relationship between the distinctive attributes of urban environments at different scales and the satisfaction of the residents of a city. The relationship has subjective dimensions and objective realities linked to demographic, social, economic and environmental relationships (Dempsey 2008; Marans 2012).

Urban public spaces are often equipped with a variety of design elements that enable defined activities, encourage preconceived behaviours and influence user experience. The relationship between components, qualities and activities is used to determine the quality of public space and their successful function. There is consensus that the greater the variety of components, perceptual qualities or spaces, the more successful a city's quality of urban life, as demonstrated by Ewing and Handy (2009), Gehl and Svarre (2013) and Matan (2011). Success, according to these authors, is determined by the range of components and perceptual qualities linked to how attractive those spaces are for necessary and optional activities to be undertaken. The components and qualities consistently mentioned by architects, urban designers, environmental psychologists and sociologists are outlined in Table 4-1, Table 4-2 and Table 4-3. The physical form of public space is derived from the relationship between components, perceptual qualities and the activities that occur there (Canter 1977; Charlesworth 2005; Montgomery 1998; Punter 1991; Relph 1976). Whether all these elements are currently used or required for the design of

successful spaces is debatable. The components are not specific to one type of place; they can be present in all types of spaces.

Table 4-1: Successful public space components

| Design elements | Characteristics |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design with a clear design intent • Designed at human scale • Designed for pedestrians, cyclists and cars • Designed to integrate public transit, transit facilities, mixed-use areas, economic and community development areas • Designed with the flexibility of different uses • Designed for visual variety • Designed for prospect and refuge • Designed to combine comfort and aesthetics • Designed with thematic continuity • Design to encourage imagination and play • Design to provide access to food and beverages • Designed to provide public amenities such as bins, shelter, public art, lighting and seating • Designed to be accessible | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Places connected to the wider urban fabric • Places for all, including the rich and the poor • Places that allow for expression of self and users to be involved • Places that can educate users • Places that encourage engagement • Places that encourage imagination and play • Places that welcome all in society • Places where a range of activities occurs at different times of day, week, year • Places where people of different backgrounds interact • Places where people stop • Places where publics stake their territory without bothering the personal safety of others • Places with a sense of place • Places with authenticity and meaning • Places with constant users |

Note: The table compiles characteristics, items and elements considered components of successful public spaces by architects, urban designers, environmental psychologists and sociologists.

Table 4-2: Successful public space perceptual qualities

| Perceptual Qualities | | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
| Adaptability | Distinctiveness | Intricacy | Richness |
| Ambiguity | Diversity | Legibility | <i>Safety</i> |
| <i>Built form scale</i> | Dominance | Linkage | <i>Scale</i> |
| Centrality | Enclosure | Meaning | Sensuousness |
| Clarity | Expectancy | <i>Movement</i> | Singularity |
| Coherence | Focality | Mystery | Spaciousness |
| <i>Colour</i> | Formality | Naturalness | Territoriality |
| Compatibility | Human scale | Novelty | Texture |
| Comfort | Identifiability | Openness | Transparency |
| Complementarity | Imageability | Ornateness | Unity |
| Complexity | Intelligibility | Prospect | Upkeep |
| Continuity | Interest | Refuge | Variety |
| Contrast | Intimacy | Regularity | Visibility |
| Deflection | | Rhythm | Vividness |
| Depth | | | <i>Water</i> |

Source: Adapted from Ewing and Handy (2009). The italics indicate the author's additions.

Table 4-3: Necessary and optional activities that occur in public space

| Necessary | Optional/Recreational Uses |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shopping • Sitting • Standing • Walking • <i>Mobility (inclusive range of movement including those living with a disability)</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Busking</i> • <i>Café sitting</i> • <i>Congregating</i> • <i>Displays of affection</i> • <i>Eating</i> • <i>Exercising</i> • <i>Fishing</i> • <i>Jogging*</i> • <i>Meeting</i> • <i>People watching*</i> • <i>Picnics</i> • <i>Playing (hopping, rolling, dancing, skipping)</i> • <i>Protesting</i> • <i>Reading*</i> • <i>Research</i> • <i>Sitting to enjoy life*</i> • <i>Sleeping</i> • <i>Smoking*</i> • <i>Strolling*</i> • <i>Surveying</i> • <i>Swimming</i> • <i>Talking on the phone*</i> • <i>Walking dogs</i> |

Source: * Adapted from lists provided by Gehl and Svarre (2013) and Matan (2011). The italics indicate the author's additions.

The perceptual qualities in Table 4-2 above present a normative framework for urban design focused on defined physical outcomes. Successful public spaces are also based on the actual experiences of public space, alongside the narrative that precedes them (Carmona 2019). Stephen Carr, Mark Francis, Leanne G. Rivlin and Andrew M. Stone (1992, pp. 85-136), architect/environmental designer, landscape architect, environmental psychologist and open space administrator, consider successful public spaces are based on the provision of five needs:

1. comfort, encompassing safety from harm as well as physical comfort;
2. relaxation, allowing a sense of psychological ease;
3. passive engagement, with the surroundings and other people (people watching);
4. active engagement, which some people seek out, but which is often spontaneous if the situation allows; and
5. discovery, reflecting the desire for variety and new experiences.

Carmona (2015, 2019) defines a new normative of good public space as:

1. evolving (whether formal or informal in nature);
2. diverse (avoiding one-size-fits-all);
3. free (with secure rights and responsibilities);

4. delineated (clearly public in its use);
5. engaging (designing in active uses);
6. meaningful (incorporating notable amenities and features);
7. social (encouraging social engagement);
8. balanced (between traffic and pedestrians);
9. comfortable (feeling safe and relaxing); and
10. robust (adaptable and distinct in the face of change).

Carr et al. (1992) and Carmona (2015, 2019) present an open and flexible reading of successful public space, re-theorising public space discourse in consideration of use and management in local circumstances, rather than a definitive rubric.

The components, qualities, activities, needs and experiences are not reflective of all types of public space. They can also be observed in artificial spaces, which are exclusionary and segregated through the development of branding and labelling. Chinatown in any city is an example of an artificial place or a caricature, which has a formulaic approach. While criticised, such spaces still undergo a detailed and considered design process and are often considered popular, successful spaces. Disneyland (Figure 4-2) is another example of a commercial brand with artificial components, yet it demonstrates many of the attributes listed above. Sircus (2001) argues that Disneyland is successful because of sequential experiences, created by physical forms, storytelling and a sense of place. Ellickson (1996), among other authors, raises concerns about the popularity of such spaces; if private spaces attract greater numbers with successful 'public space' components, then the public will flee urban public spaces. This function of privately owned spaces with public space attributes suggests the need for a re-evaluation of the relationship between successful public space and private ownership. They remind us of Hajer and Reijndorp's (2001) belief that a successful public space is one where exchange is possible and occurs.



Figure 4-2: Tokyo Disneyland entrance plaza. (Photo by author 2012)

Avermaete and Teerds (2007) and Sircus (2001) argue that cities—for instance Paris, Edinburgh and New York—can also become brands through the creation of imagery produced for tourists. Branding results in defined assumptions of how a city should look, feel and be accessed. Raco (1993) links branding to marketing and to commodified public spaces, which can be considered a form of privatisation. The character and form of marketed public spaces create a specific, desirable vision of social life (Cybriwsky 1999; Zukin 1995) and socially beneficial spaces. Such a vision is exploited, if not determined, by urban regeneration to promote familiarity and exclude those who do not conform.

For urban planner Nicola Dempsey (2008), there is currently no empirical evidence linking urban environments to socially beneficial spaces where positive social activity and behaviour occur. For Dempsey, good (successful) urban environments foster social inclusion, socially cohesive behaviour and citizenship, in which the decline of any component can contribute to anti-social behaviour. Graffiti, for instance, is viewed as a physical manifestation of positive social interaction and feelings of place attachment. It can also be represented as territorial, anti-social behaviour. Dempsey maintains that the focus on the quality of urban life and the built environment is increasingly strengthened thanks to government liveability agendas, which are promoted as positive outcomes for all. As early as 1987, Jacobs and Appleyard's *Urban Design Manifesto* proposed that design professionals may be part of the problem by designing for superficial conceptions of place that suit real estate marketing agendas. Jacobs and Appleyard and Dempsey agree that 'high-quality' design does not necessarily mean long-term, high-quality successful public spaces. Again, accessibility, social inclusion and social cohesion emerge as key ingredients for success.

Carmona (2010), Madanipour (2017) and Zukin (in Lee & Bourderonnet 2018) argue that poor management and degraded aesthetics, the decline of physical quality and the rise of a range of varying social, cultural, political and economic activities can establish a vicious cycle of decline. The erosion and decline of the physical quality of a place can compromise its assumed accessibility, often excluding and segregating groups of users, particularly those with physical disabilities, pedestrians with young children in prams, the frail or the elderly. Minor physical barriers can present obstacles resulting in significant psychological barriers, and present further challenges to accessibility. Carmona (2010) labels these spaces 'disabling spaces' and further argues that the diverse ways in which environments can be disabling is rarely appreciated. The design, management and restrictions placed on use and users of public space have as much, or even more bearing on their success.

The following section reviews literature that laments the erosion of public space in relation to these benchmarks of a successful public space before

examining a range of activities, events and examples of private–social exchange, in public, which can impede users’ access to and experiences in urban public space.

4.3 The erosion of public space in theory and practice

Our right to public space has been eroded by structures/systems of authority and control—through a form of territoriality based on unreasonable fear. It might be a good time to loosen the reins a little and for the public to take greater ownership of public space.

Rob O’Flanagan 2014, n.p.

The above statement by journalist Rob O’Flanagan highlights a far-reaching concern that rights to public space have been eroded by structures and systems of authority and control. O’Flanagan’s statement raises two points. First, he identifies the erosion of our (collective/monolithic) right to public space. This section examines such structures and systems of authority and their impact on public space from different disciplinary perspectives. Second, O’Flanagan identifies the need for collective ownership of public space. Following a review of the perceived erosion of public space in theory and practice, this section reviews examples of events and private–social exchange that occur in public and considers their impact on the right to public space, as championed by O’Flanagan and others. These subsequent examples of events and activities do not fit neatly with structures or systems of authority and control. Nevertheless, they do affect access to public space. The question is, to what degree? Do they enable the public to take greater ownership of public space? Considerations about the right to public space and ownership of public space underpin the subsequent chapter, which identifies diverse publics and degrees of accessibility to present a more nuanced spectrum of spaces that belie any polarised representations of public or private space in the city.

O’Flanagan’s statement draws attention to another dimension of public space, when structures or systems of authority compromise access to public space. In addition to the physical parameters of public space and the functions that take place therein, there is also a psychological dimension. Scholars in many disciplines, who are discussed in the following pages, have attributed the erosion of public space to several key factors, including commercialisation or commodification, various forms of ownership and control (overt and hidden), management practices, the homogenisation of design and social behaviour. Factors can be recognised as triggers and evidence of privatisation of public

space, including increased security presence, cameras, anti-homeless devices and overt signage as well as subtle interventions by designers such as the provision of lighting (Figure 4-3).



Figure 4-3: Overt security signage on Hindley Street, Adelaide, informing the public of security presence and site regulations. (Photo by author 2019)

Eurocentric and American theories are dominated by narratives of loss, decline, segregation, exclusion and accessibility. Narratives make reference to historical views of collective life, collective identities, citizenship and democracy, perceived to be threatened by consumerism, the media or political structures. These narratives are often shaped by narrow definitions of public space, disregarding the continual redefinition of public space through active and ongoing contests between different user groups (diverse publics). Urban theorist Mike Davis (1992,1998), American architect Michael Sorkin (1992) and Professor of Sociology Richard Sennett (1977, 1990), among others, lament the loss and debasement of public space, based on nostalgic understandings of public spaces, from the *agora*, early Parisian cafés, New England town squares and Habermas’s bourgeois ideal public sphere, where cohesive public discourse thrived. Some critics consider these traditional views of public space responsible for the simulacrum of contemporary public spaces produced by commercial groups and government agencies (Banerjee 2001; Charlesworth 2005; De Magalhães 2010; Lefort 1988). Crawford (1995, p. 5) suggests that an alternative understanding is required—one of contestation, competing interests and conflicts whereby the expression of public concerns is not simply

a reproduction of existing ideologies. These ideals pose a threat to public space (Bell 1999; Carmona, De Magalhaes & Hammond 2008; De Magalhães 2010; De Magalhães & Carmona 2009; Hajer & Reijndorp 2001; Koolhaas 1995; Koskela & Pain 2000). Taking cues from Crawford (1995), the implications for public space, then, are that the diversity of forms and increased opportunity for activities can stimulate the evolution of new relevant publics and a richer public life.

For academics and critics, threats to public space are multifarious. The result is an identified crisis of place. This crisis, articulated in fields as diverse as media theory, philosophical anthropology, geography, planning, urban design, urban planning and architectural theory, is pervasive in the United States and the United Kingdom (Carmona & De Magalhaes, 2006; De Magalhães 2010). The crisis is linked to a persistent narrative of commercialisation compromising or diminishing the social life of public space (Gaffikin et al. 2010), and noting present concerns that cities are continually renewed with the public gaining increasing economic control as consumers and residents (Holden & Iveson 2003; Madanipour 2017). These studies are dominated by concerns of loss, decline, ambiguity, segregation and exclusion, exacerbating the categories that clearly distinguish between ‘public’ and ‘private’ space.

This next section systematically reviews theories of erosion and practical studies that document the decline of public space. The theories discussed highlight contests between public and private interests and between different users. Diverse publics are discussed later in Chapter Five.

4.3.1 Ownership and control

Ownership—whether a space is owned by a government body (public) or a private individual or corporation (private)—is a consistent parameter in assessments of the publicness of public space. The line between public and private control is increasingly unclear. Urban space that is seemingly public is often privately owned, typically by corporations that allow public access (De Backer et al. 2016; Németh & Schmidt 2011; Madanipour 2017; Zukin in Lee & Bourderonnet 2018; Varna & Tiesdell 2010). The distinction between private and public space is difficult to quantify because of this lack of clarity; there is no physical demarcation between public and private space (Gaffikin et al. 2010) except through signage warning users (Figure 2-4). The criteria of free access (no cost) and lack of discrimination of entrants does not satisfy understandings of all public spaces (Kurniawati 2012). The lack of clarity around a public and private space is of ongoing concern.

The expanding private or semi-private sphere is complicating understandings of space when these spaces are significant private–social arenas (De Backer et al. 2016; Goodsell 2003; Madanipour 2017; Ortega 2004). There is not a simple differentiation between owner and user, but a ‘complex family’ of different users (Weintraub 1997, p. 2). Liberal models of ownership are discussed in many disciplines, including political theory, cultural geography, urban theory, legal theory and philosophy. These models propose an interrelationship between public space and ideals of social liberty and raise questions about whether public and private interests can operate successfully in a combined development. Liberal economic models propose that the public–private distinction is one between administration by the state or by the market economy. This model considers inclusion as granted only if you meet the behavioural ideals and norms of the dominant culture (Staeheli & Thompson, 1997). Neo-liberalism extends this notion, promoting a society based on enterprise and competition that regulates behaviours (Foucault 2008; Hayek 1945; Madanipour 2017), re-envisaging society through an economic lens.



Figure 4-4: Signage displaying ownership of the public plaza at The District, Newquay, Victoria Harbour and Waterfront City, Melbourne, tucked in among the entertainment zone. (Photo by author 2019)

Civic models of ownership distinguish between a restrictive private political community and open public state administration. Feminist perspectives of ownership distinguish between private spaces dominated by the family, interpersonal relationships and public spaces controlled by wider socio-

economic structures. Democratic (American) and Labor (Australia) parties typically emphasise the need for physical public space where tolerance of differences and social justice must be exercised (Mitchell 2003). The Republican (American) and Liberal (Australia) party perspective of ownership similarly considers membership and participation in the public sphere relating to responsible behaviour and assumptions that should not exclude social groups from citizenship or public space (Staeheli & Thompson 1997). As Mitchell (2003) declares, social justice can only exist when all groups (publics) have the right to be in public space.

The models outlined above consider ownership as the determining factor of public access, which is in conflict to the core ideal of public space. The right of access adds confusion to ownership for private spaces that are labelled public in marketing and media or on signage, thereby alluding to right of access and public ownership. In practice users are not aware of ownership arrangements. Restricting access is therefore a diffuse form of overarching control regulating public space function and symbolic purposes (Madanipour 2003).

Different cities, governments and cultures permit and manage the line between private and public ownership and its transparency differently. If ownership is invisible, the public must take cues for appropriate behaviour from others. Private and public uses can overlap. This, of course, is not always the case. The delineation is clear when the activities occurring in a public space are seemingly incompatible with private activities where public access is limited. This is what ultimately matters in defining publicness and what is important for landscape architects and other built environment professionals to assess and respond to in creating spaces that better encourage and serve as many of the public, for as much of the time, as possible in the city. The following chapters review methods to assess spaces and uses and examine the diversity of public users. The following section considers the primary ways that threats to public space have been represented.

4.3.2 Management

The professionalization and compartmentalization of public service delivery structures in general and the lack of a specific focus on public space has meant that public space have been managed by a collection of bodies, often located in separate departments specialized on narrowly defined services, which happen to take place in public space.

Claudio De Magalhães 2010, p. 565.

Public space management practices in city centres changed dramatically in the 1970s with the rise of urban renewal projects, brownfield developments and new developments at strategic commuter rail hubs or transit-oriented developments. This change in management practices was also shaped by the increasing involvement of diverse stakeholders, including representatives from the private sector, government authorities and community groups (Balassiano 2013; De Magalhães 2010; Németh & Schmidt 2011). Changes in management practices have included the establishment of or collaboration between business improvement districts, private finance initiatives, town centre management schemes, management boards, land development trusts and the outsourcing of state-run maintenance to private companies. Each of these have generally been considered to represent increased privatisation in both the design, management and maintenance of public space.

The management of public space presents several challenges, including perceptions of effectiveness and co-ordination. These challenges are linked to competing aims within landscape design and amenity management (Balassiano 2013; Özgüner et al. 2007). The challenges associated with the co-ordination of resources, regulation and maintenance have been deciding factors in determining who is responsible and who is consulted, resulting in management structures that are not uniform across governments and other institutions (Carmona et al. 2006; Dark Matter Laboratories 2019; De Magalhães & Carmona 2006; Madanipour 2017). This is most evident in large, mixed-use developments (Cybriwsky 1999).

Privatisation has a long tradition in the management of public space, with many authors citing the examples of London estates in Bloomsbury and Belgravia in the 18th century, where governments approved privately owned and managed public space to ensure that the quality and value was maintained in times of financial difficulty. The tradition extends to an uneasy relationship between public and private interests in the management of privately owned public domains such as Sydney's New Rouse Hill Town Centre, which is marketed as the 'heart of [the] community' or Adelaide's Plant 4 Bowden, which is marketed as 'celebrating the community'. Changes will continue to develop because of the way in which responses to economic and financial crises within the public sectors (local government) are handled (De Magalhães & Carmona 2006). This is evident in the United Kingdom, as noted by Raco (2003) and Japan, as noted by Sorensen (2002), where governments are increasingly acting as facilitators, not managers, resulting in developers determining control and access to spaces (Figure 4-5). De Magalhães and Carmona (2006) argue that these changes will increase at a greater rate, particularly in the United States. Development in South Australia and the subsequent rise in developer-initiated public spaces further exemplifies the predictions of De Magalhães and Carmona (2006).



Figure 4-5: Tokyo Midtown event celebrating the film release of Godzilla in 2014. Featuring four hectares of open space accessible to the public and marketed as public space, Tokyo Midtown is managed by a subsidiary of Mitsui Fudosan Co Ltd. (Photo courtesy of Motoko Sumitani 2014)

Public sector management (local and state government) is seen by De Backer et al. (2016), Madanipour (2017), Minton (2006) and Murphy (2001) as a reconsideration of how governments and public authorities provide public services and how they counter undesirable activities. Governments become an enabler as opposed to a provider, reflecting a transfer of power to private individuals. Kings Cross Central, London, is one example presented by Minton (2016) that combines corporate and state-controlled areas. It should be noted that corporate control of public space has been challenged by Neo-Situationist Activists, Reclaim the Streets and Space Hijackers, who have used temporary occupations to reclaim public space as space for a more expansive concept of the public. Reclaim the Streets, in particular, is dedicated to the de-commodification and transformation of streets and other public spaces.

Another concern in the public sector is open space funding from the private sector. In this scenario, funding is administered by the state government while the provision of public space is delivered at the level of local government. In these examples, decisions about how the funding is spent is the jurisdiction of state government, not the local government. A prime example is the South Australian Open Space Contribution Scheme, where a mandatory contribution of 'up to 12.5%' of a land division's area and predetermined monetary amounts, are prescribed in the South Australian Development Act 1993.

Changes in the management of public space reflect changing relationships between the private and public sector (government), renewed interest in the quality of public space and a greater appreciation of policy. Management changes are a reflection of the acceptance of broader roles of public space as a global and local means to enable urban regeneration and investment in times of international competition between cities and regions (De Backer et al. 2016; De Magalhães & Carmona 2006; Madanipour 2017). Changes have resulted in a focus on design quality for users to encourage diverse use and 24-hour lifecycles of public space activation. This focus on urban regeneration and the provision of high-quality public space is matched by renewed concerns about accessibility and authenticity of user experience due to management practices, under-management and over-management.

Under-management

If people use space less, then there is less incentive to provide new spaces and maintain existing ones. With a decline in their maintenance and quality, public spaces are less likely to be used, thereby exacerbating the vicious spiral of decline.

Carmona et al. 2003 p. 111.

Carmona, Heath and Tiesdell (2003), and more recently, Dark Matter Laboratories (2019), describe a cycle of decline related to the under-management of public space. This decline is related to the degraded physical features that, in turn, do not invite or even enable ongoing use, resulting in further neglect. Under-management theories discuss the negative consequences of poorly designed or maintained public space. These spaces are linked to environments with negative social behaviours including littering, graffiti and/or vandalism. The loss of public life reducing social interaction and a decline in public health is attributed to poor design performance, resulting in environments that encourage or permit uncivil behaviour, a heightened fear of crime or disadvantage to a community. Concerns about under-management and the physical decline of public space can be traced to the seminal writing of practice-based critics, including planner Jane Jacobs (1961, 1984) and architect Oscar Newman (1973), who championed defensible space theory.

The argument that poor management practices affect how public space is used is not new nor is it limited to current social trends of acceptance of public space. Coleman (1985), Gehl (1996, 2010, 2013), Olmsted (1997), Tibbald (2001) and Whyte (1980, 1988) have similarly argued that use is directly related to quality. Their works are pioneering studies in the fields of planning and architecture and have influenced work in the disciplines of geography, landscape architecture and environmental psychology. The work of political geographers Mitchell and Staeheli (2009), expands on the work of Carmona, Heath and Tiesdell (2003)

who argues that the perceived abandonment, dereliction and poor maintenance of public spaces has led to the appropriation of these spaces by marginalised or undesirable publics, for example, the homeless and youth (skateboarders and teenagers). This scenario is recognised by many researchers, who advocate good design and management to reverse the decline in use or the appropriation of space for undesirable uses. Desimini (2014, p. 33), among others, sees the potential in the abandonment of space, suggesting an opportunistic ground for ‘fruitful operation and reconfiguration of urban landscape’ in which ‘old models of efficiency and construction no longer apply’ and ‘maintenance becomes a tool to shape physical space’ for public use.

Under-management theories lead to practical interventions in the public sector (government) as a direct means of revitalising public space. Concerns about the decline or loss of public life are highlighted to justify the expense of new high-quality open spaces for growing populations, offering further opportunity to improve the health of a community. The South Australian Government’s Demonstration Fund is one such example. The fund committed \$20 million over four years to deliver projects in the Adelaide Park Lands to revitalise the environment and to attract new users, with a secondary aim to exemplify new partnerships and shared stewardship between the State Government, the City of Adelaide Council, inner-city councils and the community. The fund delivered the following projects, managed by the author: the temporary city skate park in King Rodney Park/Ityamai-itpina (Park 15), Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Activity Hub and Dog Park, Josie Agius Park/Wikaparntu Wirra Netball Courts Upgrade (Park 22), Gladys Elphick Park/Narnungga Urban Park (Park 25) and sections of the City Bikeways (Figure 4-6) and other masterplans.



Figure 4-6: City of Adelaide bikeway. (Photo by author 2021)

Over-management theories

Critiques of over-management of public space focus on the perceived erosion of public space resulting from a decline of authenticity or 'placelessness'. Over-management is discussed by architect Michael Sorkin (1992), urban historian M. Christine Boyer (1994), sociologist Sharon Zukin (1995) and urban planners Anastasia Loukaitou-Sideris and Tribid Banerjee (1998), to name a few. They explore over-management in terms of specific, formal, high-profile publicly accessible urban spaces, not least, Times Square in New York City and Millennium Park in Chicago. Such spaces have become increasingly redesigned to serve corporate interests (Listerborn 2005). Raco (2003), among other researchers, discusses over-management in terms of the policing of urban space and the increased security of space. There is further opportunity for research on the management of public spaces designed for ceremony, public events or civic activities, for example, Federation Square, Victoria, or South Bank in Brisbane, Queensland (Figure 4-7).



**Figure 4-7: Artificial beach at South Bank, Brisbane, Queensland. The site is marketed as a cultural destination with 17 hectares of park lands, promenades and event spaces.
(Photo courtesy of Nicole Arbon 2014)**

The main concerns of over-management theories in corporate (private) and government settings are exclusion and segregation. The negative effects of over-management and how over-management appears as an erosion of the quality of public space is discussed primarily in the disciplines of architecture, urban planning and political geography (Boyer 1994; Crawford 1995; Cuthbert 1995; Loukaitou-Sideris & Banerjee 1998; Minton 2006; Sorkin 1992; Zukin 1995). Increased security measures and the redesign of public space can affect the perception of access within these public spaces (Kohn 2004; Low & Smith 2006; Minton 2006; Oc & Tiesdell 1997), resulting in dysfunctional forums of social activity, including empty urban plazas and shopping malls of different size and affluence (Dung 2009; Mitchell & Staeheli, 2006).

Handover or the contracting of public spaces to private management organisations is linked to the closure or policing of functions in public parks and plazas. Corporate interest in business improvement districts is linked to gentrified introverted spaces that de-emphasise the public nature of streets, parks and gardens (Ehrenfeucht & Loukaitou-Sideris 2010; Zukin in Lee & Bourderonnet 2018). Management strategies in business improvement districts introduce plans, controls and policing; these are linked to the creation of 'hot spots' of activity that displace individuals or groups thought to be responsible for social problems, or 'cold spots' that attract the socially excluded (Minton 2006). Such divisions are a form of exclusion where management is actively creating socially polarised urban public spaces.

The erosion of wider public access represents an appropriation of public space by private corporations to foster a perception of security (De Backer et al. 2016; Ellin 1999; Raco 2003). Such appropriation through security measures can be a consequence of decline, prompting the redesign of spaces to attract defined types of use and satisfy the expectations of investors. Critics of this mode of improvement by private corporations or the public sector note that there can be disconnection between the location and existing and new users, compromising any established sense of place.

4.3.3 Over-design and homogenisation

Another dimension of the debate about the erosion of public space is attributed to over-design, resulting in homogenisation and a decline in authenticity. Over-design is linked to globalisation and the development of formulaic criteria deemed responsible for successful public space creation. While often popular and successful, such formulaic responses have the potential to increasingly reduce the number of genuine places and to replace them with caricatures. The loss of genuine places mirrors Wilson's (1995, p. 157) concerns about long-term influences over everyday use, where 'not only is the tourist becoming perhaps the most important kind of inhabitant, but we all become tourists in our own cities'.

Carmona (2015, 2019) links the repetition of formulaic responses to globalisation and a loss of place attachment. He cites the successful regeneration of Baltimore's Inner Harbour as an example of formulaic responses copied around the world for leisure-based public spaces. Formulaic responses result in elements of continuity and character, where cloned elements replace the distinctive qualities of a place to cater for tourists and a wider group of publics. Despite concerns about the loss of distinctive qualities, which are important in public space, they have not, to date, been objectively measured (refer to Chapters Six to Nine for further discussion).

Byers (1998), Doherty et al. (2008), Gaffikin et al. (2010), Johnson and Glover (2013), Smets and Watt (2013), Sorkin (1992), Voyce (2006) and Zhelnina (2011) argue that commercialisation of social life has resulted in partitioned public space, with the creation of 'fake' or anaesthetised spaces that are driven by economic imperatives and the reduction of public space to a generic commodity. Homogenisation is a form of mass consumption of public space, shaped by shared cultural norms that reduce the individuality of that space. The creation of homogenised spaces reveals the often invisible ways in which public space is produced and regulated within cities, reflecting patterns of assigned aesthetics, function and use. The homogenisation of public space reflects the increasing circulation of the aesthetics and structural elements among different cultures, forming shared norms that reduce individuality while increasing collective cultural identities (Frank & Stevens, 2007).

Homogenisation is criticised as providing predictable, generic lures (Varnelis & Freidberg 2008), which are highly visible (Westphal 2004) and superficial. Such places are placeless, yet they still necessitate a considered spatial arrangement and management process. Success is measured by the number of users, the amount of activity in the space and the economic gain (Crang 1998). Carmona (2010) questions this measure of success by returning to the components of place, concluding 'that 'placelessness' is not a product of the lack of activity or carefully considered physical form, but instead an absence of place-derived meaning' (Carmona 2010a p. 140). The outcome of placelessness resulting from homogenisation is the uncritical acceptance and creation of mass-valued spaces. One example is shopping malls, which have dramatically changed the social context of public space (Voyce 2006). Constructed as a predictable controlled environment, there is little engagement with the public because of the standardised inauthentic landscapes that filter desirable publics from the unwanted (Arefi 2004; Carmona 2010a; Gaffikin et al. 2010; Krupa 1993; Raco 2003; Relph 1976; Voyce 2006). The creation of such inauthentic landscapes undermines 'place for both individuals and cultures and the casual replacement of the diverse and significant places of the world with anonymous spaces and exchangeable environments' (Relph 1976, p. 143). These spaces are out of touch with the needs of users and are simplistic representations of generic life-worlds, ignoring temporal, social and individual circumstances. Further, their 'identity is not linked to the idea of belonging to a particular place, but is based upon the ability to buy consumer goods' (Voyce 2006, p. 282) Relph's and Voyce's concern are not shared by all critics.

Architect Jan Sircus (2001) is one critic who considers engagement with place as the measure of success. In this regard, both Sircus (2001) and Zukin (1995) agree that Disneyland (Figure 4-8) represents a significant and successful new form of public space in the late 20th century (refer section 3.1). Disneyland is an example of homogenised space, replicated in seven locations. While

Disneyland does not fit into the traditional context of public space, many authors argue it blurs the line of distinction by appearing to be public by marketing the notion that all are welcome. Those who are welcome enter at the discretion of the owner.



Figure 4-8: Westernland, Tokyo Disneyland, Chiba, Japan. (Photo by author 2013)

Zukin (1995) identifies Disneyland's factors of success as:

- visual inclusiveness, through an aesthetic designed to transcend ethnic, class and regional identities;
- spatial control, through a highly choreographed sequence of spaces, allowing people to watch and be watched and to participate without embarrassment; and
- private management, aimed at controlling fear—no guns, no homeless, no illegal drinking and no drugs—promising to make social diversity less threatening and public space more secure.

The design and management of Disneyland removes risk. The consistency or homogenisation of Disneyland's landscapes and shared spaces transcends language barriers to maintain safe, expected experiences.

4.3.4 Commodification

Space is cut off, separated, enclosed, so that it can be easily controlled and 'protected'. This treatment succeeds in screening the unpleasant realities of everyday life: the poor, the homeless, the mentally ill and the landscapes of fear, neglect and deterioration. In the place of the real city, a hyper-real environment is created, composed by the safe and appealing elements of the real thing, reproduced in miniature or exaggerated versions.

Loukaitou-Sideris and Banerjee 1998, p. 280.

Commercial activities have been part of public spaces since the *agora*, and to some extent, have always restricted the range of other public space uses (Drucker & Gumpert 1998). Since the 1960s, the view of public space as an important commercial commodity has become a concern in many disciplines, including urban design and geography. These disciplines see commodification as the end of traditional public space. The blurring of lines between private ownership and public ownership has been aided by seeing public space as a place of value and investment by governments and developers (Dark Matter Laboratories 2019; Fraser 2007; Harrison 2009; Karrholm 2012; Madanipour 2017). Investing in public space is a lucrative option for business and a means for government to recover costs from the private sector (De Backer et al. 2016; Dark Matter Laboratories 2019; Hajer & Reijndorp 2001; Van Melik et al. 2007). Commodification can result in the sterilisation of urban space and the sanitisation of social space (Cuthbert 1995) in response to downturns of economies, escalating property prices and costs of maintenance in areas under pressure from development.

Increased demands on public space and a perceived requirement to compete with other cities or even other parts of a city, alter public space by prioritising and marketing particular locations at a city-wide level. Outcomes include the creation of hyper-real commodified environments and the phenomenon of 'private–public' places (Smets & Watt 2013). Within private–public places, rights are transferred to corporations. Corporations may have the right to obstruct use, undertake construction and reinstate or remove public space as they see fit. As Graham (2001), Minton (2006) and Walliss (2017b, 2018) note, partnerships and change of ownership are a pervasive form of privatisation in which private owners have the power to restrict access and activities. This form is experienced in commodification of all public space typologies, including streets.

Critics of commodification are concerned with increases of creeping privatisation as a consequence of creating simulated spaces (Boyer 1994; Hajer & Reijndorp, 2001; Harvey 2000; Raco 1993) and with manipulations of space to enable capitalism. A common concern of deliberate commodification of space is the annexing of public space for events. The events of Splash Adelaide provide various examples. They are facilitated by the City of Adelaide and funded by private corporations or community organisations with the aim of bringing more users into the city. The first year's events in 2011 included pop-up bars, road closures and art exhibitions. While there were positive results, with popular general support, critics point to the displacement of everyday users for target demographics. Splash Adelaide created forms of temporary manufactured space at a range of scales and in varied urban contexts, including parks, gardens and streets, with the objective of attracting visitors. The

outcomes of events such as Splash Adelaide are discussed in Chapter Nine and Chapter Ten.



Figure 4-9: Splash Adelaide event, Hindmarsh Square, Adelaide. Events included a pop-up play space and Out of the Zoo Spot the Animals. (Photo by author 2013)

4.4 Events and private - social exchange

The concerns about the erosion of public space in the city, discussed above, reveal a largely polarised view of public and private spaces. Studies in diverse disciplines reveal how changes in ownership, management practices, the homogenisation of public space and the commodification of public space can compromise accessibility and erode the sense of place identity. This review also reveals that a distinction between public and private space is not always clear. The possibility of distinguishing between private or public space is further complicated when one considers the use of public space for specific events like Splash Adelaide, mentioned above, or private–social exchange. The activities may be impromptu (transgressive) or planned (official permission granted or licensed), unfamiliar, regular occurrences or one-off activities. Activities that are not planned, programmed or designed for might also be interpreted as forms of privatisation. These activities raise questions about whether the everyday user is displaced or excluded from the space and does it matter if the distinction between private use and public use is no longer self-evident?

The divide between public and private is complex when considering function and use (De Magalhães 2010; Madanipour 2003, 2017). Authors' approaches to temporary activation and achieving active community centres vary and include focus on building (Geppert 2013; Jodidio 2011; Koolhaas et al. 2008; Scardino, Stern & Webb 2004; Tschumi 2010), planning (Bishop & Williams 2012; Jovis

2007; Oswalt, Overmeyer & Misselwitz 2013; Temel & Haydn 2006; Zander 2008; Ziehl et al. 2012) and representation of experiences (Bauman, Franklin & Biemann 2010; Eberle et al. 2001; Weitzel 2011). Dale Leorke, media studies and urban planner, identifies a phenomenon whereby people reappropriate public space, which 'contradicts the prevailing trends toward the privatisation, commercialization and pervasive surveillance of formerly public spaces' (Leorke 2014, p. 2). At the same time, the appropriation of public space by specific user groups can exclude other users (Talen 2000), thereby representing temporary privatisation through exclusion. In the design disciplines, including urban design, planning, landscape architecture and architecture, public space is considered freely accessible to the public, while private spaces have limited general public access. In disciplines such as sociology and anthropology, the discussion focuses on the body, whereby public space encompasses everything outside of private, individual, family and domestic arenas. These definitions blur the distinction between private and public by emphasising user versus owner and the division of institutions and activities (Clarke 2004). The distinction is further blurred when expected behaviours and social activity of the public occur in the private domain.

Questions around restriction of who and how people access public space are typically discussed as responses to security, aesthetic or social issues. Security issues are overt forms of control, and involve speculations and militarisation in response to events and specific conditions. An example is the overcrowding of Liverpool in the 1860s and early 1870s and its associated negative public health problems (Marne 1991), the September 11, 2001 attacks on the World Trade Center and the Pentagon, the 2017 Bourke Street car attack in Melbourne and the 2017 London Bridge attack. Attacks on the public, such as the September 11, Bourke Street and London Bridge attacks, have a far-reaching impact on security measures globally within the urban environment. These attacks have resulted in a narrow segment of the population controlling positions of economic and political power (Marcuse 2011), design measures and public access to public space. Controls include tactics to oppress and nullify public opinion and liberties in public space, restricting public access and creating barriers. Many tactics are aesthetic in nature and represent subtle design interventions, securing or excluding users through the manipulation of materials. Rights to public space are blurred by new forms of commodified space with homogenised aesthetics. These have been criticised as increasing and promoting social isolation and engendering health and economic problems through the creation of informal, movement-oriented 'loose' space (Carmona 2010a, 2010b; Voyce 2006).

These controls are either physical, such as bollards or fencing (Figure 4-10), or subtle, such as a security guard who might single out one segment of the public and not another (Figure 4-11). For example, Zukin (in Lee & Bourderonnet 2018)

examines alcohol consumption in Bryant Park, New York, comparing the presence of middle-class users consuming alcohol who are ignored, while homeless drinkers are asked to leave. This example raises questions about freedom of use and permissible activities by different user groups. There are many ways different user groups can compromise access to public space for other users. Groups, such as skateboarders or schoolchildren, argumentative elderly men, tai chi groups, meditative yoga clusters or family gatherings, might appropriate public space, making others uncomfortable or unable to use the same space. Wolfe (1997) proposes that members of the public play an important role in determining the publicness of public space in modern urban social life and that the public can self-generate and enforce community ideals on individuals through the pressure of social conformity. The public, as described by Wolfe (1997), controls behaviour through soft sanctions, which are separate from state controls or private controls. Others consider state ownership as a diffuse form of control linked to a perceived, yet essentially false guarantee of open public access supported by local and state governments encouraging events such as yoga in parks, festivals or community-initiated activities such as Splash Adelaide. The notion of ownership or private ownership does not always offer clear guidelines to users, designers or managers about access to public space.



Figure 4-10: Physical controls in Vardon Avenue, Adelaide during the Adelaide Fringe Festival to designate commercial event spaces. (Photo by author 2019)



**Figure 4-11: Private security patrolling Tokyo Midtown, Japan, public plaza and entrance.
(Photo by author 2009)**

It should be noted that Iveson (2007), Jayne, Holloway and Valentine (2006) and Listerborn (2005), among others, argue that public spaces may be becoming more public than ever in an Anglo-Saxon context. The authors cite everyday use of European towns and cities as examples of openness and inclusive public space, arguing that there has never, in fact, been a point in urban history where public space was thoroughly public and open for all or a time when it has not been contested by different social groups with contradictory interests. Lending weight to this argument, Worpole and Knox (2007, p. 4) contend that 'contrary to conventional assumptions, public space in neighbourhoods, towns and cities is not in decline but is instead expanding'. This thesis questions if changes intended to be more inclusive can result in new forms of exclusion, albeit to a different group of publics.

4.5 Summary

I argue that, to remedy injustice in public spaces, planning must be informed by a critical politics of difference, which can distinguish between various kinds of social difference.

Kurt Iveson 2000, p. 219.

If the essential role of public space is to be a place for all and the distinction between private and public is no longer self-evident, there is work to be done

to determine ways to design which embrace uncertainty and nurture new opportunities. Landscape architects and other design professionals who are responsible for the design of public space need tools to identify, qualify, assess and appropriately address the erosion of public space in consistent and comprehensive ways within increasingly and desirably diverse cities.

Discussions that emphasise narratives of erosion focus on the disappearance of physical public space, the decline in quality and the segregation and exclusion resulting from restrictions on use. These critiques are founded on assumptions about successful public spaces, which can be problematic. Yet, contests over public space show that narratives of perceived erosion may be premature and unfounded. Contests are related to regulations placed upon publics to restrict access to public space and to what, who and how public space is controlled. While each narrative is framed by individual disciplines, clear links are evident:

- Successful public space components, qualities, activities, needs and experiences are not reflective of all types of public space;
- There is a polarised representation of public and private spaces, which are frequently presented as mutually exclusive entities;
- Structures or systems of authority compromise access to public space;
- There is disconnect between site improvements and existing and new users, compromising any established sense of place;
- The deliberate commodification of space is the annexing of public space for events; and
- There is no simple demarcation between public and private space.

As geographer Edward Relph (1976) argues, without a comprehensive awareness of place, it is difficult to describe why particular places are special and linked to people's identity and attachment of place. Researchers and practitioners must acknowledge public space has changed, and continues to change in the city. An erosion of public space, whether perceived or actual, is of significance to landscape architects and the role they play in creating and defining public space. An awareness of public space and the extent of any erosion must be understood through assessment of a space, assessment of exclusion and interrogation of who is excluded. In this way, the physical efficacy of how spaces work to provide for a diversity of public uses and publics can be grasped with a view to effective design and management of public space in the future.

This chapter has highlighted that different activities and events (subtle and overt) within public space occur as part of everyday life. They are often overlooked or misinterpreted as privatisation and linked to ownership, management and use. Patterns of inclusion and exclusion can either be maintained or dissolved by structuring interactions through spatial practices

and architectural markers that reinforce or challenge social dynamics and hierarchies. Therefore, privatisation is not always about paying or not paying. Rather it relates to notions of exclusion, marginalisation or a sense of lack of belonging. These patterns demand further interrogation about how the public (the user) is defined, rather than how structures of authority might alienate the public. To do so, Chapter Five presents a new typology of publics and proposes a new set of measures to appreciate degrees of access or degrees of the 'publicness' of public space. These proposed measures suggest that a variety of public spaces is required to fulfil the needs and aspirations of a variety of publics.

Chapter Five

Diverse publics



Figure 5-1: Diverse users, Rundle Street, Adelaide. (Photo by author 2016)

5.1 Degrees of access

The previous image (Figure 5-1) reveals a homeless person occupying a bench on the footpath. A pedestrian walks by. Two Jehovah's Witnesses evangelise their beliefs. The image raises the following questions: *Who belongs to the 'public'? Who has access and who does not? Does public space define what type of public you are?*

This image shows the public is not a monolithic entity. As Iveson (2003, p. 217) argues, a liberal model of inclusive public spaces open to all regardless of status 'reinscribes particular forms of subordination and exclusion'. The definitions of the 'public' and 'public space' presented in the previous chapters highlight the right to access public space and review concerns about the erosion of public space, particularly considering commercial privatisation, events and other types of private use. The same chapters also revealed that distinctions between public and private space are increasingly unclear. This chapter further interrogates the use of contemporary public space in the city and scrutinises different users who comprise 'the public' by considering the varying degrees of access.

The review of literature identifying concerns about the erosion of public space suggests that access to public space is neither universal nor consistent, and representations of the public can be selective. This is discussed in a range of forums, from academia to the media. For example, geographer Pauline Marne (2001) examined two 19th century parks, Sefton and Stanley Parks in Liverpool, drawing parallels with public spaces today. She argued that the emphasis on one user group often undermined or ignored the representation of other users. The trend is ongoing and concern is warranted. In an Australian context, academics from Griffith University Jason Byrne and Neil Sipe (2010) criticise urban consolidation, arguing that the loss of public open space concentrates social disadvantage and undermines social cohesion. The right of access can change as a space is re-evaluated (in socio-cultural or economic terms) and priority is given to one user group over another. For Professor Emeritus of architecture, landscape architecture and environmental planning, Clare Cooper Marcus (1998), many studies that identify a 'user' assume that user to be able-bodied, young and male, further questioning who is included in the concept of the public. Journalist Shannon Conegan argues that 'men are often assumed to have a right to take up public space, while women (especially young women) work within narrower confines. It's an observable trend' (Conegan 2014, n.p.). Journalist Natasha Frost (2014) argues that access to public space may be problematic in low-income or migrant neighbourhoods where government funding is dedicated to conventional (dominant) user groups or traditional recreation activities. These examples, while not exhaustive, point to shared assumptions about the perceived democratic right to access public space. An

emerging and hardly surprising theme is a pervasive inequality—based on gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity, faith, sexuality, age, dis/ability or otherwise—where right of access can be curtailed or denied.

The focus on right of access to public space presents the city as a space of regulated struggles. This right is at once social, political and economic, and subject to normative conceptions of the public. This loss of right of access has been linked to a lack of protection by authorities, and framework for urban policy and design which regulate rights for public access (Nagel 1995; Walliss 2018). Regulated rights of access are summarised by De Magalhães (2010, p. 563) as ‘rules and mechanisms that regulate what restrictions there might be on how individuals access the attributes that they value in a particular public space, be they physical access to the site, the use of a facility, the confirmation of a symbolic function’. De Magalhães and others highlight rules, codes of behaviour or enforcement measures that govern use (Figure 5-2). For geographer Don Mitchell (2003), such enforcement measures can even coincide with aesthetic concerns; by way of example, ‘anti-homeless laws are thus interventions in urban aesthetics, in debates over the look and form of the city’ (Mitchell 2003, p. 186).



Figure 5-2: Keep off the grass, Tokyo Midtown, Japan. (Photo by author 2018)

This thesis maintains that poorly designed public spaces are the result of a poor understanding of the contemporary public. Professor of Planning, Mahyar Arefi (2009), contends that a new way of dissecting publics is required, arguing that multiple territories coincide with multiple publics that can co-exist. This chapter identifies the multiple and diverse publics: the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public.

5.2 Diverse types of public

Who and how publics are categorised has been discussed since the 1880s. Social reformer Charles Booth categorised seven classes of the public in London between 1889 and 1899. The categories were based on a socio-economic mapping exercise that linked these public entities via location and job to the city and excluded gender, sexuality and income (Vaughan et al. 2005). More recently, geographer and urban planner Ted Kilian (1998) categorised three types of public with rights to public space, each with different degrees of access and exclusion. Again, he excluded gender, sexuality and income; rather, his categories are inhabitants, visitors and strangers. Carmona (2010, p. 141) summarises these as follows:

- Inhabitants (the controllers): This is often seen as the state/government but is frequently the private sector, such as a large corporation. Inhabitants have rights to access and exclusion;
- Visitors (the controlled): These are the users of public space, with rights to access for agreed 'purposes' and no rights to exclusion; and
- Strangers (the 'undesirables'): They have no rights to access and are excluded.

This, and many authors' classification of public, is linked to expected social norms within defined typologies of public space (Fraser 1992; Holden & Iveson 2003; Kilian 1998; Mitchell & Staeheli 2009; Squires 2002). If the significance of public space, as shown in previous chapters, is through how publics contest space and who has access rights, a diversity of publics must be much acknowledged. In this regard, De Certeau (1984), Fraser (1992), Frow (1991), Gaffikin et al. (2010), Marne (2001), Miller (2007), Ruppert (2006) and Squires (2002) attest that there is no 'general' public, identifying instead, multiple 'marginal' publics, which is evident in cities with diverse demographic profiles. Multiple publics are considered by theorists to co-exist and are grouped primarily by ethnicity, sexuality or race. With the standpoint of multiple publics, there is an assumption there are counter-publics, a term Squires (2002) credits to Rita Felski.

Counter-publics are considered a group with differential access to resources, who create their parallel spheres through discourse (Fraser 1992; Squires 2002), constructing alternative interpretations of their identities, interests and needs. Iveson (1998) contends that counter-publics are formed in conflicting relationships with the dominant public. The relationship between the two is dependent on the function of the public space within the public sphere (Squires 2002).

This distinction between multiple and counter-publics is linked to a reversal of rights to public space resulting from urban change, including urban redevelopment, gentrification or the demands of global capital, where the right to the city is not guaranteed.

The categories of public presented below offer a means to interpret publics that occupy a public space, resulting in periods of exclusion for other users (publics). The categories are based on social interaction within a public space and not, as acknowledged in section 5.1, ethnicity, gender, sexuality, race or in short, differentiation of one group from the rest, for example, homeless people. This process of differentiation tends to suppress the fact that difference is variegated. The categorisation of diverse publics presented below aims to minimise any focus on group identities. This is in contrast to Asen (2002), Squires (2002) and Young (1997), who argue that such a categorisation restricts the formation or expression of individual identity and can obscure the development of inter- or intra-public discourse. The definitions focus on how members of the 'public' respond to the space and to other publics via political, social, economic and material constraints.

The defined public is one recognised by community, management and legal systems and structures as the primary user of public space. This type of public is influenced primarily by communities and is explored by examining who the defined public is and who the owner is. An appropriating public is recognised by management and the legal system but is contested by communities. The transitory public is accepted by the community, management and legal systems and structures during defined periods of time and under strict observation and administration guidance and management. The illegitimate public is contested by community, management and legal systems and structures, and is predominately not recognised as public. While this group faces challenges of claiming rights over use, reconstructing identities and gaining access, it reminds defined publics of the lack of safety because of their presence.

The typology of publics, presented below, have spatial, material and formal manifestations with quantifiable influences on public space. They are not exclusive, and overlaps occur. There are many publics and counter-publics, and not all have a similar status, marginal position or characteristics. Publics are formed through their use of a space; a single user can easily occupy a different type of public depending on their actions. This chapter proposes a new set of measures to interpret the publicness of public space based on user statistics. These proposed measures speculate that to fulfil the requirements for a variety of publics, a variety of public spaces is required. The chapter then concludes by summarising the findings of Part A.

5.3 The defined public

Who is the subject of public space?

Rosalyn Deutsche 1992, p. 44.

The defined public is a dominant and selected group primarily supported, recognised and influenced by communities, manipulating management and legal structures through ownership. The behaviour of this public is predictable and situated within social and political norms. The defined public has a long history of influencing the city morphology as a dominant group that also determines which other publics access public space or not (Marne 1991).



Figure 5-3: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) defined user group included children and families. (Photo by author 2018)

The defined public exercises ownership over public space through economic contributions or as the 'client' for whom the space is designed. The defined public is not static or fixed, it changes depending on the location and the type of public space. For instance, urban regeneration projects in the United Kingdom between 1980 and 2000, including Reading in Berkshire, focused on attracting investors, middle-class shoppers and visitors through the creation of new consumer spaces (Raco 2003). This clear assumption about who should be attracted to these spaces influenced policies and economic strategies. The regeneration of the public spaces was market-driven and created competition between spaces (Harvey 2000; Raco 2003). Staeheli and Thompson (1997) and more recently, Byrne and Sipe (2010), have noted that the act of defining existing and future users creates tension in public space.

Degrees of stimulation, security and identity have been linked to traits of territorial behaviour. As Lawson (2001, p. 18), argues 'we seek to avoid high levels of uncertainty and change and we require a degree of stability and structure in our lives'. Measures of avoidance are examples of a recognition and arrangement of patterns that influence how individuals orientate themselves in the environments that they inhabit and how they communicate with others (Bell 1999; Quayle & Driessen van der Lieck 1997). Such patterns have an ability to form departure points and initial perceptions of new spaces. Based on an observer's profession and experience, perceptions and behaviour will be different (Kaplan & Kaplan 1989; Özgüner et al. 2007). The public is unlikely to see public space in the same way as a landscape architect or other design professional (Harrison & Burgess 1989; Hayward & Weitzer 1984; Kaplan & Herbert 1987; Özgüner et al. 2007). A user's own experiences act on their individual environmental perception, and past experiences affect future use. This view questions research within landscape architecture and environmental psychology, in which use is seen as a predictable behaviour and therefore, a redundant process.

A balance between continuity and predictability and mystery and complexity is required to maintain user interest in surroundings and to produce social norms. Social norms, as discussed by Lawson (2001), are powerful in creating a sense of security within a group through the development of regulated behaviour. Behaviour is linked to the functionality and purpose of a public space and once developed, can remove the conscious and controlled aspect from behaviour traits. Behaviour of an individual or a group within a given space is a form of communication. Through observations and mapping, the social structures and political environments of a culture can be assessed. Therefore, the use of space should be understood as a communication of public strength or weakness signifying the current social order of urban realms, an area primarily discussed within urban sociology and political geography.

Communication is based on the ability of users to recognise and determine arrangements of patterns to orientate themselves in environments they inhabit, indicating how design influences how an individual can or will communicate. Studies have suggested this outcome is from the ability of any given environment to provide cues for expected behaviour, with user behaviour preconditioned by the placement of furniture, the use of colours, the layout of paths, the amount of lighting or the selection of amenities situated within the landscape. It should be noted that relationships between users and environments are not the same for everyone on the same terms.

Relationships between use and the availability of public space to the public and citizens is important on a number of social levels. Use and availability allow publics to become connected to a place and to display their identity, which

defines how social encounters are stimulated or made accessible. The role of social encounters for publics is an important element of public space, which sociologists, including Lawson (2001) and Lofland (1998), have published in several texts. Lawson (2001, p. 31) states that 'space is effectively an extension of their own behavioural mask', while Lofland (1998) argues that meaningful relationships take place through four types of encounters: fleeting, routinised, quasi-primary and intimate secondary. Encounters can only occur if a connection to a place is established and understood through preconditioning, behavioural traits and past encounters. Encounters establish rules and set behaviour through appearance-based exchanges and non-verbal communication. Group and individual identity are displayed through visibility and awareness of differences and similarities through public interaction.



Figure 5-4: Skateboards, as defined public, when located in temporary city skate park in King Rodney Park/Ityamai-itpina (Park 15) (project and photo by author 2016) and excluded from the defined public on North Terrace, Adelaide. (Photo by author 2013)

The privileging of one user group over another and the impact on the regulations of public space typologies can occur in specific circumstances. For example, skate parks (Woolley 2006) result in the expression of control by

design. Crawford's (1995, pp. 4-9) argument for 'counter-publics' and the struggle over the use of space may in fact shape new political space. Broad exclusions and perceptions of exclusions still dominate perceptions of public space, resulting in homeless people or undesirables quickly being moved on by authorities. Similarly, an individual's behaviour can exclude them from inclusion within the category of the defined public. Riding a skateboard, stepping on a lawn, smoking or lingering for too long in a public place can lead to risk of classification as an undesirable user, excluded from the defined public and no longer accommodated in the space (Figure 5-4). Consequently, what is deemed appropriate behaviour prompts decisions about who is deemed to belong. Accordingly, comprehending the politics of public space is important to determine who the defined public is.

Consideration of territory and of associated territorial controls applying to public space is an important line of investigation because of the distinction of use and related behavioural performances. Planner Sidney N. Brower (1980) argues that this is true for all urban settlements, from villages to cities. The degree of spatial differentiation between territories is hard to characterise. Brower's work states that physical features considered in the context of social relationships are associated with particular types of territorial behaviour and are directly related to behaviour that affects the security and maintenance of a physical environment. This notion has been discussed by anthropologists, urban designers, environmental psychologists and landscape architects since the 1950s. Brower identifies that one territory cannot be clearly distinguished from another on strictly physical grounds, and definitions of human territoriality are based on relationships 'between an individual or group and a particular physical setting, that is characterised by a feeling of possessiveness and by attempts to control the appearance and use of space' (Brower 1980, p. 180).

Selection of territory and territorial controls by an individual plays a significant role in behavioural patterns of the defined public, whether conscious or subconscious. From regulating social interaction and minimising social conflicts, comprehending territoriality gives insights into place-differentiation, which in turn indicates how others are addressed within space and allows different levels of privacy to be obtained. These actions result in behavioural responses that narrow the range of chance encounters, minimise the threat of unregulated interactions and create predictable environments, ensuring one should feel safe and secure.

Brower (1980) acknowledges behaviour related to territoriality is not the only way to regulate social interaction, and a balance between cultural norms and territoriality is required. Brower's notion of culture influencing how people use space signifies that more than one culture should be analysed to interpret public space, and indeed, selected cultures should be socially different in terms

of customs, rituals and protocols. His interest is different to that of other researchers, who focus on particular traits of space or users, for instance, a focus on developed, affluent countries and associated users in public space, or by clear socio-economic or demographic information. Gehl's studies in Italy and Copenhagen from the 1960s indicate that the use of public space is similar in different cultural settings; this viewpoint has been reaffirmed by his continual studies across the globe, which suggest that all publics have basic behavioural patterns in common (Gehl & Svarre 2013).

The frameworks presented above focus predominantly on emotional responses to space and how response affects behaviour. There has been a large amount of research conducted in fields such as environmental criminology, sociology and urban design, linking permanent physical features and environmental measures to increased levels of crime, opportunity to commit crime and space avoidance. While this study is not examining crime directly, key findings and theories from research into the fear of crime are significant and are discussed within this section. These key findings include positions in which 'street crime is an outgrowth of neighbourhood conditions' (Perkins et al., 1993), whereby relationships between aesthetics/appearance and ownership and demographics have been determined to manipulate current and future perceptions of the neighbourhood/space and the resulting negative behaviours or, conversely, a reduction in negative behaviour. Kitchen and Schneider (2007) clearly state this line of reasoning, highlighting that:

a high proportion of crime takes place in particular locations and the characteristics of these locations in terms both of their general settings and their specific attributes influence very considerably the crimes that do (and don't) take place there. (Kitchen & Schneider 2007, p. 1)

Kitchen and Schneider note that this can be challenged by acknowledging that physical spaces may be manipulated on two levels: macro and micro. Once the relationship between intervention techniques and crime is understood in relation to the manipulation of built form on a macro or micro level, the reduction of crime or fear of crime may be determined in terms of public standing and acceptance within space. Gates and Rolfe (1987) further suggest that determining reactions to crime can assist policy makers and planners, once combined with assessing the physical and social structure of a location. Brantingham and Brantingham (1993) reviewed studies linking environmental characteristics to crime, concluding that crime should be considered a transactional and transitional event in which the offender appraises the site before committing the crime.

The projective response—the broken window theory—was introduced by social scientist James Q. Wilson and criminologist George L. Kelling (1982) as a

response to increasing crime rates and anti-social behaviour. Their work changed the fate of American neighbourhoods, in particular New York (Lurie 2019), with graphically documented rates of urban decay resulting from a lack of policing, disorder and crime. The results of their studies state that the failure to repair minor signs of 'quality-of-life crimes' (Harcourt & Ludwig 2006)—such as vandalism or graffiti, and prevention of unwanted social behaviours, such as loitering and drunkenness, in low socio-economic American neighbourhoods—had a direct relationship with rapid decline visually, socially and economically. Not only that, it was 'inextricably linked, in a kind of developmental sequence' (Wilson & Kelling 1982, p.31). Their studies argued that a failure to repair broken windows quickly or to deal promptly with signs of decay can give the impression that no one cares and that there are no informal behavioural controls in place, which can quickly propel an area into decline and violence. Graffiti, vandalism and noise are considered physical and social incivilities within an inner-city landscape (Kuo et al. 1998) and are linked to landscape preference.

While Wilson and Kelling's studies primarily focus on lower socio-economic areas, key data indicate that the Broken Window Theory and behaviour documented as untended could dramatically affect a neighbourhood in a matter of months, transforming it from one that had a sense of community to one that is seen from the outside as inhospitable. The neighbourhood can undergo a shift from one governed by informal controls to one that invites crime. A study by Perkins, Meeks and Taylor (1992) on the physical environment of street blocks presents data, supporting Wilson and Kelling's theory.

The Broken Window Theory views the physical attributes of a setting as triggers for unwanted and unintended behaviours related to defined public morals and ethics. The theory presents an explanation of how a community's interaction with space influences future use, suggesting that a setting communicates behaviour that would be tolerated. For example, an ordered environment signifies that a space is monitored, while a disordered environment signifies that one may engage in criminal behaviour. Critics argue that the theory established a policy of spatial exclusion and social division by policing predominantly black and Hispanic neighbourhoods and cracking down on minor quality-of-life infractions to stem violence (Lurie 2019). The policing used the notion that groups behaving in a given way are disruptive and therefore, unwanted, because their behaviour does not match the dominant community, surroundings or desired character. The Broken Window Theory posits that a community has the ability to communicate a strong message to criminals, that their neighbourhood will not tolerate behaviour below their level of standards by establishing ordered environments. Government advisors, including former CAFE Space (2007) and placemaking advocates such as Katherine Loflin and

Fred Kent from the Project for Public Spaces (PPS), have identified a strong link between community attachment to place and their interaction with place, supporting the theory. Disciplines such as property law approach the Broken Window Theory differently, suggesting that street order or disorder is a result of land management, not crime, and disregard the varying spatiality of the city (Ellickson 1996).

The effectiveness of the Broken Window Theory has been supported by economists Hope Corman and Naci Mocan (2005), leading sociology, law and police studies researchers Wesley Skogan, Robert Sampson, Stephen Raudenbush, Jeffery Fagan. Yet questioned by policy advisors such as Stephen Lurie, and refuted by criminologists such as John Eck and Edward Magurie (2000 in Blumstein, Wallman & Farrington 2006) and political scientist Bernard E. Harcourt and economist Jens Ludwig (2006) and journalist Kevin Flynn (2001). Harcourt and Ludwig's (2006, p. 271) study found that 'existing research does not provide strong support for the broken windows hypothesis—with the possible exception of a 2001 study' by Kelling and Sousa. Those who refute the hypothesis of the Broken Window Theory argue that the theory fails to consider other factors that could lead to the deterioration or improvement of a neighbourhood. Interestingly, social scientist James Q. Wilson also questions the empirical verification of their (Wilson & Kelling's) theory in a 2004 interview, debating whether the theory will or will not reduce crime (Hurley 2004). The negative result of the theory is a demonisation of those who are not the defined public, acting in a socially defined manner; it is also a demonisation of the public space in which the acts take place.

Kitchen and Schneider (2007) define the Defensible Space Theory as place-based crime prevention techniques and day-to-day urban public policy and practice in the United States and the United Kingdom. Developed from Newman's 1960s research on public housing in New York in the United States, the Defensible Space Theory relates to territorial control and territorial influences, including barriers (real or symbolic) and surveillance facilitation. The Defensible Space Theory has influenced public housing in the United States, Belfast in the United Kingdom as well as policy makers in the United States and the United Kingdom. While the theory has been used in reference to a variety of public spaces, critics have considered the theory to work best in residential areas because of the substantial benefits for community design. Initially, the theory was credited as the basis for the establishment of Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED), a multidisciplinary approach that uses design and the management of built and natural environments to reduce crime. However, CPTED was developed independently in a similar period. Kitchen and Schneider (2007) consider the main problem with Defensible Space Theory is the perceived simplistic approach to design-behaviour prescriptions. Brantingham and Brantingham (1993) suggest that Newman's, and

subsequently Coleman's (1985), early work was limited by the number of environmental clues they assessed. Coleman has been credited with reviving Newman's work in the 1980s in Great Britain. With regard to urban design, Gaffikin et al. (2010) suggest that it may not be appropriate in some public spaces to use all aspects of Defensible Space Theory.

The Broken Window Theory and the Defensible Space Theory combine research on physical attributes and subjective perceptions—a model of research that has been discussed as a less common area in the discipline of Environmental Psychology. Perkins et al. (1993) criticise studies that only consider a resident's subjective appraisal of settings, viewing them as biased and inaccurate. Perkins et al. (1993) maintain that to obtain a clear measurement of reality, active and passive elements of a space need to be measured. Similar standpoints have been argued in criminology.

The Social Disorganisation Theory has many similarities with the Broken Window Theory and the Defensible Space Theory. Originally developed in 1942 in the Chicago School, the Social Disorganisation Theory links crime to neighbourhood ecological characteristics and a neighbourhood's capacity to control residents' behaviour (Markowitz et al. 2001). The Social Disorganisation Theory suggests that behaviour is linked to abnormal conditions, social disruption and designed environments. Shaw and McKay (1942) suggest that behaviour reflects individuals' responding to abnormal conditions, including low economic status, ethnic heterogeneity and residential mobility. Kubrin and Weitzer (2003), Markowitz et al. (2001) and Sampson and Raudenbush (2004) expand on this view, including unexpected change, change over time and spatial interdependence. The emphasis on social demographics indicates that the social nature of the neighbourhood is a greater influence on crime levels than the opportunity to commit crime.

Accordingly, designing out crime is considered an effective measure to reduce crime and protect the defined public. A review of the theories presented above suggests active and passive design measures need to consider how to:

- shape the conduct of individuals;
- restrict their ability for deviant action;
- eliminate objects that facilitate crime, for example, climbable elements;
- eliminate blank spaces;
- eliminate dead spaces;
- define clear ownership;
- manage surveillance (camera and people);
- involve the community;
- clearly define public areas;
- incorporate low-level planting;

- eliminate hiding places;
- limit seating; and
- limit length of seats.

These active and passive design measures and physical environmental characteristics act as cues to direct spatial behavioural patterns in a designated area. In criminology studies, environmental characteristics that act as cues to territorial behaviour, anti-social behaviour, lawful behaviour and lawless behaviour are considered subjective perceptions of residents (everyday users) and potential offenders. Perkins et al. (1993) suggest that permanent physical characteristics can act as a deterrent, while there is another layer of ephemeral characteristics that act as symbols of order or disorder.

The discussion of ephemeral characteristics breaks down the binary view and polarisation of public space traditionally presented in criminology. Criminology studies, as shown above, present a view of disorder and crime or control and community. Criminologists Keith Hayward and Elaine Campbell question this position, stating that the binary view portrays public space and urban life as fixed and static, glossing over the political dynamics of 'spatial contestation' played out in urban life (De Backer et al. 2016 p. 209). The binary view results in public space being analysed for its 'parafunctionality'. This creates 'blunt homogeneity' that does not challenge the imposition of 'intrusive surveillance and control features that shape interactions and turn public spaces into 'non places' devoid of social enrichment and cultural specificity' and are critically one-dimensional (Hayward 2016 in De Backer et al. 2016, p. 208).

This suggestion expands on the Broken Window Theory by placing greater emphasis on the perception of the beholder. Considered in relation to territorial behavioural patterns, the role of ephemeral characteristics within public space, such as event staging, marketing, graffiti and temporary urban amenities, may potentially be subject to cultural norms—being a socially accepted behaviour or activity during defined periods and illegitimate during others.

The defined public is itself a threat to public space because of this dominant group's political and social ability to include and exclude other publics that do not behave as they desire. Threats created by this group are not simply a question of accessibility; they are also a question of design and desire to create or modify public spaces that are perceived as safe. Therefore, it can be argued that design is the modification of public space to match the expectations of the defined public (primarily the white middle class) and the creation of socially ordered and controlled public spaces. This is evident in many public spaces that have design elements discouraging use by illegitimate publics, such as the

minimising or eliminating seating, closed edges, spikes and skate deterrents (CABE Space 2007; Cooper Marcus & Francis 1998; Whyte 1980). As noted by Mitchell and Staeheli (2009), the process of creating socially ordered public spaces is seen as a precondition for urban redevelopment or gentrification, and can precipitate the disorder of illegitimate publics or make them invisible. If, as Ellickson (1996 p. 1174) states, ‘to be truly public, a space must be orderly enough to invite the entry of a large majority of those who come to it’, must we only design for the defined publics?

5.4 The appropriating public

Public spaces are appropriated through use and evaluated from first contact in terms of security, belonging and the ability to claim them (Figure 5-5). This ability to claim space by disregarding ownership is undertaken by the appropriating public, that is recognised by management and legal systems but contested by communities. This section explores how the appropriating public, which has the right of use but not ownership, affects the management of spatial and formal manifestations, in this way acknowledging how a society’s experiences and perceptions can be altered by increased knowledge.



Figure 5-5: Busker on Rundle Street as part of the 2020 Adelaide Fringe Festival claims the street for their fringe show. (Photo by author 2020)

De Certeau (1984), Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht (2009), Marne (1991), Mitchell (1995) and Ware et al. (2011) present ‘use’ as an act of claiming or reappropriating a space. Various uses of promenading, public speaking, expressions of dissent, gathering, playing and seating, undertaken on a regular basis by the public, affect the publicness of a space. The act of claiming also determines who the public is. Parades are viewed by Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht (2009, p. 38) as a fleeting encounter (or social relationship)—an

event or a celebration that 'both asserts a group identity and inserts that identity into a greater public'. Such events temporarily redefine publicness, purpose and functionality of public space. These acts of appropriation occur through the process of socialisation linked to cultural perceptions. The process of socialisation is facilitated by the sum of perceptions where the ideas and interests of a dominating group become the accepted norm (Jones 1991) and provide a cultural identity and self-definition through habitation and use of a space (Fyfe 1998). Use defines which encounters can take place and asserts which public has the right of way. Therefore, the meaning of the space is temporarily changed by the dominating public, who can assert power over others, noting that appropriation can be a detriment.

Appropriation of space by user groups can result in the spatial segregation of activities in terms of class, ethnicity, race and age. Labelled as 'parochial' by Lofland (1998) and described as 'fragmented' by Loukaitou-Sideris (1996), spatial segregations are distinct spatial types differentiated by design and user types. These spaces are dominated by one type of occupation, for instance, skate parks, play spaces within schools and car parks. Other users are strangers or guests, depending on how well they fit and are not considered the dominant public. Distinct segregation of users within contemporary public space has resulted in a clearly defined hierarchy of user and activity. Those who do not match the perceived, defined occupation are threats to public order. This has influenced a range of literature discussing the perception of strangers as threats within public space (Loukaitou-Sideris 1996). Lang (1994) and Shonefield (n.d.) link this form of segregation to a decline of environmental accessibility and equity. Ware et al. (2011) suggest that young people's appropriation of space is silenced through subtle political methods. Overseeing children in streets has moved from normal behaviour to children becoming a threat because they challenge a defined cultural order where cars are the dominant public and pedestrians become the stranger. Failure to allow for social integration, safety and freedom of movement, as argued by Carmona (2010), are failures to appropriately manage shared public spaces, allowing for equitable use without minimising or excluding others.

The appropriation of public space by temporary commercial enterprises questions established norms and fulfils traditional square models of public space. Blurring established definitions of public and private in complex and paradoxical ways, street vendors, food trucks and pop-up stands and markets are varied commercial activities that result in conflicting public space usage and public perception. Openly occupying space, these commercial activities are permitted in Adelaide but are illegal in many cities. The City of Adelaide, for instance, provides 52 licenses (under review) per year for food trucks as well as permits for pop-up stands and markets for events (Figure 5-6). All are supported by the City of Adelaide, however, there are strict rules and

regulations about where these vendors may be located to minimise the impact on surrounding businesses and provide economic drivers for the city. Night markets have been established as part of Splash Adelaide to foster and expand the night economy of the city. This style of commercial enterprise demonstrates blending of domestic spheres, private spheres and public space, thereby establishing a complex and diverse economy of micro-commerce, recycling and household production. Conflicts in Adelaide arise from private traders presenting arguments that they lose trade while food trucks are near their premises and from 'NIMBYISM' (Not In My Backyard), with residents and businesses not wanting increased activity near them and escalating their concerns into the political realm. Conflicts move the public realm into the political and economic realm.



Figure 5-6: Food trucks at Victoria Square/Tarntanyangga, Adelaide. Access permitted by the City of Adelaide. (Photo by author 2019)

Appropriation of public space encloses publics within a set of predefined social barriers and conventions devised and set by the dominant public (Lawson 2001). The appropriating public does not have to be a user of public space. Owners and planners can become the appropriating publics through the design process, by changing land use functions without considering how the defined, the illegitimate or the transitory publics currently use the space.

5.5 The transitory public

The importance of public space has been evident in the cultural development of countries and people in their ability to gather, communicate and exchange ideas. Adopting the position that pedestrian activity is conducive to public social interaction, this form of activity demonstrates that social exchange can be physically achieved when the ability to gather is diminished. This ability is

argued to be one of the key survival aspects of humans, dictating how an individual moves through a space and how quickly they become accustomed. Transitory publics are a group with limited short exposure to public space and other publics. They are accepted by community, management and legal systems and structures, under strict observations or guidance. There has been little research on transitory publics and the spatial preferences of this group (Foltête & Piombini 2007). Transitory publics do not have to be users of public space (Figure 5-7). They are bound by the same set of predefined social barriers and conventions devised and set by the dominant public. Transitory publics may be argued to have the same rights as Squires (2002) marginalised groups. Both are commonly denied a public voice and are 'compelled' to follow a perceived public 'transcript' to reinforce cultural norms.



Figure 5-7: Transitory public walking along Rundle Street through temporary outdoor dining as part of the 2020 Adelaide Fringe street closure. (Photo by author 2020)

Lawson (2001, p. 14) suggests that how we communicate through space is linked to how we sense space, move through space and make individual meaning out of space. Therefore, spaces are not only a visual language, but they are also tactile languages, auditory languages and memory languages. It is the connection with space that is important, and not how it is made. Connections are important for transitory publics who experience a public space in moments.

5.6 The illegitimate public

When gay and lesbian activists, pro-life advocates, antiglobalization demonstrators and Southern segregationists are denied places to demonstrate, democracy suffers. When the homeless are denied access to public space, however, their very being is threatened. Lacking private property, existence itself depends on having a right to inhabit the city.

Robert A. Beauregard 2004, p. 427.

Despite growing recognition that attracting young people is key to urban competitiveness, a surprising amount of municipalities still maintain laws that communicate that kids—teenagers mostly—are scary at worst or a nuisance at best.

Angie Schmitt 2015, n.p.

Physically competing disparate activities can co-exist in public space with a high level of public interaction if they are spatially compatible. When activities are incompatible, the opposing activities become responsible for marginalising publics, resulting in the illegitimate typology. The design of public space for one public typology establishes a social norm for exclusion and the definition of illegitimate public. The term 'illegitimate' stems from the fact that this group is oppressed by the defined or the appropriating publics and ignored by the transitory public—rendered invisible and singled out at the same time. The defined and the appropriating publics create the illegitimate public through the dynamic between two social analytical categories of mainstream and marginal groups. This dynamic may be created by gender, culture, language, race, sexual orientation, religion, political affiliation, socio-economic position, class and geographic location (Kurniawati 2012). The illegitimate public refers to anyone who is not deemed acceptable by most other users or the ownership group. Homeless people (Figure 5-8), intoxicated individuals, youth and large groups not participating in community activities are the main subgroups associated with this term. Typically, illegitimate publics are a group or a person who regularly behaves in a public space in a way that annoys or unnerves other users. Ellickson (1996) defines the type as a chronic street nuisance who persists in annoying most other users over a protracted period, which results in a net decrease of use of a particular public space. Interestingly, this review of literature suggests that this annoyance is not limited to one place or one person; it tends to be directed towards behaviour over a protracted period.



Figure 5-8: Blue Tent Village, Ueno Park, Japan. Makeshift tents made of blue tarpaulins and cardboard house hundreds of Japanese homeless people. (Photo by author 2008)

The illegitimate publics are contested by community, management and legal systems and structures and they lack recognition. For illegitimate publics, commodification does not threaten public space; the state and constriction of legal rights does. Legal rights in relation to public space are of particular importance because they mediate the boundaries between free speech and public order. This lack of recognition begs the question about whether public spaces are only available to those with private space.

The definition of public space suggests it must accommodate everyone, including the marginal, forgotten, silent and undesirable (Kurniawati 2012). As stated above by Beauregard (2004), among others, this is not the case. Landscape as an extension of public space is a place of conflict (Hil & Bessant 1999; Jones 1991), resulting from tensions of belonging and control. The inclusion of one group that excludes others in public space is inherently exclusionary, suggesting public space is not public (Fraser 2007).

The design of public space represents societal values that are created through normative landscapes, which often ignore or do not incorporate fringe or unwelcome groups. All users become invisible and different by regulation and design questioning who the public is at any given time. Stakeholders become illegitimate stakeholders when their age and social backgrounds (White 1999) conflict with the ideal of the normative landscape (Figure 5-9). Free access to public space is removed because of stereotypes, preconceived curfews and police presence, prescribing the legitimacy of users and creating an illegitimate public.



Figure 5-9: Older man sitting at the edge of the Tidlangga/Park 9 Playspace. Older men are often viewed with suspicion at play spaces. (Photo by author 2016)

A seemingly neglected aspect of public space is the role it plays as a mediator for the values and ideas of a society (Jones 1991), as a provider of mutual dependence and independence relationships (Hill & Bessant 1999) and in the lives of people who have little recourse to private space who become public in public space (Mitchell 1995). Those without recourse are deemed undesirables, outsiders, marginalised, satellite, disaffected, ethnic, homeless, immigrants, illegal immigrants, individual, poor, anti-social, social pollutants, countercultural groups, threats, deviant youths, troublemakers, unknowns, oppressed, disenfranchised, informal street vendors, street people, different ability people, chronic street nuisances, women, children and elderly, regardless of the activity. These groups often become the forgotten element in public space, yet the benefits of public space and the social inclusion for these groups has been widely documented (for example, Woolley 2006 for children or Marne 2001 for women). The question of rights becomes an issue reflecting the defined publics' fear of the masses, where the masses are the illegitimate publics. Conflicts arise through the illegitimate public expressing itself to broader society through use of space in increasing militarised or policed states and subsequently accused of terrorising, intruding and interrupting public norms with their behaviour. Claims on space by the illegitimate public are a loss of territory (space) by one public or the other (Gaffikin et al. 2010; Mitchell 1995). For an in-depth discussion about the rights of citizens and denizens, refer to Borja (1998) and Staeheli and Thompson (1997).

Conflict over rights to public space is more prevalent in the city because of larger concentrations of visible illegitimate publics (Krupa 1993, see also works by Iveson, Borja, Fraser, Mitchell, Carmona). As noted by Ellickson (1996), among others, a few can disproportionately create an ambience of disorder, suggesting that illegitimate publics are viewed as raising the ambient level of disorder because of the number of other publics affected by the annoyance or behaviour of illegitimate publics.

Unfortunately, the role of public space has been lost in definitions of public space, as shown by how cities and defined publics have responded to illegitimate publics, including homeless people and the youth, among others. Responses are in conflict with politically, socially and culturally ideal public space, represented as open to all social groups, labelling those deemed illegitimate as illegal. Listerborn (2005) questions what is inclusive about public spaces where the illegitimate are forced to work, hang around and sleep (Figure 5-10). Nevertheless, as argued below, there is a distinct difference between the illegitimate and the illegal, with visibility being the key deciding factor.



**Figure 5-10: Belongings of a rough sleeper outside of the City of Adelaide offices.
(Photo by author 2018)**

As stated by Davis (1992), Deutsche (1992), Iveson (2000), Kurniawati (2012), Sorkin (1992) and Staeheli and Thompson (1997), all public space is at some level exclusionary, shaped by struggles played out in space and methods proposed to protect defined users (Mitchell 1995; Mitchell & Staeheli 2009). Davis and Sorkin's argument is reflective of laws governing public space in the United States and the United Kingdom. They maintain that public spaces in these contexts were never open but always highly regulated and exclusionary. Laws from the 1980s, which focus on removing particular publics including homeless people, have made the act of exclusion blatant and clear under the banner of restoring 'quality of life'. Ellickson (1996) notes the unprecedented level of legislative and judicial attention to issues of misbehaviour in public spaces in the United States in the early 1990s, linking this to questions of management of public space and rights of use based on appropriate behaviour as defined by criminal law.

Researchers and critics have used the presence of homeless people and gatherings of youth as evidence of an erosion of public space. Specifically, Mitchell (1995, 2007) and Beauregard (2008, p. 247) state that public space for homeless people is more than 'gaining adherents or influencing public policy'; denied access means the homeless are nowhere because of missing private alternatives. Kurniawati (2012) counters this argument by questioning how to design for marginalised people to create a true public space. Referring to the homeless and youth as evidence, several studies identify these publics as undesirables, which is itself a threat to the public nature of public space. Conflicts between publics arise when defined publics becoming uncomfortable with the illegitimate public violating established social norms; the case of the homeless is thus presented with a lack of compassion or opportunity available in the country. Beauregard (2008) proposes that efforts to enable the homeless

to occupy public space challenges society's tolerance for difference and drives the defined public to its limits. Beauregard could have switched the homeless for youths, drunks, smokers, women, children, different races or buskers to support the same argument.

Trends of use present implicit and explicit rules that guide and affect all public behaviour, mannerisms and the separation of public and private spheres. These trends are noted by authors, including Nasar and Fisher (1993) and Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht (2009), as becoming obvious once violated. Table 5-1 breaks down potential activities that are undesirable once undertaken by particular publics.

Ellickson (1996) notes that the magnitude of undesirable activities is based on the perceived location options available to those undertaking the activities. If other options are available, the likelihood of potential activities becoming undesirable once undertaken by select publics increases. Graffiti, vandalism and noise are considered physical and social incivilities within the inner-city landscape (Kuo et al. 1998) and they are linked to landscape preference. Nasar and Fisher's (1993) study on hot spots of fear and crime notes a link between fear of disorder and victimisation; this link has a social perspective in which incivilities, public drunkenness, loitering teens, drug addicts, prostitution, gangs and homeless people are the main features, with or without socio-demographic factors controlled at the micro level.

