Public Policies for Improving Physical Place Quality in Cities of Northern Cyprus

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ABSTRACT

In this research, it is claimed that physical place quality in cities can be improved through appropriate public policies. Being aware of the importance of liveability concept for cities, quality of place issue, which is a dimension of liveability, has been focused on. Depending on this claim, first of all quality of place concept is explored deeply with different approaches of several scholars and defined with its attributes and indicators. Then the public policies, which would need to be integrated into planning systems, has been searched for their role and contributions to the place quality. Conscious about the importance, a basis for determination of public policies have been provided for improving physical place quality within planning systems. For making such a study, it is needed to search for different planning systems in a comparable manner to find out the way for most appropriate integration of physical place quality attributes.

The most appropriate integration of physical place quality attributes has been determined through exploring alternatives for implementation of planning decisions. It should be noted that, urban plans by nature consist planning policies and planning tools and most of the time public policies are disregarded. Therefore, planning policies and planning tools are going to be explained briefly, and public policies will be the focus.

Based on the observations, it is claimed that cities of Northern Cyprus suffer from low quality places. Furthermore, preliminary research reveals that, there are no planning tools in Cyprus Planning System. Therefore, it is obvious that there is a significant gap

in the planning and implementation process in Cyprus. In this context public policies gain significant role for the implementation of planning decisions. So that, it is a crucial need to integrate physical place quality attributes as public policies within planning system in Cyprus. In that sense, Nicosia that is the first city to have Master Plan is going to be studied as a case in this thesis.

Keywords: Quality of Place, Physical Place Quality, Public Policies, Planning Systems

ÖZ

Bu çalışmada, kentlerin fiziksel mekan kalitesinin, uygun kamusal politikalar aracılığıyla geliştirilip arttırılabileceği iddia edilmektedir. Kentler için yaşanabilirliğin öneminin farkındalığıyla, yaşanabilirliğin bir boyutu olan, mekan kalitesi konusu üzerine odaklanılmıştır. Bu iddiaya bağlı olarak, ilk önce mekan kalitesi kavramı farklı araştırmacıların yaklaşımlarıyla derinlemesine incelenmiş, özellik ve göstergeleriyle birlikte tanımlanmıştır. Daha sonra planlama sistemleriyle entegre olması gerekli görülen kamusal politikalar, mekan kalitesi için rolü ve katkıları bakımından araştırılmıştır. Önemlerinin bilinciyle, planlama sistemi içerisinde mekan kalitesini arttırmaya yönelik politikaların önerilebilmesi için bir temel çalışma oluşturulmuştur. Böyle bir çalışmanın yapılabilmesi için, karşılaştırma yaklaşımıyla farklı planlama sistemleri araştırılmalı ve fiziksel mekan kalitesinin özelliklerinin entegrasyonu için en uygun yöntemin belirlenmesi gerekmektedir.

Fiziksel mekan kalitesi özelliklerinin entegrasyonu için en uygun yöntem, plan kararlarının uygulanması için alternatiflerin araştırılmasıyla belirlenmiştir. Kent planları, yapıları gereği planlama kararlarını ve planlama araçlarını içermekte, ancak çoğu zaman kamusal politikaların ihmal edildiği dikkate alınmalıdır. Bu nedenle, planlama kararları ve planlama araçları kısaca anlatılacak ve kamusal politikalara odaklanılacaktır.

Gözleme dayalı olarak, Kuzey Kıbrıs kentlerinin düşük mekan kalitesine sahip olduğu iddia edilmektedir. Dahası, yapılan araştırmalara göre, Kıbrıs'ın planlama sisteminde planlama araçları bulunmamaktadır. Bu yüzden, Kıbrıs'ta planlama ve uygulama

süreçleri arasında önemli bir boşluğun oluştuğu görülmektedir. Bu kapsamda, plan kararlarının uygulanmasında, kamusal politikalar önemli bir rol kazanmaktadır. Dolayısıyla, Kuzey Kıbrıs'ın planlama sistemine, fiziksel mekan kalitesinin özelliklerinin kamusal politikalar olarak entegre olması büyük önem taşımaktadır. Bu bağlamda, bu tezde, Kuzey Kıbrıs'ın imar planına sahip olan ilk kenti olan Lefkoşa incelenip çalışılacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Mekan Kalitesi, Fiziksel Mekan Kalitesi, Kamusal Politikalar, Planlama Sistemleri

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INTRODUCTION

Since the emergence of globalisation, urban development has been affected by its various impacts and consequences, among which competition between cities is a prominent one. Suresh explains the following:

> "the logic of globalization is the expansion of trade and investment in search of new markets and more competitive production sites. Companies can choose where they want to locate and people where they want to work and live, in a global market." (Suresh, B.S., 2003)

As it is understood from this statement, cities should have been attractive in economic, social and environmental terms in order to endure within this competitive environment.

The most efficient way to make a city attractive for people to visit, invest, work and live is to create or improve place quality in that city. With the awareness of the importance of quality of place for a city, many scholars and planners have worked on the issue to properly define it and provide indicators for assessing cities' place quality.

In this context, quality of place is searched and explored in this study. However, there is another debate on how to improve place quality in a city. Preliminary research reveals that public policies could be used as a tool for integrating place quality into the urban planning system. Thus, firstly, physical and functional place quality has been searched and explained with its attributes, indicators and criteria. Secondly, focusing on physical place quality, integration and implementation alternatives of the attributes

have been discussed by exploring different planning systems. The discussion has put forward contributions and importance of public policies in urban planning.

Cities in Northern Cyprus are obviously suffering from low living and place quality. The cities are chaotic and faced with low accessibility despite high mobility, beside low amount of open and green areas and high amount of lost spaces. Thus, planning system of Northern Cyprus has been criticized, in line with findings within the literature review and Nicosia Master Plan has been questioned in line with suggested methodology. To sum up, the quality of place and its attributes have been studied, and a basis for determination of public policies have been suggested for improving quality of place in Nicosia as a case study. Similarly, other cities on Northern Cyprus can be dealt with, with an aim to improve the quality of place.

1.1 Problem Definition

Commonly, planning decisions within development plans include most of the sustainability aspects; however, policies related with place quality attributes are disregarded. Cities of Northern Cyprus also suffer from the low quality of places and other urban problems, which affect liveability of cities. The problems are listed as; deficiency of some facilities related with neighbourhoods like shopping, playgrounds etc., and separation of neighbourhoods, potentials for playgrounds in the housing areas, or fear of children in the public spaces and etc. These problems can be seen as a clue for the deficiencies in planning system and implementation of planning decisions in cities of Northern Cyprus. Preliminary research reveals that, discretionary planning system is utilized in Northern Cyprus however there are no planning tools within the planning law. Therefore, it is obvious that there is a significant gap in the

two pillars of planning, plan preparation and implementation, in North Cyprus in terms of public policies.

As described by Punter (2007), there are two main planning systems, discretionary and regulatory. Discretionary planning system is criticized as it is flexible and regulatory is criticized as it is restrictive. Cyprus planning system is discretionary and includes too much speculation. Especially, the implementation is project-based and involves interpretation. In this context, most of the plan decisions are not reflected in the projects. The significant gap shows itself at that point, which resulted in loss of identity, non-functional and unattractive places. There is a need for a mechanism to act like an interface within these two pillars of planning- plan decisions and their implementation. The implementation alternatives, which would be composed of planning policies, public policies and planning tools, could be the solution for this kind of problem by acting like interface between plans and their implementation. Preliminary research reveals that, among the implementation alternatives, public policies are the most effective way for the implementation of quality of place attributes.

Good quality places are important national, regional, and local resource. Quality of a place as a dimension of liveability has an influence on health and social well-being, nurtures community cohesion and inclusion, and draws in economic investment as well as increasing attractiveness of cities.

It can be claimed that as a result of random and speculative developments, quality of places would be negatively affected. Problems such as crime, poor health, incompatibility within community, deterred investment, contaminated environment

and in the long term significant economic lost would have been occurred as a result of bad planning. (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2010).

As Relly and Renski (2008) claim, quality of place influences economy from different perspectives by helping to retain and attract talented entrepreneurs, workers, and retirees, and supports tourism industry. On the other hand, Jane Jacob Trip (2007) quoted Florida's ideas about creative class that they prefer to live in place which provides attractive facilities rather than a place which is close to their jobs even if it would take a long time to arrive at work.

Similar to Florida's ideology, Relly and Renski (2008) explain that there is a strong link between urban economic development and quality of place; "regions that retain and attract workforce are experiencing more growth." Those factors of urban competitiveness prove that quality of place attributes have important influences on cities and should be addressed within the scope of urban planning.

In this context, firstly, it is significant to explore planning system in North Cyprus for identification of the weaknesses and secondly, to provide a basis for determination of relevant policies for improving place quality that would be integrated into the planning system.

1.2 Aim and Objectives

Observing and experiencing several urban problems and need for increasing attractiveness of cities within competitive environment, leads planning approaches to be questioned in terms of place quality aspects. Quality of place as a dimension of liveability, which has been seen as an umbrella among other liveability dimensions defined by Yeang (2006), has significant effects on cities' social, economic and

environmental development. Thus, in this thesis quality of place concept is going to be searched in terms of its attributes and criteria.