Gaffikin et al. (2010) suggests that this results from the assertion of one identity over another through urban design and defensive architecture. The fear of victimisation creates conditions of wariness, changing the act of approaching a stranger into a heightened anxiety event assuming potential social behaviour linked to those considered illegitimate by others. The result of focusing on a social perspective is a concentration on physical cues, which are site-specific, controlled and planned to remove the illegitimate public. Examples include skate deterrents and arm rests on benches in public plazas. Nasar and Fisher (1993) note that this approach may create more problems than it solves.

Exclusion and inclusion of people within public space may be linked to the segregation and fragmentation of the public space—a condition Loukaitou-Sideris (1996, p. 1) states is:

accompanied by fear, suspicion, tension and conflict between different social groups. This fear results in the spatial segregation of activities in terms of class, ethnicity, race, age, type of occupation and the designation of certain locales that are only appropriate for certain persons and uses.

Table 5-1: List of necessary and optional activities that occur in public space, identifying which publics undertake the activities and which are seen to be desirable or undesirable

| Activities | | Publics | | | |
|------------|---|----------------|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| Desirable | Undesirable | Defined Public | Appropriating Public | Transitory Public | Illegitimate Public |
| | <i>Selling goods</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Labour (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Walking (N) (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Standing (N) (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Sitting (N) (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Playing (N) (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Strolling (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Shopping (N)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Jogging (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Graffiti (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Reading (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>People watching (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Talking on the phone (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Smoking (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Busking (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Eating (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Meeting (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Congregating (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Exercising (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Protesting (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Surveying (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Research (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Picnics (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Displays of affection (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Sleeping (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Skateboarding (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Street prostitution (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Street performance (D)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Drinking (alcohol) (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Religious meetings (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Playing (D) (includes hopping, rolling, crawling, dancing, skipping)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Café sitting (S)</i> | | | | |
| | <i>Affection (S)</i> | | | | |

Source: Adapted from lists provided by Gehl and Svarre (2013) and Matan (2011). Italics indicate author's additions.

(N) Indicates necessary activities. Additions by author

(D) Indicates dynamic activities. Additions by author

(S) Indicates static activities. Additions by author

Exclusions based on fear are intangible threats to public space that create tension in three distinct circumstances, which all have the same outcome:

- 1) Inability to consume: Results in teenagers, the poor and homeless people seen as conflicts e.g. those who appear they cannot afford to be in the place.
- 2) Anti-social pastimes: Results in teenagers and homeless people seen as conflicts e.g. those undertaking activities not considered the social norm. Within consumer public spaces those undertaking political debate are also seen as anti-social.
- 3) Crime and illegal activities: Results in teenagers and homeless people seen as conflicts e.g. those undertaking activities are regulated against.

Inability to consume is a form of socio-economic exclusion (Iveson 2000; Sibley 1995; White 1998) where public space access is limited to those who can pay directly or indirectly for it. Socio-economic exclusion may be explicit, for instance, with the need for entry fees. Portions of railway stations, airports and bus stations grant access only to those who buy tickets. Indirect economic exclusions operate through visual clues, which establish specifications for entry. The clues communicate who may enter and what the costs are. Carmona (2010) offers the example of shopping arcades of expensive stores. This space typology outwardly welcomes all who can consume by providing many clues as to how acceptable people should dress and appear.

The link between economics and public space should be considered in terms of reinforcing existing patterns of segregation that create economic illegitimate publics and spaces of tension (Fraser 1997; Iveson 2000; Kohn 2004; Van Den Berg et al. 2006). Tension is created in public spaces when social interaction and participation are based on consumption. The implicit rule of consumption conflicts with notions that public spaces are free and accessible to all at no cost.

Youth relate to space differently than adults (Hart 1979; Laughlin & Johnson 2011; Tunstall et al. 2004). This highlights a gap in designing socially accepted uses for public spaces that are also equitable spaces. The gap is viewed by Laughlin and Johnson (2011) as the omission of the young public's identity, which is recognised as a shortcoming of design (Korpela et al. 2001). Questioning or overlooking the presence of youth in public spaces casts doubt on their identity and value in the wider community.

Carmona, Loukaitou-Sideris, Tuan and Johns (2001) acknowledge that many conflicts are unsubstantiated. There are some signs and consequences of youth occupation of public space on their terms, such as skateboarding, which results in damage to street furniture. The balance between positively designing for and managing activities of marginalised groups is a fine line that needs to be considered in terms of location and a group's specific needs. The balance

results in dominant users of public space being denied degrees of access, regardless of best intentions. Regarding youth, Malone (2002, p. 165) argues that 'skate ramps and other youth-specific spaces on the margins of city centres are less than appealing places for young people (especially for young women)'. Users of such places desire a public space with 'social integration, safety and freedom of movement' (Malone 2002 p. 165). The notion of skateboarding as an anti-social activity is questioned by social and environmental commentators. Abubaker (2014) argues that skateboarding in developing or war-torn countries can help build a community through offering visible, fast and affordable modes of transport to youth, while providing much needed gathering places.

Ellickson (1996) controversially argues that designing to accommodate those undertaking minority or conventionally undesirable activities considered anti-social in one location can result in an increase of other users rather than them fleeing to segregated and dispersed privatised spaces. This is an argument that Kohn (2004) suggests already happens in cities where areas tolerate 'undesirable' activities.

Loukaitou-Sideris and Ehrenfeucht (2009) note that different typologies of public space allow for different behaviours and tolerances of transgressive acts because of the types of encounters they cater for. Footpaths, for instance, are primarily dominated by fleeting encounters; therefore, interaction tends to be anonymous, resulting in higher tolerance of broken rules. Because of this tolerance and anonymity, footpaths have added pressure for acting as temporary zones of public expression and spaces of political protests and micro-politics for the oppressed, giving the group greater freedom. These rules may be broken to challenge unjust norms or be a playful way of redefining publicness. All forms of use result in exclusion and labelling of illegitimate publics, whether intentional or unexpected. Fyfe (1998), for instance, considers footpaths as places of domination by one group and resistance by others.

Homeless people challenge the concept of public more than any others. The term is seen by Crawford (1995) and others as a means and a method of segregating a group from a larger collective by collapsing life situations into a generic term of reference. For homeless people, minimal boundaries exist between their public, domestic and economic spheres, with private use of public spaces testing democratic perceptions of public space and perhaps, as Crawford states, the determination of citizenship as removal of homeless people from public space removes their public rights.

Research on the role of youth in contested public space has a long tradition, showing how subcultures of youth have been considered a threat throughout the 20th century (Hil & Bessant 1999). These subcultures include bodgies, widgies, mods and punks from the later part of the 20th century to

skateboarders in the 21st century. Interestingly the threats of these subcultures have remained the same and are related to perceptions of impeding commercial transactions, high levels and visibility of crime (Hil & Bessant 1999; White 1999). Highly visible threats are perceived as a concern for the design of public space given that the three concerns commonly discussed in literature of lingering, hanging around and congregating are three indicators of successful public space referenced in urban design literature.

The establishment of laws and regulations aimed at removing the illegitimate public from public spaces are considered by Miller (2007) and Mitchell (2003) as interventions in urban aesthetics. The redesign and selection of materials for new publics results in space explicitly designed to repel and discourage an illegitimate public through changing sensory experiences and limiting the perception of who can use it (Miller, 2007). Methods and measures are similar throughout Japan, the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia.

Standard methods used to remove or discourage perceived illegitimate individuals or groups include:

- skateboard deterrents, a simple measure used to prevent grinding of edges of seats and walls and to prevent people from sleeping;
- increased security to move people along;
- limiting the length of benches, and the use of armrests and backrests to discourage sleeping;
- removal of benches;
- spikes on building ledges and window ledges;
- public parks closing between set times, creating a condition of trespass after hours;
- busking activities requiring a permit;
- public toilets locked at set times to prevent rough sleepers and other users occupying them after hours;
- signage to ban camping; and
- vegetation mixes regulated to minimise heights and densities that would allow for concealment.

Methods used in Adelaide include:

- skateboard deterrents, a simple measure used to prevent grinding of edges of seats and walls and to prevent people from sleeping;
- removal of rain prevention shelters in Park Lands or the inclusion of bright LED lights to discourage people sleeping;
- limiting the length of benches, and the use of armrests and backrests to discourage sleeping;
- removal of benches;
- programming of sprinklers at night;

- public parks closing between set times, creating a condition of trespass after hours;
- busking activities requiring a permit;
- public toilets locked at set times to prevent rough sleepers occupying them after hours;
- signage to ban camping in Park Lands; and
- vegetation mixes regulated to minimise heights and densities that would allow for concealment.



Figure 5-11: Example of methods used to remove or discourage perceived illegitimate individuals or groups. Top: Example of skateboard deterrents, North Terrace, Adelaide. Bottom: Example of LED lights to discourage people sleeping, Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama (Park 26)). (Photo by author 2019)

Each method redefines the nature of public space, questions the social health of the public space and is targeted at a group of people who need it. Illegitimate publics become visible as publics once there is an increased interaction of publics in marginal and dominant public spaces. They ‘test the reactions of wider publics by stating previously hidden opinions’ (Squires 2002, p. 460). The illegitimate public may displace others by their presence, thereby creating further groups of illegitimate publics.

5.7 Measures of public accessibility

We are not passive observers of the world around us but active predictors of it.

Bryan Lawson 2001, p. 43.

Whether conceived as a stage or to present the power and wealth of cities, public spaces are those that become part of their communities and allow for new uses to develop. As shown in previous chapters, there are many considerations when determining the publicness of public space. These considerations include legal ownership, management and use, which are continually redefined through lived experiences inseparable from space (Lawson 2001). Experience includes stimulation, security and identity, all of which have been linked to territorial behavioural traits dependent on time, personality and situation. Publics (users) need continuity, predictability, mystery and complexity to maintain interest in their surroundings and to produce social norms. Social norms are extremely powerful in creating a sense of security or awareness in a group (typology of publics) through development of regulated behaviour.

The challenge of publicness within public space is the link between public interest and the typology of publics discussed above. Recognition of the diversity of types of publics indicates sensitivity to cultural norms and opens dialogues to distinguish amongst different forms of publics, their activities and public space. The diversity and difference of publics presented above is not just the identification or labelling of multiple and counter-publics. Diversity and difference must be considered important and necessary to produce multiple sites of public expression since they create public roles in contemporary urban society. By recognising how the use of public space continually redefines public, and how public interactions can restructure urban space, the importance of settings becomes evident. Understanding how space is actively used and who uses it is fundamental to the design of public spaces.

This challenge lies in how to measure degrees of publicness. Typically, the publicness of a place has been researched through deductive (interpretivist) or inductive (critical realist) approaches dependent on descriptive case studies. Ownership, management and use are consistently the core components assessed. These components are defined as:

- Ownership, which refers to whether a space is owned by a government body (public) or a private individual or corporation (private);
- Management, which refers to regulation, policy and signage to control or prohibit user behaviour. Management and ownership are linked through the operation of a space; and

- Use, which refers to behaviour. Use is interpreted quantitatively by the diversity of uses of the space and qualitatively by the behaviours of the users.

Van Melik et al. (2007), Németh and Schmidt (2011) and Varna and Tiesdell (2010) have developed methods to analyse the publicness of public space based on the measures of ownership, management and use. The method of Van Melik et al. (2007) identifies quantifiable and observable dimensions to analyse the social dynamics manifested in public space. The method uses qualitative descriptions to create quantified diagrams exploring three dimensions related to secured public space and three dimensions related to themed public space (refer Figure 5-12). The method uses scaling techniques to determine how the dimensions overlap and thereby determine how public a public space is. In their method, 'secured' relates to ownership and management while 'themed' relates to use.

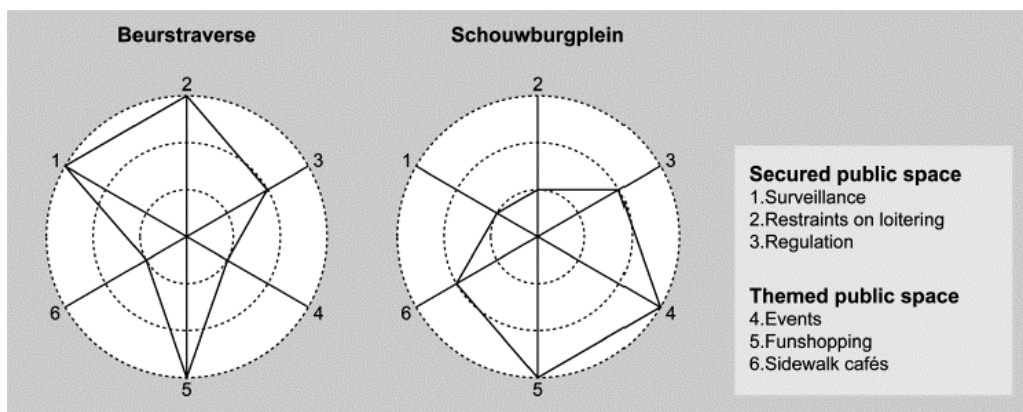


Figure 5-12: Profiles of two public places (Beurstraverse and Schouwburgplein) as secured (upper half) or themed (lower half) public space. Source: Van Melik et al. 2007, p. 37

The model proposed by Németh and Schmidt (2011) conceptualises publicness to empirically determine whether privately owned public spaces are more controlled than publicly owned spaces. In this tri-axial model, publicness is assessed on three core components, these being ownership, management and uses/users. The axes intersect mid-way along a continuum from more to less public (Figure 5-13).

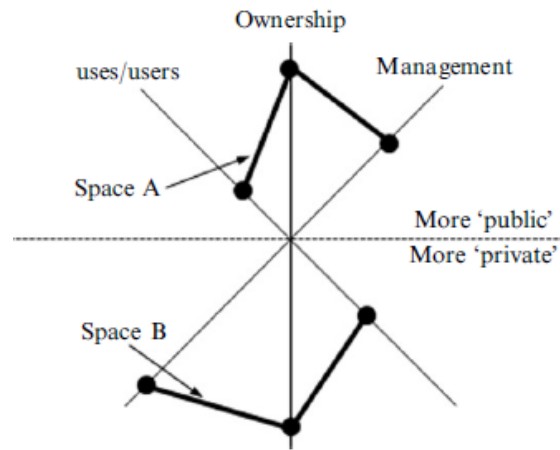


Figure 5-13: Németh and Schmidt's tri-axial model. Source: Németh & Schmidt 2011, p. 12

The star model proposed by Varna and Tiesdell (2010) builds on the two methods above, and presents a model of and method for, benchmarking the publicness of space. The Star Model treats publicness as a multi-dimensional concept, identifying and discussing five meta dimensions—ownership, control (management), civility (use), physical configuration and animation (use). Publicness is derived from the interaction between the different dimensions through pictorial representation of a place (Figure 5-14). The model does not consider site elements, surfaces or conditions.

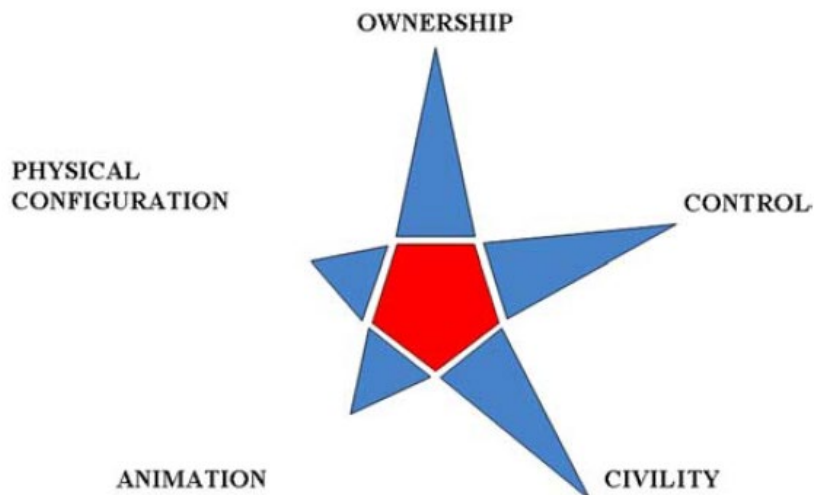


Figure 5-14: Varna and Tiesdell (2010) star model's hypothetical public place, scoring higher on 'management' criteria. Source: Varna & Tiesdell 2010, p. 594

Each tool succeeds in allowing comparisons between public spaces, examining the relationship between ownership and management and providing a high-level analysis of publicness. The models indicate that it is almost impossible to develop a concise linear notion of publicness (or privateness), from complete public to complete private space. The weakness of all three models is the lack of critical examination of the user; the *who*.

If, as stated in Chapter Three, the definition of public space includes *social places outside the home and workplace, which are generally accessible by members of the public and which allow for interaction and opportunities for contact and proximity*, and if, as stated above, *there are multiple typologies of public*, then a set of new measures of public space is required, focusing on the user. Strengthening this proposition is Németh and Schmidt's (2011, p. 9) view that the 'appropriate or desirable public for any given space is contingent on users, owners and managers acting as conscious agents'; within this view, agents are users and 'any assessment of publicness must always ask to whom a space or set of spaces might be more or less public'. The role of the user is continually the focus of questions of publicness or privateness.

This thesis proposes a new set of seven measures for public accessibility (publicness) of public space linked to user statistics. The measures chosen to determine how public a public space is are:

1. user number
2. user age
3. typology of publics
4. gender
5. individual or group presence
6. interaction between users
7. length of stay.

These measures of public accessibility (publicness) identify the temporal nature of public space and the user statistics that are common within all typologies of public space presented in Chapter Three. The measures are consistent and determine the degree of publicness of each public space typology. Recognition of the measures indicates sensitivity to cultural norms, opens dialogues to distinguish amongst forms of publics and their activities and reflects public space typologies in the 21st century.

These measures put aside the ambiguity of public space and racial restrictions (Mitchell 1996; Ruddick 1996), meaning (Sorkin 1992), the use of 'citizenship' to gain access (Staehele & Thompson 1997) and other socially imposed factors (Talen 2000) to undertake systematic observations to assess who is using public space, if interaction between groups occurs and how long activities and behaviours occur. These proposed measures go beyond ownership, management and use and consider *who* is using public space. The next question becomes how to collect the data of the proposed measures.

5.8 Summary: A diversity of spaces and a typology of publics

To interrogate *how public is public space*, Part A methodically examined the definition of public space (Chapter Three), narratives of erosion (Chapter Four) and diversity of publics (Chapter Five), and in doing so, offers a counterpart to the majority voice presenting an erosion of public space. This counterpart—tested in Part B—draws on interdisciplinary perspectives to explore the complex interrelationship between the public (users of space), events (both a form of limiting access and a means to increase access) and the expected performance of public space (provider of social interaction or exchange) to present a diversity of public spaces.

Part A found that the notion of public space as a democratic ideal—as a space open and free for all to use—is continually discussed, expected and not guaranteed. The ideal presents a distorted reading of public space, discounting the varying degrees of legal ownership, governance and activation or the changing political, social and cultural nature of public spaces. The democratic ideal is why space is being challenged, why people are being excluded or included and why the future of public space is lamented. This version of democratic public space assumes a thin unproblematic concept of both ‘democracy’ and ‘space’.

To expand the theoretical debate and to encapsulate the state of play, a new definition of public space is being proposed in this thesis.

Public space comprises social places outside the home and workplace, which are generally accessible by members of the public and which allow for interaction and opportunities for contact and proximity.

This definition ignores legal ownership and focuses on the value of publicly accessible space to foster social activity and exchange. Emphasis on the diversity of *use*, not legal ownership, changes the definition of public space to include private spaces that offer public access and social exchange. In this scenario, the distinction between private and public is shaped by the publics that should be observed by landscape architects, and not controlled.

To examine the distinction between private and public further, the thesis highlighted five overarching public space typologies that offer an enduring structure to the city. These five typologies include plazas and squares, parks and gardens, streets and promenades, Waterfronts and commercial spaces. The significance of these typologies in urban form has been apparent since the

agora in Athens and is continually linked to territorial identity, defence and public life (Curtis et al. 2007).

In response to the diversity of the public and to acknowledge this diversity, Part A presented a typology of publics—the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public. Recognition of a typology of publics indicates sensitivity to cultural norms and highlights that different publics have different relationships to place.

Part A has argued that the public space and the public are not monolithic entities, easily defined or static. Publicness and degrees of access to public spaces are constantly changing as users reorganise and reinterpret physical space. Landscape architects, as designers of public space, need to consider more than private or public use and the defined publics as occupiers of public space. Diversity should be highlighted and explored as the act of labelling can exclude.

To assist landscape architects to negotiate the diversity of publicness, Part B further explores public to private and the integration of social exchange specifically in relation to events. The new definition of public space and proposed typology of publics is tested. To address the erosion of public space, current assessment methods, techniques and tools are reassessed to measure temporary environments and to analyse the publicness of public space where the public becomes the determining factor, rather than legal ownership and governance.

The review of current assessment methods, techniques and tools is followed by the presentation and application of the Design Assessment Framework developed as part of this thesis to assess the publicness of space. The framework provides a methodology through which public space can be robustly assessed, to allow practical implementation of the concepts positioning landscape architects in a pivotal role to influence effective design.

Part B

Public space analysis and assessment

Figure B-1: Public space analysis with experts in planning, landscape architecture and placemaking, Adelaide CBD.
(Photo by author 2014)



Because inclusion is the name of the game, because health and safety hold such sway, because we live in a contentious society and, as the Japanese say, 'they hammer down the nail that sticks out', it is bloody hard to realize anything of quality in the public realm. This is bad for the public.

Charles Jencks in Gaventa 2006, p. 9.

Inclusion is fundamental to the notion of public space. As examined in Part A—and succinctly stated by Charles Jencks—inclusion is a fundamental design problem stemming from the lack of recognition that there is a diversity of publics and temporary events, which have definable influences on public space. Part B further challenges the definitions, inclusion and publicness of public space by reviewing and testing how public spaces are assessed. Chapter Six examines analytical methods, techniques and tools developed since the 1960s, presenting a review of approaches commonly used by landscape architects. The approaches represent a range of theoretical proposals to practical applications.

To address the publicness of public space, current methods, techniques and tools are reassessed to measure temporary environments. Performative value is key to this analysis, and is used throughout Part B as the determining factor of publicness rather than ownership and governance. An assessment of the performative value explores the notion that landscape architects have a predisposition to design for particular ideals of 'public' in response to institutional briefs resulting in simultaneous periods of exclusion and inclusion (social exchange).

This is followed by the presentation and application of the Design Assessment Framework, developed as part of this thesis, to assess publicness in public space and to identify different publics. Chapter Seven presents the framework to minimise subjective assessments and to utilise measurement tools to define physical and environmental changes within public spaces. This framework enables comparative analysis of different case study sites, providing empirical data for landscape architects and a reliable tool for undertaking publicness assessments. Chapter Eight introduces Adelaide, South Australia, as a case study to test this Design Assessment Framework. Adelaide is recognised internationally for its urban plan and for the provision of public space. Selected sites, shown in Table Part B-1, present five traditionally identified typologies of public space in which the proposed typology of publics—identified in Part A—are known to be present.

Table Part B-1: Summary of Adelaide case study sites

| Parks & Gardens | |
|---|---|
| Site | Characteristic |
| 1. Himeji gardens | 1. Japanese garden created in an urban context |
| 2. Castle Street (between Charlotte Street and Ely Place) | 2. Former transport corridor (road) changed to a pocket park by public demand |
| 3. Glover Playground | 3. Urban park created to improve public health |
| Streets & Promenades | |
| Site | Characteristic |
| 1. North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road) | 1. Cultural boulevard |
| 2. Rundle Street (between Pulteney Street and East terrace) | 2. Commercial boulevard |
| 3. Peel Street | 3. Commercial and entertainment boulevard |
| 4. Hindley Street (between King William Street and Morphett Street) | 4. Commercial and entertainment boulevard |
| 5. Moonta Street | 5. Commercial and entertainment boulevard |
| Plazas & Squares | |
| Site | Characteristic |
| 1. Whitmore Square/lvarrityi | 1. Public square |
| 2. Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 2. Public square |
| 3. Hajek Plaza (Festival Plaza) | 3. Festival plaza linked to convention centre and festival theatres |
| 4. Adelaide Railway Station | 4. Transport hub linked to convention centre and festival theatres |
| Waterfronts | |
| Site | Characteristic |
| 1. Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama (Park 26) | 1. Traditional waterfront public space linked to cultural activities |
| Commercial Spaces | |
| Site | Characteristic |
| 1. Gilles Street School (markets) | 1. Temporary market site |
| 2. Rundle Place | 2. Commercial retail thoroughfare |
| 3. Adelaide Central Market | 3. Tourist attraction and large multicultural market |

The Design Assessment Framework is used in Chapter Nine to measure the publicness of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia and to suggest which elements, surfaces, activities and contexts contribute to or erode public accessibility and social exchange.

Chapter Ten discusses the findings of the thesis and outlines what these findings mean for landscape architects and the effective design of public space. Within Chapter Ten the overarching research outcomes of the case studies are situated in the broader context of the landscape architectural discourses on

public space. In addition, Chapter Ten addresses the hypothesised conflict between public space and private use of these spaces, such as events and the inadequacy of current design theory, methodologies, techniques and tools, used by landscape architects and others to assess public space.

Chapter Eleven presents the contributions of the research and directions for further research. The thesis concludes by reflecting upon the current state of play of public space and providing an afterword reflecting on the importance of public space.

Chapter Six

Analysing urban public space

Figure 6-1: Park(ing) Day Park, Adelaide 2014, called on the public to question single use areas such as car parks and appropriate the space for public use. (Photo by author 2014)

ASK ME
A QUESTION!
TRUST ME...
I'M AN
EXPERT....

The inevitable potential of public space to act both simultaneously and at different times as inclusive and exclusive presents challenges for researchers and designers. In 1975, British geographer Jay Appleton described a theoretical vacuum in his assessment of landscape quality and perception, urging his fellow researchers to set aside empirical pursuits and to develop theoretical frameworks to assess landscapes. Similarly, in 1995 Dutch architectural theorist Rem Koolhaas criticised designers in the professional disciplines of urban planning and architecture for focusing on outdated classical models of the city and failing to develop new approaches that reflect the contemporary urban city and public life.

While there is an identified and significant body of literature analysing scenic beauty, landscape quality, landscape character, aesthetics, visual quality, landscape values and landscape perception, many scholars agreed with Appleton, including Crofts in 1975 and Zube, Sell and Taylor in 1982, that a framework was missing to assess landscapes. Sell et al. reconsidered Appleton's theoretical vacuum in 1984, followed by philosopher Allen Carlson in 1993, who noted that 'much must yet be done' (Carlson 1993, p. 51). Improvements were necessary and a common consistent language required (Aoki 1999; Owen, 1993; Steinitz 1990,2008) to ensure assessments were valid. Concerns about the validity of assessments stem from consistent critics of language who argue that the use of language fails to discern even the most self-evident physical differences for those within the same discipline, let alone outside. This further alludes to the inadequacy of conventional techniques, tools and methodologies (Owens 1993), highlighting the need for change in thinking and practice.

The vacuum identified by Appleton and the outdated models highlighted by Koolhaas are linked to landscape assessments consisting of varied methods, techniques and tools influenced by inconsistent contextual factors. These factors have a double effect, allowing the client's or the assessor's individual agendas to prejudice results and underpins their unwillingness to provide frank advice relating to outcomes contrary to the clients agenda (e.g. Aoki 1999; Forsyth et al. 2010; Francis 2001; Frumkin 2003; Penning-RowSELL 1973 in Appleton 1975).

Public places have to work for multiple publics; such multiple assessments acknowledge this and are more likely than singular approaches to find both strengths and weaknesses.

Forsyth et al. 2010, p. 46.

As proposed by geographers Edmund C. Penning-RowSELL (1975), R. Burton Litton Jr. (1979) and environmental psychologist Yoji Aoki (1999), different methods, techniques and tools are required to provide data to inform decision-making. Traditional assessments concerned with environment and behaviour,

such as post-occupancy evaluations, public life studies, character assessments, visual analysis and site audits, cannot provide critical representations because they gather singular lines of data. Singular lines of data are contingent, particular, situated and grounded through experience—as all assessments of landscape architecture should be (Meyer 2011)—yet the data focuses on one outcome, for example, determining the causes of fear of crime in public spaces, vitality statistics, visual aesthetics, behavioural patterns or place identity. By focusing on one outcome, singular lines of data are circumstantial, missing the full strengths and weakness of public space. They become inadequate if the nature of public space is questioned in terms of multiple publics, their interactions or the way public and private investment can activate public space, generating social exchange.

This chapter introduces the complexities of studying urban public space, through an analysis and discussion of numerous analytical methods, techniques and tools developed since the 1960s. A range of measurement approaches, commonly used by landscape architects, is represented. These include theoretical and practical applications, noting the commonly forgotten reality that each discipline describes and studies landscape differently. These approaches can be categorised as segregated, standalone or focused on individual concerns, such as the number of users or the behaviour in specified environments. Segregated approaches are unable to determine how uses and notions of urban public space are influenced by exclusionary activities such as events. The chapter then outlines the limitations and validity concerns of each technique, tool and method.

6.1 Methods, techniques and tools

If you are measuring cities then you are going to measure them in people.

Rob Adams, television interview with Anja Taylor 2014.

Landscape quality is determined by the spatial characteristics of the landscape and the influence of these characteristics on the users (Daniels 2001; Kivanç Ak 2013). The common thread of methods, techniques and tools to assess landscapes are the users, how they perceive landscape characteristics or how landscape characteristics influence their behaviour. The focus on users is the premise that people are vital elements to determine the health and function of cities. Their place in the city has drawn the attention of scholars in diverse disciplines. The range of disciplines collecting data, for instance political geography and psychology, has resulted in a mass of data, diffuse collections of studies and findings to predict city life (Dakin 2003; Gehl & Svarre 2013; Matsuoka & Kaplan 2008). Many argue that current methods, techniques and tools are limited by their lack of rational scientific tradition (Owen 1993),

alternatively contain too many scientific traditions yet lack qualitative data (Foltête & Piombini 2007), exclude documenting interaction between users (Cook 2000), hide pressures from the client or are discipline-focused (Hayward 2016 in De Backer et al. 2016). What is lacking is an understanding of the potential role for data to maintain or increase the performative value (public accessibility) of public space and a clear understanding that research can define preferences. Notably, Varna and Tiesdell (2010) highlight a tendency of the academic public space discourse to describe a loss of publicness without defining the concept and without providing tools for in-depth analysis. This tendency is a weakness that makes it difficult to compare different public spaces and assess publicness.

In the discipline of landscape architecture, broad assessments of public space tend to be unconvincing and lack adequate justification of results (Carlson 1993). They tend not to assess why people return to, avoid or use space, nor do they consider safe city areas, public and private investment or how public space is represented to market a city's image. Detailed assessments of public space provide increasing insights and gain significance as private and public space relationships alter in the context of the 21st century city. The insights provided are particularly important because of the increase of events to generate public exchange and commercialisation of public space, which has generated new definitions of 'public' and public space, as argued in previous chapters. The complexities of temporary public spaces created by events are not currently accounted for in assessments, which focus on infrastructure, culture, nature, layout and design to determine use (Jacobs 1985; Lynch 1960; Scazzosi 2004) and tend to collect singular lines of data, at fixed points of time.

The identification of these limitations is not new. In 1975, Appleton argued that interdisciplinary approaches are required to communicate with other evaluators, yet Aoki's 1999 review indicated researchers are still adopting methods based on the type of landscape and their discipline. Thirty years later, criminologists Keith Hayward and Elaine Campbell also recognised the lack of communication and urgent need to undertake interdisciplinary approaches to studying public space, criticising the field of criminology stating that 'seldom does their work overlap with related disciplines' (Hayward 2016 in De Backer et al. 2016, p. 207). Hayward (2016, p. 207) considers the reluctance of many to develop links with those of different fields a 'worrying schism', hindering the development of a more rounded interdisciplinary approach to studying urban public space.

Interdisciplinary works do exist, including the seminal works of architect and urban theorist Camillo Sitte (1843–1903) and American historian Lewis Mumford (1895–1990), which were influential in the context of

environment–behaviour studies and early assessment methods. Their texts offered ideological and methodological starting points for assessing behaviour outside of psychology, sociology and anthropology. *View from the Road* (1964) by Donald Appleyard, Kevin Lynch and John R. Myers is another key text used by a wide range of disciplines. Their study is widely considered an influential early example of visual assessment, which yielded recommendations based on research undertaken between 1950 and 1960 for different ways to design streetscapes and highways. Their work led to legislation changes in America and the consideration of aesthetic urban infrastructure.

Interest in public space assessment is not limited to academics. Private practice, governments, business communities and politicians took an interest in public space in the 1960s, when the visual quality of landscape became a definable commercial resource (Dakin 2003; Dearden 1985; Forsyth et al. 2008, 2010). Visual assessments were commonly employed by government agencies in the 1970s and have an ongoing role in community engagement today. Similarly, from the early 1980s, studies of public space were pursued by private design consultancies with a specific focus on public behaviour, relying on visual resources (Dakin 2003) to assess sites.

Recognition of different disciplinary and commercial approaches to interpret urban public space, as Dakin (2003) argues, is important in the discipline of landscape architecture to develop new assessment methods. Approaches and methods range from experimental, cognitive and psychophysical paradigms (Zube et al. 1982 notes four paradigms) to humanistic approaches to analyse urban activity (Pauleit & Duhme 2000). Within paradigms, disciplines have different priorities: archaeologists privilege history; botanists stress maintenance; landscape architects prioritise aesthetics (Jones 1991). Geography has emerged as a driver of experiential paradigm techniques, tools and methods, presented below, with emphasis on how landscapes are perceived. Again, the focus is on users and their perception or behaviour.

The complications of these diverse disciplinary priorities are compounded by questions relating to the value of expert analysis versus everyday use. While different disciplinary perspectives are sought in this current study, concerns have been raised about the validity of studies that rely on subjective data. Appleton (1975) argues that experts need to prove they are indeed experts. Craik (1975 in Unwin 1975), Crofts (1975), Dakin (2003), Francis (2001), Kent (1993), Turner (1975) and Unwin (1975) have similar concerns, stating that individuals who undertake evaluations need to be skilled to avoid bias. As Turner (1975) notes, different results can be produced by people within the same field. Dakin (2003) suggests that experts should only identify and measure features among visible landscape elements. Clay and Smidt (2004) state there is little evidence that the use of experts' judgements is even efficient for studies

of public space. Delvin (1990), Gifford et al. (2002), Hubbard (1997), Nasar (1998) and Nasar and Kong (1989) all conclude that experts and the public do not share the same perceptions of the city, while others query whether non-experts can objectively critique landscape conditions. Ewing and Handy (2009) argue that professional analysis is valid because of the specialised expertise. With such divergent perspectives, a comprehensive view of the urban system is often lacking (Pauleit & Duhme 2000). This results in a weakness that makes it difficult to compare different public spaces and assess publicness.

To obtain a more comprehensive view, over 150 articles, books, reference publications and other sources were examined in the current study to categorise 45 methods, techniques and tools used to assess landscapes and public urban spaces over the last 60 years. All were empirical and analytical research methods, techniques and tools developed to assess design, planning and construction. The sources included literature reviews, policy comparisons, methodologies or recommendations, studies drawing on original data involving surveys, interviews, observations or case studies. Methods, techniques and tools were not reviewed if they did not match specific criteria. The criteria for inclusion in this review of methods, techniques and tools were determined by the key public space typologies: Parks & Gardens, Streets & Promenades, Plazas & Squares, Waterfronts and Commercial Spaces. Studies of rural environments, non-urban forests and other non-urban settings were excluded. The approaches had to address the design and function of urban space, human preferences, attitudes and activities.

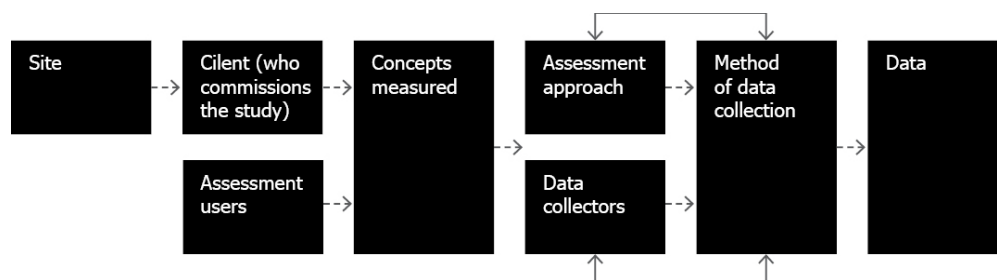


Figure 6-2: Study design flow chart

Through an iterative process, a consistent study design was identified. This design (Figure 6-2) highlights the importance of the site (space) as the driving factor for the selection of methods, techniques and tools. Interestingly, while the client and the end users of the assessment were influential in the selection of methods, techniques and tools, as well as the concepts measured and the approach to the assessment, the order presented below also reflects the quality of the data collected.

This iterative process identified broad categories to assess urban landscapes as measurement, preference and consensus approaches (Turner 1975), visual

perspective, natural environmental and historical or cultural character approaches (Scazzosi 2004). Measurement, preference, visual perspective and natural environmental approaches are well represented. These broad approaches may be grouped into observation (descriptive) methods, interview methods and infrastructure methods (Table 6-1 below). These three groups are further divided to examine their reliability and validity and to identify any assumptions central to the method, technique or tool. This study used the approach of Arthur et al. (1977) as a starting point to classify each method, technique and tool as descriptive inventories or public preference models.

Descriptive inventories (observational methods, as described below) are objective representations of observed landscapes in a static state. Descriptive inventories provide baseline data to be used within assessments but are not assessments themselves. They include objective methods that are applied by design professionals or experts and rely on combined functions to value, compare and aggregate landscape components. Criticism of descriptive inventories is linked to the focus on physical components arbitrarily identified and subjectively scored by design professionals or experts without justification for their inclusion as determinants of quality (Arthur et al. 1977; Robinson et al. 1976). They are further criticised for the omission of dynamic landscape attributes and changes such as seasons (Litton 1979). A clear link is evident in these approaches between visual and aesthetic values, which cannot be separated. In the current study, descriptive inventories are split further into Expert Panel Approach and Design Approach.

Public preference models are subjective assessments that obtain aggregated opinions and determine consensus among the public. Models are typically non-quantitative and a valuable source of quick information. Criticism is linked to speed where accuracy is sacrificed. Other criticism argues that the personality of the observer, location, duration of observation and socio-economic profile have a bearing on the validity of the results (e.g. Amir & Gidalizon 1990; Aoki 1999; Blacksell & Gilg 1975; Crofts 1975; Forsyth et al. 2008, 2010; Francis 2001; Frumkin 2003; Owens 1993; Penning-Rowse 1973 in Appleton 1975; Turner 1975).

Studies of public space that consider people as elements are not limited to one overarching method, technique or field of significance. Each discipline has developed a best practice. Many combine methods and techniques to obtain a more comprehensive interpretation of public space. Combining approaches to assess public space has meant different methods, techniques and tools are not necessarily distinguished and, in some instances, they are used interchangeably (Penning-Rowse 1975). Penning-Rowse highlights that methods, techniques and tools are functions of the level of detail collected and therefore constrained by the survey unit size and the objective of the data collection.

Table 6-1: Overview of assessment methods

| | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-------------------|--|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|
| | Descriptive inventory - Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | Community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood identification | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | Imageability | Enclosure | Transparency | |
| Observation methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Qualitative methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Environmental impact assessments</i> | x | | | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | | | | |
| Field notes | x | x | x | | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Human traces or tracing | x | | x | | x | x | | x | | x | | x | | | | | | | | x | | | | x | | | | |
| Photo documentation | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | | | |
| Tracking and shadowing | x | | x | | x | x | | x | | x | | | | | | | x | | | x | | | | x | | | x | |
| Visual assessment | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | | | |
| Combined qualitative and quantitative | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Case studies | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Systematic observation | x | | x | | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | |
| Field observations | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | |
| Test walks | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | |
| Walkability index | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | |
| Walking audit instruments | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | |
| Quantitative methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Behavioural mapping | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | | x | | | | | | x | x | x | | | x | x | | x | |
| Block environmental inventory | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | x | x | |
| Counting | | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | | | | | | | x | | | | x | | | | |
| Desktop audit | | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | |
| Figure ground mapping | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | | | | | x | | | | x | x | | | | x | x | |
| Pedestrian flows | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | | | | | | | | | x | | | | x | | | x | |
| Place audits | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | |
| Post-occupancy evaluations | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | |
| Score sheets | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | |
| Site inventory | | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | |
| Staying activities | | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | | | | | | | | x | x | | | | x | | | | |
| Staying counts | | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | | | | | | | | x | x | | | | x | | | | |
| Tracking | | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | | | | | | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | | | x | |
| Walk-by observations | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | |
| Interview methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Qualitative methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Design workshops | | x | x | x | | x | | x | x | X | | x | X | x | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | |
| Discussion groups | | x | | x | x | | x | x | X | | x | X | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | |
| Interviews (unstructured) | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | X | | X | x | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | x | |
| Combined qualitative and quantitative | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Interviews (structured) | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | | X | | X | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x |
| Self-reporting (diaries/noting) | | x | x | | x | | | x | | | X | | X | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | |
| Quantitative methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Interviews | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | | | X | | X | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x |
| Surveys (postal, online or in person) | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | X | x | X | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | |
| Questionnaires (postal, online or in person) | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | X | x | X | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | |
| Infrastructure methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Qualitative methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Altered photos</i> | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | | | | x | X | | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | | |
| <i>Computer simulation</i> | | x | | x | x | | | x | | x | | X | X | | | | x | x | | x | | | | | | | |
| <i>Landscape evaluation</i> | | | | x | x | x | | x | | x | X | X | X | x | | | x | x | x | | x | | | | | | |
| <i>Scenic beauty estimation models</i> | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | | | | X | X | | | | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | | |
| Visual assessment | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | x | X | X | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | x |
| Quantitative methods | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Environmental audits</i> | x | | x | x | x | | | | x | x | | | | x | | | | | | | | x | | x | | | |
| Walkability audits | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | X | X | | | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| <i>Pedestrian modelling</i> | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | | X | | | | x | | | x | | | x | x | | | |
| <i>Smart Places</i> | x | | | x | x | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | | | | x | x |
| <i>Space syntax</i> | x | | x | | x | | | | x | x | x | X | X | | | | x | | | x | | | | | | | |
| <i>Urban design context analysis</i> | x | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | X | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | |

Source: Author. Italics indicate methods not discussed.

The range of methods, techniques and tools used to measure and assess public space is vast and controversial, as presented by Dearden (1985). Many of the methods, techniques and tools are designed to understand how urban design influences use, experience and comprehension; emphasis tends to be on visual assessment. To distinguish how urban design influences the city, each method, tool and technique has its own merits and can be used better in different areas of investigations. The ongoing use is linked to the ability of methods, tools and techniques to be refined as new technologies emerge and as discipline and academic fields expand. However, the ability of methods, tools and techniques to be refined has been criticised. For example, geographers Blacksell and Gilg (1975) suggest that variation minimises appreciation of what different methods, tools and techniques can and cannot achieve. Further criticism argues that methods, tools and techniques are refined to meet the researcher's concept of landscape regardless of their appropriateness to analyse the landscape under investigation. These criticisms question whether refined methods, tools and techniques can be used at other sites and if their effectiveness can be judged. These criticisms are not new. Blacksell and Gilg (1975), Francis (2001) and Litton (1979) argue that a nationally agreed technique for landscape evaluation is required.

A key failing of public space studies is that they depict the public in a generalised or abstract way, emphasising data presented as objectivist or subjectivist. Objectivist approaches consider aesthetics or use set by objects external to observers, for instance, public art, water or seating. Subjectivist approaches consider aesthetics or use set by the beholder, a human-oriented approach about individuals in the landscape (Dearden 1985). Objectivist or subjectivist approaches each present data of differing levels of consensus, resulting in the perception that all data are accurate and relevant, however, data can yield significant errors in the method of collection and analysis. The deferral to data as an absolute, influences data analysis. Overlooking how collection occurs creates gaps in studies because all aspects of data, from collection to analytical techniques selected, provide the complete picture of public spaces.

Criminologists Ewing et al. (2006) and landscape architect Schmidt (1998), among others, highlight the need for a combination of methods, techniques and tools to accurately comprehend public space, to provide recommendations and to predict relationships between behaviour and environment. Ewing and Handy (2009) also recommend modified methods that assess quantitative physical features and qualitative perceptions and have complex and subtle relationships in the built environment. In contrast, geographer Penning-Roswell (1975, p. 151) argued earlier that 'more attention should be given to fitting technique to purpose'. Carmona, Heath and Tiesdell (2003) and Forsyth et al. (2008, 2010) maintain that empirical research is essential for good design. These arguments are explored below. No one method is more important or

supersedes another. Interestingly, a review by Matsuoka and Kaplan (2008) shows that the most widely published methods between 1991 and 2006 were surveys, interviews, case studies, observation and preferences rating methods in urban planning, landscape architecture and architecture.

The following subsections identify the common tools used to assess urban landscapes, highlighting the effectiveness of each method, technique and tool to assess public spaces and the publics. The diversity of early studies of public space, known alternatively as landscape assessment, assessment of landscape quality, environmental aesthetics, landscape perception research, public life studies and visual impact assessments, is acknowledged.

6.1.1 Observation (descriptive) methods

The following subsection presents an overview of 26 observation methods used to assess urban landscapes. Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 present an overview of the different assessment methods. Further details on individual methods are provided in Appendix 2.A and Appendix 2.B. The methods described below have been applied to assess the use of urban public space in the discipline of landscape architecture. It is not intended to be a description of all observation methods used in this discipline.

Observation is a widely used method to analyse public space. Observation methods analyse how spaces are used to inform understanding of why some spaces are used while others are not. Observation methods are descriptive inventories that include qualitative approaches, combined qualitative and quantitative approaches and quantitative approaches, with further subsets of direct observation, unstructured observation and walking observation (Table 6-2). These approaches observe user behaviour and activities and document this through mapping, analysis and interpretation (Gehl & Svarre 2013; Matan 2011). Techniques employed include field observations and photographic review and analysis off site to interpret qualities with measured environmental features within one study (Figure 6-3).

Direct observations are structured methods with predetermined criteria developed with the intent to avoid bias or inferences. Techniques of tracking and shadowing, human traces or tracing, test walks, counting, pedestrian flows and staying activities, place audits and post-occupancy evaluations are all grouped under direct observation. Unstructured observations are methods that aim to record all activities, elements and events without resorting to predetermined criteria. Field notes are predominantly used to record unstructured observations. This allows researchers to note subjective experiences based on their appreciation of the physical elements and their first

impressions of details, nuances and non-visual elements that cannot be mapped, counted or photographed. This increases knowledge of how public spaces are used. Walking observations are purposeful, systematic recordings of a space taken while moving. This method is undertaken to gain direct experience, which architect Peter Bosselmann (2008) considered essential for individuals making informed decisions about cities.

The data measured varied for each observation method (Table 6-2 and Appendix 2.B), inevitably depending on the goal of the assessment. The common elements of observation methods include:

- provision of an overview of public life and the subtle activities that occur, for example, people waving;
- manual observations, which can add additional information such as why, how and who uses the space, weather conditions and events outside of the study area that may affect use in the study area;
- the ability to collect subjective and objective data; and
- the ability to record non-visual elements, including sounds, feelings, smells, textural qualities, movement (feeling of movement and actual movement through a space).

The strengths of individual observation methods are expanded in Appendix 2.B. The six common weakness, challenges and limitations of observation methods relate to the following:

1. The temporality of public spaces: The temporary nature of public space is a limiting factor for all observation methods assessed that have not been critically reviewed. As observed by Cook (2000), the temporary nature of landscapes has not been considered vital and very few longitudinal studies that document interactions of users have been undertaken.
2. Short-term observations: The observations of the data collector cannot match the inhabitant's experience of a space. Observation is limited to the study timeframe (Laughlin & Johnson 2011). Aoki (1991, 1999) argues that user behaviour is influenced by duration, frequency and intensity of experience, whereby perception is proportional to the length of stay and a reflection of psychological reactions, which are more intricate than a visual response. Aoki's supposition argues that our understanding of landscape is a combination of the individual analysis of place combined with a well-managed memory system for the recollection of past experiences. Similarly, cultural backgrounds are a predictor of attitude (cognitive, affective and conative), which influence behaviours (Balram & Dragićević 2005) are not considered. Further, studies that count one aspect for a sample period may miss relevant data and they do not allow for the distinction between typologies of publics. There is a wide body of research that argues that pedestrian movement is unpredictable

(Cunningham & Cullen 1993; Ma et al. 2009; Romer & Sathisan 1997; Whyte 1988; Wolfinger 1995), further complicating assessment.

3. How the participants understand the tasks: Detailed explanations are required to reduce the high demand on human resources at the end of the studies, which can result in errors and subjective judgements by researchers.
4. Difficulties in mapping, counting or photographing large sites or large numbers of people.
5. Changes in participants' behavioural patterns if they know they are being followed or observed. Studies in which people are asked to undertake routine behaviours may not depict actual perceptions, activities or characteristics that would normally take place.
6. The selection of the method is dependent on the scope and stage of assessments (Leitão & Ahern 2001). Therefore, a comprehensive view of the urban system is often lacking (Pauleit & Duhme 2000) and it is virtually impossible to study all components and function at the same time (Leitão & Ahern 2001).

The weakness, challenges and limitations of individual observation methods are expanded in Appendix 2.B.



Figure 6-3: Example of observational methods. City of Adelaide and Project for Public Spaces placemaking assessment of Hindley Street, Adelaide. (Photo by author 2012)

Table 6-2: Overview of assessment methods and disciplines employing observation (descriptive) methods

| Observation methods | Techniques | Inventory | | | Typical study styles | | | | | | | Tools | | | | | | | | Disciplines | |
|--|---|--------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------|--|-----|-----|------|-----------|-------------|--|-------------|---|
| | | Direct observation | Unstructured observation | Walking observation | Consensus (expert) | Cultural character | Historical character | Measurement (physical) | Natural environmental | Preference (public) | visual perspective | Checklists | Computer software (Photoshop, CAD etc) | GIS | GPS | Maps | Notebooks | Photography | Recording devices - electronic (video) | | Recording devices - manual |
| Qualitative | <i>Environmental impact assessments</i> | x | | | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | Anthropology, Architecture, Art, Cartography, Civil Engineering, Climatology, Community Psychology, Criminology, Ecology, Engineering, Environmental Chemistry, Environmental Psychology, Gardening, Geography, Health Sciences, Horticulture, Human Geography, Landscape Architecture, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners), Planning, Political Science, Social Psychology, Social Science, Sociology, Tourism, Town Planning, Transportation Planning, Urban Design, Urban Planning. |
| | Field notes | | x | | x | x | | x | | x | | | | | | x | x | x | | x | |
| | Human traces or tracing | x | | | x | | | | | | | | | | | x | x | | | x | |
| | Photo documentation | x | x | x | x | | | | | | x | x | | | | | | x | x | | |
| | Tracking and shadowing | x | | | x | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | | | x | x | |
| | Visual assessment | x | | | x | x | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Combined qualitative / quantitative | Case studies | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | Anthropology, Architecture, Biometeorology, Cartography, Climatology, Community Psychology, Criminology, Ecology, Education, Engineering, Environmental Chemistry, Environmental Psychology, Epidemiology, Geography, Health Sciences, Horticulture, Human Geography, Landscape Architecture, Landscape Planning, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners), Planning, Psychology, Social Ecology, Social Psychology, Sociology, Tourism, Town Planning, Transportation Planning, Urban Design, Urban Planning. |
| | Systematic observation | x | | | x | x | | x | | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | |
| | Field observations | | x | | x | x | | x | | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | |
| | Test walks | x | | x | x | | | x | | | | | | x | x | | | | x | x | |
| | Walkability index | | | x | x | | | x | | | | | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | |
| | Walking audit instruments | | | x | x | | | x | | | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | |
| Quantitative | Behavioural mapping | | x | | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | Anthropology, Architecture, Behavioural Epidemiology, Behavioural Health, Biology, Botany, Cartography, Climatology, Community Psychology, Criminology, Ecology, Engineering, Environmental Chemistry, Environmental Psychology, Gardening, Geography, Geology, Health Sciences, Horticulture, Human Geography, Landscape Architecture, Medicine, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners), Philosophy, Placemaking, Planning, Political Science, Political Theory, Politics, Psychology, Public Health, Science, Social Ecology, Social Psychology, Sociology, Tourism, Town Planning, Transportation Planning, Urban Design, Urban Planning. |
| | Block environmental inventory | x | | | x | x | | x | | x | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | |
| | Counting | x | | | x | | | x | | | | | | | | x | | | x | x | |
| | Desktop audit | | | | x | | x | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | | | | x | | |
| | Figure ground mapping | | x | | x | | | x | | | | | | | | x | | | | x | |
| | Pedestrian flows | x | | | x | | | x | | | | | | | | x | | | x | x | |
| | Place audits | x | | | x | x | | x | | | | | | | | x | x | | | x | |
| | Post-occupancy evaluations | x | | | x | x | x | x | | x | | | | | | x | | | | x | |
| | Score sheets | x | | | x | | | x | | x | | | | | | | | | | | x |
| | Site inventory | | x | | x | | | x | | | | | | | | x | | x | x | x | |
| | Staying activities | x | | | x | | | x | | x | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | |
| | Staying counts | x | | | x | | | x | | | | | | | | | | | | | x |
| | Tracking | x | x | | x | | | x | | x | | | | | x | | | | | x | |
| | Walk-by observations | | | x | x | | | x | | x | | | | | | x | | | | | x |

The table represents a diverse sample of disciplines rather than an attempt to be comprehensive.

Refer Appendix 2.A for an expanded table that includes researchers and consultants practising the methods outlined above.

Refer Appendix 2.B for an expanded table of each method outlined above.

Observation methods have wide implications for landscape architects. The literature review consistently revealed the perceived need for appropriate methods and conceptual frameworks to address all aspects of public space (Leitão & Ahern 2001). Observation methods can be adapted to inform frameworks. Real-time and qualitative supplementary information collected during observation assessments has the potential to inform planning and design, as well as maintenance and management plans, for specific landscapes. Successful assessments that inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those that combine a range of techniques, tools and methods and that have a clearly defined scope of assessment. For instance, Project for Public Space and Gehl Architects simplified their field note, place audit and counting methods, after numerous trials, to address the issue of incorrect interpretations. Their place audit methods include checklists with simple English to enable participants of any age to take part in studies.

Distinctions between publics can be informed by manual observations that look for differences in patterns of use no matter how brief. The distinction is subjective and based on the judgements of the observer. Only a handful of observation methods are consistently able to distinguish between publics (refer Appendix 2.B). These methods include field notes, human traces or tracing, photo documentation, case studies, systematic observation and behavioural mapping. The remaining observation methods consider the demographic profile of participants only, with all other potential users classed as the illegitimate public.

The ability to distinguish between public space typologies is related to the outcome of the assessment. For instance, assessments that are site- or design-specific are unable to distinguish between public space typologies, whereas assessments that emphasise use and not design are able to distinguish between typologies. Only a number of observation methods is consistently able to distinguish between public space typologies (refer Appendix 2.B). These methods include field notes, photo documentation, case studies, systematic observation, test walks, behavioural mapping, desktop audits and post-occupancy evaluations.

The review of the 26 observation methods indicates that the current observation methodologies, techniques and tools used by landscape architects to assess public space are inadequate to depict the range of publics and the degree of publicness. This review confirms the hypothesis developed for this thesis. Further, in response to the sixth subsidiary research question—*What analytical methods, techniques and tools are missing in design of public spaces?*—observation methods do provide adequate methods, techniques and tools. As shown above, the adequacy of a particular observation method is equated

to the method used and the desired outcome. To improve the relevance of any given observation method, a combination of methods should be used to enable a more comprehensive assessment. For instance, a combination of field notes, systematic observation, counting, pedestrian flows, behavioural mapping and place audits would provide a clear picture of who and how many publics are using a site, where they are going and what activities are taking place.

This section has identified 26 observational methods commonly used to assess urban landscapes, highlighting the strengths and weakness of these methods. The strengths are the diversity of data collected, which, when combined with other methods of data, will allow comprehensive measures of public space to be undertaken. The next subsection discusses the interview methods commonly used to assess urban landscapes to develop an argument around their relevance for data collection and the assessment of publicness within public space.

6.1.2 Interview methods

The following subsection presents an overview of eight interview methods used to assess urban landscapes. Table 6-1 and Table 6-3 present an overview of the different assessment methods. Further details on individual methods are provided in Appendix 2.A and Appendix 2.C. The methods detailed below represent methods applicable to assess use of urban public space within landscape architecture. They do not constitute a comprehensive list of all interview methods.

Interview methods can include workshops (Figure 6-4), interviews, surveys and questionnaires. Popular with researchers and private consultants, each method involves a dialogue-based assessment undertaken to gain participants' feedback. They may be informal, structured or guided, text-based or conducted as conversations, to gather individual responses. The intent is to discover how people perceive and use space.

Interview methods include qualitative approaches, combined qualitative and quantitative approaches and quantitative approaches, which provide focused but comprehensive views informing multifaceted assessments of public spaces. Undertaken correctly, interviews can capture a well-rounded and in-depth perspective to provide greater detail than that yielded by the observational techniques discussed above. This method distinguishes between participants, designers and non-designers, as noted by Forsyth et al. (2008, 2010), acknowledging that architects' (or other design professionals') views are different to those of the general public (Devlin 1990; Nasar 1998).

Table 6-3: Overview of assessment methods and disciplines employing interview methods

| Interview methods | Techniques | Typical study styles | | | | | | | Tools | | | | | | | | Disciplines | |
|--|--|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------|--|-----|-----|------|-----------|-------------|-------------|--|
| | | Analysis typology | Consensus (expert) | Cultural character | Historical character | Measurement (physical) | Natural environmental | Preference (public) | Visual perspective | Checklists | Computer software (Photoshop, CAD etc) | GIS | GPS | Maps | Notebooks | Photography | | Recording devices – electronic (video) |
| Qualitative | Design workshops | | x | x | | x | x | | x | x | | | x | | x | x | | Architecture, Behavioural Epidemiology, Behavioural Health, Charities, Environmental Science, Forestry, Geography, Horticulture, Landscape Architecture, Landscape Management, Medicine, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners), Psychiatry, Public Health, Social Science, Sociology, Urban Design, Urban Planning. |
| | Discussion Groups | | x | x | | x | x | | x | | | x | | x | x | x | | |
| | Interviews (unstructured) | x | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | | | | | | x | x | |
| Combined Qualitative / Quantitative | Interviews (structured) | x | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | | | | | x | x | | Architecture, Community Psychology, Environmental Psychology, Geography, Horticulture, Landscape Architecture, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners), Planning, Political Science, Political Theory, Politics, Psychology, Science, Social Psychology, Social Science, Sociology, Urban Design, Urban Planning. |
| | Self-reporting (diaries/noting) | | x | x | | x | x | | | | | | | | x | x | | |
| Quantitative | Interviews | x | x | x | | x | x | x | | | | | x | | x | x | | Architecture, Behavioural Epidemiology, Behavioural Health, Community Psychology, Economics, Engineering, Environmental Psychology, Environmental Science, Forestry, Geography, Health Sciences, Horticulture, Landscape Architecture, Landscape Ecology, Medicine, Planning, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners), Political Science, Political Theory, Politics, Psychology, Public Health, Science, Social Ecology, Social Psychology, Sociology, Tourism, Urban Design, Urban Planning. |
| | Surveys (online or in person) | | | | | | x | | | | | | | | x | x | | |
| | Questionnaires (online, in person, postal) | | | | | | x | x | | | | | | | x | x | | |

The table represents a diverse sample of disciplines rather than an attempt to be comprehensive.

Refer Appendix 2.A for an expanded table that includes researchers and consultants practising the methods outlined above.

Refer Appendix 2.C for an expanded table of each method outlined above.

The data measured varied for each interview method (Table 6-3 and Appendix 2.C), inevitably depending on the goal of the assessment and who the participants are. The common elements of interview methods include:

1. content analyses, site-specific responses and categorisation of use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical perceptions of space;
2. provision of well-rounded and in-depth perspectives, which can be obtained from a cross-section of community attitudes;
3. useful data for background information and small-scale urban design and planning interventions to formulate priority activities, programs and community visions;
4. the combination of secondary data sources; and
5. the opportunity to undertake staged interviews.

The strengths of individual Interview methods are expanded in Appendix 2.C.



Figure 6-4: Example of a design workshop. City of Adelaide staff design workshop for Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19). (Photo by author 2016)

The six common weaknesses, challenges and limitations of interview methods can be described as follows:

1. Public spaces are not static: The temporal nature of public space is a limitation for all methods assessed yet this aspect has received little critical analysis within the discipline;
2. The accuracy of the assessment is related to how the participants understand the tasks and therefore it is subject to reporting errors. Detailed explanations are required to reduce the high demand on human resources at the end of studies, which can result in errors and subjective judgements by researchers;
3. Interview design requires an understanding of a participant's occupation, hobbies, academic background, any preparatory information, familiarity

of area, religion and residential status, which are informed by a participant's cultural background and values (Amir & Gidalizon 1990; Aoki 1999; Chen et al. 2009; Clay & Smidt 2004; Dempsey 2008; Ewing & Handy 2009; James et al. 2009; Worpole 2003);.

4. Participant selection is important to represent a cross-section of the community. Detailed planning processes rarely result in workshops and engagements representing all community members. Within the discipline of landscape architecture, the dominant voice is rarely factored into data analysis, unlike in psychology or sociology;
5. Researcher bias can unconsciously influence participants, resulting in expected responses that can influence research outcomes; and
6. Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific items/elements, the researcher is reliant on the participant's responses.

The weakness, challenges and limitations of individual interview methods are elaborated on in Appendix 2.C.

Interpretations of user preferences and perceptions have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites. Successful assessments that inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those using a range of techniques, tools and methods, as outlined in this study, and have a clearly defined scope of assessment. For instance, questionnaire results used in conjunction with counting can provide a clear direction for design, such as the location of new pathways or the selection of site amenities.

The ability to distinguish between publics is influenced by the selected questions, the selection of participants and the desired outcomes of the interview methods. The only methods that distinguish between publics are those looking for differences in patterns of use, no matter how brief (refer Appendix 2.C). These methods include self-reporting, interviews (quantitative), surveys and questionnaires. The remaining interview methods consider the demographic of the defined public (or participants) with all other potential users classed as the illegitimate public. The ability to distinguish between public space typologies is related to the outcome of the assessment undertaken and influenced by the selected questions. Only surveys and questionnaires have a clear ability to distinguish between public space typologies (refer Appendix 2.C).

This section has overviewed the eight interview methods commonly used to assess urban landscapes. The summary of these eight interview methods highlighted their strengths and weakness. This review indicates that the current observation methodologies, techniques and tools used by landscape architects to assess public space are inadequate to depict the range of publics and the

degree of publicness. As shown above, the adequacy of a particular interview method is enhanced when it is used in conjunction with observation methods to enable a complete site assessment. For instance, a combination of design workshops and behavioural mapping could provide a clear picture of user perceptions along with observations of what activities are taking place and why. The next subsection discusses methods relating to assessment of infrastructure commonly used to assess urban landscapes to develop an argument around their relevance for data collection and the assessment of publicness within public space.

6.1.3 Infrastructure methods

The following subsection presents an overview of 11 infrastructure methods used to assess urban landscapes. Table 6-1 and Table 6-4 present an overview of the different assessment methods. Further details on individual methods are provided in Appendix 2.A. The methods described below represent methods applicable to assess use.

Involving qualitative approaches and quantitative approaches, methods that examine infrastructure, including the built form, are popular with governments (local, state, federal) and researchers. This is because each method provides descriptive inventories for expert panels and can be used to inform preliminary design approaches. They are formal, structured and guided. Participant involvement is limited to gathering quantitative data to predict the effects of proposals for significant change on sites, including roadways, wind farms or hills protection zones (Figure 6-5). The primary goal of infrastructure methods is to provide quantitative or qualitative predictions to facilitate the evaluation of trade-offs between proposals or planning objectives.

The data measured varied for each infrastructure method (Table 6-4) and inevitably depends on the goal of the assessment. The common elements of observation methods include:

1. Projects in Australia tend to examine cultural characteristics of places as part of visual assessment models;
2. The use of geographic information systems (GIS) to assess visual landscape variables has been shown to be reproducible (Balram & Dragićević 2005; Bishop & Hulse 1994) for studies measuring attitudes and public preference, and not descriptive outcomes;
3. When combined with other methods such as questionnaires, GIS can be used to support and document knowledge of real-time interactions, inclusiveness, social learning and awareness; and
4. Methods can differentiate between proposals and supposed visual impacts for context-sensitive solutions.



Figure 6-5: Example of altered photos. 'Before' and 'proposed' streetscape improvements proposed for Hindley Street, Adelaide. (Photomontage by author 2018)

The six common weaknesses, challenges and limitations of infrastructure methods can be described as follows:

1. The temporal nature of public space is a limiting factor for all infrastructure and built form methods assessed, yet this has not been critically reviewed;
2. The methods do not correspond to inhabitants' experience of space. Studies are typically undertaken in laboratory settings or online to avoid any external disturbance but, natural settings are full of disruptions;
3. Methods rely heavily on photograph selection, value judgements or ratings assigned by investigators and on the investigators' abilities. Observers react to own image of landscape formed from preferences and judgements with peripheral information and prior information bearing on valuation and comparisons. Ratings have clear limitations resulting from the absence of motivations and historical and cultural contexts included in the analysis of the data;

Table 6-4: Overview of assessment methods and disciplines employing infrastructure methods

| Infrastructure methods | Techniques | Typical study styles | | | | | | Tools | | | | | | | | Disciplines | | |
|------------------------|--|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|------------|--|-----|-----|------|-----------|-------------|-------------|--|--|
| | | Consensus (expert) | Cultural character | historical character | Measurement (physical) | Natural environmental | Preference (public) | visual perspective | Checklists | Computer software (Photoshop, CAD etc) | GIS | GPS | Maps | Notebooks | Photography | | Recording devices - electronic (video) | Recording devices - manual |
| Qualitative | <i>Altered photos</i> | | | | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | Architecture, Community Psychology, Community Psychology, Engineering, Environmental Psychology, Environmental Psychology, Forestry, Geography, Geology, Landscape Architecture, Natural Resource Management, Planning, Psychology, Social Psychology, Urban Planning, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners) |
| | <i>Computer simulation</i> | | | | | x | x | | | x | x | x | | x | x | | | |
| | <i>Landscape evaluation</i> | x | | | x | x | | | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | | |
| | <i>Scenic beauty estimation models</i> | x | | | | x | | | | x | x | x | | x | x | | | |
| | <i>Visual assessment</i> | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | |
| Quantitative | <i>Environmental audits</i> | x | | | x | | | | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | Biology, Environmental Psychology, Epidemiology, Urban Planning, Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners) |
| | <i>Walkability audits</i> | x | | | x | | | | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | |
| | <i>Pedestrian modelling</i> | x | | | x | | | | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | |
| | <i>Smart Places</i> | x | | | x | x | | x | | x | x | | x | | | | | |
| | <i>Space syntax</i> | x | | | x | | | | x | x | | | x | | x | x | x | |
| | <i>Urban design context analysis</i> | x | x | | x | | | | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | |

The table represents a diverse sample of disciplines rather than an attempt to be comprehensive.

Refer Appendix 2.A for an expanded table that includes researchers and consultants practising the methods outlined above

4. How and what data are collected can limit findings to specific sites, negating opportunities for consideration at comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects;
5. Images miss the site characteristics of scent, noise or activities; and
6. Accuracy of studies is attributed to how the participants understand the tasks and are therefore subject to reporting errors. Detailed explanations are required to reduce pressure on human resources at the end of studies, which can result in errors and subjective judgements by researchers.

Infrastructure methods have little to no implications for landscape architects within the design process unless they are combined with interview methods or observation methods. The focus of these methods is to model behaviour and preference. These methods have a role within landscape architecture to shape planning processes. Infrastructure methods are site- and design-specific and are unable to distinguish between publics. Infrastructure methods are site-specific and are unable to distinguish between public space typologies.

This review of the 11 infrastructure methods was unable to provide a conclusive indication regarding the current observation methodologies, techniques and tools used by landscape architects to assess or depict the range of publics and the degree of publicness. The methods were unable to provide a conclusive distinction between publics or public spaces. This further confirms the hypothesis developed for this thesis. Visual assessment methods and walkability audits are the exception. Infrastructure methods are not relevant to this thesis because of their focus on predictive modelling.

6.2 Summary

The theoretical vacuum identified Appleton (1975) is still present and the inadequacy of conventional methodologies, techniques and tools highlighted by Owens (1993) still exists. New assessment techniques are required to analyse and design public space where performative value of amenity becomes the determining factor. This chapter has presented the complexities of studying public space through an examination of analytical methods, techniques and tools developed since the 1960s. The methods, techniques and tools reviewed were those commonly used by landscape architects and specialist consultants, representing a range of measurement approaches—from theoretical to practical applications. A review of 150 sources revealed the strengths and weaknesses of dominant methods, techniques and tools and it was noted that many studies are not easily transferable to landscape architecture.

Landscapes are in a continual state of transformation (Scazzosi 2004). No assessment method, technique or tool considered temporary events,

ephemeral conditions, multiple types of publics or enabled the clear recognition of activities generating social exchange, thereby hindering detailed assessments of public space. Nor did the methods, techniques and tools highlight the reasons behind use. Consideration of the typology of publics presented in this thesis in conjunction with public space typologies ensures that a complete assessment can be undertaken, minimising the limitations presented above. An expanded framework as presented in Chapter Seven addresses the limitations of previous methods, techniques and tools by providing an interdisciplinary approach. This expanded framework, which also looks beyond the judgements of local users and considers temporary users, will be of importance.

Scazzosi (2004) notes that there has been little experimentation to combine methods to view landscape as a system, yet numerous researchers recommend this approach or have integrated multiple methods from varying disciplines (such as Balram and Dragičević 2005; Bryan et al. 2010; Devine-Wright 2005; Herzele & Wiedemann 2003; Howley 2011; James et al. 2009). The use of multiple design assessments methods, tools and techniques, from audits to mapping, is essential in identifying, assessing and honouring the diversity of design qualities. The combination of multiple design assessments can bring together the visual, spatial, symbolic, functional and environmental relationships within the landscape. As places change over time and vary from day to day, the use of multiple methods honours the diversity of use and publics. Amenities can be designed in ways that protect vulnerable users and provide options for all users. Using multiple assessment methods allows for diverse amenities to be assessed with regard to use and publics. The integration of spatial and non-spatial aspects can also improve the reliability and consistency of the data collected resulting in the replication of results and comparative analysis. The selection of methods, techniques and tools should be based on the objectives, survey size and application of data.

Litton (1972) argues that a method has yet to be developed that can assess seasonal differences. Through the review of methods described above, it is evident that current methods still fail to assess dynamic change. The key to the advancement of methods would be to develop one that can do so in a tangible way.

Budget, time and site conditions can provide a wealth of data, if used. Unless capitalised, data gathered and assessed are often irrelevant and disproportionate to actual outcomes. Lack of capitalisation means studies can be seen to be a waste of funds, ineffectual for change or perceived as political material or statistics for determining project success. Capitalisation through collaboration can be the key to the success of studies; however, lack of collaboration between disciplines is common. This lack of collaboration can

stem from a lack of trust or the involvement of different design disciplines at different stages of projects, for instance, planners involved at the initial stages of a project, landscape architects through design and construction and public realm teams, once built. Lack of trust between disciplines can duplicate data gathered, reducing the ability to capitalise on these data. Positive examples can be found, such as Ehrenfeucht and Loukaitou-Sideris (2010), who cite the example of increased bike facilities in New Orleans after the 2005 hurricanes Katrina and Rita, thanks to planners and engineers successfully working together.

Studies typically assess predetermined issues related to site conditions. Predetermined issues can be considered a sample of site conditions, and may not enable full assessments, thereby failing to recognise changes within public space that affect city design and its implementation. Recognition of change is required to inform, follow and challenge design. Concern over the use of samples extends to time periods and community representation.

To provide complete assessments of public spaces tools, techniques and methods should ensure the following:

- Checklists and score sheets should be amended to include subjective and objective measures;
- Technology should be used to accurately portray site context. How technology is used requires ethical discussions; Hardy's (2014) opinion piece in *The New York Times* highlights that traditional privacy and social anonymity in cities are being reduced because of the widespread use of tracking devices. Hardy's opinion piece demands consideration of the implications of collecting data that tracks movements and is designed for individual target publics;
- Studies should be undertaken over long periods to reflect changing site conditions;
- Assessments should be conducted at different times of the year, in different conditions and rotating individual collection times at different locations to compensate for regular cycles, such as flows from transport nodes. These changes would provide a more comprehensive view of the city and produce more than a snapshot provided by studies such as Public Spaces Public Life (PSPL);
- Statistical data reviews, common in the disciplines of engineering and science, should be undertaken. Data reviews should include independent 2-group t-tests (refer Chapter Seven);
- Assessment of publics should be diversified. By considering the typology of publics presented in this thesis, cultural and disciplinary bias are minimised;

- Tools, techniques and methods should be combined. Such a mix can only be determined after selecting sites and confirming the purpose of the study;
- Assessments should combine social and physical environment traits. The combination of gender, age and financial resources (subjective evaluations) with design (objective evaluations) would reduce inaccuracy and provide data linking how and why public spaces are used;
- Qualitative and quantitative methods should be combined. Such a combination would reduce inaccuracy and provide data without subjective expectancy effects;
- Validity concerns should be minimised by reducing the complexities of data collection and the careful screening of surveyors; and
- Changes of behaviour should be minimised by diversifying how publics are assessed. By considering the new typology of publics presented in this thesis, behaviour patterns would be assessed by typology and not by individual movement.


Aoki (1999) concludes that scholars have not yet reached agreement on a universal method because of the ambiguity of landscapes and the range of available methods, which is demonstrated in this chapter. This thesis proposes a generalist approach to landscape assessments as a new methodological combined approach that is easy to comprehend. The generalist approach allows the strength of each method, technique and tool to be utilised and to create a rich assessment that values public space typologies and the proposed typology of publics. While generalist approaches are time-consuming, they capture the complexities missed by purist approaches.

Chapter Seven presents the proposed Design Assessment Framework. This framework was created not to develop new techniques, tools or methods, but rather, to refine a framework by analysing components where performative value and social exchange (publicness) become a determining factor. It also suggests a new methodological approach to measuring public space. The framework allows comparison between sites, used at different times, and considers public space with regard to typologies. The Design Assessment Framework represents a significant contribution to landscape architecture by providing an integrated method of scientific and cultural consensus for public space assessment.

Chapter Seven

Proposing a design assessment framework

Figure 7-1: Signage warning pedestrians after a public space upgrade. (Photo by author 2019)



**SIGNAL
SEQUENCE
CHANGED**

There is design flaw in the idea of public space—it can never explain how a given space, such as a park, comes to be free of the ‘private’ (personal and structural) interests operating through its societal context.

Benjamin Fraser 2007, p. 693.

As presented in Chapter Six, detailed assessments of public space are hindered by assessment methods, techniques and tools missing clear recognition of temporary events, ephemeral conditions, multiple types of publics or activities generating social exchange. Consideration of the proposed typology of publics, presented in this thesis, in conjunction with public space types and interdisciplinary approaches, enables the selection of assessment methods to minimise limitations and uncertainties. In so doing, Appleton’s (1975) theoretical vacuum is addressed.

Chapter Seven continues the review of methods, techniques and tools commonly used by landscape architects and introduces the Design Assessment Framework, developed as part of this thesis, to assess the level of publicness of public space for a diverse range of publics. The framework refines current methods, techniques and tools by analysing their components and proposing a new generalist combined methodological non-oppositional approach.

The framework is applied in Chapter Nine to 16 selected Adelaide case study sites (as outlined in Chapter Eight), to provide pre- and post-design advice for landscape architects as agents for public spaces.

7.1 Introduction

The immorality lies only in representing untested hypotheses as if they were proven principles.

Jay Appleton 1975, p. 123.

Appleton (1975) identified a theoretical vacuum in the assessment of landscape quality, urging his fellow researchers to set aside empirical pursuits and develop theoretical frameworks to assess landscape quality. Reviews by Sell et al. in 1984, Carlson in 1993 (p. 51) and as presented in Chapter Six highlight that ‘much must yet be done’ to establish a balance between empirical and theoretical strategies to assess landscape quality in terms of place and people.

Physical space is the first dimension of public space involving complex reciprocal relationships between users and space. Therefore, the assessment of connections between public space and users must take into consideration the physical dimension (Talen 2000).

Many, including Cuthbert (1995), have argued that the design of public spaces by architects, landscape architects and urban designers is circumscribed by representations of the use of space via implicit assumptions about human behaviour. To enable better design, landscape architects require assessment methods that assist with understanding human behaviour and analysing components to determine the performative value of public space.

Blacksell and Gilg (1975), Francis (2001) and Scazzosi (2004) contend that a nationally agreed technique for landscape evaluation is required. Many, including James et al. (2009), call for multi, inter and transdisciplinary frameworks to gain new knowledge and insights. This requirement is based on the understanding that landscapes are complex, constantly changing spaces, made up of a large quantity of objects, numerous operators and numerous users. Further, as shown in Chapter Six, there is a lack of reliable, robust and complete approaches to assessments of public space that support design thinking and decision-making.

Public space studies have typically grouped public space typologies together and relied on occupancy counts, staying activities or user surveys to analyse use and behaviour (refer Chapter Six), with results and judgements implemented at spaces of different scale and varying characteristics. Use of occupancy counts, staying activities or user surveys, as single methods, result in subjective assessments based on individual interpretation.

The gaps in knowledge can be summarised as follows:

There is a practical need to gain insight into how public space functions and is activated by diverse forms of events, activities and social exchange, to provide reliable data, judgements and predictions of user demand. Landscape architects are currently missing a framework that assists specifically with pre- and post-design approaches to public urban spaces. Knowledge of user demand will assist in determining the effects of temporary events, and if and how public space can be protected.

Reliable judgements of public space use and user behaviour have a range of practical uses, including evaluating and predicting the potential for shared social experiences, performative value and demand management. A method that combines end use data and mapping can provide reliable judgements, challenging current theories of behavioural patterns related to site elements.

Tempting as it is to create a purist method for new sites, much can be gained from refining and testing measures that can be used at multiple sites. Increased precision does not necessarily improve the quality of the assessment since the measurement may be unimportant in the context of the space or may provide

false confidence. Multiple assessments (generalist) allow for the triangulation of shared values when analysing the typology and measuring what is relevant. Hence, refining and grouping existing measures holds promise, similarly to Forsyth et al. (2007, 2010) in which all methods selected were appropriate for retrospective assessment.

The Design Assessment Framework outlined below has been developed to address the public–private narrative of public spaces through an integrated approach, assessing the performative value and social exchange (publicness) of these spaces. Assessment techniques include post-occupancy evaluations, character assessments, visual analysis and site audits. The point of departure is a methodological non-oppositional approach that allows data to be compared—not only by date but also to other sites aimed to measure public spaces pre- and post-design and inform landscape architectural practice. The Design Assessment Framework provides knowledge of user demand and considers how events that enable social exchange are responsible for changes in public space.

7.2 Aim and objectives

The immediate purpose of the Design Assessment Framework is to provide an integrated methodological non-oppositional approach to measure public spaces, assess public accessibility and inform landscape architectural practice. The framework is designed to minimise individual judgements by consultants. It is grounded through a combination of quantified measurement tools to define the physical change of sites that influence social interaction and use. The combination of methodologies identifies variables shown in other studies to influence public life in public spaces and measures how they vary between these spaces.

The primary aim of the Design Assessment Framework is to determine the publicness of public space by evaluating the public accessibility of case study sites and associated use by publics for a comparative analysis. To achieve this aim, the structure of the framework is important in determining the research approach (subsection 7.3) and the outcomes of the study. The structure is based on Carlson’s (1993) recommendation that good frameworks should comprise an:

- underlying and foundational structure involving principles more basic than those it was built on;
- organisational and orientational focus to provide a structure and direction to other researchers; and
- explanatory account of why certain conditions are obtained.

The recommendations are considered through:

- ordering and connecting disparate lines of research from interdisciplinary fields of research and practice;
- facilitating justification of results by using scientific methods of data analysis;
- balancing theoretical considerations with formal qualities of sites; and
- matching techniques, tools and methods to the purpose of assessment.

The secondary aims of the framework are as follows:

- determine how the use of urban public space is influenced by temporary events, ephemeral conditions, multiple types of publics or activities generating social exchange (private or public) that result in periods of public exclusion;
- evaluate and test data required for reliable conclusions about publicness across selected typologies of public space and the proposed typology of publics;
- identify key elements that drive or affect public space appropriation and social exchange;
- evaluate differences between private and public performative value and social exchange; and
- provide reliable predictions of user demand, which are a direct result of change of use through events and fostered by site elements.

7.3 Research approach

The research approach used to develop the framework combined desktop studies, field assessments and questionnaire surveys. The approach included the following steps, procedures and standards:

- Review of public space typologies to critically assess the differences between typologies and determine if typologies should be assessed in the same way (refer Chapter Three). This review noted the complexities of the seemingly straightforward typology of publicly accessible urban space;
- Review of theories regarding the causes of and corrections to the erosion of public space (refer Chapter Four). This review noted how solutions to the erosion of public space can become new problems;
- Proposal of a new typology of publics: the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public (refer Chapter Five). This proposed typology allows for the assessment of how public space typologies are affected differently by regulations and design principles required to control and maintain them;

- Review of the complexities and varying levels of manifestation of exclusion activities (privatisation) in urban public space (refer Chapter Four). This review questioned the consequences of the diminishing line between private and public space;
- Review of the numerous analytical methods, techniques and tools developed since the 1960s to assess different qualities of public space (refer Chapter Six). This review highlighted the limitations and validity concerns of each method, technique and tool and gaps in current approaches;
- Review of parameters derived from the available research on public use of public space (refer Chapter Six);
- Distribution of two self-administered questionnaire surveys to gather landscape architects' and related design disciplines' views of public space and assessment processes. The questionnaire design was based on a cross-sectional survey design to prevent personal bias influencing respondents. The participants were selected from the disciplines of landscape architecture, urban design and architecture. All participants were contacted through correspondence sent to the Australian Institute of Landscape Architects, Architects Institute of Australia and New Architects Group for distribution to members. Questionnaires were distributed between November 2012 and December 2012. Limited responses were received and they were not statistically significant. Responses collected were deemed invalid, suggesting there is a disconnect between academia and professional practice. (Refer Appendix 3.A to Appendix 3.C for ethics clearances and questionnaires);
- Development of critical dimensions required for public space assessments. These include baseline data, site context, design principles, public space typologies and perceived use; and
- Development of a methodological non-oppositional approach to address the review above.

The method is presented below.

7.4 Approach and data analysis

As a generalised framework combining existing methods, techniques and tools, the Design Assessment Framework integrates experimental and experiential assessments to compare results across case study sites and differing public space typologies. The framework has been designed as a systematic integrated observational site analysis and data tool for an expert or lay person. The Design Assessment Framework:

- combines qualitative and quantitative datasets;

- captures variation in use between activities. Activities are categorised as either public (typical activity – non-event) and a change of use (event - exclusive social activities);
- captures variation in behaviour (frequency and length of use);
- captures variation in public space typologies;
- captures variation in publics;
- responds to issues and weaknesses in existing methods and tools;
- responds to forces that influence and affect city design and is able to inform, follow and challenge these forces;
- is repeatable;
- captures variation in the character of sites;
- ensures the same data are collected at each site regardless of scale;
- allows for meaningful comparison between sites;
- evaluates urban public space; and
- evaluates the micro level impact of amenities.

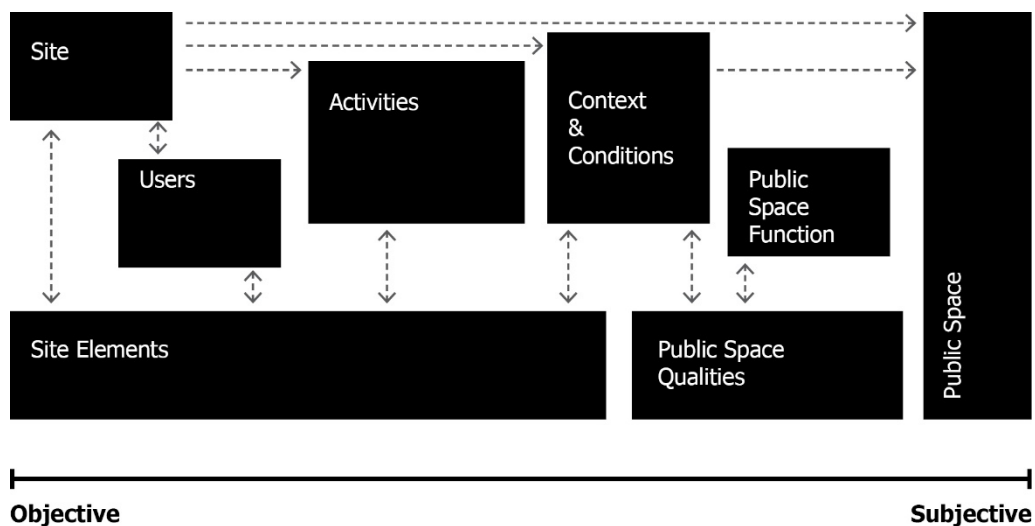


Figure 7-2: Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework underlying this study posits that *if* the preconditions for the use of public spaces are fulfilled, the perceived qualities, typology of publics and the activities *will* result in a perceived public space (Figure 7-2). *If* the preconditions for the use of public spaces are not fulfilled, the qualities, typology of publics and activities *will* result in a perceived private space.

The Design Assessment Framework is not:

- an inventory of site amenities, nor is it an assessment and classification of site amenities in terms of their ability to provide recreation opportunities within public space;

- an inventory of aesthetics or scenic beauty, nor is it an assessment and classification of public spaces in terms of their aesthetics or inherent scenic attractiveness; or
- an inventory of recreation, nor is it an assessment and classification of recreation opportunities in terms of their likeliness to occur within public space.

This outlined approach has the practical benefits of being flexible, adapting to changes in activities and site elements, being fit for purpose and providing reliable end data to predict public space demand scenarios. The approach does this through three levels of assessment as proposed by Forsyth et al. (2007, p. 4) to provide different amounts and types of information:

1. Identifying features: Identifying and articulating visual or place character.
2. Measuring features: Quantifying or counting the features of the place in some way.
3. Evaluating features: Adding an evaluative component either in comparison to other scenes and places or by creating some form of scoring system.

Key to the approach and the three levels is how the framework measures the public accessibility of the case study sites by considering demographics, site elements, behavioural factors and site context and conditions.

This thesis acknowledges the strengths and weaknesses of various methods. In identifying elements or assessing design qualities, different assessment techniques provide different information of place so what is identified or assessed depends on the method selected. Noting that places differ and offer different qualities, it is important to focus on the character of place to determine what should be assessed. Forsyth et al. (2007, 2010), among others, recommend best practice is to use multiple methods of assessment. In this study, 13 participatory, graphic and checklist methods were integrated:

1. field notes
2. systematic observation
3. place audits
4. block environmental inventory
5. post-occupancy evaluations
6. counting, pedestrian flows and staying activities
7. behavioural methods
8. tracking and shadowing
9. human traces or tracing
10. visual assessment
11. photo documentation
12. test walks

13. walkability index.

Each method, technique and tool (listed above) is based on an existing method and links with Psychological, Perception, Aesthetic, Physical Form, Usability and User Satisfaction Theories. These are typically measured by assessing size, access, residential grain and the transport environment, all of which promote social interaction (refer Chapter Six). This will enable comparison between public space characteristics and other studies. Existing tools have already been tested for reliability and validity.

7.5 Methodological procedure and data collection

In assessing the publicness of public space, the focus is on change over time and the identification of trends rather than absolute measures, noting the use of public space is temporal in nature and any data collected can only reflect the time of the collection.

A comprehensive in-depth analysis is required to determine the degree of publicness occurring. The following methodological procedure has been established to conduct this analysis:

- Step one: Site selection
- Step two: Data collection (outlined below)
- Step three: Data collation
- Step four: Data assessment.

The Design Assessment Framework includes two data collection components: desktop assessment and site assessment. Desktop assessment identifies the scope and extent of the case study sites assessed and consists of data collected by authorities such as local councils. Data includes aerial photography, site plans and policy and planning documents. This component provides objective baseline data via obtaining and reviewing all relevant information pertaining to the site. The information required includes:

- topographic maps of administrative boundaries, vegetation cover, access points and land uses;
- maps showing existing, planned and related developments;
- brochures, concept plans, if available, showing existing, proposed or related facilities and special features;
- existing studies or inventories;
- statistics, if available; and
- creating a base map.

The site assessment component relies on direct observation methods and is designed to be conducted in the field via a checklist (refer Table 7-1). The checklist includes data that can be collected quickly, with each element assigned an equal weighting of Yes (1) or No (0). Recordings in the field enable data reflecting sound, smell and touch to be included in the datasets and replication by private practice and academic fields. Data includes user statistics, site elements and site activities. Refer Table 7-2 to Table 7-7. This component provides both objective and subjective information.

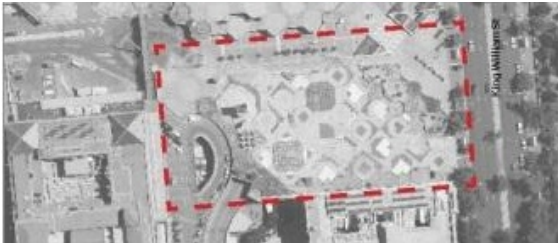
Many methods have been criticised because of their analysis of subjective site elements and how each element has been weighted (refer Appendix 4.B Detailed Overview of Assessment Methods). The Design Assessment Framework collected presence Yes (1) or absence No (0) only to remove ambiguity and assumptions (further details are provided below). The noting of 'present' or 'absent' also removes concerns about constancy of elements, which has been noted by Ewing and Handy (2009) to complicate measurement, validation and use in research and design.

Because of the equal weighting, the framework does not use regression analysis, which is typical for landscape evaluations in geography and environmental psychology. Regression analysis was excluded to reduce validity concerns regarding weighting independent elements, which is subjective and costly. The major concerns over weighting elements are that there is no agreed standard, resulting in elements weighted for each study. Insufficient rigorous tests are undertaken to establish independence of the independent elements. For this reason, Aoki (1999), Blacksell and Gilg (1975) and Francis (2001) propose that an agreed list of elements and standard variables is required for future studies. Given that public space studies consider the use of space by publics that are temporal in nature, this study does acknowledge that no study can be completely objective.

Three pilot studies were undertaken to evaluate the assessment framework. During and after each pilot study, the methodology was evaluated and reassessed to monitor reliability and relevance and amend the checklist as required. The checklist and datasets were revised three times, with the final checklist presented in Table 7-1 and datasets presented in Table 7-2 to Table 7-7 below.

The outcome of the assessment is the measurement, description and classification of landscape elements to provide information to decision makers through statements and maps.

Table 7-1: Design Assessment Framework site assessment checklist

| Design Assessment Framework Checklist | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|---|-------------------------|----|
| Site Visit Information | | | | | |
| Date | | | | | |
| Time | Time arrived | Time left | | Total time on site | |
| | | | | | |
| Weather | | | | | |
| Event (exclusive social activity) | | | | | |
| User Statistics | | | | | |
| User numbers | 0–20 | 20–100 | 100–500 | 500+ | |
| | | | | | |
| User ages | 0–20 | 20–60 | | 60+ | |
| | | | | | |
| Typology of Publics | The Defined Public | The Appropriating Public | The Transitory Public | The Illegitimate Public | |
| | | | | | |
| Length of stay | Long | Medium | | Short | |
| | | | | | |
| Gender | Male | Female | MAP | | |
| | | |  | | |
| Presence | Individuals | Groups | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Interaction between users | Yes | No | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Notes | | | | | |
| Site Elements | | | | | |
| Signage | Yes | No | Signage additional | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Security cameras | Yes | No | Security cameras (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Security presence | Yes | No | Security presence (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Maintenance presence | Yes | No | Maintenance presence (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Seating (fixed) | Yes | No | Seating (additional / loose) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Public art | Yes | No | Public art (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Public pride | Yes | No | Public pride (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Bins | Yes | No | Bins (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Drinking fountains | Yes | No | Drinking fountains (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Lighting | Yes | No | Lighting (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Transport (access to) | Yes | No | Food (access to) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Beverages (access to) | Yes | No | Barriers/fencing | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Amenities (other) | Yes | No | Notes | | |
| | | | | | |

| Site Surfaces and Structures | | | | | |
|--|-----|----|---------------------------------------|-----|----|
| Paving | Yes | No | Paving (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Gardens | Yes | No | Gardens (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Lawn | Yes | No | Lawn (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Shade (vegetation) | Yes | No | Shade (vegetation, additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Shade (built) | Yes | No | Shade (built, additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Water | Yes | No | Water (additional) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Surfaces and structures (other) | Yes | No | Notes | | |
| | | | | | |
| Site Activities (Formal and Informal Recreation) | | | | | |
| Formal recreation (sport) | Yes | No | Informal recreation (seating) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Commercial activities | Yes | No | Cultural activities | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Passing through | Yes | No | Tourist activities (sightseeing) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Prohibited or illegitimate activities | Yes | No | Informal recreation (reading) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Informal recreation (lying down) | Yes | No | Informal recreation (picnic) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Formal recreation (fitness groups) | Yes | No | Informal recreation (other) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Informal recreation (play) | Yes | No | Buskers | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Event setup | Yes | No | Construction works | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Commuting | Yes | No | Business (in course of work) | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Social or entertainment | Yes | No | Shopping or commerce | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Not evident | Yes | No | Notes | | |
| | | | | | |
| Site Context and Conditions | | | | | |
| Natural surveillance | Yes | No | Constant users | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Clear design intent | Yes | No | High prospect/low refuge | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Significance and value | Yes | No | Social imageability | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Restorative places | Yes | No | Social interaction and territoriality | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Orientation | Yes | No | Movement | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| View | Yes | No | Change | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Neighbourhood awareness | Yes | No | Private–public awareness | Yes | No |
| | | | | | |
| Thematic continuity | Yes | No | Notes | | |
| | | | | | |

Site visit information: Quantitative dataset

Site visit information is collected to allow comparison between quantifiable components and the attributes of public spaces to determine the social and economic effects of publicness and conversely, privatisation.

Site visit information (see Table 7-2 below), presents objective baseline data and records site conditions at the time of data collection. Weather and events are of particular importance because these two items can have a significant outcome on the performative value of public space by altering how public space is appropriated and the public behaviour within the space. The mapping of events further explores ways to serve different publics in short-term cycles of appropriation and is seen by many, including architect Bernard Tschumi (1996), as crucial to understanding contemporary public space.

Table 7-2: Site visit information

| Site Visit Information | | Example - 1 |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| Site name | Commonly known name | North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road) |
| Site visit date | Day and date | Sunday - 27.01.2013 |
| Time arrived | am or pm | 12:00 pm |
| Time left | am or pm | 2:00 pm |
| Total time on site | Noted | 2 hours |
| Weather | Noted | 29 degrees/sun |
| Event (exclusive social activity) | Noted | Tour Down Under occurring nearby on King William Street |

Site visit information was collected as part of this study to provide data to undertake independent 2-group t-tests. T-tests are a method used to check the hypothesis that two populations having equal means and averages are significantly different, taking into account the size of the population (i.e. whether there is enough data to support conclusions). Site visit information should be collected as part of the Design Assessment Framework as a record of assessment times and dates and site conditions.

The dataset used for the analysis involves following a systematic procedure utilising quantitative methods, techniques and tools. The Design Assessment Framework reviewed the following direct, unstructured and walking observational methods, techniques and tools as precedents for data collection:

- field notes;
- systematic observation;
- place audits;
- block environmental inventory; and
- post-occupancy evaluations.

Public accessibility measures: Qualitative and quantitative dataset

Public space *'always only proven in practice, never, that is, guaranteed in the abstract'*.

Don Mitchell 2003, p. 4.

The aim of analysing public accessibility measures is to identify the user statistics of a public space and in so doing, determine a Design Assessment Framework (DAF) rating. The DAF rating scores a public space typology by measuring the performative value and social exchange (accessibility) of each typology by assessing different urban contexts and events (activities). The scores are used to identify missing characteristics or amenities and the influence of diverse forms of exclusion—a direct result of change of use through temporary events.

Seven measures of public accessibility (publicness) presented in Chapter Five were deemed relevant (refer Table 7-3) in establishing the base information required to determine the DAF rating. The measures put aside the ambiguity of public space and racial restrictions (Mitchell 1996; Ruddick 1996), meaning (Sorkin 1992), the use of 'citizenship' to gain access (Staeheli & Thompson 1997) and other socially imposed factors (Talen 2000) to undertake systematic observations assessing who is using public space, if interaction between groups occurs and how long activities and behaviour occur. The collection of the seven measures takes into consideration the temporal nature of the data collected. The seven measures were selected as a method for determining community representation of life and inclusion in urban spaces.

A total score of 7 indicates that the public space contains all public accessibility measures (user statistics). A score of 0 would indicate the space does not contain the public accessibility measures. Each of the seven measures is equally weighted, that is, user numbers are considered important as typology of publics, age or interaction.

User numbers via counting has become a common yet basic quantitative research tool to assess pedestrian movement and numbers in public space by gathering quantitative data to justify improvements and evaluate success or failure of public spaces.

Broad age groups are common for observation methods and are noted by Veitch et al. (2014). Age groups are qualitative assumptions based on the assessor's judgement.

Table 7-3: Public measures

| Public accessibility measures (user statistics) | | | Example - 1 | |
|---|--------|---------|-------------|------|
| User number: 0–20 people present | Y or N | 0.25 | Yes | 0.25 |
| User number: 21–100 people present | Y or N | 0.25 | Yes | 0.25 |
| User number: 101–500 people present | Y or N | 0.25 | No | 0 |
| User number: 501+ people present | Y or N | 0.25 | No | 0 |
| User age: 0–20 age group present | Y or N | 0.33 | No | 0 |
| User age: 21–60 age group present | Y or N | 0.33 | Yes | 0.33 |
| User age: 61+ age group present | Y or N | 0.33 | Yes | 0.33 |
| Typology of publics: The Defined Public | Y or N | 0.25 | Yes | 0.25 |
| Typology of publics: The Appropriating Public | Y or N | 0.25 | Yes | 0.25 |
| Typology of publics: The Transitory Public | Y or N | 0.25 | Yes | 0.25 |
| Typology of publics: The Illegitimate Public | Y or N | 0.25 | Yes | 0.25 |
| Gender: Male | Y or N | 0.5 | Yes | 0.5 |
| Gender: Female | Y or N | 0.5 | Yes | 0.5 |
| Presence: Individual | Y or N | 0.5 | Yes | 0.5 |
| Presence: Group | Y or N | 0.5 | Yes | 0.5 |
| Interaction between users | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Length of stay: Short (0–15minutes) | Y or N | 0.33 | Yes | 0.33 |
| Length of stay: Medium (15–45 minutes) | Y or N | 0.33 | No | 0 |
| Length of stay: Long (45 minutes or more) | Y or N | 0.33 | No | 0 |
| DAF Rating | Total | 7 | Total | 4.5 |
| | | Maximum | | |

Lack or removal of one or more publics through actions designed into public spaces or restrictions placed on public space through events or private usage is speculated within this study to represent degrees of exclusion (privatisation). The publics measured are the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public (refer to Chapter Five). These proposed publics are affected differently by regulations and design principles. The typology of publics is a qualitative assumption based on the assessor’s judgement, in other words, determining a public moving through the space (transitory), undertaking defined activities or appropriating the space for their own use. The collection of typologies takes into consideration the temporal nature of the data collected. Typologies of publics were selected as a public accessibility measure because landscape architects need to recognise the diversity of public in public space and acknowledge that diversity is not predictable or controllable. Recognition indicates sensitivity to cultural norms, opening dialogues that distinguish the different forms of publics and their activities and public space typologies in the 21st century.

As discussed in Chapters Two and Four, rights to public space are not clear and some publics perceive a clear divide between use and gender. This divide has been attributed to inequalities and how some public places can be perceived as unwelcoming by particular genders, with many publics struggling for inclusion based on gender. These findings are supported in several disciplines, including geography, criminology and environmental psychology. Gender is a qualitative assumption based on the assessor’s judgement and is acknowledged as subjective.

Individuals' or groups' presence expands user numbers. The differentiation between groups and individuals gathers data of social distance (Whyte 1980) and indicates if the space functions for multiple users without social connections. This dataset uses counting to establish levels of use by groups and the overall comfort of public space. The comfort of public space is linked to return use.

Social distance is a subtle ever-changing measure (Whyte 1980), depending on how willing users are to interact with those unknown to them. Interaction between users expands on user numbers and user presence, gathering data on the changes in social distance that are not linked to necessity. Collection of this data supports the function of spaces as public space and determines potential catalysts for triangulation (Whyte 1980) to occur between strangers and place.

Studies on the duration of activities are undertaken to illustrate the character of public space as a destination or transient area, the nature of public life and quality offered. Length of stay has been linked by many, including Ellickson (1996), to the design of space and the designed behaviour/unspoken informal time limits that allow publics to exercise their identical rights to the same space. There is a fine line between the positive outcome of public space, such as increased length of stay, and the negative of overstaying, which can change an individual from a defined public to an illegitimate public. The longer a member of the public stays in a rapid turnover public space (disrespecting an informal time limit), the more likely they are to deter others from using the space. This behaviour highlights the so-called shortcomings of the space. The length of stay of groups such as street performers, solicitors, charities, church groups, buskers or beggars are seen as negative unless specifically warranted by a legitimate event, in which case they are then seen as a positive. The flip side is the greater number of defined publics using long-staying designed spaces is seen as a positive (Whyte 1980). For this study, a short length of stay is considered less than half an hour, a mid-length stay is half an hour to one hour, while a long stay exceeds one hour.

Because this study focuses on usage, cultural backgrounds were not deemed relevant. Typically, items such as occupation, hobbies, academic background, religion and residential status were not included in the study since they are related to an individual's cultural background and are linked to perceptions of space. These items were highlighted in Aoki's (1999) review of methods.

Further to the exclusion of cultural backgrounds, qualitative characteristics of public space that assess social interaction constraints—such as perceived safety—were not deemed relevant. The Design Assessment Framework does have the ability to expand to include qualitative characteristics as deemed necessary by the assessor.

The dataset used for the analysis involves taking systematic observations of participants within the study area to assess usage. The Design Assessment Framework reviewed multiple methods, techniques and tools as precedents for data collection and employed the following analysis of user statistics:

- field notes;
- systematic observation;
- counting, pedestrian flows and staying activities;
- behavioural methods;
- place audits;
- block environmental inventory; and
- post-occupancy evaluations.

Assessment of user statistics provides demographic data. The data rendered will allow landscape architects to determine how public each public space typology is by describing relationships and interactions between genders, age groups and length of time on site.

Site elements: Quantitative dataset

Site visit information and user statistics only provide one part of the picture (Owens 1993). Results from those two datasets may suggest sites are similar based on the data collected. Visiting the sites and assessing the site elements shows a different picture, highlighting the implications of simple comparisons.

Elements in the environment influence experience (Amir & Gidalizon 1990; Aoki 1999; Chen et al. 2009; Clay & Smidt 2004; Dempsey 2008; Worpole 2003; Yu 1995). The type, amount and quality of site elements plays an important role in the built environment because physical features directly and indirectly influence perceptions (Ewing & Handy 2009) of public space. The assessment of site elements establishes the spatial preference of users (Foltête & Piombini 2007; Whyte 1980, 1988). This is achieved by providing data on how individuals react to space given their attitude and preference for elements, thereby providing conclusions on which elements are attractors.

Twenty-four measures are considered relevant (refer Table 7-4) in establishing the base information required to assess public space and public accessibility (publicness). The list in Table 7-4 is a collection of objective items, including cultural markers such as public art and everyday items such as signage. The list is a predefined checklist. To provide a measure of publicness, each element has equal weighting. The site elements dataset collected 'yes' or 'no', 'present' or 'absent' only to remove ambiguity of the observer and the subjective nature of the elements. Noting 'present' or 'absent' also removes hypothetical assumptions of importance and influence, whether permanent or temporary, and any concerns regarding the constancy of elements.

Table 7-4: Site elements

| Site Elements | | | Example - 1 | |
|-----------------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------------|-----------|
| Signage | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Signage (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Security cameras | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Security cameras (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Security presence | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Security presence (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Maintenance presence | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Maintenance presence - additional | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Seating (fixed) | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Seating (additional/loose) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Public art | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Public art (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Public pride | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Public pride (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Bins | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Bins (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Drinking fountains | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Lighting | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Lighting (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Transport (access to) | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Food (access to) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Beverages (access to) | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Barriers (fencing) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Other urban furniture | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Total | | 24 Maximum | Total | 10 |

Note: This list is not final and may be expanded to include site elements that occur on any given site.

Site elements are built features and amenities deemed independent variables in the case study sites. The initial list of physical features measured was derived from urban design and landscape architecture literature, visual assessment studies and early site investigations. Selected site elements match literature and precedent studies and are the main elements of the public space that affects the quality life. Selected elements are a mix of those that encourage, discourage or control use.

This dataset looks only at the visible physical features and amenities, such as seating, which could influence the nature and length of interaction. Features include major and minor amenities that foster interaction, but excludes elements such as landform and architectural structures. Temporary site elements such as additional bins for events are included and equate to nine of the 24 measures. The variables selected for investigation can be expanded as required.

All the elements listed above, minus the additional, are typically collected in assessments of public space. Because there was no consensus as to which features or elements create high-quality space (refer other chapters) or which are more important, all features or elements should be considered equally. Additional or temporary element items are included as part of this thesis.

This dataset assists in understanding how particular features attract users and encourage site-based activity, allowing analysis of real-world policy controls

and interventions. The results will provide landscape architects with the following:

- elements that are positive attractors to sites and elements that are detractors; and
- specific features that are major factors associated with increased use.

This dataset used for the analysis involves taking systematic reviews of site elements within the study area. The Design Assessment Framework reviewed multiple methods, techniques and tools as precedents for data collection and employed the following analysis of site elements:

- field notes;
- visual assessment;
- photo documentation;
- systematic observation;
- test walks;
- walkability index;
- counting, pedestrian flows and staying activities;
- behavioural methods;
- place audits;
- block environmental inventory; and
- post-occupancy evaluations.

Site surface and structures: Quantitative dataset

Site surfaces and structures data expands on site elements data. Thirteen measures are argued to have relevance (refer Table 7-5) in establishing the base information required to assess public space and public space accessibility (publicness). The list in Table 7-5 is a collection of objective surfaces and structures typically found in public spaces and is a predefined checklist. To provide a measure of public accessibility each surface has equal weighting. The site surfaces and structures dataset collected 'yes' or 'no', 'present' or 'absent' only to remove subjectivity and assumptions.

This dataset assists in understanding how particular surface features attract users and encourage site-based activity, allowing analysis of real-world policy controls and interventions. The results will enable landscape architects to determine the following:

- specific features that are a major factor associated with increased use; and
- specific features that are a major factor associated with diverse staying activities.

Table 7-5: Site surfaces and structures

| Site Surfaces and Structures | | | Example - 1 | | |
|--------------------------------|--------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|----------|
| Paving | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 | |
| Paving (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Gardens | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 | |
| Gardens (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Lawn | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 | |
| Lawn (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Shade (vegetation) | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 | |
| Shade (vegetation, additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Shade (built) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Shade (built, additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Water | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 | |
| Water (additional) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| Other surface changes | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 | |
| | | Total | 13 Maximum | Total | 5 |

Note: This list is not final and can be expanded to include surfaces and structures that occur at any given site.

This dataset used for the analysis takes a systematic review of site surfaces and structures within the study area. The Design Assessment Framework reviewed multiple methods, techniques and tools as precedents for data collection and employed the following analysis of site surfaces and structures:

- field notes;
- systematic observation;
- place audits;
- block environmental inventory; and
- post-occupancy evaluations.

Site activities: Quantitative dataset

Geographers seek to understand the relative vibrancy of urban public spaces, analysing what some called the ‘place ballet’ that develops through the relatively unscripted, but nonetheless norm-structured interactions of people going about their business, hanging out and moving through (Forsyth et al. 2010; Mitchell & Staeheli 2009). To empirically establish whether there is a relationship between publicness, public space typologies and the typology of publics, an analysis of activities is required. This detailed dataset builds upon user statistics, providing additional information, and allowing for assessments to consider the mix of users and intensity of usage to arrive at valid correlations about publics and reasons for use of space. An analysis of site activities responds to questions that focus on possible influences from a spatial context including adjacent sites. Assessments determine to what extent the sites are accessible.

Table 7-6 presents the 21 subjective and objective activities that commonly occur in public space, forming the baseline data collected. Activities included in the table are optional (only take place in good conditions) and necessary (take place in all conditions) (refer Chapter Five). To provide a measure of public accessibility, each activity has equal weighting. The site activities dataset

collected 'yes' or 'no', 'present' or 'absent' to remove subjectivity and assumptions.

Table 7-6: Site activities

| Site Activities | | | Example - 1 | |
|---------------------------------------|--------|--------------|----------------|----------|
| Formal recreation (sport) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Informal recreation (seating) | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Commercial activities | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Cultural activities* | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Passing through* | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Tourist activities (sightseeing) * | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Prohibited or illegitimate activities | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Informal recreation (reading) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Informal recreation (lying down) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Informal recreation (picnic) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Formal recreation (fitness groups) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Informal recreation (other) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Informal recreation (play) | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Buskers | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Event setup | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Construction works | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Commuting* | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Business (in course of work)* | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Social* or entertainment | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Shopping or commerce | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Not evident* | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| | | Total | Total | 8 |
| | | 21 | Maximum | |

* Highlighted columns are subjective activities.

Note: This list is not final and can be expanded to include activities that occur at any given site. The Design Assessment Framework recommends not including an 'other' category because knowing which activities occur is required to assess site usage.

Correlation analyses of site activities compared with user statistics and site elements provide configurational measurements and social data that will enable landscape architects to determine the following:

- any reduction in activities and publics undertaking activities because of degrees of exclusion; and
- if there is a link between public space typologies and the form of social interaction that occurs.

Data are collected through a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques, tools and methods. The Design Assessment Framework reviewed the following direct, unstructured and walking observational methods techniques and tools as precedents for data collection:

- tracking and shadowing;
- human traces or tracing;
- field notes;
- photo documentation;
- systematic observation;
- test walks;
- walkability index;

- counting, pedestrian flows and staying activities;
- behavioural methods;
- place audits;
- block environmental inventory;
- post-occupancy evaluations; and
- design workshops.

Direct, unstructured and walking observational methods were selected to assess use and activity and to record the intensity of activities to capture uses out of the norm. This method involves taking systematic observations of each participant within the study area collected in two forms: checklist and mapping. Both forms are required to gather subjective and objective data. The mapping of sites captures subjective data for assessment in terms of locations and enables configurative analyses to be made between sites at different times of day.

Because of the spontaneous nature of publics, the Design Assessment Framework collects data over a 24-hour period in all seasons to provide a reliable picture of the system and everyday standard routines. This is required to capture use during different site modes, such as mapping large crowds (the appropriating publics) leaving venues, displacing the transitory and the defined publics.

Site context and conditions: Qualitative and quantitative dataset

The appearance of the public space affects uses and thereby the success of the space. Key to success is how comfortable a space appears (Pasaogullari & Doratli 2004), the quality of the space and the aesthetics. Comfort, quality and aesthetic considerations have been identified as key variables for measuring the utilisation of public spaces and are linked to site context and conditions.

Fifteen predictors of comfort, quality and aesthetics are deemed relevant (refer Table 7-7) in establishing the base information required to assess public space and public accessibility. To provide a measure of public accessibility, each predictor has equal weighting. The list is a collection of subjective items and is a predefined checklist. The site context and conditions dataset collected 'yes' or 'no', 'present' or 'absent' to remove subjectivity and assumptions.

'Comfort' measures safety by considering natural surveillance, high prospect/low refuge, restorative places orientation, social interaction and territoriality, change in use and private–public awareness. Ability to move, seek refuge and orientate are all linked to feeling comfortable and welcome. Spaces that impede comfort, thereby change use and represent degrees of exclusion.

Table 7-7: Site context and conditions

| Site Context and Conditions | | | Example - 1 | |
|---------------------------------------|--------|--------------|----------------|-----------|
| Natural surveillance | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Constant users | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Clear design intent | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| High prospect/low refuge | Y or N | 1 | No | 0 |
| Significance and value | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Social imageability* | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Restorative places | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Social interaction and territoriality | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Orientation | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Movement | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| View | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Change in use | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Neighbourhood awareness | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Private–public awareness | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| Thematic continuity | Y or N | 1 | Yes | 1 |
| | | Total | Total | 14 |
| | | 15 | Maximum | |

* Imageability, as defined by Lynch (1960), refers to the fundamental nature of any environment to create a powerful quality for the urban image of the city.

Note: This list is not final and can be expanded to include additional site activities and constraints that occur at any given site. The Design Assessment Framework recommends not including an ‘other’ category because knowing the context and conditions activities occur is required to assess site usage.

‘Quality’ measures variation in activities and facilities by considering significance and value, movement and social interaction and territoriality.

‘Aesthetics’ measures maintenance, cleanliness and appearance by considering constant uses, clear design intent, social imageability, change in use, neighbourhood awareness and thematic continuity.

These predictors of use link connections to site and sense of safety of the site by assessing coherence, complexity, legibility, mystery, attentional restorativeness and familiarity. An individual’s preference was not assessed as part of this study.

Ewing and Handy’s (2009) urban design qualities of enclosure, human scale, transparency and complexity were excluded from the individual assessments. Social imageability was included because of consensus by Ewing and Handy (2009), Gehl (1987) and Lynch (1960), that highly imageable places are well formed, contain distinct parts, are instantly recognisable and contribute to a sense of place. Landmarks and distinctive buildings are examples of imageability.

Assessment types excluded from the checklist were:

- zone (planning);
- geographical data (property and district level); and
- access (physical distance travelled or travelling time from a to b). Access is considered actual access to site via movement.

Data are collected through a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques, tools and methods. The Design Assessment Framework reviewed multiple methods, techniques and tools as precedents for data collection and employed the following analysis of site context and conditions:

- field notes;
- visual assessment;
- systematic observation;
- place audits; and
- block environmental inventory.

This method is the same as the one used for the site activities dataset. It involved taking systematic observations of each participant within the study area to capture subjective data for assessment in terms of locations and enabled configurative analyses to be made between sites at different times of day.

Correlation analyses of site context and conditions compared with user statistics provide configurational measurements and social data that will enable landscape architects to determine the following:

- character of different sites as a guide to development and design changes;
- visual interest and influence to guide the development of control and regulation typologies;
- indication of susceptibility to change; and
- context and conditions that are favourable to all publics.

7.6 Summary

The Design Assessment Framework provides a guide for alternative design strategies and policy formation for public landscapes by two means. The first is to present a more comprehensive capture and assessment of elements in the environment. The second is to introduce a new tool for measuring the degree of publicness in public space.

The Design Assessment Framework is used in Chapter Nine to measure the publicness of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia and to suggest which elements, surfaces, activities and context contribute to or erode public accessibility and social exchange.

Chapter Eight

The Adelaide Laboratory



Figure 8-1: OzAsia Festival, Home Sound Installation on Goodman Lawns, Adelaide University, adjacent to North Terrace. (Photo by author 2017)

To address the question, *How public is public space?*, Chapter Eight introduces 16 metropolitan public spaces selected as case study sites in Adelaide, South Australia. These sites represent five typical public space typologies outlined in Chapter Three—Parks & Gardens, Streets & Promenades, Plazas & Squares, Waterfronts and Commercial Spaces. This chapter outlines the importance of Adelaide, South Australia in testing the Design Assessment Framework, developed in Chapter Seven and measuring the performative value of public space as spaces of social exchange rather than simply focusing on aesthetics, typology or location. The Adelaide case study sites represent the potential variables in public spaces and in some instances, those considered compatible with public social exchange or those considered antithetical to public social exchange.

The Design Assessment Framework is used in Chapter Nine to measure the performative value (accessibility) of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse range of publics and to suggest which elements, surfaces, activities and contexts contribute to or erode the public accessibility and social exchange.

8.1 Adelaide as a case study

[Adelaide], *one of the last great planned metropolises*.

Gehl Architects 2012, p. 8.

As highlighted by Scazzosi (2004), comparisons undertaken in Western countries in the northern hemisphere have presented a global and unitary vision of public space. The majority of landscape assessments have been undertaken in European countries (particularly in Great Britain, Italy, France, Poland, Germany, Holland, Slovenia, Spain, Denmark and Norway) and North America.

With a consideration to look outside the northern hemisphere, Adelaide, South Australia, the third most liveable city in the world in 2021, was selected for this study. Little has been published by Western geographers or landscape architects on Adelaide. Yet, Adelaide is widely recognised as a well-designed, well-planned urban space. The selection of Adelaide demonstrates a range of public spaces, including privately owned, publicly accessible spaces, to test the proposed Design Assessment Framework.

But South Australia deserves much, for apparently she is a hospitable home for every alien who chooses to come and for his religion too.

Mark Twain 1897, p. 181.

While Adelaide is a comparatively new city by international standards, the public spaces can be considered benchmarks because of the historical and contemporary patterns of planning, political standing and dedication to the provision of public space. Metropolitan Adelaide (greater Adelaide) is home to almost 1.5 million people from over 200 culturally, linguistically and religiously diverse backgrounds, accounting for nearly 85% of South Australia's population. The diversity of Adelaide's civic and public spaces has been a characteristic of the city's urban built form. From the mid-19th century, Adelaide has been labelled and is regarded as the 'City of Churches', referring to its diversity of faiths rather than the devoutness of its citizens, and is ironically one of Australia's least religious cities. It is also the Festival State, referring to the number of cultural events that take place annually (refer Figure 8-1 for OzAsia Festival example).

The City of Adelaide comprises the Adelaide central business district (CBD) and affluent suburb North Adelaide covering an area of 15.57 km². It has a resident population of 22,065 (ABS, Estimated Resident Population on 23 October 2017, latest available). More than 262,000 individuals work, study, volunteer or visit the city each day (City of Adelaide, n.d.), accounting for 20% of the state's economy. It is anticipated that the population of Greater Adelaide will grow by over 500,000 people in the next 30 years, meaning upwards of an additional 15,000 individuals living in the Adelaide CBD by 2036.

Adelaide's surviving grid layout of alternating wide and narrow streets and six squares surrounded by 7.6km² of Park Lands was planned by Colonel William Light prior to European settlement in 1836 (refer Figure 8-2 - Figure 8-3). The city plan received national heritage status in 2008 because of the grid layout, which is considered a legible, rare and complete exemplar of 19th century colonial planning, reflecting early theories and ideas of the Garden City movement (Adelaide City Council 2015; Australian Government Department of the Environment 2015; DASH Architects 2018; Summerling 2011).

Of central importance to the Adelaide plan was the intentional provision of public space. 50% was set aside as public space for 'common' use such as exercise and recreation in a response to 'urbanisation' (DASH Architects 2018; Morton 1996). This plan was then used as a model for other towns in Australia and New Zealand (Adelaide City Council 2015; Australian Government Department of the Environment 2015; Summerling 2011) and is comparable to



Figure 8-2: Original 1837 plan of the City of Adelaide. (Image courtesy of the Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts)

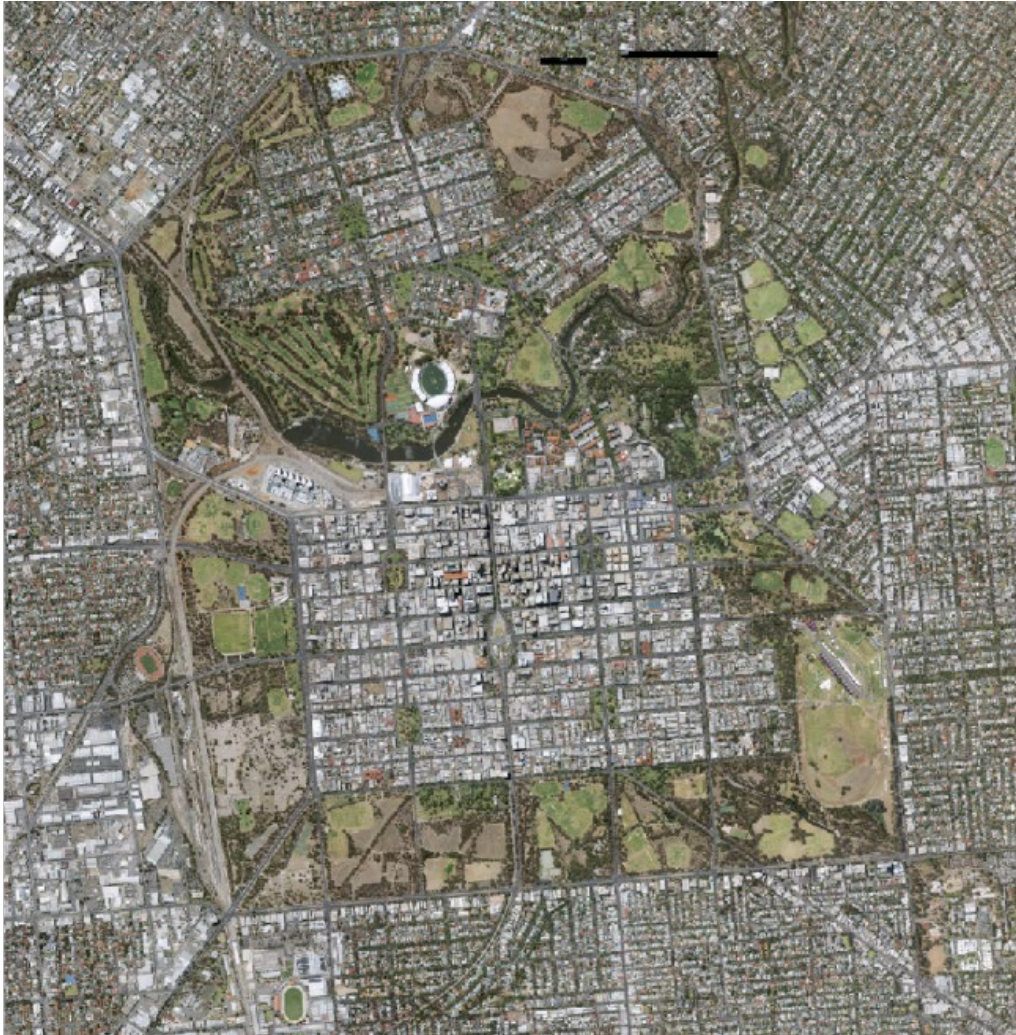


Figure 8-3: March 2015 satellite photo. (Photo courtesy of the City of Adelaide)

Portland, Oregon and Savannah, Georgia in the United States (DASH Architects 2018; Morton 1996). Encircled by Park Lands, the siting of the city responded to the local topography, with the orientation and hierarchy of the streets maximising views and vistas onto the surrounding Park Lands and the Mt Lofty Ranges to the east. Together, these features contribute to the international regard with which the City of Adelaide is held as an exemplar of urban design and urban planning. Accordingly, the plan of Adelaide has been labelled by urban planners, urban designers, historians and town planners, including Gehl Architects (2011), as one of the best and last planned cities in the world.

The City of Adelaide has been cited as an Australian example of a 'doughnut city' (Ware et al. 2011). A doughnut city has strong day usage but is devoid of overnight populations except on Friday and Saturday nights. Ware et al. (2011) note that the dramatic change of use from day to night is because of past economic drivers—retail, commercial and educational—precipitating specific daytime activities. In the past decade, land use in the city has changed, with an increase in inner-city housing that has attracted a growing number of young people (university students) and developments to attract people day and night. Increased night populations are associated with changes implemented by the City of Adelaide and the Government of South Australia, which acknowledge that '[t]he City Centre is the public, civic place and as a city, we want everyone from Noarlunga to Norwood coming into town' (6° Urban 2013, p. 29). These planning changes include the state government's liquor licensing laws, introduced in 2013, and the establishment of Renew Adelaide Inc., which has supported creative enterprise in vacant spaces since 2010. The City of Adelaide Council also provides a range of grants and financial support designed to attract and assist small business operators such as the Climate Change Action Initiatives Fund, 'Free Rates for Five Years' owner–occupier rebate and the Green City Grant Program. The latest initiative is Green Adelaide (n.d.). Effective collaboration between the city council and the state government has allowed progress to be undertaken in the city for the benefit of the public.

Adelaide has consistently been ranked in the top 10 of the world's most liveable cities by *The Economist Intelligence Unit* (2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2021) and the *Property Council of Australia* (2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014), in the top 50 cities in the *Mercer Quality of Living Survey* (2010, 2012, 2015, 2016, 2017) and in the top 5 of the State of Australian Cities reports. In 2020, the Ipsos survey ranked Adelaide as Australia's most liveable city (Carter 2020), followed by ranking third in the Global Liveability Index 2021. The liveability ranking is a result of its Mediterranean climate and coastal location, a legacy of planning, focus on innovative economy strategies with a positive impact on business attraction and retention. Further, Cisco declared Adelaide the first Lighthouse City in Australia in 2015, joining other major cities, including Barcelona, Chicago, Dubai and Hamburg. In addition, Adelaide has been ranked

ninth (2014) and fifth (2016) in *Lonely Planet's* Top Cities of the World. *National Geographic Channel* selected Adelaide in 2013 to be included in its list of 18 liveable cities and was the first program produced in a documentary series named *Smart Cities*. Adelaide was the only Australian city on the list and was selected because of its multicultural population, landscapes, architecture and wine culture. In 2018, Adelaide was selected as one of 21 finalists in the Intelligent Community Forum Smart21 annual Intelligent Community Awards based on an Intelligent Community Index. Adelaide became Australia's first capital Welcoming City in 2018, being internationally recognised for fostering a sense of belonging and participation. This title extends Adelaide's diversity and inclusivity from 2014, when Adelaide was declared a Refugee Welcome Zone.

Adelaide's different to many of the cities it is compared with, so needs specific strategies.

6° Urban 2013, p. 11.

The diversity of Adelaide's civic and public spaces has led to many strategies, reports and visions being developed, including:

- City of Adelaide Strategic Plan – City of Adelaide
- The 30 Year Plan – Government of South Australia
- State Strategic Plan – Government of South Australia
- Vibrant Adelaide DPA – Government of South Australia
- 7 Strategic Priorities – Government of South Australia
- 5000+ – Integrated Design Commission
- Smart Move Strategy – City of Adelaide
- Public Space Public Life: City of Adelaide 2011 – Gehl Architects
- Thinkers Report – Charles Landry
- Adelaide Fine Grain Report: A Strategy for Strengthening the Fine Grain of the Adelaide City Centre – 6° Urban
- Urban Design Guidelines 1988 – City of Adelaide
- Adelaide Design Manual 2014 – City of Adelaide
- Carbon Neutral Strategy 2015–2025 – City of Adelaide
- Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy 2015–2025
- Carbon Neutral Adelaide Action Plan 2016–2021 – Government of South Australia, City of Adelaide.

The strategies, reports and visions listed above highlight the importance placed on planning and urban design. These documents make consistent reference to potential improvements and activation that can be made in the city with small interventions. While the relationship between public and private use is touched upon, it is not investigated in detail.

Additional factors that underpin the selection of Adelaide as a case study include the multiple public spaces within the small area. The variety of public spaces in Adelaide includes those that are planned and designed for events, those that accommodate multiple activities, those without a function and those with one defined function. Not least, the city is known to the researcher, as a long-term resident and registered landscape architect, who has been engaged in both private practice and the public sector for more than a decade. Accordingly, the case study sites were viewed simultaneously as an academic, local government representative and design professional.

8.2 Site selection

Case study site selection was important to test the Design Assessment Framework and to assess the degrees and influence of publicness on the performative value of five public space typologies—Parks & Gardens, Streets & Promenades, Plazas & Squares, Waterfronts and Commercial Spaces.

Adelaide as a study area represented a variety of public spaces with regard to pattern, age, physiography and growth within a typical urban neighbourhood. For the purpose of this research the scale of examination is the *neighbourhood* because the neighbourhood scale is closely related with community use and allows for an examination of social order and cohesion.

The selection of sites was based on the following criteria:

- represent different land uses and scale of development;
- be connected to an urban area;
- fall within an administrative framework such as private, local government or state government (sites administered by community groups were excluded);
- allow for public participation and social exchange; and
- be accessible to the public.

Further, the case study sites were required to:

- match the list in Table 4-1: Successful Public Space Qualities;
- represent one of the five traditionally identified public space typologies (by selecting representatives, it is possible to gather generalised data that characterises cities);
- represent a range of scales, locations and development;
- be varied (major and minor activity generators);
- exemplify land uses and settings found in urban metropolitan areas around the world;
- be accessible to photograph;

- be located within a 1–1.5km study area (Gehl & Svarre 2013);
- be used for traditional events, exclusive social activities and public social activities (refer Figure 8-4);
- exercise adaptive reuse or change of program into a spatial configuration that was not originally intended for it; and
- be well-documented.



Figure 8-4: North Terrace activation. Top: Non-event mode. (Photo by author 2017)
Bottom: Event mode. Art Gallery of South Australia exhibition opening with speeches, live music and performances for a 2-hour period. (Photo by author 2019)

A preliminary study, including site visits, was undertaken to determine if each potential site met the above selection criteria. To measure the performative value (accessibility) and social exchange of public spaces (publicness), a sample size of 16 case study sites was deemed appropriate. The object of combining the data from the 16 case study sites is to improve the ability of the Design Assessment Framework to assess the typology of publics outlined in Chapter Five and to suggest which elements, surfaces, activities and contexts contribute to or erode public accessibility and social exchange. 16 sites allowed for subsequent analysis, were manageable in terms of data collection and met concerns of validity. By conducting identical studies using comparable methods at different public spaces, conclusions about public space and publicness could be discerned.

8.3 Case study sites

The case study sites (Figure 8-5) represent a diverse range of public spaces selected to test the Design Assessment Framework and to measure the performative value of public space as a space of social exchange. The sites represent the potential variables in public spaces, including those considered compatible with public social exchange, for instance, Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) or those that are antithetical to public social exchange, for instance, Rundle Place.

The selected sites represent five traditionally identified typologies of public space (Parks & Gardens, Streets & Promenades, Plazas & Squares, Waterfronts and Commercial Space) in which the new typology of publics (the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public) is known to be present. Three sites represent Parks & Gardens, five sites represent Streets & Promenades, four sites represent Plazas & Squares, one site represents Waterfronts and three sites represent Commercial Spaces.

The assessment of the five traditional typologies of public space address the aim of this study, which is to measure their publicness through an assessment of use and behaviour. This study acknowledges that all public spaces are different and therefore, they function differently. The study design overcomes these differences to allow for comparison between selected sites.

Physical distribution was an important criterion in the selection of the case study sites. To ensure the sites represented a wide range of public spaces within Adelaide, consideration was given to proximity. Proximity was determined as delineated on topographic maps. As shown in Figure 8-5, the selection of sites ensured that they were not adjacent to each other. As a consequence, the ownership of land is not taken into account. If the sites were located in close

proximity to each other, they would be separated by a private non-publicly accessible space or by spaces in which social exchange was not possible. The distribution also sought to minimise public behaviour overlapping sites and to ensure activities in one space did not directly interfere with another site. This study does acknowledge construction works occurring near selected sites, such as the Riverbank Bridge and the opening of the Adelaide Oval during the study timeframe, which resulted in pedestrian behaviour overlapping at a number of times in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) and Adelaide Railway Station.



| Legend | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Parks & Gardens | |
| 1 | Himeji Gardens |
| 2 | Castle Street (between Charlotte Street and Ely Place) |
| 3 | Glover Playground |
| Streets & Promenades | |
| 4 | North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road) |
| 5 | Rundle Street (between Pulteney Street and East Terrace) |
| 6 | Peel Street |
| 7 | Hindley Street (between King William Street and Morphett Street) |
| 8 | Moonta Street |
| Plazas & Squares | |
| 9 | Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi |
| 10 | Hindmarsh Square/Mukata |
| 11 | Hajek Plaza (Festival Plaza) |
| 12 | Adelaide Railway Station |
| Waterfronts | |
| 13 | Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) |
| Commercial Spaces | |
| 14 | Gilles Street School (markets) |
| 15 | Rundle Place |
| 16 | Adelaide Central Market |

Figure 8-5: Adelaide study area and case study site locations

The case study sites are varied in terms of type, land use and setting and represent a valid basis for generalisations and comparison. Each type, land use and setting represents those found in urban metropolitan areas around the world. The author notes that some of the case study sites are quasi-public spaces. Their inclusion is based on fulfilling the criteria in section 8.2 and the degree to which they allow for public social interaction.

Case study sites were selected after a preliminary study (outlined above). A basic description of the sites, their location and features is outlined below in subsections 8.3.1 to 8.3.5. The following subsections discuss the case studies within their public space typologies to develop an argument for their relevance for data collection and the assessment of the performative value (accessibility) of public space.

8.3.1 Adelaide case study sites: Parks & Gardens

This subsection presents the first case study group selected to assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space. The Parks & Gardens typology is an example of green open public space (outlined in Chapter Three). Use and access to Parks & Gardens has been linked to opportunities to improve behaviour and mental health by providing activities that governments and authorities deem the public should be engaged in. As shown by Marne (2001), the provision of activities in Parks & Gardens can have the unwanted effect of segregating class, gender, age and race, creating spaces of marginalisation and exclusion where the loudest voice is catered for. The definition of Parks & Gardens has changed in recent times and they are no longer entirely green softscapes with many balancing hard and soft surfaces to create interactive, adaptable spaces. The provision of event infrastructure such as power bollards or hardstands for food trucks is

The three case study sites—Himeji Gardens, Castle Street (between Charlotte Street and Ely Place) and Glover Playground—represent three distinct types of Parks & Gardens: themed gardens, pocket (laneway) parks and playgrounds. (refer Figure 8-6 and Table 9-1). Each case study contained the characteristics that exemplify Parks & Gardens and their distinct type. For instance, Castle Street’s scale, along with the mixture of seating, bike racks, signage, planting and lighting, is typically associated with pocket parks.

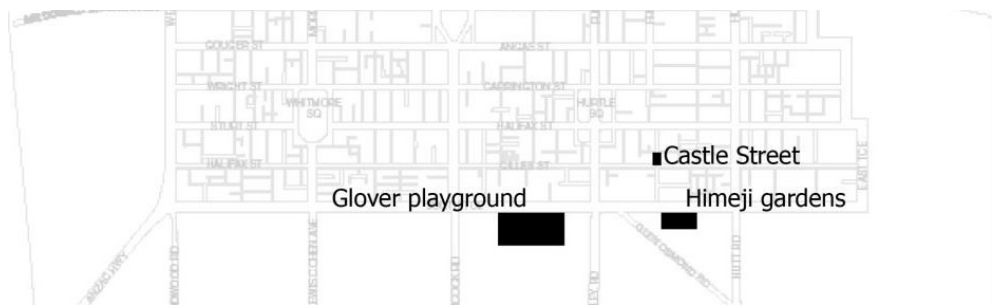


Figure 8-6: Parks & Gardens case study site locations

These types are traditionally shaped and designed by landscape architects, making them key to understanding the generalised assumptions about public space accessibility and measure the publicness.

The mix of sites enables consideration of the subsidiary research questions of the thesis to investigate *‘How public is public space?’* and *‘How do temporary events affect the use of public space?’*

Access

Located in the southwest of Adelaide, Himeji Gardens, Castle Street and Glover Playground are accessible by public transport, destination points, nodes on the Park Lands Trail and Bikeway (Figure 8-7) and freely accessible. Himeji Gardens is the one exception in this study and is subject to opening hours, 8am-5:30 pm. The use of Glover Playgrounds (refer Figure 8-8) is influenced by Pulteney Grammar School, whose students use the playground at selected times throughout the week for recess, lunch and after school care. No sites incur admission fees to gain access.

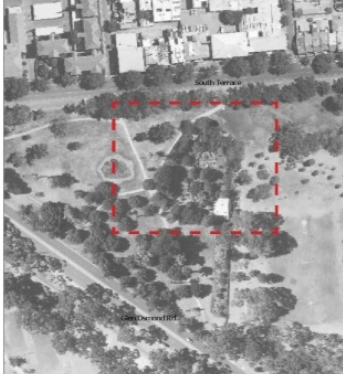

Uses

Himeji Gardens, Castle Street and Glover Playground are typically used as expected for parks and gardens. Use is focused on passive recreation, education (refer Figure 8-8) and play, respectively. Exclusionary activities are noted through the appropriating public crowding out other publics from the sites and events such as ‘Spirited: A Studio Ghibli Inspired Pop-up Exhibition’ at Himeji Gardens (refer Figure 8-9).

Publics

Parks & Gardens have strong links with the defined, the appropriating, the transitory and the illegitimate publics. Himeji Gardens, Castle Street and Glover Playground (refer Figure 8-11) were designed as sites of public expression that are partial and selective, responsive to limited population segments and to a limited number of public roles in contemporary urban society.

Table 8-1: Summary of Adelaide case study sites - Parks & Gardens

| Site | Characteristic | Site description | Events & exclusive social activities | Site photos |
|---|--|---|--|--|
| Himeji Gardens | | | | |
|  <p>Address: Peppermint Park/Wita Wirra (Park 18), South Terrace, Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Land ownership: City of Adelaide</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International style, themed garden created in an urban context • Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors • Planning approach: Cultural design • Administrative framework: Local government • Land use controls: Community Land Management Plan, Adelaide Park Lands Management Plan • Current development Status: Succession planning upgrade planned to occur over the next 5 years • Activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Important destination serving diverse populations. • A Japanese sister city garden and a popular destination for wedding photographs, picnics and passive recreation. Functions primarily as a public space, however, it is used as private space on a regular basis. • No clear links to Colonel William Light’s plan for Adelaide, however, use is consistent with providing open space accessible to residents. • Site amendments guided by the Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy and Community Land Management Plan. Adelaide Park Lands at the discretion of the asset owner and subject to original plan. • Site is available to book for events. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studio Ghibli/Espionage Gallery pop-up event • Walking tours • School groups • Engagement proposals • Artist painting • Media spots • Rough sleeping • Birthday parties • Weddings • Mothers groups • Picnics. |  <p>Photos by author during the study timeframe.</p> |

Castle Street (between Charlotte Street and Ely Place)



Address: Castle Street, Adelaide SA 5000

Land ownership: City of Adelaide

- Former transport corridor (road) changed to a pocket park by public demand
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Urban design
- Administrative framework: Local government
- Land use controls: None at time of the study
- Current development status: none
- Minor activity generator

- A pocket park and key link in Adelaide's cycle network. Functions primarily as a public space however has been used as private space for cycle events.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Site amendments subject to asset owner direction.
- Site cannot be booked for events.

- None



Photos by author during the study timeframe.

Glover Playground



Address: Blue Gum Park/Kurangga (Park 20), South Terrace, Adelaide SA 5000

Land ownership: City of Adelaide

- Urban park created to improve public health
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Urban design, cultural design, public consultation etc.
- Administrative framework: Local government
- Land use controls: Community Land Management Plan, Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy
- Current development status: None
- Activity generator

- Important destination serving diverse populations.
- A popular fenced children's park. Functions primarily as a public space, however, is regularly used as private space by school groups and families.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. However, use is consistent with providing open space accessible for residents.
- Site amendments at the discretion of the asset owner and subject to age of play equipment.
- Site must be booked for events with more than 50 people.

- School groups usage at recess, lunch and after school
- Birthday parties
- Mothers groups
- Media spots



Photos by author during the study timeframe.



**Figure 8-7: Castle Street is one of many nodes along the City of Adelaide Bikeway. The entrance highlights the mixed transport use within the small pocket park.
(Photo by author 2019)**



Figure 8-8: Glover Playground entry gate. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-9: Himeji Gardens school tour group. (Photo by author 2014)



Figure 8-10: Spirited: A Studio Ghibli inspired pop-up exhibition at Himeji Gardens. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-11: Glover Playground weekend use. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-12: Himeji Gardens maintenance inspection. (Photo by author 2015)

Events (exclusive social activities)

Himeji Gardens (refer Figure 8-9) and Glover Playground (refer Figure 8-10) can hold events of varying scale. Castle Street does not have the ability to hold events. Events are at the discretion of the City of Adelaide and require approval and permits. Private events have included art exhibitions, Super Tuesday bike counts, weddings, guided tours and family fun days. Traditional events within this case study group alter the performative value of the sites for a predetermined length of time and are typically organised by community groups.

Social activities, such as birthday parties, with 20 or more people are considered an event and require a permit from the City of Adelaide. They also alter the performative value of the sites for an undetermined length of time and are typically organised by private individuals with minimal regulation.

Ownership, management and maintenance

All sites are owned, managed and maintained by the City of Adelaide (refer Figure 8-12) and are subject to ongoing asset renewals. Duty of care during authorised events is temporarily transferred from the City of Adelaide (owner) to the responsible event manager, who holds primary responsibility for users during the event. The event managers for Glover Playground have included Pulteney Grammar School. The event managers for Himeji Gardens have included Espionage Gallery.

Asset renewals include footpath upgrades, urban furniture replacements and planting renewals. Inspections and cleaning activities are undertaken at each site daily to ensure that the sites are functional and safe for users. Glover Playground and Himeji Gardens have their own dedicated teams and are classed as priority sites receiving higher levels of maintenance than Castle Street.

Security

Minimal security measures are present at all sites. The measures include lighting, signage and open sightlines.

This section has presented the three Parks & Gardens case study sites to assess the accessibility of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse range of publics. The summary of the selected case study sites above highlighted the diversity and similarities of the sites. The strengths of the case study sites are their diversity, which allows the comprehensive measures of the Design Assessment Framework to be used. The next subsection discusses the Streets & Promenades case studies sites.

8.3.2 Adelaide case study sites: Streets & Promenades

This subsection describes the second case study group selected to assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space. Streets & Promenades are traditionally understood as public space, responding to the complexities of public life and influencing users more than other public spaces (refer Chapter Three). They affect environmental interaction by dictating means of access between home and other places, defining movement patterns, directing what users observe and who they interact with by providing a public window into the surrounding private spaces (Southworth & Owen 1993).

The five case study sites, North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road), Rundle Street (between Pulteney Street and East Terrace), Peel Street, Hindley Street (between King William Street and Morphett Street) and Moonta Street, represent two distinct types of Streets & Promenades—boulevard and laneway. Within the City of Adelaide, boulevards and laneways are shaped and designed by landscape architects, making them key to understanding the generalised assumptions about public space accessibility and measure the publicness (refer Figure 8-13 and Table 9-2). Each case study contains the characteristics that exemplify Streets & Promenades and their distinct type. For instance, Peel Street represents an inner-city laneway, providing service and back of house access for restaurants, small bars, outdoor dining, public art and pedestrian thoroughfares.

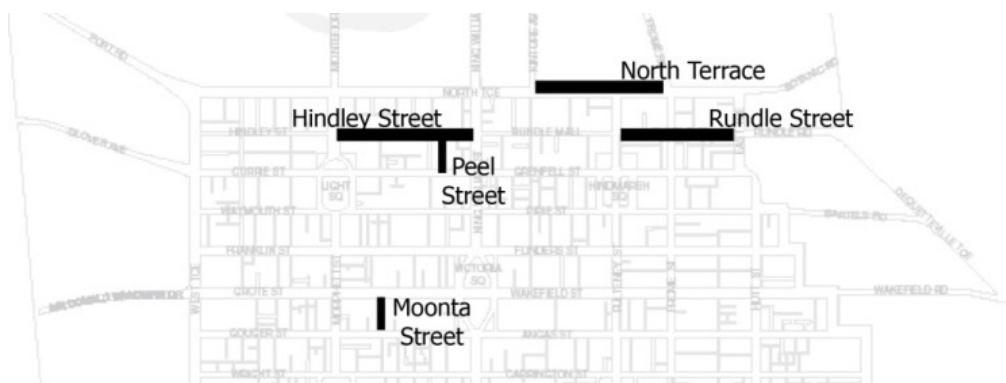




Figure 8-13: Streets & Promenades case study site locations

The mix of sites will enable consideration of the subsidiary research questions of the thesis to investigate *‘How public is public space?’* and *‘How do temporary events affect the use of public space?’*

Table 8-2: Summary of Adelaide case study sites - Streets & Promenades

| Site | Characteristic | Site description | Events & exclusive social activities | Site photos |
|---|---|--|--|--|
| North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road) | | | | |
|  <p>Address: North Terrace, Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Land ownership: City of Adelaide</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural boulevard • Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors • Planning approach: Civic design, urban design, cultural design • Administrative framework: Local government • Land use controls: North Terrace Masterplan • Current development status: None • Major activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural boulevard in Adelaide linking the art gallery, museum and universities. • Functions primarily as a public space, however, is regularly used as private space for City of Adelaide and Government of South Australia funded events. • Current design and use are consistent with Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. • Site amendments guided by the Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy, Community Land Management Plan - Adelaide Park Lands, North Terrace Masterplan, Riverbank Masterplan, University of Adelaide Masterplan at the discretion of the asset owner and Government of South Australia. • Site is not available to booked, however, holds for major events by Government of South Australia, City of Adelaide and the Art Gallery of South Australia. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tour Down Under • Public holiday and school holiday activities • Adelaide Festival Art works – construction and exhibition • Wedding photos • Commercial advertisements • Pop-up coffee • School choir and band performance (free) • Fringe performances (free) • University open days • Art gallery event spill-out • School groups • Artist sketching • Skate boarders (group of 5 to 10) • Festival of lights (on buildings) • Religious groups distributing materials • Commercial food companies distributing materials • Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors • Organisation such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations • Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations • Media spots • Protests • Personal training groups |  <p>Photos by author during the study timeframe.</p> |

Rundle Street (between Pulteney and East terrace)



Address: Rundle Street, Adelaide SA 5000

Land ownership: City of Adelaide

- Commercial boulevard
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Civic design, urban design, cultural design, public consultation etc
- Administrative framework: Local government
- Land use controls: None
- Current development status: None
- Major activity generator

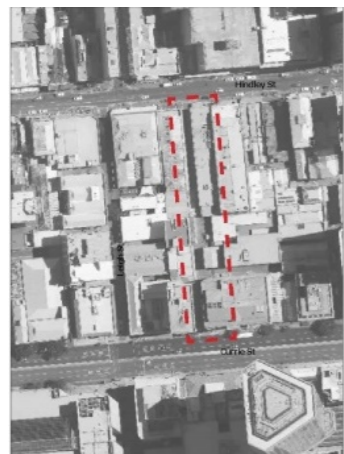
- Commercial boulevard in east end of Adelaide, which is Adelaide City's hub for numerous annual festivals, events, street parades and parties. Events undertaken regularly change legal responsibility between public to private usage.
- Rundle Street has a stable economic base with a large number of well-established pubs and clubs, specialist shops and restaurants. Current design and use are consistent with Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Site amendments guided by the Rundle Street Masterplan, City precinct groups and traders' associations and at the discretion of the asset owner.
- Site is not available to booked, however, holds for major events by Government of South Australia and City of Adelaide.
- 'Café creep' occurs on a daily basis.

- Tour Down Under
- Commercial advertisements
- Fringe performances (free)
- Artist sketching
- Buskers
- Beggars
- Religious groups distributing materials
- Commercial food companies distributing materials
- Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors
- Organisation such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations
- Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations
- Media spots
- Rough sleepers
- Protests
- Pancake day
- Hens and bucks nights
- Pub crawls



Photos by author during the study timeframe.

Peel Street



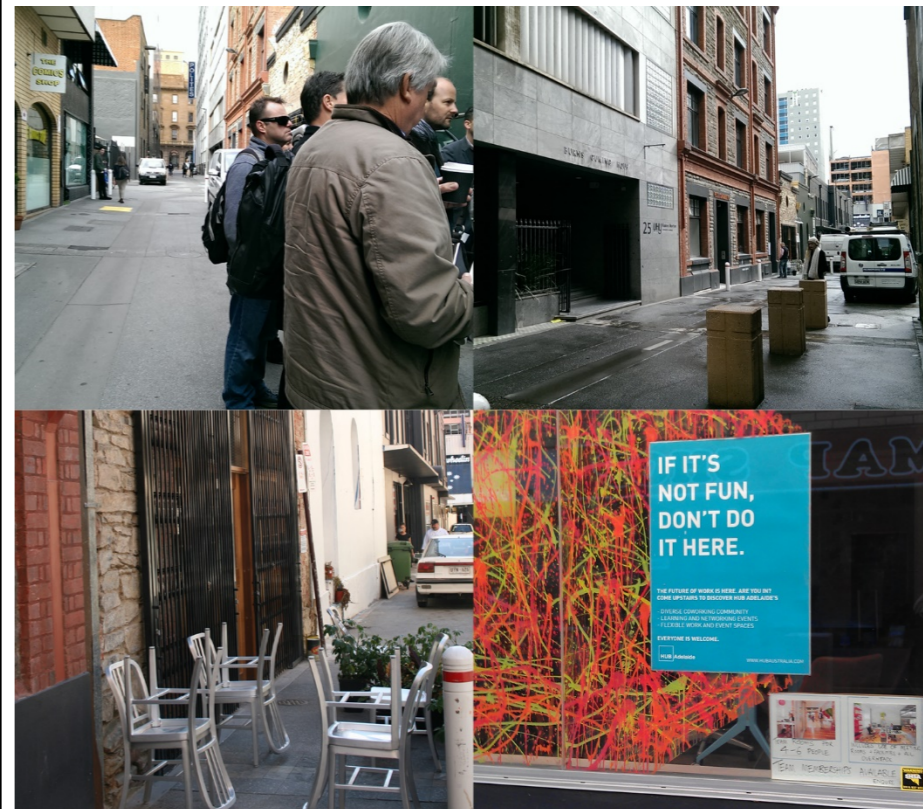
Address: Peel Street, Adelaide SA 5000

Land ownership: City of Adelaide

- Commercial and entertainment laneway
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Civic design, urban design, public consultation
- Administrative framework: Local government
- Land use controls: None
- Current development status: None
- Major activity generator

- Up and coming shared street in west end of Adelaide, known for its vibrant restaurant and bar 'precinct' promoted via alcohol-based recreation. Primarily functions as a public space during.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Site amendments guided by the Laneways Masterplan, City precinct groups and traders' associations and at the discretion of the asset owner.
- Site may be booked with support of other traders.
- 'Café creep' occurs on a daily basis.

- Government and council meetings
- Interviews
- Media spots
- Commercials being filmed
- Organisations such as Royal Society for the Blind asking for donations
- Beggars
- Religious groups distributing materials
- Commercial advertisements
- Hens and bucks nights
- Pub crawls
- Corporate Christmas parties



Photos by author during the study timeframe.

Hindley Street (between King William Road and Morphett Street)



Address: Hindley Street, Adelaide SA 5000

Land ownership: City of Adelaide

- Commercial and entertainment boulevard
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Civic design, urban design
- Administrative framework: Local government
- Land use controls: None
- Current development status: None
- Major activity generator

- Commercial street in west end of Adelaide known for its atmosphere and active nightlife
- Considered Adelaide's downtown because of its position in metro area and sprawl of suburbs.
- Hindley Street has a reputation as a seedy and party strip with a high proportion of bars, visible signs of sex industry and night economy dominated by young men (Ware et al. 2011).
- Ware et al. (2011, p. 195) consider Hindley street a stage where large groups of young men can act out their desired image as tough heterosexual men. They propose this behaviour by this group is a way for youth to appropriate space. This is undertaken by activities, including cursing and pub crawls to signalise basic masculinity.
- Seen as 'poor cousin' to Rundle Mall and Rundle Street.
- Current design and use are consistent with Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Site amendments guided by the West end masterplan, City precinct groups and traders' associations and at the discretion of the asset owner and Government of South Australia
- Site cannot be booked. Major events rarely occur.
- 'Café creep' occurs on a daily basis.

- Commercial advertisements
- Fringe performances (free)
- Artist sketching
- Buskers
- Beggars
- Religious groups distributing materials
- Commercial food companies distributing materials
- Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors
- Organisations such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations
- Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations
- Media spots
- Rough sleepers
- Taxi ranks
- Additional security patrols
- Encounter Youth Green Team patrols at night
- Protests
- Hens and bucks nights
- Pub crawls
- Corporate Christmas parties



Photos by author during and after the study timeframe.

Moonta Street



Address: Moonta Street, Adelaide SA 5000

Land ownership: City of Adelaide

- Commercial and entertainment laneway
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Civic design, urban design, cultural design, public consultation etc.
- Administrative framework: Central Market Management Authority
- Land use controls: Central Market Masterplan
- Current development status: None
- Activity generator

- Chinatown in Adelaide, known as a food destination.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Site amendments guided by the Central Market Masterplan, City precinct groups and traders' associations and at the discretion of the asset owner.
- Site cannot be booked. Events are at the discretion of the City of Adelaide and rarely occur.
- 'Café creep' occurs on a daily basis.

- Commercial advertisements
- Buskers
- Beggars
- Religious groups distributing materials
- Commercial food companies distributing materials
- Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors
- Organisation such as the Big Issue and Cancer Council selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations
- Media spots
- Rough sleepers
- Night markets
- Chinese New Year.



Photos by author during the study timeframe.

Access

North Terrace (refer Figure 8-14), Rundle Street, Peel Street, Hindley Street and Moonta Street are accessible by public transport, are destination points and are freely accessible. No sites incur admission fees. Outdoor activities associated with cafés, restaurants and bars along Rundle Street, Peel Street, Hindley Street and Moonta Street present private dining spaces that are not for public use (Figure 8-15). Vehicle access is limited to set times in Moonta Street and Peel Street because of the popularity of outdoor dining and seating.

Uses

North Terrace, Rundle Street, Peel Street, Hindley Street and Moonta Street are typically used as expected for this typology. Use is focused on commercial and entertainment activities, respectively. Exclusionary activities are noted in relation to buskers, people handing out flyers and begging (refer Figure 8-16). Outdoor dining on Rundle Street and Peel Street exemplifies 'café creep' (term coined by Carmona 2010a), a form of commodification that Kohn (2004) describes as creeping commodification of public space where the private sector contributes to public space through the provision of furniture and displays. Creeping commodification is characterised through the leasing of public space to corporate entities for events and advertising, which, in the case of outdoor dining spaces, has resulted in commercial interests moving across public space. Outdoor dining guidelines further control the public as liquor licences in South Australia and the City of Adelaide require individuals consuming alcohol to be seated, further limiting activities in the designated space. While legislation is in place to indicate that outdoor dining areas are public, the reality indicates otherwise. The increase of outdoor dining on Rundle Street, Peel Street and Hindley Street in the last five years results from changes in the City of Adelaide's outdoor dining permit regulations.

Events (exclusive social activities)

The five sites have the ability to hold events. Events require approval and permits issued at the discretion of City of Adelaide. North Terrace is the main public space where events occur, including art exhibitions, weddings, guided tours, markets and family fun days (refer Figure 8-17). Moonta Street events are cultural activities and linked to the Chinese New Year (refer Figure 8-18). Traditional events within this case study group can alter the performative value of the sites for a predetermined length of time and are typically organised by commercial or government groups and heavily regulated.

Social activities as outlined in Table 8-2 are considered events and require a permit from the City of Adelaide. They alter the performative value of the sites for an undetermined length of time and are typically unorganised and are therefore unregulated.



Figure 8-14: North Terrace, example of everyday use. (Photo by author 2016)



Figure 8-15: Peel Street outdoor dining and small bar activity. (Photo by author 2019)



Figure 8-16: Public begging on Rundle Street. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-17: North Terrace Lights, Adelaide Festival art work. (Photo by author 2016)



Figure 8-18: Moonta Street Chinese New Year. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-19: Peel Street (left) and Hindley Street (right). (Photo by author 2015)

Ownership, management and maintenance

All sites are owned, managed and maintained by the City of Adelaide and are subject to ongoing asset renewals. Duty of care during authorised events is temporarily transferred from the City of Adelaide (owner) to the responsible event manager, who holds primary responsibility for users during the event.

Asset renewals include footpath upgrades, urban furniture replacements and planting renewals. Inspections, maintenance and cleaning activities are undertaken at each site on a daily basis to ensure the sites are functional and safe for users. Businesses with outdoor dining areas are required to manage and clean the permit area; failure to do so results in permits being cancelled.

Publics

Streets & Promenades have strong links with the defined, the transitory and the illegitimate publics. North Terrace, Rundle Street, Peel Street, Hindley Street (refer Figure 8-14 and Figure 8-19) and Moonta Street (refer Figure 8-8) were designed as sites of public expression, and are selective and responsive to limited population segments and to a limited number of public roles in contemporary urban society.

Security

Security measures are present at all sites. The measures include lighting, signage, CCTV and security personnel during City of Adelaide authorised events where alcohol is present.

This section has presented the five Streets & Promenades case study sites to assess the accessibility of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse range of publics. This summary of the selected case study sites highlighted the diversity and the similarities between the sites. The strengths of the case study sites are their diversity, which allows the comprehensive measures of the Design Assessment Framework to be used. The next subsection discusses the Plazas & Squares case study sites.

8.3.3 Adelaide case study sites: Plazas & Squares

This subsection provides the third case study group selected to assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space. Plazas & Squares respond to the complexities of public life with their significance linked to civic and public realms (refer Chapter Three). They provide visual relief, recreational opportunities and encourage standards of public behaviour through the promotion of a positive sense of participation between different genders, ages and races. They are used in a wide variety of ways by a wide range of publics

and play a social function and role for different communities and cultures. Squares are more than an environment of urban life; they should be considered a setting in which the visible roles of community are more important than aesthetics and where individuals reveal their identity as part of a society. Plazas are more than sites of commerce and should be considered a setting in which the visible roles of community are more important than aesthetics. In plazas, the distinction between space and use does blur, resulting in spaces that change ownership and legal responsibility daily. This occurs through change of users and change of adjoining land use, resulting in spaces that can be highly commercial during business hours and passive spaces after hours.

The four case study sites of Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi, Hindmarsh Square/Mukata, Hajek Plaza (Festival Plaza) and Adelaide Railway Station represent four distinct types of Plazas & Squares—cultural, transport, recreation and entertainment (refer Figure 8-20 and Table 9-3). Each case study contains the characteristics that exemplify Plazas & Squares and their distinct type. For instance, Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi is a recreation-focused destination point, providing passive and active opportunities for inner-city residents through the combination of benches, giant chess, basketball and table tennis tables. These types are shaped and designed by landscape architects, making them key to understanding the generalised assumptions of public space and the flow-on effect of a perceived erosion of public space.

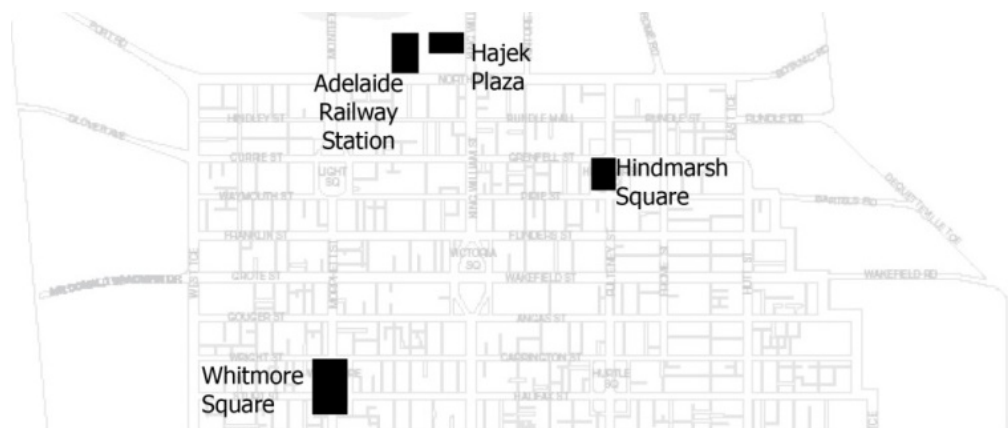


Figure 8-20: Plazas & Squares case study site locations.

This range of sites investigates the subsidiary research questions of the thesis to determine *‘How public is public space?’* and *‘How do temporary events affect the use of public space?’*

Access

Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi (refer Figure 8-21), Hindmarsh Square/Mukata (refer Figure 8-22), Hajek Plaza and Adelaide Railway Station (refer Figure 8-26)

are accessible by public transport. Excluding Adelaide Railway Station, they are destination points and are freely accessible. Access to Adelaide Railway Station is subject to operating hours.

Uses

The four case study sites are used as expected. As noted throughout the site visits, Hajek Plaza (refer Figure 8-23) is underutilised unless events are occurring in the plaza or surrounding area. Use is focused on passive recreation and entertainment, respectively. Exclusionary activities are noted through the appropriating public crowding out other publics within the sites and events such as Ride to Work Day (Figure 8-24).

Events (exclusive social activities)

Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi, Hindmarsh Square/Mukata and Hajek Plaza all can hold events. Adelaide Railway Station is the one exception. Events in Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi and Hindmarsh Square/Mukata (refer Figure 8-25) are at the discretion of the City of Adelaide requiring approval and community consultation (depending on the size of the events) and permits. Events in Hajek Plaza are subject to the approval of the Adelaide Festival Centre, Government of South Australia and the City of Adelaide. Traditional events for this case study group alter the performative value of the sites for a predetermined length of time. They are organised by commercial or government groups and are heavily regulated, or they are organised by community groups with minimal regulation.

Social activities are permitted at the discretion of the owner. The City of Adelaide considers activities of 20 or more as an event, requiring a permit. The Government of South Australia typically will not permit large social activities of any kind. Social activities that are perceived as events alter the performative value of the sites for an undetermined length of time and are typically organised by community groups and are therefore unregulated.