In this thesis, it is claimed that quality of place attributes could be integrated with urban plans through public policies. And the aim is to provide a basis for determination of relevant public policies for improving quality of place in cities of Northern Cyprus. In this regard the objectives are:

- To understand what the place quality is and its importance
- To search attributes and indicators of place quality
- To explore how to improve quality of place in cities
- To search implementation alternatives for place quality attributes
- To examine different cases; policies for improving place quality in different cities around the world
- To explore different planning systems
- To search and illustrate public policies in most liveable cities
- To discuss the existing Planning System in North Cyprus with a focus on place quality
- To provide a basis for formulating public policies for improving place quality in cities of Northern Cyprus

In a place quality study, it is important to understand what the concept is and benefits of it. Then the elements, criteria and indicators should be put forward, and as it has been claimed that they may be different for each country, even for each city. In this context, this thesis will examine the planning system of Cyprus in terms of place quality attributes. To this end, different cities around the world will be investigated in

terms of their planning systems, rules, regulations, and images, which would reflect their quality of place. Additionally, public policies in most liveable cities will be searched in terms of their planning systems. Then a framework for suggesting relevant public policies for Nicosia will be put forward in order to be able to justify the attributes of place quality for improving their place quality.

1.3 Methodology

The methodology of the thesis is theoretical research through deskwork and fieldwork and case study. The research approaches to design the thesis are documentary research, field research and case studies. Research techniques for data collection are documents and observation.

The study started with literature review, mainly utilizing documentary research where all the concepts related with quality of place and public policies have been searched for and explained. The documentary research has also been conducted for exploring different planning systems, which includes public policies for improving quality of place. All kind of information are gathered and interpreted through documentary research and have been utilized for determining the basis for suggesting public policies for improving quality of place in cities in general and have been examined in the case of Nicosia, Northern Cyprus in particular. The literature review also includes an investigation on different cities around the world, which have a planning system that includes public policies for creating high quality places.

Based on the observations, it can be said that cities of Northern Cyprus are suffering from many urban problems related directly with low quality urban places and indirectly with gaps in its planning system. Therefore, Nicosia, city of Northern

Cyprus and planning system of Cyprus has been chosen as a case study for this research which is going to be conducted through documentary and field researches.

1.4 Research Questions

As it has been highlighted in the previous paragraphs the main aim of this study is to determine/suggest relevant policies for improving quality of place in cities of Northern Cyprus. In that context the main research question is;

- How to formulate relevant public policies for improving physical place quality in cities.

And the sub-research questions, which will be helpful to reach the main aim, are;

- How would physical place quality attributes be integrated into the urban planning for enhancing place quality?
- What are the different planning systems and the recent approaches in planning systems?
- How did/do public policies affect place quality in most liveable cities?
- What would be the basis for providing relevant public policies for improving physical place quality in cities of Northern Cyprus, focusing on Nicosia?

1.5 Limitation

Since the focus of this study is to formulate public policies for improving quality of place in cities, it is needed to understand the place quality deeply and find out the most appropriate attributes and relevant indicators of each attribute for both evaluating and reproducing it in cities. There are a wide range of definitions for quality of place concept suggested by different scholars with different approaches.

Preliminary research reveals that a place quality study should be at local or city scales but comprehensive at the same time. Similar to the sustainability, the quality of place concept should include social, environmental and economic attributes. In that manner, it would be beneficial if the attributes of place quality, which is defined through a comprehensive approach, were categorized. Thus, a comprehensively defined place quality and clearly categorized attributes at local scale would provide an appropriate way or methodology for research to evaluate and planners to reproduce quality of place in a city.

In that sense, all the scholars who worked on the place quality issues, such as Clinton J. Andrews, Richard Florida, Jan Jacob Trip, and Llewelyn Davies Yeang and so on, has been examined and their approaches and definitions has been discussed to find out the most appropriate approach. Based on the research it is seen that Llewelyn Davies Yeang (2006) is the scholar who comprehensively defines place quality and clearly categorizes attributes at local scale. Thus, his approach will be studied, and relevant attributes will be determined in order to make it possible to construct the most appropriate public policies to improve quality of place in cities.

1.6 Structure of the Research

In the first chapter of the thesis, the observed and searched problem has been defined and depending on the defined problem, aims and objectives of the research have been put forward. Methodology that is planned to be used in the research is determined, and research questions have been stated to support the study. Preliminary research helped to limit the study area of the thesis. With the defined limitation table of content of the thesis has been shaped.

The second chapter of the thesis is composed of the literature review on the quality of place concept. There are many different definitions for the concept and approaches for the assessment of the place quality of cities. These definitions will be considered and the importance of the concept for cities will be highlighted. According to Yeang quality of place is a dimension of liveability and the quality of place itself has two dimensions; functional and physical. So, these two dimensions have different attributes and indicators and these attributes will be searched in the methodology chapter (Chapter 4). Then the approaches for improving place quality will be discussed.

In the third chapter, physical place quality will be studied as public policies. Putting forward the importance and effectiveness of the physical place quality within urban planning, there will be need for understanding how to integrate and implement them. This research puts forward that planning policies, public policies and planning tools would be implementation alternatives. It should be considered that, urban plans by nature consist of planning policies and planning tools, however public policies are skipped most of the time. Thus, physical place quality attributes are going to be investigated with possible implementation alternative especially focusing on public policies by exploring different planning systems around the world.

The outcomes of this research are going to be used in the case study in the chapter 5. Nicosia Master Plan and planning system in Cyprus are planned to be studied as a case for suggesting a basis for formulating public policies for improving quality of place. To be able to do so, all planning families and systems should be explored in a comparable manner, and evaluate physical place quality in cities of Northern Cyprus through their urban plans within existing planning system.

Chapter 2

QUALITY OF PLACE

2.1 Introduction

For many years, urban development has been affected by globalization, which had arisen within different periods through different levels. It is possible to investigate impacts of globalization on five different fields such as economic, political, socio-cultural, geographical and ecological, and more recently technological. (Turkish Asian Centre of Strategic Studies, 2006)

As it is explained by Suresh, globalisation is based on enlargement of trade and investment through exploring new markets and more competitive sites for production. Investors have the chance to choose their own location in the global market and also people can make preference for their working and living places. (Suresh, B.S., 2003) Thus, this process not only results in many environmental and urban problems, but also creates competition between cities. With such kind of results of globalization, cities needed to incline to be more attractive for investors and for people to live and work. Consequently, new strategies emerged within the scope of urban development such as to make cities liveable, provide environmental services for citizens and protect them from environmental hazards. (Suresh, B.S., 2003)

Within the emerged competitive environment as a result of globalization, ‘liveable cities’ and ‘liveability’ became an important concept for urban planning. The concept

of liveability is reflecting an urban system which would affect citizens' social, physical and psychologic states and contributes to their prosperity. It is about pleasant and attractive urban spaces that provide and reflect cultural and sacred richness (Sheltair Group, 2003). On the other hand, as quoted by Llwelyn Davies Yeang, liveability has been defined by the Bartlett School of Planning (Bartlett/ODPM 2004) as "the day-to-day issues that affect people's quality of life at a local level". (Istillozlu, E., 2011)

Considering the definitions of scholars, it can be said that concept of liveability has a wider field including quality of life and quality of place. Liveability covers quality of life concepts, which includes social and environmental quality and place quality as physical and functional place quality.

In the study 'Analysing Quality of Place', Clinton J Andrews (2000) summarizes how place quality became an issue within urban development. The scholar notes that people had experienced both good times and bad times, and within those different periods of time they always care about their quality of life. Andrews explains the different time periods with the words; while people experiencing bad times, they are looking for jobs, food, shelter and security which are fundamentals for human life. While people experiencing good times, they care about their quality of life standards such as accessible amenities, recreational opportunities, pleasant communities, unpolluted environment and a fulfilling life. According to Andrews, it was the good times that quality of place gained political currency and growing places got attention.

Being aware of these circumstances explained above, quality of place issue with its social, economic and environmental importance comes into prominence within the liveability concept. In this context, this thesis is aiming to analyse physical place

quality in cities and consequently suggesting most appropriate public policies for improving physical place quality. In order to do so, it is needed to find out indicators and criteria of physical place quality. Thus, in this chapter quality of place is going to be studied with its indicators and criteria. However, first of all it is worth to understand importance of place quality for cities.

2.2 Importance of Quality of Place for Cities

Place quality is an issue, which is examined by most of the scholars and researchers within liveability studies. Therefore, understanding importance of the quality of place for cities has become a necessity; what was the reason for focusing on place quality issue in the liveability studies? However, before questioning the importance of quality of place, it is worth to explore and understand "place" itself.

As it is quoted by Kevin S. Hanna, Ann Dale and Chris Ling (2009), according to Relph, place is a physical environment, and activities and senses that provide identity to places (Relph, 1976). The scholar states as following:

> "it is possible to visualize a town as consisting of buildings and physical objects . . . but a person experiencing these buildings and activities sees them as far more than this; they are beautiful or ugly, useful or hindrances, home, factory, enjoyable, alienating; in short, they are meaningful." (Relph, 1976)

On the other hand, Bourdieu (2005) highlighted the power of place as way of not only locating oneself but also understanding and conceptualizing the role of others in the context of place. In this manner, place helps people define themselves and others.

According to Hanna, Dale and Ling (2009) a sense of community, which is viewed as an integral contributor to one's commitment to a neighbourhood and satisfaction with it (Ahlbrant and Cunningham, 1979), can be represented or reflected in place and its

physical qualities. Thus, according to the scholars, place quality concept, which integrates the characteristics of physical growth and environmental quality, along with ideas of social equity and governance (Hanna and Walton-Roberts 2004), can be complex and perceptual.