Publics

Plazas & Squares have strong links with the defined, the appropriating and the illegitimate publics. Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi, Hindmarsh Square/Mukata, Hajek Plaza and Adelaide Railway Station (refer Figure 8-26) were designed as sites of public expression that are partial and selective, responsive to limited population segments in contemporary urban society.

Table 8- 3: Summary of Adelaide case study sites - Plazas & Squares

| Site | Characteristic | Site description | Events & exclusive social activities | Site photos |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| <p>Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi</p>  <p>Address: Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Land ownership: City of Adelaide</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors • Planning approach: Cultural design, public consultation • Administrative framework: Local government • Land use controls: Community Land Management Plan, Adelaide Park Lands Management Plan • Activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public square in southwestern quarter of Adelaide. • Primarily public space, however, is used as private space on a regular basis. • Use is consistent with providing open space accessible for residents. • Current design and use are consistent with Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. • Site amendments guided by the Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy and Community Land Management Plan - Adelaide Park Lands, South West Community Association at the discretion of the asset owner and subject to original plan. • Site is available to book for community events. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Christmas parties • Public holiday and school holiday activities • Mothers groups • Artist sketching • Yoga groups • Mediation groups • Media spots • Soup kitchen • Rough sleepers • English language classes • Splash Adelaide events • Community basketball tournaments • Protests. |  <p>Photos by author during and after the study timeframe.</p> |
| <p>Hindmarsh Square/Mukata</p>  <p>Address: Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Land ownership: City of Adelaide</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors • Planning approach: Urban design, cultural design, public consultation • Administrative framework: Local government • Land use controls: Community Land Management Plan, Adelaide Park Lands Management Plan • Activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public square in north-eastern quarter of Adelaide. Primarily public space, however, is used as private space on a regular basis. • Current design and use are consistent with Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. Design has had minimal changes. • Use is consistent with providing open space accessible for residents. • Site amendments guided by the Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy and Community Land Management Plan - Adelaide Park Lands at the discretion of the asset owner and subject to original plan. • Site is available to book for events. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commercial advertisements • Pop-up coffee and food truck • Splash Adelaide events • Ride to work events • Parking Day events • Fringe performances (paid) • School groups • Religious groups distributing materials • Commercial food companies distributing materials • Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors • Organisation such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations • Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations • Media spots • Personal training groups • Pancake day events • World Solar Car Challenge • Private corporate functions. |  <p>Photos by author during the study timeframe.</p> |

Hajek Plaza (Festival Plaza)



Address: King William Street
Adelaide, SA, 5000

Site ownership: Government
of South Australia

- Festival Plaza linked to convention and festival theatres
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Civic design
- Administrative framework: Riverbank Renewal Authority
- Land use controls: Riverbank Precinct
- Current development status: None
- Activity generator

- Festival Plaza comprising a sculpture by artist Otto Hajek. Primarily public space, however, is used as private space on a regular basis.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. However, use is consistent with providing open space accessible for residents.
- Site amendments guided by the Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy, Community Land Management Plan - Adelaide Park Lands, North Terrace Masterplan, Riverbank Masterplan, at the discretion of the asset owner and Government of South Australia
- Site is not available to booked, however, holds for major events by Government of South Australia and City of Adelaide

No longer exists in the form depicted. Construction of a new festival plaza commenced in 2018.

- Walking tours
- School groups
- Festival Centre spill-out events
- Fringe performances (paid)
- Media spots
- Personal training groups
- Rough sleepers
- Beggars
- Buskers
- Oi You Festival
- Tour Down Under.



Photo top right courtesy of Nicole Arbon. Remaining photos by author during the study timeframe.

Adelaide Railway Station



Address: 125 North Terrace,
Adelaide SA 5000

Site ownership: Government
of South Australia

- Transport hub linked to Convention Centre and Festival Theatre
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Civic design
- Administrative framework: Government of South Australia
- Land use controls: None
- Current development status: None
- Activity generator

- Central terminus of Adelaide Metro railway system.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Site amendments at the discretion of the Government of South Australia.
- Site is not available to booked.
- 'Café creep' occurs between 8 am and 3 pm.

- Commercial advertisements
- Religious groups distributing materials
- Commercial food companies distributing materials
- Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors
- Organisation such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations
- Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations
- Media spots.

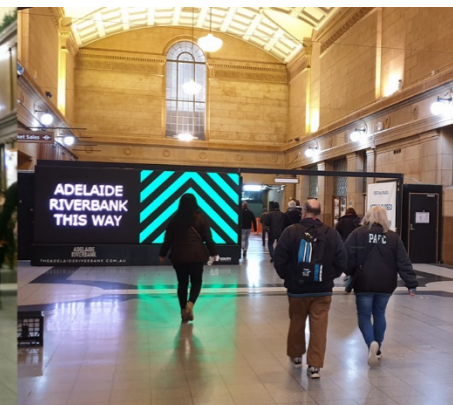


Photo top left courtesy of Nicole Arbon. Remaining photos by author during and after the study timeframe.



Figure 8-21: Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi used as designed for passive recreation. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-22: Hindmarsh Square/Mukata food truck. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-23: Hajek Plaza on a typical weekday afternoon. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-24: Ride to Work Day 2014 event setup in Hindmarsh Square/Mukata (free event). (Photo by author 2015)



Figure 8-25: Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi community engagement event run by the City of Adelaide in 2018 to shape the next masterplan for the square. (Photo by author 2018)



Figure 8-26: Adelaide Railway Station. (Photo courtesy of Nicole Arbon 2014)

Ownership, management and maintenance

Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi and Hindmarsh Square/Mukata are owned, managed and maintained by the City of Adelaide and are subject to ongoing asset renewals. Duty of care during authorised events is temporarily transferred from the City of Adelaide to the responsible event manager, who holds primary responsibility for users during the event.

Asset renewals include footpath upgrades, urban furniture replacements and planting renewals. Inspections and cleaning activities are undertaken at each site daily to ensure that the sites are functional and safe for users.

Hajek Plaza and Adelaide Railway Station are owned, managed and maintained by the Government of South Australia and are subject to ongoing asset renewals. Duty of care during authorised events is temporarily transferred from the Government of South Australia to the responsible event manager, who holds primary responsibility for users during the event.

Security

Security measures are present in all sites. They include lighting, CCTV and security personnel during City of Adelaide authorised events where alcohol is present. Security at Adelaide Railway Station is also subject to separate private security measures during opening hours (refer Figure 8-27).



Figure 8-27: Private security at Adelaide Railway Station patrols the publicly accessible concourse while the station is in operation. (Photo by author 2013)

This section has presented the four Plazas & Squares case study sites to assess the accessibility of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse

range of publics. This summary of the selected case study sites highlighted the diversity and similarities of the sites. The strengths of the case study site are their diversity, allowing the comprehensive measures of the Design Assessment Framework to be used. The next subsection discusses the Waterfronts case study site, presenting the strengths that allow the comprehensive measures of the Design Assessment Framework to be used.

8.3.4 Adelaide case study sites: Waterfronts

This subsection examines the fourth case study group selected to assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space. Waterfronts are considered a relatively new public space typology, with their use moving from an industrial economic focus to multi-use public gathering place in a post-industrial era (refer Chapter Three). They provide a new dimension to interpret recreational space in the centre of the city, reclaiming nature and reinterpreting public spaces (Gaventa 2006) such as Parks & Gardens. Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) represents the waterfront typology (refer Figure 8-28 and Table 9-4) and the only waterfront in Adelaide that met the criteria outlined in section 9.2.



Figure 8-28: Waterfronts case study site location

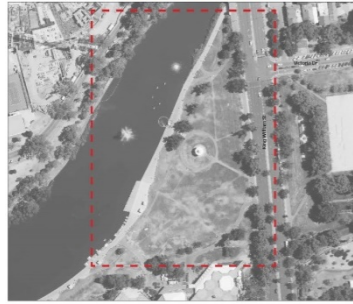

Waterfronts are shaped and designed by landscape architects, making them key to understanding the generalised assumptions about public space accessibility and measure the publicness.

Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) enables the investigation of the subsidiary research questions of the thesis to determine *'How public is public space?'* and *'How do temporary events affect the use of public space?'*

Access

Located to the north of the CBD, Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26, refer Figure 8-29) is accessible by public transport, private vehicles and the *Popeye River Cruises*. The park is a destination point and is freely accessible.

Table 8-4: Summary of Adelaide case study sites – Waterfronts

| Site | Characteristic | Site Description | Events & Exclusive Social Activities | Site Photos |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| <p>Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26)</p>  <p>Address: Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26), King William Rd, Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Land ownership: City of Adelaide</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional waterfront public space linked to cultural activities • Response to natural and cultural factors: Form a combination of natural cultural factors • Planning approach: Urban design, cultural design, public consultation • Administrative framework: Local government • Land use controls: Community Land Management Plan, Adelaide Park Lands Management Plan • Current development status: None • Major activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public open space on southern bank of the River Torrens and bordered by Adelaide Festival Centre. Focus on redevelopment has brought media attention. Primarily public space, however, is used as private space on a regular basis. • Current design and use are consistent with Colonel William Light’s plan for Adelaide. • Site amendments guided by the Adelaide Park Lands Management Strategy, Community Land Management Plan - Adelaide Park Lands, North Terrace Masterplan, Riverbank Masterplan, at the discretion of the asset owner, Renewal SA, Riverbank Authority and Government of South Australia. • Site is not available to be booked by community members, however, holds for major events by Government of South Australia and City of Adelaide. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tour Down Under • Public holiday and school holiday activities • Adelaide Festival events • Wedding photos • Commercial advertisements • Pop-up coffee • School choir and band performance (free) • Fringe performances • School groups • Artist sketching • Skateboarders (group of 5 to 10) • Festival of lights (on buildings) • Religious groups distributing materials • Commercial food companies distributing materials • Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations • Media spots • Protests • Silent discos • Memorial events • Rowing club regattas • Life Be In It events such as dragon boat racing • Rough sleepers • Personal training groups • Park Run • Learn to row events • Programmed events such as Carols by Candlelight, Writers Week, OzAsia Festival. |  <p>Photos by author during and after the study timeframe.</p> |

Uses

Elder Park's (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) use is compatible with expectations for use of Waterfronts. The uses are varied, with little design clues directing users to the preferred behaviour expected by government and local authorities. Use is focused on passive recreation, free and ticketed events (refer Figure 8-31) and informal play, respectively (refer Figure 8-33).

Exclusionary activities are noted through the appropriating publics, cultural events and outdoor fitness groups (refer Figure 8-30). Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) also acts as a gateway to Adelaide Oval, an Adelaide example of the commodified phenomena of 'private–public' spaces. Adelaide Oval is subject to a licensing agreement with the Stadium Management Authority (SMA) for the next 80 year and moves publicly owned infrastructure into the management and control of a private corporation.

Events (exclusive social activities)

Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) is classed as an event hub and holds the majority of the City of Adelaide's and the state government's major cultural and community events. Events are at the discretion of the City of Adelaide, requiring approval, community consultation (depending on size of events) and permits. Private events have included art exhibitions, the Adelaide Festival (refer Figure 8-31), Adelaide Fringe Festival, Carols by Candlelight, Symphony under the Stars, Winterfest, Moon Lantern Festival, Writers Week, Santos Cycling, Tour Down Under (refer Figure 8-29), weddings, guided tours and family fun days. Traditional events within this case study group alter the performative value of the sites for a predetermined length of time. Because they are typically organised by commercial or government groups, they are heavily regulated.

Social activities, such as personal training, with 20 or more people are considered an event and require a permit from the City of Adelaide. They alter the performative value of the sites for an undetermined length of time and are typically organised by private individuals with minimal regulation.

Publics

Waterfronts have a strong link with the appropriating and the transitory publics (refer Figure 8-33). The design of Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) is open and responsive to a wide population range in contemporary urban society.

Ownership, management and maintenance

Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) is owned, managed and maintained by the City of Adelaide (refer Figure 8-32) and is subject to ongoing asset renewals. Duty of care during authorised events is temporarily

transferred from the City of Adelaide to the responsible event manager, who holds primary responsibility for users during the event.

Asset renewals include paving and footpath upgrades, urban furniture replacements and planting renewals. Inspections and cleaning activities are undertaken daily to ensure the sites are functional and safe for users.

Security

Security measures are present at all sites. The measures include lighting, signage and CCTV. Fencing and security personnel are in place during City of Adelaide authorised events where alcohol is present.

This section has presented the Waterfront case study site of Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) to assess the accessibility of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse range of publics. The strength of this case study site is the diversity of activities and events, allowing the comprehensive measures of the Design Assessment Framework to be applied. The next subsection discusses the Commercial Space case studies sites.



Figure 8-29: Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) during the annual Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI) world tour, the Santos Tour Down Under. Free public event. (Photo by author 2013)



**Figure 8-30: Outdoor fitness groups (in background) and film crew (foreground).
(Photo by author 2013)**



**Figure 8-31: Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) during the Adelaide Festival 2017 opening. Free public event, access limited to the park capacity.
(Photo by author 2017)**



**Figure 8-32: Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) maintenance.
(Photo by author 2013)**



Figure 8-33: Example of the appropriating public in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26). (Photo by author 2013)

8.3.5 Adelaide case study sites: Commercial Space

This subsection describes the fifth and last case study group to assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space. Commercial Space ownership is pseudo-private; the spaces in flux because of conflicts over social participation, producing constantly changing meanings and publics (refer Chapter Three). Pseudo-private properties are publicly accessible spaces—publicly owned but privately controlled or privately owned and publicly controlled. Commercial Space has broader relevance in today’s contemporary urban society and potential as public space.

The three case study sites, Gilles Street Schools, Rundle Place and Adelaide Central Market, represent three distinct types of Commercial Space—temporary, privately owned and entertainment (refer Figure 8-34 and Table 9-5).

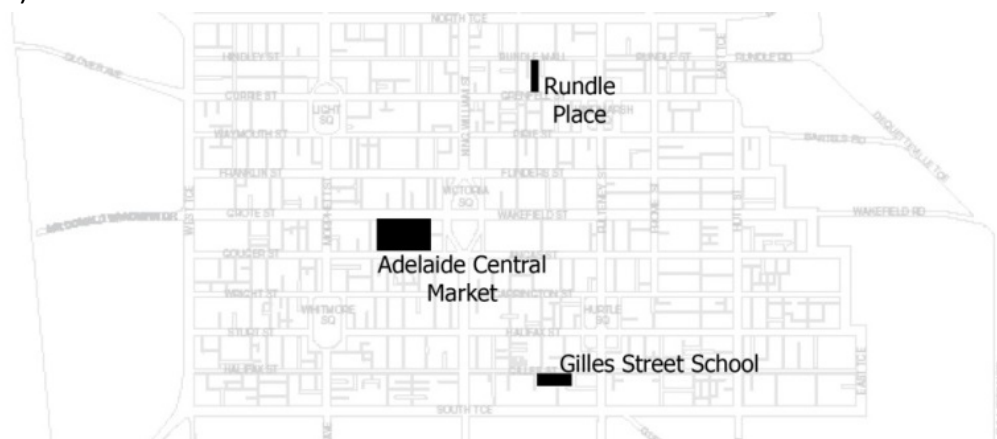






Figure 8-34: Commercial Spaces case study site locations.

Table 8-5: Summary of Adelaide case study sites – Commercial Spaces

| Site | Characteristic | Site description | Events & Exclusive Social Activities | Site Photos |
|--|---|---|--|---|
| <p>Gilles Street School</p>  <p>Address: 91 Gilles Street, Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Site ownership: Government of South Australia</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public primary school hosting a public temporary market on select weekends Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors Planning approach: Urban design Administrative framework: Government of South Australia Land use controls: None Current development status: None Activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Schoolyard that becomes a market once a month in Adelaide. Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. The market relocated in 2018 because of popularity and overcrowding on the school grounds. Site amendments guided by the Government of South Australia and school board. Site is available to book for community events at the discretion of the school board. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Markets (duty of care) Church group After school hours care |  <p>Photos by author during the study timeframe.</p> |
| <p>Rundle Place</p>  <p>Address: 77-91 Rundle Mall, Adelaide SA 5000</p> <p>Site ownership: Blackstone</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commercial retail thoroughfare Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors Planning approach: Urban design Administrative framework: Rundle Place centre management Land use controls: None Current development status: None Activity generator | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commercial space linking Rundle Mall and Grenfell Street. Considered a public plaza, however, is heavily policed by security. Ambiguous space. Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide. Site amendments subject to development approval. Site is not available to be booked for events. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commercial food companies distributing materials Businesses distributing marketing material Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors Organisation such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations Media spots Interviews Commercials being filmed |  <p>Photos by author during the study timeframe.</p> |

Adelaide Central Market



Address: 44/60 Gouger St, Adelaide SA 5000

Site ownership: City of Adelaide, managed by the Adelaide Central Market Authority

- Tourist attraction and large multicultural market
- Response to natural and cultural factors: Form based on cultural factors
- Planning approach: Urban design
- Administrative framework: Central Market Management Authority
- Land use controls: Central Market Masterplan
- Current development status: None
- Activity generator

- Public market with limited opening hours. Public access limited to opening hours.
- Current use and design are not linked to Colonel William Light's plan for Adelaide.
- Largest undercover fresh produce market in the southern hemisphere and Adelaide's premier food destination of multicultural cuisine and fresh produce.
- Over 9 million people visit the market every year.
- South Australia's most visited tourist attraction.

- Public holiday and school holiday activities
- Commercial advertisements
- School choir and band performance (free)
- Fringe performances (free)
- School groups
- Artist sketching
- Photographers
- Religious groups distributing materials
- Commercial food companies distributing materials
- Organisations such as WWF and UNICEF seeking sponsors
- Organisation such as the Big Issue, RSL and Airforce selling magazines, pins and ribbons for donations
- Organisations such as Salvation Army asking for donations
- Media spots



Photos left by author during the study timeframe. Photos right courtesy of Victoria Masterman.

Each case study contained the characteristics that exemplify Commercial Spaces and their distinct type. For instance, Gillies Street School Market is a temporary commercial space where no trace remains once the commercial activities have concluded. This style of space requires the commercial activity to use the site confines and the infrastructure in place to have a light touch on site. The case studies are key to understanding the generalised assumptions about public space accessibility and measure publicness.

The mix of sites enables the investigation of the subsidiary research questions of the thesis to determine *'How public is public space?'* and *'How do temporary events affect the use of public space?'*

Access

Gilles Street School (refer Figure 8-35), Rundle Place and Adelaide Central Market are accessible by public transport and are destinations. Gilles Street School is only publicly accessible when acting as a market. During weekdays, access is limited to school use only. Rundle Place is subject to opening hours from 9 am to 5:30 pm and acts as a thoroughfare between 6 am and 10 pm (9 am to 7 pm on weekends). Adelaide Central Market is subject to opening hours from 7 am to 5:30 pm, with gates locked at 9 pm. No sites incur admission fees.

Uses

Rundle Place (refer Figure 8-36) and Adelaide Central Market (refer Figure 9-31) are typically used as expected, with use focused on commerce and entertainment. The use of Gilles Street School varies. During weekdays, Gilles Street School functions as an education centre. From October to May, Gilles Street School functions as a market on the first and third Sunday of the month from 10 am to 4 pm.

Events (exclusive social activities)

All sites can hold events. Events require approval and permits issued by City of Adelaide, Gilles Street School, Rundle Mall Management Authority and the Central Market Management Authority, respectively. Private events have included art exhibitions, markets, product launches, Adelaide Fringe Festival performances (refer Figure 8-37), fundraising and family fun days. Traditional events in this case study group alter the performative value of the sites for a predetermined length of time, are typically organised by commercial or government groups and are heavily regulated.

Social activities that are perceived as events alter the performative value of the sites for an undetermined length of time. They are typically organised by community groups and are therefore unregulated. Social activities were only noted at Gillies Street School outside the study timeframe. The activities consisted of learning to ride bikes and using the basketball courts.

Ownership, management and maintenance

The Adelaide Central Market is owned by the City of Adelaide, managed by the Central Market Management Authority and maintained by the City of Adelaide (refer Figure 8-38). The market is subject to ongoing asset renewals, including fire upgrades and urban furniture replacements. Gilles Street School is owned by the Government of South Australia and managed and maintained by Gilles Street School. Asset renewals are subject to funding from the state government. Rundle Place is privately owned, managed and maintained by a central management authority. The mix of site and land ownership does not influence how the spaces are used or perceived as public.

The duty of care during authorised events is temporarily transferred from each owner to the responsible event manager, who holds primary responsibility for users during the event.

Publics

Commercial Spaces have strong links with the defined publics. Gilles Street School (refer Figure 8-39), Rundle Place and Adelaide Central Market (refer Figure 8-40) were designed as sites responsive to one population segment in contemporary urban society.

Security

Security measures are present at all sites. The measures include lighting, CCTV, signage and security personnel.



Figure 8-35: Gilles Street School frontage on a weekday. No signs of commercial activities are present. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-36: Rundle Place. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-37: Silent Disco 2014 Adelaide Fringe Event in the Adelaide Central Market. (Photo by author 2014)



Figure 8-38: Adelaide Central Market maintenance. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 8-39: Gilles Street School Day. (Photo courtesy of Nicole Arbon 2014)



Figure 8-40: Adelaide Central Market defined use. (Photo by author 2013)

This section has presented the three commercial case study sites to assess the accessibility of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse range of publics. The summary of the case study sites above highlighted the diversity and similarities of the sites. The strengths of the case study sites are their diversity, which allow the comprehensive measures of the Design Assessment Framework to be used.

8.4 Summary

This chapter outlined the importance of Adelaide in testing the Design Assessment Framework and measuring the performative value of public space as spaces of social exchange rather than how they look or their location. The 16 case study sites selected to assess the accessibility of public space by the Design Assessment Framework highlighted the diversity and similarities of the sites.

The strengths of the sites are their diversity, which allows the comprehensive measures of the framework to be used. The summary highlighted the relevance of Adelaide as an urban space to analyse the public accessibility of public space.

The Design Assessment Framework is used in Chapter Nine to measure the accessibility of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia, for a diverse range of publics and to suggest which elements, surfaces, activities and context contribute to or erode wider public accessibility and social exchange. In Chapter Ten, the discussion and conclusion of this thesis, the overarching research outcomes of the case studies are situated in the broader context of the landscape architectural discourses on public space.

Chapter Nine

Data analysis of

urban public space

Understanding the publicness of public space is crucial, given the primary aim of this thesis. The Design Assessment Framework, developed in Chapter Seven, measures the publicness of public spaces by capturing their performative value and subsequently suggests which elements, surfaces, activities and context contribute to or erode public accessibility and social exchange.

Performative value is measured in this thesis as use by a diversity of publics, acknowledging that the specific and relative value of public spaces is constantly changing. Performative value is determined by undertaking systematic observations assessing the public using the public space, whether interaction between groups occurs and how long activities and behaviour occur. This measure of publicness does not depend on ownership or management.

This chapter uses the components of the Design Assessment Framework (DAF) to measure the publicness of 16 case study sites in Adelaide, South Australia and provides a comparative assessment of the sites in the following order:

- **Public accessibility measures:** Determine the DAF rating for each case study site and measure how publicly accessible each space is during public and private activities. Activities are considered in two groupings: public activities (non-event - typical activity) and a change of use (event – exclusive social activities). This component of the framework observed and measured accessibility by considering user statistics including age, typology of publics and length of stay. (Refer to Chapter Seven for the full list of measures and Section 9.2, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for results).
- **Site elements:** Provide insights into how particular features attract users and encourage site-based activity, which allows analysis of interventions during events and non-events. This component measures permanent and temporary elements, including seating, public art and signage. (Refer to Chapter Seven for the full list of site elements and Section 9.3, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for results).
- **Site surfaces and structures:** Provide insights into how particular features attract users and encourage site-based activity, allowing analysis of interventions during events and non-events. This component measures permanent and temporary surfaces and structures, including paving, gardens and shade structures. (Refer to Chapter Seven for the full list of site surfaces and structures and Section 9.4, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for results).
- **Site activities:** Provide insights into the relative vibrancy of urban public spaces during events and non-events. This component observes and measures site activities, including formal and informal activities such as reading, busking and event setup. (Refer to Chapter Seven for the full list of site surfaces and structures and Section 9.5, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for results).

- **Site context and conditions:** Provide insights into the comfort, quality and aesthetic considerations for measuring the use of public spaces during events and non-events. This component observed and measured context and conditions, including change in use, design intent and movement. (Refer to Chapter Seven for the full list of site context and conditions and Section 9.6, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for results).

The components of the Design Assessment Framework are assessed separately and compared across all sites. The results presented in this chapter summarise the data assessment, providing insights and suggesting which characteristics of public space contribute to publicness. Conversely, they also suggest which features contribute to the perception of exclusion.

9.1 Parameters for site data collection

The findings presented in sections 9.2 to 9.6 draw on data collected from 21 January 2013 to 16 August 2014 at the case study sites in Adelaide representing five public space typologies: Parks & Gardens, Streets & Promenades, Plazas & Squares, Waterfronts and Commercial Spaces. Site visits were undertaken (153 non-event visits and 30 event visits) at different times of the day and week to gain an understanding of site conditions and their variable rhythm. Refer to Table 9-1 for site visits. Data were collected using the Design Assessment Framework checklist and performed by one assessor.

For the purpose of this thesis, site visits have been divided into two conditions 'non-event' and 'event'. 'Non-event' is defined as programs or activities occurring within the site boundaries that are part of the intended function of the site. 'Event' is defined as temporary programs or activities occurring within the site boundaries that exclude other users and alter use or function of the site. (Refer to Appendix 4.A for the expanded table compiling all site visit data).

Site assessments using the Design Assessment Framework checklist included visits at all times of the day and night for each public space typology with the exception of Waterfronts (Table 9-1). Covering the full 24 hours allowed for data to be collected, representing the changing nature of public space characteristics and conditions. This timeframe allowed for site assessments to collect data during their variable rhythm, including events or event setup, sun, rain, wind, seasons, weekends, weekdays and public holidays, day and night. The collection of data at different times of year, week and day is recommended by Dakin (2003) and Veitch et al. (2014), who note that studies limiting times of data collection in open space distort outcomes.

To assess the significance of social and economic effects of publicness, independent 2-group t-tests were undertaken. These tests are a method of

checking the hypothesis that two populations of small data are independent, taking into account the size of the population (i.e. whether there is enough data to support conclusions). Independent 2-group t-tests are applied to scaled data to determine whether the collected data follow a normal distribution and to confirm whether there is a significant difference in the averages (mean). The results are considered significant if the values of the test are less than 0.05. A strong statistical significance refers to a value of less than 0.01. (Refer to Appendix 4.C for T-test results). To determine if the duration of site visits and number of visits frequency distribution was consistent and valid, independent 2-group t-tests were conducted to inform a null hypothesis. The t-tests indicated there was no significant difference in the averages (m) of collected data with regard to the overall number of site visits between non-event condition (153 visits) and event condition (30 visits).

Weather information was collected as part of the site assessments. Studies conducted by Cooper Marcus (1998), Gehl Architects (2010, 2013), Project for Public Space (2000+) and Whyte (1980) all mapped everyday behaviour and public use with regard to weather conditions (sun, rain, snow, temperature). Outcomes of such studies clearly indicate spaces function differently depending on weather conditions, time of day and season as people give preference to areas in the sun in winter and shade in summer. Interestingly, Buchanan's (2007) study concluded that weather does not affect the number of users if the site is small and dominated by commuters and shoppers. Buchanan's recommendation is in contrast to those of others, including Gehl Architects, who suggest that weather does affect pedestrian counts. The results of this study do not suggest that weather affects behavioural patterns. This may be because of Adelaide's relatively mild weather variables or the design of the case study sites.

This study acknowledges that the data reflect an 18-month period. Analysis of the data included:

- Initial data review;
- Data indexing, charting and interpretation of connections and relationships within the first review; and
- Significance of the results.

The following sections discuss the findings across the 16 case study sites in relation to the five components of the Design Assessment Framework to assess the performative value (accessibility) of public space: publicness, site elements, site surfaces and structures, site activities and site context and conditions. The assessment involved an iterative review of the collected data and three main analyses. The first established and compared the Design Assessment Framework (DAF) rating of each case study site. The second divided the data into the condition of non-event or condition of event to determine which

components contribute to or erode the publicness of a site. The third analysis reviewed each of the individual measures (i.e. user number, signage, paving, formal recreation and natural surveillance) to determine if any individual measure had more bearing on the DAF rating. The analysis highlights how complex public spaces are and the potential of many iterative, simple comparisons.



| Parks & Gardens | |
|----------------------|--|
| 1 | Himeji Gardens |
| 2 | Castle Street (between Charlotte Street and Ely Place) |
| 3 | Glover Playground |
| Streets & Promenades | |
| 4 | North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road) |
| 5 | Rundle Street (between Pulteney Street and East Terrace) |
| 6 | Peel Street |
| 7 | Hindley Street (between King William Street and Morphett Street) |
| 8 | Moonta Street |
| Plazas & Squares | |
| 9 | Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi |
| 10 | Hindmarsh Square/Mukata |
| 11 | Hajek Plaza (Festival Plaza) |
| 12 | Adelaide Railway Station |
| Waterfronts | |
| 13 | Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) |
| Commercial Spaces | |
| 14 | Gilles Street School (markets) |
| 15 | Rundle Place |
| 16 | Adelaide Central Market |

Figure 9- 2: Adelaide study area and case study site locations

Table 9-1: Case study site visit time and duration

| Case study site | Before 9:00 am | 9:00 am to 12:00 pm | 12:00 pm to 3:00 pm | 3:00 pm to 6:00 pm | 6:00 pm to 9:00 pm | 9:00 pm to 12:00 am | |
|----------------------|--|--|---|---|--|--|--|
| Parks & Gardens | Himeji Gardens | 15.02.2014 (8:30 am to 9:00 am) 04.09.2014 (7:00 am to 7:30 am) | 11.05.2013 (9:20 am to 9:50 am) 12.09.2014 (11:00 pm to 11:30 pm) | 20.05.2013 (1:40 pm to 2:00 pm) 26.07.2014 (1:30 pm to 3:00 pm) | 08.05.2013 (3:30 pm to 4:00 pm) 19.05.2013 (3:45 pm to 4:00 pm) 20.07.2014 (4:15 pm to 4:30 pm) | | 13.09.2014 (10:00 pm to 10:15 pm) |
| | Castle Street (between Charlotte Street and Ely Place) | 15.02.2014 (8:30 am to 9:00 am) 04.09.2014 (7:00 am to 7:30 am) | 11.05.2013 (9:00 am to 9:20 am) | 03.02.2013 (12:00 pm to 12:30 pm) 26.07.2014 (1:30 pm to 3:00 pm) | 08.05.2013 (4:00 pm to 4:15 pm) 14.09.2014 (3:50 pm to 4:05pm) | 05.02.2013 (7:30 pm to 8:00 pm) 12.09.2014 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) | 12.09.2014 (11:00 pm to 11:30 pm) 13.09.2014 (10:00 pm to 10:15 pm) |
| | Glover Playground | 11.07.2013 (8:00 am to 8:15 am) | 11.05.2013 (9:50 am to 10:00 am) 11.05.2013 (10:35am to 11:00 am) 12.09.2014 (11:30 pm to 12:00 am) | 20.05.2013 (1:15 pm to 1:40 pm) 14.09.2014 (1:30 pm to 2:00 pm) | 19.05.2013 (3:15 pm to 3:45 pm) | | 13.09.2014 (9:30 pm to 10:00 pm) |
| Streets & Promenades | North Terrace (between Kintore Avenue and Frome Road) | 28.01.2013 (8:00 am to 9:00 am) | 12.06.2013 (10:15 am to 10:30 am) | 27.01.2013 (12:00 pm to 2:00 pm) 28.01.2013 (12:00 pm to 2:00 pm) | 02.02.2013 (5:00 pm to 7:00 pm) 26.02.2013 (5:30 pm to 5:45 pm) 04.05.2013 (3:45 pm to 4:00 pm) 12.06.2013 (12:00 pm to 12:30 pm) | 02.02.2013 (5:00 pm to 7:00 pm) 19.02.2013 (7:30 pm to 7:45 pm) 25.02.2015 (6:00 pm to 6:10 pm) 28.03.2014 (6:05pm to 6:20 pm) | |
| | Rundle Street (between Pulteney Street and East Terrace) | 28.01.2013 (8:00 am to 9:00 am) 08.07.2014 (8:05 am to 8:20 am) 30.07.2014 (8:00 am to 8:15am) 31.07.2014 (8:15 am to 8:30 am) 01.08.2014 (8:30 am to 8:45 am) | | 27.01.2013 (12:00 pm to 2:00 pm) 28.01.2013 (12:00 pm to 2:00 pm) | | 22.03.2013 (8:15 pm to 8:30 pm) 08.03.2014 (8:30 pm to 10:30 pm) 31.07.2014 (5:30 pm to 5:45 pm) 01.08.2014 (5:45 pm to 6:00 pm) 14.09.2014 (4:50 pm to 5:20 pm) | 08.03.2014 (8:30 pm to 10:30 pm) 15.03.2014 (10:30 pm to 12:00 am) |
| | Peel Street | 03.09.2014 (7:15 am to 8:15 am) 01.09.2014 (6:45 am to 7:00 am) | 01.08.2014 (11:15 am to 11:30 am) 03.09.2014 (9:30 am to 10:00 am) 10.09.2014 (9:30 am to 10:00 am) | 24.10.2012 (12:30 pm to 1:00 pm) 01.08.2014 (12:15 pm to 12:30 pm) | 26.04.2013 (5:15 pm to 5:30 pm) 04.05.2013 (5:00 pm to 5:15 pm) 10.05.2013 (3:00 pm to 3:30 pm) 14.03.2014 (5:30 pm to 6:00 pm) | 10.02.2014 (6:30 pm to 6:45 pm) 08.03.2014 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) 14.03.2014 (7:00 pm to 7:30 pm) 09.08.2014 (6:30 pm to 7:00 pm) | 19.04.2013 (10:00 pm to 12:00 am) |
| | Hindley Street | 03.09.2014 (7:15 am to 8:15 am) 10.09.2014 (9:30 am to 10:00 am) | | | 11.07.2014 (5:45 pm to 6:00 pm) 14.09.2014 (4:40 pm to 5:10 pm) | 08.03.2014 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) 08.03.2014 (8:15 pm to 8:30 pm) 14.03.2014 (5:30 pm to 7:30 pm) 09.08.2014 (6:30 pm to 7:00 pm) | 28.03.2014 (9:30 pm to 10:00 pm) 11.07.2014 (9:00 pm to 9:30 pm) |
| | Moonta Street | | 08.06.2013 (10:00 am to 10:15 am) 13.07.2013 (10:45 am to 11:00 am) 14.03.2014 (10:00 am to 11:00 am) | 07.06.2013 (12:30 pm to 1:15 pm) 02.08.2014 (1:00 pm to 1:15 pm) | 14.09.2014 (4:20 pm to 5:00 pm) | 16.02.2013 (6:00 pm to 7:00 pm) 10.05.2013 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) | 25.05.2013 (10:00 pm to 10:30 pm) |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|--|---|--|-----------------------------------|--|
| Plazas & Squares | Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 08.05.2013 (9:30 am to 9:45 am) 08.09.2014 (7:00 am to 7:30 am) | 11.05.2013 (10:00 am to 10:30 am) | 20.05.2013 (1:00 pm to 1:15 pm) 25.07.2014 (1:35pm to 1:50 pm) 02.08.2014 (12:15 pm to 12:30 pm) | 19.05.2013 (4:30 pm to 4:45 pm) 20.08.2014 (4:00 pm to 4:30 pm) 14.09.2014 (4:30 pm to 4:45 pm) | 17.05.2013 (8:00 pm to 8:15 pm) 25.07.2014 (8:00 pm to 8:30 pm) | | |
| | Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 22.02.2013 (12:00 am to 12:30 am) 11.04.2013 (8:00 am to 8:30 am) 11.10.2013 (8:30 am to 9:00 am) | 09.10.2013 (10:00 am to 10:30 am) | 18.04.2013 (1:00 pm to 1:30 pm) 26.04.2013 (12:30 pm to 1:00 pm) 07.02.2014 (12:30 pm to 1:30 pm) 14.09.2014 (1:00 pm to 1:30 pm) | 28.03.2013 (5:00 pm to 5:20 pm) 14.09.2014 (4:30 pm to 5:00 pm) | 22.03.2013 (7:45 pm to 8:00 pm) | 21.02.2013 (9:00 pm to 9:30 pm) | |
| | Hajek Plaza | 13.07.2013 (8:30 am to 8:45 am) 30.06.2014 (8:00 am to 8:30 am) 10.09.2014 (7:00 am to 7:15 am) | | 27.01.2013 (12:00 pm to 2:00 pm) 05.20.2014 (2:00 pm to 3:00 pm) 15.03.2014 (12:10 am to 12:30 am) 17.03.2014 (1:10 pm to 1:30 pm) 01.07.2014 (2:00 pm to 3:30 pm) | 04.05.2013 (4:00 pm to 4:30 pm) 19.05.2013 (4:15 pm to 4:30 pm) | 19.04.2013 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) 19.04.2013 (8:30 pm to 9:00 pm) 09.08.2014 (7:30 pm to 8:00 pm) 09.08.2014 (8:30 pm to 9:00 pm) | | |
| | Adelaide Railway Station | 15.03.2014 (12:10 am to 12:30 am) 04.09.2014 (8:00 am to 8:15 am) 10.09.2014 (9:30 am to 10:00 am) 12.09.2014 (8:00 am to 8:30 am) | 28.03.2014 (10:40 am to 10:55am) 16.09.2014 (9:00 am to 9:30 am) | 12.06.2013 (12:00 pm to 12:30 pm) 12.06.2013 (2:00 pm to 2:15 pm) | | 14.03.2014 (7:00 pm to 7:30 pm) 09.08.2014 (7:30 pm to 8:00 pm) 09.08.2014 (8:30 pm to 9:00 pm) 09.09.2014 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) | | |
| Waterfronts | Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 13.07.2013 (8:30 am to 8:45 am) 15.03.2014 (12:10 am to 12:30 am) 30.06.2014 (7:00 am to 8:30 am) 10.09.2014 (6:45 am to 7:00 am) 13.09.2014 (9:00 am to 9:30 am) | 12.03.2014 (10:30 am to 11:30 am) 28.03.2014 (10:00 am to 10:40 am) | 27.01.2013 (12:00 pm to 2:00 pm) 05.20.2014 (2:00 pm to 3:00 pm) 12.03.2014 (1:00 pm to 2:00 pm) 17.03.2014 (1:20 pm to 2:00 pm) 01.07.2014 (2:00 pm to 3:30 pm) | 19.02.2013 (5:30 pm to 7:30 pm) 19.05.2013 (4:15 pm to 4:30 pm) | 05.02.2013 (6:00 pm to 7:20 pm) 19.02.2013 (5:30 pm to 7:30 pm) 09.08.2014 (7:30 pm to 8:00 pm) 09.08.2014 (8:30 pm to 9:00 pm) | | |
| Commercial Spaces | Gilles Street School | | 11.05.2013 (10:00 am to 10:15 am) 12.09.2014 (11:30 pm to 12:00 am) | | 19.05.2013 (2:30 pm to 3:00 pm) 16.06.2013 (3:15 pm to 3:45 pm) 14.09.2014 (4:05pm to 4:20 pm) | | 13.09.2014 (10:00 pm to 10:15 pm) | |
| | Rundle Place | 28.03.2014 (6:20 am to 6:35am) 11.09.2014 (7:45 am to 8:00 am) | 12.09.2014 (9:30 am to 10:00 am) | 04.07.2014 (1:00 pm to 1:30 pm) 12.09.2014 (2:00 pm to 2:30 pm) | 01.07.2014 (3:30 pm to 3:45 pm) 10.07.2014 (4:45 pm to 5:00 pm) 14.09.2014 (4:30 pm to 5:00 pm) | 12.09.2014 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) | 11.07.2014 (9:00 pm to 9:30 pm) | |
| | Adelaide Central Market | | 08.06.2013 (10:15 am to 11:00 am) 13.07.2013 (11:00 am to 11:30 am) 14.03.2014 (10:00 am to 11:00 am) | 07.06.2013 (1:15 pm to 1:30 pm) 07.03.2014 (12:15 pm to 1:15 pm) 25.03.2014 (12:15 pm to 12:50 pm) 28.03.2014 (12:00 pm to 12:30 pm) 28.03.2014 (1:45 pm to 2:00 pm) 02.08.2014 (12:30 pm to 1:00 pm) | 14.09.2014 (4:20 pm to 5:00 pm) | 16.02.2013 (6:00 pm to 7:00 pm) 10.05.2013 (6:00 pm to 6:30 pm) | 25.05.2013 (10:00 pm to 10:30 pm) | |

9.2 DAF rating and publicness

A fundamental reconsideration of the relationship between physical (design) and operational (use) of public space is required because the distinction between public space and private space (outlined in Part A, Chapters Two to Five) has blurred. Ownership and management no longer define whether public space is publicly accessible. Users are consistently the dominant voice in public space and their views should be the focus of questioning publicness or privateness. In response, this thesis outlined seven measures for determining the publicness of public space (Chapter Five and Chapter Seven):

- user number;
- user age (range of ages present);
- typology of publics (diversity of publics present);
- gender (mix of genders present);
- individual or group presence;
- interaction between users; and
- length of stay.

Each measures the number, range or diversity of people present at the site. A high measure indicates more publicness.

These measures of public accessibility and the user statistics that are common within the typologies of public spaces are presented in Chapter Three. The measures allowed for systematic observations identifying the publics using each case study site, if interaction between groups occurred and how long activities or behaviours occurred.

The aim of analysing the public accessibility measures data was to determine a DAF rating for individual sites. The DAF rating is based on the presence of each of the seven measures; whether the sites had been accessed and by whom. The scores aided in the identification of characteristics that can be argued to contribute to the observed diversity of publics. This score was then used in subsequent sections to analyse the Design Assessment Framework components—elements, activities, context—to assess correlations between the components and a site’s publicness.

Public accessibility measures were assessed in three ways. The first analysis compared the overall DAF rating between the 16 case study sites. The second analysis divided data into the conditions of non-event and event, to determine whether short-term programmed changes have a bearing on the DAF rating of a site. Here the results varied, indicating that land ownership and temporary change of legal responsibility did not have a direct link to publicness. The third

analysis reviewed each of the seven public accessibility measures to determine whether any individual measure had more bearing on the DAF rating.

9.2.1 DAF rating findings and discussion

For the first analysis, the 16 case study sites and 183 site visits were assessed to determine a total DAF rating for each site. A total score of 7 indicated the assessed public space contained all public accessibility measures (user statistics) and therefore was not affected by reduced access during events. A score of 0 indicated the space did not contain the public accessibility measures. Each site's score in this section was used throughout the subsections of this chapter to analyse other Design Assessment Framework components. As shown in Table 9-2 and Figure 9-4, Moonta Street consistently scored the most public space (m = 5.58, min = 4.58, max = 6.75). Rundle Street presented all public accessibility measures at one site visit (max = 7), while Castle Street presented no public accessibility measures at one site visit (min = 0). Unexpectedly, Parks & Gardens had the lowest public score, while Streets & Promenades had the highest public score. A review between the total minimum, average and maximum indicates that there were fluctuations in case study sites during individual visits.

Table 9-2: DAF rating of case studies sites (least to most public) across all site visits

| Case study site | Average (m) | Minimum | Maximum |
|--|-------------|---------|---------|
| Castle Street | 2.18 | 0.00 | 4.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 2.58 | 0.25 | 6.00 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 0.25 | 5.08 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 0.50 | 6.17 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.70 | 0.25 | 6.25 |
| Rundle Place | 3.82 | 0.25 | 5.92 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 3.17 | 5.50 |
| Hajek Plaza | 4.22 | 3.00 | 5.50 |
| North Terrace | 4.26 | 3.00 | 5.75 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.75 | 3.50 | 6.42 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 4.25 | 5.58 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.88 | 0.25 | 6.33 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 4.17 | 5.67 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 5.28 | 2.67 | 6.75 |
| Rundle Street | 5.34 | 4.00 | 7.00 |
| Moonta Street | 5.58 | 4.58 | 6.75 |

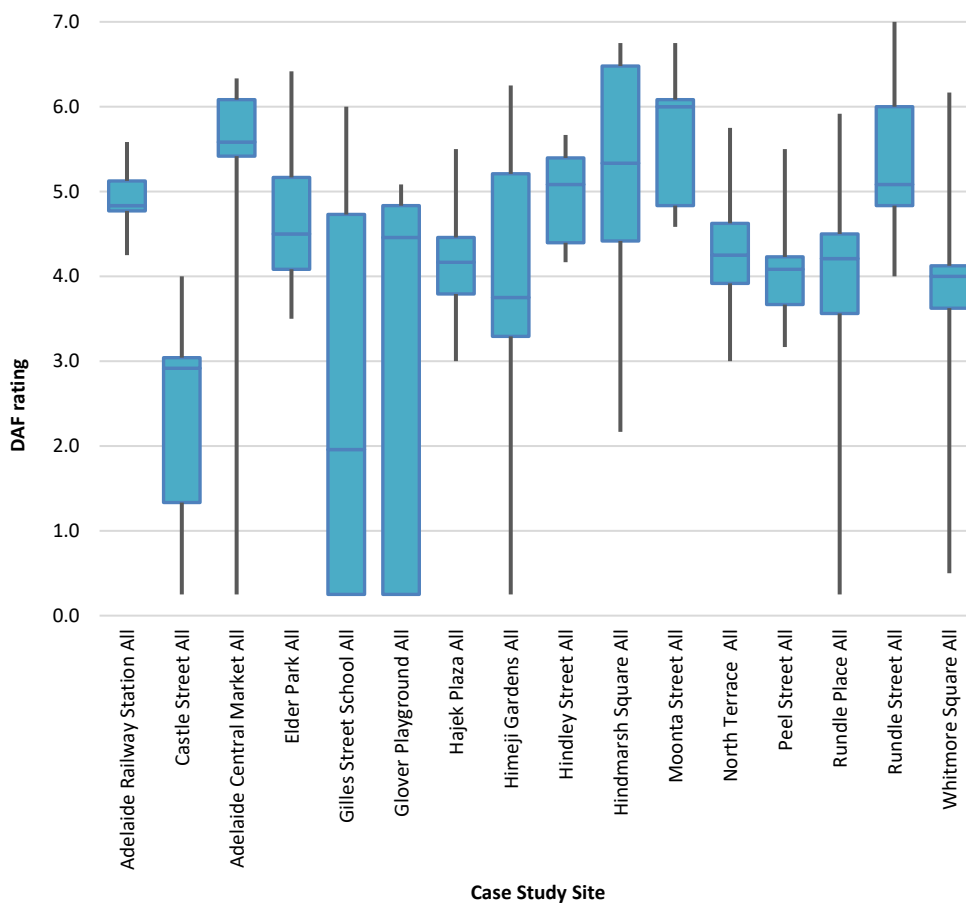


Figure 9-3: DAF rating (alphabetical order) across all sites

9.2.2 DAF rating findings and comparison between non-event and event conditions

Fluctuations of case study sites became clearer in the second analysis comparing the DAF rating during non-event and event conditions (Table 9-3, Table 9-4 and Figure 9-4). During events, all case study sites showed a considerably higher DAF rating except for Hindmarsh Square/Mukata, which dropped in score ($m = 6.75$ non-event, $m = 4.98$ event). This result may be related to the type of events and the event setups in the square. Parks & Gardens remained the lowest DAF-rated public spaces overall. Unexpectedly, Commercial Spaces showed an increased DAF rating during events. The overall increase of the DAF ratings during events, indicates that land ownership and temporary change of legal responsibility did not have a direct link to publicness and events could positively contribute to public space. This result may be related to the type of events that occurred during the site visits, including the Adelaide Fringe Festival, the Tour Down Under, the Adelaide Festival, the World Solar Car Challenge, art exhibitions and markets (Chapter Eight and Appendix 4.A).

Table 9-3: DAF rating of case study sites for non-event site visits (least to most public)

| Case study site | Average (m) | Minimum | Maximum |
|--|-------------|---------|---------|
| Gilles Street School | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Castle Street | 2.00 | 0.25 | 3.25 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 0.25 | 5.08 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.42 | 0.25 | 5.92 |
| Rundle Place | 3.58 | 0.25 | 5.17 |
| Whitmore Square | 3.63 | 0.50 | 6.17 |
| Hajek Plaza | 3.98 | 3.00 | 5.25 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 3.17 | 5.50 |
| North Terrace | 4.21 | 3.00 | 5.75 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.56 | 3.50 | 5.83 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.77 | 0.25 | 6.33 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 4.25 | 5.58 |
| Rundle Street | 4.94 | 4.00 | 6.00 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 4.17 | 5.67 |
| Moonta Street | 5.56 | 4.75 | 6.33 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 6.75 | 6.75 | 6.75 |

Table 9-4: DAF rating of case study sites for event site visits (least to most public)

| Case study site | Average (m) | Minimum | Maximum |
|--|-------------|---------|---------|
| Castle Street | 4.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.75 | 4.75 | 4.75 |
| Gilles Street School | 4.92 | 3.67 | 6.00 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 4.98 | 2.67 | 6.75 |
| Hajek Plaza | 5.08 | 4.50 | 5.50 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 5.35 | 3.50 | 6.42 |
| Moonta Street | 5.67 | 4.58 | 6.75 |
| Rundle Place | 5.92 | 5.92 | 5.92 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 6.17 | 6.17 | 6.17 |
| Himeji Gardens | 6.25 | 6.25 | 6.25 |
| Rundle Street | 6.67 | 6.33 | 7.00 |
| Hindley Street | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Peel Street | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Adelaide Railway Station | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Glover Playground | n/a | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded

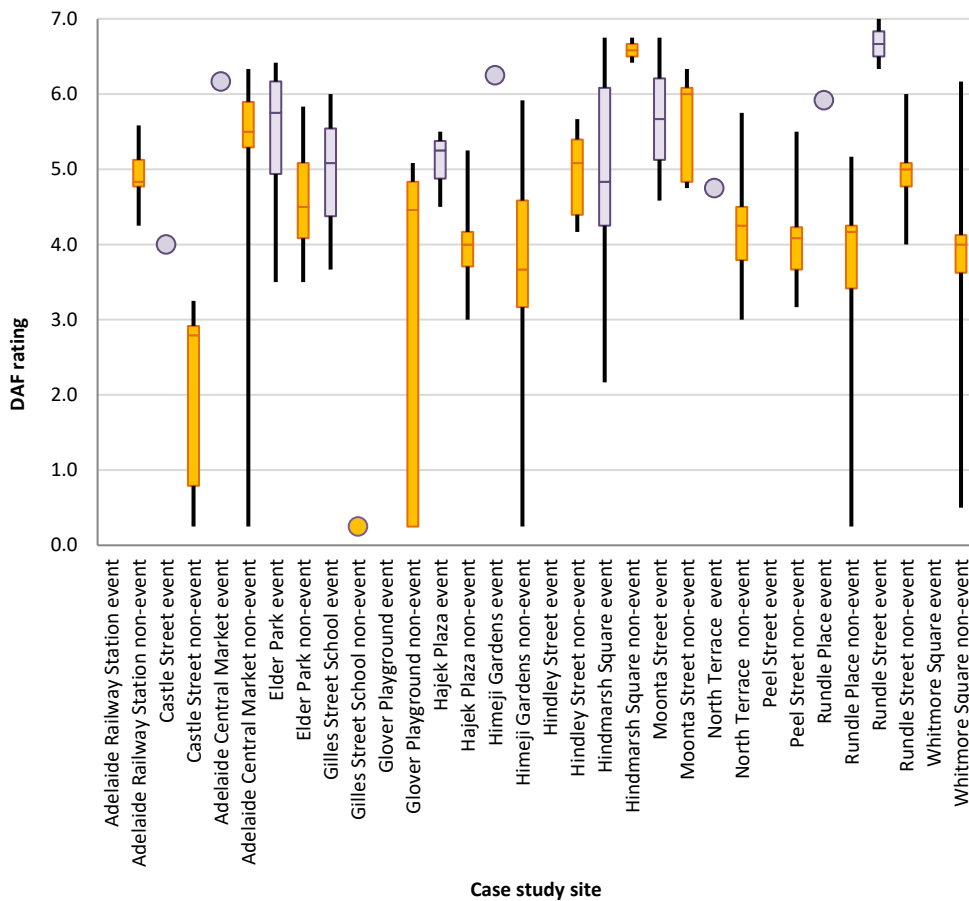


Figure 9-4: DAF rating non-event and event site visits

9.2.3 Public accessibility measures review

The following subsection outlines the third analysis of public accessibility measures, reviewing each of the seven measures of publicness. Here, the results varied, indicating a more nuanced response to the variety of event facilities and features brought temporarily to public spaces.

User numbers

The case study sites were more likely to have between 0 to 100 people during non-events and 100 or more users during events (Figure 9-5, Figure 9-6 and Table 9-5). Parks & Gardens were shown to typically have 0 to 20 users regardless of event or non-event conditions. Streets & Promenades attracted the majority of users, with typically over 500. Interestingly, Commercial Space typically had over 500 users during non-events (Figure 9-5), shown by 62% of site visits. No significant difference was found in average presence during events (Appendix 4.C). Overall, user numbers increased during events, except for Commercial Spaces (Figure 9-6 and Table 9-5). This finding supports the expectation of Section 9.2, that events can positively contribute to public space if site design and size allow large numbers of users to be present.

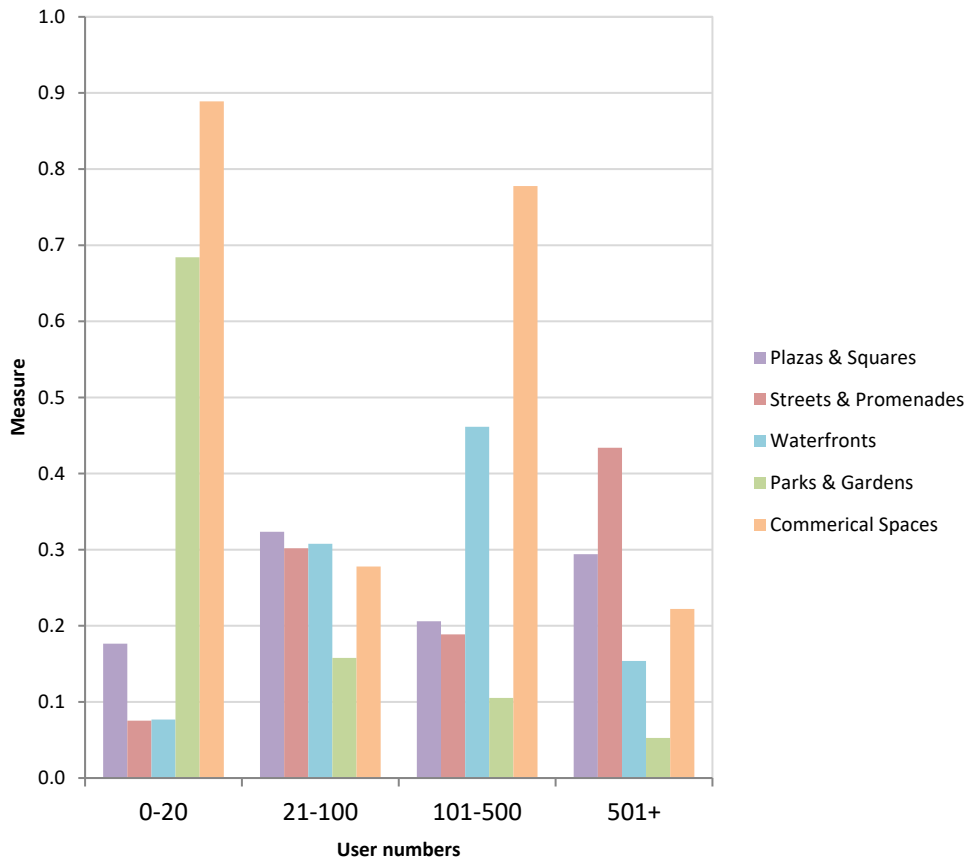


Figure 9-5: User numbers (average) compared with public space typologies during non-event site visits

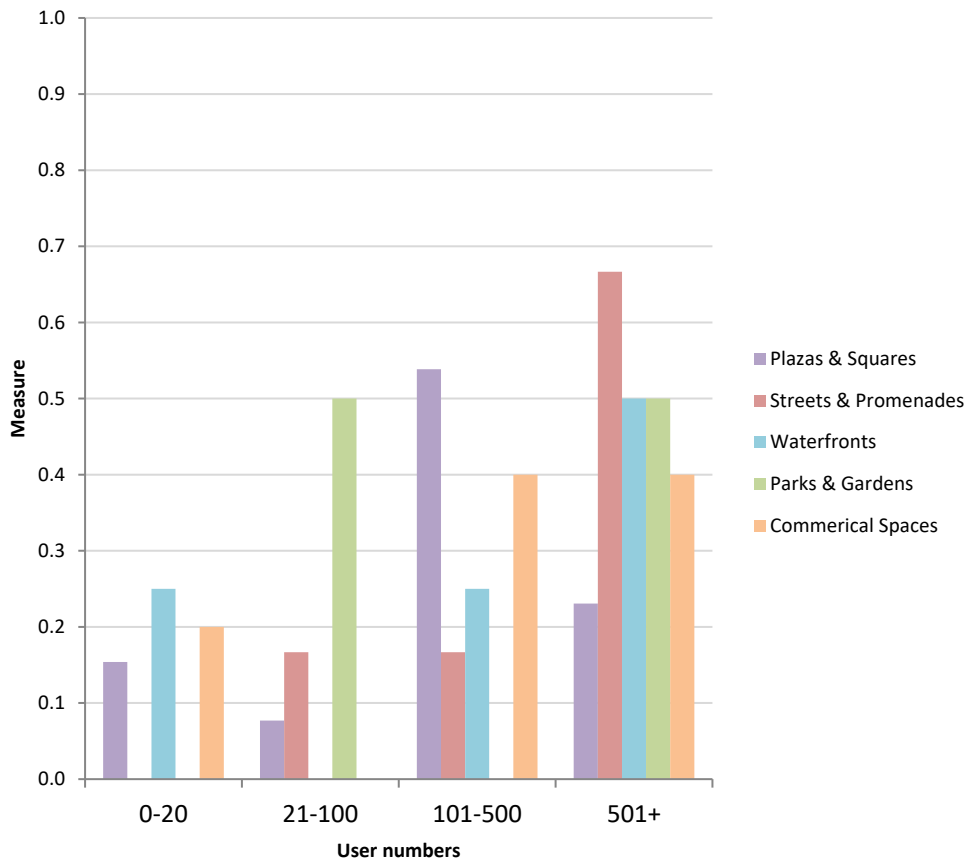


Figure 9-6: User numbers (average) compared with public space typologies during event site visits

Table 9-5: User numbers (average) across all site visits

| Case study site | | User numbers | | | |
|---|-----------|--------------|--------|---------|------|
| | | 0–20 | 21–100 | 101–500 | 501+ |
| Adelaide Railway Station | Overall | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.23 | 0.17 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.23 | 0.17 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Castle Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | Overall | 0.25 | 0.21 | 0.21 | 0.19 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.21 | 0.21 | 0.19 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/ Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | Overall | 0.25 | 0.22 | 0.16 | 0.06 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.23 | 0.15 | 0.04 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.13 |
| Gilles Street School | Overall | 0.25 | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.04 |
| | Non-event | 0.025 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.08 |
| Glover Playground | Overall | 0.25 | 0.13 | 0.03 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.13 | 0.03 | 0.00 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Hajek Plaza | Overall | 0.25 | 0.21 | 0.13 | 0.05 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.20 | 0.09 | 0.05 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.08 |
| Himeji Gardens | Overall | 0.25 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.05 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.03 | 0.03 | 0.03 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Hindley Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.23 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.23 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | Overall | 0.25 | 0.21 | 0.19 | 0.04 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.20 | 0.18 | 0.05 |
| Moonta Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.22 | 0.17 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.18 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.13 | 0.13 |
| North Terrace | Overall | 0.25 | 0.20 | 0.07 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.20 | 0.05 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| Peel Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.22 | 0.08 | 0.03 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.22 | 0.08 | 0.03 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Rundle Place | Overall | 0.25 | 0.20 | 0.15 | 0.03 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.19 | 0.14 | 0.03 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| Rundle Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.23 | 0.19 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.23 | 0.19 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Whitmore Square | Overall | 0.25 | 0.11 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.11 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded.

User age

Distribution of age is a factor to be considered for night time and weekend economy studies. Similarly to user numbers (refer above), user age variation increased across the aggregate of public space types during events (Figure 9-7). A trend was found that age groups less than 20 years of age or above 61 years of age were more likely to attend events.

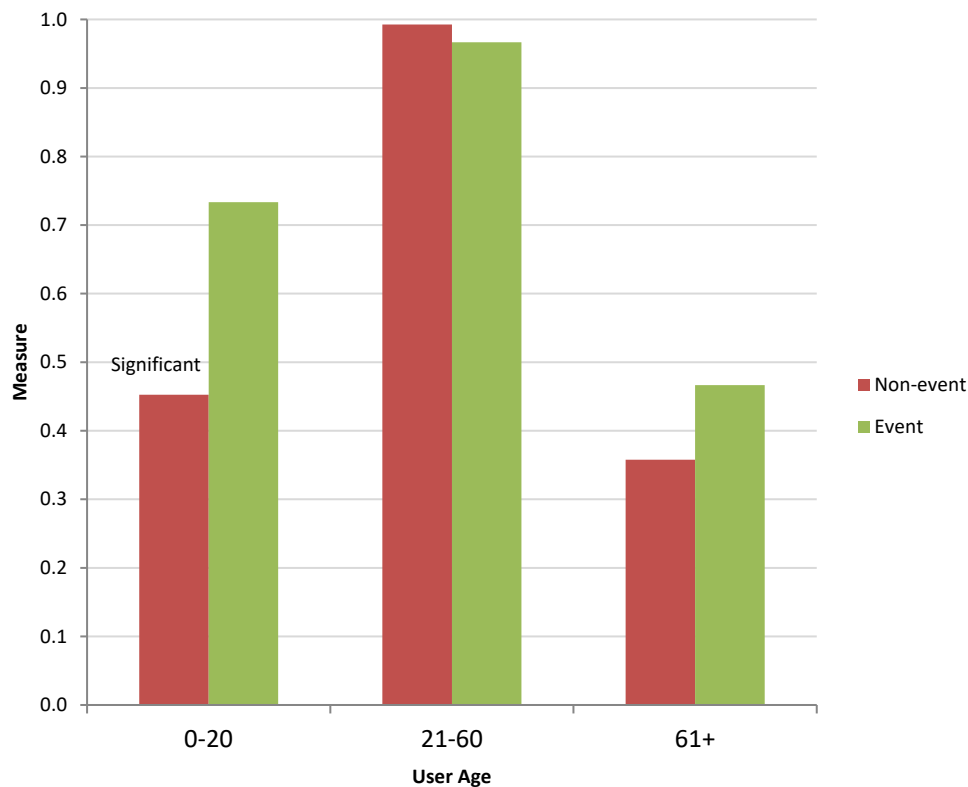


Figure 9-7: User age variation (average) across all sites

This overall trend is different when assessed by the separate public space typologies during event and non-event conditions (Figure 9-7 and Figure 9-8). Waterfronts were the least diverse, with the majority of users between 21 and 60 years of age. This may be because of site elements and the existing program of activities. The greatest age variation was seen in the Commercial Space with more users below 20 years of age and above 61 years of age, throughout all analysis review comparisons. During events, the Streets & Promenades and Plazas & Squares saw an increase in the 61 years and over bracket (Figure 9-9). Changes of demographics may be due to the flexibility of these sites in terms of layout and site elements. Similarly, Parks & Gardens presented trends showing an increase in the age group 0 to 20 during events. Parks & Gardens results are linked to events held in these spaces, which focus on family activities. These findings support the conclusion that events positively contribute to public space by catering for a broad demographic representation in urban spaces.

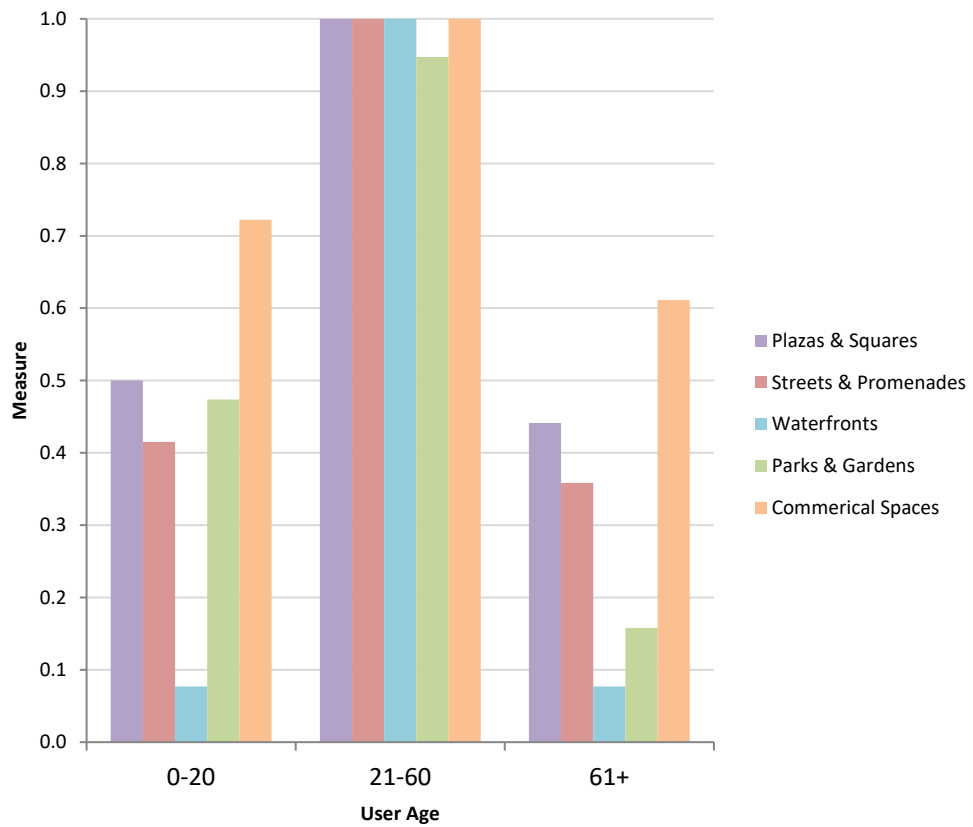


Figure 9-8: User age variation (average) compared with public space typologies during non-event site visits

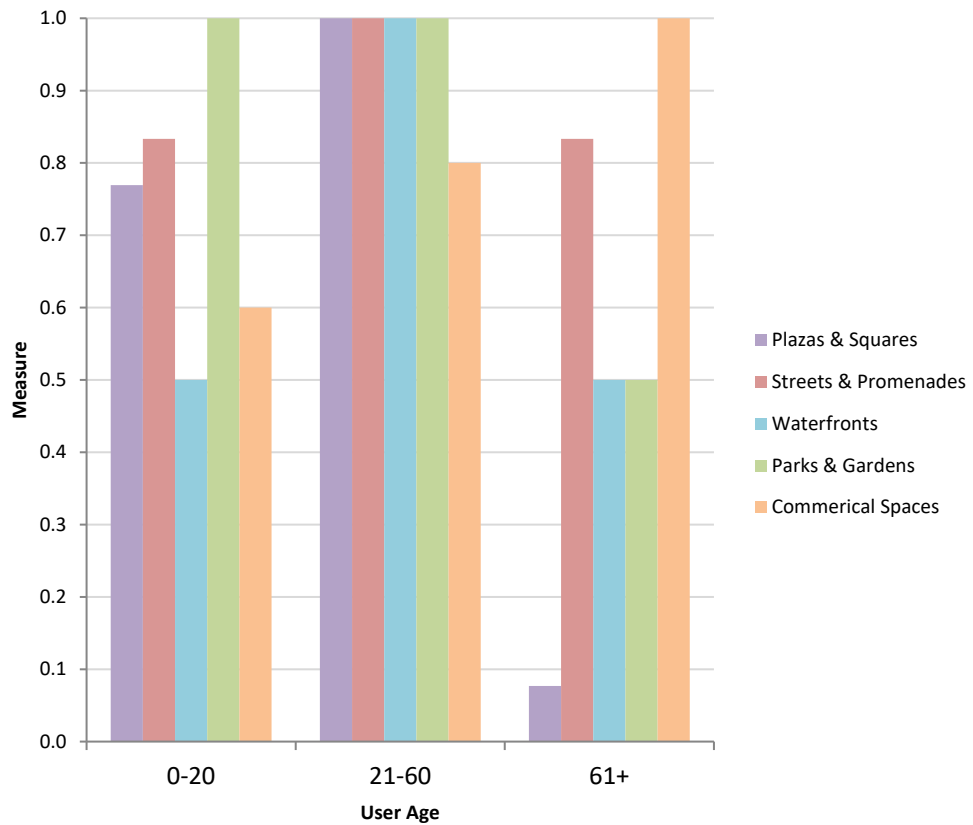


Figure 9-9: User age variation (average) compared with public space typologies during event site visits

Typology of publics

Elements and materials designed into a space might be considered to restrict or discourage some publics. Within this study, the absence of publics represents degrees of exclusion. The publics recognised in the study are identified in Chapter Five: the defined public, the appropriated public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public. These proposed publics are affected differently by regulations and design principles, which is discussed below. As shown in Table 9-6 (next page), Figure 9-10, Figure 9-11 and Figure 9-12, the presence of publics within the case study sites fluctuated with distinct variation between non-event and event conditions within a number of the case study sites.

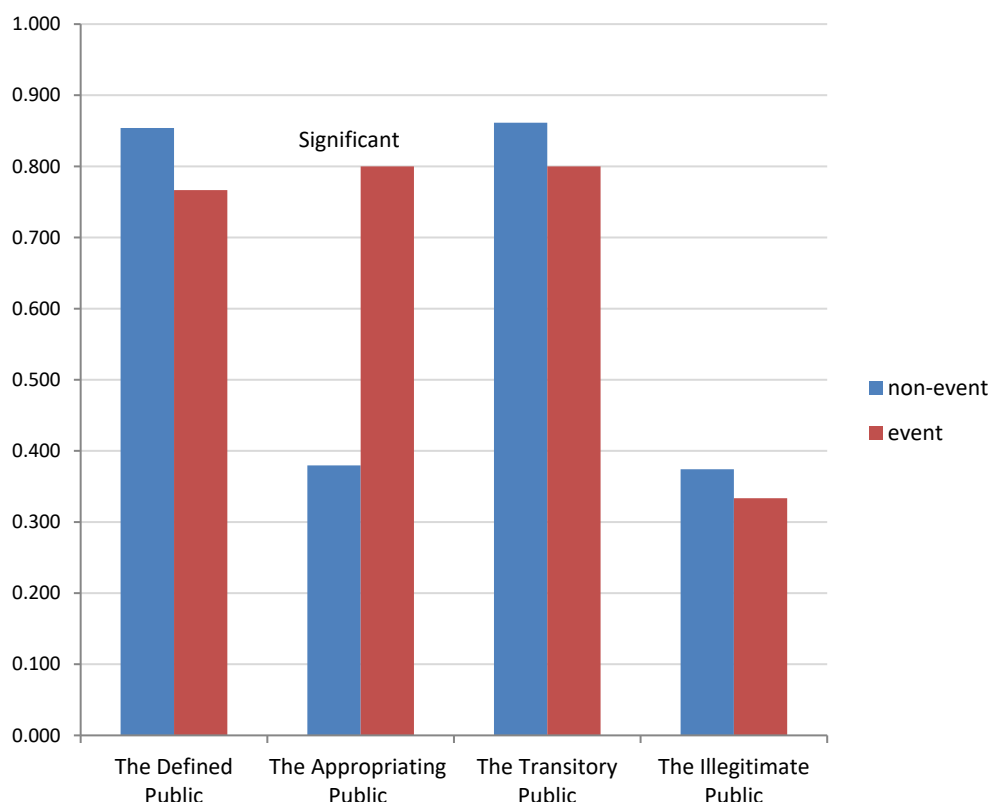


Figure 9-10: Typology of publics presence variation (average) across all site visits

The defined public are the dominant group of publics within public space (Chapter Five) and were recorded at all sites except Gilles Street School. The presence of the defined public was not constant throughout the 183 site visits, with Adelaide Railway Station, Hindley Street and Rundle Street being the only sites where defined public presence was recorded during all site visit (Table 9-6). While the defined public data did not present any strong trends, review of the data suggests that the fluctuation is linked to the public space typologies and function of the case study sites. This conclusion is linked to the constant presence of the defined public in Streets & Promenades compared with all

other publics and the minimal variation between non-event and event conditions (Figure 9-10, Figure 9-11, Figure 9-12).

Table 9-6: Typology of publics presence (average) across all site visits

| Case study site | | Defined Public (m) | Appropriating Public (m) | Transitory Public (m) | Illegitimate Public (m) |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| Adelaide Railway Station | Overall | 0.25 | 0.04 | 0.7 | 0.02 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.04 | 0.7 | 0.02 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Castle Street) | Overall | 0.11 | 0.00 | 0.18 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.10 | 0.00 | 0.18 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | Overall | 0.21 | 0.06 | 0.13 | 0.10 |
| | Non-event | 0.21 | 0.06 | 0.15 | 0.08 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.25 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | Overall | 0.21 | 0.24 | 0.25 | 0.06 |
| | Non-event | 0.19 | 0.23 | 0.25 | 0.06 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.06 |
| Gilles Street School | Overall | 0.00 | 0.13 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| Glover Playground | Overall | 0.16 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.03 |
| | Non-event | 0.16 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.03 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Hajek Plaza | Overall | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.25 | 0.09 |
| | Non-event | 0.09 | 0.09 | 0.25 | 0.07 |
| | Event | 0.08 | 0.08 | 0.25 | 0.17 |
| Himeji Gardens | Overall | 0.15 | 0.13 | 0.10 | 0.13 |
| | Non-event | 0.17 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.14 |
| | Event | 0.00 | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| Hindley Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.10 | 0.25 | 0.13 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.10 | 0.25 | 0.13 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | Overall | 0.23 | 0.21 | 0.25 | 0.08 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| | Event | 0.23 | 0.20 | 0.25 | 0.05 |
| Moonta Street | Overall | 0.22 | 0.11 | 0.25 | 0.06 |
| | Non-event | 0.21 | 0.07 | 0.25 | 0.07 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| North Terrace | Overall | 0.23 | 0.14 | 0.25 | 0.18 |
| | Non-event | 0.23 | 0.16 | 0.25 | 0.18 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.13 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Peel Street | Overall | 0.23 | 0.11 | 0.23 | 0.09 |
| | Non-event | 0.23 | 0.11 | 0.23 | 0.09 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Rundle Place | Overall | 0.18 | 0.08 | 0.18 | 0.00 |
| | Non-event | 0.17 | 0.06 | 0.19 | 0.00 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| Rundle Street | Overall | 0.25 | 0.08 | 0.25 | 0.17 |
| | Non-event | 0.25 | 0.03 | 0.25 | 0.15 |
| | Event | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.25 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | Overall | 0.18 | 0.07 | 0.16 | 0.16 |
| | Non-event | 0.18 | 0.07 | 0.16 | 0.16 |
| | Event | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded.

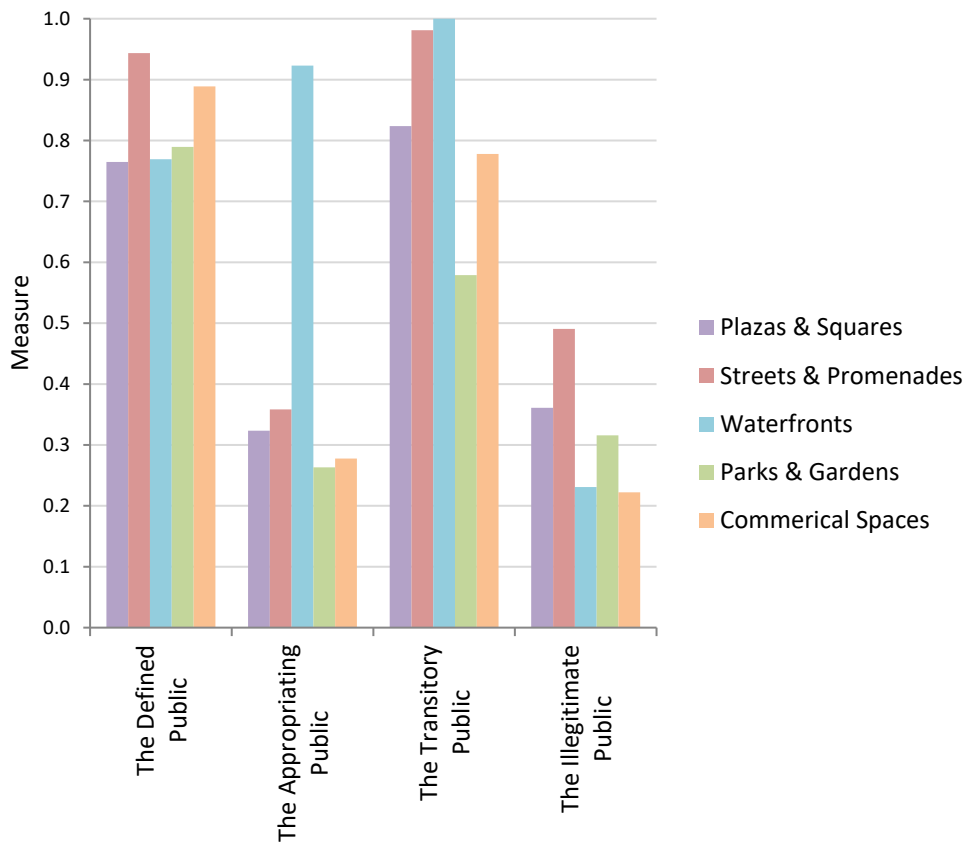


Figure 9-11: Typology of publics presence variation (average) compared with public space typologies during non-event site visits

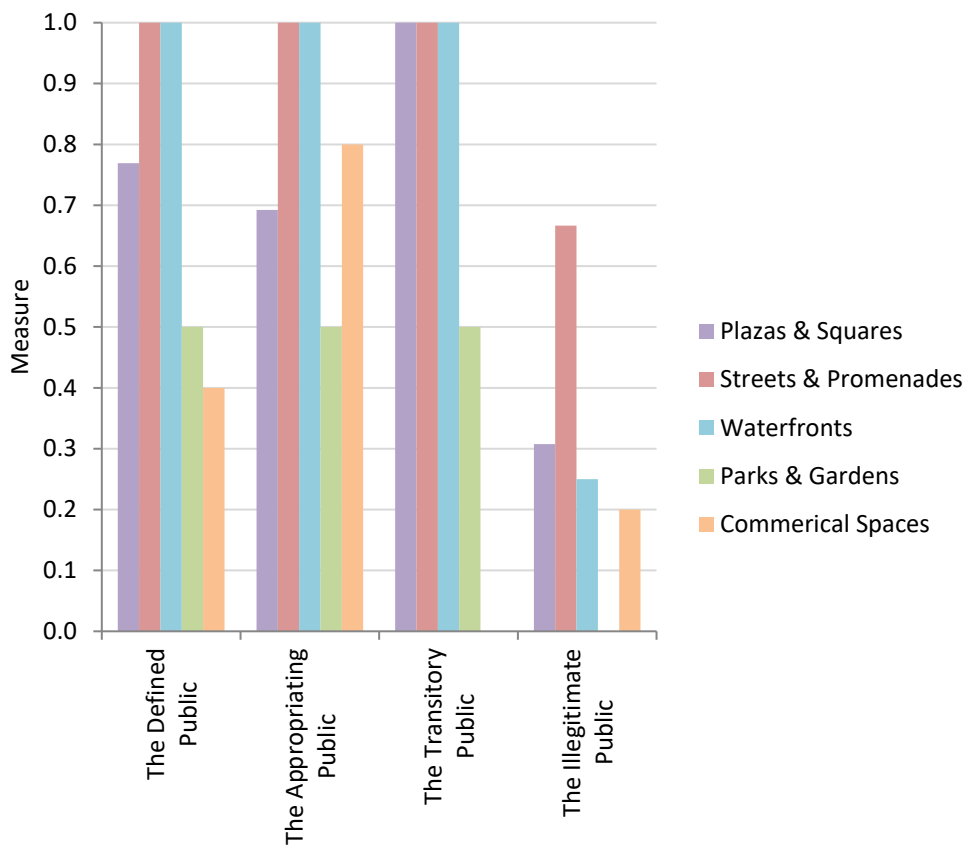
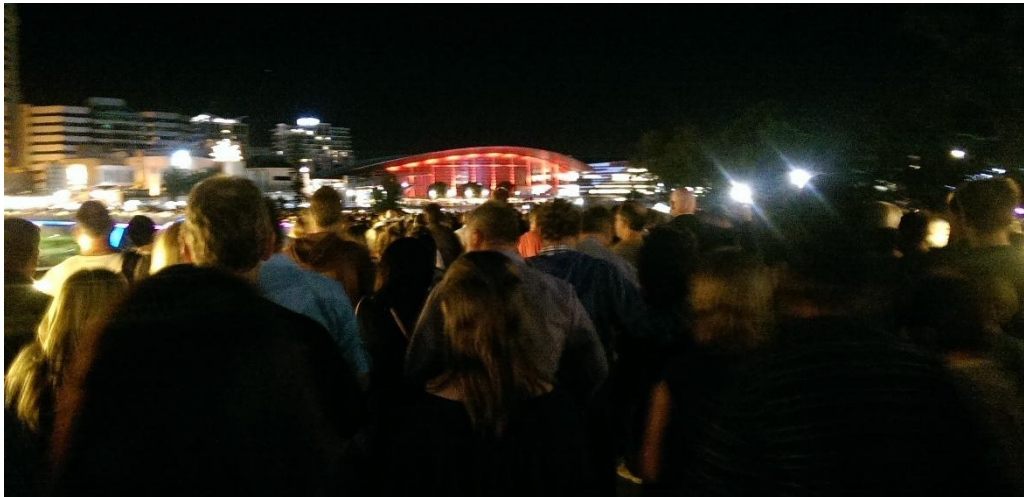


Figure 9-12: Typology of publics presence variation (average) compared with public space typologies during event site visits

The appropriating public consists of individuals or groups who appropriate space for a short period of time (Chapter Five). This public was recorded at all sites except Castle Street. Similarly to the defined public, the presence of the appropriating public was variable throughout the 183 site visits, with no sites recording a constant presence (Table 9-6). This public was typically found at sites during events, which was because of altered site functions during events. This result is demonstrated by Hindmarsh Square/Mukata ($m = 0.21$ overall, $m = 0.25$ non-event, $m = 0.20$ event) and Elder Park ($m = 0.24$ overall, $m = 0.23$ non-event, $m = 0.25$ event), which held the majority of events or had the majority of events in close proximity. The results for Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) are likely to be related to the construction and opening of Adelaide Oval and the Riverbank Pedestrian Bridge (Figure 9-13) during the study timeframe, which increased tourist numbers. Interestingly, no evidence was found to suggest that the presence of the appropriating public was triggered by paid events, rather than free events.

The overall increase of the appropriating public during events (Table 9-6, Figure 9-11, Figure 9-12, Figure 9-14 and Figure 9-15) indicates that specific special activities and temporarily altered site conditions (by public or private bodies) do have a direct link to increased publicness. This suggests again that events could positively contribute to public space. This function and measurable increase in diversity and sheer numbers of people in urban spaces occurs despite concerns still raised by many, including Merx (2011), that public space loses its public 'quality' and is no longer an intimate place to dwell when seen as a place to purchase an experience.

The transitory public are a group who have limited short exposure to public space and other publics (Chapter Five). The presence of the transitory public was also shown to be influenced by events, site function and design. Similarly to the presence of the defined public and the appropriating public, the transitory public was variable throughout the 183 site visits (Table 9-6). Seven case study sites (North Terrace, Rundle Street, Hindley Street, Moonta Street, Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26), Hindmarsh Square/Mukata and Hajek Plaza) recorded a presence at all site visits. The layout of these seven sites facilitated movement through the space during non-event and event conditions. The importance of thoroughfare and circulation is reinforced by comparing these sites with Gilles Street School ($m = 0.00$ overall, $m = 0.00$ non-event, $m = 0.00$ event) and Glover Playground ($m = 0.00$ overall, $m = 0.00$ non-event), which do not facilitate transitory movement and where the presence of the transitory public was not recorded.



**Figure 9-13: Riverbank pedestrian bridge usage after an event at Adelaide Oval.
(Photo courtesy of Nicole Arbon 2015)**



**Figure 9-14: FAD Walking Tour representing appropriation of North Terrace for a study tour
of the city. (Photo by author 2015)**



**Figure 9-15: Mix of defined public (bike riders), appropriating public (users under umbrellas
and family in foreground) and transitory users (group walking in background) adjacent to
Himeji Gardens during the Studio Ghibli/Espionage Gallery pop-up event.
(Photo by author 2014)**



Figure 9-16: Rundle Place during filming of a television commercial, with blocked access and changed movement patterns of the transitory public for the duration of the event. (Photo by author 2014)



Figure 9-17: Example of transitory public (left) and illegitimate public (right) cohabiting Rundle Street. (Photo by author 2016)

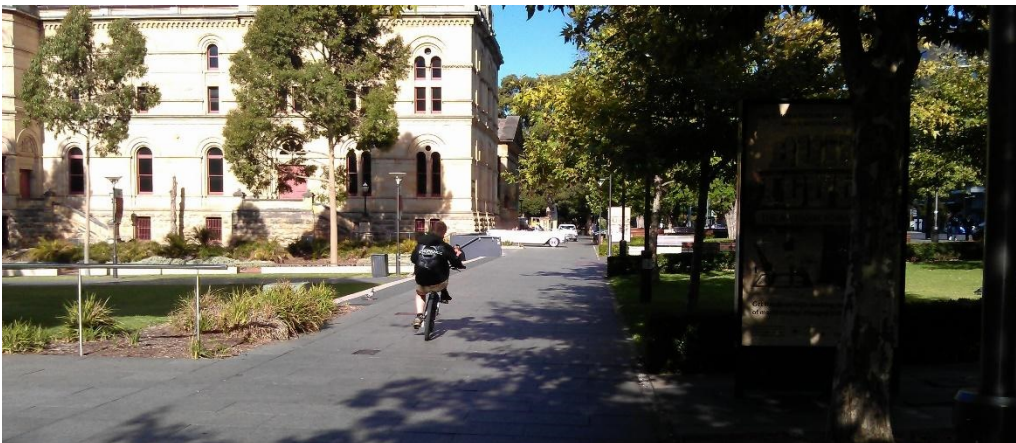


Figure 9-18: Activities considered illegitimate at the time of study because of the location. Bike rider in foreground without a helmet and wedding photos in background without a permit from the City of Adelaide. (Photo by author 2013)

The presence of the transitory public decreased within Commercial Space during events (Rundle Place and Adelaide Central Market). The decreases appear to be related to the layout of events, which changed the pattern of use altering how publics entered or bypassed the sites (for example, Rundle Place during the filming of a television commercial, Figure 9-16, or the Adelaide Central Market hosting Adelaide Fringe Festival events).

There were significant increases in the transitory public for Plazas & Squares (mean of 0.87) and Waterfronts during events (mean of > 0.98). The increases for Plazas & Squares and Waterfronts were likely to be related to the layout of the event elements, which did not change circulation patterns and kept all key transitory movement patterns open. While the transitory public data did present strong trends within the public space typologies, the data suggests that the fluctuation is linked to the function of the case study sites and their design because of the minimal variation between non-event and event conditions (Figure 9-10 to Figure 9-12).

The illegitimate public refers to anyone not deemed acceptable by the majority of other users or the land ownership group (Figure 9-17 and Chapter Five). This public was recorded at all sites except Castle Street, Gilles Street School and inside Rundle Place (Table 9-6). As with the defined public, the appropriating public and the transitory public, the presence of the illegitimate public was variable throughout the 183 site visits, with no sites recording a constant presence. The site visits categorised six types of illegitimate publics: skateboarders, beggars, homeless people (Figure 9-17), smokers, drinkers, bike riders on footpaths and activities conducted without a permit. All types of the illegitimate public were noted in Streets & Promenades. Parks & Gardens saw the greatest variation, with larger numbers of the illegitimate public during non-events. While the illegitimate public data did not present any strong trends, a review of the data suggests that the fluctuation is linked to public space typologies and function of the case study sites. This conclusion is linked to, for example, the constant presence of the illegitimate public in Plazas & Squares compared with all other publics and the minimal variation between non-event and event conditions (Figure 9-10 to Figure 9-12).

Gender

Analysis of gender distribution showed no statistical variance between non-events and events. Therefore, the results are unable to support the conclusion that events positively contribute to public space. Similarly to user age, gender variations were shown to be dependent on public space typologies (Figure 9-19 to Figure 9-21). Higher percentages of females were shown to frequent Commercial Space and Parks & Gardens. Males were shown to frequent Plazas & Squares more often compared with all other public space typologies, with no significant mean variation between Plazas & Squares and Streets &

Promenades (Appendix 4.C). These results are likely to be related to the location of the case study sites and surrounding businesses. Interestingly, a statistical difference between different public space typologies and gender was found only during non-event conditions (Figure 9-20 and Appendix 4.C). No difference was seen for public space typologies during events, suggesting usage is related to activity and therefore, gender preference and gender balance may be addressed by events (Figure 9-21).

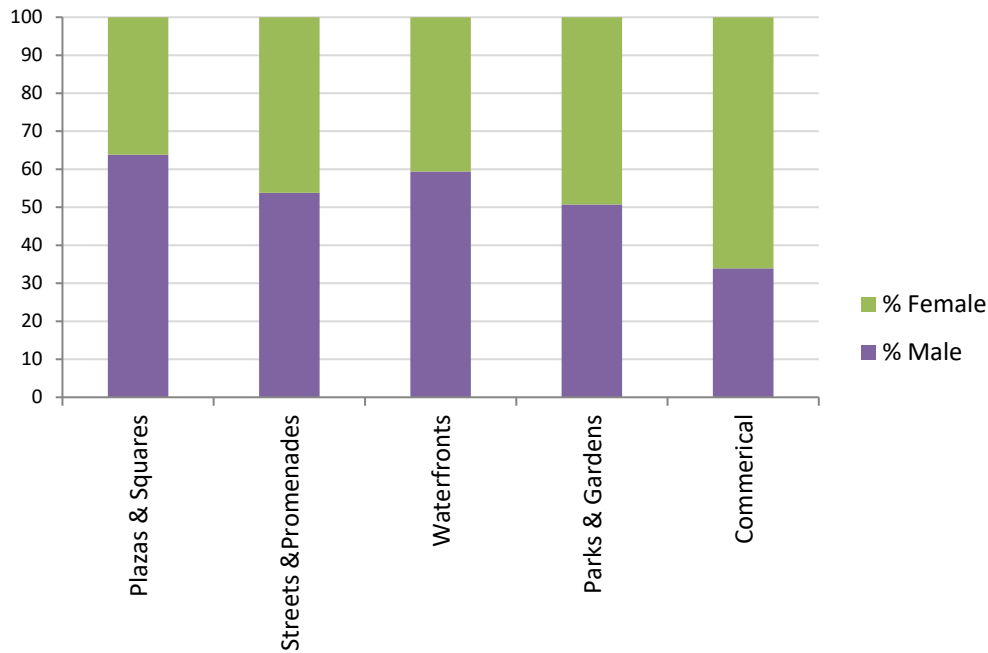


Figure 9-19: Gender variation (%) across all site visits

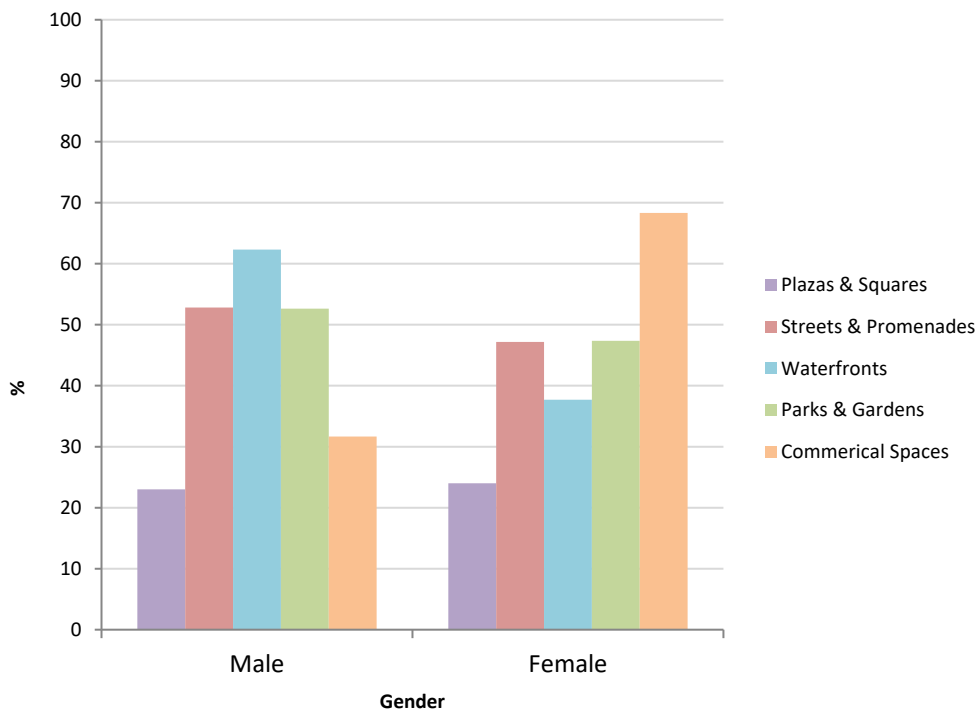


Figure 9-20: Gender variation (%) compared with public space typologies during non-event site visits

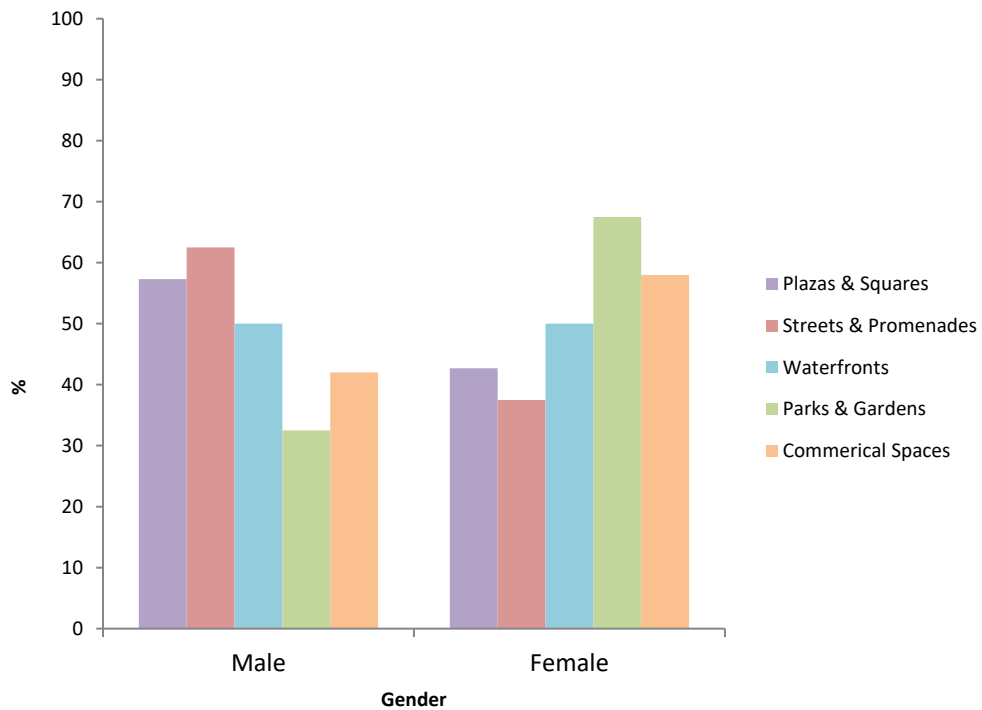


Figure 9-21: Gender variation (%) compared with public space typologies during event site visits

Individuals or group presence

Both individual visitors and groups were recorded at all sites except Glover Playground, for which no individual user visit was recorded. Analysis of presence distribution showed no statistical variance between non-events and events. The results did suggest that the presence of groups increases during events in all public space typologies except for Plazas & Squares where the presence of individuals decreased (Figure 9-22 to Figure 9-24). These findings are insignificant and unable to support the conclusion that events positively contribute to public space.



Figure 9-22: Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi non-event day, minimal to no interaction between groups. (Photo by author 2013)

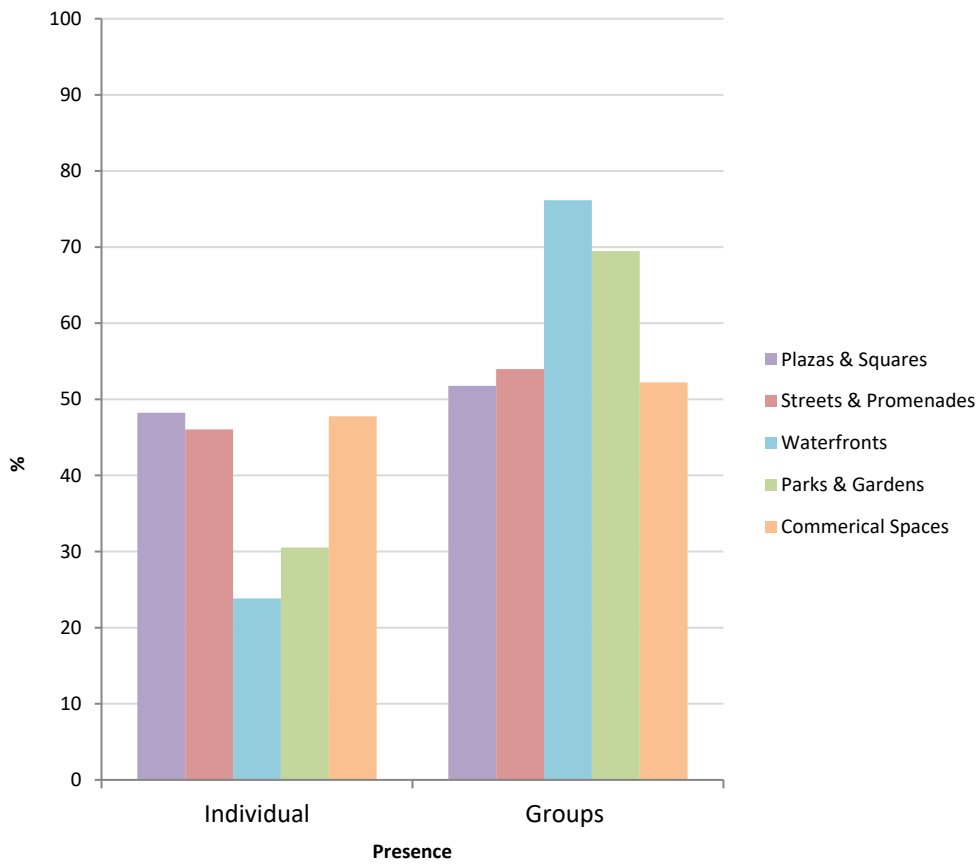


Figure 9-23: Individual or group presence (%) compared with public space typologies during non-event site visits

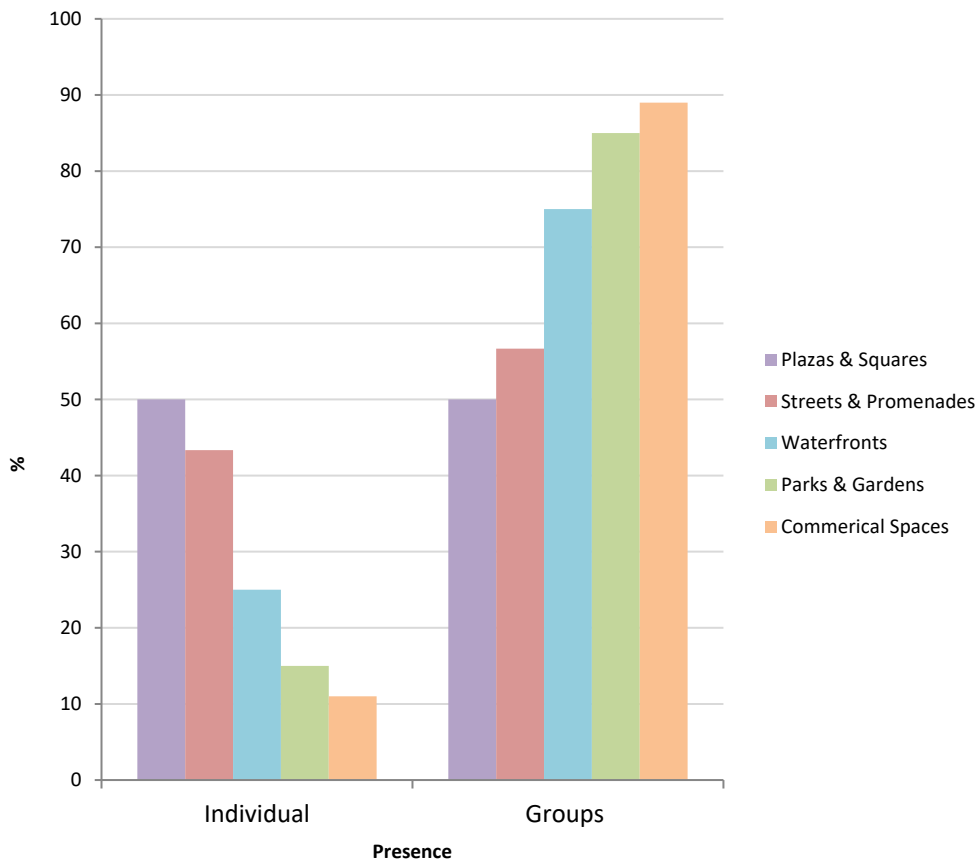


Figure 9-24: Individual or group presence (%) compared with public space typologies during event site visits



Figure 9-25: Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi event day, interaction between individuals and groups during community consultation. (Photo by author 2018, outside study timeframe)

Interaction between users

Analysis of the interaction distribution showed significant statistical variance between non-events and events for interaction between groups (more than two people), suggesting a link between activities and interaction (Figure 9-22, Figure 9-25, Figure 9-26, Figure 9-27 and Appendix 4.C). Therefore, the results support the conclusion that events positively contribute to public space.

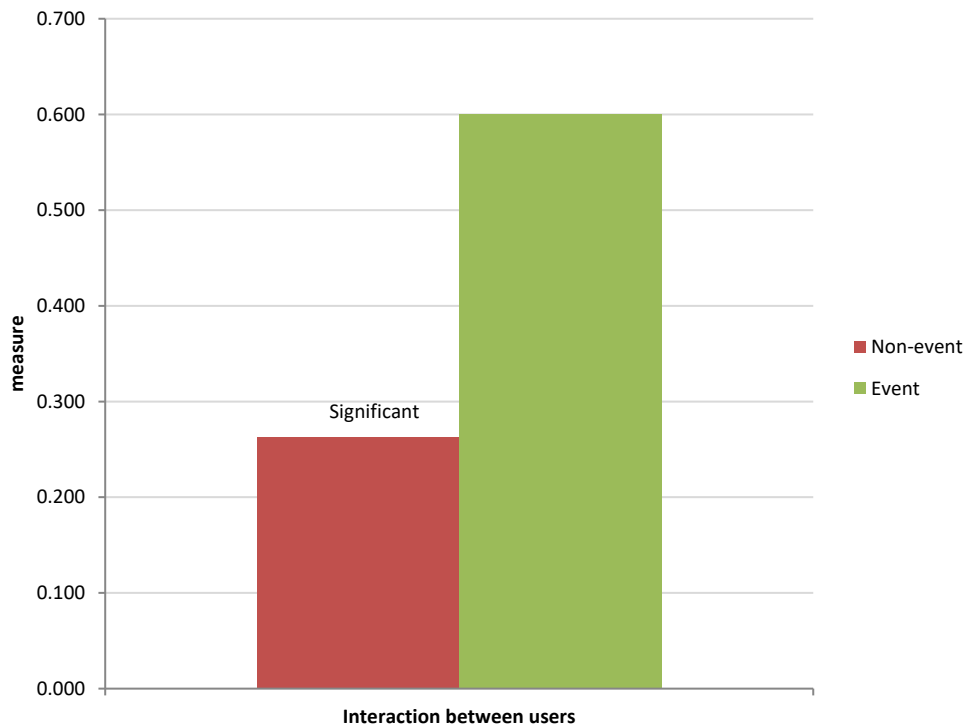


Figure 9-26: Interaction (average) across all site visits

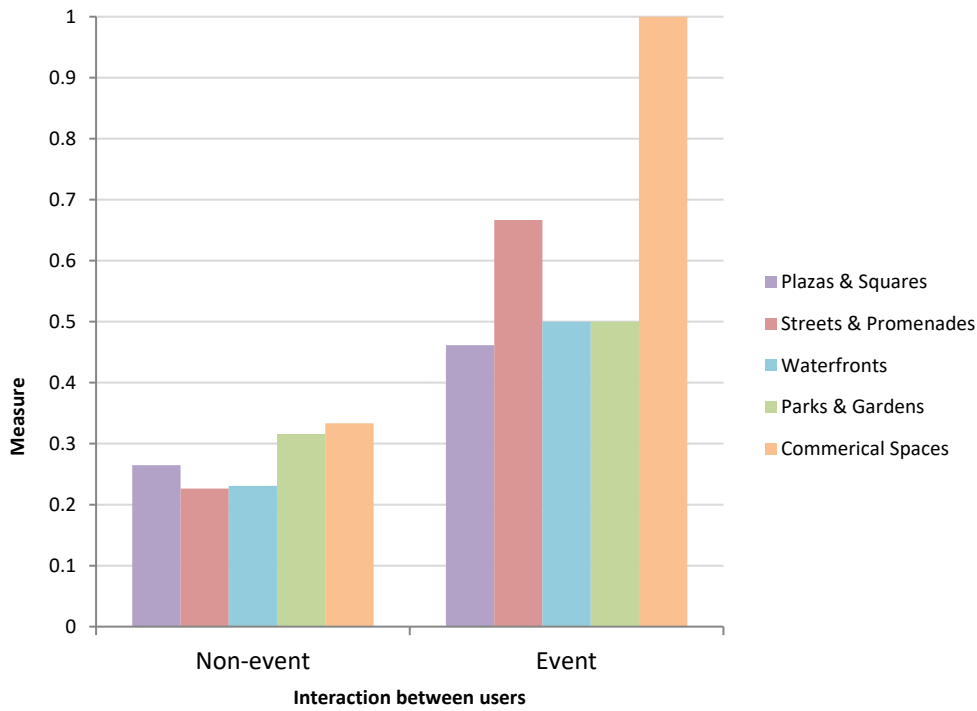


Figure 9-27: Interaction (average) compared with public space typologies

Length of stay

Analysis of the length of stay distribution showed significant statistical variance for non-events compared with events, suggesting a link between activities and interaction (Table 9-7 and Figure 9-28 to Figure 9-30). Publics were observed to stay significantly longer at sites during events and significantly less at sites during non-events. This result may be influenced by the change of site function, because events or activities increased the presence of additional site elements (Section 9.3). This result is supported by the significant difference in the average presence of the appropriating public (refer above), long length of stay (Table 9-7), change of movement patterns (Section 9.6) and a decrease in the number of people passing through (Section 9.5). Events and activities are suggested to be key drivers of increased length of stay for sites, including Parks & Gardens, where length of stay increased and corresponded to usage, for example, Spirited: A Studio Ghibli Inspired Pop-up Exhibition at Himeji Gardens. The results match Mehta’s (2007, 2009) research, which reveals that people only linger and engage in any social activities where there are things to do and see.

Table 9-7: Length of stays (non-event vs event) across all site visits

| | Non-event (mean) | Event (mean) | <i>p</i> value | Significant |
|--|---------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------|
| Length of stay short (less than 0.5 hours) | 80.62 | 60.00 | 0.007 | Yes |
| Length of stay medium (0.5 to 1 hour) | 13.94 | 22.00 | 0.102 | No |
| Length of stay long (1 hour or greater) | 5.44 | 18.00 | 0.024 | yes |

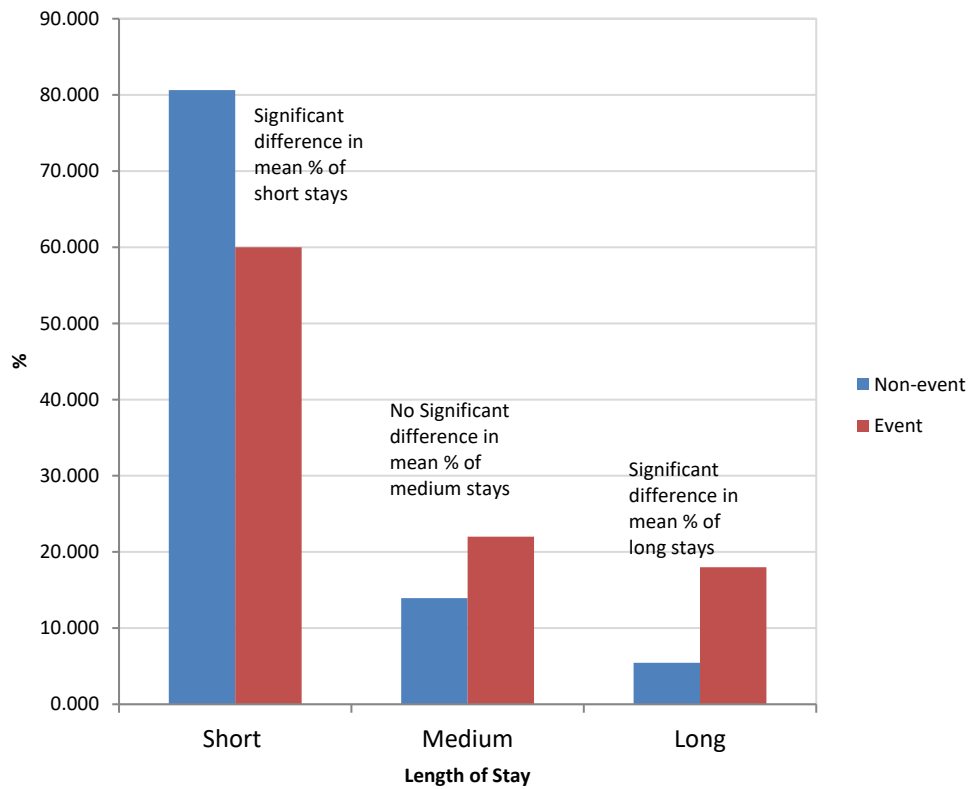


Figure 9-28: Comparison of length of stays (average) across all site visits

In Parks & Gardens and Waterfronts, users were shown to be less likely to stay for short periods and more likely to stay for mid-range periods regardless of the site condition (non-event or event) (Table 9-8, Figure 9-29 and Figure 9-30). Users were more likely to have short stays in Streets & Promenades, which matches their nature as a public space (Chapter Three). Length of stay increased in Commercial Spaces during events, reinforcing the conclusion that events and activities are key drivers of increased length of stay and correspond to usage. The fluctuation of length of stay during events indicates that length of stay has a direct link to public space typologies.

Table 9-8: Length of stays (public space typology) across all site visits

| | Plazas & Squares – Average (m) | Streets & Promenades – Average (m) | waterfront – Average (m) | Parks & Gardens – Average (m) | Commercial Space – Average (m) |
|--|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Length of stay short (less than 0.5 hours) | 82.234 | 91.441 | 56.765 | 48.810 | 69.348 |
| Length of stay medium (0.5 to 1 hour) | 11.596 | 5.254 | 30.000 | 48.810 | 21.304 |
| Length of stay long (1 hour or greater) | 6.170 | 3.305 | 13.235 | 48.810 | 9.348 |

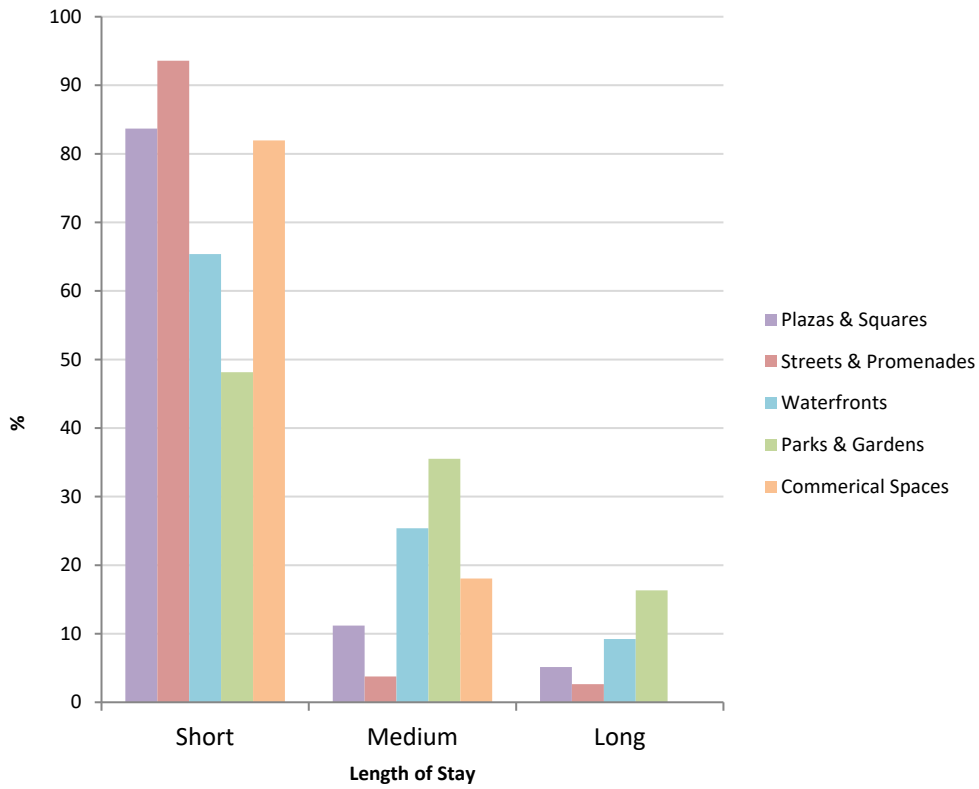


Figure 9-29: Length of stay (%) compared with public space typologies during non-event site visits

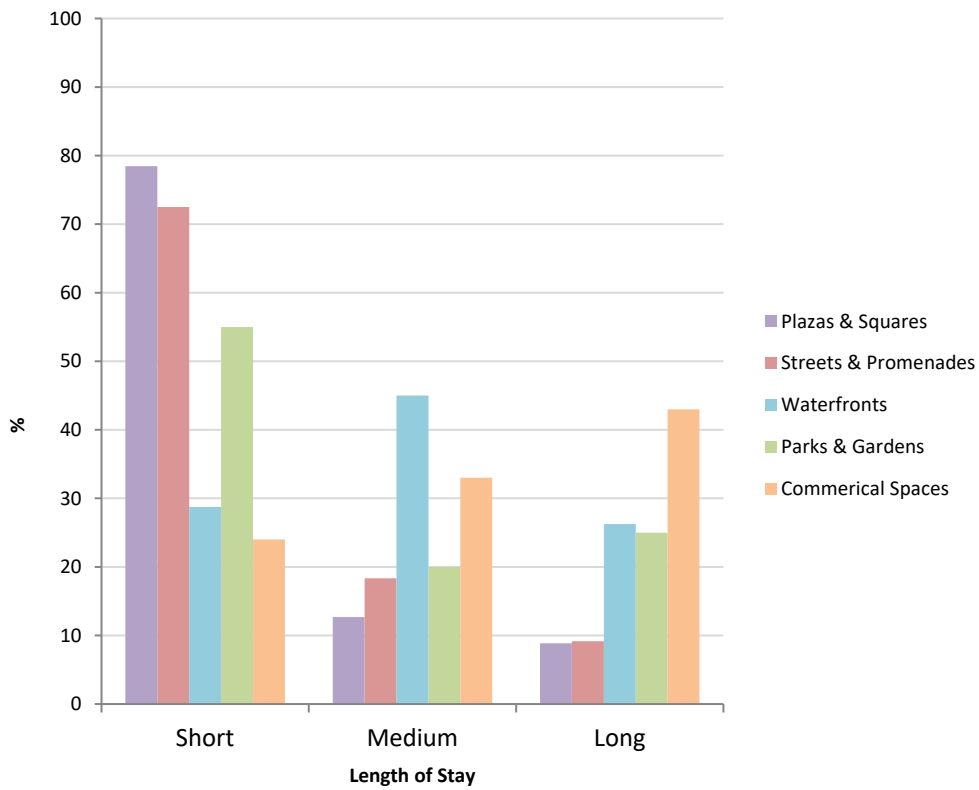


Figure 9-30: Length of stay (%) compared with public space typologies during event site visits

9.2.4 DAF rating summary

The findings for public accessibility measures concluded that events can positively contribute to public space by catering for a broader demographic representation. Land ownership and the temporary change of legal responsibility did not have a direct link to publicness, suggesting that the site itself—its elements, surfaces and activities—has the greatest influence on publicness.

The next section discusses site elements, providing insights into how particular features attract users and encourage site-based activity. These insights indicate which site elements of public space contribute to or erode publicness.

9.3 Site elements and publicness

Assessing the presence of site elements against the DAF rating indicates whether the presence of selected features (additional or permanent) is related to the publicness of public spaces during events and non-events.

Literature reviewed in Part A suggests that site elements are important attractors that encourage use, and are of the utmost importance in engaging publics and increasing their length of stay. Elements include clean and adequate seating (fixed and additional/temporary) such as outdoor café seating, visual complexity through plantings, art, water features, signage, rubbish (litter) bins, drinking fountains, lighting and public transport stops (Cooper Marcus & Francis 1998; Gehl 1987, 2009; Lien 2005; Whyte 1980, 1988; Zacharias, Stathopoulos & Hanqing, 2004). Signage was considered particularly important because it is 'one of the major uses of language in public space' (Gottlieb 2010, p. 323).

Twenty-four element measures were identified to establish the base information for assessment in the Design Assessment Framework:

- Signage;
- Signage (additional);
- Security cameras;
- Security cameras (additional);
- Security presence;
- Security presence (additional);
- Maintenance;
- Maintenance (additional);
- Seating (fixed);
- Seating (additional/loose);
- Public art;

- Public art (additional);
- Public pride;
- Public pride (additional);
- Bins;
- Bins (additional);
- Drinking fountains;
- Lighting;
- Lighting (additional);
- Public transport (access to);
- Food (access to);
- Beverages (access to);
- Barriers (fencing); and
- Other urban furniture.

These 24 measures allowed for systematic observations assessing how public space is used. This assessment measured the visible physical features and amenities, for instance, seating, which can influence the nature and length of interaction. Features include major and minor elements that foster interaction but exclude features such as landform.

For this analysis, site elements have been divided into two groups: ‘fixed’ and ‘additional’. ‘Fixed’ is defined as a site element designed into the case study space and fixed in place, for instance, a bench seat. ‘Additional’ is defined as site elements brought into the case study space for a limited time, for instance, removable outdoor dining furniture (seating), which changes the use or function of the site, or items specifically brought in for events such as bins.

The following subsections present the findings and provide insights into how features attract users and encourage site-based activity allowing analysis of interventions during events and non-events. The first analysis of site elements compared the DAF rating of the 16 case study sites with the site elements score. The second analysis divided data into the conditions of non-event and event to determine if additional site elements contribute to or erode the publicness of a site. Here, the results varied, indicating that additional site elements did have a direct link to increased publicness. The third analysis reviewed each of the 24 site elements to determine if any individual measure had more bearing on the DAF rating.

9.3.1 Site element findings and discussion

Data from the 183 site visits to the 16 case study sites were examined to determine a site element score for each site. This was compared with the DAF rating determined in Section 9.2, as shown in Table 9-9 (refer to Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for additional information). Site elements were scored out of

24 (15 fixed elements and nine additional elements). A total combined site element score of 24 indicated the assessed public space contained all 24 measures (site elements). A score of 0 indicated the space did not contain any measures. Accordingly, higher scores indicated a greater number of elements within each case study site.

No case study site achieved a total score of 24. Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) and Moonta Street achieved the highest score of 18 on one site visit (refer Figure 9-31 and Appendix 4.A for breakdown of each site visit). Hindley Street was the most consistent with regard to site elements, with total scores of 14 and 15 ($m = 14.20$), indicating that the street design had little variation throughout the study.

A comparison of the DAF rating and site elements for individual case study sites did not indicate a statistical link between site elements and publicness. The results for Gilles Street School suggest there may be a link between site elements and erosion of publicness for events creating commercial spaces, noted by a low DAF rating ($m = 2.58$) and high site element score ($m = 10.33$, $m = 9.17$, $m = 1.17$). Comparisons of DAF ratings and site elements when conditions (event and non-event) were combined did not indicate whether fixed or additional site elements contributed more to publicness (Table 9-9) or noted fluctuation in the publicness of each case study site.



**Figure 9-31: Moonta Street during the Lunar New Year Street Party.
(Photo by author 2013)**

Table 9-9: DAF rating of case studies sites (ranked least to most public) compared with site elements across all site visits

| Case study site | Publicness Average (m) | Site elements – combined Average (m) | Site elements – fixed Average (m) | Site elements – additional Average (m) |
|--|------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| Castle Street | 2.18 | 4.36 | 4.36 | 0.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 2.58 | 10.33 | 9.17 | 1.17 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 7.00 | 6.75 | 0.25 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 8.18 | 7.64 | 0.55 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.70 | 4.90 | 3.90 | 1.00 |
| Rundle Place | 3.82 | 10.80 | 7.90 | 2.90 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 9.19 | 6.88 | 2.31 |
| Hajek Plaza | 4.22 | 8.21 | 7.50 | 0.71 |
| North Terrace | 4.26 | 10.27 | 10.00 | 0.27 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.75 | 13.18 | 11.65 | 1.53 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 11.25 | 10.58 | 0.67 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.88 | 11.92 | 10.31 | 1.62 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 14.20 | 12.20 | 2.00 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 5.28 | 12.08 | 9.50 | 2.58 |
| Rundle Street | 5.34 | 12.31 | 10.15 | 2.15 |
| Moonta Street | 5.58 | 10.78 | 8.89 | 1.89 |

9.3.2 Site elements findings and comparison between non-event and event conditions

How fixed or additional site elements contribute to fluctuation in the publicness of spaces becomes clearer when comparing the DAF rating and site elements during non-event and event conditions (Table 9-10, Table 9-11). A review of non-event site visits indicates that fixed and additional elements have little bearing on the publicness of public space. Conversely, a review of event site visits indicates a correlation between additional site elements and the publicness of public space. As shown for Himeji Gardens, the correlation is clear, with the DAF rating increasing from $m = 3.42$ to $m = 6.25$ and site elements increasing from $m = 0.33$ to $m = 7$. This supports the conclusion in Section 9.2 that temporary interventions can positively contribute to public space.

Comparisons of site elements, the DAF rating and public space typologies suggest that site elements (combined, fixed and additional) contribute to the publicness of all typologies except Commercial Spaces (Table 9-9). A review of typologies reveals a trend of greater publicness as site elements (combined, fixed and additional) increased. This was shown by the scores for Streets &

Promenades case study sites, with Peel Street (m = 9.19 site element score) being the least public (low DAF rating) and Moonta Street (m = 10.78 site element score) being the most public (high DAF rating).

As one might expect, based on Mehta (2007), Project for Public Space (2009) and Whyte (1980) (previous chapters), more site elements resulted in more users. What was not expected was that additional site elements resulted in a greater diversity of publics. A significant increase in the visibility of the illegitimate, the appropriating and the transitory publics during events was found. This is different from the findings of Whyte (1980), which suggest that the illegitimate public is discouraged from using spaces with temporary site elements.

The diversity of publics noted during the study timeframe suggests events that successfully co-exist with everyday activities—spatially, operationally and experientially—and include additional site elements for use by the public allow for a greater diversity of publics to respond to public space within social norms, if spatially and operationally compatible. Conversely, the results suggest that events outside of expected social norms negatively affect diversity, as shown by the Commercial Spaces results.

Table 9-10: DAF rating of case studies sites (ranked least to most public) for non-event site visits compared with site elements

| Case study site | Publicness – non-event Average (m) | Site elements – combined Average (m) | Site elements – fixed Average (m) | Site elements – additional Average (m) |
|--|---------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|---|
| Gilles Street School | 0.25 | 8.67 | 8.67 | 0.00 |
| Castle Street | 2.00 | 4.30 | 4.30 | 0.00 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 7.00 | 6.75 | 0.25 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.42 | 3.78 | 3.44 | 0.33 |
| Rundle Place | 3.58 | 10.22 | 7.78 | 2.44 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 8.18 | 7.64 | 0.55 |
| Hajek Plaza | 3.98 | 7.00 | 6.64 | 0.36 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 9.19 | 6.88 | 2.31 |
| North Terrace | 4.21 | 10.10 | 9.90 | 0.20 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.56 | 12.23 | 11.38 | 0.85 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.77 | 11.58 | 10.08 | 1.50 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 11.25 | 10.58 | 0.67 |
| Rundle Street | 4.94 | 10.70 | 9.40 | 1.30 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 14.20 | 12.20 | 2.00 |
| Moonta Street | 5.56 | 9.71 | 8.43 | 1.29 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 6.75 | 9.00 | 9.00 | 0.00 |

Table 9-11: DAF rating of case studies sites (ranked least to most public) for event site visits compared with site elements

| Case study site | Publicness – event Average (m) | Site elements – combined Average (m) | Site elements – fixed Average (m) | Site elements – additional Average (m) |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| Castle Street | 4.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 0.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.75 | 12.00 | 11.00 | 1.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 4.92 | 12.00 | 9.67 | 2.33 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 4.98 | 12.70 | 9.60 | 3.10 |
| Hajek Plaza | 5.08 | 12.67 | 10.67 | 2.00 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 5.35 | 16.25 | 12.50 | 3.75 |
| Moonta Street | 5.67 | 14.50 | 10.50 | 4.00 |
| Rundle Place | 5.92 | 16.00 | 9.00 | 7.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 6.17 | 16.00 | 13.00 | 3.00 |
| Himeji Gardens | 6.25 | 15.00 | 8.00 | 7.00 |
| Rundle Street | 6.67 | 17.67 | 12.67 | 5.00 |
| Hindley Street | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Peel Street | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Adelaide Railway Station | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Glover Playground | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded.

9.3.3 Site elements review

The following subsection outlines the third analysis of site elements. The 24 measures are analysed to determine if site elements are a variable to determine the publicness of public space, if an individual element had a bearing on publicness and if events positively contribute to public space, as anticipated in section 9.2. This analysis divided site elements into two separate groups—the condition of non-event and the condition of event.

This subsection assesses whether the selected features attract users and encourage site-based activity. This allows analysis of interventions during non-events and events. The results will provide landscape architects with the following:

- elements that are attractors to sites and elements that are detractors; and
- specific features associated with increased use.

Table 9-12 (next page) presents the average presence of the elements during the site visits along with the standard deviations. Average presence ranged from a high of 1.0 (present on all sites visits) to a low of 0.1 (present on one site visit). As shown in Figure 9-32 and Figure 9-33, there was variation between the presence of individual elements in non-event conditions (Figure 9-32) and event conditions (Figure 9-33). The presence of seating-additional, for instance, fluctuated throughout the site visits; during non-event conditions the average presence was 0.3 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0) whereas during event conditions the average presence was 0.6 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0). The average presence illustrated a trend of additional elements contributing to the publicness of event conditions. This trend does not provide sufficient evidence that the elements alone accounted for increased publicness or if there is a clear link between public space typologies, site element and publicness.

Table 9-12: Comparison of presence of site elements during non-events and events site visits

| Site elements | Site elements – non-events Average (m) | Site elements – events Average (m) | Standard deviation (SD) – Non-events | Standard deviation (SD) – Events | Significance (p*) |
|--------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Barriers (fencing) | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.36 | 0.39 | 0.011* |
| Beverages (access to) | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.42 | 0.38 | 0.003* |
| Bins | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.38 | 0.40 | 0.018* |
| Bins (additional) | n/a | 0.3 | n/a | 0.32 | 0.001* |
| Drinking fountains | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.47 | 0.32 | 0.005* |
| Food (access to) | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.42 | 0.38 | 0.011* |
| Lighting | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.34 | 0.03 | 0.037 |
| Lighting (additional) | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.11 | 0.39 | 0.000* |
| Maintenance (additional) | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.06 | 0.38 | 0.003* |
| Maintenance other - amenities | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.25 | 0.33 | 0.220 |
| Public art | 0.5 | 0.9 | 0.26 | 0.12 | 0.000* |
| Public art (additional) | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.37 | 0.41 | 0.011* |
| Public pride | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.12 | 0.42 | 0.011* |
| Public pride (additional) | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.41 | 0.41 | 0.179 |
| Public pride (additional) | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Seating (fixed) | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.34 | 0.15 | 0.001* |
| Seating (additional) | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.40 | 0.44 | 0.023* |
| Security cameras | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.47 | 0.49 | 0.025* |
| Security cameras (additional) | 0.0 | 0.1 | n/a | 0.30 | 0.326 |
| Security presence | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.37 | 0.44 | 0.346 |
| Security presence (additional) | 0.1 | 0.6 | 0.21 | 0.37 | 0.000* |
| Signage | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.03 | 0.00 | 0.319 |
| Signage (additional) | 0.3 | 0.7 | 0.32 | 0.42 | 0.001* |
| Transport (access to) | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.37 | 0.51 | 0.299 |

*Significant at 0.01 level; n/a = no data recorded.

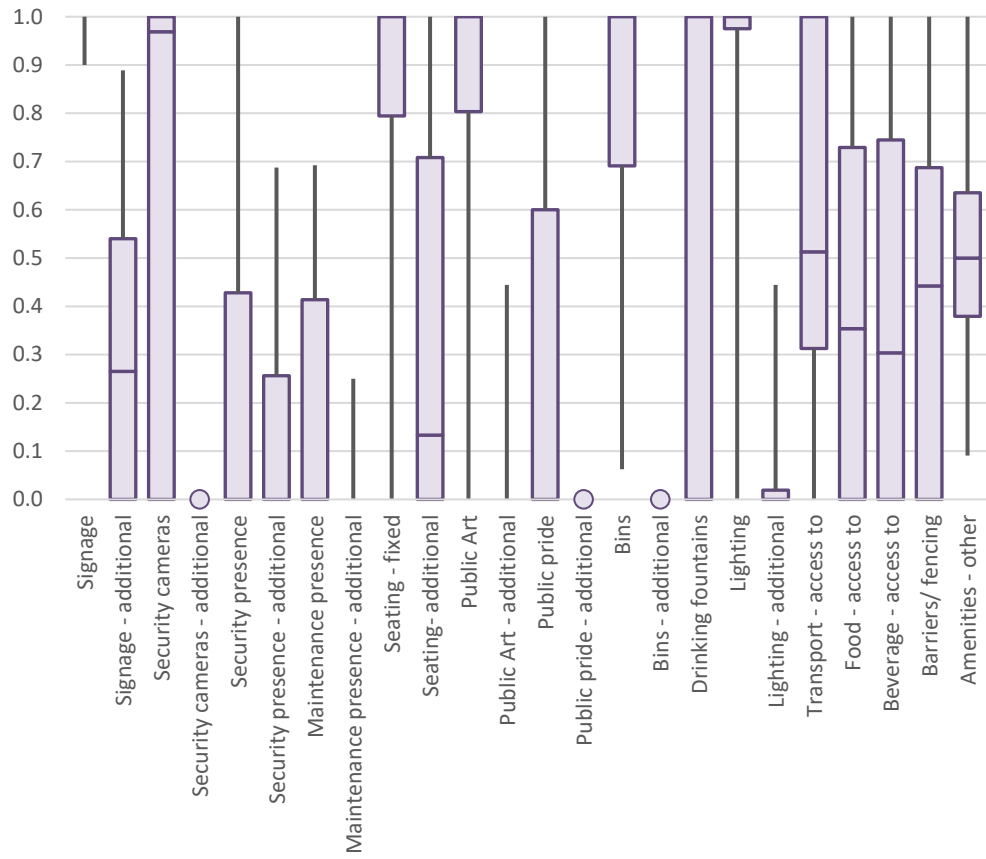


Figure 9-32: Site elements (average) for non-event site visits

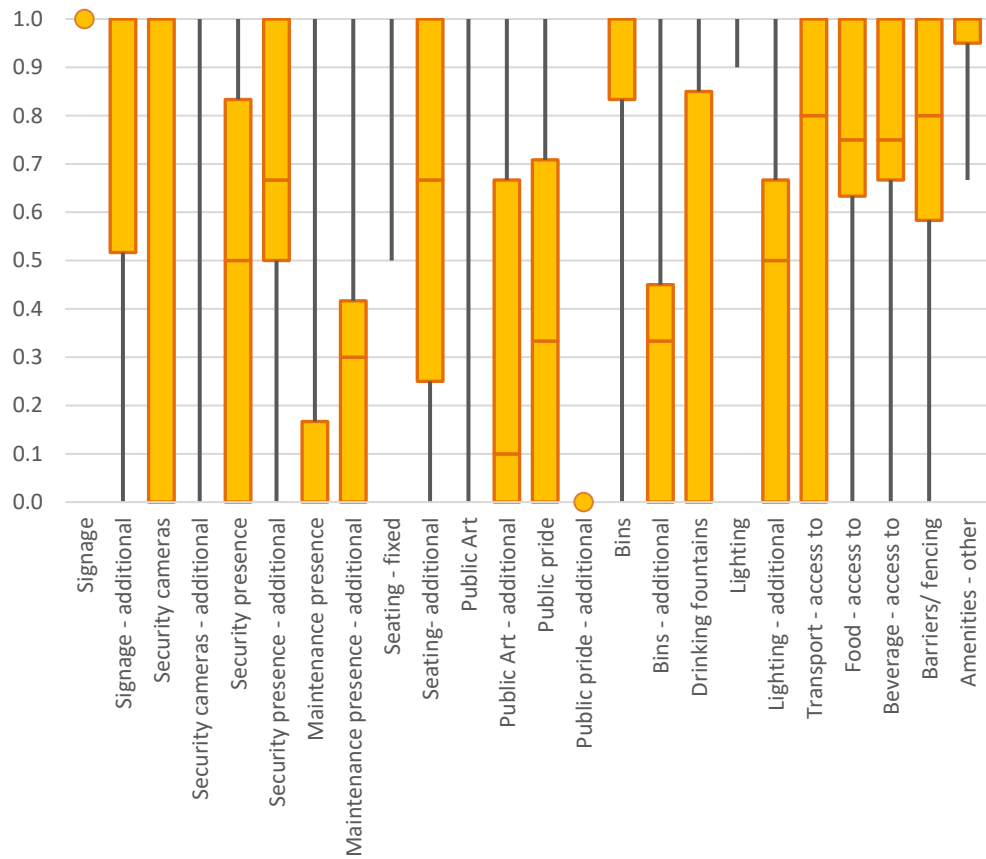


Figure 9-33: Site elements (average) for event site visits

Analysis of the site elements across all site visits (153 non-event visits and 30 event visits) expressed the variability of site elements in case study sites. As shown in Table 9-12, the standard deviation, calculated to quantify the amount of variation, confirms that site element presence was not consistent across all sites, with the presence of individual elements varying between non-events and events. A lower standard deviation indicates less variation in presence recorded. For most elements, the variation for both conditions was similar. The variation for elements that are typically site-specific, such as barriers, was high (0.36) whereas the variation for common elements such as signage was low (0.0). When additional elements were compared with the related fixed elements (non-additional), the variation typically decreased (excluding lighting and signage), indicating additional elements are more consistently present and variable during events, which may be because of the differing natures of the events.

T-tests on the presence values of site elements during events and site elements during non-events were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the averages (m). The magnitude of the significance of the difference indicates the strength of the relationship between individual site elements and the difference between the conditions (event and non-event) (Table 9-12).

For site elements considered fixed, minimal to no significant difference exists between the two types of conditions, with the significance difference typically greater than $p > 0.01$ (Table 9-12). This indicates that events did not influence the presence of fixed elements. The results for additional site elements did have clear significant differences between the two types of conditions, with the significance difference typically $p < 0.01$, excluding security cameras-additional, where presence was not recorded during events. The statistically significant differences suggest there is a relationship between the additional site elements and event conditions.

The DAF rating was typically higher for event conditions. This is supported by research, which states that users are more likely to visit during changed conditions. It also supports the conclusion in Section 9.2 that temporary interventions can positively contribute to public space.

The site elements are discussed individually below, including the comparison with the DAF rating, which was used to determine the influence of the elements on the publicness. The tables of average presence compared with the DAF rating for both conditions are provided in Appendix 4.B.

Barriers

An analysis of barriers showed there was a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions, with barriers more likely to be present during events. The results had a bi-modal distribution when compared with the DAF rating and considering all conditions combined. Strong trends were not evident. Barrier presence appears to decrease with publicness during non-events (Figure 9-34) and slightly increase with publicness during events (Figure 9-35). Because barriers influence events and non-events differently, further investigation is required to determine if the barriers are influential and whether they are attractors, detractors or linked to increased use.

Beverages and Food (access to)

Access to beverages and food included food trucks (Figure 9-36), pop-ups (Figure 9-37 and Figure 9-38) and cafés within or in proximity (directly adjacent) to the case study sites. The analysis showed there was a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions with beverages and food, with a greater presence during events—most likely because of additional temporary food vendor options. There is a clear trend indicating that greater accessibility to beverages and food is linked to increased publicness. This is consistent with research that shows that beverage and food accessibility leads to a consumer environment that is linked to longer stays. Therefore, it is concluded that beverage and food access is a variable that should be measured when determining the publicness of a site or event. Further investigation is required to confirm the style of beverage option that has a greater link to publicness.

Bins

There was a statistically significantly greater presence of bins during events (Figure 9-38 and Figure 9-39). This is consistent with City of Adelaide event permits, which require additional bins to be provided. The number of bins is directly related to the maximum number of attendees. No trends were noted for publicness and the review of bins was unable to determine whether bins are an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use. Further investigation is required to determine how or if there is a link between bins and publicness.

Drinking fountains

An analysis of drinking fountains presents unusual yet statistically significant differences in average presence results. The presence of drink fountains was recorded in seven case study sites during non-events, and reduced to five during events. This might have resulted from event setup that blocked access to (sight of) drink fountains. The results superficially indicate that the lack of drinking fountains during event conditions is related to an increase in publicness. Further investigation is required to confirm if there is a link between drink fountains and publicness.

Lighting

Lighting was present at all case study sites except Himeji Gardens and Glover Playground. The absence of lighting in these two locations is a strategic decision of the City of Adelaide to minimise afterhours use. The analysis showed that there is a statistically significant difference in the average presence of lighting (fixed and additional), with additional lighting present during events (Figure 9-40 and Figure 9-41). Fixed lighting results presented no trends or clear relationships when compared with the DAF rating and considering all conditions. This result is because of presence or absence of lighting being consistent across all sites during all site visits.

Additional lighting presence increases with publicness for the event condition. This trend is strong, indicating additional lighting is a variable to be considered for increasing the publicness of public spaces during events. This may translate into increased publicness for non-event public spaces. The noted trend in the data may be because of timing and type of events and which events occurred during the study period. For instance, no events occurred at Gilles Street School after hours requiring lighting. These findings suggest additional lighting can be a positive attractor to public spaces as a temporary intervention.

Maintenance

Minimal average presence was recorded for maintenance (fixed, Figure 9-42 and Figure 9-43). The minimal recording may be because of maintenance activities occurring prior to or after site visits, which were therefore not covered as part of the study. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average presence (fixed and additional), with additional maintenance more likely to be present during events and fixed maintenance more likely to be present during non-events. These results were as expected and consistent with City of Adelaide daily maintenance programs. Strong trends were not apparent. Additional maintenance appears to increase with publicness for the event condition. No trends were noted for fixed maintenance because of the minimal average presence recorded. These findings are minimal and unable to support the conclusion that maintenance positively contributes to public space.

Other amenities

Other amenities were included to identify if site elements had been missed in the design of the DAF. No additional amenities were identified.

Public art

Public art (fixed and additional) was dependent on the site and public space typology. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the average presence between conditions, with public art (fixed and additional) more likely to be present during events, most likely because of the type of

events occurring during the site assessment timeframe. Fixed public art presence results showed no trends or clear relationships when compared with DAF rating and considering all conditions. This result is because of the presence or absence of fixed public art being consistent across all sites during all site visits.

Additional public art presence appears to increase with publicness of the event condition (Figure 9-41). This trend indicates additional public art is a variable to be considered for increasing publicness during event conditions, suggesting that additional public art can be a positive attractor to public spaces as a temporary intervention. The role of public art as an attractor is supported by research, which states that users are more likely to visit during changed conditions, with public art acting as a drawcard or the event itself. The Oi You! Urban Art Festival (August 2013) in Hajek Plaza is one example of public art becoming the event. This festival consisted of exhibitions and film screenings in Hajek Plaza, street art tours and a series of large-scale murals painted around Adelaide.

Public pride

Recorded instances of public pride were minimal and unable to be statistically analysed. Further investigation is required to determine how or if there is a link between public pride and publicness.

Seating

Fixed seating was present at all sites except Peel Street (Figure 9-44) and at comparable levels during all site visits except Moonta Street. Additional seating was present at all sites except Castle Street and Hajek Plaza, with greater variation in numbers and presence. Analysis of seating (fixed and additional) showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions, with greater presence of additional seating during events—most likely because of temporary interventions of food vendors during events and outdoor dining permits (Figure 9-45). No trends were noted for publicness compared with fixed seating. For additional seating, a clear trend emerged, with the DAF rating increasing as the seating increased. This indicates that additional seating is a variable influencing publicness. This result may be in part due to the presence of outdoor dining—as seen with the results for Peel Street and Rundle Street—which have significantly more seating (- additional then seating – fixed). These findings suggest that extra additional seating can be an attractor to public spaces and is a variable associated with increased use. Because additional seating influences both events and non-events, further investigation is required to determine if the seating characteristics stated by Whyte (1980) are influential as an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use.



Figure 9-34: Barrier installed on North Terrace for an evening at the Art Gallery of South Australia. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 9-35: Barrier installed outside (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) to distinguish access between two events, Carols by Candlelight (free public event) and Christmas Proms (ticketed private event). (Photo by author 2018)



Figure 9-36: Food trucks in (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) during Tour Down Under. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 9-37: Pop-up coffee vendor on North Terrace during Tour Down Under. (Photo by author 2013)



Figure 9-38: Additional bins and beverage access in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) during the Neil Finn free open-air concert. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 9-39: Additional bins installed in Himeji Gardens for the Studio Ghibli/Espionage Gallery pop-up event. (Photo by author 2014)



**Figure 9-40: Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) event lighting during the 2017 Neil Finn free open-air concert during the Adelaide Festival. Ambient lighting in the background and feature wayfinding lighting in foreground.
(Photo by author 2017)**



Figure 9-41: Combined temporary lighting and public art on North Terrace during the Adelaide Festival. (Photo by author 2018)



**Figure 9-42: Maintenance activities in (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26).
(Photo by author 2014)**



**Figure 9-43: Maintenance activities in Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi.
(Photo by author 2013)**



**Figure 9-44: Outdoor dining seating in Peel Street during a non-event day.
(Photo by author 2019)**



**Figure 9-45: Additional seating in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26)
during Tour Down Under. (Photo by author 2013)**

Security cameras

Security cameras were present at 11 of the 16 case study sites. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the average presence, with a greater presence during non-event conditions (Figure 9-46). This result was unexpected and might have been caused by event setup that blocked sight of security cameras. No trends were noted for the DAF rating. The review of security cameras was unable to determine whether security cameras are an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use.

Recorded instances of additional security cameras were minimal and unable to be statistically analysed.

Security presence

Security presence (fixed and additional) was site-dependent. The analysis showed there was a statistically significant difference in the average presence of additional security between conditions, with additional security being more likely during events (Figure 9-47). There is a clear trend indicating that a greater security presence (fixed and additional) was linked to increased publicness during events. This is consistent with research, which shows that the presence of security (guards or police) can act as a deterrent for unwanted or illegitimate behaviour, thereby ensuring the space is safe and secure. Security presence (fixed and additional) is confirmed as a variable that should be measured when determining the publicness of a site or event. This finding suggests that an additional security presence can be a positive attractor to public spaces and is a variable associated with increased use. Further investigation is required to determine which security characteristics, or the degree of security presence, act as an attractor, detractor or are linked to increased use.

Signage

Fixed signage was recorded at all sites during the 183 site visits, with no variation. A review of fixed signage was unable to determine whether signage was an attractor or detractor or linked to increased use (Figure 9-48). Additional signage was site-dependent, with none recorded at Castle Street and Glover Playground. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions with additional signage having a greater presence during events. This is consistent with City of Adelaide event permits, which require appropriate levels of signage, except as a means of marketing for events and except as means of appropriating space within the case study sites (Figure 9-48 and Figure 9-49). There is a clear trend indicating that the DAF rating increases when additional signage is present. This trend has strong links to events, where the amount of signage was significantly greater than during non-events. These findings suggest that additional signage can be an attractor to public spaces and is confirmed as a variable associated with increased use. Given that additional signage influences both events and non-events

differently, further investigation is required to determine which signage characteristics act as an attractor, detractor or are linked to increased use.

Transport (access to)

No trends or statistically significant differences in average presence were noted for publicness and transport. An analysis of transport was unable to determine whether access options were an attractor or detractor or linked to increased use. Transport access was site-dependent, with sites that had mixed transport options recording higher DAF ratings. Further investigation is required to determine which transport options (bus, car, bike) increase publicness.



Figure 9-46: Security camera signage on Hindley Street. (Photo by author 2019)



Figure 9-47: Additional security presence during the Neil Finn free open-air concert in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) as part of the 2017 Adelaide Festival. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 9-48: Right: Event signage on Rundle Street providing advance notice for pedestrians and vehicles. (Photo by author 2018). Left: Regulatory signage adjacent to Rundle Street in a popular busking area. (Photo by author 2019)



Figure 9-49: Advanced notice event signage placed throughout Adelaide CBD to highlight road closures in place for the annual Zombie Walk between 2014 and 2019. Signs were located on case study sites, North Terrace and Rundle Street. (Photo by author 2019)

9.3.4 Site elements summary

This subsection highlighted a variation in the role of site elements during non-events and events and the influence of additional elements on public space. The above analysis determined that additional site elements had a bearing on publicness and that events positively contributed to public space.

The findings revealed a positive relationship between the independent variables of additional site elements and publicness, as shown by a clear trend indicating that additional elements are variables associated with increased use. For instance, seating was an attractor, with additional seating linked to more users. The results indicate that additional site elements sustain interest more

effectively than standard layouts, with publics staying longer at sites with more items.

The analysis concluded that the selected 24 measures are variables influencing the publicness of public space. This study would have benefited by including the physical condition of the elements; however, this would have required a high degree of judgement and the results not have been replicable.

The next section discusses site surfaces and structures, providing insights into how particular features attract users and encourage site-based activity, allowing analysis of interventions during events and non-events. These insights suggest which site surfaces and structures contribute to or erode publicness.

9.4 Site surfaces, structures and publicness

Assessing the presence of site surfaces and structures against the DAF rating indicates whether the presence of selected features (temporary or permanent) is related to the publicness of public spaces during events and non-events.

Thirteen site surface and structure measures were identified to establish the base information for assessment using the Design Assessment Framework (Chapter Seven). The measures are typical surfaces and structures found within public space, influencing usability and user quality of life. The 13 measures allowed for systematic observations assessing how public space is used. They include:

- Paving;
- Paving (additional);
- Gardens;
- Gardens (additional);
- Lawn;
- Lawn (additional);
- Shade (vegetation);
- Shade (vegetation, additional);
- Shade (built);
- Shade (built, additional);
- Water;
- Water (additional); and
- Other surface changes.

This assessment measured visible surfaces and structures. Features included major and minor surfaces and structures that foster interaction but exclude features such as topography (mounds, cliffs) and built form (architecture, for instance, buildings). Topography and built form are acknowledged as an

integral component within urban public space and considered a constant attractor to destinations. Consequently, they were excluded from the assessment. Temporary site surfaces and structures, such as marquees (shade, built, additional), rugs (paving, additional) for events (Figure 9-50) and umbrellas for outdoor dining, were included.



Figure 9-50: Example of additional surfaces and structures provided in Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi for a community consultation event in 2018. Items were selected to engage the community and promote interaction. (Photo by author 2018)

The following subsections present the findings and provide insights into how particular surfaces and structures attract users and encourage site-based activity, allowing analysis of interventions during events and non-events. The first analysis of site surfaces and structures compared the DAF rating of the 16 case study sites with the surface and structure scores. The second analysis divided data into the non-event and event conditions to determine whether additional surfaces and structures contribute to or erode the publicness of a site. The third analysis reviewed each of the 13 site surfaces to determine whether any individual measure had more bearing on the DAF rating.

9.4.1 Site surfaces, structures findings and discussion

For the first analysis, the 16 case study sites and 183 site visits were assessed to determine a site surface and structure score for each site. This was compared with the DAF rating determined in Section 9.2, as shown in Table 9-13 (refer to Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for additional information). Site surfaces and structures were scored out of 13 (seven fixed and six additional/temporary surfaces and structures).

Minimal variation was noted in the data, indicating that surfaces and structures remained constant throughout the study. A total score of 13 indicated the

assessed public space contained all 13 measures (site surfaces and structures). A score of 0 indicated that the space did not contain any measures. Accordingly, higher scores indicate a greater number of surfaces and structures within each case study site.

Table 9-13: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) compared with site surfaces and structures across all site visits

| Case study site | Publicness Average (m) | Site surfaces and structures – combined Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – fixed Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – additional Average (m) |
|--|------------------------|---|---|--|
| Castle Street | 2.18 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 0.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 2.58 | 5.83 | 4.63 | 0.13 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 4.75 | 4.63 | 0.13 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 4.45 | 4.45 | 0.00 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.70 | 6.90 | 6.80 | 0.10 |
| Rundle Place | 3.82 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.00 |
| Hajek Plaza | 4.22 | 2.21 | 2.21 | 0.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.26 | 5.18 | 5.18 | 0.00 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.75 | 5.59 | 5.29 | 0.29 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.88 | 2.31 | 2.00 | 0.31 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 2.70 | 2.00 | 0.70 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 5.28 | 5.50 | 4.33 | 1.17 |
| Rundle Street | 5.34 | 3.38 | 3.08 | 0.31 |
| Moonta Street | 5.58 | 2.22 | 2.00 | 0.22 |

No case study site achieved a total score of 13 at any site visit throughout the study timeframe. Events held in 2018 in Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi (Figure 9-50) and Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) Figure 9-40) would have achieved a score of 13.

During the study timeframe, Himeji Gardens (m = 6.90) achieved the highest score of eight on one site visit (Table 9-13 and Appendix 4.A for breakdown of each site visit). Peel Street (m = 1.00) noted no variation or change of surfaces scoring a one at all site visits. A review of the case studies sites did not indicate a correlation between surfaces and structure and the publicness of public space, suggesting that these variables do not contribute to the fluctuation in how public each case study site is and the publicness of public space typologies.

Unlike amenities, comparisons of site surface and structure scores, the DAF rating and public space typologies do not suggest that site surfaces and structures (combined fixed and additional) contribute to the publicness of public space (Table 9-13, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B). No trends or patterns were discerned linking surfaces and structures to public space typologies. Further review of the individual components is required.

Comparisons of the DAF rating and site surfaces and structures, divided into combined, fixed and additional, did not indicate whether fixed or additional site surfaces contributed more to publicness or the noted fluctuation in how public each case study site was and how public the assessed public space typologies were.

9.4.2 Site surfaces findings and comparison between non-event and event conditions

The comparison of the DAF rating and site surfaces and structures (divided into combined, fixed and additional) during non-events and events did not indicate whether fixed or additional site surfaces and structures contribute to publicness (Table 9-14 and Table 9-15).

This second analysis of site surfaces and structures did not support the Section 9.2 expectation that temporary interventions can positively contribute to public space. This conclusion may be associated with the minimal to no changes in surface and structure during the 183 site visits. The results were expected to differ for sites where surfaces and structures did vary throughout the year, which had greater weather pattern deviations and consistently held major events. Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) is one example that, since the data collection closed, has seen temporary garden beds, trees, stages, ice rinks, pavilions, roadways and public toilets installed. The temporary surfaces and structures dramatically altered the existing site and patterns of use. Future research would be required to reassess how surfaces and structures contribute to public space.

Table 9-14: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) for non-event site visits compared with site surfaces and structures

| Case study site | Publicness – non-event Average (m) | Site surfaces and structures – combined Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – fixed Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – additional Average (m) |
|--|------------------------------------|---|---|--|
| Gilles Street School | 0.25 | 5.33 | 5.33 | 0.00 |
| Castle Street | 2.00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 0.00 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 4.75 | 4.63 | 0.13 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.42 | 6.78 | 6.78 | 0.00 |
| Rundle Place | 3.58 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 4.45 | 4.45 | 0.00 |
| Hajek Plaza | 3.98 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 0.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.21 | 5.10 | 5.10 | 0.00 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.56 | 5.62 | 5.31 | 0.31 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.77 | 2.33 | 2.00 | 0.33 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Rundle Street | 4.94 | 3.30 | 3.10 | 0.20 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 2.70 | 2.00 | 0.70 |
| Moonta Street | 5.56 | 1.86 | 1.86 | 0.00 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 6.75 | 6.00 | 5.00 | 1.00 |

Table 9-15: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) for event site visits compared with site surfaces and structures

| Case study site | Publicness – event Average (m) | Site surfaces and structures – combined Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – fixed Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – additional Average (m) |
|--|--------------------------------|---|---|--|
| Castle Street | 4.00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 0.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.75 | 6.00 | 6.00 | 0.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 4.92 | 6.33 | 5.67 | 0.67 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 4.98 | 5.40 | 4.20 | 1.20 |
| Hajek Plaza | 5.08 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 0.00 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 5.35 | 5.50 | 5.25 | 0.25 |
| Moonta Street | 5.67 | 3.50 | 2.50 | 1.00 |
| Rundle Place | 5.92 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 6.17 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 0.00 |
| Himeji Gardens | 6.25 | 8.00 | 7.00 | 1.00 |
| Rundle Street | 6.67 | 3.67 | 3.00 | 0.67 |
| Hindley Street | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Peel Street | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Adelaide Railway Station | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Glover Playground | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded.

9.4.3 Site surfaces and structures review

The following subsection outlines the third analysis of site surfaces and structures. The 13 measures were analysed to determine whether site surfaces and structures are a variable to determine the publicness of public space, whether any individual measures have a bearing on publicness and whether events positively contribute to public space.

This subsection assesses how particular surface features attract users and encourage site-based activity. This allows analysis of interventions during non-events and events. The results will provide landscape architects with the following:

- specific features that are associated with increased use; and
- specific features that are associated with diverse staying activities.

Table 9-16: Descriptive comparison of presence of statistics of site surfaces and structures during non-event and event site visits

| Surfaces and structures | Surfaces and structures – non-events Average (m) | Surfaces and structures – events Average (m) | standard deviation (SD) – non-events | Standard deviation (SD) – events | Significance (p*) |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Gardens | 0.6 | 0.8 | 0.49 | 0.41 | 0.000* |
| Gardens (additional) | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Lawn | 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.47 | 0.49 | 0.038* |
| Lawn (additional) | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Other | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.32 | 0.39 | 0.159 |
| Paving | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | n/a |
| Paving (additional) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.06 | 0.09 | 0.167 |
| Shade (built) | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.51 | 0.46 | 0.350 |
| Shade (built, additional) | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.29 | 0.43 | 0.000* |
| Shade (vegetation) | 0.25 | 0.6 | 0.52 | 0.48 | 0.019* |
| Shade (vegetation, additional) | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Water | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.34 | 0.47 | 0.570 |
| Water (additional) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.100 | 0.326 |

*Significant at 0.01 level; n/a = no data recorded.

Table 9-16 presents the average presence of the surfaces and structures during the site visits along with the standard deviations. Average presence ranged from a high of 1.0 (present on all sites visits) to a low of 0.1 (present on one site visit). As shown in Figure 9-51 and Figure 9-52, there was minimal to no variation between the presence of individual surfaces and structures during non-events (Figure 9-51) and events (Figure 9-52). The presence of shade (built,

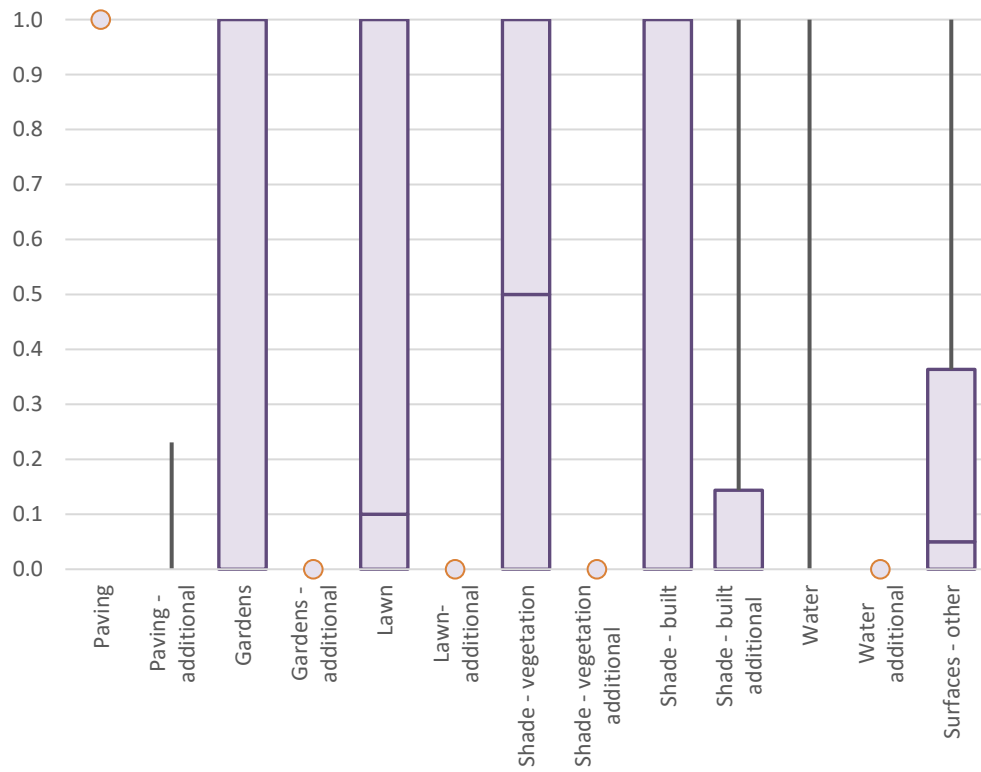


Figure 9-51: Site surfaces and structures (average) for non-event site visits.

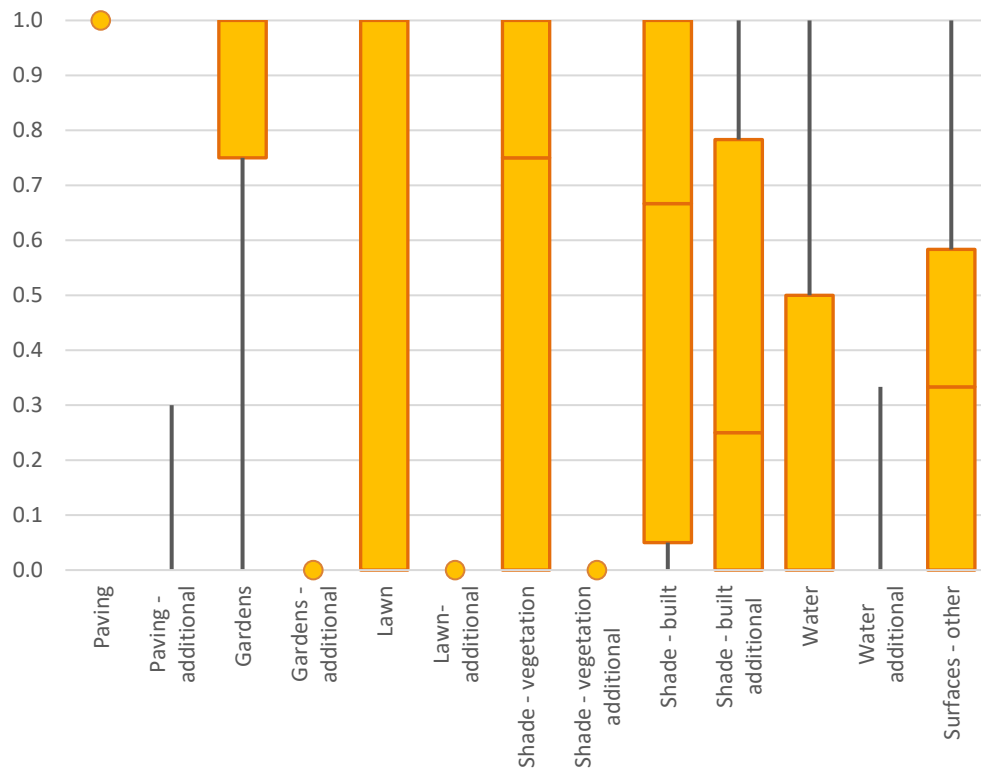


Figure 9-52: Site surfaces and structures (average) for event site visits.

additional), for instance, fluctuated throughout the site visits. During non-events, the average presence was 0.2 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0) whereas during events, the average presence of shade (built, additional) was 0.4 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0). The average presence of surfaces and structures (excluding shade, built, additional) did not illustrate a trend of surfaces or structures increasing publicness. These findings do not provide sufficient evidence that the surfaces or structures are a variable in publicness or if there is a clear link between public space typologies and site surfaces and structures. This result supports the conclusion above, suggesting that site surfaces and structures do not contribute to the fluctuation of the publicness of each case study site and the publicness of public space typologies.