On the other hand, Mark A. Wyckoff (2014), in the study titled 'Definition of Placemaking: Four Different Types', mentions place and the elements of quality places. According to Wyckoff (2014), place could be anywhere used by people within the city; like a parking lot, a main street or a house or a residential area, briefly a place is where people care about and want to be in and those places have a strong sense of place. As the scholar highlights;

> "They are active, unique locations, interesting, visually attractive, often with public art and creative activities. They are people-friendly, safe, and walkable with mixed uses; they have good building dimensions relative to the street, and quality façades; they are often alluring with pizzazz." (Wyckoff, M. A., 2014, p.2)

All the factors Wyckoff counts are the key elements and characteristics of quality places. In the study, those elements and characteristics are separated, since the characteristics are the result of good form, while the elements are needs for increasing place quality.

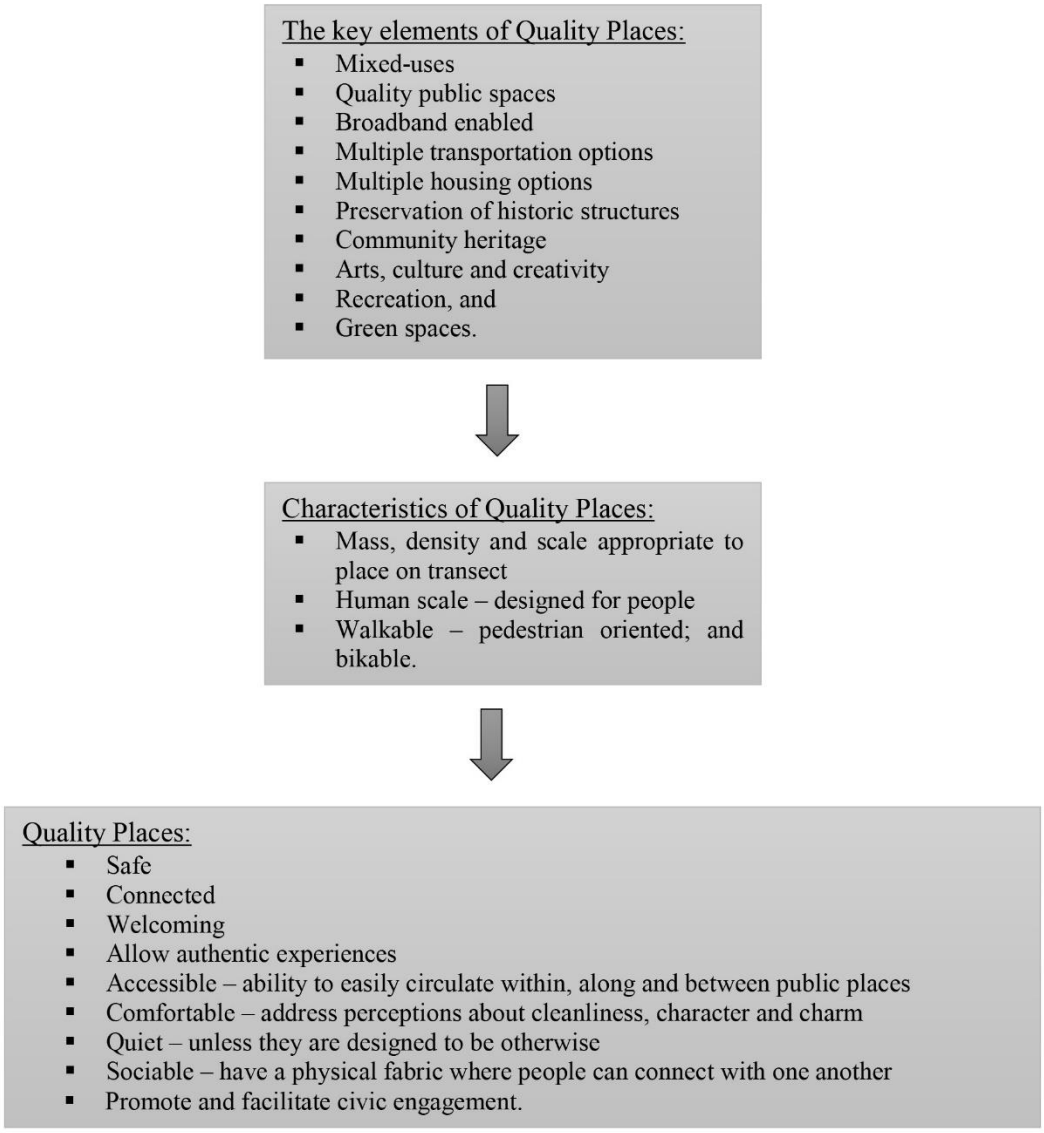

Figure 1: Factors of quality places (Wyckoff, M. A., 2014, p.2-3)

As it is shown in the figure 1, Wyckoff highlights the importance of quality places as it would provide a safe, connected, welcoming, allowing authentic experiences, accessible, comfortable, quiet, and a social city, and also would promote and facilitate civic engagement.

2.3 Different Approaches of Quality of Place Studies

Many scholars and researchers who work on the quality of place issues have defined it in different ways. Although the definitions are similar each scholar and researcher has developed different indicators and different classification for the measurement of

the quality of place. In order to find out the most reliable approach for defining and measuring the place quality of a city, it is needed to explore and compare the ideas of these studies. (Section 2.3.1., Table 1)

2.3.1 Different Approaches of Scholars

As it has been highlighted by Yeang (2006), "the most promising definition of place quality" has been written by Andrews (2001), who describes quality of place as

> "an aggregate measure of the factors in the external environment that contribute to quality-of-life (QOL), which is defined as a feeling of well-being, fulfilment, or satisfaction on the part of residents or visitors to a place". (Yeang, L. D., 2006, p.3),

Andrews sets some measurements for the local quality of place, which are environmental threats to human health, recreational amenities, and aesthetics of landscape and streetscape. Additionally, he makes a classification of more comprehensive measurements. This classification consists of physical planning factors such as availability and diversity of housing and transportation options, economic factors such as employment opportunities and stability of property values, social factors such as educational opportunities, crime rates, and sense of community and political factors such as trust in government and civic engagement.

Considering the factors and measurements of place quality determined by Andrews, it can be seen that those factors and measurements are planning issues but for the regional-scale plans (master plans, environmental plans, regional plans etc.) and too much general approach for measuring a place`s quality. For example, Andrews put forward the physical planning factors such as availability and diversity of housing and transportation. These factors need more specific indicators/measurements for measuring/analysing or defining a place quality, such as: 'Which types of housing is

suitable for which type of society?', 'What should be the density?', 'Is the availability of a transportation system enough for a place to become qualified?'. And many other questions like these can be listed for the Andrews' measurements of place quality.

Another scholar who works on the place quality is Richard Florida. Florida's approach on the issue is different than Andrews, as he mostly focuses on the social factors. The scholar describes quality of place as;

> "It entails a set of factors that collectively make a city an attractive place of residence for the creative class: economic and spatial diversity, specific leisure and cultural amenities that fit the interest of the creative class, a mixed population, the chance of informal meetings in so-called "third spaces," safety, vibrancy, as well as indefinable aspects such as authenticity, tolerance, street life, buzz, and urbanity." (Florida, R., 2002)

Florida mentions a specific part of the society what he calls "creative class" or "knowledge workers" and all of his understanding of criteria for quality of place is focusing on that part of society. Florida's approach includes not only social factors but also economic and environmental factors, however again only focusing on the "creative class" or "knowledge workers". Although the scholar has detailed explanation of factors and indicators for measurement of place quality, as long as he is focusing only on a segment of society, his approach should be enhanced since an urban place is should be for everyone.

In fact, Florida's one of the main goals in his urban studies is to make quality of place "a central element of regional economic development efforts." According to Florida "Quality-of-place - particularly natural, recreational, and lifestyle amenities – is absolutely vital for attracting knowledge workers and in supporting leading-edge high technology firms and industries." (Florida, R., 2000). The scholar notes that, the

knowledge workers prefer to live in place where both job opportunities and other living facilities supporting their lifestyles are available. Therefore, features of place quality are as crucial as the economic factors for the people working in the fields of high technology. So, the quality of place is a tool for economic development but such kind of development will be occurred by attracting knowledge workers to the place. Briefly it can be understood that Florida, in the study called 'Competing in the Age of Talent: Quality of Place and The New Economy' dated January 2000, aims at economic growth through focusing on a segment of society which is the knowledge workers.

Although Florida's focus group seems very narrow for a place quality study, his ideas on the issue is very important and valuable. After 14 years from Florida's Competing in the Age of Talent paper, in 2014 he has published "Richard Florida's 10 rules for a city's 'quality of place'". It has been claimed that people's perception of a city is more than just where they found job. Surveys have shown that quality of place is a significant source of civic satisfaction. "The more beautiful, welcoming and diverse the city, the happier and more prosperous its residents will be." (Florida, R., 2014) In this new study, it can be observed that Florida focuses on all residents, but still his "rules" are too much general.