An analysis of the site surfaces and structures across all site visits (153 non-event visits and 30 event visits) did not express the variability of site surfaces and structures in case study sites. As shown in Table 9-16, the standard deviation, calculated to quantify the amount of variation, confirmed that the presence of site surfaces and structures was consistent across all sites, with minimal to no variation between non-events and events. A lower standard deviation indicates less variation in presence. For most surfaces and structures, the variation for both conditions was similar. The variation for surfaces and structures that are typically site-specific, such as water, was high (0.34) whereas the variation for common surfaces and structures, such as paving, was low (0.0). Comparison between additional surfaces and structures to the related fixed was unable to be statistically analysed because of minimal to no recorded presence of additional surfaces and structures.

T-tests on the presence values of event and non-event surfaces and structures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the average. The magnitude of the significance of the difference indicates the strength of the relationship between individual site surfaces and structures and the difference between the conditions (event and non-event) (Table 9-16). For fixed site surfaces and structures, minimal to no significant difference exists between the two types of condition, with the significance difference typically greater than $p > 0.01$ (Table 9-16). This indicates that events did not have an influence on the presence of fixed surfaces and structures. The results for additional site surfaces and conditions were minimal. A clear significant difference between the two types of conditions was unable to be determined. The statistically significant differences results were unable to suggest whether there is a relationship between additional site surfaces and event or non-event conditions.

The DAF rating was typically higher for event conditions. No trend or relationship between the DAF rating, conditions and site surface and structures score was noted. The site surface and structure analysis did not support the

Section 9.2 conclusion, suggesting that temporary interventions can positively contribute to public space.

The site surfaces and structures with significant findings in Table 9-16 are discussed individually below, including the comparison to the DAF rating that was used to determine the influence of the surfaces and structures on publicness. The tables of average presence compared with the DAF rating for both conditions are provided in Appendix 4.B.

Gardens

Gardens were present at all case study sites in varying size and forms. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average (m) presence between conditions with a greater presence of gardens during events. This result was not expected and is most likely caused by events creating focal points of existing site planting, improvements to sites before events or the layout of the events taking advantage of existing planting as barriers. No trends were noted for the DAF rating and the review of gardens was unable to determine whether existing gardens are an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use.

There were no recorded instances of gardens (additional) or planting within the site assessment timeframe; hence, this study was unable to determine whether gardens (additional) are an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use. The results were time- and event-specific and may influence future studies, depending on selected sites and times of assessment. This study noted instances of additional planting during events in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26), Rundle Street, North Terrace and Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi (Figure 9-50) after the site assessment timeframe. The presence of gardens (additional, planting) is not an unlikely occurrence and therefore should be taken into consideration in future studies.

Lawn

Lawn was present at eight case study sites in varying size and forms. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average (m) presence between sites with a greater presence of lawn during events. This result was not expected, and is linked to Gilles Street School, in which visibility of lawn was dependent on event setup. No trends were noted for publicness and the review of lawn was unable to determine whether lawn is an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use.

Similarly to gardens, there were no recorded instances of lawn (additional) within the site assessment timeframe, although some occurred later and it can be assumed that this element will be of future interest for practice and research.

Shade (vegetation)

Shade by vegetation (mature trees) was present at eight case study sites in varying size and forms. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average (m) presence between conditions, with a greater presence of shade during events. This is most likely caused by events creating focal points of existing site planting, or the layout of events taking advantage of existing planting as shelter. This was the case for the markets at Gillies Street School, which provided built shelter (Figure 9-53) and seating under mature trees (Figure 9-53). No trends were noted for publicness and the review of shade by vegetation was unable to determine whether shade trees are an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use.

Similarly, to gardens and lawns, there were no recorded instances of additional mature shade vegetation.



Figure 9-53: Shade options provided for publics at Gillies Street School during one of the markets. Event setup included additional seating, additional access to food and additional bins. (Photo by author 2014)

Shade (built)

Analysis of (fixed and additional) built shade showed a statistically significant difference in average (m) presence between conditions, with greater presence of shade (built, additional) during events, most likely resulting from temporary interventions of food vendor options during events and outdoor dining permits.

Strong trends were not evident. Shade (built, additional) appears to increase with the DAF rating during non-events, indicating that this is a variable for publicness in everyday conditions (Figure 9-53 and Figure 9-54). Because shade (built, additional) influences both events and non-events differently, further investigation is required to determine which shade characteristics are influential and whether shade (built, additional) is an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use. This result may be in part due to the presence of outdoor dining.



Figure 9-54: Shade (built, additional) at Himeji Gardens for the Studio Ghibli/Espionage Gallery pop-up event. (Photo by author 2014)

9.4.4 Site surfaces and structures summary

This subsection highlighted a minimal to no variation in the role of site surfaces and structures during non-event and event conditions and minimal to no influence of additional surfaces and structures on public space.

The findings on site surfaces and structures, excluding shade (built, additional) did not illustrate a trend of surfaces or structures increasing publicness, nor did it provide sufficient evidence that the surfaces or structures were a variable in publicness or whether there was a clear link between public space typologies and site surfaces and structures. From this result, it is concluded that site surfaces and structures do not contribute to the fluctuation in the publicness of each case study site or the publicness of public space typologies.

The next section discusses site activities, providing insights into the relative vibrancy of urban public spaces during events and non-events. These insights suggest which activities within public space contribute to or erode publicness.

9.5 Site activities and publicness

Assessing the presence of site activities against the DAF rating indicates whether the presence of selected activities (formal or informal) is related to the publicness of public spaces during events and non-events. The data provides additional information, allowing for assessments to consider the mix of users and the intensity of usage. An analysis of site activities responds to possible influences from a spatial context, including adjacent sites.

Twenty-one activity measures (subjective and objective) that commonly occur in public space were identified to establish the base information required for the assessment using the Design Assessment Framework (Chapter Seven). These measures include:

- Formal recreation (sport);
- Informal recreation (seating);
- Commercial activities;
- Cultural activities*;
- Passing through*;
- Tourist activities (sightseeing)*;
- Prohibited or illegitimate activities;
- Informal recreation (reading);
- Informal recreation (lying down);
- Informal recreation (picnic);
- Formal recreation (fitness groups);
- Informal recreation (other);
- Informal recreation (play);
- Buskers;
- Event setup;
- Construction works;
- Commuting*;
- Business (in course of work)*;
- Social* or entertainment;
- Shopping or commerce; and
- Not evident.*

* Highlighted terms are activities as judged by the researcher.

These 21 measures allowed for systematic observations, assessing how public space is used. Activities included were optional (non-site-specific, only occurring in good conditions) and necessary (site-specific, occurring in all conditions). Optional and necessary activities are outlined in Chapter Five.

The following subsections present the findings and provide insights into the relative vibrancy of urban public spaces during events and non-events. The first

analysis of site activities compared the DAF rating of the 16 case study sites with the activities score. The second analysis divided data into non-event and event conditions to determine whether necessary activities or optional activities contribute to or erode the publicness of a site. The third analysis reviewed each of the 21 site activities to determine whether an individual measure had more bearing on the DAF rating.

9.5.1 Site activities findings and discussion

For the first analysis, the 16 case study sites and 183 site visits were assessed to determine an activity score for each site. This was then compared with the DAF rating determined in Section 9.2, as shown in Table 9-17 (refer to Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for additional information). Site activities were scored out of 21. A total score of 21 indicated the assessed public space contained all 21 measures (site activities). A score of 0 indicated the space did not contain any measures. Accordingly, a higher score indicated a greater versatility within each case study site.

No case study site achieved a total score of 21 at any site visit. Rundle Street ($m = 8.31$) achieved the highest score of 14 on one site visit (refer Appendix 4.A for breakdown of each site visit). Castle Street recorded the least number of activities and was the most consistent in regard to site activities with total scores of 0 or 2 ($m = 1.45$), indicating that the relative vibrancy of the urban public had little variation throughout the study (Figure 9-55).



Figure 9-55: Activities recorded at Castle street were limited to cyclists or pedestrians (transitory publics). (Photo by author 2019)

A comparison of the DAF rating and site activities for individual case study sites indicates that site activities contribute to publicness. A review of the site visits showed a correlation between the number of activities recorded at a case study

site and the DAF rating (Table 9-17). The greater the number of activities, the higher the DAF rating. The overall increase of both scores—indicating that land ownership and temporary change of legal responsibility are not directly linked to publicness and activities—could contribute to public space by encouraging use by diverse publics. This result may be related to the type of activities that occurred during the site visits and it may be influenced by events.

Table 9-17: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) compared with site activities across all site visits

| Case study site | Publicness – Average (m) | Site activities – combined Average (m) |
|--|--------------------------|--|
| Castle Street | 2.18 | 1.45 |
| Gilles Street School | 2.58 | 3.00 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 2.63 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 5.27 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.70 | 4.10 |
| Rundle Place | 3.82 | 4.10 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 5.75 |
| Hajek Plaza | 4.22 | 4.71 |
| North Terrace | 4.26 | 7.18 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.75 | 7.59 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 5.58 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.88 | 7.15 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 7.20 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 5.28 | 7.58 |
| Rundle Street | 5.34 | 8.31 |
| Moonta Street | 5.58 | 7.67 |

9.5.2 Site activities findings and comparison of non-event and event conditions

The correlation between publicness and activities is supported by comparing the publicness and activities score during non-event and event conditions (Table 9-18 and Table 9-19).

Observations recorded suggest Adelaide public spaces are primarily used as designed with minimal deviance from social norms. During events the case study sites showed a considerable higher number of activities than non-event conditions. Parks & Gardens remained the least public of public spaces overall with the least variation in activities, noting activities in Himeji Gardens increased substantially during events. The overall increase of publicness and activities scores during events supports the Section 9.2 conclusion, which suggests temporary interventions can positively contribute to public space. These findings suggest events positively contribute to public space by increasing the opportunity of activities that cater for a broad demographic representation of life in urban spaces.

Table 9-18: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) for non-event site visits compared with site activities

| Case study site | Publicness – non-event Average (m) | Site activities – combined Average (m) |
|--|---------------------------------------|---|
| Gilles Street School | 0.25 | 0.00 |
| Castle Street | 2.00 | 1.40 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 2.63 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.42 | 3.89 |
| Rundle Place | 3.58 | 3.78 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 5.27 |
| Hajek Plaza | 3.98 | 4.64 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 5.75 |
| North Terrace | 4.21 | 7.00 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.56 | 7.46 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.77 | 6.75 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 5.58 |
| Rundle Street | 4.94 | 7.40 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 7.20 |
| Moonta Street | 5.56 | 6.86 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 6.75 | 4.00 |

Table 9-19: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) for event site visits compared with site activities

| Case study site | Publicness – event Average (m) | Site activities – combined Average (m) |
|--|-----------------------------------|---|
| Castle Street | 4.00 | 5.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.75 | 12.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 4.92 | 12.00 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 4.98 | 12.70 |
| Hajek Plaza | 5.08 | 12.67 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 5.35 | 16.25 |
| Moonta Street | 5.67 | 14.50 |
| Rundle Place | 5.92 | 16.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 6.17 | 16.00 |
| Himeji Gardens | 6.25 | 15.00 |
| Rundle Street | 6.67 | 17.67 |
| Hindley Street | n/a | n/a |
| Peel Street | n/a | n/a |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | n/a | n/a |
| Adelaide Railway Station | n/a | n/a |
| Glover Playground | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded

9.5.3 Site activities review

The following subsection outlines the third analysis of site activities. The 21 activity measures are analysed to determine whether site activities are a variable to determine the publicness of public space, whether any individual measure has a bearing on publicness and whether events positively contribute to public space, as concluded above in section 9.2. This analysis divided site activities into two separate groups—the condition of non-event and the condition of event. Here, the results indicated a strong relationship between activity and the publicness of public spaces.

This subsection assesses the site activities compared with user statistics and site elements. This allows an analysis of interventions during non-events and events. The results will provide landscape architects with notification of the following:

- any reduction in activities and publics undertaking activities because of degrees of exclusion; and
- whether there is a link between public space typologies and the form of social interaction that occurs.

Table 9-20 presents the average presence of the activities during the site visits along with the standard deviations. Average presence ranged from a high of 1.0 (present on all sites visits) to a low of 0.1 (present on one site visit). As shown in Figure 9-56 and Figure 9-58, there was variation between the presence of individual activities during non-events (Figure 9-56) and events (Figure 9-58). For instance, the presence of prohibited or illegitimate activities (Figure 9-57, Figure 9-59) fluctuated throughout the site visits during non-events, where the average was 0.2 (min = 0.0 max = 0.7), whereas during events, the average was 0.5 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0). The average presence illustrated a slight trend of activities increasing publicness of the event condition. The noted trend does not provide sufficient evidence that the activities alone accounted for increased publicness.

An analysis of the site activities across all site visits (153 non-event visits and 30 event visits) expressed the variability of activities in case study sites. As shown in Table 9-20, the standard deviation, calculated to quantify the amount of variation, confirms that the presence of site activities was not consistent across all sites, with the presence of individual activities varying between non-event conditions and event conditions. A lower standard deviation indicates less variation in presence recorded. Interestingly, for most site-specific activities, the variation for the conditions was similar, for instance, informal recreation (lying down) was low (0.08) whereas the variation for common activities such as passing through was high (0.4).

Table 9-20: Descriptive comparison of presence of statistics of Site Activities during non-event and event site visits

| Activities | Activities – non-events Average (m) | Activities – events Average (m) | Standard deviation (SD) – non-events | Standard deviation (SD) – events | Significance (p*) |
|---------------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Business (in course of work) | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.38 | 0.35 | 0.022* |
| Buskers | 0.51 | 0.3 | 0.15 | 0.40 | 0.106 |
| Commercial activities | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.43 | 0.46 | 0.334 |
| Commuting | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.37 | 0.40 | 0.527 |
| Construction works | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.21 | 0.32 | 0.776 |
| Cultural activities | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.08 | 0.17 | 0.334 |
| Event setup | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.09 | 0.4 | 0.000* |
| Formal recreation (fitness groups) | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.20 | 0.09 | 0.508 |
| Formal recreation (sport) | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| Informal recreation | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.39 | 0.40 | 0.179 |
| Informal recreation (lying down) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.08 | 0.12 | 0.493 |
| Informal recreation (other) | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.13 | 0.35 | 0.046* |
| Informal recreation (picnic) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.04 | 0.09 | 0.194 |
| Informal recreation (play) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.16 | 0.10 | 0.426 |
| Informal recreation (reading) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.04 | 0.06 | 0.386 |
| Not evident | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.28 | 0.43 | 0.029* |
| Passing through | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.36 | 0.40 | 0.042* |
| Prohibited or illegitimate activities | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.23 | 0.45 | 0.998 |
| Shopping or commerce | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.35 | 0.44 | 0.116 |
| Social or entertainment | 0.6 | 0.9 | 0.34 | 0.33 | 0.048* |
| Tourist activities (sightseeing) | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.29 | 0.42 | 0.997 |

*Significant at 0.01 level; n/a = no data recorded.

T-tests on the presence values of site activities for events and non-events were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the average. The magnitude of the significance of the difference indicates the strength of the relationship between individual site activities and the difference between the conditions (Table 9-20). A minimal significant difference was noted between the two conditions, with the significance difference typically greater than $p > 0.01$ (Table 9-20). This indicates that events did not have an influence on the presence of activities.

The DAF rating was typically higher for event conditions. Only slight trends between the DAF rating, conditions and site activities scores were noted. This is supported by research, which states that users are more likely to visit during changed conditions. It also supports the conclusion in Section 9.2, suggesting that temporary interventions contribute to public space.

The site activities with significant findings (Table 9-20) are discussed individually below, including the comparison with the DAF rating, which was used to determine the influence of the activities on publicness. The tables of average presence compared with the DAF rating for both conditions are provided in Appendix 4.B.

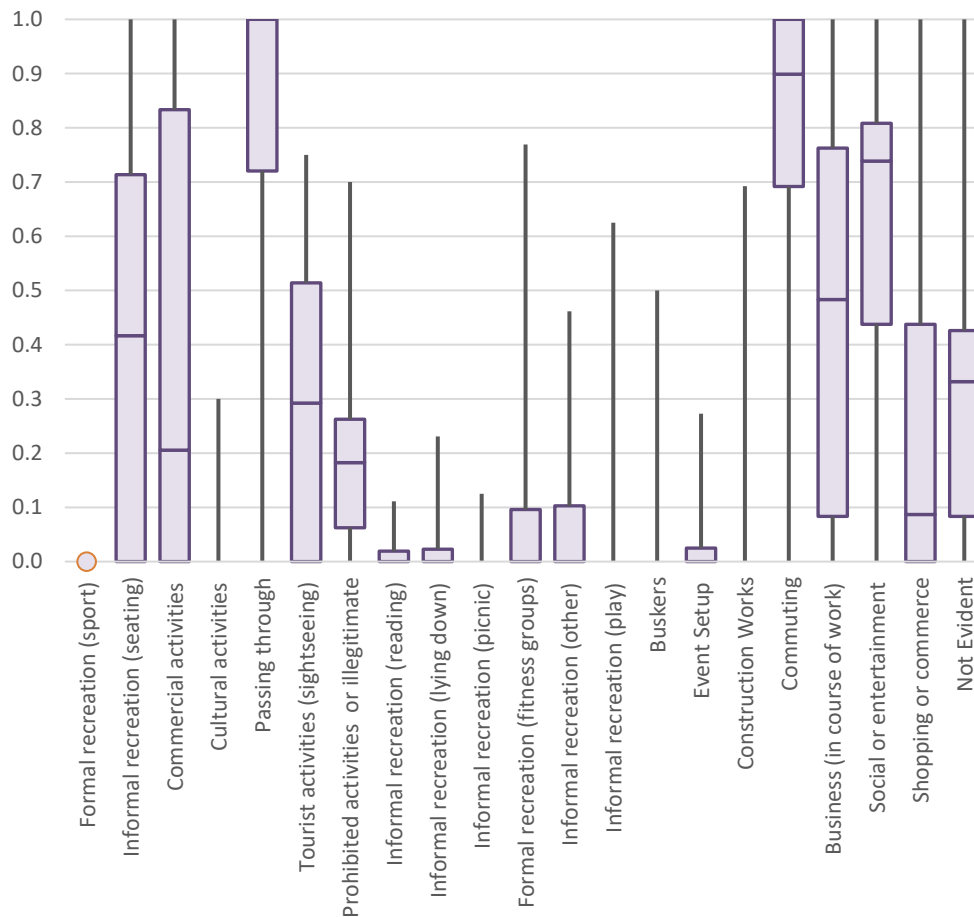


Figure 9-56: Site activities (average) for non-event site visits



Figure 9-57: Example of prohibited activities—street art paste-up—in Hindmarsh Square/Mukata during non-event time. Works were removed within 48 hours of installation. (Photo by author 2013)

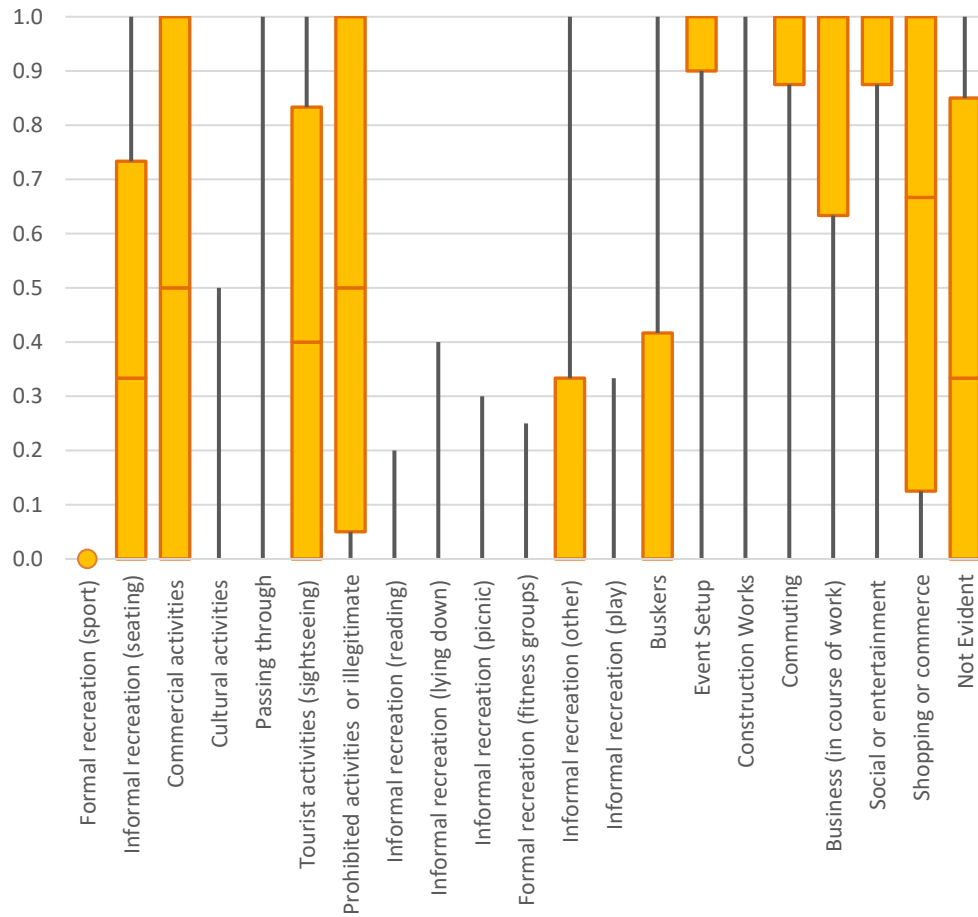


Figure 9-58: Site activities (average) for event site visits



Figure 9-59: Example of a tolerated prohibited activity—street art installation—spilling onto Hindley Street outside of the event designated area during the West End After Dark Event. Works were tolerated during the events and removed within 48 hours of the event conclusion. (Photo by author 2016)

Business (in course of work) activities

Business included activities that were occupation-specific, such as rubbish collection, horticultural activities and construction work. The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions with business activities having greater presence during events. This was most likely because of an increase in publics at sites undertaking their chosen occupation. This result was as expected during event conditions.

The presence of business activities increased with publicness for non-event conditions, which was also expected. This may be because of ongoing City of Adelaide daily maintenance programs and construction activities occurring adjacent to Elder Park Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) during the site assessment timeframe (Figure 9-60). As business activities influence both events and non-events differently, further investigation is required to determine which business activities drive increased use and their role in social interaction.

Event setup activities

Event setup results were as expected because of the relationship between event setup and events. Event setup included all activities required to 'bump in' and 'bump out' and behind the scenes activities of events but excluded front of house activities during events such as performances (Figure 9-61). The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions, with event setup having a greater presence during events. This was most likely because of temporary altered use and change of usage patterns, for instance, length of stay and passing through activities. No trends were noted for publicness and the review of event setup activities was unable to determine whether this activity alone was linked to increased use. Nonetheless, the results do suggest that events increase non-site-specific activities more than site-specific activities.

Informal recreation (other) activities

Other informal recreation activities were included to identify whether any activities had been missed in the design of the Design Assessment Framework. For this study, informal recreation (other) refers to activities that do not typically occur at case study sites, for instance, dog walking and roller skating (Figure 9-62). As expected, analysis of informal recreation (other) showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions, with other activities more likely to be present during events. The difference in average presence between conditions is most likely caused by temporary changes in site design, which alter activities occurring at case study sites. No trends were noted for publicness and the review of informal recreation (other) activities was unable to determine whether this activity alone was linked to

increased use. Although similar to event setup, the results do suggest that events increase non-site-specific activities more than site-specific activities.

Not evident activities

Not evident activities are subjective and include any activity the assessor was unable to distinguish or separate out from the other activities when undertaking the site assessment. Analysis of not evident activities showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions, with this activity more likely to be present during events. This result may be because of the nature of the events, for instance, the Adelaide Fringe Festival street closure of Rundle Street (Figure 9-63), where activities undertaken by users were subject to change or momentary distraction. Thus, a user's activity could quickly change from passing through to social and entertainment. There is a clear trend indicating that a greater presence of not evident activities is linked to increased publicness. This is consistent with research, which shows that when users are comfortable, they will use space in manners that are unexpected or unplanned, which is linked to longer stays. The results support the suggestion above that events increase non-site-specific activities more than site-specific activities.

Passing through activities

Passing through activities include movement through a site without stopping or engaging with the surrounds. This activity was expected to occur in all typologies, particularly Streets & Promenades and Plazas & Squares (Figure 9-64). Passing through activities occurred at all sites except Gilles Street School and Glover Playground (sites with the most control). This result was expected because of the site design of each case study site and the selected study boundaries. An analysis of passing through activities showed a statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions, with this activity more likely to be present during non-events. The difference in average presence between conditions is most likely caused by the addition of temporary changes in site design, altering movement through and to the sites. No trends were noted for publicness and the review of passing through activities was unable to determine whether this activity is an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use. Nonetheless, the results do suggest that events are linked to a reduction of activities. In particular, passing through activities decreased during event conditions. This suggests that non-site-specific activities are influenced more by events than site-specific activities.



Figure 9-60: Construction site setup for the Riverbank Bridge in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26). The construction activities altered movement patterns on site and increased the diversity of publics. (Photo by author 2014)



Figure 9-61: Free public concert and the stage show 'dirtsong' during the 2014 Adelaide Festival event setup (bump out) in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26). The activities related to this event setup altered movement patterns of site, disrupted usual seating areas and increased the diversity of publics. (Photo by author 2014)



Figure 9-62: Dog walkers in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26). Dog walking does not typically occur in Elder Park and was actively discouraged by the City of Adelaide by-laws during the study timeframe. (Photo by author 2014)

Social or entertainment activities

Public spaces have been referred to as social and entertainment spaces. The presence of social and entertainment activities at all sites was expected, with a greater presence during events. The two anomalies were Castle Street, for which no activities were recorded under any conditions, and Hindmarsh Square/Mukata, for which no social and entertainment activities were recorded during non-event conditions. The analysis showed a greater presence during events. A statistically significant difference in average presence between conditions was evident, with this activity more likely to be present during events. No trends were noted for publicness and the review of social and entertainment activities was unable to determine whether this activity alone is linked to increased use. The results suggest that events increase non-site-specific activities.

Prohibited or illegitimate activities

Prohibited or illegitimate activities did not yield a statistically significant finding. Two notable trends were discerned. Prohibited activities included smoking in non-smoking areas, drinking in dry zones, riding bikes on footpaths, graffiti, littering, skateboarding and other small, wheeled vehicles on footpaths (City of Adelaide by-laws prohibit small wheeled vehicles of footpaths). Some activities that were prohibited during the study timeframe are now legal, for instance, riding bikes on footpaths. Illegitimate activities included those typically associated with illegitimate publics such as the presence of bedding/camping equipment and unattended clothing (Figure 9-65).

The prohibited or illegitimate activities results had a bi-modal distribution when compared with the DAF rating for non-event conditions, and a clear trend was not evident. The results for prohibited or illegitimate activities had a tri-modal distribution when compared with the DAF rating and considering all conditions combined, there was no clear trend. While there was no trend during any conditions, the study recorded more prohibited or illegitimate activities during events, with the majority of case study sites recording a clear increase in these activities during events. This result may be caused by the nature of events such as the Adelaide Fringe Festival where activities that are typically prohibited become the social norm.



Figure 9-63: Street party on Rundle Street during the Adelaide Fringe Festival 2014. The density of activities meant that individual actions could not be distinguished or separated out from the other activities, such as passing through the space to reach fringe events, moving from food venues to tables, buskers with and without permits, the homeless or fringe performers. (Photo by author 2014)

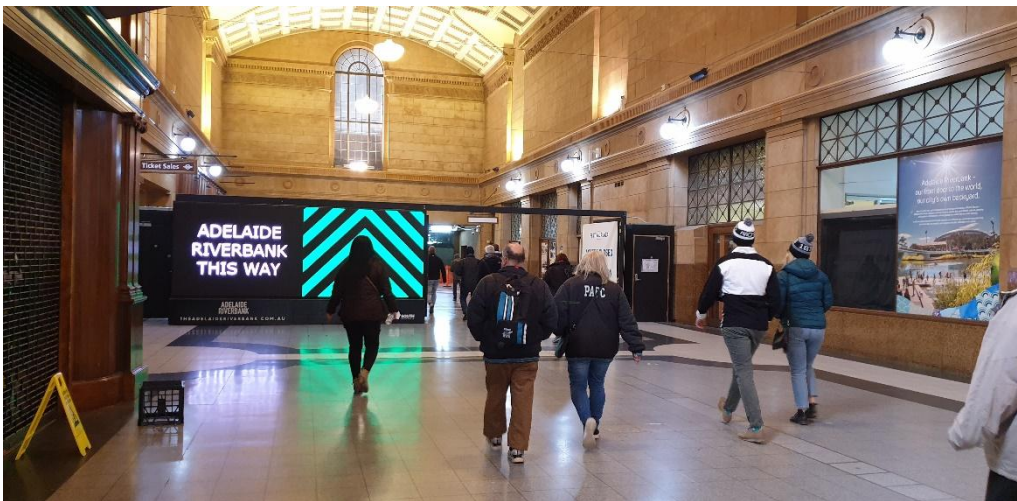


Figure 9-64: Movement through the Adelaide Railway Station from North Terrace to the Adelaide Riverbank. The publics in this instance did not engage with the surroundings or other users. (Photo by author 2019)

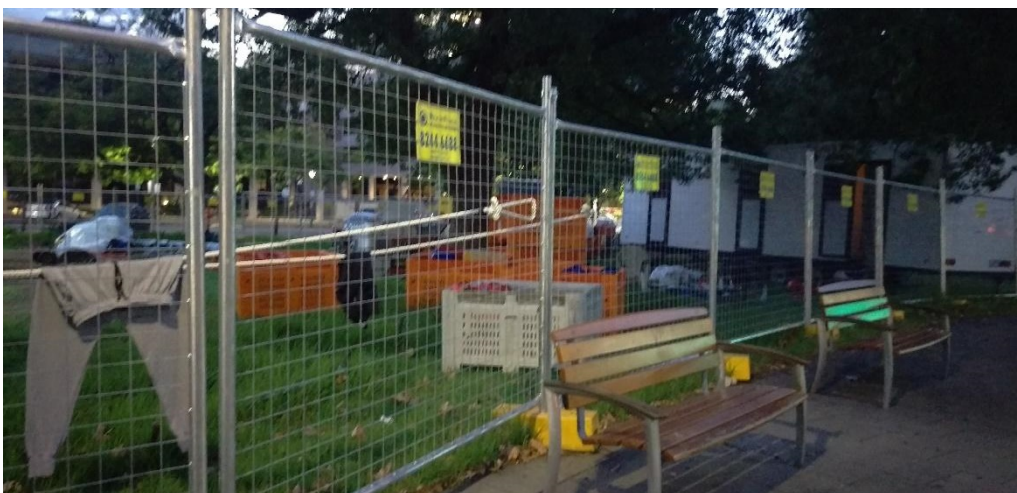


Figure 9-65: Clothing drying in Hindmarsh Square/Mukata as part of an event back of house. This activity would normally be associated with illegitimate publics and therefore monitored or removed for defined public view. (Photo by author 2017)

9.5.4 Site activities summary

This subsection highlighted a variation in the role of site activities during non-event and event conditions and the influence of these activities on public space. The analysis determined that site activities have a bearing on publicness and events can positively contribute to public space. The results varied between necessary (site-specific) and optional (non-site-specific) activities and the publicness of public space, suggesting that events increase non-site-specific activities more than site-specific activities. These results are consistent with the findings of Mehta (2009), which revealed that people only linger and engage in social activities when there are things to do and see. Therefore, timeframes for studies should expand to represent changes of space from event conditions and everyday conditions to understand what effectively happens and explore the role of different activities within a selected public space.

The results of this study are also in line with those of Mehta (2009), stating that public space performs differently on different occasions. This indicates that functional design for one typology of publics such as the defined public, or for a condition such as an event, is not desirable when seeking to increase the publicness of public space. Adelaide public spaces are and will continue to be multiple-use spaces. Multiple publics and activities should be considered in their design, management, programming and maintenance.

The final section discusses site context and conditions, providing insights into the comfort, quality and aesthetic considerations for measuring the use of public spaces during events and non-events. The insights identify the site context and conditions of public space that contribute to or erode publicness.

9.6 Site context, conditions and publicness

Assessing site context and conditions against the DAF rating indicates whether features such as comfort, quality and aesthetics are related to the publicness of public space.

The appearance of public space affects its use, thereby affecting the success of the space. The success of an individual public space can be determined by the range of components and perceptual qualities, which contribute to the quality of urban life (Cybriwsky 1999; Dempsey 2008; Ewing & Handy 2009; Marans 2012). Key to success is the perceived comfort of a space (Pasaogullari & Doratli 2004) as well as its perceived quality and aesthetics. These three considerations have been identified as key variables in measuring the utilisation of public space and are linked to site context and conditions. Fifteen site context and conditions measures were identified to establish the base information required

for evaluation using the Design Assessment Framework (refer Chapter Seven).

These measures of comfort, quality and aesthetics and include:

- Natural surveillance;
- Constant users;
- Clear design intent;
- High prospect/low refuge;
- Significance and value;
- Social imageability;
- Restorative places;
- Social interaction and territoriality;
- Orientation;
- Movement;
- View;
- Change in use;
- Neighbourhood awareness;
- Private–public awareness; and
- Thematic continuity.

These 15 measures allowed for systematic observations assessing how public space is used. This assessment measured the visible and identified key variables for measuring the utilisation of public spaces. The urban design qualities identified by Ewing and Handy (2009), namely, enclosure, human scale, transparency and complexity, were excluded from the individual assessments. Social imageability was included because of the consensus by Ewing and Handy (2009), Gehl (1987) and Lynch (1960) that highly imageable places are well formed, contain distinct parts, are instantly recognisable and contribute to a sense of place. Landmarks and distinctive buildings are examples of imageability.

The following subsections present the findings and provide insights into the comfort, quality and aesthetic considerations for measuring the utilisation of public spaces during events and non-events. The first analysis compared the DAF rating of the 16 case study sites with the site context and conditions score. The second analysis divided data into non-event and event conditions to determine whether comfort, quality and aesthetics contribute to or erode publicness. The third analysis reviewed each of the 15 site contexts and conditions to determine whether any individual measure had more bearing on the DAF rating.

9.6.1 Site context, conditions findings and discussion

For the first analysis, the 16 case study sites and 183 site visits were assessed to determine a site context and conditions score for each site. This score was compared with the DAF rating determined in Section 9.2 and as shown in Table

9-21 (refer to Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B for additional information). Site context and conditions were scored out of 15. A total score of 15 indicated the assessed public space contained all 15 measures (site context and conditions). A score of 0 indicated the space did not contain any measures. Accordingly, a higher score indicates a greater degree of comfort, quality and aesthetics for each case study site.

Table 9-21: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) compared with site context and conditions across all site visits

| Case study site | Publicness Average (m) | Site context and conditions – combined Average (m) |
|---|---------------------------|---|
| Castle Street | 2.18 | 10.73 |
| Gilles Street School | 2.58 | 8.83 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 12.63 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 11.09 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.70 | 10.00 |
| Rundle Place | 3.82 | 9.20 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 12.88 |
| Hajek Plaza | 4.22 | 8.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.26 | 14.64 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.75 | 13.59 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 13.75 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.88 | 11.38 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 12.20 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 5.28 | 12.42 |
| Rundle Street | 5.34 | 12.23 |
| Moonta Street | 5.58 | 13.00 |

Minimal variation was noted in the data, indicating that site context and conditions remained constant throughout the study. North Terrace was the only site to contain all site context and conditions measures at seven of the 11 site visits undertaken (refer Appendix 4.A for breakdown of each site visit). A review of the case study sites did not indicate a correlation between context and conditions and the publicness of public space, suggesting that site context and conditions do not contribute to fluctuations in the publicness of the individual case study sites.

Similarly to site surfaces and structures, the review of the site context and conditions score, the DAF rating and the public space typologies do not suggest that site context and conditions contribute to the publicness of public space typologies (Table 9-21, Appendix 4.A and Appendix 4.B). No trends or patterns were discerned linking site context and conditions to public space typologies. Further review of the individual components is required.

9.6.2 Site context and conditions findings and comparison between non-event and event conditions

A comparison of the DAF rating and the site context and conditions score during the non-events and events did not indicate whether site context and conditions contributed to publicness or the noted fluctuation in the publicness of each case study site (Table 9-22 and Table 9-23). No trends or patterns were discerned linking site context and conditions, public space typologies events or non-events. The site context and conditions analysis did not support the conclusion in Section 9.2, suggesting that temporary interventions contribute to public space.

Table 9-22: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) for non-event site visits compared with site context and conditions

| Case study site | Publicness – non-event Average (m) | Site context and conditions – combined Average (m) |
|--|---------------------------------------|---|
| Gilles Street School | 0.25 | 8.67 |
| Castle Street | 2.00 | 10.70 |
| Glover Playground | 3.05 | 12.63 |
| Himeji Gardens | 3.42 | 9.89 |
| Rundle Place | 3.58 | 9.33 |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | 3.63 | 11.09 |
| Hajek Plaza | 3.98 | 7.55 |
| Peel Street | 4.11 | 12.88 |
| North Terrace | 4.21 | 14.60 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 4.56 | 14.08 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 4.77 | 11.42 |
| Adelaide Railway Station | 4.88 | 13.75 |
| Rundle Street | 4.94 | 12.30 |
| Hindley Street | 4.97 | 12.20 |
| Moonta Street | 5.56 | 13.00 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 6.75 | 13.00 |

Table 9-23: DAF rating of case study sites (ranked least to most public) for event site conditions compared with site context and conditions

| Case study site | Publicness – event Average (m) | Site context and conditions – combined Average (m) |
|--|--------------------------------|--|
| Castle Street | 4.00 | 11.00 |
| North Terrace | 4.75 | 15.00 |
| Gilles Street School | 4.92 | 9.00 |
| Hindmarsh Square/Mukata | 4.98 | 12.30 |
| Hajek Plaza | 5.08 | 9.67 |
| Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) | 5.35 | 12.00 |
| Moonta Street | 5.67 | 13.00 |
| Rundle Place | 5.92 | 8.00 |
| Adelaide Central Market | 6.17 | 11.00 |
| Himeji Gardens | 6.25 | 11.00 |
| Rundle Street | 6.67 | 12.00 |
| Hindley Street | n/a | n/a |
| Peel Street | n/a | n/a |
| Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi | n/a | n/a |
| Adelaide Railway Station | n/a | n/a |
| Glover Playground | n/a | n/a |

n/a = no events recorded

9.6.3 Site context and conditions review

The following subsection outlines the third analysis of site context and conditions. The 15 measures are reviewed to determine whether site context and conditions are a variable determining the publicness of public space, whether any individual measure had a bearing on publicness and whether events contribute to public space, as concluded in Section 9.2. This analysis divided site surface and structures into two separate groups—the condition of non-event and the condition of event.

This subsection evaluates the character of the different sites to determine whether an assessment of site context and conditions provides a guide to development and design changes.

Table 9-24 presents the average presence of the elements during the site visits along with the standard deviations. Average presence ranged from a high of 1.0 (present on all sites visits) to a low of 0.1 (present on one site visit). As shown in Figure 9-66 and Figure 9-67, there was little to no variation between the presence of individual contexts and conditions during non-events (Figure 9-66) and events (Figure 9-67). The presence of clear design intent, for instance, fluctuated throughout the site visits. During non-events, the average was 0.5 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0) whereas during events, the average was 0.4 (min = 0.0 max = 1.0).

Table 9-24: Descriptive comparison of presence of statistics of site context and conditions during non-event and event site visits

| Site context and conditions | Site context and conditions – non-events Average (m) | Site context and conditions – events Average (m) | Standard deviation (SD) – non-events | Standard deviation (SD) – events | Significance (p*) |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Change | 0.5 | 0.7 | 0.47 | 0.48 | n/a |
| Clear design intent | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.48 | 0.45 | n/a |
| Constant users | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.25 | 0.32 | n/a |
| High prospect/low refuge | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.46 | 0.48 | n/a |
| Movement | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.45 | 0.46 | 0.008* |
| Natural surveillance | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.28 | 0.46 | n/a |
| Neighbourhood awareness | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.40 | 0.46 | n/a |
| Orientation | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.34 | 0.40 | n/a |
| Private–public awareness | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.00 | 0.0 | n/a |
| Restorative places | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.49 | 0.52 | 0.004* |
| Significance and value | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.25 | 0.30 | n/a |
| Social imageability | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | n/a |
| Social interaction and territoriality | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.26 | 0.30 | n/a |
| Thematic continuity | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.32 | 0.41 | n/a |
| View | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.34 | 0.40 | n/a |

*Significant at 0.01 level; n/a = no data recorded.

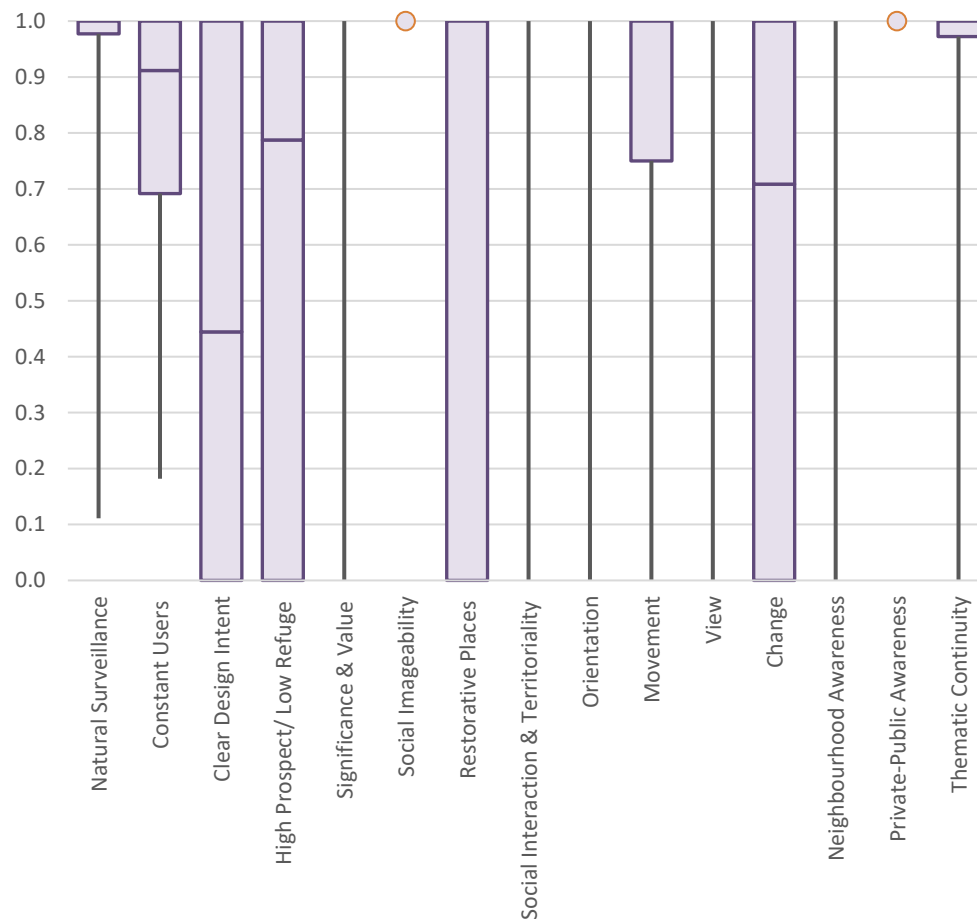


Figure 9-66: Site context and conditions (average) for non-event site visits

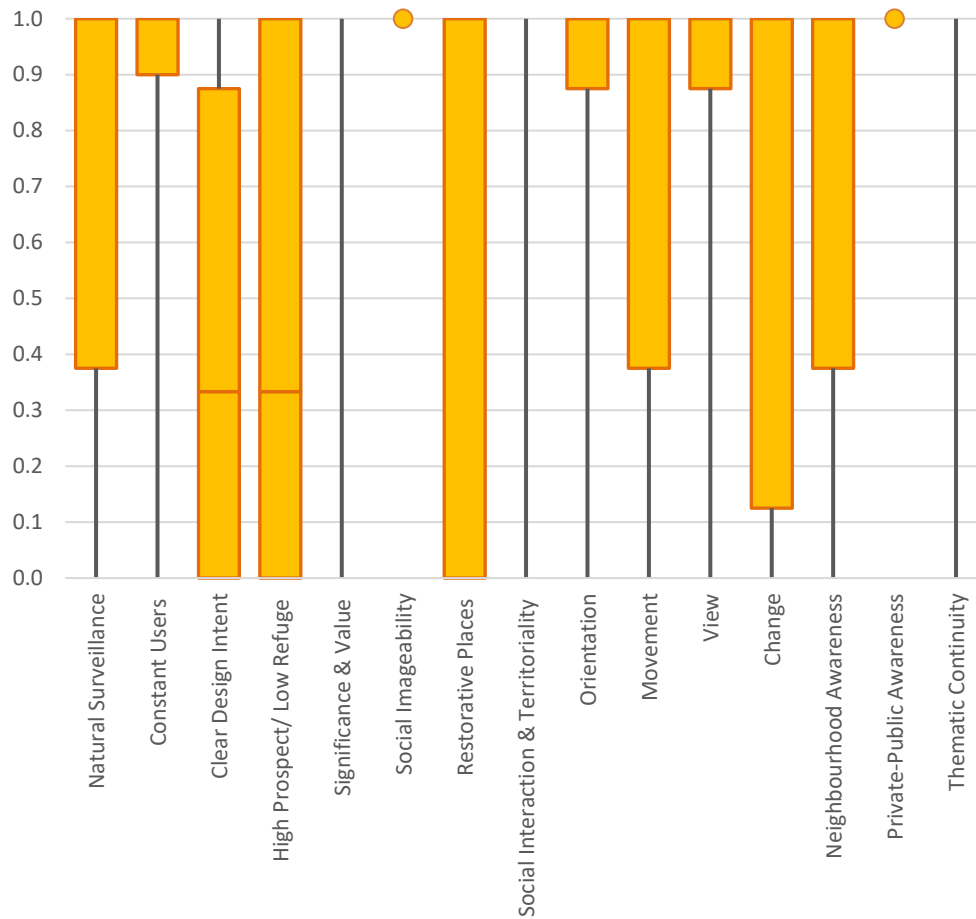


Figure 9-67: Site context and conditions (average) for event site visits

The average presence did not reflect a context and conditions trend increasing publicness of the event conditions as the previous assessment suggested.

An analysis of the site context and conditions across all site visits (153 non-event visits and 30 event visits) expressed the consistency of context and conditions in the case study sites. As shown in Table 9-24, the standard deviation, calculated to quantify the amount of variation, confirms that the presence of context and conditions was consistent across all sites with minimal to no variation of individual context and conditions between non-events and events. A lower standard deviation indicated less variation in presence recorded.

T-tests on the presence values of site context and conditions for events and non-events were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the average. The magnitude of the significance of the difference indicates the strength of the relationship between individual site context and conditions and the difference between the conditions (event and non-event) (Table 9-24). A significant difference of greater than $p < 0.01$ (Table 9-24) was noted for movement and restorative places. No other results were recorded because of minimal variation between conditions. This indicates that events did not have an influence on the presence of site context and conditions.

The DAF rating was typically higher during events. No trend or relationship between the DAF rating, the conditions and site context score and condition was noted. The site context and condition analysis does not support the conclusion in Section 9.2, suggesting that events contribute to public space.

The site context and condition with significant findings (Table 9-24) is discussed individually below. This includes the comparison with the DAF rating, which was used to determine the influence of context and conditions on publicness. The tables of average presence compared with the DAF rating for both conditions are provided in Appendix 4.B.

Movement

The analysis suggested that movement in the case study sites increased during non-events (Figure 9-68), as shown by the statistically significantly greater presence of movement within sites compared with events (Figure 9-69). The difference in average presence between conditions is most likely caused by the addition of temporary changes in site design, which alter movement through or around the case study sites.

No trends were noted for DAF rating. Therefore, the review of movement was unable to determine whether movement is an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use to guide future development and design changes. Further investigation is required to determine how or whether there is a link between movement and publicness.

Restorative places

The analysis showed that there was a statistically significant greater presence of restorative places during events. The difference in average presence between conditions is most likely caused by the temporary changes in site design options during events, such as additional seating and barriers, which change how the site functions and increase the level of comfort within the site (Figure 9-70).

No trends were noted for publicness. Therefore, the review of restorative places was unable to determine whether restorative places are an attractor, detractor or linked to increased use and whether restorative places can guide future development and design changes. Further investigation is required to determine how or whether there is a link between restorative places and publicness.



Figure 9-68: North Terrace typical movement patterns during non-event times. Movement is free-flowing, allowing pedestrians to pause, take photographs or gather. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 9-69: North Terrace during an Art Gallery of South Australia exhibition, opening with speeches, live music and performances for a 2-hour period (event conditions). The event setup diverted the typical movement patterns, pushing pedestrians to the outer edge of the site into the sun and traffic noise. (Photo by author 2019)



Figure 9-70: Example of a restorative place. The 2018 Whitmore Square/Ivarrityi community consultation provided a greater range of seating options, including rugs and tables. The placement of the additional elements changed how the site functioned and increased the level of comfort for a diversity of age groups and abilities. (Photo by author 2018)

9.6.4 Site context and conditions summary

This subsection highlighted minimal to no variation in the role of site context and conditions during the condition of non-event and event and minimal to no influence of context and conditions to the publicness of public space. The findings on site context and conditions (excluding movement and restorative places) did not provide sufficient evidence that site context and conditions are a variable in publicness. This result indicates that site context and conditions do not contribute to the publicness fluctuation of each case study site.

Further investigation is required to determine how or whether there is a link between site context and conditions and publicness and if these 15 measures can guide development and design changes.

9.7 Summary

The primary aim of this thesis was to understand the publicness of public space and how events alter the use of public space. This chapter addressed this aim by measuring the performative value (accessibility) and social exchange of public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia. The Design Assessment Framework

developed in Chapter Seven was used to collate data for an analysis of elements, surfaces, structures, activities, conditions and context for 16 sites across Adelaide at different times. Three different analyses measured differences in publicness for the selected spaces during non-event and event conditions.

The first analysis identified a publicness score for the 16 case study sites. The results indicated that the greater the diversity of public accessibility measures, the higher the DAF rating. Importantly, a review of the minimum, average and maximum DAF ratings for visits to each site indicated significant fluctuations in the presence of different publics, and therefore, the publicness of the spaces. For instance, Moonta Street consistently scored the most public space ($m = 5.58$, $\min = 4.58$, $\max = 6.75$). Rundle Street presented all public accessibility measures on one site visit ($\max = 7$), while Castle Street presented no public accessibility measures on one site visit ($\min = 0$).

The findings on public accessibility measures suggest that public spaces are not static or have an 'increasingly one-dimensional character' (Koolhaas, Sorkin & De Cauter 2007 in Avermaete & Teerds 2007, p. 36). For instance, the results for Gilles Street School suggest that there may be a link between site elements and the erosion of publicness for events creating commercial spaces. This was reflected in a low DAF rating ($m = 2.58$) and a high site element score ($m = 10.33$, $m = 9.17$, $m = 1.17$). The results support the thesis standpoint that land ownership, including temporary legal responsibility, is not a defining factor of the publicness of urban public space. The site itself—its elements and activities—have the greatest influence on publicness. There is not a lack or loss of public space but a lack of public activity appealing to diverse publics. Events can then contribute to public space by increasing the opportunity for public spaces to cater for a broader demographic representation.

The second analysis divided data into non-event and event conditions to determine how elements, surfaces, structures, activities, site conditions and context have a bearing on the DAF rating. Site elements comprise fixed and (temporarily) additional features and represent changed circumstances, accommodating more or different people. Activities are curated for a particular time. Surface, structures and context are fixed. While the results were varied, in general, the site elements and activities both had a bearing on publicness, with those linked to events contributing to greater publicness. For instance, Himeji Garden's DAF rating increased from $m = 3.42$ to $m = 6.25$, while site elements increased from $m = 0.33$ to $m = 7$ when additional elements were present. This supports the conclusion that temporary interventions within the physical space contribute to public space. Unlike elements, the findings for site surfaces and structures and context and conditions yielded minimal to no variation in the data collected for each measure, comparing event to non-event

conditions. Further investigation is required to determine how or whether there is a link between site context and conditions, context and conditions and publicness.

The third analysis reviewed the individual measures for each DAF component with regard to the DAF rating to determine whether the selected measures were variables that influence the publicness of public space. The results varied, indicating a more nuanced relationship between fixed and additional elements, necessary (site-specific) and optional (non-site-specific) activities and the publicness of public space. The findings presented a positive relationship between the independent variables of additional site elements, optional activities and publicness. This was reflected in a clear trend, indicating that temporary measures are variables associated with increased use. For instance, additional seating during events was determined to be an attractor within case study sites. Additional site elements sustained interest and increased length of stay, compared with standard layout, surfaces and context.

The analyses support claims (in previous chapters) that the design of urban landscapes influences the behaviour of users. All three analyses confirmed the temporal nature of public space presented in Chapter Three and supported the typology of publics presented in Chapter Five. By determining the DAF rating, the degrees of publicness were shown to be related to flexible design, diversity of users and diversity of activities. Case study sites with minimal temporary changes were shown to be less public.

Events are typically considered to reduce publicness but were unexpectedly shown by the statistical tests as positively contributing to public space. Further, the addition of temporary site elements, which were shown by Whyte (1998) to reduce the presence of unwanted publics, increased the diversity of public measures and so increased the overall publicness of a public space.

These results not only contribute to the wider debate about the publicness of public spaces but also have specific implications for landscape architects concerned with the design of public space. The results suggest that by focusing on activity rather than aesthetic elements of public space, opportunities are created to fundamentally change the way that public spaces operate in relation to their urban contexts.

Chapter Ten continues this discussion by presenting the outcomes of this thesis in response to the research questions and the initial hypothesis devised in the early stages of the dissertation journey. This is followed by a discussion indicating how the research contributes to more nuanced and relevant decision-making by design professionals.

Chapter Ten

Discussion:

Insights from Adelaide



Figure 10-1: Die-in activation by landscape architects during The International Festival of Landscape Architecture 2019, Main Stage, Federation Square, Melbourne Victoria. Federation Square, provides a open space for passive and active recreation, daily occupation and regular special events, contemplation and protest. (Photo by author 2019)

So, how public is public space and do events pose a threat?

A thesis typically starts with a question researched in a controlled environment with controlled conditions. Instead, this thesis started with a deceptively simple and benign sign: “Warning: You may find event equipment and patrons on the pathway” (Figure 10-2). The City of Adelaide signage raised questions about how the terms ‘public’ and ‘public space’ are defined and demanded interrogation of the question: *Do temporary events pose a threat to public space and, if so, how can Landscape Architects assess these spaces for effective design?*



Figure 10-2: Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) Adelaide, South Australia, event signage.
(Photo by author 2018)

Chapter Ten discusses the findings of the thesis and outlines what these findings mean for landscape architects. In addition, Chapter Ten addresses the commonly reported conflict between public space and private use of these spaces, such as events. It is also concerned with the inadequacy of current design theory, methodologies, techniques, and tools, used by landscape architects and others to assess public space.

The issues were addressed by the following research questions:

- Do temporary events pose a threat to public space and, if so, how can landscape architects assess these spaces for effective design?
- How public is public space?
- Is there a blurring of public and private space and what consequences does this have?
- How do temporary events affect the use of public space?
- What are the implications of temporary events for the effective design of urban public space?

- What analytical methods, techniques and tools are missing in design of public spaces?

These research questions were examined through an iterative research framework linking theory (Part A) and practice (Part B). The following sub sections discuss the outcomes of this thesis responding to the research questions and the initial hypothesis devised in the early stages of the dissertation journey.

10.1 Questioning publicness and publics

To interrogate *how public is public space* a methodical examination of the definition of public space (Chapter Two), narratives of erosion of public space (Chapter Four) and diversity of publics (Chapter Five) was undertaken in Part A. The examination was followed in Part B by an exploration of the complex interrelationship between the public (diverse users of space, recognised as a variety of 'publics') and events (both a form of limiting access and a means to increase access) at 16 case study sites.

Part A revealed a spectrum of positions, where public space debates were rarely tackled beyond a discipline's field of knowledge. Research presented surveillance and the policing of public space as a policy and governance response, with social and health benefits to characterise and argue for the accessibility of public space. Key findings of the literature review were the consistent characterisation of exclusion (marginalisation) and inclusion (belonging) based on a particular ideal of open space as free for all to use, although effectively for a limited sector of people.

The common threads in the definitions of public space were persistent assumptions of a democratic ideal and recognition there are not many spaces, today, which match that ideal. This has led to expectations for public space to be simultaneously, passive and active (Figure 10-1), capable of hosting both daily occupation and special events, resulting in a seeming loss of distinction between private and public use. As shown in Chapter Three and Chapter Nine, no single ideal public space exists, as public space depends on the nature and degree of public accessibility (publicness). Definitions of public space, therefore, are often metaphorical, describing a place where some sort of public interaction is practiced. As highlighted by Houssay-Holzschuch (De Backer et al., 2016) the use of ill-defined democratic ideals has resulted in fixed, pre-assigned identities for public space occupation, which, while powerful, are formed from limited concepts of diversity. The ideal presents a distorted reading of public space, discounting the varying degrees of legal ownership, governance, and

activation, or the changing political, social, and cultural nature of public space use.

A mis-placed appeal to a poorly defined ideal of public space, that does not properly account for and include the rich diversity of the public, is why public space is so contested. It is why people are seemingly excluded or included, and why the future of public space is lamented. Rather than rest on definitions that are critically one-dimensional and fixed, we should interrogate what activates or erodes public space. To expand the theoretical debate and to encapsulate the state of play, a new definition of public space has been proposed by this thesis.

Public space comprises social places outside the home and workplace, which are generally accessible by all members of the public, and which allow for interaction and opportunities for contact and proximity.

This definition sets aside legal ownership and focusses on the value of publicly accessible space to foster social activity and exchange. It also allows for some restriction of access. In this context, private space that generally offers public access and social exchange is as public as public space.

This thesis expanded the definition of public space beyond legal ownership and governance for two reasons. Firstly, public space debates were dominated by narratives of erosion and the loss of public rights. The debates typically presented a binary representation of public or private (magnet or menace) related to legal ownership and governance. The use of a binary schema is challenged by the literature of criminology, which suggests instead that this presents a problematic view of public space (Hayward in De Backer et al., 2016) and a polarised political position related to identity (Campbell, 2013). The concern of most authors is private spaces and exclusive activities. The reality is far more complex.

The contradictions of purpose in public space design are made clear in Part B. Many authors hold the view that the design of public spaces by architects, landscape architects and urban designers is circumscribed by representations of use that embody unacknowledged assumptions about appropriate and prohibited behaviour. Behaviour in turn is affected by the deliberate blurring of private and public uses. This further raised concerns regarding the erosion of public space, what roles landscape architects play in designing public spaces, and how landscape architects should respond to simplistic institutional briefs. Landscape architects require awareness of these challenges and a structure to design for them, particularly considering the many ways public spaces are appropriated for private activities and considering the great diversity of publics who use public space.

The emphasis on erosion of physical public space manifested by loss of access may be premature and unfounded. The extent of erosion can be understood through assessment of a space, an assessment of activities and an interrogation of who is excluded. Missing from dominant arguments is the consideration of temporary activities such as events designed to attract users to a destination for a given timeframe. The role of events raises questions of inclusion and exclusion and emphasises 'time' as an explicit factor in how to design spaces, for whom and when.

To examine the role of events further the thesis highlighted five overarching public space typologies, which offer an enduring structure to the city. The five overarching typologies of public spaces are plazas and squares, parks and gardens, streets and promenades, waterfronts, and commercial spaces. The significance of these five overarching public space typologies in urban form has been apparent from the ancient Agora in Athens to Central Park in New York City, and is continually linked to issues of territorial identity, defence, and public life (Balassiano, 2013; Charlesworth, 2005; Curtis et al., 2007; Tuan, 1979; Varnelis & Friedberg, 2008).

The second reason the definition was expanded is that public space debates did not generally acknowledge publics are diverse and in flux. Diversity of publics is associated with an understanding that publics have different relationships to place linked with the wider social context of their cultural grouping, other publics present within a particular place and the activities occurring at a particular time. An individual's behaviour and their notions of expected uses will change depending on the setting thereby amending their relationship to space and amending the typology of public they are acting within.

To further expand the theoretical debate and encapsulate the state of play, a new typology of publics has been proposed by this thesis.

New typology of publics: the defined public, the appropriating public, the transitory public and the illegitimate public

A skateboarder will change from 'defined' in skate parks to 'illegitimate' in formal plazas, and transition between the two typologies in activity hubs, which combine play and formal recreational opportunities. The negative result of the binary public and private schema is a demonization of those who are not acting in a socially defined norm in socially defined places.

Chapter Nine confirmed the importance of the typology of publics in determining the degree of public accessibility within public space. Emphasis on the diversity of *use*, not legal ownership, within the Design Assessment

Framework (DAF, discussed in 10.2), expanded the definition of public space to include some otherwise private spaces. This was highlighted in the assessment of two Commercial Spaces, Rundle Place and the Central Markets, where public accessibility increased during events (filming of television commercials and the Adelaide Fringe Festival) when transitory public's movement patterns were maintained. The assessment showed that publicness was an outcome of flexible design, diversity of users and diversity of activities. In this scenario the distinction between private and public was temporary.

This finding not only contributes to the wider debate about the publicness of public spaces, but also has specific implications for landscape architects concerned with the effective design of public space (discussed 10.4). In this thesis, effective design is the enhancement of public access and social activity, which facilitates publicness. For landscape architects this means a fundamental rethinking of the distinction of public and private spaces. The adoption of the proposed public space definition and typology of public challenge simple binary ideas of public and private space and offer a more detailed way to assess public space.

The opening image of an event sign stating "Warning: You may find event equipment and patrons on the pathway" is one example that supports this conclusion (Figure 10-2). The simple and benign wording – warning and patron – juxtaposed with the space (Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19)) and the activity being referenced (free, non-ticketed public celebration of the reopening of the Park's Activity Hub) temporarily transformed the public park to an exclusive, regulated space of negotiation and potential conflict. As identified in Chapter Four, exclusive activities can be overt (paid events, legible ownership and regulation via policies and signage to control or prohibit access and behaviour) or subtle (free events, small footprints, and temporary change of use such as personal training in a park). Overt and subtle activities were noted during this event, resulting in an ambiguous distinction between private and public space with free activities (live music, speeches) and commercial offerings (food trucks, face painting) specifically selected to draw a crowd for the duration and encourage the crowd to leave promptly at its conclusion. In this instance the consequence of a diminished distinction between private and public was of no concern and the private activities were of benefit to a greater diversity of people that would normally occupy the space. Again, this is supported by findings in Chapter Nine, which suggested that when exclusive activities within public space are subtle, fluctuate or are within a defined period, the consequences of limiting public access are minimal and may in fact be positive.

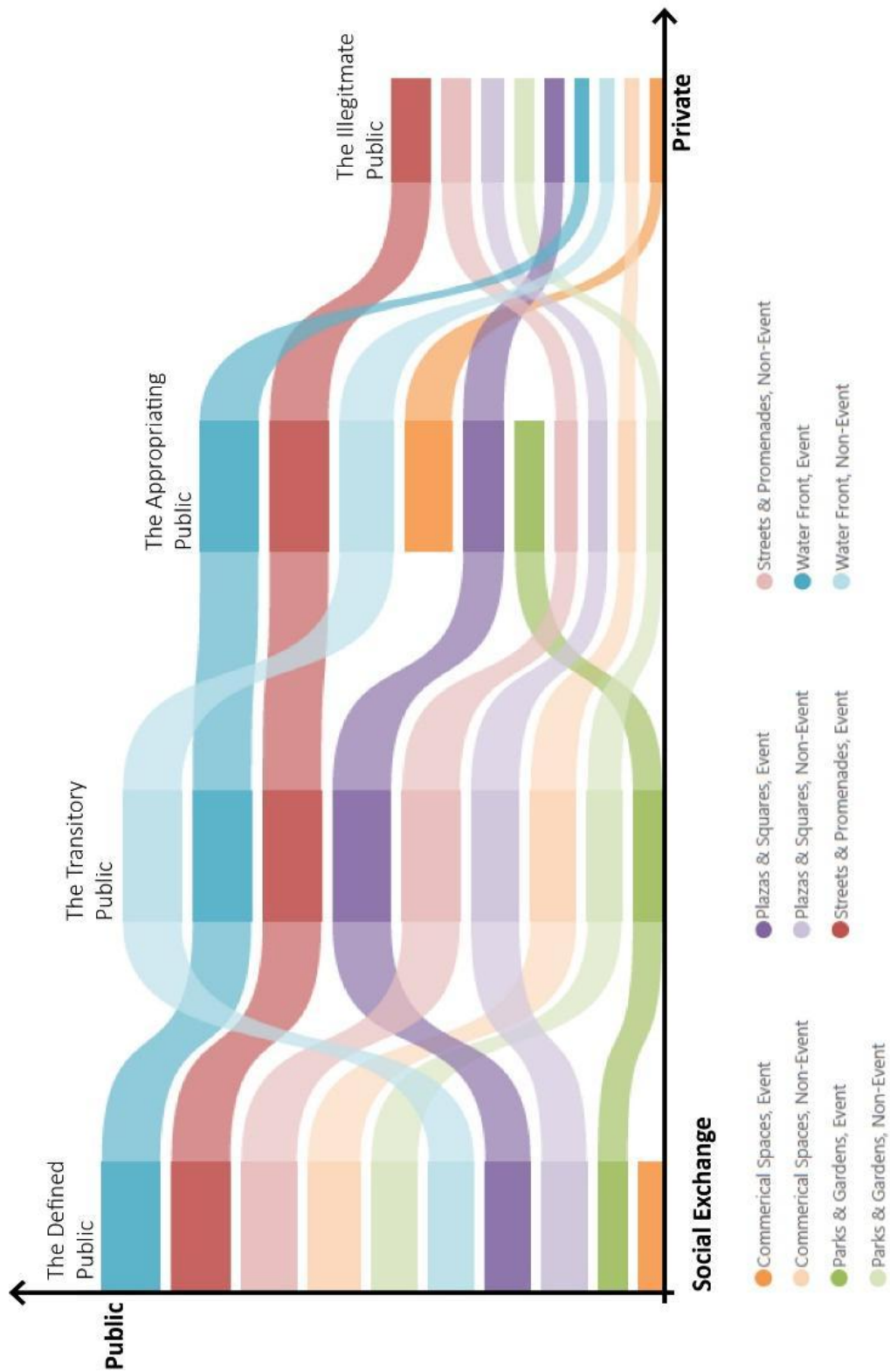


Figure 10-3: Spectrum of Publicness. Representation of the publicness of public space as an outcome of public and private social exchange influenced through the presence of events and in recognition of the typology of publics.

The findings show that the publicness of public space is a spectrum (Figure 10-3) and not an absolute. The spectrum accommodates shifting degrees of publicness through varying forms of temporary activation and public accessibility. Accessibility and publicness are not determined by the deliberate inclusion of specific users at a particular time, and events are not necessarily a method of ongoing exclusion. Rather, accessibility and publicness are directly related to the temporal nature of spatial occupation and events can foster diversity, interaction, and community engagement as an outcome of social exchange.

If, as shown in this thesis, publicness is an outcome of *use* by a *range of publics*, landscape architects are in a pivotal position to effectively influence public space design when faced with balancing the demands of clients and the public. While landscape architects may need to design sites that are recognisable examples of expected models of public space, they have an obligation and role to increase the diversity of users through generating new possibilities for social exchange. Those who do not recognise or acknowledge the spectrum of publicness contribute to a legacy of poorly designed public spaces that may be public in name but not in function.

10.2 Improving assessment methods

To improve the publicness of public space, various analytical methods, techniques, and tools used by landscape architects were reviewed (Chapter Six). The review highlighted that approaches to assessing public space were limited. In particular, a new methodological approach that positioned events in the context of a growing calendar of temporary activities was required. In addition, the thesis highlighted that available approaches were fragmented and only provided findings within a narrowly defined study and site context. The lack of assessment methods for public space, that include temporary events and activities, is a weakness for landscape architecture where contemporary public space is a response to simplistic institutional brief requirements emphasising budgets, politics, or aesthetics.

In response, this thesis developed and presented the Design Assessment Framework (DAF) in Chapter Seven. The DAF provides pre- and post-design assessment as a guide for alternative design strategies and policy formation for publicly accessible landscapes by two means. The first is to comprehensively capture and assess elements of the existing environment. The second is to introduce a new tool for measuring the degree of publicness in public space. Its point of difference is benchmarking overall publicness by the positioning of the user as the key element in the definition of public space - *social places outside*

the home and workplace generally accessible by all members of the public, and which allow for interaction and opportunities for contact and proximity.

Used in Chapter Nine, the DAF measured the publicness of public spaces in 16 public spaces in Adelaide, South Australia. The findings are significant as they revealed a nuanced relationship between fixed and additional elements, necessary (site specific) and optional (non-site specific) activities, and the publicness of public space. The key findings include:

- No case study site revealed a consistent DAF rating. There were significant fluctuations in the presence of different publics between site visits and therefore the publicness of the spaces;
- Most sites demonstrated temporary interventions, such as additional seating provided by food vendors during events, were attractors as they increased length of stay, compared to standard layout, surfaces and context. For instance, Himeji Garden's DAF rating increased from $m=3.42$ to $m=6.25$ and site elements increased from $m=0.33$ to $m=7$ when additional elements were present, supporting the conclusion that temporary interventions within the physical space can positively contribute to public space; and
- Most sites revealed a positive relationship between optional activities, additional elements, and publicness, as shown by a clear trend indicating temporary measures are variables associated with increased use. Additional beverage and food, lighting, public art, seating, and security presence were variables associated with increased use and publicness in all sites except Commercial Spaces.

The pool of data analysed in Chapter Nine not only provides landscape architects with an appreciation of how, and why different publics are attracted to or avoid spaces, it also shows publicness is positively related to flexible design, diversity of users and diversity of activities, emphasising that public spaces are not static. In doing so, the DAF offered a way to systematically compile data necessary for effective design, not a standardised list of elements to be included in all public spaces. Effective design (discussed 10.4) requires an understanding of context, data on who is using the site, data on activities, and data on site elements, surfaces, and structures.

The DAF provided the acknowledgment of diversity, and significant insights into a recent project of the Author's: the development of Morton Road Sports and Community Hub, Christie Downs. This project is a collaboration of the City of Onkaparinga, the local community, state government, commonwealth government and the Roger Rasheed Sports Foundation to transform a reserve perceived negatively because of security and safety issues into an active sports and recreation hub. The initial design brief was to deliver a skate park (Figure

10-4) and multi-use tennis courts for the Roger Rasheed Sports Foundation's free sports coaching and mentoring programs for children from disadvantaged backgrounds.

However, the application of the DAF found the brief should be expanded to increase the diversity of publics who frequent the site and facilitate opportunities for informal positive social exchange. Further, a missing need was highlighted and resulted in the proposed installation of lighting and direct paths of travel required for those who transitioned through the site after hours. As a result, the built outcome, scheduled late 2021, will include activity nodes such as playspaces (junior and youth), entertainment hubs (bbq) and passive areas (seating, walking paths, open space) designed for flexibility and to allow a diversity of temporary activities and formal events to occur.



Figure 10-4: Morton Road Skate Park in construction. (Photo by author 2021)

To determine the success of the development the City of Onkaparinga would typically undertake a post-occupancy evaluation consisting of pedestrian and traffic counts. Because of the Author's involvement, the DAF will be applied post design to assess the social outcome of the development and determine if the change of brief increased the reserve's publicness by attracting a diversity

of users and facilitating positive social exchange, thus influencing the perceptions of the reserve. The findings from pre and post design assessments will be incorporated into the City of Onkaparinga's design brief and open space framework (policy document) to emphasise to roles of users in decision making.

Landscape architects can and should build on data from previous site assessments to enable effective design and expand institutional briefs. Building on previous site assessment is applicable for new developments, such as Morton Road, or redevelopments, such as the Hajek Plaza, a missed opportunity reflected upon in 10.5. The successful integration of the DAF into practice will be subject to landscape architects' willingness to acknowledge the temporary nature of many activities by different users. How the DAF contributes to landscape architectural practice is further outlined in Chapter Eleven.

10.3 Events are opportunities not threats

To interrogate whether *temporary events pose a threat to public space* a methodical examination of public space (Chapter Three), narratives of erosion (Chapter Four) and diversity of publics (Chapter Five) was undertaken in Part A. The examination was followed by Part B, which explored the role of events and showed that the answer is not straightforward and cannot be quantified by a percentage. Part B demonstrated that the answer must consider that public space is in a constant state of change, created through a nuanced relationship between the public, fixed, and additional elements, necessary (site specific) and optional (non-site specific) activities. This relationship is why public spaces are significant areas of social interaction, conflict, research, and debate and why events are opportunities and not threats to publicness.

Public space debates can assume a simplistic ideal of public space. Neither '*free*' nor '*all*' need to be consistent attributes. Public spaces have a long history of contest created by activation, events, marketing, and privatisation, resulting in times of exclusion and times of social cohesion or celebration. How the degrees and forms of contest evolve and fluctuate, highlight the ways public spaces are used by different publics, who are also in flux, changing from one typology, such as the defined public, to another, such as the illegitimate public, because of their chosen activity.

In response, this thesis focused on performance, social value, and activation of public space. This allowed for a deeper investigation into the concept of accessibility, recognising a spectrum of publicness. Accessibility was tested by an analysis of events as they foster a unique category of timed and temporary

social exchange. The ability of events to be variously public and private is a result of the inconspicuous and self-evident nature of public space, being simultaneously a magnet and menace. The magnet, to reiterate, is the invitation and freedom for all to experience space and take part in social exchange. The menace is activation that temporarily impedes publicness and controls behaviour, often depicted as exclusion and privatisation.

Chapter Nine, considered in relation to the literature examined, showed that the influence of events on public spaces is a result of how the space is temporarily modified. The study of 16 public spaces in Adelaide demonstrated that events were a positive influence on public space through the provision of temporary change and activation. This conclusion was the same for events labelled as private or public. Some sites promoted cross-over activities such as education and play with markets (seen at Gilles Street School), some temporarily limited access during sporting events, music festivals or cultural events (seen at Elder Park, Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26), others provided a spectacle such as art exhibitions, engagements or weddings (seen at Himeji Gardens), or provided entertainment such as street parties (seen at Moonta Street), or family gatherings such as birthday parties (seen at Glover Playground). Regardless of various forms of temporary restrictions to access or use, these sites all increased in publicness during the events observed as they increased the number and diversity of publics present.

The typology of publics identified in this thesis was used to measure whether temporary events were threats or opportunities. As the case studies demonstrated, competing demands between the defined, appropriating, transitory or illegitimate publics could coexist when activities were temporary. Events provided opportunities for competing demands and publics to coexist.

Within Adelaide there are numerous public spaces, owned and governed by local government for the public, which illustrate that events are a positive influence on public space. Five examples are presented below.

Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19), introduced at the start of this thesis, is a traditional park and garden. Its redesign as a community recreation hub emphasised an opportunity for temporary commercial activities (events) to diversify user groups and increase length of stays. The outcome included power bollards for events, hardstand areas for food trucks and marquees, and policy change allowing public areas to be booked for temporary private activities. These items were seamlessly integrated with traditional park and garden elements such as play equipment, picnic tables and shelters. The integration allowed for overt events such as the community opening (Chapter One) and subtle events such as birthday parties and bike tours to occur simultaneously. Within Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) non-commercial activities such as freely

meeting family and friends continued and in some instances were enhanced during events.

Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26), one of the case study sites, is a traditional waterfront and preeminent public space in Adelaide, designated for large events. Its design is open, simple with minimal infrastructure or fixed amenities. Events held are diverse, drawing specific publics such as personal training sessions and corporate cup (annual running and walking event) without alienating regular users. It also hosts large community and cultural events such as the annual Adelaide Festival concert series, which displaces regular users for a defined period. The series includes such offerings as the *Neil Finn free open-air concert* (Figure 10-5) and the *Summerhouse* (Figure 10-6) representing two different event opportunities.



Figure 10-5: Neil Finn free open-air concert in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) as part of the 2017 Adelaide Festival. (Photo by author 2017)



Figure 10-6: The Summerhouse in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) as part of the 2021 Adelaide Festival. The venue hosted music concerts and a free entry bar with views of the park land. (Photo by author 2021)

These two events had different reliance on commercial activities to attract publics and two different degrees of site modification. The Neil Finn event used the spectacle of a concert and his celebrity to attract and engage diverse publics. The event allowed attendees to bring their own food and drink, with more available for purchase. There was no age limit and no pre-purchased seating. The event layout kept movement patterns open for transitory publics and defined publics around the site, did not actively exclude illegitimate publics and welcomed the appropriating publics. The Summerhouse attracted diverse publics through a combination of free activities (Breakfast with Papers) and restricted entry activities (Vinyl Destination). The activities welcomed appropriating publics while alienating regular users and excluding illegitimate publics. The event was primarily for those over 15, outside food and drink was not permitted, and all activities were seated. The commonalities between these two events were the celebration of community and encouragement of diverse positive social exchange. The events, both well attended, provided an opportunity for those who would not normally visit Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) to venture to the precinct and engage with other publics. Unlike Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) non-commercial activities such as freely meeting family and friends did not continue and were not enhanced during events.

The Fork in the Road - *The Forkening - Unley-sh Your Hunger!* – held at Orphanage Park Millswood (Figure 10-7) and *the Bowden Fringe* held at Bowden Park (Figure 10-8) are further examples of events organised for community entertainment centred around the inclusion of commercial activities. Both were held in traditional public spaces, designed for passive recreation and family gatherings. The events were marketed as community initiatives and programmed as hubs of activity with free entertainment (face painting, lawn games, buskers) and ticketed entertainment (fringe shows, magicians). The sites were temporarily modified to include additional seating, bins and shelters, while still allowing for transitory publics to move through the space. Both events were well attended, with many users bringing their own blankets, chairs and games. The mix of activities and site elements diversified user groups, encouraged interaction, and encouraged the public to linger. Similar to Pelzer Park/Pityarilla (Park 19) non-commercial activities such as freely meeting family and friends continued and in some instances were enhanced during events.



Figure 10-7: Fork in the Road - The Forkening - Unley-sh Your Hunger! – held at Orphanage Park Millswood. The event ran from 11am-4pm and featured a variety of new and old food trucks, drinks, free kids entertainment and live music. (Photo by author 2019)



Figure 10-8: Bowden Fringe at Bowden Park included a program of entertainment, with a mix of free and ticketed activities for the Bowden Community, live music, family entertainment, Fringe shows, food trucks, local wines and craft beer tasting, alongside the commercial activities of Plant 4 markets. (Photo by author 2019)

The events discussed above were complementary to existing uses (recreation, gathering and entertainment), temporary and promoted as accessible for all. They were planned to attract a crowd and to disperse the crowd when events concluded. Once the events were concluded, all sites reverted to their regular function as community hubs for recreation for which they were designed. They demonstrated how events can increase publicness by providing a series of activities that could be engaged with separately and independently of each other, forming an overall event of many social activities. The importance of these examples lies in the generation of new social exchange, even temporarily, where it might not otherwise occur.

If, as shown in this thesis, events are opportunities and not threats to public space, landscape architects are in a pivotal position to effectively influence public space design by accommodating formal activities proposed by clients

and informal activities by diverse publics. The influence lies in a more varied and inclusive consideration of how public space might be used and an acknowledgment that increasing the diversity of users generates new possibilities for social exchange. This approach contributes to the discourse of contemporary landscape architecture, from the policy and management focus of local governments to the design perspective of private practice.

This does not mean landscape architects should explicitly design and plan for events nor promote policy that mandates all spaces facilitate events. Rather landscape architects have an obligation to advocate for better design and inclusive public spaces that are public in function and name. In doing so, landscape architects should promote the opportunities events provide to bring the community together for positive social exchange.

While there is much concern about threats to public spaces, a more pressing concern should be that we are not attracting diverse people to public space in the first place, and this should be a designer's logical first focus for effective design. Without this first step *how public* may be a moot point.

10.4 The DAF for effective design

To provide guidance for effective design, a clear definition of *effective* is required. In response, the following definition has been offered.

Public space design which enhances public access and activity, facilitating publicness through the promotion of diverse user experience, diverse site conditions and diverse site elements.

This definition acknowledges the importance of diversity. The definition expands on the generalised assumptions and models of successful public space, outlined in Chapter Four, typically used to celebrate built outcomes. Successful public space design, as stated in the literature reviewed, is often determined by a simplistic idea of accessibility, and characterised by range of components and perceptual qualities (Table 4-2). The difference between effective and successful is the acknowledgement of the nuanced relationship between the diverse public, site elements and activities discussed above.