Jane Jacob Trip is another scholar who works on the economic competitiveness of the cities using place quality as a tool, which is constructed on the Florida's ideas. As Trip (2007) explains, "Originally developed to measure the competitiveness of U.S. cities, the concept was subsequently applied by Florida and Tinagli (2004) to a group of European countries." (p.502) However, the scholar criticizes the scale of analyses of place quality that it would only provide an expressive picture at the national level. When the aim is to relate competitiveness of cities and regions to quality of place, it is

needed to analyse the issue at local level. (Trip, J., 2007) Trip reviews Florida's characteristics of quality of place since they are difficult for a planner to reproduce and for researchers difficult to measure. As Trip is not satisfied with Florida's characteristics of place quality, the scholar has conducted a survey to find out the main characteristics of quality of place. Trip found out that "these mostly concern aspects directly related to urban design, which suggests that only some of the ideas of Florida are taken into account." (Trip, J., 2007)

Jane Jacob Trip has criticized Florida's important and valuable ideas because he has worked on the national level which was not suitable for measuring or reproducing quality of place and has attempt to improve them. Trip has listed a more specific characteristics which was a very crucial improvement in place quality studies, however those characteristics were not categorized so that it was still difficult to perceive the concept.

Llewelyn Davies Yeang on the other hand approaches this issue more comprehensively. The scholar notes

> "Quality of Place is somewhat an elusive and contested term. The concept has been considered in purely physical, social and economic terms, however, increasingly has come to imply the complex range of factors that help to define a place and to distinguish one place from another and thereby positively influencing the region's competitive position." (Yeang, L., D., 2006, p.3)

Being aware of the importance of quality of place to the competitiveness of a city, Yeang explores all the other scholars and tried to improve and also categorize the characteristics of the quality of place. First of all, the scholar claims that quality of place is a dimension of liveability. Liveability is another subject of urban studies, which would be a solution for many urban problems, not only in economic but also in

social and environmental terms. Starting from this point, Yeang listed liveability dimensions as environmental quality, functional and physical place quality and safer places. Different from other scholars, Yeang distinguishes safety issues and environmental issues from quality of place. Additionally, he makes a classification of the quality of place as functional and physical with their own criteria, which is an easier approach for both planners and researchers for measuring and reproducing quality of place for a city.

After Yeang's approach, another place quality study was suggested in 2008 by Richard Barringer, chairman of Governor John E. Baldacci's Council on Maine's Quality of Place. It can easily be observed that Barringer didn't consider the approaches and critics done before. He defines quality of place very similarly to other scholars, as it is understood from the statement; "Quality of place consists of those characteristics of a community or region that make it distinctive from other places and attractive as an area to reside, work, and/or visit." (Barringer, R., 2008). However, characteristics that he has suggested are so general, at the national scale, which seems to be difficult to be used to measure or reproduce place quality.

Table 1: Different approaches of scholars to the quality of place concept

Author	**Clinton J. Andrews (2000)**	**Richard Florida (2002)**		**Jan Jacob Trip (2005)**	**Llewelyn Davies Yeang (2006)**		**Richard Barringer, chairman of Governor John E. Baldacci's Council on Maine's Quality of Place (2008)**	
Definition of QoP	Quality-of-place (QOP) is an aggregate measure of the factors in the external environment that contribute to quality-of-life (QOL), which I in turn define as a feeling of well-being, fulfillment, or satisfaction on the part of residents or visitors to a place.	It entails a set of factors that collectively make a city an attractive place of residence for the creative class: economic and spatial diversity, specific leisure and cultural amenities that fit the interest of the creative class, a mixed population, the chance of informal meetings in so-called "third spaces," safety, vibrancy, as well as indefinable aspects such as authenticity, tolerance, street life, buzz, and urbanity.		Few of the actors interviewed are more than superficially familiar with the ideas of Richard Florida concerning the creative class and quality of place. On the whole, these mostly concern aspects directly related to urban design, which suggests that only some of the ideas of Florida are taken into account.	Quality of Place is a somewhat elusive and contested term. The concept has been considered in purely physical, social and economic terms, however increasingly has come to imply the complex range of factors that help to define a place and which help to distinguish one place from another and thereby positively influencing the region's competitive position.		Quality of place consists of those characteristics of a community or region that make it distinctive from other places and attractive as an area to reside, work, and/or visit.	
General Measurements	**Minimum set of local QOP measures** • Environmental threats to human health, • Recreational amenities, • aesthetics of landscape and streetscape **Additional popular measures** • **physical planning factors** such as availability and diversity of housing and transportation options; • **economic factors** such as employment opportunities and stability of property values • **social factors** such as educational opportunities, crime rates, and sense of community; • **political factors** such as trust in government and civic engagement.	**QUALITY** Diversity Specific Amenities Liveliness; culture Technology; innovativeness Talent Creativity, bohemia Tolerance; openness Aesthetics Environment; sustainability Safety	**INDICATORS** Functional diversity, distinctive neighbourhoods, sufficient density Individual sports facilities, recreation areas and restaurants per capita; (semi) public spaces for informal meetings (third spaces) Cultural and musical events; live performance venues per capita Patents per capita; relative percentage of high-tech output Percentage of people with a bachelor's degree and above Percentage of artistically creative people Relative percentage of foreign-born people; idem gays Architecture; parks; urban heritage Natural environmental assets; environmental quality; reuse of older industrial sites Crime figures	**Main characteristics of quality of place mentioned spontaneously by interviewees** Public functions at street level outside of buildings Quality of public space Functional mixture Liveliness during the day Density Building materials applied Clarity of design; extent to which public space can be surveyed Control and maintenance Quality of architecture Accessibility Safeness and convenience for pedestrians	**Physical Place Quality:** Quality of Built Environment Levels of Derelict Land Quality of Parks and Green Areas Public Realm Quality **Functional Place Quality** Pedestrian Journeys Public Transportation Vitality and Viability of Services residents of or visitors to that place.	**Indicators** **Indicators** • Non-Vehicular Accessibility • Safety of Roads • Vehicular Accessibility • Integration of Modes • Streetscape	**Categories** Natural Environment Built Environment Culture and Recreation Civic Traditions	**Indicators** • Climate may be measured by average temperature, humidity, and rainfall at different times of year. • Topography measures the variety of landscapes in an area such as mountains, valleys, and plains. • Water amenities are often described by the number and size of lakes, rivers, or coastline, and the presence of marinas and water access points. □ A place's physical structures (e.g., residential, commercial, industrial, religious, and civic buildings) often define its character. □ Their appearance and layout may strengthen or detract from its appeal to residents and visitors. • Cultural amenities include museums, theaters, restaurants, galleries, festivals, historic sites, and the diversity of the local population. • Recreational activities may include facilities such as tennis clubs and bowling alleys. • Nature-based recreational infrastructure includes hiking trails, campgrounds, parks and public lands, golf courses, and ski resorts. • Civic traditions include the strength and extent of a community's social networks, the level of social capital (mutual trust and reciprocity), and civic engagement and effectiveness.

Based on the arguments above, since Yeang clearly classifies place quality attributes, within liveability dimensions, as functional and physical place quality and evaluates it from this perspective, his approach seems to be the most comprehensive approach among other scholars, which provides an evaluation of place quality at local scale. Therefore, it is worth to explore and understand his approach profoundly. Some of the attributes of liveability dimensions defined by Yeang has both local and citywide impacts and potential interventions so that it is crucial to separate the spatial level of impact and analysis. According to him, the most appropriate level for assessing liveability and especially quality of place is not at the level of regions or even cities, it should be at the local level. (Yeang, L.D., 2006) However, Yeang's attributes need to be elaborated by comparing and matching the indicators described by other researchers in order to determine the most appropriate indicators for those comprehensive classified attributes. In order to do so, Yeang's attributes will be compared with other researchers' attributes in the next part.

2.3.2 Comparison of Different Approaches to Place Quality Attributes

As it is explained in the previous section, Llewelyn Davies Yeang studied quality of place with clearly classified and comprehensive attributes at local scale. Working this concept with classification and at local scale makes it an easier approach for planners and researchers for assessing and improving quality of place in a city.

Table 2: Liveability dimensions

A. Environmental Quality
1. Noisier-Quieter?
2. Dirtier-Cleaner?
3. More or less congested?
4. Building quality, Better or Worse?
B. Place Quality (Physical)
5. Quality of the built environment 'product'
6. Levels of derelict land
7. Quality of parks and green spaces
8. Public realm quality
C. Place Quality (Functional)
9. Pedestrian journeys: easier-or harder?
10. Public transport quality
11. Vitality and viability of services
D. Safer Places
12. Crime levels
13. Anti-social behavior

Resource: Yeang, L. D., 2006

Yeang studied quality of place within liveability dimensions. He has suggested four broad themes and thirteen topics for the dimensions of liveability. Each topic would have its own attribute for measuring or reproducing liveability of cities as shown in the table 2. Although there are some attributes described by Yeang, it is worth to explore for whether they can be improved and increased or not. In order to do so, approaches similar to Yeang should be searched and the attributes should be compared.

Apart from Yeang's defined dimensions, many different parameters have been used to make assessment of quality of place in cities as they have been discussed in previous section. Most of the researchers conduct quality of life surveys however only few of them includes quality of place issues. For example, the Economist Intelligence Unit studied liveability with five broad categories such as stability, healthcare, culture, education and infrastructure. It doesn't include any local level data to be used in a quality of place study.

On the other hand, magazines named Monocle and Mercer which conduct quality of life survey annually, use many parameters, but they have different approaches, reasons

and parameters in their survey. Therefore, it is worth to investigate their research content.

MONOCLE

The Monocle, which is a magazine briefing on global affairs, business, culture, design and much more, conducted quality of life survey annually. The magazine considers basic metrics like, business, climate, crime rate, education and health care within their survey. They also use some other intangible metrics like costs, culture and access to activities. As these metrics are at citywide scale, not at local scale, they are not suitable to be used within a quality of place study.

MERCER

Mercer, on the other hand, also conducts quality of living survey annually and approaches quality of place through liveability concept like Yeang. In the analysis of living conditions conducted by global consultancy Mercer, 39 factors have been used, classified in 10 categories:

1. Political and social environment (political stability, crime, law enforcement, etc.).
2. Economic environment (currency exchange regulations, banking services).
3. Socio-cultural environment (media availability and censorship, limitations on personal freedom).
4. Medical and health considerations (medical supplies and services, infectious diseases, sewage, waste disposal, air pollution, etc.).
5. Schools and education (standards and availability of international schools).
6. Public services and transportation (electricity, water, public transportation, traffic congestion, etc.).

7. Recreation (restaurants, theatres, cinemas, sports and leisure, etc.).
8. Consumer goods (availability of food/daily consumption items, cars, etc.).
9. Housing (rental housing, household appliances, furniture, maintenance services).
10. Natural environment (climate, record of natural disasters).

As the living conditions have been changed because of the global pandemic Covid-19, quality of living survey has not been released since 2020. The latest survey has been conducted in 2019. According to this survey done in 2019 the most liveable 10 cities are Vienna- Austria; Zurich- Switzerland; Auckland- New Zealand; Munich- Germany; Vancouver- Canada; Dusseldorf- Germany; Frankfurt- Germany; Geneva- Switzerland; Copenhagen- Denmark and Basel-Switzerland. And the least liveable 10 cities are Conakry- Guinea; Kinshasa- DR Congo; Brazzaville- Congo; Damascus- Syria; N'Djamena- Chad; Khartoum- Sudan; Port-au-Prince – Haiti; Sana'a- Yemen; Bangul- Central African Republic and Baghdad- Iraq.

The main purpose of Mercer for making such a survey each year, is to provide data to multinational companies for determining compensation packages for employees on international assignments, as it is mentioned by the company

> "Mercer offers two ways to compensate mobile employees fairly for going to a host site with a lower quality of living than that in their home location. Quality of Living Reports (QOL) recommend a point-to-point comparison assignment premium in order to recognize differences in home and host conditions." (Quality of living- location reports, 2022)

Purpose of making quality of living survey can be different; one can be for providing living standards data for employees of companies and the other can be providing data

for planners to make better places or cities, however the methodology of the survey is more important than the purpose for this study.

In Mercer's survey, the approach is more general in terms of economic, social and environmental dimensions while Yeang's approach deals with the place itself. So, it can be seen that scale of the Mercers' survey is wider than Yeang's approach. However, some of the factors used in the survey overlap with the dimensions of liveability defined by Yeang. As it is shown in the table 3, if the scale of indicators of Mercer's survey is local than they match with the Yeang's dimensions. For example, category of 'political and social environment' described by Mercer covers the dimension of 'safer places' as long as they are both at same scale and dealing with same issues.

Two of the Mercer's categories are covering Yeang's physical place quality dimension. One of them is 'socio-cultural environment'. This category is dealing with personal freedom, which is directly or indirectly related with public realm quality. Do the public realms and neighbourhoods provide freedom of action for young, old and disabled people? That is the point to be explored within dimension of physical place quality. 'Recreation' on the other hand is another category matching with physical place quality. Quality of parks and green spaces are the issues within this category.

Table 3: Comparison of Mercer's quality of living survey with Yeang's dimensions of liveability

Mercer Quality of Living Survey		**Scale**	**Yeang's Dimensions of Liveability**	
Categories	**Indicators**		**Dimensions**	**Indicators**
Political and Social Environment	Political Stability Crime Law Enforcement	Local Liveability	Safer Places	Crime Levels Anti-Social Behaviour

Economic Environment	Currency exchange regulations Banking services	Citywide	-	-
Socio-Cultural Environment	Media availability and censorship, Limitations on personal freedom	Local Liveability	Physical Place Quality	Public Realm Quality
Medical and Health Consideration	Medical supplies and services, Infectious diseases, Sewage, Waste disposal, Air pollution, etc	Local Liveability	Environmental Quality	Dirtier-Cleaner?
Schools and Education	Standards and availability of international schools	Citywide	-	-
Public Services and Transportation	Electricity, Water, Public transportation, Traffic congestion	Local Liveability	Functional Place Quality	Pedestrian Journeys-walkability Public Transport Quality Vitality and Viability of Services
Recreation	Restaurants, theatres, cinemas, sports and leisure, etc.	Local Liveability	Physical Place Quality	Quality of Parks and Green Spaces
Consumer Goods	Availability of food/daily consumption items, cars, etc.	Citywide	-	-
Housing	Rental housing, household appliances, furniture, maintenance services	Local Liveability & Citywide	Quality of Place	Residential Offer
Natural Environment	Climate, record of natural disasters	Citywide	-	-

Briefly, focusing on the comparison table above, it can be suggested that most of the place quality attributes overlap with the liveability measurements when the scale is local liveability. As it is mentioned before, quality of place would be measured by mostly local liveability indicators and sometimes with the indicators that would have

citywide effects. Thus, Yeang's defined indicators of dimensions can be improved with the Mercer's liveability measurements. Thus, the attributes of place quality will be discussed from this perspective.

2.4 Attributes of Place Quality

After searching and discussing different approaches of place quality studies and understanding that the most efficient and suitable approach has been worked by Yeang, it is necessary to explore his study on liveability dimensions since he defines attributes of place quality through those dimensions.

There are four main aspects as dimensions of liveability derived by Llewelyn Davies Yeang, in exploring liveability for the State of the English Cities Report (Parkinson et. al., 2006). According to Yeang, the dimensions of liveability are classified as; environmental quality, functional place quality, physical place quality and safer places (Table 3).

Preliminary research reveals that place quality acts like an umbrella among the dimensions of liveability. Working on the indicators of each dimension, it would be easily claimed that as long as high-quality places are provided in cities, consequently it will have safer places and high-quality environment.

This claim is also highlighted by Andreas Wesener in 2011, in his study on the two strategic approaches in Germany and UK, which are baukultur and world class places, for improving quality of place. The UK's approach 'world class places' defined elements of quality of place and then focuses on possible economic, social and environmental benefits of high-quality places. Wesener (2011) highlights UK Government's statements about the benefits and contributions of high-quality places;

> "a number of possible positive behaviours (e.g. walking, cycling, social interaction, ease of mobility, etc.) and products (e.g. green, pleasant environments, low-energy-buildings, user-friendly buildings, etc.) stimulating positive effects such as low crime rates, good health, social inclusion, environmental sustainability, etc. (UK Government 2009b: 18)". (p.427)

Wesener (2011) states that there are different research studies that support the argument about economic, social and environmental benefits of high-quality places, and put in order like;

> economic benefits as contributing to increasing property values and decreasing maintenance costs, to avoiding social costs caused by non-functional buildings; social benefits as providing for increased community spirit, better health, reinforced social ties, and social inclusion; and for environmental benefits providing relations between high-density built environments and CO_2 reduction (Dodman 2009), and green space, greater biodiversity, and reduced urban temperatures (Goode 2006). (p. 427)

The arguments above supported the claim "place quality acts like an umbrella among the dimensions of liveability" stated in previous lines. In this sense, among the dimension of liveability produced by Yeang, environmental quality would be measured by the cleanliness, congestion or noise level of a place and building quality. Another dimension of liveability, physical place quality has built environment quality among its measurements, which covers "building quality" criteria of environmental quality. Just as accessibility criteria of functional place quality, which covers congestion issue. Furthermore, safer places could be provided by high quality places. Crime levels are generally tending to be high in the abandoned places, so making qualified places, which will be attractive for people, would reduce crime levels. Moreover, high-qualified places would provide sense of place (sense of belonging) which would help people to use the places for their daily life and meet with other people in the public realms.

Briefly, based on the arguments above it is claimed that as long as high-quality places are provided in cities, consequently it will have safer places and high-quality environment.

Figure 2: Place quality as an umbrella among liveability dimensions

In this context, functional and physical place quality will be explored in this study, in terms of their attributes and indicators.

Categories defined by Yeang will be a basis for the place quality study, and the concept will be studied through functional and physical place quality. However, the attributes and indicators of place quality will be determined through consideration of all the research conducted by different researchers and scholars explored throughout this chapter, such as Mercer, Wyckoff, Trip, Florida, Andrews and so on.

2.4.1 Functional Place Quality

Dimension of 'functional place quality' is about linkages, accessibility, vitality and viability of services (Yeang, L. D., 2006). As it has been stated in my Master Thesis named 'Public Transportation for More Liveable Cities: A Proposal for Famagusta' (Istillozlu, E., 2011), accessibility has great impacts not only on liveability of a city but also on the urban development, since it is a factor which has effects on the location

decisions of different uses like; business, commercial, recreational etc. Public transportation would be a great contributor for both increasing accessibility and liveability of cities. Thus, the thesis had focused on the accessibility and public transportation issues.

In order to be able to analyse existing situation of accessibility in a city, first of all attributes and indicators had been determined through exploring Yeang's dimension. He asked some questions in his report about the functional place quality attributes;

- "Does the building layout take priority over the roads and car parking, so that highways do not dominate?
- Are the streets pedestrian, cycle and vehicle friendly? Is car parking well integrated so it supports the street scene?
- Does the scheme integrate with existing roads, paths and surrounding development?
- Are public spaces and pedestrian routes overlooked and do they feel safe?" (Llewelyn Davies Yeang, 2006).