If, as shown in this thesis, publicness is an outcome of *use* by a *range of publics*, landscape architects should focus on *effective* design rather than *successful* design. This focus will influence public space design, from site feasibility studies and community consultation through to post occupancy assessments. The focus is applicable for speculative design, design strategies and policy

formation for publicly accessible landscapes, in education, public and private practice sectors.

The DAF is ideal for guiding effective design as it offers data driven pre- and post-design assessments. The contribution of the DAF include:

- Provision of data to supplement, debunk or support site specific perspectives of use;
- Provision of clear evidence of existing spatial site use, which can be used as a foundation for conversations during community consultation and design review;
- Provision of cost effective and targeted site analysis and site investigation, providing clear data to understand site context and users;
- Provision of data for feasibility analysis, and modelling allowing examination of speculative design and development proposals to determine if or how proposed new facilities could be beneficial to the performative value of the site;
- Provision of data to scope change and inform design briefs to ensure access and equity is achieved promoting social exchange;
- Provision of data to inform place planning and grant applications;
- Provision of clear evidence of use for strategies and planning policies, enabling benchmarking, targets for ongoing review;
- Provision of a transferable system of measurement, to enable detailed review of city-wide public spaces to assist in forecasting expenditure and creating works programs to ensure diverse spaces are created and maintained;
- Facilitated and increased knowledge transfer between built environment research, education, governance, and practice;
- Provide data to improve site and research documentation;
- Provide data documenting change in a public space over time as a before and after survey; and
- Provision of post-occupancy data to evaluate what is working well and provide a evidence base for future improvements.

The contributions, outlined above, include key examples of possible wide-ranging applications. In summary, the DAF guides effective design by providing a reliable data driven tool to assess temporary activities and a means to understand how to increase the diversity of publics using public space. By providing a data driven foundation for critical and speculative design, landscape architects can explore the many ways that a site might enable and encourage co-habitation of diverse publics within a site at the same time and over time in regular cycles of various lengths. This exploration will minimise controversy or misunderstandings created by too-simplistic ideas of public accessibility. The application of the DAF is an opportunity for landscape architects to influence public space, champion publicness and become built environment leaders.

10.5 Public space reflections

Landscape architects are in a pivotal position to influence the effective design of public space and create richer spaces, rather than a division of public and private. The redevelopment of Hajek Plaza into Adelaide Festival Plaza is a missed opportunity where landscape architects could, and should have, unravelled the spectrum of publicness to build on the interrelationship between the public and temporary events.

Hajek Plaza, one of the case study sites explored in this thesis (Figure 10-9), was a 1977 collaboration between Hassell and Partners and Czech-born sculptor Otto Hajek entitled the 'City Sign' (SA Memory, 2003; South Australia Government, 2016). The plaza was to be a modern garden and sculpture used as a meeting place, for entertainment, and for public enjoyment. The design was heavily criticised from its unveiling and never fulfilled Otto Hajek's vision (Langford, 2019). The modernist outdoor space was out of place in Adelaide's green urban fabric and as shown in the case study data (Chapter Nine) rarely attracted users unless an event was held. The space was too hot in summer, too glary in winter, vibrated when heavy vehicles used the underground parking and road network, flooded during large rain events, contained no wayfinding, and held no amenity despite the artwork.



**Figure 10-9: Hajek Plaza as designed by Otto Hajek.
(Photo by author 2014)**

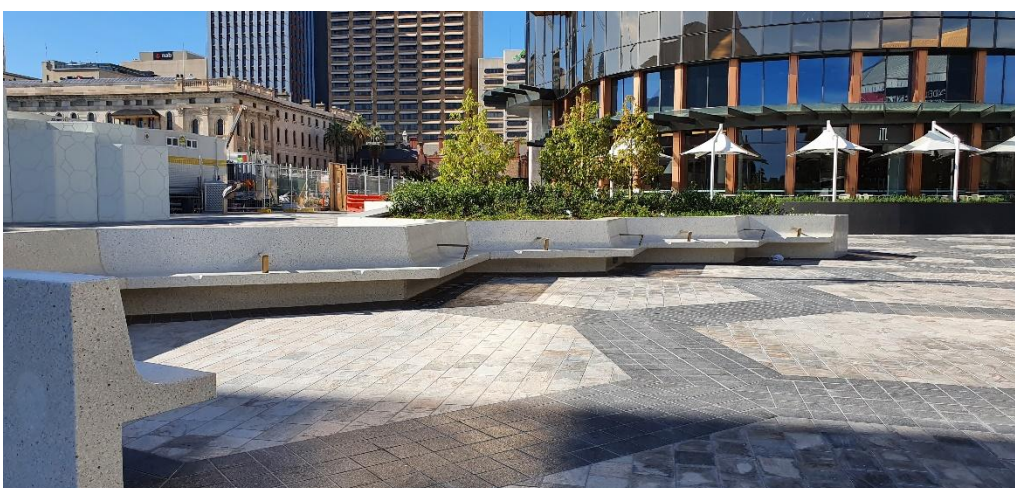
In 2015 Renewal SA, a South Australian State Government Department, announced plans to redevelop Hajek Plaza into Adelaide Festival Plaza. Their vision was to create a “world-class destination and the heart of the Adelaide Riverbank's core entertainment precinct” to “establish a world-class meeting space that all South Australians can be proud of and will want to spend time in” (South Australia Government, 2019). With an estimated budget of \$900 million the redevelopment, once complete, will include the upgrade of the Festival Theatre, a new public square, a 27-storey office tower, carpark, retail space and the proposed SKYCITY Casino expansion (Cheng, 2016; Gameng, n.d; South

Australia Government, 2019). \$760 million was committed by private developers, namely the Walker corporation and SKYCITY. \$220 million was committed for the festival plaza upgrade.

The 2015 concept design was developed by ARM Architecture and landscape architecture consultants Taylor Cullity Lethlean in collaboration with the Adelaide Festival Centre's architectural consultants Hassell (Figure 10-10). The designs have altered with Adelaide based landscape architecture firms including Oxigen and Aspect Studios involved in the strategy, planning, design and documentation of select work packages. To date three work packages have been completed, namely a new tram line and stop, and the riverbank promenade to ensure public accessibility to the Festival Theatre during construction.



**Figure 10-10: Adelaide Festival Plaza Concept design 2015
(Image credit South Australian Government, 2019)**



**Figure 10-11: Adelaide Festival Plaza stage 1 of the redevelopment open to the public.
(Photo by author 2021)**

The aspirations of the 1977 design and the 2015 concept design are the same. Both proposed to create a space for public gatherings and events, be the centrepiece of a revitalised arts culture, and provide leisure space for city

workers (Figure 10-11). The difference is the execution and materiality. The 1977 design included the hardscape of a traditional Mediterranean plaza that emphasised form and function, with Otto Hajek's geometric concrete sculptures acting as the key attractor to invite the public to linger. The 2015 design represents recent landscape architectural trends with the inclusion of water features, shade and planted arbours covering up to a third of the plaza, and outdoor rooms reducing the scale of the space. The 2015 concept proposes retail activities and free WiFi access as means to invite the public to "linger and embrace the Adelaide climate" (South Australia Government, 2019), characterised by hot, dry summers and mild, wet winters.

The controversy of the plaza design continues. Unlike the 1977 commentary, which focused on the design and aesthetics of the landscape, the 2015 and ongoing commentary has focused on the private development and partnerships established for the project to proceed. Recent design concerns also have a commercial slant with the Adelaide Festival Centre, Adelaide Casino and Adelaide Venue Management stating the plaza area is inadequate to safely stage large events because of unnecessary and obstructive design features (AdelaideNow, 2019). We will need to wait until late 2021 to see if the public reacts to the redevelopment in the same manner as they did for Otto Hajek's proposal.

The missed opportunity for landscape architects and for Adelaide Festival Plaza was the acknowledgement of a spectrum of publicness and the careful consideration of how the proposed public and private uses could interact and overlap to create seamless publicly accessible space. By acknowledging that the distinction between public and private is in a constant state of flux the plaza could be opened to a diversity of users. Further, design for inclusion of temporary event activities to facilitate moments of social exchange for a wider diversity of publics is required to meet the 2015 concept design aspiration. This is of importance as the proposed mixed uses include competing stakeholders (office tower, government agencies, festival centre and casino) and competing publics (transitory and defined) attracted to and through the public functions (outdoor rooms for the arts, cultural and leisure spaces).

An acknowledgment of the diversity of publics is imperative when open space is at a premium in the context of urbanisation, population growth and climate change. The challenge to landscape architects will be accommodating diversity and encouraging positive social interaction in a plaza marketed as a site of spectacle. The approach of landscape architects to ongoing re-design of public space will increase public accessibility and foster sustainable spaces increasing amenity, safety, and liveability.

Chapter Eleven

Concluding reflections

Figure 11 - 1: Neil Finn free open-air concert in Elder Park (Stella Bowen Park/Tarntanya Wama, Park 26) as part of the 2017 Adelaide Festival. (Photo by author 2017)



Chapter Eleven summarises the contributions of the research, and directions for further research. The thesis concludes by reflecting upon the current state of play of public space and providing an afterword reflecting on the importance of public space.

11.1 Contribution of the research

This thesis sought to expand the theoretical debate regarding the publicness of public space to the discipline of landscape architecture. In doing so, it recognised a need to develop resources and frameworks with practical applications for education, and the public (government) and private (practice) sectors.

This work contributes to wider debates about the publicness of public spaces, offering a new definition of public space, a new typology of publics and the Design Assessment Framework (DAF) to assess public spaces for effective design.

The new definition of public space encapsulates current concerns, focussing on the value of publicly accessible space to foster social activity and exchange.

The typology of publics—the defined public, appropriating public, transitory public and illegitimate public—outlined in Chapter Five recognises the diversity of publics in public space and acknowledges that this diversity cannot be predicted or controlled. In proposing the typology, the thesis has contributed to theoretical debates and education through examining who is public and why all users should be considered public.

The emphasis on a user typology highlighted the gap in knowledge, identified in Chapter Seven, regarding public space frameworks and assessments. The DAF addresses this gap and provides a data-driven integrated approach to measure public spaces and assess publicness. Its point of difference is in the positioning of the public as the key element in the proposed definition of public space.

By emphasising publics instead of legal ownership, this thesis has recognised a link between activation, design and management of public spaces, concluding events can positively contribute to the accessibility of public space by increasing the opportunity for public spaces to cater to a broad representation of the public or many publics. The emphasis on public also contributes to education through providing a data driven foundation for critical and speculative design. Further, it provides an important and timely counter point to the majority voice presenting narratives of erosion of public space. This

counter point allows landscape architects to explore the many ways in which a site might enable and encourage co-habitation of diverse publics within a site, both at the same time and over time, in regular cycles of various lengths.

The focus on activity and providing more variously used and valued open space generates opportunities for fundamentally changing the way that public spaces operate. The DAF facilitates knowledge transfer between built environment research, practice and governance bodies, bridging the gap between theory, design and management. In doing so, the thesis has contributed to the role of landscape architects by providing a reliable tool to assess temporary activities and a means to assess how to increase the diversity of publics using public space.

11.2 Directions for further research

As the thesis developed and data were analysed, several study areas were highlighted by the researcher that would benefit from additional research and testing. Further research opportunities include:

- in-depth testing of the DAF in other Australian and international cities to assess transferability of the framework and further challenge the definition of publics and public space;
- focus on public space typologies that were beyond the scope of this thesis, such as memorial gardens and grounds, show grounds and state and national parks;
- in-depth analysis of events that are long term—over one month in duration—and permanent forms of private activities. Example events include Tree Climb Adelaide, the Adelaide Fringe Festival Garden of UnEarthly Delights and Superloop Adelaide;
- in-depth analysis of commercial settings that rely on public attendance and market themselves as public. Example locations include the Adelaide Zoo, Museums and Art Galleries;
- addressing cultural appropriation of space and illegitimate users through questions of public space exclusivity;
- in-depth testing to confirm how adaptable the DAF is to non-academic assessment environments and everyday practice; and
- addressing the effects of natural disasters and interruptions to expected lifestyles such as those caused by the coronavirus epidemic (COVID-19, which occurred during the finalisation of this thesis) on the use of public space and diversity of publics within public space during times of social isolation or enforced limitations to access.

11.3 Conclusion

This thesis expected to find that events transformed public spaces into exclusive spaces represented by loss of public diversity. Instead, the findings highlighted that a new approach to the definition of 'public space' and 'public' was required. The thesis identified that no single ideal public space exists. Publicness is a spectrum reflecting diversity of users and diversity of activities, which can be enabled by flexible or otherwise considered design. Events can foster diversity. This encourages interaction, community engagement and social exchange.

The thesis has emphasised the importance of temporary activity in the provision of public space, which is an acknowledgment of complexity in providing inclusive social space. This emphasis positions the public as the defining factor of publicness. Further, the findings suggest that there is not an erosion of public space, but a lack of positive social activity, concluding that events can positively contribute by increasing the opportunity of public spaces to cater for a broader demographic representation.

The findings of the thesis call for nuanced attention to public space and highlight the need for a more effective assessment of public space that considers the temporal nature of social exchange. The developed typology of publics and the DAF offers an effective tool for landscape architects to assess how and why different publics are attracted to different public spaces. This same framework demonstrates that temporary events are not necessarily a threat to the public accessibility (publicness) of space and may increase it.

An acknowledgement of change, and the spectrum of publicness (refer 10.3), has specific implications for landscape architects concerned with the effective design of public space and places them in an influential position through questioning and recognising the complex relationships between public and private within urban public spaces. As designers of public space, they must concede they work within a complicated landscape where all choices are open to public scrutiny and shifting priorities for use. Landscape architects could, and should, unravel the spectrum of publicness, as they have the training to recognise the importance of place and the skills to encapsulate the importance of place through design. With an acknowledgment of the spectrum of publicness (Figure 10-3) and the tools to demonstrate this to others through clear assessment of sites and site use, landscape architects can create richer places for the public to interact.

Whether working in government (public sector) or as consultant (private sector) the DAF can help landscape architects, deliver better design and management of public spaces. The position of landscape architects in local or

state government bring with it influence that can improve institutional briefs and regulatory planning instruments, or create strategic directions or documents, style guides or design principles, that advocate for and support better design.

The new typology of publics and the DAF are the means for landscape architects to assess public spaces for implementation of a spectrum of inclusivity. This positive perspective dispenses with awkward justifications of designs for an ill-defined and increasingly irrelevant division of public and private space in the evolving, rich and complex open spaces of our cities.

Welcome, a spectrum of Publicly Accessible Spaces Ahead!

Figure 11-2: Chalk art around the City of Unley created as a way for neighbours to connect during lockdowns. (Photo by author 2020)



11.4 Afterword

This thesis started with the assumption that public space should be accessible for all. This assumption shaped my practice and pushed me to investigate how public is public space. The analysis presented in the preceding chapters represented a controlled study environment and concluded that the publicness of public space is a spectrum and not an absolute. What I was not expecting was that events in 2020 and 2021 would provide an opportunity to observe the nuances of this spectrum while I was finalising my thesis.

The World Health Organisation declared a worldwide public health emergency of international concern on 30 January 2020 and a worldwide pandemic of the coronavirus disease 2019, commonly known as COVID-19, on 11 March 2020 (WHO 2020). From 21 March 2020, measures including physical distancing laws (social distancing) and border closures were progressively put in place to protect South Australians and flatten the COVID-19 curve (South Australia Government 2020; SA Health 2020). At the height of the measures—between 27 March and 11 May 2020—unprecedented restrictions for gatherings were put in place. People were discouraged from using public spaces such as skate parks (Figure 11-5) and playgrounds (Figure 11-6), with many council’s deciding to temporarily close or restrict access to them. Live entertainment venues also closed. Restaurants and pubs became takeaway only, with popular outdoor dining streets emptied (Figure 11-7). Fines were issued to those breaching physical distancing laws and COVID -19 restrictions.

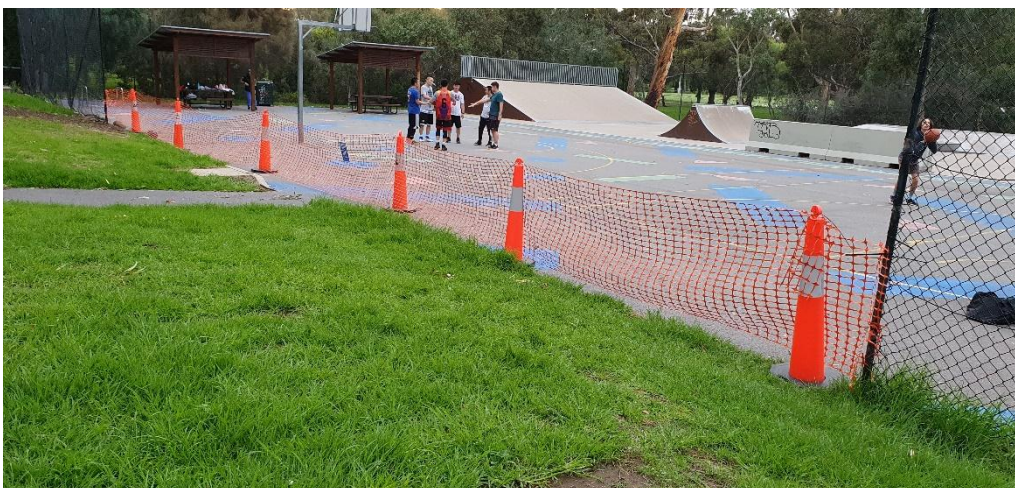


Figure 11-3: King Rodney Park/Ityamai-Itpina (Park 15) Skatepark. Barrier installed by the City of Adelaide to temporarily close the skate park to protect the health of residents. (Photo by author 2020)



Figure 11-4: King Rodney Park/Ityamai-Itpina (Park 15) Glover East Playspace. Signage installed by the City of Adelaide to temporarily close the playspace to protect the health of residents. (Photo by author 2020)

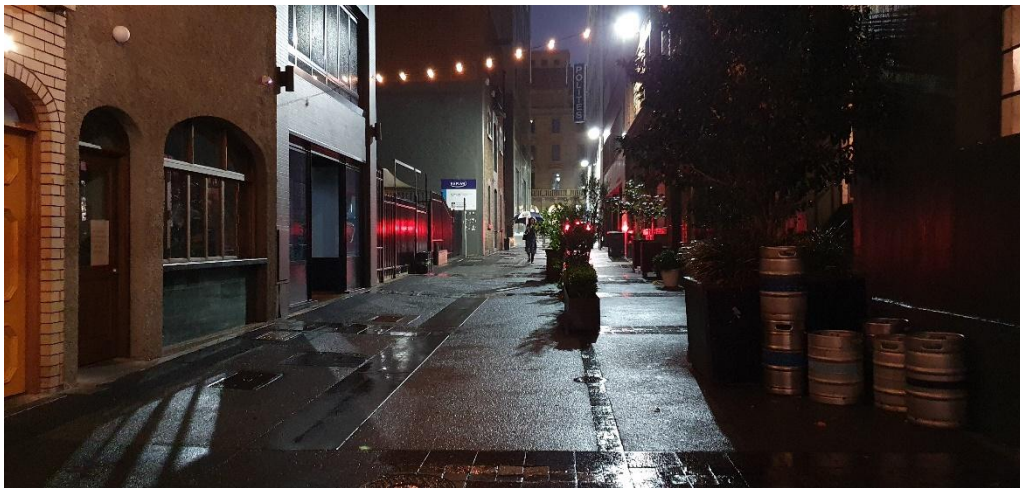


Figure 11-5: Peel Street transformation from a busy outdoor dining venue on a Friday night to an empty street. (Photo by author 2020)



Figure 11-6: Chalk Art around the City of Unley created as a way for neighbours to connect and interact. (Photo by author 2020)

The emphasis on social distancing had a profound and immediate impact, changing the atmosphere of Adelaide overnight. As restrictions escalated, the overlooked significance of public spaces in our daily lives became news items, opinion pieces and a visual representation of the pandemic. Walls and Walliss (2020), Klinenberg (2020), Walker (2020), Suricio (2020), Kling (2020), Tovey (2020), Butler-Bowdon (2020) and Iveson (2020), Honey-Rosés et. al (2020) Alter (2020) Florida (2020) Null and Smith (2020) Roberts (2020) and van der Ber (2020) are a few of many planners, designers, architects, landscape managers and journalists who contributed to a wide discussion of the effect of COVID-19 and public space. The discussions primarily centred on right of access, creeping commercialisation and what will be the long-term impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on public space once the restrictions have been lifted. Many authors questioned if a fundamental 'change will be created for our relationship with public space and presented a fear that our sense of place and space may be permanently transformed' and an 'uncertainty about how COVID-19 will impact future public space design' (Honey-Rosés et al. 2020, p. 2). The same arguments have been presented in the preceding chapters in which this thesis provided a counter point, COVID-19 just replaced erosion in the debate.

An acknowledgement of the performative value and social context—core of the thesis argument—of public accessible space also became apparent, without being linked to legal ownership or rights. What many had taken for granted—the power of publicly accessible space to create public life, connect people and foster connections to spaces—was observed. The playgrounds, the outdoor dining areas, the festivals were celebrated for the connections and social proximity they provided rather than demonised for eroding public space. The true nature of public space—the ability to invite everyone no matter their age, gender, physical ability, or social status to interact, engage and feel a part of a collective public life—became the discussion point. The discussion mirrored the definition proposed as part of this thesis and conclusion that temporary activities, such as events, facilitate moments of social exchange for a wider diversity of publics.

COVID-19 highlighted that everyday moments in public life are inspirational, and connections, no matter how small, are paramount for public life. I observed this first hand from a routine of walking in my neighbourhood each day, which three months pre COVID-19 I would not have done as I did not feel comfortable or welcomed. Pre COVID-19 it was hard to believe people lived in my neighbourhood, as the sightings were rare of anyone except commuters. This green neighbourhood changed for the better. There were signs of life from people out walking or riding and acknowledging others with a friendly hello, to front yards becoming the centre of family activities. Importantly people were

interacting and reaching out to others (all with the 1.5 m social distance in mind).

Best of all is what I refer to as the rise of the chalk artist (Figure 11-5 and Figure 11-9). Children were taking back our most prolific public space, the footpath, and no one questioned their right to do so. Hopscotch, running tracks, obstacle courses, messages of hope and greetings appeared throughout the neighbourhood. This small sign of life brought a smile to those who passed, with people interacting by either responding to the messages with their own or taking up the obstacle challenges. These signs of life demonstrated the small ways in which people were connecting and why a real connection to place is needed to maintain a public life.

We have an opportunity to put in practice what we aspire to and not take public space for granted. This thesis is a body of research to help position landscape architects to play a curated role for future-proofing cities in times of need and assist in ensuring a prosperous social state of play.

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Appendices

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Appendix 1

Public space term use by discipline and author

Definitions of public space in academic literature is subjective and numerous (Madanipour 1996). Over 300 articles, books, reference publications and other sources were examined to develop the categorisation of Public Space, Public Realm, Public Sphere and Public Domain present in Chapter Two. The sources included literature reviews, policy comparisons, methodologies or approaches recommendations, surveys, interviews, observations or case studies. Appendix 1 expands on Table 2-1: Public Space term use by Discipline, presenting authors who have presented definitions of the term Public Space, Public Realm, Public Sphere and Public Domain.

The categorisation of disciplines below acknowledges the complexities of the terms and of the disciplines. The categorisation of disciplines demonstrates how the term is used in the same context and to acknowledge similarities. For instance, Urban planning and Urban design use the term public space in the same context.

The categorisation of authors below acknowledges a number of authors are cross disciplinary. Discipline categorisation below is related to the sources reviewed.

Appendix Table 1.A- 1: Public Space term use by Discipline and Author

| Discipline | Term | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| | Public Space | Public Realm | Public Sphere | Public Domain |
| Anthropology and social anthropology | Edward T. Hall Marc Augé Mark Graham Mizuko Ito Nan Ellin Néstor García Canclini Setha Low Shahram Khosravi | | Arjun Appadurai Cindi Katz Dale F. Eickelam David Harvey Ida Susser Neil Smith Roberto j. González Talal Asad | Peggy R. Sanday |
| Architecture | Adèle Naudé Santos Aldo Rossi Aldo van Eyck Alessandro Aurigi Andres Duany Artemis Anninou Bernard Rudofsky Bernard Tschumi Bill Hillier Birgitte Svarre | Alessandro Aurigi Frederique Krupa Geoffrey Broadbent Kim Dovey Lars Gemzøe Margaret Crawford Peter Buchanan | Alessandro Aurigi Hans Teerds Margaret Crawford Tom Avermaete | Geoffrey Broadbent Richard Rogers |

| | | | | |
|---------------------|--|--|------------------|--|
| | Bryan Lawson CABA Camillo Sitte Charles Jencks Christopher Alexander Clive Briffett Crawford David Grahame Shane Denise Scott Brown Deyan Sudjic Elizabeth Plater- Zyberk Frederique Krupa Geoffrey Broadbent Gordon Cullen Hajo Neis Ingrid Fiksdahl- King J. Meejin Yoon Jan Sircus Julienne Hanson Karen A. Franck Kim Dovey Lars Gemzøe LeCorbusier M. Christine Boyer Manuel De Solà- Morales Margaret Michael Sorkin Murray Silverstein Naciye Doratli Nil Pasaogullari Norman Edwards Oscar Newman Peter Bosselmann Peter Calthorpe Quentin Stevens Rachel Berney Rem Koolhaas Richard Burdett Robert Venturi Sandra Kaji- O'Grady Sara Ishikawa Serge Chermayeff Steven Izenour Teddy Cruz Vikas Mehta | | | |
| Architecture critic | Michael Kimmelman Reyner Banham | | | |
| Author | Charles T. Goodsell Georges Perec James Howard Kunstler | | | |
| Communications | Robin Andersen | | Paolo Carpignano | |

| | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--------------------------------|---|--|
| | Criminologist | Susan Drucker Gary Gumpert Paolo Carpignano | | Robin Andersen | |
| | | George L. Kelling Rob White Wesley G. Skogan James Q. Wilson George L. Kelling Patricia I. Brantingham Paul J. Brantingham | | | |
| | Ecopsychology, environmental psychology and psychology | David Victor Canter Ianto Ware Jacinta Francis Kenson Kwok Lana Zannettino Leanne G Rivlin Lia Bryant Marie-Line Félonneau Rachel Kaplan Robert Sommer Vicky Cattell Yoji Aoki | | | |
| | English | Lauren Berlant David Fleming | David Fleming | Andrew Ross David Fleming Ken Hirschkop Lauren Berlant Melba Cuddy-Keane Michael Warner Thomas Keenan | |
| | Geography - Political, social, cultural, human and urban | Adam Holden Adrienne Burk Albert Thompson Alec Brownlow Alice Coleman Andy Merrifield Anne Buttimer Arnaud Piombini Ash Amin C.Y. Jim David Seamon Denis E. Cosgrove Don Mitchell Edward Relph Fariba Sotoudehnia Gill Valentine Jacob Sowers Jean-Christophe Foltête Jordi Borja Kurt Iveson Lex Comber Luca Bertolini Lynn A. Staeheli Mark Jayne Mike Raco Neil Smith Nicholas R Fyfe Nick Dines | Kurt Iveson Nicholas R Fyfe | David Harvey Kurt Iveson | |

| | | | | |
|------------------------|--|---|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Historian | Pauline Marne Phil Hubbard Ronald A. Davidson Robbert D. Wilton Roman Cybriwsky Ronald A. Davidson Sarah Curtis Sarah L. Holloway Sophia S. Chen Ted Kilian Victor R. Savage Wil Gesler Yi-Fu Tuan | | | |
| | Kazys Varnelis Kevin Mattson M. Christine Boyer Roselyn Deutsche Sara M. Evans Spiro Kostof Thomas C. Holt Mark Lilla | Rosalyn Deutsche | Kazys Varnelis Roselyn Deutsche | |
| Journalist | Matt Ford Joel Garreau | | | |
| Landscape architecture | CABE Carolyn Francis Catherine Dung Chun-Yen Chang Clare Cooper Marcus Elizabeth K. Meyer Fiona Harrisson Hein Doeksen Helen Woolley I-Chun Tang J.B. Jackson Jack Ahern James Corner Jane Hutton Jill Desimini Johanna Phelps Kevin Thwaites Kristine F Miller Kym M. Jones Lawrence Halprin Margaret Livingston Mark Francis Michael D. Fotheringham Rodney H. Matsuoka Sharon Leith Simon Bell William C. Sullivan | Catherine Dung James Corner Kristine F Miller | James Corner Kristine F Miller | Catherine Dung James Corner |
| Media studies | Anne Friedberg Luke Goode | | Anne Friedberg Luke Goode | |

| | | | | |
|------------|---|--|---|--|
| Other | <p>Andrew M. Stone Antoni untadas Ashley Dawson Benjamin Fraser Bruce Mau Bruce Robbins Chatford Clark Chris Mitchell Dale Leorke Dana Polan Deyan sudjic Eric Kluitenberg Garrett Hardin Harry C. Boyte Jeffrey Tumlin Kenneth McLaughlin Laura Vaughan Leo Marx Lisa K. Harris Lisa McLaughlin Marc Hochstein Mary Gail Snyder Ozlem Sahbaz, Rianne Subijanto Robert C. Ellickson Robin Usher Sigrid Merx Sigrid Merx Stewart Ranson William W. Shaw</p> | <p>Dana Polan George Yodice Luke Goode Howard Frumkin</p> | <p>Bruce Robbins Dana Polan Fredric Jameson George Yodice Kenneth McLaughlin Lisa McLaughlin Murali Balaji</p> | |
| Philosophy | <p>Bart Verschaffel Cheryl Misak Claude Lefort Ina Blom James Bohman Roger Scruton Roger Scruton Thomas Nagel</p> | <p>Bart Verschaffel Claude Lefort Roger Scruton</p> | <p>Claude Lefort James Bohman Jürgen Habermas Roger Scruton</p> | <p>Claude Lefort</p> |
| Planning | <p>Alexander R. Cuthbert Brian G. Field Camillo Sitte Claudio De Magalhães Colin Buchanan Danielle Leahy Laughlin Danielle Leahy Laughlin Edward J. Blakely Francis Tibbalds Frank Gaffikin Jack Ahern Jack L Nasar Jack L. Nasar Jeff Speck Katia Balassiano Ken Sterrett Laura C. Johnson Laura C. Johnson Leo Hammond Mahyar Arefi Malachy Mceldowney</p> | <p>Claudio De Magalhães Frank Gaffikin Katia Balassiano Ken Sterrett Leo Hammond Malachy Mceldowney Matthew Carmona Alexander R. Cuthbert Laura C. Johnson Danielle Leahy Laughlin</p> | <p>Claudio De Magalhães Matthew Carmona Alexander R. Cuthbert</p> | <p>Arnold Reijndorp Claudio De Magalhães Leo Hammond Maarten Hajer Matthew Carmona Alexander R. Cuthbert</p> |

| | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|---|
| | Matthew Carmona Michael Batty Peter M. Owens Sidney N. Brower Susan Handy | | | |
| Political theorist, science and Politics | Alison Young Amos Rapoport Bonnie Fisher Claude Lefort Hannah Arendt John R. Parkinson Michael C Dawson Mike Davis Raf Geenens Ronald Tinnevelt Benjamin Barber | Hannah Arendt John R. Parkinson Alison Young | Catherine R Squires Hannah Arendt John R. Parkinson Linda M. G. Zerilli Molly Cochran Nancy Fraser Raf Geenens Ronald Tinnevelt | Arnold Reijndorp Maarten Hajer Nancy Fraser |
| Social sciences | Alison Young Karen Malone Richard Hil Stewart Ranson Terance D. Miethe | John Clarke Stewart Ranson Alison Young | Stewart Ranson | Stewart Ranson Richard Hil |
| Sociology | Beng Huat Chua Chua Beng-Huat Erving Goffman Fèlix Ortega Georg Simmel Ho Kong Chong John Michael Roberts Lewis Mumford Marcel Mauss Margaret Kohn Nathan Glazer Ray Oldenburg Richard Ling Richard Sennett Rob White Rowland Atkinson Saskia Sassen Sharon Zukin Stanley Aronowitz Terance D. Miethe Thomas T.W. Tan Valerie LimNyuk Eun William DiFazio William H Whyte Kevin Fitzpatrick Mark LaGory Peter M. Owens Laura C. Johnson Rob White Judith Bessant | John Michael Roberts Lewis Mumford Lyn H. Lofland Georg Simmel Laura C. Johnson | Gemma Edwards John Michael Roberts Jürgen Habermas Lewis Mumford Michael E. Gardiner Nelson A. Pichardo Nick Crossley Richard Sennett Stanley Aronowitz William DiFazio Georg Simmel | Arnold Reijndorp Lewis Mumford Ray Oldenburg Richard Sennett Peter M. Owens Judith Bessant |
| Urban planning, urban design and urban theorists | Ali Madanipour Allan Jacobs Anastasia Loukaitou-Sideris Anne Matan Bart Verschaffel CABE | Anastasia Loukaitou-Sideris Anne Matan Francis Tibbalds George Varna Henry Shaftoe Jan Gehl | Anastasia Loukaitou-Sideris George Varna Jan Gehl Peter Marcuse Renia Ehrenfeucht | Anne Matan George Varna John Friedmann Peter Marcuse Steve Tiesdell Emily Talen |

| | | | | |
|--------|--|---|--|-----------------------|
| | Carina Listerborn Charles C. Bohl Cliff Moughtin David Engwicht Donald Appleyard Ebenezer Howard Edmund N. Bacon George Varna Henry Shaftoe Ian Bentley Jan Gehl Jane Jacobs Jonathan Barnett Kevin Lynch Matthew Carmona Melvin M. Webber Mike Davis Mike Lydon Peter Marcuse Phil Hubbard Quentin Stevens Renia Ehrenfeucht Rob Krier Robert A. Beauregard Roger Trancik Stephen Carr Steve Tiesdell Taner Oc Tim Heath Trevor Boddy Tribid Banerjee Vikas Mehta William Fulton Emily Talen Dolores Hayden Peter Caltorpe William H Whyte Lean Krier Peter Katz Andres Duany Elizabeth Plater- Zyberk Wakhidah Kurniawati Nicola Dempsey Michael Southworth Reid Ewing Yosef Rafeq Jabareen Richard Florida Marc Hochstein | Jon Lang Peter Marcuse Renia Ehrenfeucht Steve Tiesdell Taner Oc Tim Heath Emily Talen | Steve Tiesdell Taner Oc Tim Heath Emily Talen | Michael Southworth |
| Writer | Anna Minton Howard Rheingold McKenzie Wark | | Alison Westwood Virginia Woolfe | |

Appendix 2

Methods, techniques and tools to assess public space typologies and typology of publics

Over 150 articles, books, reference publications and other sources were examined to develop a categorisation of 45 methods, techniques and tools used to assess landscapes and in particular public urban spaces over the last 60 years. All were empirical and analytical research methods, techniques and tools developed to assess design, planning and construction. The sources included literature reviews, policy comparisons, methodologies or approaches recommendations, studies drawing on original data involving surveys, interviews, observations or case studies.

The 150 sources reviewed constitute a small amount of studies published with an urban space emphasis. However common to all approaches is the ability of methods, techniques and tools to reduce detail into levels of importance and meaning to enable interpretation.

Appendix 2 expands on information presented in Chapter Six providing further details on individual methods.

Appendix 2.A expands on Table 6-1 and Table 6-4 to present the Researchers and Consultants practicing the 45 methods outlined in Chapter Six. The categorisation of disciplines below acknowledges the complexities the disciplines. The categorisation of disciplines demonstrates how the methods, tools and techniques are used in the same context and to acknowledge similarities. For instance Urban planning and Urban design use same methods.

The categorisation of authors below acknowledges a number of authors are cross disciplinary. Discipline categorisation below is related to the sources reviewed.

Appendix 2.B and Appendix 2.C presents a detailed overview Observation Methods and Interview Methods respectively outlining the strengths, Weakness, Challenges and Limitations, ability to distinguish between public space typologies and ability to distinguish between typologies of publics.

Appendix 2.A

Overview of assessment methods and disciplines, linked with researchers and consultants practicing those methods

The table below represents a diverse sample of disciplines rather than an attempt to be comprehensive. Authors highlighted represent different relationships, current, historical, new to the academic field and known luminaries. Reviewed texts are those which have been published in English language papers from 1960-2016 and represent a progression of knowledge. Authors who overlapped between disciplines are included in each discipline heading. Disciplines also relate to field papers were published in.

List excludes authors who have researched and assessed methods.

Appendix 2 Table 1: Overview of assessment methods and disciplines, linked with researchers and consultants practicing those methods

| Methodological Approach | Observation methods | | | Interview methods | | | Infrastructure methods | |
|--|---|---|--|---|--|--|--|--|
| | Qualitative | Combined Qualitative/Quantitative | Quantitative | Qualitative | Combined Qualitative/Quantitative | Quantitative | Qualitative | Quantitative |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Environmental Impact Assessments</i> • Field Notes • Human Traces or Tracing • Photo documentation • Tracking and Shadowing • Visual assessment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Case studies • Systematic Observation or Field Observation • Test walks • Walkability index • Walking audit instruments | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavioural methods • Block environmental Inventory • Counting, Pedestrian Flows and Staying Activities • Desktop audits • Figure ground mapping • Place audits • Post occupancy evaluations • Site inventory • Tracking | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design Workshops • Discussion Groups • Interviews (unstructured) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews (structured) • Self-Reporting (diaries/noting) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews • Questionnaires (online, in person, postal) • Surveys (online or in person) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Altered photos</i> • <i>Computer Simulation</i> • <i>Landscape Evaluation</i> • <i>Scenic beauty estimation models</i> • <i>Visual assessment</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Environmental and walkability audits</i> • <i>Pedestrian modelling</i> • <i>Space syntax</i> • <i>Urban design context analysis</i> • <i>Smart places</i> |
| Discipline | Consultants and Researchers | | | | | | | |
| Anthropology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aldo Rossi • Christopher Alexander • Edward T. Hall • Setha M Low | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Benjamin Fraser • Edward T. Hall • Setha M Low | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setha M Low | | | | | |
| Architecture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bo Chen • Camillo Sitte • David L. Phillips • M. Christine Boyer • Michael Sorkin • Oscar Newman • Peter Bosselmann • Philip Thiel • Rem Koolhaas • Roger S. Ulrich • Tawfiq M Abu-Ghazze • Vikas Mehta • William H. Lucy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aldo Rossi • Bo Chen • Camillo Sitte • Christopher Alexander • David L. Phillips • Denise Scott Brown • M. Christine Boyer • Michael Sorkin • Mohammed Abdullah Eben Saleh • Naciye Doratli • Nil Pasaogullari • Oscar Newman • Peter Bosselmann • Philip Thiel • Robert Ventuir • Saleh Al-Hathloul • Steven Izenour • Tawfiq M Abu-Ghazze • William H. Lucy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bo Chen • Camillo Sitte • Christopher Alexander • Denise Scott Brown • M. Christine Boyer • Michael Sorkin • Oscar Newman • Philip Thiel • Robert Ventuir • Steven Izenour • Vikas Mehta | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aldo van Eyck • Bo Chen • Oscar Newman • Robert W. Marans | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Belinda Yuen • Bo Chen • Oscar Newman • Tawfiq M Abu-Ghazze • Wong Nyuk Hien | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jian Gea • Kazunori Hokao • Lale Berköz • Naciye Doratli • Nil Pasaogullari • Oscar Newman • Robert W. Marans • Vedia Dökmeci | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Susan D. Rodiek | |
| Art | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • George Catlin • Thomas Moran | | | | | | | |
| Behavioural Epidemiology, Public Health & Behavioural Health & Medicine | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr Alison Carver • Dr Anna Timperio • Dr Clare Hume • Dr Jenny Veitch • Dr Nick Andrianopoulos • Prof Billie Giles-Corti | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr Anna Timperio • Dr Clare Hume • Dr Nick Andrianopoulos • Prof David Crawford • Prof Jo Salmon • Prof Kylie Ball | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr Anna Timperio • Dr Clare Hume • Dr Nick Andrianopoulos • Prof David Crawford • Prof Jo Salmon • Prof Kylie Ball | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| Biology | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prof David Crawford • Prof Jo Salmon • Prof Kylie Ball | | | | | |
| | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ann P. Kinzig • Chris A. Martina • Lisa K. Harris • Paige S. Warren • William W. Shaw | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Michael R. Thomas |
| Biometeorology, | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robert G. Steadman | | | | | | |
| Botany | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • William H. Brewer | | | | | |
| Cartography | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Christiane Weber • Jacky Hirsch | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Christiane Weber • Jacky Hirsch | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Christiane Weber • Jacky Hirsch | | | | | |
| Civil Engineering | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr. George L. Peterson | | | | | | | |
| Climatology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Filip Lefebre • Koen De Ridder • Martin Burger • Michael Bruse | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Filip Lefebre • Koen De Ridder • Martin Burger • Michael Bruse | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Filip Lefebre • Koen De Ridder • Martin Burger • Michael Bruse | | | | | |
| Criminology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emily Winston • Reid Ewing • Ross C. Brownson • Susan Handy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emily Winston • Reid Ewing • Ross C. Brownson • Susan Handy • | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emily Winston • Patricia I. Brantingham • Paul J. Brantingham • Reid Ewing • Ross C. Brownson • Susan Handy | | | | | |
| Ecology | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Roland Ennos • Stephan Pauleit • Yvonne Golding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aldo Leopold • Sigurd F. Olson | | | | | |
| Economics | | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cathal O'Donoghue • Peter Howley • Stephen Hynes | | |
| Education | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ingunn Fjørtoft • Jostein Sageie | | | | | | |
| Engineering | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alberto Bañuelos • Barani Raman | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alberto Bañuelos • Alessandro Toccolini • Barani Raman • D. Damigos • D. Kaliampakos • Giulio Senes • Natalia Fumagalli | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alberto Bañuelos • Barani Raman • Robert K. Smidt | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raymond De Young • Shawn Turner | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robert K. Smidt | |
| Environmental Chemistry | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vladimir Adamec | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vladimir Adamec | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vladimir Adamec | | | | | |
| Environmental management | | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anna Chiesura | | |
| Environmental Planning | | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bong Koo Lee • Dr. Scott Shafer | | |
| Environmental Psychology, Community Psychology, Social Psychology & Psychology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Charles Egerton Osgood • Dr Rachel Kaplan • George Suci • Goesta Ekman • Leanne G Rivlin • Robert Sommer • Teodor Kuennapas • Terry C. Daniel | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Barbara Brown • Charles Egerton Osgood • D.Mark Fentonb • Dr Rachel Kaplan • George Suci • Goesta Ekman • Leanne G Rivlin • Robert Sommer • Sheridan Coakes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Barbara Brown • Charles Egerton Osgood • Dr Rachel Kaplan • Dr. Abraham Wandersman • George Suci • Goesta Ekman • Jacinta Francis | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vicky Cattell | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr Rachel Kaplan • Dr Stephen Kaplan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr Abraham Wandersman • Dr Rachel Kaplan • Dr Stephen Kaplan • Florian G. Kaiser • Frances E. Kuo • John W Meeks • Kalevi M. Korpela | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dr Rachel Kaplan • Dr Stephen Kaplan • Frances E. Kuo • Tig Calvert • Yoji Aoki | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Barbara Brown |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|--|---|--|--|--|---|--|
| Environmental Science | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yoji Aoki | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teodor Kuennapas • Terry C. Daniel • Vicky Cattell | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John W. Meeks • Leanne G Rivlin • Prof Douglas D. Perkins • Ralph Taylor • Robert Sommer • Sandra A. Shermana • Teodor Kuennapas • Terry C. Daniel • Vanessa L. Malcarne • Vicky Cattell | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prof Douglas D. Perkins • Ralph Taylor • Terry C. Daniel • Terry hartig • Urs fuhrer • Vicky Cattell | | |
| | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kazuo Yabe • Maureen E. Austin | | | |
| Epidemiology | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • David R. Ragland | | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • David R. Ragland |
| Forestry | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • R. Bruce Hull • R.W Coles • S.C Bussey | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hirokazu Oku • Hubert Gulinck • James F Palmer • Katsue Fukamachi • Lisa Hörnsten • Martin Hermy • Pieter Roovers • R.W Coles • S.C Bussey | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hirokazu Oku • Katsue Fukamachi • Kevin W. Larkin | |
| Gardening | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sir Humphrey Repton | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sir Humphrey Repton | | | | | |
| Geography | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arnaud Piombini • Don Mitchell • Jay Appleton • Jean-Christophe Foltête • Kurt Iveson • Neil Smith • Roman Cybriwsky • Ronald A. Davidson • Susan Dakin • Yi Fu Tuan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arnaud Piombini • C.Y. Jim • Christopher A. De Sousa • Christopher A. De Sousa • Don Mitchell • G.D. Daniels • J.B. Kirkpatrick • Jay Appleton • Jean-Christophe Foltête • Joan M. Welch • Kurt Iveson | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arnaud Piombini • C.Y. Jim, • Don Mitchell • Fariba Sotoudehnia • Jay Appleton • Jean-Christophe Foltête • Kurt Iveson • Lex Comber • Neil Smith • Nick Dines • Roman Cybriwsky | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • C.Y. Jim • Fariba Sotoudehnia • Kurt Iveson • Lex Comber • Nick Dines • Ronald A. Davidson • Sarah Curtis • Shivanand Balrama • Sophia S. Chen • Susan Dakin • Suzana Dragičević • Wil Gesler | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • C.Y. Jim • Christopher A. De Sousa • Fariba Sotoudehnia • Felix Kienast • Kurt Iveson • Lex Comber • Marcel Hunziker • Matthias Buchecker • Shivanand Balrama • Sophia S. Chen • Suzana Dragičević • Yi Fu Tuan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • C.Y. Jim • Christopher A. De Sousa • Fariba Sotoudehnia • Lex Comber • Nick Dines • Ronald A. Davidson • Sarah Curtis • Shivanand Balrama • Sophia S. Chen • Susan Dakin • Suzana Dragičević | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aldo Leopold • Andrew W. Gilg • Dov Nir • Mark Blacksell • R. Burton Litton Jr. • Roger S. Crofts • Susan Dakin • Władysław Niewiarowski | |

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|-------------------------------|--|--|--|---|--|--|--|--|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marisa T.M. Frischenbruder • Michael Pacione • Neil Smith • Nick Dines • Roman Cybriwsky • Sarah Curtis • Shivanand Balram • Sophia S. Chen • Suzana Dragičević • Torsten Wiedemann • Wil Gesler • William D. Solecki • Yi Fu Tuan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ronald A. Davidson • Sarah Curtis • Thomas Schweizer • Wendy Y. Chen • Wil Gesler • Yi Fu Tuan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Yi Fu Tuan | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wil Gesler • Yi Fu Tuan | | |
| Geology | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarence E Dutton | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marie Morisawa • William Morris Davis | |
| Health Sciences | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Billie Giles-Corti • Jacinta Francis • Lisa J. Wood • Matthew Knuiman | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Billie Giles-Corti • Jacinta Francis • Lisa J. Wood • Matthew Knuiman | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Billie Giles-Corti • Jacinta Francis • Lisa J. Wood • Matthew Knuiman | | | |
| Horticulture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kiat W. Tan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ochieng A. Adimob | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ochieng A. Adimob | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ochieng A. Adimob | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ochieng A. Adimob | | | |
| Landscape Architecture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alan James Simson • Ann Forsyth • Anne Whiston Spirn • Catherine Dung • Cecelia Paine • Clare C. Marcus • Ervin H. Zube • Fiona Harrison • Gary R. Clay • Ian McHarg • James Corner • James Taylor • Jody Rosenblatt Naderi • John Brinckerhoff Jackson • John FitzGibbon • Justin Jacobson • Katie Thering • Ken Studtmann • Kym M. Jones • Lance M. Neckar • Michael Southworth • Peter Walker • Randolph Hester • Richard Haag • Rodney H. Matsuoka • Susan Herrington • Trudy Schmidt • Zhiyi Bao | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alan James Simson • Anne Whiston Spirn • Beverly A. Sandalack • Catherine Dung • Cecelia Paine • Clare Cooper Marcus • Don Luymes • Ervin H. Zube • Fahriye Hazer Sancar • Fiona Harrison • Frederick Law Olmsted • Gary R. Clay • Ian McHarg • Jack Ahern • James Corner • James Taylor • Joanne Westphal • Jody Rosenblatt Naderi • John Brinckerhoff Jackson • John FitzGibbon • Ken Studtmann • Kym M. Jones • Moura Quayle • Patsy Eubanks Owens • Paulo R.M. Pellegrino • Peter Walker • Randolph Hester • Richard Haag • Rodney H. Matsuoka • Sally Schauman • Sandra Salisbury • Stephan Pauleit • Susan Herrington • Zhiyi Bao | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ann Forsyth • Anne Whiston Spirn • Byoung-Suk Kweon • Carolyn Francis • Catherine Dung • Christopher D. Ellis • Christopher Tunnard • Clare Cooper Marcus • Ervin H. Zube • Gary R. Clay • Ian McHarg • Jack Ahern • James Corner • James W. Varnib • Jody Rosenblatt Naderi • John Brinckerhoff Jackson • Margaret Livingston • Maurice Nelischer • Nathan H. Perkins • Peter Walker • Randolph Hester • Richard Haag • Rodney H. Matsuoka • Roger S. Ulrich • Samuel D. Brodya • Sang-Woo Lee1 • Scott P.B. Henderson • Trudy Schmidt • Wes Highfield • Zhiyi Bao | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ann Forsyth • Clare Cooper Marcus • Dicle Oguz • Keisuke Yoshida • Kym M. Jones • Patsy Eubanks Owens • Randolph Hester • Richard Haag • Rodney H. Matsuoka • Shoichiro Asakawaa • Trudy Schmidt • Zhiyi Bao | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Byoung-Suk Kweon • Christopher D. Ellis • Dr. Halil Özgüner • Gary R. Clay • Gloria E. Helfand • Joan I. Nassauer • Joanne Westphal • John Fitzsimonds • John Schneeman • Joon Sik Park • Kym M. Jones • Magdalena Bacaicoa • Nathan H. Perkins • Randolph Hester • Richard Haag • Rodney H. Matsuoka • Ruth Yabes • Samuel D. Brodya • Sandra Kosek • Sang-Woo Lee1 • Steven K. Barnhart • Terry Brown • Trudy Schmidt • Wes Highfield • William Sullivan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ann Forsyth • Anna Jorgensen • Assenna Todorova • Brett Grimm • Catherine Dung • Chun-Yen Chang • Denise E. Hands • Gary R. Clay • I-Chun Tang • James Hitchmough • Joanne Westphal • Justin Jacobson • Katie Thering • Magdalena Bacaicoa • Richard Haag • Robert D. Brown • Sampei Yamashita • Shoichiro Asakawa • Tetsuya Aikoh • William C. Sullivan • William P. Stewarta • William Sullivan | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Catherine Dung | |

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| Landscape ecology | | | | | | • Thomas Crow | | |
| Landscape management | | | | | | • Anthony D. Kendle • Richard Bisgrove | | |
| Landscape Planning | | • Friedrich Duhme • Per G Berg | | | | | | |
| Natural Resource management | | | | | | | • Derek Liebertb • Sarah Taylor Lovell • William C. Sullivan | |
| Other (includes local and state government departments, research institutions, practitioners) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adelaide City Council • Centre for Physical Activity and Nutrition Research • Centre for Transportation Studies • Department of City and Regional Planning, Cornell University • Federal Highway Administration • Gehl Architects • Metropolitan Design Center • Taylor Cullity Lethlean • Transport Research Centre • University of Minnesota | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active Living Research • Adelaide City Council • Australian Government Department of Health and Ageing • Australian Local Government Association • Behavioural Risk Factor Surveillance System • British Columbia Ministry of Forests • Cancer Council • Centers for Disease Control and Prevention • Gehl Architects • Harvard Landscape Architecture Group • Land Use Consultants • National Heart Foundation of Australia • Planning Institute of Australia • Project for Public Space • South Australian Active Living Coalition • USDA Forest Service • Walk Score | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ACAORN (Australian Child and Adolescent Obesity Research Network) • Adelaide City Council • Australian and New Zealand Obesity Society • Centre for Physical Activity and Nutrition Research • City of Melbourne • Department of City and Regional Planning, Cornell University • Design Trust for Public Spaces • Gehl Architects • GSA Urban Development Officers • Intermethod • International Physical Activity and Environment Network (IPEN) • International Society for Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity • Kristen Day • Los Angeles County Bicycle Coalition • Project for Public Space • Taylor Cullity Lethlean • The Nutrition Society • Transport for London • U.S. General Service Administration • Urban Imprint • Van Alen Institute | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centre for Physical Activity and Nutrition Research • Centre for Transportation Studies • Department of City and Regional Planning, Cornell University • Federal Highway Administration • Independent Newham Users Forum • NHS Confederation • Project for Public Space • University of Minnesota | • Project for Public Space | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centre for Physical Activity and Nutrition Research • Human-Environment Research Laboratory • Intermethod • Project for Public Space | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • British Columbia Ministry of Forests • Centre for Transportation Studies • Department of City and Regional Planning, Cornell University • Federal Highway Administration • Kristen Day • Land Use Consultants • University of Minnesota • USDA Forest Service | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gehl Architects • Project for Public Space • University of Western Australia |
| Philosophy | | | • Henry David Thoreau | | | | | |
| Placemaking | | | • Dr Mariela Alfonzo | | | | | |
| Planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alexander R. Cuthbert • Jack L Nasar • Peter M. Owens | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alexander R. Cuthbert • Danielle Leahy Laughlin • Eckart Langea • Francisco Alaniz Uribe | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alexander R. Cuthbert • Boris Pushkarev • Colin Buchanan • Greg Lindsey | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Danielle Leahy Laughlin • Laura C. Johnson | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Danielle Leahy Laughlin • Jack L Nasar • Laura C. Johnson • Lauren B Gates | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greg Lindsey • Jack L Nasar • Larissa Larsen • Makoto Yokohari | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Andrew Lothian • J. R. Turner | |

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|--|--|---|--|---|---|--|--|---|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jack Ahern • Jack L Nasar • Larissa Larsen • Laura C. Johnson • Manfred Kühn • Peter M. Owens • Peter V. Schaeffe • Susan Handy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jack Ahern • Jeffery M. Zupan • Peter M. Owens • Wendy Sarkissian | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • William M. Rohe | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mamoru Amemiya • Marco Amati | | |
| Political Science, political theorist, science and politics | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bonnie S. Fisher | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bonnie S. Fisher • Mike Davis • Prof Richard C Rich | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bonnie S. Fisher | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bonnie S. Fisher • Prof Richard C Rich | | |
| Psychiatry | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stefan Priebe | | | | |
| Public Health | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lindsay S. Arnold | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Billie Giles-Corti • Lisa Wood • Matthew Knuiman | | | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lindsay S. Arnold |
| Social Science | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ann Van Herzele | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • David N. Bengsten • Paul H Gobster • Susan I. Stewart | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • David N. Bengsten • Paul H Gobster • Susan I. Stewart | | | |
| Sociology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Erving Goffman • Kevin Fitzpatrick • Lewis Mumford • Mark LaGory • Ray Oldenburg • Sharon Zukin • William H. Whyte | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Erving Goffman • Kevin Fitzpatrick • Lewis Mumford • Mark LaGory • Peter M. Owens • Ray Oldenburg • Sharon L. Harlan • Sharon Zukin • William H. Whyte | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Erving Goffman • Kevin Fitzpatrick • Lewis Mumford • Mark LaGory • Ray Oldenburg • Sharon Zukin • William H. Whyte | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kevin Fitzpatrick • Laura C. Johnson • Lewis Mumford • Mark LaGory • Ray Oldenburg • | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kevin Fitzpatrick • Laura C. Johnson • Lewis Mumford • Mark LaGory • Ray Oldenburg • | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cheryl Bedenbaugh • Kevin Fitzpatrick • Lewis Mumford • Mark LaGory • Ray Oldenburg • Sharon L. Harlan • | | |
| Tourism | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shu-Chun Lucy Huang | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shu-Chun Lucy Huang | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shu-Chun Lucy Huang | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Christine A. Vogt | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Christine A. Vogt • Peter Fredman | | |
| Town Planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annette Thierry • Ole Damsgaard | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annette Thierry • Ole Damsgaard | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annette Thierry • Ole Damsgaard | | | | | |
| Transportation planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Otto Clemente | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Otto Clemente | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Otto Clemente | | | | | |
| Urban Design and Urban Planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allan Jacobs • Ann Forsyth • Donald Appleyard • Donald Appleyard • Emily Talen • Gordon Cullen • Jan Gehl • Jane Jacobs • John R. Myer • Kevin Lynch • Wakhidah Kurniawati | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Donald Appleyard • Emily Talen • Gordon Cullen • Jan Gehl • Jane Jacobs • K Al-Kodmany • Muhammad Aslam Mughal • Wakhidah Kurniawati • Michael Southworth • Reid Ewing • Robert Schneider | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Donald Appleyard • Emily Talen • Jan Gehl • K Al-Kodmany • Marlon Boarnet • Wakhidah Kurniawati | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Donald Appleyard • John R. Myer • K Al-Kodmany • Kevin Lynch | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Donald Appleyard | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Donald Appleyard • Wakhidah Kurniawati | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • K Al-Kodmany | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Robert Schneider |

Appendix 2.B

Detailed overview of observation methods

The following subsections present a detailed overview of observation methods outlined in Chapter Six subsection 6.1.1 Observation (Descriptive) Methods outlining the strengths, Weakness, Challenges and Limitations, ability to distinguish between public space typologies and ability to distinguish between typologies of publics.

The Observation methods detailed below represent methods applicable for assessing uses and appreciation of urban public space within Landscape Architecture and not a comprehensive list of all observation methods.

Observation methods – qualitative

| Field Notes Also known as Systematic observation and Field Observation | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|-----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | |
| Description | Field Notes (or keeping a diary) allows real time and systematic qualitative supplementary information to be gathered and can assist in explaining quantitative data gathered. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Notation of details, nuances and non-visual elements which cannot be mapped, counted or photographed increase knowledge of how public spaces are used. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Field notes involve noting subjective experiences based on appreciation of the physical elements and first impressions. The observer can also add supplementary explanations, descriptions, facts, figures and photographs. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides an overview of public life and subtle brief activities which occur, for instance people waving Collects non-visual elements include sounds, feelings, smells, textural qualities, movement (feeling of movement and actual movement through a space) and taste (Shaftoe, 2008) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> May not correspond with inhabitants experience of space Subject to reporting errors Accuracy of studies is attributed to how the participants understand the tasks Miscommunication can result in gaps of data incorrect interpretations of tasks Detailed explanations are required reduce high demand on human resources at end of studies, which can result in errors and subjective judgements by researchers | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Field notes have wide implications for landscape architects. Real time and systematic qualitative supplementary information collected during the assessments has the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects and shape maintenance and management plans of specific landscape. Successful assessments which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and have a clear defined scope of assessment. To provide complete assessments tools, techniques and methods should be simple. For instance PPS and Gehl Architects simplified their methods after numerous trials to address the issue of incorrect interpretations. Their methods include checklists with simple English to enable participants of any age to take part in studies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The tools and techniques used in Field Notes can provide clear distinction between typologies of publics. The distinction is related to manual observations which look for differences in patterns of use no matter how brief. The distinction is subjective and based on judgements of the observer. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | The tools and techniques used in Field Notes can provide clear distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | | | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | | | Yes | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes | | |

| Human Traces or Tracing | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | | x | | x | x | | x | | x | | | x | | | | | | | x | | | | | x | | | |
| Description | Human Traces or Tracing provide information regarding how different types of spaces are used in particular ways. Traces include desire paths through grass which indicate short cuts, signs of graffiti and litter, areas of neglect or illegitimate use. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | To determine movement patterns before commencing design development, explore how people relate emotionally to their physical surroundings, determine the degree to which the physical environment affects their behaviour and how built environments can facilitate the creation of communities. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Human activity may be observed without public or with the observer viewing from above or outside. Traces are collected by mapping lines of movement onto a plan during a specific timeframe. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides a clear picture of dominant and subordinate lines of flow Provides a clear picture of less trafficked areas Can be undertaken without people in the site | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tracing is not exact Difficult to map large number of people | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Implications for landscape architects are related to understanding typology of publics present at individual site level. Human Traces or Tracing has the potential to shape planning, redesign and management of the assessed site. Successful use of Human Traces or Tracing to inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which were typically combined with two or more methods outlined in this study including systematic observations, place audits and counting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Review of Human traces or Tracing indicated this method can provide a clear distinction between typologies of publics. Distinction is related to manual observation, which looks for differences in patterns of use. The challenge is to ensure temporal changes and events are observed and the assessor does not place personal subjective stereotypes over observations | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Tracing – No Public on site | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Photo Documentation Also known as Photo Tracking | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|-----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | | | | | | |
| Description | Photo Documentation is typically used to document situations, interactions, the character of a public space to aid communication and analysis at a later date. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Map patterns of use of a select user group in a select public space typology to document life and conditions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Photos are taken at eye level over a set time period, with (manual) or birds-eye without (time-lapse) the observer present. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Efficient and economical collection of any size of an area within a short time, small error rates and the ability to repeat Allows for detail assessments at a later data to discover/review new connections Emphasis on interactions between public life and space | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Findings are reliant on agenda of study and what information is collected Static glimpse in time Only captures what can be captured (Laughlin and Johnson, 2011) Impact of weather on equipment (Schweizer, 2005) Can be an intrusion of privacy Time intensive to program, plan, execute and review | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | <p>Photography has the potential to shape assist in redesign, auditing, maintenance and management of built landscapes and can assist in design and planning when combined with other methods outlined in this study including case studies and behavioural mapping.</p> <p>Successful photo documentation which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods. The successful photo documentation typically combined two or more methods outlined in this study including systematic observations, place audits and counting.</p> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The distinction between typologies of publics is subjective and limited to the photographer undertaking data analysis. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. Emphasis is on the situation depicted and not the design therefore the method is able to distinguish between typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | | | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | | | Yes | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes | | |

| Tracking and Shadowing | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-----------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | | x | | x | x | | x | | x | | | | | | | x | | | x | | | | x | | | | x |
| Description | Tracking or shadowing gathers information regarding dominant and subordinate sequences of activities such as walking, the direction of travel, movement or avoidance along a route. Activities range from stopping and sitting to subtle acts such as turning your head and changing direction of travel unexpectedly (Gehl & Svarre 2013). This method is used widely in environmental psychology and political science. William H Whyte and many landscape architectural firms recommended this technique as a standard part of site analysis work. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine how people move through a space, what they are attracted to and what they avoid with or without the public knowing. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | There are a number of different techniques dependant on data collected including stationary observations, tracking timed observations and shadowing observation. All techniques are undertaken in the field. Stationary Observation involves discreetly watching patterns of movement and recording their movements undertaken manually or through time lapse photography. GPS method of tracking involves uploading data into geographic information system (GIS), where it is combined and layered with a geographical map to enable production of visual representations for analysis. GIS allows for inclusion of data about physical features. GIS is seen as a monitoring tool in terms of mapping usage factors and policy scenarios but there is a limit on reliability of results (Herzele& Wiedemann 2003). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants maintains objectivity of data Manual tracking can add additional information such as why, how, who, weather conditions and events occurring outside of the study area which may be effect the study areas use. Information gathered by GPS tools are more precise in terms of the duration of different activities and location | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants reduces accuracy high associated costs in time and materials Participants changes behavioural patterns if they know they are followed. Therefore studies in which people are asked to undertake routine behaviour may not depict actual perceptions, activities or characteristics which would normally take place. GPS tracking and algorithms do not provide objective data because of participants agreeing to wear senders or carry devices GPS devices require direct line of sight between receiver's antenna and satellites at all times which can be impractical in urban areas. If direct lines of sight are not achieved results become inconsistent or unreadable. Age and capability of GPS devices limits amount of data collected. Battery life of GPS devices limits length of data collection. GPS units requires training or instruction before use by participants | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Many studies use the method of tracking or shadowing participants. The implications of tracking or shadowing for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study undertaken and what information is collected. Tracking or shadowing has the potential to shape redesign, auditing and management of built landscapes and can assist in design and planning when combined with other methods outlined in this study including case studies and behavioural mapping. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Review of methods, tools and techniques used as part of Tracking or Shadowing indicated only Stationary Observation can provide clear distinction between typologies of publics. Other tools and techniques rely on selected participants, aware of their involvement. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tracking Shading GPS | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | No | | | The Transitory Public | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | No | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stationary Observations – manual Stationary Observations – time lapse photography | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | No | | | Streets & Promenades | No | | | Plazas & Squares | No | | | Waterfronts | No | | | Commercial Spaces | No | | | | | | | | | | |

| Visual Assessment (visual quality, scenic beauty) | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | | |
| Description | Visual assessments (visual quality, scenic beauty) are comparative assessment approaches which combine descriptive methods and preference methods. Visual assessments directly address the users and encourage their participation in the design/management/decision process by employing visual communication approaches providing reliable and practical knowledge (Zube 1980; Kaplan and Kaplan 1989; Nasar 1998; Mahdjoubi and Wiltshire, 2001; Lothian, 2012; Kivanç Ak 2013). The judgements or ratings are a combination of physical and cognitive measures correlated to provide a foundation of predictive models for estimating landscape preferences and scenic quality (Aoki 1999; Dakin 2003). Visual assessments have been credited to Kevin Lynch originating from his 1960 work entitled 'The Image of the City' (Kivanç Ak 2013) which looked at the city in a systemic way and emphasised the visual landscape quality and its effects on users. From the 20th Century used in environmental management and policies and became a scientific research area with its important literature (Özhancı and Yılmaz, 2011; Kivanç Ak 2013). Assessment findings are a result of an observer's perceptual, cognitive, emotional process in interaction with apparent (visible) landscape characteristics (Daniel, 2001). Thus visual quality of landscapes has been regard by many authors as the hardest phenomenon that can be analysed and measured in an Environment (e.g. Daniel, 2001; Kalın, 2004; Kivanç Ak 2013). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Assess the economic and aesthetic nature of landscapes in visual descriptive terms. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Visual assessment is a matrix based assessment using qualitative data to determine quantitative results. Focus is on the visual aesthetic character of a landscape and built form and subsequent perceptions and experiences. Assessment methodologies including inventory analysis differ depending on objective of the study (planning, design and management) (Palmer and Hoffmann, 2000). Current Visual assessment methods combine photography, digital drawings and computer aided programs to create visualisations. The method involves development of a checklist or matrix to distinguish between key elements of the study area. Assessments are undertaken by assigning values to each element. Because of data collections being participatory many researchers recommend using a combined method (Forsyth et al. 2008, 2010; Kivanç Ak 2013). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Projects in Australia are examining cultural and characteristics of places as part of Visual assessment. The use of geographic information systems (GIS) to assess visual landscape variables has been shown to be reproducible (Bishop and Hulse, 1994, Balram & Dragičević 2005) for studies which measures attitudes and public preference and not descriptive outcomes. When combined with other methods such as questionnaires, GIS can be used to support and document knowledge of real time interactions, inclusiveness, social learning and awareness. differentiate between proposals and supposed visual impacts for context sensitive solutions | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> methods rely heavily on value judgements or ratings assigned by investigators and on the investigators abilities How and what data collected can limit findings to specific sites negating opportunities for consideration at comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects Limitations are the same for disciplines such as expert resource managers, ecologists, geographers, environmental experts, psychologists in research and academic projects, case studies, environmental management and expert witness cases Images miss the site characteristics of smell and noise. Labs are used to avoid any disturbance but in reality natural setting are full of disruptions Black and white images are used to avoid colour influence but may lack in the fine grain detail provided by colour Peripheral information/prior information bears on valuation and comparisons Evaluations don't reference activities Results are based on photograph selection and the process of creating images is time-consuming Rating have clear limitation resulting from the absence of motivations, historical and cultural contexts included in analyse of the data. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Because of Visual assessment methods varying and range of criticisms, the resulting implications for landscape architects are related to the selected role the assessment within design, auditing, planning, administration or management. Findings have the potential to shape daily life, physical planning and design works when used within planning, design, auditing and management phases of projects. There are minimal to no resulting implications of visual assessment if they are for information only (expert witness, administration or management). Successful visual assessments which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which place equal weighting on public and expert opinions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Study specific. The focus on perception means the methods do not provide clear distinction between typologies of publics. The missing distinction is related to visual assessment based on judgements from an individual assessor or a selected group of public users where the landscape is valued in its viewform (e.g. Unwin, 1975) not as an object. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes/No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

Observation methods - combined qualitative and quantitative

| Case Studies | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-----------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| Description | While noted as similar assessment methods since Fredric Law Olmsted works these studies are now commonly referred to as case studies which allow for communication between practitioners and the general public. As stated by Francis (2001) case studies are appropriate and effective form of analysis for landscape architecture as they allowed for description, evaluation and prediction of use and design. Private practice and academic studies have contributed to knowledge base for Landscape Architects, influenced development and assisted in promotion of the discipline. Seminal examples are numerous and include the well-known case study strategy of Gehl Architects 'public space public life studies' undertaken as part of their consultancy projects internationally. Their studies focus the big picture primarily walkability and urban design for pedestrians. Refer table . | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Aim varies depending on the objective of the case study. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Method of case studies varies depending on site and discipline. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adaptability Crosses over between multiple disciplines including architecture, urban planning, urban design, law, business, medicine, engineering, sociology, economics, geography and psychology. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adaptability Lack of empirical and critical analysis Minimal peer review Absent or minimal systematic methodology (Francis 2001). Limitation of specific study timeframes (era) Board geographical classification Omission of temporal changes and passage of events (Scazzosi 2004). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The use of case studies and the implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the case study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of case studies if they are for information only, however, if the case study is to act as data the implications are wide. Case study findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful case studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods. The successful case studies typically combined two or more methods outlined in this study including systematic observations, desktop audit, visual assessment, place audits and counting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Case studies can provide clear distinction between typologies of publics. The distinction is related to manual observations and desktop audits which look for differences in patterns of use no matter how brief. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | Yes | | | The Transitory Public | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | Yes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Case studies can provide clear distinction between public space typologies. The distinction is related to manual observations and desktop audits which look for differences in patterns of use no matter how brief. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | Yes | | | Waterfronts | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | Yes | | | | | | | | | | |

| Systematic Observation Also known as Field observation and Casual observation | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | | x | | x | x | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | x |
| Description | Systematic observation allows real time and systematic qualitative supplementary information to be gathered and can assist in explaining quantitative data gathered. Systematic observation differs from Field Notes as Systematic observation is a combination of Qualitative and Quantitative research allowing statistical data to be collected and assessed to enable development of initial underlying reasons and motivations of the public. Systematic observation is a term used in the discipline psychology and may also be referred to as Casual observation. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Collect details, nuances and non-visual elements which cannot be mapped or counted to increase knowledge of how public spaces are used. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Subjective and objective checklists based on appreciation of the physical elements and first impressions. To provide complete assessments checklists should be simple. For instance PPS and Gehl Architects simplified their methods after numerous trials to address the issue of incorrect interpretations. Their methods include checklists with simple English to enable participants of any age to take part in studies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides an overview of public life and subtle activities which occur, for instance people waving Collects non-visual elements include sounds, feelings, smells, textural qualities, movement (feeling of movement and actual movement through a space) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> May not correspond with inhabitants experience of space Accuracy of studies is attributed to how the participants understand the tasks Detailed explanations are required reduce high demand on human resources at end of studies, which can result in errors and subjective judgements by researchers | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Systematic observations have wide implications for landscape architects. Real time and systematic qualitative supplementary information collected during the assessments has the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects and shape maintenance and management plans of specific landscape. Successful assessments which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and have a clear defined scope of assessment. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The tools and techniques used in the method of Systematic observation can provide clear distinction between typologies of publics. The distinction is related to manual observations which look for differences in patterns of use no matter how brief. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | | The Appropriating Public | | Yes | | | | The Transitory Public | | Yes | | The Illegitimate Public | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Parks & Gardens | | | Yes | | | | Streets & Promenades | | Yes | | | | Plazas & Squares | | Yes | | Waterfronts | | Yes | | Commercial Spaces | | Yes | | | | |

| Field Observations Also known as Casual Observation and systematic observation | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|-----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/Neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | |
| Description | Field observation has many similarities to systematic observation. Field observation allows real time and qualitative supplementary information to be gathered and can assist in explaining quantitative data gathered. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Collect details, nuances and non-visual elements which cannot be mapped, counted or photographed to increase knowledge of how public spaces are used. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Subjective checklists based on appreciation of the physical elements and first impressions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides an overview of public life and subtle brief activities which occur, for instance people waving Collects non-visual elements include sounds, feelings, smells, textural qualities, movement (feeling of movement and actual movement through a space) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> May not correspond with inhabitants experience of space Accuracy of studies is attributed to how the participants understand the tasks Detailed explanations are required reduce high demand on human resources at end of studies, which can result in errors and subjective judgements by researchers | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Field observations (casual observation) have wide implications for landscape architects. Real time and systematic qualitative supplementary information collected during the assessments has the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects and shape maintenance and management plans of specific landscape. Successful assessments which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and have a clear defined scope of assessment. To provide complete assessments tools, techniques and methods should be simple. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The tools and techniques used in the method of Field observation can provide clear distinction between typologies of publics. The distinction is related to manual observations which look for differences in patterns of use no matter how brief. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | | The Appropriating Public | | Yes | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. The distinction is related to manual observations. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | Yes | | | | Streets & Promenades | | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | | | Yes | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes | | |

| Test Walks | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|-----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/Neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | | |
| Description | Test walk method is a term by Gehl Architects to describe a technique which systematically reviews public space to notice problems, given routes or surrounding areas. Test walks provide a base level to determine the ease for pedestrians to move through the city. Data gathered such as waiting times at traffic lights can provide strong political tools for making changes, disturbances or ease to pedestrian flow and provide data on how pedestrian friendly a city is (Gehl 2010 for studies in Melbourne, Adelaide & Sydney). Gehl Architects method is conducted by following a predetermined (common) route at ordinary pedestrian speed. The successful Test walks typically combine two or more methods outlined in this study including systematic observations, tracking, place audits and counting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Systematically review public space | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Test walks are carried out by walking a predefined route noting waiting times, possible hindrances and diversions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides defined data on waiting times Study the impact of traffic on public life Can be undertaken by students, public or experts Inexpensive | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Set processes, specific study timeframes (era), board geographical classification, omission of temporal changes and passage of events, set criteria non-specific to sites and defined walking/cycling routes of this method engages with selected participants only Most studies link built form and behaviour without considering the visible landscape e.g. the functional use of space (Foltete and Piombini 2007). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Test walks have the potential to shape redesign, auditing and management of built landscapes and can assist in design and planning when combined with other methods outlined in this study including case studies and behavioural mapping. Review of Test walks indicates there are minimal to no resulting implications of findings if they are for information only. The limitations and validity concerns have wide implications for landscape architects and are related to the objective of the study undertaken and what information is collected. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The challenge of Test walks within landscape architecture research and design is the exclusion of participants and the exclusion of all public except the Defined Public. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. The distinction is related to manual observations. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | | | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | | | Yes | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes | | |

| Walkability Index | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | |
| Description | Walkability indexes measure public space features to assess pedestrian 'friendliness' or determine means to encourage walking. Walkability and the quality of the public realm correspond to the development patterns and practices in place. Walkability can decline if design practices are not to standard. The successful walkability index typically combine two or more methods outlined in this study including systematic observations, tracking, place audits and counting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine the qualities of neighbourhood form that either support or hinder walking. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Audits are typically undertaken by outside lay observers who use an established rating system. The rating system combines objective and subjective criteria under headings of imageability, legibility, visual enclosure, human scale, transparency, linkage, complexity and coherence (Aoki 1999; Ewing et al., 2006; Purciel & Marrone, 2006). Ratings are typically out of 5. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides defined data • Study the impact of traffic on public life • Can be undertaken by students, public or experts • Inexpensive • Combines subjective and objective data | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Set processes, specific study timeframes (era), board geographical classification, omission of temporal changes and passage of events, set criteria non-specific to sites and defined walking/cycling routes of this method engages with selected participants only • Most studies link built form and behaviour without considering the visible landscape e.g. the functional use of space (Foltete and Piombini 2007). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Walkability index has the potential to shape redesign, auditing and management of built landscapes and can assist in design and planning when combined with other methods outlined in this study including case studies and behavioural mapping. Review of walkability index indicates there are minimal to no resulting implications of findings if they are for information only. The limitations and validity concerns have wide implications for landscape architects and are related to the objective of the study undertaken and what information is collected. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The challenge of walkability index within landscape architecture research and design is the exclusion of participants and the exclusion of all public except the defined public. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | | |

| Walking Audit Instruments | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | X | | x | x | |
| Description | Walking Audit Instruments measure public space features to assess pedestrian 'friendliness'. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine the qualities of neighbourhood form | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Audits are typically undertaken by outside lay observers who use an established checklist with a rating system. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comprehensively measured urban design qualities Easy to manage in the field Inexpensive | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Outcomes do not predict walkability Reliability is based on the person undertaking the assessment Focus on urban elements | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Walking Audit Instruments has the potential to shape redesign, auditing and management of built landscapes and can assist in design and planning when combined with other methods outlined in this study including case studies and behavioural mapping. Review of Walking Audit Instruments indicates there are minimal to no resulting implications of findings if they are for information only. The limitations and validity concerns have wide implications for landscape architects and are related to the objective of the study undertaken and what information is collected. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The challenge of Walking Audit Instruments within landscape architecture research and design is the exclusion of participants and the exclusion of all public except the defined public. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | | The Appropriating Public | No | | | | The Transitory Public | No | | | | The Illegitimate Public | No | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | No | | | | Streets & Promenades | No | | | | Plazas & Squares | No | | | | Waterfronts | No | | | | Commercial Spaces | No | | | | | | |

Appendix 2 Table 2: Seminal Case Studies and Comparative Case Studies in Landscape Architecture. Adapted from Francis 2001 and expanded to acknowledge key works to 2016

Adapted from Francis 2001 and expanded to acknowledge key works to 2015. The table represents a diverse sample of current and known historical case studies from those new to the academic field and known luminaries rather than an attempt to be comprehensive.

| Seminal Case Studies | Comparative Case Studies |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Al-Badai, Riyadh region, Saudi Arabia • <i>Amelia Island, FL</i> • Bedford Square, London, Great Britain • Blue Carpet, Newcastle, UK • <i>Boston Commons, MA</i> • <i>Bryant Park, New York City</i> • <i>Camp Pendelton Study, CA</i> • Campo Dei Santi Giovanni E Paola, Venice, Italy • Cape Cod, MA • Cariboo region of central interior British Columbia • <i>Central Park, New York, NY</i> • Charlotte Square, Edinburgh, Great Britain • Chasse Terrain, Breda, The Netherlands • Coventry Solihull Warwickshire, Great Britain • Daiba, Tokyo Bay, Japan • <i>Easter Hill Village, Richmond, CA</i> • Federation Square, Melbourne, Australia • Fountain Square of Hippocrates, Rhodes, Greece • FreshKills, Staten Island, United States • <i>Gas Works Park, Seattle, WA</i> • <i>Ghiradelli Square, San Francisco, CA</i> • Gråbrødre Torv, Copenhagen, Denmark • <i>Greenacre Park, New York, NY</i> • Hangzhou Flower Garden, China • Highline, New York, United States • HongKong, Peoples Republic of China • Jardin Du Palais-Royal, Paris, France • Lake Hills, Seattle, WA • Lille, France • Louisburg Square, Boston, United States • <i>Lovejoy & Forecourt Fountains, Portland or Manteo, NC</i> • Madrid's Retiro Park • Memorial Bridge, Rojeka, Croatia • Metro Perth new housing, Western Australia, AUS • Millennium Park, Chicago, United States • Münsterplatz, Freiburg, Germany | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aarhus green space, Denmark, De Ridder et al. 2004 • American Society of Landscape Architects:100 Years, Simo, 1999 • Behaviour in Public Places, Erving Goffman, 1963 • Cities Reborn, 1987 • City Form and Natural Process, Hough, 1984 • Community Open Spaces, Francis et al., 1984 • Contemporary Landscapes of the World, 1990 • Defensible Space, Oscar Newman, 1972 • Design for Human Ecosystems, Lyle, 1996 • Design with Nature, McHarg, 1995 • Ecological Design, Thompson and Steiner, 1997 • From greenbelt to greenways: four Canadian case studies, Taylor et al., 1995 • Gardens in Health Care Facilities, Cooper-Marcus & Barnes, 1995 • Great Streets, Jacobs, 1996 • Greenwich Village, New York, Jacobs • Grey World, Green Heart, Thayer, 1994 • Image of the City, Lynch, 1961 • L'architettura della città, Aldo Rossi, 1966 • Learning from Las Vegas, Robert Venturi, Steven Izenour and Denise Scott Brown, 1972 • Life Between Building, Jan Gehl, 1971 • Liveable Streets, Donald Appleyard, 1985 • Modern Landscape Architecture, Johnson, 1991 • Newham, East London, Cattell et al. 2007 • People Places, Clare C. Marcus and Carolyn Francis, 1990 • People Places, Cooper Marcus and Francis, 1997 • Politics of Park Design, Cranz, 1982 |

| | |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Münsterplatz, Ulm, Germany • Nanjing city, China • <i>National Center for Atmospheric Studies, Boulder, CO</i> • Old Town Square, Prague, Czech Republic • Old Town Square, Telč, Czech Republic • <i>Paley Park, New York, NY</i> • <i>People's Park, Berkeley, CA</i> • Piazza Dei Signori, Verona, Italy • Piazza Della Rotonda, Rome, Italy • Piazza Delle Erbe, Verona, Italy • Piazza Navona, Rome, Italy • Piazza San Marco, Venice, Italy • Piece Hall, Halifax, Great Britain • Place Des Cornières, Monpazier, France • Place Stanislas, Nancy, France • <i>Plan for the Valleys, MD</i> • <i>Raleigh Greenway, NC</i> • <i>Reston New Town, VA</i> • Rockefeller Plaza, New York, United States • Ruhr area, Germany • <i>Seaside, FL</i> • <i>Seattle Freeway Park, Seattle, WA</i> • Simpang Lima area, Semarang, Indonesia • Southeast urban fringe, MI • Southern Eastern Coastal Park, Barcelona, Spain • <i>Stanford Campus Plan, Palo Alto, CA</i> • Stortorget Square, Kalmar, Sweden • Swanston Street, Melbourne, Australia • <i>Tanner Fountain, Harvard, Cambridge, MA</i> • The Circus, Bath, Great Britain • The Roppongi Hills Project, Tokyo, Japan • <i>The Sea Ranch, California</i> • <i>The Woodlands New Town, TX</i> • Tilla Durieux Park, Berlin, Germany • Times Square, Manhattan, United States • Tokyo Teleport Town, Tokyo Bay, Japan • USF Square, Bergen, Norway • <i>Vietnam Memorial, Washington, DC</i> • <i>Village Homes, Davis, CA</i> • Wallingford, Seattle, WA • <i>Washington Environmental Yard, Berkeley, CA</i> • Wisconsin Northwood Land, WI • Zhongshan Shipyard Park, Zhongshan, China | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Space Public Life Studies, Gehl Architects, (1968-2016) • Public Space, Carr et al., 1992 • S,M,L,XL, Rem Koolhaas and Bruce Nau • Sefton and South East Devon, Blacksell and Gilg 1975 • Stanley Parks, Liverpool: 1858–1872, Marne, 2001 • Taking measures Across the American Landscape, Corner, 1996 • The Concise Townscape, Gordon Cullen, 1961 • The Death and Life of Great American Cities, Jacobs 1961 • The Endless City, Ricky Burdett and Deyan Sudjic, 2008 • The evolving metropolis: studies of community, neighborhood and street form at the urban edge, Southworth, M. & Owens P.M., 2007 • The Exploding Metropolis, William H Whyte, 1958 • The Image of the City, Kevin Lynch, 1960 • The Rise of the creative Class, Richard Florida, 2002 • The Silent Language, Edward, T. Hall, 1959 • The Social Life of Small Urban Spaces, Whyte 1980 • Urban Parks and Open Spaces, Garvin and Berens, 1997 • Variations on a theme park, red. Michael Sorkin 1992 • Yard, Street and Park, Girling and Helphand, 1994 |
|--|--|

Source: Italics indicates examples from Francis 2001.