"Focusing on these questions will provide the basis for determination of the criteria for increasing liveability and quality of life of a city. Criteria derived from answers to the questions can be categorized as;" (Istillozlu, E., 2011)

- Right of way of the roads,
- Non-vehicular accessibility,
- Streetscape (visual intrusion by car parking),
- Integration of modes of transport and safety of the roads.

Based on this categorization, indicators had been determined as it is shown in the table below.

Table 4: Relationship between functional place quality aspects, accessibility indicators and their criteria

Functional Place Quality	**Indicators of Accessibility**	**Criteria of the Indicators**
Pedestrian Journeys	Non-Vehicular Accessibility	Street type sidewalks Pedestrian ways Cycling ways
	Safety of Roads	Traffic calming Segregated bike lanes Safe sidewalks
Public Transportation Quality	Vehicular Accessibility	Public transportation Road type/ Transport Infrastructure
	Integration of Modes	Integration of different public transportation modes Integration of private transportation & public transportation modes
Vitality and Viability of Services	Streetscape	Street furniture/Landscape elements Cleanliness Car parking (visual intrusion by side parking)

The indicators of functional place quality determined in that (master) thesis would be utilized in the analysis and understanding the accessibility dimension and public transportation. Results of such kind of survey would provide clues for improving functional place quality of cities.

This study has been improved in the paper “A Normative Approach for Assessment of accessibility from Liveability Perspective” (İstillozlu, E. & Doratlı, N., 2020). Based on the literature review, it has been seen that within liveability studies the users’ perceptions and expectations come into prominence. Therefore, there is a need for a

methodology, which would be utilized for analysing user perceptions and expectations, beside analysing and determining existing situation of accessibility. In this context, different methodologies have been explored in order to find out the most appropriate one for measurement of accessibility from liveability perspective.

Those different methodologies, which has been investigated, are accessibility-based, deprivation-based, mobility-based, outcomebased and activity-based perceived opportunities. Some of these methodologies have positive approach, some of them have normative approach and some has both positive and normative approaches. Tools, measurements and results of each methodology have been studied and measurements have been categorised through liveability perspective, which would be crucial for producing policies for increasing liveability of cities.

Measurement categories have also been questioned for their impact areas within cities. In other words, scales of the measurements have been studied since it is claimed that "another significant issue in the accessibility measurement is scale" (İstillozlu, E. & Doratlı, N., 2020, p. 11). Local scale is said to be the most appropriate scale for measuring and reproducing quality of place for a city, since "it provides a less cumbersome, more measured and methodical approach for both planners and researchers" (İstillozlu, E. & Doratlı, N., 2020, p. 12).

As a result of this research on accessibility measurement of cities from liveability perspective, indicators and criteria of accessibility which has been illustrated in Table 4 has been improved as it is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Measurements of accessibility from liveability perspective and their criteria. (İstillozlu, E. & Doratlı, N., 2020, p. 12)

Measurements of accessibility from liveability perspective	**Criteria**
Vehicular Accessibility and Integration of modes	Transport Infrastructure Public Transportation Integration of different transportation modes
Spatial Distribution of services and opportunities	Reaching opportunities like schools, hospitals, leisure activities etc.
Safety of Roads	Traffic Calming Segregated Bike lanes Safe sidewalks
Perception Attributes	Accessibility within daily activity pattern of people
Non-Vehicular Accessibility	Sidewalks Pedestrian Ways Cycling Ways
Streetscape	Street Furniture Cleanliness Car parking

In line with the consequences of the research explained above, a new liveability-based methodology has been suggested. The new methodology has normative approach and the tools have been suggested as questionnaire and Likert scale. The measurements are functional place quality attributes, perception attributes, and spatial distribution of services and opportunities.

The new methodology is aiming to analyse not only the existing situation of accessibility but also analysing what citizens are expecting and perceive about accessibility within their city. This type of analysis with a normative approach would increase the success of suggested public policies. The reason is that, planners can make the best transportation plan for increasing accessibility in a city, however if the policies in the plan are not meeting the expectations of the citizens, the plan would not be accomplished.

As a result of analysing accessibility via liveability-based methodology, public policies can be suggested for increasing accessibility and consequently functional place quality in cities.

2.4.2 Physical Place Quality

Physical place quality is another dimension of liveability, which deals with the built environment, derelict lands, parks and green spaces, and public spaces. Functional place quality has been deeply searched and studied with its attributes, indicators and criteria in the previous study. It is worth to study and search physical place quality with a similar approach, which will be a major concern of this thesis.

As Yeang defines, physical place quality has four components such as *built environment, levels of derelict land, quality of parks and green spaces and public realm quality*. Those components should have indicators and related criteria to be used in a study which aims to improve physical place quality of a city.

As it has been stated in this chapter, some of the factors, elements or indicators of physical place quality determined by different researchers and scholars are overlapping or matching with those elements defined by Yeang. In this context, all of these factors, indicators and elements will be considered in the next part in order to reach the most comprehensive attributes and indicators of physical place quality, which would generate a basis for determining strategies and policies for improving physical place quality in a city. So that, attributes and indicators of physical place quality will be determined through deep research on different parameters defined by different researchers and by discussing several cases.

Aware of the importance of physical place quality, its attributes should be evaluated and improved within cities. From this point of view, attributes will be studied, and indicators of those attributes will be discussed for providing a basis for further studies such as a methodology for measurement of physical place quality and to be able to produce strategies and policies for reproducing it. To do so, first of all the attributes of physical place quality which are determined by Yeang will be studied and discussed with parallel to other scholars to be able to define indicators of each attribute. Those defined indicators will be studied in next section of this thesis to determine their criteria and to generate a methodology for measurements.

2.4.2.1 Built Environment

The first component of physical place quality determined by Yeang is "Built Environment". Built environment is a very broad component that involves other place quality components such as derelict lands, parks and green areas and public realm, but apart from these, it also involves some other factors such as mixed-use areas, historic structures, street scale and etc. Each of these factors has their own measurable criteria. On the other hand, the components of derelict land, parks and green areas and public realm has their own indicators and related criteria for each indicator. Therefore, Yeang classified built environment and other components separately. In this context, built environment will be defined and discussed with factors aside from derelict land, parks and green areas and public realm in this thesis.

According to Handy, Boarnet, Ewing and Killingsworth (2002) the built environment is multidimensional concept. There would be various elements of built environment in various scales such as neighbourhood scale or regional scale which could be used for different types of studies. For example, in a study which aims to measure how the built environment affects physical activity could use both local and regional characteristics

of built environment. However, for a place quality study, neighbourhood (local) scale is more appropriate as it is discussed before.

As Handy, Boarnet, Ewing and Killingsworth (2002) discussed, dimensions of built environment in the neighbourhood or local scale would include *density and intensity*, *land use mix, street connectivity, street scale* and *aesthetic qualities*. The authors define *density and intensity* as the amount of activity in a given area. It is about population (person per acre), employment (jobs per square mile) or building square footage per unit area (Handy S., Boarnet M., Ewing R. and Killingsworth R., 2002).

Another dimension is *land use mix* which is defined as proximity of different land uses. Authors claim that this dimension does not have a standard measurement. It can be measured by three different ways depending on the type of the study. One study can use distance from house to nearest store while other can use dissimilarity index which measures number of different land uses within an area. Another way to measure land use mix is to dividing total land in an area into shares of each type of land use. (Handy et al., 2002)

Figure 3: Example of mixed use development (Quora- What is mixed land use?, 2022)

Street connectivity which is another dimension of built environment is said to be defined as directness and availability of alternative routes through the network. This dimension can be measured by the number of intersections per square mile, or by the ratio between the straight-line distance between two points and the distance along the network between these points. Besides, for a planning practice street connectivity could also be measured by the average block length. (Handy et al., 2002)

On the other hand, *street scale* is defined as three-dimensional space along a street as bounded by buildings. This dimension which would be measured by the ratio between building heights and street widths, or the average building "setback," the distance from the street to the building, is a common issue of planning practice. (Handy et al., 2002)

Figure 4: Street scale (Street scale and proportion, 2022)

And the last dimension of built environment in local scale is *aesthetic qualities of place* which refers to attractiveness and appeal of a place. The design of the buildings, landscaping and the availability of public amenities such as street furniture and lighting are the factors that contribute to the aesthetic qualities. (Handy et al., 2002)

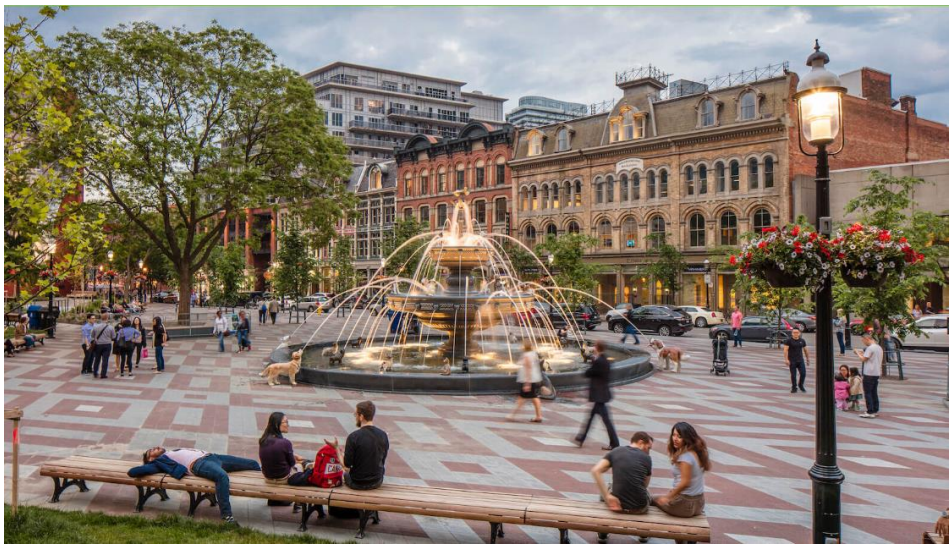

Figure 5: Example for aesthetic qualities of place (Safe in public space, 2022)