Observation methods – quantitative

| Behavioural Mapping | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|----------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/Neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | x | | | | | | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | x |
| Description | Behavioural mapping, movement studies or non-participant observation provide a single picture of a moment in time of a given place and assist in determining barriers to use, spatial relationships (Powell, 2010; Forsyth et al. 2008, 2010), delimiting edges and areas of user dispersal, direction of travel, areas of preference and relevant functions of design interventions such as furniture, gardens and turf. This quantitative technique is used in a number of disciplines including social sciences, urban planning, landscape architecture and geography. Behavioural mapping has been credited to Ittelson, Rivlin and Proshansky for their work in the 1970s to provide descriptions of observed behaviour in controlled environments of psychiatric wards. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Mapping undertaken registers stationary activity to determine patterns of use and preferences of location based on activity. Snap shot of usage patterns to emerge. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique systematically records a precise list of predefined stationary activities selected matching the site context and purpose of the research. Mapping is conducted at various times of the day and week. This technique is usually combined with pedestrian flow counts and tracing to determine trip lengths, route choice and duration for a more detailed analysis. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combines elements of descriptive methods or public preference methods and are useful for particular types of places such as main streets (Ewing et al.,2005b; Green, 2000) When combined with other methods the limitation are minimised and researched can be quantified | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mapping of patterns reveals little about character or quality of spaces (Southworth and Owens, 2007) Findings are based on subjective valued judgements Findings are based on regional descriptions Findings are based what the researcher decides to omit or stress which can be different for each project Emphasis on negative cues in environments and not the positive cues Generalist approach which doesn't look at site-specific characteristics Collected data usage is often minimal Few studies examine both objective and subjective measures Relies almost exclusively on subjective perceptions of the environment rather than on independent and objective measures (Perkins et al., 1992) Social and physical environmental traits mapped separately Behavioural mapping does not take cultural bias into consideration Studies require data of changing social, cultural, environmental and economic conditions in recognition of existing problems, environmental, historical context and local cultural norms, from built form, material and style preferences for accurate assessments. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Similarly to case studies there are minimal to no resulting implications of mapping if findings are for information only, however, if the findings are to act as base data the implications are wide. Behavioural mapping findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning, design and redesign phases of projects. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture typically combined two or more methods outlined in this study including case studies, systematic observations, visual assessment, place audits and counting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Behavioural mapping is able to distinguish between all types of publics, except appropriating, who are seen as regular users | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific and takes into consideration how each typology typically functions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | | | Yes | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes | | |

| Block Environmental Inventory | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/Neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | x | x | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | x | x | |
| Description | Block environmental inventories are environmental assessments which map non design components of residential areas such as property maintenance, signs of personalisation and direct forms of protection such as guard dogs (Perkins et al., 1992, Perkins & Brown, n.d). Block environmental inventories are assessments of public spaces focused on how places work from user standpoints based on observation. Block environmental inventories use participants' knowledge of an area and intuition to assess the good and bad quickly to identify future changes and overall performance. Douglas D. Perkins, John W Meeks and Ralph Taylor 1992 study recommended combining Block environmental inventories with resident surveys to comprehend correlations between physical nature of environments (objective elements) and perceptions (subjective elements). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Map non design components of residential areas to determine public life characteristics | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique systematically records a precise list of predefined stationary activities selected matching the site context and purpose of the research. Mapping is conducted at various times of the day and week. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combines elements of descriptive methods or public preference methods • Takes into consideration weather and time of day • When combined with other methods the limitation are minimised and researched can be quantified | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reveals little about character or quality of spaces • Findings are based on subjective valued judgements • Findings are based what the researcher decides to omit or stress which can be different for each project • Emphasis on negative cues in environments and not the positive cues • Collected data usage is often minimal • Social and physical environmental traits mapped separately • Does not take cultural bias into consideration | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Similarly to case studies and behavioural mapping there are minimal to no resulting implications of block environmental inventories if findings are for information only, however, if the findings are to act as base data the implications are wide. Block environmental inventories findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and redesign phases of projects. Successful studies typically combined two or more methods outlined in this study including case studies, systematic observations, visual assessment, place audits and counting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | | | |

| Counting Also known as Pedestrian Counts, Pedestrian Cordon Counts, Movements Counts, Gate Counts, Activity Counts and Staying Counts | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | | | | | | | | x | | | | x | | | | | | |
| Description | Everything in a public space can be counted to provide comparisons (Gehl & Svarre 2013) and assess pedestrian movement and behavioural patterns to assist the design process (Colin Buchanan, 2007). Because of this capacity Counting has become a common yet basic quantitative research tool to assess pedestrian movement and numbers in public space. Counting quickly determine how many people use public spaces. These counts are frequent and systematic, gathering quantitative data used to justify improvements and evaluate success or failure of public spaces. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | The main aim is to assess the quality and effectiveness of design of space (Planning Advisory Service, 1965) and provide an illustration of how space is used or which features attract use other than Commercial Spaces use (Gehl 2010). Typically used to collect end use data and estimate use, track trends, evaluate risks, show effects of projects/programs (before/after), develop volume models and demonstrate use. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique is typically undertaken in the field for exactly five, ten or fifteen minutes, once an hour between 9am and 10 pm at mid points of blocks or intersection. The time and locations are to gain a random sample to calculate pedestrian traffic per hour. Data is compiled for the day by counting the number of people who cross a spot in a given timeframe. Schweizer (2005) research suggests minimum collection time should be 15 minutes and with a minimum of 100 pedestrians. Counting is typically repeated using the same method on comparable days. Factual considerations such as weather, unexpected events and time of day are noted to allow for comparison on comparable days. Best practice for this technique is the conducting the study on one day in good weather and usual activities occurring, e.g. no events. Method can involve manual or automated systems. Automated systems for instance City of Melbourne Pedestrian Counting System collects and publish pedestrian traffic data 24 hours a day at key locations. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows for comparisons of the difference between pedestrian volume on selected days and during events providing data for assessments of pedestrian activity in the city Allows for assessments to determine the success of events and inform decisions about urban planning and management Automated sensors strengths include the ability to detect and retain large amounts of information, undertake studies in all weather conditions and link several sensors together Collected data can be combined with map databases, weather information, event calendars and other information, to provide data on crowd levels of public space and predictions of how those levels will change. Pedestrian counting, staying activity and behavioural mapping are constant tools which enable comparisons of public space over time and geographical lines to compare cities with others Many studies minimise data validity concerns by engaging university students to collect set data and trained professionals to undertake analysis | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Counting requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results. Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants reduces accuracy Counting occurs in limited timeframes. Timeframes may not be reflective of use missing dramatic but short changes in pedestrian volumes such as shops closing times or the work crowd leaving car parks which have an influx of people exiting at the same time. Timeframes are often structured around gaining the desired results Position of counters is important as behaviour can change substantially in just a few meters Automated sensors disadvantages include problems with vandalism if located poorly, software must be adapted for each project, sensors require calibration checks, maintenance and costs. Most automated counters do not distinguish between a person walking, walking a bicycle or riding a bicycle Counts are typically not undertaken when events, festivals or public holidays occur and typically not undertaken on sundays, mondays or fridays Studies are based on assumptions of times people will use public space thus results are limited to expected patterns of use and not the quirks which come with weather A number of studies reviewed have collected data focusing on only one season. Thus results are not a true reflection of population and typical public space usage. To obtain an accurate picture, studies need to balance number of users undertaking an activity and not undertaking observed activity Many studies just focus on those undertaking the particular activity mapped without assessing why they chose to sit which limits the complete assessment of a site Omission of geographical classification, temporal changes, passage of events, direction of travel Count methodologies are not standardised and rarely provide enough information to extrapolate to weekly, monthly or annual volumes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The use of counting methods and the implications for landscape architects in design and research are wide ranging. Counting techniques establish levels of use, however, they should be used in conjunction with other techniques as counting only provides high level data. Results can show high use but does not necessarily mean a people friendly vibrant environment or provided the purpose of the trip and staying activities. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which follow set procedures and are able to replicate study parameters. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Counting assess activities and numbers only excluding information regarding who is undertaking the activity. No distinguish between typologies of publics is made. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | No | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Desktop Audit | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-----------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | | | |
| | | | X | X | X | X | | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | | | | | |
| Description | Desktop audits are electronic inventories and document reviews which collect data related to physical features, facilities and amenities. They involve review of existing reports, plans and photography relating or collection of data through the use of GIS software (e.g. ArcMap) linked to software which provides aerial photography (e.g. Google Earth). Primarily audits are used for background information, fixed asset management and administration. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Collect data related to physical features, facilities and amenities and determine how a space is used and who uses it. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Desktop audits are a descriptive method, data are collected via a series of predefined list of questions provided to auditors. Questions are simple to minimise individual interpretation of physical features, facilities and amenities. Questions can include what types of activities the space is designed for, approximate number of trees, approximate number of car parks and lighting. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inexpensive • Efficient and economical collection of any size of an area within a short time, small error rates and the ability to repeat • Allows for detail assessments at a later data to discover/review new connections • Emphasis on interactions between public life and space | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Separation of researcher from the physical landscape. • Complete analysis requires an understanding of the context of the site including user demographics and user behaviour. • Static glimpse in time • Findings are reliant on agenda of study and what information is collected • Static glimpse in time • Only captures what can be captured (Laughlin and Johnson, 2011) • Impact of weather on equipment (Schweizer, 2005) • Can be an intrusion of privacy • Time intensive to program, plan, execute and review | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Desktop audits findings have the potential to shape physical planning, design, management and maintenance for comparative sites. Successful audits which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods. The successful audits typically combined two or more methods outlined in this study including systematic observations, visual assessment and place audits. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The distinction between typologies of publics is subjective and limited to the researcher undertaking data analysis. Site desktop audits are not able to distinguish between typologies of publics. The distinction between publics could be built into place audits or teased out by questions regarding site features. Document reviews are able to present minimal data on the defined public and the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | No | | | The Transitory Public | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | Yes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | The distinction between public space typologies is objective and limited to the research undertaken. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | Yes | | | Waterfronts | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | Yes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Figure Ground Mapping | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | | | | x | x | | | | x | x | | | |
| Description | Figure ground mapping is an assessment of public spaces. Figure ground mapping use participants' knowledge of an area and intuition to assess the good and bad quickly to identify future changes and overall performance. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Show the relationship between built and unbuilt space. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Aerial imagery is used along with site plans to systematically mark out all connections, features and hierarchy of built elements in a defined location. GIS and databases are commonly combined with ground investigations. The technique quickly builds up two dimensional graphic representations of differences and similarities of sites and allows for analyse of built elements which are not subject to daily change. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Starting point for urban design master planning processes and landscape architectural site analysis Assessments are repeatable (Aoki 1999; united states public buildings service, 2007; Forsyth et al. 2008, 2010). Can accurately depict similarities and differences among the places. Measure what it claims to measure Measures a number of fairly complex urban-design concepts in a clear and comprehensible way Easy to replicate The methods are related to aesthetic theories and emphasise physical form (Von Meiss, 1990; Cantacuzino, 1994). This technique emphasises built elements and features, business locations and types and destination points. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Time consuming Lack of information is provided about the meaning of the place studied or about users Weak for open space Snapshot of one time only Limited by the selection of objective tangible elements such as water features and the exclusion of subjective elements such as safety and comfort. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Figure Ground Mapping has the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning phases of project. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and involve expert and public participants. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | No distinguish between typologies of publics is made. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | No | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Pedestrian Flows Also known as Pedestrian Cordon Counts, Movements Counts, Gate Counts and Pedestrian Flow Survey | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|-------------------------------|--|--|-------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | x | |
| Description | Pedestrian flows quickly determine how many people use public spaces. These counts are frequent and systematic, gathering quantitative data used to justify improvements and evaluate success or failure of public spaces | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Assess the quality and effectiveness of design of space. Typically used to collect end use data and estimate use, track trends, evaluate risks, show effects of projects/programs (before/after), develop volume models and demonstrate use. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique is typically undertaken in the field for exactly five, ten or fifteen minutes, once an hour, to gain a random sample to calculate pedestrian traffic per hour and compiled to provide data for the day by counting the number of people who cross a spot in a given timeframe. Schweizer (2005) research suggests minimum collection time should be 15 minutes and with a minimum of 100 pedestrians. Counting requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results. The position of counters is important over other traffic censuses because pedestrian streams can change substantially in just a few meters. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows for comparisons of the difference between pedestrian volume on selected days and during events providing data for assessments of pedestrian activity in the city Allows for assessments to determine the success of events and inform decisions about urban planning and management Automated sensors strengths include the ability to detect and retain large amounts of information, undertake studies in all weather conditions and link several sensors together Collected data can be combined with static map databases, weather information, event calendars and other information, to provide data on crowd levels of public space and predictions of how those levels will change. Enable comparisons of public space over time and geographical lines to compare cities with others Low costs and low staff requirements | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants reduces accuracy Outside influences on why people are using particular spaces are not considered Occurs in limited timeframes. Timeframes may not be reflective of use missing dramatic but short changes in pedestrian volumes such as shops closing times or the work crowd leaving carparks which have an influx of people exiting at the same time Occurs in limited weather conditions Requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results Position of counters is important as behaviour can change substantially in just a few meters Automated sensors disadvantages include problems with vandalism if located poorly, software must be adapted for each project, sensors require calibration checks, maintenance and costs Lack of control and the requirement of good organisation Typically not undertaken when events, festivals or public holidays occur Typically not undertaken on sundays, mondays or fridays Studies are based on assumptions of times people will use public space thus results are limited to expected patterns of use and not the quirks which come with weather Omission of geographical classification Omission of temporal changes, passage of events, direction of travel Methodologies are not standardised and rarely provide enough information to extrapolate to weekly, monthly or annual volumes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The use of Pedestrian flows and the implications for landscape architects in design and research are wide ranging. This method establishes levels of use, however, should be used in conjunction with other techniques as pedestrian flows only provides high level data. Results can show high use but does not necessarily mean a people friendly vibrant environment or provided the purpose of the trip and staying activities. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which follow set procedures and are able to replicate study parameters. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Pedestrian flows assess activities and numbers only excluding information regarding who is undertaking the activity. No distinguish between typologies of publics is made. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | The Defined Public | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | No | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | |

| Place Audits | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|---|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | |
| Description | Place audits are assessments of public spaces focused on how places work from user standpoints based on observation. Place audits use participants' knowledge of an area and intuition to assess the good and bad quickly to identify future changes and overall performance. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Assess public spaces at a site levels to determine public life, use and public space qualities. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Place audits developed by PPS are undertaken on site and are based on common sense and intuition to quickly develop recommendations. Participants use predefined checklists to score selected sites. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Checklists with ratings to collect data • Checklist means trained personnel are not required to undertake data collection • Focus on participant perception of design, management, security, image, aesthetics, access and connections • Scores tallied at the end of assessments are used to determine appropriate improvements. • Assessments are repeatable • Provides an overall weighted score for each element to directly compare different places • Measure what it claims to measure • One page form is easy to manage in the field • Easy inventory tool to learn and questions are straight forward • It is flexible in that individual questions can be extracted to make shorter inventories tailored to specific questions | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of information provide about the meaning of the place studied or about users • Minimum or maximum numbers of participants are not stated in place audits instructions or methodology of academic studies • Different raters might create different scores for the same place • Places will be assessed differently based on when measurements are taken • Reliability of components can be questionable as selection is based on hypothetical assumptions of importance • Rankings are arbitrary or relative only to other elements within the site and don't produce quantitative evaluations • Results in generalised judgements • Snapshot of one time only • Linked to respondents personality • Neutral ratings present lack of awareness • Voice of majority over minor • Preferences vary according to fashion • Limited by the selection of objective tangible elements such as water features and the exclusion of subjective elements such as safety and comfort | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Place Audits findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of project and planning and administration of specific sites. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and involve expert and public participants. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The method is related to aesthetic theories and emphasise physical form therefore does not distinguish between typologies of publics | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | No | | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. The method is related to aesthetic theories and emphasise physical form therefore does not distinguish between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Post Occupancy Evaluations | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|----------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x |
| Description | Post occupancy evaluations are public preference method assessing usability and user satisfaction post design. Key work includes analyses of public places, greenspaces, housing developments, large scale public buildings and large public plazas (Bechtel et al., 1987; Cooper Marcus & Sarkissian, 1986; Cooper Marcus & Francis 1998; Kaplan et al., 1998; Whyte 1980; Sarkissian 1980s-current; Zeisel, 2006). Post occupancy evaluation is an analysis of a particular site by a combination of different survey techniques. This technique was adapted from environmental behavioural research and is used predominantly for government or institutional large scale projects. Post occupancy evaluation principally combines participant observation, site analysis, tracing, behavioural mapping and informal interviews conducted on site. Results of the evaluation determine whether redesign is required or if the space is functioning as planned. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Assess how successful the site is in supporting the occupying public (organisation) and the requirements of individual end-users. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Participants use predefined checklists to score selected sites. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Checklists with ratings to collect data • Checklist means trained personnel are not required to undertake data collection • Focus on participant perception of design, management, security, image, aesthetics, access and connections • Scores tallied at the end of assessments are used to determine appropriate improvements • Make sense to people who have visited the places • Easy inventory tool to learn and questions are straight forward | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific study timeframes (typically one day) thereby omitting of temporal changes and passage of events • Minimum or maximum numbers of participants are not stated in methodology • Different assessors might create different scores for the same place • Places will be assessed differently based on when measurements are taken • Focused on commercial streets and is less applicable to other kinds of environments • The complete inventory is long • Reliability of components can be questionable as selection is based on hypothetical assumptions of importance and influence whether permanent or transitory • Rankings are arbitrary or relative only to other elements within the site and don't produce quantitative evaluations • Voice of majority over minor • Preferences vary according to fashion | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Post occupancy evaluations have implications for landscape architects in comparative site design and planning. However Similarly to case studies there are minimal to no resulting implications if evaluations are for information only. Successful Post occupancy evaluations which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and consider the broader context of the geographical location. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Evaluations are able to distinguish between all publics expect transitory because of the combination of tools and techniques employed. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | | The Appropriating Public | | Yes | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Evaluations are able to distinguish between all publics space typologies because of the combination of tools and techniques employed. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | Yes | | | Streets & Promenades | | Yes | | | Plazas & Squares | | Yes | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes | | | |

| Score Sheets | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|-------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|---|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/ neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | | | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | |
| Description | Score sheets are assessment techniques which are strong at assessing sites at district levels in cities and context sensitive solution projects (Ewing et al. 2005a, 2005b, 2006). The assessments emphasis is on degree the area feels walkable and the degree of human scale through a set of predetermined weighted questions to themes of imageability, enclosure, human scale, transparency and complexity (Forsyth et al. 2008, 2010). Score sheets are assessments of public spaces focused on how places work from user standpoints based on observation. Score sheets use participants' knowledge of an area and intuition to assess the good and bad quickly to identify future changes and overall performance. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Assess public spaces at a site levels to determine public life, use and public space qualities. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Score sheet provides scores for key urban design concepts of relevance to specific sites. Participants use predefined checklists to score selected sites. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Based on concepts considered to be important by experts in urban design Comprehensively measured urban design qualities and was easy to manage in the field. Allowed for direct comparison between sites | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Similar validity problems as counting as both methods do not allow for varying nature of items with time and weather and particularly number of people. Assessment weighted scores are complicated, reliant on a standard deviation to determine final scores, subject to interpretation and subject to what is in the site segment. Limited because of the time involved, extensive counting required, lack of consideration of varying weather conditions, applicable to commercial streets only and precise scores seen as misstated. Forsyth et al. (2008, 2010) study suggested use of score sheets and inventories are weighted towards what experts consider important Ignore use of a public space forgetting the human element | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Score Sheets findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of project and planning and administration of specific sites. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and involve expert and public participants. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The method is emphasise physical form therefore does not distinguish between typologies of publics | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | No | | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. The method is emphasise physical form therefore does not distinguish between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Site Inventory Also known as Place Inventories | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------|-----------------------|--------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------------|--|--|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/ neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | | |
| Description | Site (Place) Inventory is an observational audit focused on physical environment features and typically linked to walking and cycling. Site inventories use participants' knowledge of an area and intuition to assess the good and bad quickly to identify future changes and overall performance. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine how places work from user standpoints based on observation. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique uses checklists to measure urban design and environmental features. Typical questions including presence of, absence of and quantity of, are easy for participants to answer and means a variety of spaces can be measured. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The inventory provides great detail on the character of places and can be used in a wide variety of environments It is a more neutral audit tool than the score sheet—while it counts features it does not come up with a score Straight forward comprehensive nature Flexible Ability to tailor specific questions Ability to create indicators to judge negative or positive attributes of public space | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the ability to be flexible and select questions is also seen as a limitation as problematic omissions may occur Similar validity problems as counting as both methods do not allow for varying nature of items with time and weather and particularly number of people Forsyth et al. (2008, 2010) study suggested use of score sheets and inventories are weighted towards what experts consider important Ignore use of a public space forgetting the human element | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | Score Inventories findings have the potential to shape physical planning, re design and administration of specific sites. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods and involve expert and public participants. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | No | | | The Transitory Public | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | Yes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | No | | | Streets & Promenades | No | | | Plazas & Squares | No | | | Waterfronts | No | | | Commercial Spaces | No | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Staying Activities Also known as Activity Counts, Staying Counts, Stationary Mapping, Behavioural Mapping, Walk-By Observations | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | |
| | | | X | X | X | X | | X | X | | | | | | | | | | X | X | | | | X | | | | | |
| Description | Staying activity counts quickly determine how many people use public spaces. These counts are frequent and systematic, gathering quantitative data used to justify improvements and evaluate success or failure of public spaces. These studies gathering data on staying activities duration and activity by checklists, taking notes, photos and videos. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine how many people use public spaces and how. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique is typically undertaken in the field for exactly five, ten or fifteen minutes, once an hour, to gain a random sample to calculate activities undertaken per hour and compiled to provide data for the day by counting the number of people undertaking particular activities at a given timeframe. Schweizer (2005) research suggests minimum collection time should be 15 minutes and with a minimum of 100 pedestrians. A predefined checklist is used to note activities undertaken and is combined with notes, photos and videos. Staying activities requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows for comparisons of the difference between pedestrian volume on selected days and during events providing data for assessments of pedestrian activity in the city Allows for assessments to determine the success of events and inform decisions about urban planning and management Collected data can be combined with static map databases, weather information, event calendars and other information, to provide data on crowd levels of public space and predictions of change. Staying activity are constant tools which enable comparisons of public space over time and geographical lines to compare cities with others Low costs and low staff requirements Site focused Many studies minimise data validity concerns by engaging university students to collect set data and trained professionals to undertake analysis | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants reduces accuracy Outside influences on why people are using particular spaces are not considered Counting occurs in limited timeframes. Timeframes may not be reflective of use missing dramatic but short changes in pedestrian volumes such as shops closing times or the work crowd leaving car parks which have an influx of people exiting at the same time Timeframes are often structured around gaining the desired results Occurs in limited weather conditions Counting requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results Counts are typically not undertaken when events, festivals or public holidays occur Counts are typically not undertaken on sundays, mondays or fridays Studies are based on assumptions of times people will use public space thus results are limited to expected patterns of use and not the quirks which come with weather A number of studies reviewed have collected data focusing on only one season. Thus results are not a true reflection of population and typical public space usage. To obtain an accurate picture, studies need to balance number of users undertaking an activity and not undertaking observed activity Omission of geographical classification, temporal changes, passage of events, direction of travel Methodologies are not standardised and rarely provide enough information to extrapolate to weekly, monthly or annual volumes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The use of counting methods and the implications for landscape architects in design and research are wide ranging. Counting techniques establish levels of use, however, they should be used in conjunction with other techniques as counting only provides high level data. Results can show high use and range of activities but does not necessarily mean a people friendly vibrant environment or provided the purpose of the trip and staying activities. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which follow set procedures and are able to replicate study parameters | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Counting assess activities and numbers only excluding information regarding who is undertaking the activity. Some distinction between typologies of publics is made. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Staying Counts Also known as Counting, Staying Activities, Activity Counts, Stationary Mapping, Behavioural Mapping and Walk-By Observations | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | | | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | | | | | | | | | x | x | | | | x | | | | | | |
| Description | Staying counts quickly determine how many people use public spaces. These counts are frequent and systematic, gathering quantitative data used to justify improvements and evaluate success or failure of public spaces | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine how many people use public spaces and how. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique is typically undertaken in the field for exactly five, ten or fifteen minutes, once an hour, to gain a random sample to calculate usage of a public space per hour and compiled to provide data for the day by counting the number of people staying within a space for a given timeframe. Schweizer (2005) research suggests minimum collection time should be 15 minutes and with a minimum of 100 pedestrians. A predefined checklist/table is used to note activities and duration of activities undertaken and is combined with notes, photos and videos. Counting requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results. The position of counters is important over other traffic censuses because pedestrian streams can change substantially in just a few meters. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows for comparisons of the difference between pedestrian volume on selected days and during events providing data for assessments of pedestrian activity in the city Allows for assessments to determine the success of events and inform decisions about urban planning and management Collected data can be combined with static map databases, weather information, event calendars and other information, to provide data on crowd levels of public space and predictions of how those levels will change. Staying activity are constant tools which enable comparisons of public space over time and geographical lines to compare cities with others Low costs and low staff requirements Site focused Many studies minimise data validity concerns by engaging university students to collect set data and trained professionals to undertake analysis | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants reduces accuracy Outside influences on why people are using particular spaces are not considered Counting occurs in limited timeframes. Timeframes may not be reflective of use missing dramatic but short changes in pedestrian volumes such as shops closing times or the work crowd leaving car parks which have an influx of people exiting at the same time Timeframes are often structured around gaining the desired results Occurs in limited weather conditions Counting requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results Counts are typically not undertaken when events, festivals or public holidays occur Counts are typically not undertaken on sundays, mondays or fridays Studies are based on assumptions of times people will use public space thus results are limited to expected patterns of use and not the quirks which come with weather A number of studies reviewed have collected data focusing on only one season. Thus results are not a true reflection of population and typical public space usage. To obtain an accurate picture, studies need to balance number of users undertaking an activity and not undertaking observed activity Omission of geographical classification Omission of temporal changes, passage of events, direction of travel Methodologies are not standardised and rarely provide enough information to extrapolate to weekly, monthly or annual volumes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The use of counting methods and the implications for landscape architects in design and research are wide ranging. Counting techniques establish levels of use, however, they should be used in conjunction with other techniques as counting only provides high level data. Results can show high use and range of activities but does not necessarily mean a people friendly vibrant environment or provided the purpose of the trip and staying activities. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which follow set procedures and are able to replicate study parameters | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No comparison between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Tracking | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | | | X | X | X | X | | X | X | | | | | | | | X | | X | X | | | X | X | | | | X | | |
| Description | Tracking gathers information regarding dominant and subordinate sequences of activities such as walking, the direction of travel, movement or avoidance along a route. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine how people move through a space, what they are attracted to and what they avoid with or without the public knowing. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | There are a number of different techniques dependant on data collected including stationary observations or tracking timed observations. All techniques are undertaken in the field. Stationary Observation involves discreetly following participants and mapping patterns of movement and recording their movements undertaken manually or through time lapse photography. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants maintains objectivity of data Manual tracking can add additional information such as why, how, who, weather conditions and events occurring outside of the study area which may be effect the study areas use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of surveyors to manually track/count participants reduces accuracy high associated costs in time and materials Participants changes behavioural patterns if they know they are followed. Therefore studies in which people are asked to undertake routine behaviour may not depict actual perceptions, activities or characteristics which would normally take place. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications of tracking or shadowing for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study undertaken and what information is collected. Tracking has the potential to shape redesign, auditing and management of built landscapes and can assist in design and planning when combined with other methods outlined in this study including case studies and behavioural mapping. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Walk-by Observations Also known as Staying Activities, Activity Counts, Staying Counts, Stationary Mapping and Behavioural Mapping | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | | | |
| Description | Walk-by observations quickly determine how many people use public spaces and how they use it. This methods is frequent and systematic, gathering quantitative data used to justify improvements and evaluate success or failure of public spaces. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Determine how many people use public spaces and how. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | This technique is typically undertaken in the field for exactly five, ten or fifteen minutes, once an hour, to gain a random sample to calculate activities undertaken per hour and compiled to provide data for the day by counting the number of people undertaking particular activities at a given timeframe. Schweizer (2005) research suggests minimum collection time should be 15 minutes and with a minimum of 100 pedestrians. A predefined checklist is used to note activities undertaken and is combined with notes, photos and videos. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows for comparisons of the difference between volume and use on selected days and during events providing data for assessments of pedestrian activity in the city Allows for assessments to determine the success of events and inform decisions about urban planning and management Collected data can be combined with static map databases, weather information, event calendars and other information, to provide data on crowd levels of public space and predictions of how those levels will change. Low costs and low staff requirements Site focused | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Outside influences on why people are using particular spaces are not considered Can miss dramatic but short changes in pedestrian volumes such as shops closing times or the work crowd leaving carparks which have an influx of people exiting at the same time Timeframes are often structured around gaining the desired results Occurs in limited weather conditions Requires results to be exact as small inaccuracies invalidate results Counts are typically not undertaken when events, festivals or public holidays occur Counts are typically not undertaken on sundays, Mondays or Fridays Studies are based on assumptions of times people will use public space thus results are limited to expected patterns of use and not the quirks which come with weather A number of studies reviewed have collected data focusing on only one season. Thus results are not a true reflection of population and typical public space usage. To obtain an accurate picture, studies need to balance number of users undertaking an activity and not undertaking observed activity Omission of geographical classification Omission of temporal changes Omission of passage of events Omission of direction of travel Methodologies are not standardised and rarely provide enough information to extrapolate to weekly, monthly or annual volumes | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The use of walk-by methods and the implications for landscape architects in design and research are wide ranging. This technique establishes levels of use, however, should be used in conjunction with other techniques. Results can show high use and range of activities but does not necessarily mean a people friendly vibrant environment or provided the purpose of the trip and staying activities. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for comparative sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful studies which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which follow set procedures and are able to replicate study parameters | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

Appendix 2.C

Detailed overview of interview methods

The following subsections present a detailed overview of observation methods outlined in Chapter Six subsection 6.1.2 Interview Methods outlining the strengths, Weakness, Challenges and Limitations, ability to distinguish between public space typologies and ability to distinguish between typologies of publics.

The interview methods detailed below represent methods applicable for assessing uses and appreciation of urban public space within Landscape Architecture and not a comprehensive list of all Interview methods.

Interview methods - qualitative

| Design Workshops Also known as Focus Groups And Community Engagement | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | ResearChers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | | x | | | x | x | X | | x | X | x | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | | | |
| Description | Design workshops provide a focused but comprehensive view of design quality and allow for comprehensive and multifaceted assessments of environments, which undertaken correctly can capture a well-rounded and in-depth perspective of greater detail than observational techniques discussed above. The Design Workshop method emphasises professional (academic or discipline) backgrounds and allows for designers and non-designers comments to be separated or distinguished in outcomes, which as noted by Forsyth et al. (2008, 2010) is of importance to recognise architects (or other design disciplines) views about buildings are different to the general public and more experimental with aesthetics (Devlin 1990; Nasar 1998). | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Represent all members of the community allowing participants to voice their views and become part of the design process. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Open format is facilitated by one person to allow for wide ranging conversations, for all members of the workshop to contribute, keep the conversations on topic and for participants to build on comments (Forsyth et al., 2008, 2010). Outcomes are transcribed, assessed and provided as an end report. Workshops are common in landscape architecture practice from client based workshops at project commencement, design focused workshops with professional teams and community engagement with the general public. Participant selection is linked to type of project and timeframe of project. Engagements hope for a wide range of interested participants to take part. Downfalls are random or systematic selection of participants may mean a general public view cannot be given. This method typically incorporates at least one other method and are not limited by score sheets or inventory but a series of structured questions in an open format to focus participants and build capacity among the public to discuss design. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Captures a broad and multi-faceted view of an environment • Measures attitudes • Well-rounded and in-depth perspective can be obtained • Focus on both strengths and challenges of an area while still allowing them to raise other issues • The group format allows people to build on each other's comments • When assessed correctly collected data can be useful for background information and small scale urban design and planning interventions to formulate priority activities, programs and community visions | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Architectural designers have a particular view point, (Nasar 1998, p. 17; Nasar & Kang, 1989; Devlin 1990; Stamps, 1999; Gifford et al., 2002). • A lot of preparation, briefings and data gathering before workshop • Not suited for a systematic assessment • Content validity concerns (Balram & Dragičević 2005) • Reliant selection of participants • Within landscape architecture research and design is presence of the majority voice over minor. These limitations are the same for disciplines such as psychology and sociology among others. However unlike Landscape architecture other disciplines factor in the dominant voice into data analysis. • Assumptions of studies assume a cross-section of community take part, yet detailed planning processes rarely result in workshops and engagements representing all community members • Can prompt the results by leading the participant (Subjective Expectancy Effect). A researcher's bias can unconsciously influence study participants resulting in expectancies regarding results influencing research outcomes. Simple processes can lead participants by creating predefined expectations. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies where information gained is to support a particular point of view, however, if the findings are to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful Design workshops inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods outlined in this study including questionnaire and visual assessment. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | As workshops focus primarily on use a clear distinction between publics is limited to the defined public and the illegitimate public. Community engagement typically focuses on one space or demographic of participants only thus the distinction between publics is limited to the defined public and the illegitimate public. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Discussion Groups | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | | x | | x | x | | x | x | X | | x | X | x | | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | x | | |
| Description | Discussion groups provide a focused but comprehensive view of public space and allow for comprehensive and multifaceted assessments of environments, which undertaken correctly can capture a well-rounded and in-depth perspective of greater detail than observational techniques discussed above. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Represent all members of the community allowing participants to voice their views. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Open format is facilitated by one person to allow for wide ranging conversations, for all members of the workshop to contribute, keep the conversations on topic and for participants to build on comments (Forsyth et al., 2008, 2010). Outcomes are transcribed, assessed and provided as an end report. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used for content analyses, site-specific responses and categorising use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical reactions perception of space. Participants can accurately reported their change of behaviour Analysis can combine secondary data sources Can be staged Typically involves visual methods/activities such as mapping | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can prompt the results by leading the participant (Subjective Expectancy Effect). A researcher's bias can unconsciously influence study participants resulting in expectancies regarding results influencing research outcomes. Simple processes can lead participants by creating predefined expectations. A lot of preparation, briefings and data gathering before the discussion group Reliant selection of participants. Assumptions of studies assume a cross section of community take part, yet detailed planning processes rarely result in discussion groups representing all community members Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings. Data can be questionable if based on low levels of respondents Similarly to Design workshops the presence of the majority voice over minor is a limitation. Participant selection can represent a skewed data group instead of generalised representation publics. Validity of results are based on personal impressions therefore participant selection is important for minimising expectancies regarding results and research outcomes. Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific items/elements, the researcher is reliant on the participant responses | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies where information gained is to support a particular point of view, however, if the findings are to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful discussion groups which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which ensure a cross section of community take part and are heard. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific typologies all other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Typically site-specific therefore unless specific questions are asked regarding specific public space typologies no comparison between public space typologies can occur. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Interviews (unstructured) | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | x | | x | | x | x | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | | x | | |
| Description | Interviews provide 1x1 focused but comprehensive discussions of public space to aid comprehensive and multifaceted assessments of environments. When undertaken correctly interviews can capture a well-rounded and in-depth perspective of greater detail than observational techniques discussed above. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Allow participants to voice their individual views | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Open format to allow for wide ranging conversations and for participants to build on comments. Outcomes are transcribed, assessed and provided as an end report. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used for content analyses, site-specific responses and categorising use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical reactions perception of space. Participants can accurately reported their change of behaviour Analysis can combine secondary data sources Can be staged | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can prompt the results by leading the participant (Subjective Expectancy Effect). A researcher's bias can unconsciously influence study participants resulting in expectancies regarding results influencing research outcomes. Simple processes can lead participants by creating predefined expectations. A lot of preparation, briefings and data gathering before the interview Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings. Data can be questionable if based on low levels of respondents Similarly to Design workshops the presence of the majority voice over minor is a limitation. Participant selection can represent a skewed data group instead of generalised representation publics. Validity of results are based on personal impressions therefore participant selection is important for minimising expectancies regarding results and research outcomes. Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific items/elements, the researcher is reliant on the participant responses | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies where information gained is to support a particular point of view, however, if the findings are to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful interviews which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which ensure a cross section of community take part and are heard. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

Combined qualitative and quantitative

| Interviews (structured) | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | x | | x | | | x | | x | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | | | |
| Description | Structured interviews provide 1x1 focused but comprehensive discussions of public space to aide comprehensive and multifaceted assessments of environments. When undertaken correctly interviews can capture a well-rounded and in-depth perspective of greater detail then observational techniques discussed above. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Allow participants to voice their individual views. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Structured format with a predefined list of questions. Outcomes are transcribed, assessed and provided as an end report. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used for content analyses, site-specific responses and categorising use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical reactions perception of space. Participants can accurately reported their change of behaviour Analysis can combine secondary data sources Can be staged | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can prompt the results by leading the participant (Subjective Expectancy Effect). A researcher’s bias can unconsciously influence study participants resulting in expectancies regarding results influencing research outcomes. Simple processes can lead participants by creating predefined expectations. A lot of preparation, briefings and data gathering before the interview Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings. Data can be questionable if based on low levels of respondents Participant selection can represent a skewed data group instead of generalised representation publics. Validity of results are based on personal impressions therefore participant selection is important for minimising expectancies regarding results and research outcomes. Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific items/elements, the researcher is reliant on the participant responses | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies where information gained is to support a particular point of view, however, if the findings are to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful interviews which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which ensure a cross section of community take part and are heard. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Considers demographic of participants only. All other potential users are classed as the Illegitimate Publics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes | | | The Appropriating Public | | | No | | | The Transitory Public | | | No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Self-reporting (diaries/noting) | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | | x | x | | x | | | x | | | x | | x | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | | | | |
| Description | Self-reporting notes details and nuances about interaction of users in public space to increase knowledge about human behaviour. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Register details and nuances about interaction of users in public space. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Self-reporting notes observations in real-time and systematically. The observer notes anything of relevance adding explanations or brief narratives. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When combined with surveys (street visitor, trader and customer surveys) and other methods combined to capture mode of travel, distance walked, activities and length of stay Self-reporting can collect human patterns of use. Presents real-time data Registers events which cannot be easily documented using other methods Combines objective and subjective data | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings Based on personal impressions Only activities seen as relevant by the observer are collected A lot of preparation and briefings to train observers Relies of formality Diaries have been shown to be limited because of only considering particular activities or events. Self-reported data, such as diaries, are often subject to reporting errors, require careful wording of set tasks. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies which are for information only to support a particular point of view, however, if the finding to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful Self-Reports which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The ability for Self-reports to distinguish between typologies of publics is determined by the observer | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes/no | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes/no | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes/no | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes/no | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

Interview - quantitative methods

| Interviews | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/Neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | | | x | | x | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | x | x | | | |
| Description | Interviews provide 1x1 focused but comprehensive discussions of public space to aide comprehensive and multifaceted assessments of environments. When undertaken correctly interviews can capture a well-rounded and in-depth perspective of greater detail then observational techniques discussed above. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Allow participants to voice their individual views on predetermined items/space/elements. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Structured format with a predefined list of questions. Outcomes are transcribed, assessed and provided as an end report. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used for content analyses, site-specific responses and categorising use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical reactions perception of space. Participants can accurately reported their change of behaviour Analysis can combine secondary data sources Captures a broad and multi-faceted view of an environment Time efficient When assessed correctly collected data can be useful for background information and small scale urban design and planning interventions to formulate priority activities, programs and community visions | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can prompt the results by leading the participant (Subjective Expectancy Effect). A researcher's bias can unconsciously influence study participants resulting in expectancies regarding results influencing research outcomes. Simple processes can lead participants by creating predefined expectations. A lot of preparation, briefings and data gathering before the interview Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings. Data can be questionable if based on low levels of respondents Participant selection can represent a skewed data group instead of generalised representation publics. Validity of results are based on personal impressions therefore participant selection is important for minimising expectancies regarding results and research outcomes. Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific items/elements, the researcher is reliant on the participant responses | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies where information gained is to support a particular point of view, however, if the findings are to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful interviews which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which ensure a cross section of community take part and are heard. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | Ability to distinguish between typologies of publics is determined by the questions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes/no | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes/no | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes/no | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes/no | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Surveys (postal, phone, online or in person) | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|----|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| | | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | x | x | x | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | | | | |
| Description | Surveys are typically used to gain data on perceptions or activities associated with time of day, physical layout, environmental characteristics and socio-demographic profiles. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Aim | Investigate individual levels of emotional reactions | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | Surveys contain as series of structured questions allowing for the same data to be collected from a large number of people in the same manner for analysis quantitatively. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key method and tool to identify conditions, demographics and activities associated with emotion or activity • Quantifiable styles of survey design provide decision makers with a level of information to make changes or confirm a desired result • Used for content analyses, site-specific responses and categorising use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical reactions perception of space. • Analysis can combine secondary data sources | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In-person surveys may 'suffer from reactivity-interviewer effects' (Nasar and Fisher's, 1993) because of approaching participants at locations assessed. • To avoid confirmation bias deception tools may need to be used to collect the data. • Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings • Similarly to Design workshops and Community engagement the presence of the majority voice over minor is a limitation. • based on personal impressions • A lot of preparation, briefings and data gathering before workshop • Relies of formality • Not suited for a systematic assessment • Reliant selection of participants • Assumptions of studies assume a cross section of community take part, yet detailed planning processes rarely result in a representation of all community members • A number of authors question survey design for investigating individual levels of emotional reactions. Or instance survey design for studies of fear can include phrases which mix vulnerability and risk with respect to participants own surroundings while not discussing serious offenses, thus considering violent crimes at the same level as stolen mail. Miethé (add year) states survey design issues stem from fear not easily quantifiable. How quantifiable emotional reactions truly are should be questioned in studies which interpret qualitative data • Surveys can prompt the results by leading the participant (Subjective Expectancy Effect). A researcher's bias can unconsciously influence study participants resulting in expectancies regarding results influencing research outcomes. Simple processes can lead participants by creating predefined expectations • Statistically valid approach is required to generate reliable economic assessments and the use of surveys are not statistically valid. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | The implications for landscape architects are related to the objective of the study. There are minimal to no resulting implications of studies which are for information only to support a particular point of view, however, if the finding to be used for the bases of design the implications are wide. Findings have the potential to shape physical planning and design for selected sites during the planning and design phases of projects. Successful Surveys which inform private practice and advance the discipline of landscape architecture are those which use a range of techniques, tools and methods. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The ability for Surveys to distinguish between typologies of publics is influenced by selected questions and the method of survey undertaken. Phone surveys are unable to distinguish between typologies of publics | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes/No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | Site specific. No distinction between public space typologies | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | No | | | Waterfronts | | | No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | No | | |

| Questionnaires (postal, online or in person) | Assessment approach | | | Assessment users | | | Data collected | | Concepts measured | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|----------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------|-------------------|--------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|--------------|--------|--|--|
| | Descriptive inventory Expert panel | Public preference approach | Descriptive inventory - Design approach | Governments (local, state, federal) | Researchers | Designers/practice | community | Subjective | Objective | Access | Residential grain/neighbourhood | Size (scale, human scale) | Transport environment (quality and quantity) | Ecological structures | Morphologically | Historical interpretation | Land use | Views | Amenities | Public life (types of active use) | Landscape characteristics | Architectural characteristics | Safety | People | imageability | enclosure | transparency | | | |
| Description | x | x | x | x | x | | | x | x | | x | x | x | | | x | | | | | | | x | x | x | | | | | |
| Aim | Questionnaire techniques are typically used to gain data on perceptions or activities associated with time of day, physical layout, environmental characteristics and socio-demographic profiles. The use of open ended questionnaires allows researchers such as Mamoru Amemiya and Makoto Yokohari (n.d), Perkins et al. (1992), to investigate the reason behind perceptions or activities and profile of users such as fear of crimes existence, extent and the relationship with fear. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Method | To bring participants into a dialogue and become part of a solution for the public space assessed via open ended questions, bi-polar ratings or likert scale questions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Strengths | Questionnaires are either highly structured allowing for the same data to be collected from a large number of people in the same manner for analysis quantitatively, systematically or open ended. Many questionnaire styles incorporate likert scale questions, rating tools or bi-polar rating tools. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weakness, Challenges and Limitations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Used for content analyses, site-specific responses and categorising use or avoidance of spaces into physical characterisation, such as too much vegetation and non-physical reactions perception of space. Self-reporting technique where Participants can accurately reported their change of behaviour Analysis can combine secondary data sources with data gained from questionnaire Combination of open-ended questionnaire and Likert or Bi-polar ratings Can be staged rating methods mark each element as independent of the others Ranking methods emphasis more differences than rating methods because of the fact that in the ranking method, respondents answers establish ordinal differences even if participants do not clearly perceive these differences as preferential elements | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Implications for landscape architects | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Challenge in gaining enough data for accurate findings Data from questionnaires are questionable if based on low levels of respondents Participant selection can represent a skewed data group instead of generalised representation publics. Validity of results are based on personal impressions therefore participant selection is important for minimising expectancies regarding results and research outcomes. Relies of formality and careful wording Selection of items/elements is influenced by attitudes and spatial environments (Balram & Dragičević 2005) Unless specific questions are asked regarding specific items/elements, the researcher is reliant on the participant responses Drawback of likert scale is the number of undecided answers (Balram & Dragičević 2005) of an item can change the significance in the data and remove it from analysis Bi-polar ratings capture macro measures missing micro measures and temporary changes to use or activity Self-reported data, such as questionnaires are often subject to reporting errors, require careful wording of set tasks | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish typology of publics | The ability for Questionnaires to distinguish between typologies of publics is influenced by selected questions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | The Defined Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Appropriating Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Transitory Public | | | Yes/No | | | The Illegitimate Public | | | Yes/No | | | | | | | | |
| Ability to distinguish public space typologies | The ability for Questionnaires to distinguish between public space typologies is influenced by selected questions. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Parks & Gardens | | | Yes/No | | | Streets & Promenades | | | Yes/No | | | Plazas & Squares | | | Yes/No | | | Waterfronts | | | Yes/No | | | Commercial Spaces | | | Yes/No | | |

Appendix 3

Design assessment framework approach self-administered questionnaire surveys

The research approach used to develop the Design Assessment framework combined desk top studies, field assessments and self-administered questionnaire surveys. Two self-administered questionnaire surveys were distributed to gather Landscape Architects and related Design disciplines views of Public space and assessment processes. Questionnaire design was based on cross-sectional survey design to prevent personal bias influencing respondents. Participants were selected from disciplines of Landscape Architecture, Urban Design and Architecture. All participants were contacted through correspondence sent to the Australian Institute of landscape Architects, Architects Institute of Australia and New Architects Group for distribution to members. Questionnaires were distributed between November 2012 and December 2012. Limited responses were received and deemed invalid.

Appendix 3 expands on information presented in Chapter Six providing Ethics Clearance approvals and the self-administered questionnaire surveys.

Appendix 3.A

Ethics clearance



RESEARCH BRANCH
OFFICE OF RESEARCH ETHICS, COMPLIANCE AND
INTEGRITY

BEVERLEY DOBBS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
LOW RISK HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW
GROUP (FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL
SCIENCES AND FACULTY OF THE PROFESSIONS)
THE UNIVERSITY OF ADELAIDE
SA 5005
AUSTRALIA
TELEPHONE +61 8 8313 4725
FACSIMILE +61 8 8313 7325
email: beverley.dobbs@adelaide.edu.au

3 October 2012

Dr K Bartsch
School of Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban Design

Dear Dr Bartsch

ETHICS APPROVAL No: HP-2012-086
PROJECT TITLE: The Invisible Privatisation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect - Defining Civic Space

I write to advise that the Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions) has approved the above project. The ethics expiry date for this project is **30 September 2015**.

Ethics approval is granted for three years subject to satisfactory annual progress and completion reporting. The form titled *Project Status Report* is to be used when reporting annual progress and project completion and can be downloaded at <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/ethics/human/guidelines/reporting>. On expiry, ethics approval may be extended for a further period.

Participants in the study are to be given a copy of the Information Sheet and the signed Consent Form to retain. It is also a condition of approval that you **immediately report** anything which might warrant review of ethical approval including:

- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants,
- previously unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project,
- proposed changes to the protocol; and
- the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

Please refer to the following ethics approval document for any additional conditions that may apply to this project.

Yours sincerely

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR RACHEL A. ANKENY
Convenor
Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)



RESEARCH BRANCH
OFFICE OF RESEARCH ETHICS, COMPLIANCE AND
INTEGRITY

BEVERLEY DOBBS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
LOW RISK HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW
GROUP (FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL
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TELEPHONE +61 8 8313 4725
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email: beverley.dobbs@adelaide.edu.au

Applicant: Dr K Bartsch
School: Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban
Design

Application/RM No: 14131

Project Title: **The Invisible Privatisation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape
Architect - Defining Civic Space**

**Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and
Faculty of the Professions)**

ETHICS APPROVAL No: HP-2012-086

APPROVED for the period until: 30 Sep 2015

This study is to be conducted by Miss Janelle Arbon, PhD Candidate.

**ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR RACHEL A. ANKENY
Convenor**

**Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of
Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)**



RESEARCH BRANCH
OFFICE OF RESEARCH ETHICS, COMPLIANCE AND
INTEGRITY

BEVERLEY DOBBS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
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3 October 2012

Dr K Bartsch
School of Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban Design

Dear Dr Bartsch

ETHICS APPROVAL No: HP-2012-089
PROJECT TITLE: The Invisible Privatisation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect - Design Awards Criteria

I write to advise that the Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions) has approved the above project. The ethics expiry date for this project is **30 September 2015**.

Ethics approval is granted for three years subject to satisfactory annual progress and completion reporting. The form titled *Project Status Report* is to be used when reporting annual progress and project completion and can be downloaded at <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/ethics/human/guidelines/reporting>. On expiry, ethics approval may be extended for a further period.

Participants in the study are to be given a copy of the Information Sheet and the signed Consent Form to retain. It is also a condition of approval that you **immediately report** anything which might warrant review of ethical approval including:

- serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants,
- previously unforeseen events which might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project,
- proposed changes to the protocol; and
- the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.

Please refer to the following ethics approval document for any additional conditions that may apply to this project.

Yours sincerely

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR RACHEL A. ANKENY
Convenor
Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)



RESEARCH BRANCH
OFFICE OF RESEARCH ETHICS, COMPLIANCE AND
INTEGRITY

BEVERLEY DOBBS
EXECUTIVE OFFICER
LOW RISK HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW
GROUP (FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL
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SA 5005
AUSTRALIA
TELEPHONE +61 8 8313 4725
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email: beverley.dobbs@adelaide.edu.au

Applicant: Dr K Bartsch
School: Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban
Design

Application/RM No: 14155

Project Title: **The Invisible Privatisation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape
Architect - Design Awards Criteria**

**Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and
Faculty of the Professions)**

ETHICS APPROVAL No: HP-2012-089

APPROVED for the period until: 30 Sep 2015

This study is to be conducted by Janelle Arbon, PhD Candidate.

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR RACHEL A. ANKENY

Convenor

**Low Risk Human Research Ethics Review Group (Faculty of
Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of the Professions)**

Appendix 3.B

Analysis and evaluation of civic space: implications for the landscape architect. Defining 'civic' space



Dear Respondent

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this questionnaire.

This questionnaire is being conducted as part of a PhD research study at The University of Adelaide in the School of Architecture Landscape Architecture and Urban Design.

The aim of the study is to analyse and evaluate perceptions of 'Civic' space.

The questionnaire should take **10-15mins** to complete. Please answer as many questions as you can to the best of your ability.

Attached for your information are the following documents

- Participant Information Sheet
- Consent Form
- Questionnaire

Participants are asked to return signed copies of the consent form and the completed questionnaire.

If you have any questions about this questionnaire, please contact the researcher carrying out the study by email: Janelle Arbon (janelle.arbon@adelaide.edu.au) School of Architecture Landscape Architecture and Urban Design at The University of Adelaide.

Thank you and regards,

Janelle Arbon
PHD Candidate
School of Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban Design
The University of Adelaide, SA 5005 AUSTRALIA
Tel: +61 8 8303 3702 Fax: +61 8 8303 4377
Email: janelle.arbon@adelaide.edu.au CRICOS Provider Code 00123M

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Project Title

Analysis and Evaluation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect
Defining 'Civic' space

Purpose and Aim of the study

The purpose of this study is to analyse and evaluate Civic Space. The aim of this study is to better understand perceptions of Civic Space. This specific component of the project seeks to understand how Landscape Architects and related design professionals define Civic space.

Procedure involving the Participant

Participants are asked to respond to 15 questions. It is anticipated that this will take approximately 10-15 minutes. Participants will be asked two sets of questions. The first regards the participant's background and will provide statistical data for the study. The second set will focus on the definition of Civic space.

Participation is voluntary and the participant may withdraw at any time.

The identity of participants will remain confidential at all times. Name and contact details (if supplied) will be kept separate from all data, only the researcher and supervisor will be aware of who the data was obtained from. All participants will be referred to by pseudonym known only to the researcher and supervisor.

Please return the attached consent form with your completed questionnaire.

Outcome of the Study

The results from the questionnaire form an important part of the researcher's thesis to be submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Publication of Results

The researcher intends to use this information as part of the thesis. It is anticipated that the research will be presented at an academic conference and published in an academic journal.

Independent Complaints Procedure

Attached to this information sheet are the contacts for information on Independent Complaints Procedure and information in regard to the role of the Human Research Ethics Committee for your information.

Contacts for this Study

Should you require any further information or have any concerns please do not hesitate to contact either of the researchers on the number given below

Dr Katharine Barstch
Postgraduate Research Coordinator
Principal Supervisor
School of Architecture, Landscape
Architecture and Urban Design
The University of Adelaide SA 5005
AUSTRALIA
Tel (work): 08 8303 5512
Email: katharine.bartsch@adelaide.edu.au

School of Architecture,
Landscape Architecture and
Urban Design
The University of Adelaide SA 5005
AUSTRALIA
Tel (work): 08 8303 3702
Email: janelle.arbon@adelaide.edu.au

Miss Janelle Arbon
Registered Senior Landscape Architect
Researcher

Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC)

CONSENT FORM

1. I have read the attached Information Sheet and agree to take part in the following research project:

| | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| Title: | Analysis & Evaluation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect. Defining 'Public' Space |
| Ethics Approval Number: | xxxx.xxx |

2. I have had the project, so far as it affects me, fully explained to my satisfaction by the research worker. My consent is given freely.
3. Although I understand the purpose of the research project, it has also been explained that involvement may not be of any benefit to me.
4. I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged.
5. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time.
6. I am aware that I should keep a copy of this Consent Form, when completed and the attached Information Sheet.

Participant to complete:

Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher/Witness to complete:

I have described the nature of the research to

(print name of participant)

and in my opinion she/he understood the explanation.

Signature: _____ Position: _____ Date: _____

The University of Adelaide
Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC)

This document is for people who are participants in a research project.

**CONTACTS FOR INFORMATION ON PROJECT AND INDEPENDENT COMPLAINTS
PROCEDURE**

The following study has been reviewed and approved by the University of Adelaide Human Research Ethics Committee:

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Project Title: | Analysis & Evaluation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect. Defining 'Civic' Space |
| Approval Number: | H-xxx.xxx |

The Human Research Ethics Committee monitors all the research projects which it has approved. The committee considers it important that people participating in approved projects have an independent and confidential reporting mechanism which they can use if they have any worries or complaints about that research.

This research project will be conducted according to the NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (see

<http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/e72syn.htm>)

1. If you have questions or problems associated with the practical aspects of your participation in the project or wish to raise a concern or complaint about the project, then you should consult the project coordinator:

| | |
|---------------|----------------------|
| Name: | Dr Katharine Bartsch |
| Phone: | 08 8303 5512 |

2. If you wish to discuss with an independent person matters related to:
 - making a complaint or
 - raising concerns on the conduct of the project or
 - the University policy on research involving human participants or
 - your rights as a participant,

contact the Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretariat on phone (08) 8303 6028.

Defining 'Civic' space

Please place your responses in each box accompanying each question.

Please answer as many questions as you can.

Please note there is no word limit. Attach additional pages if necessary

Name:

(Please note all responses will be anonymous. Name is requested for follow up purposes only)

Age Group:

Gender:

Profession:

Position:

Number of years of professional experience:

Education:

Primary country of Practice:

Country/State of Current residence:

1. How do you define 'Civic' space?

2. What types of open spaces in the city would you label 'Civic'?

3. Who has access to 'Civic' space?

4. How should Civic spaces be managed?

5. How should Civic space be maintained?

6. What activities are appropriate within 'civic' space?

7. What behaviours are appropriate within 'civic' space?

8. How do 'Civic' spaces benefit the city?

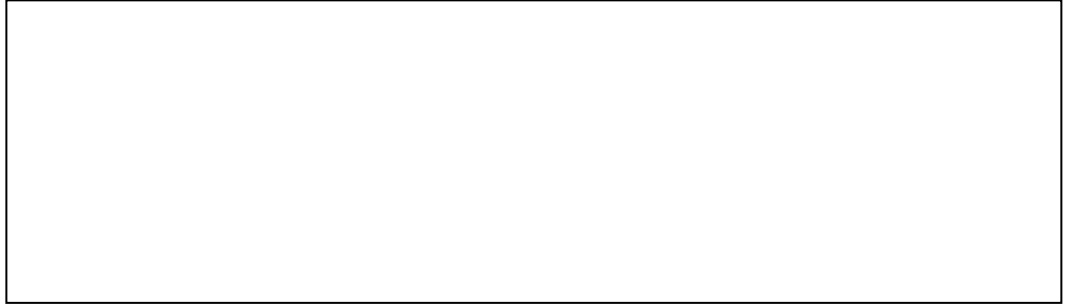
9. How do 'Civic' spaces contribute to the identity of the city?

10. Name 1-2 examples of high-quality 'Civic' spaces

11. What are the notable design features of these high-quality 'Civic' spaces?

12. Name 1-2 examples of unsuccessful 'Civic' spaces

13. What are the notable design features of these unsuccessful 'Civic' spaces?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to write their answer to question 13.

14. Who is included in 'Civic' space? Why and How?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to write their answer to question 14.

15. Who is excluded from 'Civic' space? Why and How?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to write their answer to question 15.

Thank you for participating.

Appendix 3.C

Analysis and evaluation of civic space: implications for the landscape architect. Design awards criteria



Dear Respondent (*insert name of each jury member*)

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this questionnaire.

This questionnaire is being conducted as part of a PhD research study at The University of Adelaide in the School of Architecture Landscape Architecture and Urban Design.

This questionnaire analyses and evaluates the perceptions of 'Civic' space focusing on Design Awards for Civic Space and specifically the criteria for these awards.

The questionnaire should take **20-30mins** to complete. Please complete as many questions as you can to the best of your ability.

Attached for your information are the following documents

- Participant Information Sheet
- Consent Form
- Questionnaire

Participants are asked to return signed copies of the consent form and the completed questionnaire.

If you have any questions about this survey, please contact the researcher carrying out the study by email:

Janelle Arbon (janelle.arbon@adelaide.edu.au) School of Architecture Landscape Architecture and Urban Design at The University of Adelaide.

Thank you and regards,

Janelle Arbon
PHD Candidate
School of Architecture, Landscape Architecture and Urban Design
The University of Adelaide, SA 5005 AUSTRALIA
Tel: +61 8 8303 3702 Fax: +61 8 8303 4377
Email: janelle.arbon@adelaide.edu.au CRICOS Provider Code 00123M

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ADELAIDE
HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title

Analysis and Evaluation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect

Design Awards Criteria

Purpose and Aim of the study

The purpose of this study is to analyse and evaluate Civic Space. The aim of this study is to better understand perceptions of Civic spaces.

As part of this process of analysis and evaluation, the researcher is examining award winning civic spaces in relation to criteria established to assess them.

Procedure involving the Participant

Participants are required to answer 15 questions. It is anticipated that this will take 20-30 minutes. Participants will be asked two sets of questions. The first set establishes the participant's background and will provide statistical data for the study. The second set of questions focus on award criteria relating to Civic space.

Participation is voluntary and the participant may withdraw at any time.

The identity of participants will remain confidential at all times. Name and contact details (if supplied) will be kept separate from all data, only the researcher and supervisor will be aware of who the data was obtained from. All participants will be referred to by pseudonym known only to the researcher and supervisor.

Please return the attached consent form with your completed questionnaire.

Outcome of the Study

The results from the questionnaire form an important part of the researcher's thesis to be submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Publication of Results

The researcher intends to use this information as part of the thesis. It is anticipated that the research will be presented at an academic conference and published in an academic journal.

Independent Complaints Procedure

Attached to this information sheet are the contacts for information on Independent Complaints Procedure and information in regard to the role of the Human Research Ethics Committee for your information.

Contacts for this Study

Should you require any further information or have any concerns please do not hesitate to contact either of the researchers on the number given below

Dr Katharine Barstch
Postgraduate Research Coordinator
Principal Supervisor
School of Architecture, Landscape
Architecture and Urban Design
The University of Adelaide SA 5005
AUSTRALIA
Tel (work): 08 8303 5512
Email: katharine.bartsch@adelaide.edu.au

Miss Janelle Arbon
Registered Senior Landscape Architect
Researcher
School of Architecture, Landscape
Architecture and Urban Design
The University of Adelaide SA 5005
AUSTRALIA
Tel (work): 08 8303 3702
Email: janelle.arbon@adelaide.edu.au

Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC)

CONSENT FORM

7. I have read the attached Information Sheet and agree to take part in the following research project:

| | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Title: | Analysis & Evaluation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect. Design Awards Criteria |
| Ethics Approval Number: | xxxx.xxx |

8. I have had the project, so far as it affects me, fully explained to my satisfaction by the research worker. My consent is given freely.
9. Although I understand the purpose of the research project, it has also been explained that involvement may not be of any benefit to me.
10. I have been informed that, while information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified and my personal results will not be divulged.
11. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time.
12. I am aware that I should keep a copy of this Consent Form, when completed and the attached Information Sheet.

Participant to complete:

Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher/Witness to complete:

I have described the nature of the research to

(print name of participant)

and in my opinion she/he understood the explanation.

Signature: _____ Position: _____ Date: _____

This document is for people who are participants in a research project.

CONTACTS FOR INFORMATION ON PROJECT AND INDEPENDENT COMPLAINTS PROCEDURE

The following study has been reviewed and approved by the University of Adelaide
Human Research Ethics Committee:

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Project Title: | Analysis & Evaluation of Civic Space: Implications for the Landscape Architect. Design Awards Criteria |
| Approval Number: | H-xxx.xxx |

The Human Research Ethics Committee monitors all the research projects which it has approved. The committee considers it important that people participating in approved projects have an independent and confidential reporting mechanism which they can use if they have any worries or complaints about that research.

This research project will be conducted according to the NHMRC National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (see <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/publications/synopses/e72syn.htm>)

1. If you have questions or problems associated with the practical aspects of your participation in the project or wish to raise a concern or complaint about the project, then you should consult the project coordinator:

| | |
|---------------|----------------------|
| Name: | Dr Katharine Bartsch |
| Phone: | 08 8303 5512 |

2. If you wish to discuss with an independent person matters related to:

- making a complaint or
- raising concerns on the conduct of the project or
- the University policy on research involving human participants or
- your rights as a participant,

contact the Human Research Ethics Committee's Secretariat on phone (08) 8303 6028.

Jury panel questions

This questionnaire focuses on Design Awards Criteria.

Questions relate to the effectiveness of judging spaces as a civic space and effectiveness of the Design Awards Criteria to judge these spaces.

Name:

(Please note all responses will be anonymous. Name is requested for follow up purposes only)

Position:

Profession:

Number of years of professional experience:

Year as Jury member:

Name of Design Award:

Design Awards Criteria

1. In your opinion, did the criteria cover all aspects necessary to judge a Civic space?

2. Which criteria were most relevant to judge the success of civic space? And why?

3. Would you add any additional criteria? If so please list them and state why.

4. Do you believe there is a balance between existing criteria or is there a bias for to particular criteria? Please provide details

5. Do you believe the spaces can be accurately assessed based on images and text alone?
How/why?

6. How much influence did the aims of the awards have on the adjudication process?

7. When examining the projects did you place yourself as a user or a designer?

8. Are you aware of any personnel preconceived notions/experiences you bring to the process of adjudication?

9. What key elements/items are you looking for when judging the projects?

10. What aspects are of most interest to you?

11. Do you give all criteria equal weighting?

12. Does your profession impact on your judgement?

13. Rate the significance of the following items in regard to the adjudication process.
 (Please tick the box)

| | High significance | moderate significance | low significance | not applicable |
|--|-------------------|--------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Access | | | | |
| Linkages | | | | |
| Image (aesthetics and presentation of space) | | | | |
| Territorial makers | | | | |
| Barriers (physical) | | | | |
| Barriers (visual) | | | | |
| Function (prescribed/designed) | | | | |
| Adaptability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Activities (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Sociability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Security (visual) | | | | |
| Maintenance | | | | |
| Environmental sustainability | | | | |
| Vegetation | | | | |
| Prospect and refuge (opportunities for) | | | | |
| User Comfort | | | | |
| Privacy (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Amenities (overall) | | | | |
| Seating | | | | |
| Lighting | | | | |
| Threshold treatment | | | | |
| Connection to transport | | | | |
| Lifespan of the project | | | | |

14. Rate the significance of the following items in regard to your design process.

(Please tick the box)

| | High significance | moderate significance | low significance | not applicable |
|--|-------------------|--------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Access | | | | |
| Linkages | | | | |
| Image (aesthetics and presentation of space) | | | | |
| Territorial makers | | | | |
| Barriers (physical) | | | | |
| Barriers (visual) | | | | |
| Function (prescribed/designed) | | | | |
| Adaptability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Activities (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Sociability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Security (visual) | | | | |
| Maintenance | | | | |
| Environmental sustainability | | | | |
| Vegetation | | | | |
| Prospect and refuge (opportunities for) | | | | |
| User Comfort | | | | |
| Privacy (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Amenities (overall) | | | | |
| Seating | | | | |
| Lighting | | | | |
| Threshold treatment | | | | |
| Connection to transport | | | | |
| Lifespan of project | | | | |

Thank you for participating.

Jury panel questions

This questionnaire focuses on the AILA Awards criteria

Questions relate to the effectiveness of judging spaces as a civic space and effectiveness of the AILA Awards Criteria[#] to judge these spaces.

[#] Please note there have been changes to the AILA award criteria over the years. Please respond to the questions below in line with your experience of the criteria as a jury member. Please indicate if you have been a member of numerous jury panels and when.

Position:

(Please note all responses will be anonymous. Name is requested for follow up purposes only)

Position:

Profession:

Number of years of professional experience:

Year as Jury member:

AILA Design Awards Criteria

Please see attached for the list of awards criteria for reference.

1. In your opinion, did the criteria cover all aspects necessary to judge a Civic space?

2. Which criteria were most relevant to judge the success of civic space? And why?

3. Would you add any additional criteria? If so please list them and state why.

4. Do you believe there is a balance between existing criteria or is there a bias to particular criteria? Please provide details

5. Do you believe the spaces can be accurately assessed based on images and text alone?
How/why?

AILA Award Aims and Principles

Please respond to Questions 7 & 8 if you were part of AILA Awards Jury Panel

As stated in the AILA Awards Introduction:

The AILA's Landscape Architecture Project Awards provide a tangible and high-profile expression of the profession's activities and promote and advance the profession of Landscape Architecture by:

- Encouraging excellence by members of the landscape architecture profession.
- Fostering public awareness and recognition of the work of Australian landscape architects.
- Creating local, regional, national and global advocacy for Australian landscape architecture

6. How much influence did the aims of the awards have on the adjudication process?

7. The Australian Landscape Principles have become key items used by AILA to underpin all policy directions and recently the criteria for the awards. How much influence did the principle have on the adjudication process? (see attached jury criteria sheets for The Australian Landscape Principles)

8. When examining the projects did you place yourself as a user or a designer?

9. Are you aware of any personnel preconceived notions/experiences you bring to the process of adjudication?

10. What key elements/items are you looking for when judging the projects?

11. What aspects are of most interest to you?

12. Do you give all criteria equal weighting?

13. Does your profession impact on your judgement?

14. Rate the significance of the following items in regard to the adjudication process.

(Please tick the box)

| | High significance | moderate significance | low significance | not applicable |
|--|-------------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Access | | | | |
| Linkages | | | | |
| Image (aesthetics and presentation of space) | | | | |
| Territorial makers | | | | |
| Barriers (physical) | | | | |
| Barriers (visual) | | | | |
| Function (prescribed/designed) | | | | |
| Adaptability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Activities (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Sociability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Security (visual) | | | | |
| Maintenance | | | | |
| Environmental sustainability | | | | |
| Vegetation | | | | |
| Prospect and refuge (opportunities for) | | | | |
| User Comfort | | | | |
| Privacy (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Amenities (overall) | | | | |
| Seating | | | | |
| Lighting | | | | |
| Threshold treatment | | | | |
| Connection to transport | | | | |
| Lifespan of the project | | | | |

15. Rate the significance of the following items in regard to your design process.

(Please tick the box)

| | High significance | moderate significance | low significance | not applicable |
|--|-------------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Access | | | | |
| Linkages | | | | |
| Image (aesthetics and presentation of space) | | | | |
| Territorial makers | | | | |
| Barriers (physical) | | | | |
| Barriers (visual) | | | | |
| Function (prescribed/designed) | | | | |
| Adaptability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Activities (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Sociability (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Security (visual) | | | | |
| Maintenance | | | | |
| Environmental sustainability | | | | |
| Vegetation | | | | |
| Prospect and refuge (opportunities for) | | | | |
| User Comfort | | | | |
| Privacy (opportunities for) | | | | |
| Amenities (overall) | | | | |
| Seating | | | | |
| Lighting | | | | |
| Threshold treatment | | | | |
| Connection to transport | | | | |
| Lifespan of the project | | | | |

Thank you for participating.

Appendix 4

Site visit data

Findings presented in Chapter Nine section 8.2 to section 8.6 draws on data collected from January 21 2013 to August 16 2014 in the 16 case study sites representing five public space typologies - Parks & Gardens, Street & Promenades, Plazas & Squares, Waterfronts and Commercial Spaces. Between January 2013 and August 2014 183 site visits were undertaken (153 non-event visits and 30 event visits) to gain a full view of site conditions including unpredictable and variable daily rhythm of public space in Adelaide.

Appendix 4 expands on information presented in Chapter Nine providing the complete datasets. Appendix 4.A provides the expanded table compiling all site visit data. Appendix 4.B provides the data scores. Appendix 4.C provides the T-Test results.

Appendix 4.A

Data sets - combined

Appendix 4.B

Data scores

Appendix 4.C

T-test results

| T-tests - All sites combined | | Average (mean) | | P value | SIGNIFICANT |
|------------------------------|---|----------------|--------|-------------|-------------|
| | | Non-event | Event | | |
| Public Measures | Time at site | 0.552 | 0.753 | 0.071 | NOT |
| | Users numbers - 0-20 | 0.182 | 0.133 | 0.494 | NOT |
| | User numbers - 21-100 | 0.263 | 0.100 | 0.019 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | User numbers - 101-500 | 0.219 | 0.367 | 0.133 | NOT |
| | User numbers - 501+ | 0.336 | 0.400 | 0.522 | NOT |
| | User numbers - 0-100 | 0.445 | 0.233 | 0.022 | |
| | User numbers 101+ | 0.555 | 0.767 | 0.022 | |
| | User Age 0-20 | 0.453 | 0.733 | 0.004 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | User Age 21-60 | 0.993 | 0.967 | 0.451 | NOT |
| | User Age 61+ | 0.358 | 0.467 | 0.288 | NOT |
| | Typology of public - The Defined Public | 0.854 | 0.767 | 0.306 | NOT |
| | Typology of public - The Appropriating Public | 0.380 | 0.800 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Typology of public - The Transitory Public | 0.861 | 0.800 | 0.448 | NOT |
| | Typology of public - The Illegitimate Public | 0.374 | 0.333 | 0.676 | NOT |
| | Gender - Male | 54.270 | 53.167 | 0.795 | NOT |
| | Gender - Female | 45.730 | 46.833 | 0.795 | NOT |
| | Presence - Individuals | 42.555 | 36.500 | 0.365 | NOT |
| | Presence - Groups | 57.445 | 63.500 | 0.365 | NOT |
| | Interaction between users | 0.263 | 0.600 | 0.001 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | length of stay - short | 80.620 | 60.000 | 0.007 | SIGNIFICANT |
| length of stay - medium | 13.942 | 22.000 | 0.102 | NOT | |
| length of stay - long | 5.438 | 18.000 | 0.024 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| Site Elements | Signage | 0.993 | 1.000 | 0.319 | NOT |
| | Signage - additional | 0.373 | 0.700 | 0.001 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Security cameras | 0.699 | 0.467 | 0.025 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Security cameras additional | 0.000 | 0.033 | 0.326 | NOT |
| | Security presence | 0.275 | 0.367 | 0.346 | NOT |
| | Security presence - additional | 0.163 | 0.633 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Maintenance presence | 0.222 | 0.133 | 0.220 | NOT |
| | Maintenance presence - additional | 0.026 | 0.300 | 0.003 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Seating - fixed | 0.804 | 0.967 | 0.001 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Seating- additional/ loose | 0.366 | 0.600 | 0.023 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Public Art | 0.784 | 0.933 | 0.011 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Public Art - additional | 0.039 | 0.267 | 0.011 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Public pride | 0.235 | 0.367 | 0.179 | NOT |
| | Public pride - additional | 0.000 | 0.000 | NA | NOT |
| | Bins | 0.739 | 0.900 | 0.018 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Bins - additional | 0.000 | 0.333 | 0.001 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Drinking fountains | 0.275 | 0.567 | 0.005 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Lighting | 0.876 | 0.967 | 0.037 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Lighting - additional | 0.046 | 0.467 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | transport - access to | 0.601 | 0.700 | 0.299 | NOT |
| Food - access to | 0.451 | 0.700 | 0.011 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| Beverage - access to | 0.451 | 0.733 | 0.003 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| Barriers - fencing | 0.451 | 0.700 | 0.011 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| other | 0.503 | 0.900 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| Site Surfaces and Structures | Paving | NA | NA | NA | NOT |
| | Paving - additional | 0.020 | 0.100 | 0.167 | NOT |
| | Gardens | 0.556 | 0.900 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Gardens - additional | 0.000 | 0.000 | NA | NOT |
| | Lawn | 0.353 | 0.567 | 0.038 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Lawn- additional | 0.000 | 0.000 | NA | NOT |
| | Shade - vegetation | 0.431 | 0.667 | 0.019 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Shade - vegetation additional | 0.000 | 0.000 | NA | NOT |
| | Shade - built | 0.562 | 0.467 | 0.350 | NOT |
| | Shade - built additional | 0.111 | 0.533 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Water | 0.124 | 0.167 | 0.570 | NOT |
| | Water additional | 0.000 | 0.033 | 0.326 | NOT |
| | other | 0.170 | 0.300 | 0.159 | NOT |
| Site Activities | formal recreation (sport) | 0.000 | 0.000 | NA | NOT |
| | Informal recreation (seating) | 10.863 | 7.400 | 0.120 | NOT |
| | commerical activities | 15.360 | 23.133 | 0.179 | NOT |
| | Cultural activities | 0.432 | 1.833 | 0.334 | NOT |
| | passing through | 56.309 | 42.167 | 0.042 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Tourist activities (sightseeing) | 6.261 | 6.267 | 0.997 | NOT |
| | Prohibited activities or illegitimate | 3.194 | 3.200 | 0.998 | NOT |
| | Informal recreation (reading) | 0.122 | 0.333 | 0.386 | NOT |
| | Informal recreation (lying down) | 0.504 | 0.833 | 0.493 | NOT |
| | Informal recreation (picnic) | 0.108 | 0.833 | 0.194 | NOT |
| | formal recreation (fitness groups) | 3.410 | 2.333 | 0.508 | NOT |
| | Informal recreation (other) | 1.252 | 10.500 | 0.046 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Informal recreation (play) | 2.230 | 1.167 | 0.426 | NOT |
| | buskers | 0.072 | 0.200 | 0.106 | NOT |
| | event setup | 0.052 | 0.800 | 0.000 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | construction works | 0.118 | 0.100 | 0.776 | NOT |
| | commuting | 0.784 | 0.833 | 0.527 | NOT |
| | Business (in course of work) | 0.516 | 0.733 | 0.022 | SIGNIFICANT |
| Social or entertainment | 0.673 | 0.833 | 0.048 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| Shopping or commerce | 0.275 | 0.433 | 0.116 | NOT | |
| not evident | 0.307 | 0.533 | 0.029 | SIGNIFICANT | |
| Site Context and Conditions | Natural Surveillance | 0.863 | 0.867 | 0.955 | NOT |
| | Constant Users | 0.817 | 0.833 | 0.831 | NOT |
| | Clear Design intent | 0.477 | 0.400 | 0.443 | NOT |
| | High Prospect/ low refuge | 0.582 | 0.600 | 0.855 | NOT |
| | Significance and Value | 0.935 | 0.967 | 0.414 | NOT |
| | Social imageability | NA | NA | NA | |
| | Restorative places | 0.373 | 0.667 | 0.004 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | Social interaction and territoriality | 0.922 | 0.967 | 0.262 | NOT |
| | Orientation | 0.869 | 0.833 | 0.632 | NOT |
| | Movement | 0.778 | 0.500 | 0.008 | SIGNIFICANT |
| | View | 0.902 | 0.767 | 0.109 | NOT |
| | Change | 0.601 | 0.433 | 0.101 | NOT |
| | Neighbourhood awareness | 0.850 | 0.733 | 0.190 | NOT |
| | Private-public awareness | NA | NA | NA | |
| Thematic continuity | 0.869 | 0.933 | 0.239 | NOT | |