Table 5: Dimensions of the built environment dimension definition examples of measures

Dimension	Definition	Examples of Measures
Density and intensity	Amount of activity in a given area	Persons per acre or jobs per square mile Ratio of commercial floor space to land area
Land use mix	Proximity of different land uses	Distance from house to nearest store Share of total land area for different uses Dissimilarity index
Street connectivity	Directness and availability of alternative routes through the network	Intersections per square mile of area Ratio of straight-line distance of network distance Average block length
Street scale	Three-dimensional space along a street as bounded by buildings	Ratio of building heights to street width Average distance from street to buildings
Aesthetic qualities	Attractiveness and appeal of a place	Percent of ground in shade at noon Number of locations with graffiti per square mile

Resource: Handy S., Boarnet M., Ewing R. and Killingsworth R., 2002, p.66

All of the dimension of built environment described by Handy, Boarnet, Ewing and Killingsworth (2002), as shown in the table 5, would be beneficial to be used in a physical place quality study.

Built environment has also been dealt with in some other scholars' studies like Wyckoff. As it has been highlighted in previous lines, Mark A. Wyckoff (2014) explains place and 10 elements of quality places, which are, *mixed-uses, quality public spaces, broadband enabled, multiple transportation options, multiple housing options, preservation of historic structures, community heritage, arts, culture and creativity, recreation and green spaces.* Exploring those elements would show that mix uses for example is the subject of built environment as it is explained by Handy, Boarnet, Ewing and Killingsworth (2002) within the dimensions of built environment as land use mix which refers to different land uses and their proximity and relations in a given area.

Quality public spaces would be discussed within Yeang's public realm quality issue and also is a subject of aesthetic qualities. "Broadband Enabled" can be an issue of social dimension which would include wide range of facilities provided for society but not a subject of physical place quality. Multiple transportation options is an element that would contribute to functional place quality while multiple housing options can be discussed within built environment. Preservation of historic structures is also an issue of built environment which would have contributions to physical place quality since the historic structures would provide an identity for a community and a city and define sense of place. Then, preservation of historic structures would promote attractiveness of a city and also would contribute to aesthetic qualities. Community heritage, on the other hand, is the social dimension of quality places that reflects

culture and identity of the community like the element of arts, culture and creativity. The last two elements recreation and green spaces could be discussed within Yeang's 'quality of parks and green spaces' attribute.

Table 6: Interpreting key elements of place quality defined by Mark A. Wyckoff (2014)

The key elements of Quality Places (Wyckoff, 2014)	Subject of…
▪ **Mixed-uses**	**Built environment**
▪ Quality public spaces	Public realm quality
▪ Broadband enabled	Social dimension
▪ Multiple transportation options	Functional Place Quality
▪ **Multiple housing options**	**Built environment**
▪ **Preservation of historic structures**	**Built environment**
▪ Community heritage	Social dimension
▪ Arts, culture and creativity	Social dimension
▪ Recreation, and ▪ Green spaces.	Quality of Parks and Green Spaces

Resource: Mark A. Wyckoff , 2014

MIXED USES

With the 'mixed use' concept here it is meant a development type in a part of the city, not a building, in other words it is a horizontal, but not a vertical development. This kind of development generally applied to the strategic locations of a city such as city centre, commercial corridors or activity spines. For example, city council of London in Canada had prepared London Plan and adopted mix-used development strategy through the plan to the 'strategic locations - along rapid transit corridors and within the Primary Transit Area.' One of goals of the plan is to "build a mixed-use compact city".

Beside the plan of London - Canada, which has comprehensive strategies for mixed-use development, Clark County, Washington has more district specific approach in their 'Mixed-use Design Standards'. "The Mixed Use (MX) district requires mixed use developments to provide the community with a mix of mutually-supporting retail, service, office and residential uses." So, it is claimed that the land uses should support, interconnect and integrate each other.

The integration of land uses mentioned in Clark County Mix-use Design Standards (2016) is not only for city centres or for activity spines, but also could be applied to the neighbourhood's centres as it says "Accommodate and respect surrounding land uses by providing a gradual transition adjacent to lower density neighbourhoods that may encircle a potential mixed-use site." (p.1)

Both approaches in those case studies are good examples for understanding how to achieve successful mixed-use development within a city.

MULTIPLE HOUSING OPTIONS

'Multiple housing options' is another component of built environment which would contribute to the physical place quality as long as it is provided. Diversity of housing supply is one of the potential criteria within this attribute. Housing types could be single or multiple family houses, detached/semidetached housing, flats, and studio flats and so on.

Price ranges of the houses is another criterion for multiple housing options. Housing should be supplied for low-, middle- and high-income residents in order to the city be

more attractive for all income groups. This type of diversity would also contribute to the place quality.

Those criteria for multiple housing options are generally provided by government through housing strategies and policies. For example, Vienna in Austria which is one of the most liveable cities according to Mercer, has social housing policy and through that policy the government provides multiple housing options to the citizens (Förster, W., Kaiser, G., Steiner, D., Viehhauser, A., 2008).

Additionally, the council in Auckland in New Zealand has prepared a housing action plan, which aims to achieve: (Housing supply and special housing areas, 2016)

- increase housing supply to meet demand
- increase housing choice to meet diverse preferences and needs
- improve the quality of existing and new housing
- improve housing affordability and the supply of affordable housing.

PRESERVATION OF HISTORICAL STRUCTURES

This component would include built heritage treatment. As it is highlighted by the Office of Environment and Heritage (OEH), which is a government agency of Australia, built heritage is one of the most important cultural assets of the nations. What the built heritage includes can be different for each nation. For example, according to OEH, Australian built heritage includes cathedrals and cemeteries, factories and fences, houses and hotels, museums and markets as well as areas, precincts and streetscapes. The agency highlights that the built heritage is the physical evidence of Australian cultural development. In this case, conservation and preservation of built heritage would provide a basis for definition of a sense of place

and an identity for a community. In addition, this would contribute to the physical place quality as well.

Thus, there is a need for making strategies and policies for preservation and conservation of built heritage for every city. For example, historic city centre of Vienna is a UNESCO world heritage. As the President of the Austrian Commission for UNESCO states, “being a UNESCO World Heritage Site does not mean being a museum”. Hence, there are new developments and contemporary architecture, but should adapt to the strict quality and quantity standards. In this context, there are projects implementing in public spaces, restoration and revitalization projects, roof space conversions and new structures in the historic context in Vienna.

In order to determine the most appropriate indicators of built environment for a physical place quality study, it will be beneficial to compare and match the different scholars’ approaches discussed above. In this context, dimensions of built environment studied by Handy, Boarnet, Ewing and Killingsworth (2002), the related elements of quality places defined by Wyckoff (2014) and attributes of physical place quality determined by Yeang (2006) is compared and matched as shown in the table 7 depending on the discussions in the previous lines. As it is highlighted before, built environment is a broad attribute of physical place quality and which indicators would be appropriate to make it measurable, is a crucial point.

There are some defined dimensions for built environment and some elements of quality places, which are related to the built environment but the main question is which of them would be appropriate for the measurement of the physical place quality of a city. So that the comparison and matching table below (table 7) shows that except from the

street connectivity other dimensions would contribute to the physical place quality. Street connectivity can be subject of accessibility, which would contribute to the functional place quality.

Table 7: Comparing and matching the different scholars' approaches for built environment

Dimensions of Built Environment	**Elements of Quality Places Related to Built Environment**	**Attributes of Physical Place Quality**
Density and Intensity	-	Built Environment
Land use mix	Mixed uses Multiple housing options	Built Environment
Street Connectivity	-	Not physical place quality but functional place quality
Street Scale	-	Built Environment
Aesthetic Qualities	-	Built Environment
-	Preservation of Historic Structures	Built Environment

Resources: (1) Handy S., Boarnet M., Ewing R. and Killingsworth R., 2002 & (2) Wyckoff (2014) & (3) Yeang (2006)

Depending on the discussions in previous lines, the indicators of built environment for measuring physical place quality are determined as density and intensity, land use mix, multiple housing options, street scale and aesthetic qualities with historic structures as shown in table 8.

Table 8: Indicators of built environment

Physical Place Quality	**Indicators**
Built Environment	Density and Intensity
	Land use mix
	Multiple housing options
	Street Scale
	Aesthetic Qualities
	Preservation of Historic Structures

These determined indicators will be deeply searched and studied in next section (section 2.5) in order to find out the measurement criteria.

2.4.2.2 Levels of Derelict Land

The second component of physical place quality according to Yeang is "levels of derelict land." As Fife Council in Scotland defined in their report published annually, 'Vacant and Derelict Land Audit', "derelict land is previously developed land, which has a physical constraint caused by its previous use which hampers its redevelopment or naturalization." (Fife Council, Scotland, 2021) Generally derelict land can be perceived as vacant land however two types of land, vacant and derelict, have some differences as it can be understood from their definitions; "vacant land is previously undeveloped land, without physical constraint, which the Planning Authority has indicated is currently available for redevelopment." (Fife Council, Scotland, 2021) The report has described some conditions in order to define a land as vacant or derelict land. The differences can also be seen from those conditions, which has been shown in table 9.

Table 9: Conditions and definitions of vacant and derelict land (Fife Vacant and Derelict Land Audit, 2021)

	Vacant Land	**Derelict Land**
Definition	Vacant land is previously undeveloped land, without physical constraint	Derelict land is previously developed land, which has a physical constraint caused by its previous use
Condition	It must be at least 0.1 hectares in size	It must be at least 0.1 hectares in size
	It must be located within a settlement	It can be located anywhere (both within and out with settlement)
	It must not have previously been developed	It must have previously been developed
	It must not be in use or include a useable building	It must not be in use or include a useable building

	It must be ready for new development	It must not be ready for new development without rehabilitation
	It must have a new use intended for it in the Plan (or via Planning Permission)	It must not be a Scheduled Ancient Monument or Cemetery

On the other hand, North Ayrshire Council, in Scotland, has quoted the definition of vacant and derelict land by Scottish Government in their 'Vacant and Derelict Land Strategy' as "vacant land is land viewed as an appropriate site for development, having either had previous development on it or preparatory work in anticipation of future development" (p.5) and "derelict land is that damaged by development for beneficial use without some remedial works." (p.5) Both vacant and derelict land is a land that can be reused depending on its conditions. When it comes to the reasons of a land being vacant or derelict, it can be said that the most common reason is developments and changes over time. Existing sites may become insufficient to meet the needs of changed time. For example, "Employers may relocate to alternative locations or the use of land may change from its original purpose." (Renfrewshire's Vacant and Derelict Land Strategy, 2022, p. 2)

As it is highlighted in the strategy of North Ayrshire Council "Through this process of change some land can be left behind, lapsing into decay and through a lack of new investment can become vacant. It can then remain for a number of reasons, such as: economic, locational or physical obsolescence." (p.5)

In the Scottish Government Vacant and Derelict Land Strategy, it is claimed that vacant and derelict lands are sometimes referred to as 'brownfield areas'. As Bendor et al. quoted (2011), the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)'s definition,

brownfields are “abandoned, idled, or under-used industrial and commercial facilities where expansion or redevelopment is complicated by real or perceived environmental contamination” (p.915). Thus, it is worth to understand what the brownfield area is and its potentials are.

BROWNFIELD AREAS

As it is explained in the Canadian Institute for Environmental Law and Policy (CIELAP), brownfield areas may have been used for industrial, commercial or institutional purposes, and somehow could not satisfy todays needs of the purpose so that became vacant or underused properties. Consequently, these kinds of areas would cause many problems in a city and generating a strategy like brownfield development or redevelopment would need to regain them. Brownfield (re)development would provide economic, environmental and social benefits as it is stated by CIELAP; it would prevent contamination of air, water and land and urban sprawl, allow smart growth and beautiful urban landscape, conserves historical heritage and etc.

Brownfield areas are defined variously in different countries (Pavolová et all., 2019). The common ground of the definitions is contamination. In this context, working on the derelict and vacant land would lead to investigate contaminated sites. Do the contaminated sites have any effect on the place quality issues like vacant or derelict lands? In order to answer this question, it is worth to define the contaminated sites.

CONTAMINATED SITES

As Ministry of Environment of British Colombia (2006) notes;

> “a contaminated site is defined as an area of land in which the soil or underlying groundwater or sediment contains a hazardous waste or substance in an amount

> or concentration that exceeds provincial environmental quality standards." (p.1)

According to Ministry of Environment a site can be counted as contaminated when it is not suitable for specific uses of land, water and sediment. Most of the time, a site became contaminated because of industrial or commercial activities as they use heavy metals such as lead, arsenic, cadmium, and mercury or organic chemicals, including benzene and toluene in gasoline. The ministry of environment (2006) also explains some other chemicals with their uses which cause a site to become contaminated.

Government of United Kingdom also defines contaminated sites in their website (https://www.gov.uk/contaminated-land/overview). It is claimed that a land can be contaminated by the chemicals like, heavy metals, such as arsenic, cadmium and lead oils and tars, chemical substances and preparations like solvents gases, asbestos, and radioactive substances. Contaminated sites may have been previously used as refinery, mine, factory, steel mill etc. Consequently, these sites have significant harm to people or protected species, and pollution of surface waters (such as lakes and rivers) or groundwater.

Depending on the exploration of the contaminated sites, it can be claimed that the issue is related to the natural environment but not to the physical environment. These types of sites would affect human health, natural environment and other living species. Therefore, their existence would decrease quality of living, rather than quality of place. Although quality of life is related and directly or indirectly has effect on the place quality, the two concept has different fields of study, scales and dimensions. Contaminated sites can be classified within environmental dimension in the quality of

life studies with its wider scale rather than local scale. So that, it is not appropriate to work on this issue within a place quality study.

Based on the discussions above, as long as place quality would be studied and measured at the local scale it is said that vacant and derelict land which are sometimes referred as brownfield areas would be studied and contaminated sites are not appropriate for this study. Apart from these, if the city is zoomed in, lost spaces would also be recognised. It is needed to understand what the lost space is and if it has any effect on the physical environment and place quality.

LOST SPACES

As Roger Trancik (1986) defines, “Lost space is leftover unstructured landscape at the base of high-rise towers or the unused sunken plaza away from the flow of pedestrian activity in the city.” According to the scholar, lost spaces can also be the abandoned waterfronts, train yards, vacated military sites, and industrial complexes that have moved out of the city for easy access and lower taxes. Trancik (1986) explains that there are five causes of the lost spaces such as;

1. “Increased dependence to the automobile
2. The attitude of architects of the Modern Movement toward open space
3. Zoning and land-use policies of the urban renewal period that divided the city
4. An unwillingness on the part of contemporary institutions to assume responsibility for the public urban environment
5. An abandoned of industrial, military, or transportation sites in the inner core of the city.” (p.4)

Briefly it is claimed that the problem of "lost space," or the defective use of space, affects most urban centers today. Consequences of the motorized transportation usage, the effects of the Modern Movement in architectural design, urban-renewal and zoning

policies, the dominance of private over public interests, and changes in land use in the inner city are emerged as losing the values and meanings which were traditionally related with urban open space. (Trancik, R., 1986)

Depending on the definition of lost space highlighted in previous lines, it can be said that derelict lands, vacant lands, and brownfield areas are all lost spaces. However, a land would be defined as derelict or vacant only when they are at least 0.1 hectares in size, and lost space could be even smaller than a vacant or derelict land. Thus, it would be necessary to evaluate lost space separately from derelict, vacant and brownfield areas.

As it can be seen from the discussions above, Yeang has only counted derelict land as a component of physical place quality, however vacant land is also a very similar concept that would affect physical place quality so that it should be included in this study. The concept of brownfield areas is another valuable subject which covers both vacant and derelict land therefore should have been studied within a physical place quality study. On the other hand, lost spaces are significant problem for the cities which would affect physical place quality. So that it can be another indicator under the derelict land component that should be studied deeply, while the contaminated sites are eliminated because of its wider scale and environmental dimension.

In this manner, indicators of the ‘levels of derelict land’ component would have indicators like, derelict land, vacant land, brownfield areas and lost spaces as shown in the table 10. Eventhough these four indicators seems like they are all lost spaces within a city, they are going to be handled separately, as long as each of them has different potentials and needs different interventions.

Table 10: Indicators of the levels of derelict land

Physical Place Quality (Yeang, 2006)	**Indicators**
Levels of Derelict Land	Derelict land
	Vacant Land
	Brownfield Areas
	Lost Spaces

2.4.2.3 Quality of Parks and Green Areas

The third component is quality of parks and green spaces. This component of physical place quality would be related to the recreation, which is determined by Mercer, and Wyckoff as it has been explained in the previous parts of this chapter. Apart from the recreation, green infrastructure can be an issue to be discussed within this component.

Although quality of parks and green areas is an issue, which can be counted as a public realm, it should have different strategies and policies. Considering how scholars like, Mercer and Wyckoff approach recreation, firstly it would be useful to define what the recreation is and how it would affect physical place quality. Secondly, since the effect of green areas to the physical place quality is a main concern, green infrastructure, which is defined as "a strategically planned network of high quality natural and semi-natural areas with other environmental features" (European Commission, 2013) needs to be looked at. Thus, recreation and green infrastructure are going to be explored in this part to find out the indicators of quality of parks and green areas.

RECREATION

As it is defined in the dictionaries, recreation is "refreshment of one's mind or body after work through activity that amuses or stimulates", in other words it is an activity that provides such refreshment. (http://www.thefreedictionary.com/recreation) Apart from the dictionary definition, Malta Environment and Planning Authority (MEPA,

2017) quoted that recreation is “the activities that people carry out in their leisure time, which may be active or passive, and take place inside or outside the home” (Youell R., 1996). So that the recreational areas are the places where those activities take place.

Figure 6: Laugardalur park and recreation area

MEPA (2017) has subdivided recreational facilities in five categories within their structural plan, such as *urban recreational areas, rural recreational areas, catering establishments, land-based sports and nautical sports, and coastal activity*. It is explained that (MEPA, 2017) each of these categories are examined from a strategic perspective and then continued by a detailed assessment for the need of future provision per recreational activity.

For the first category, urban recreational areas, which include public gardens, playing fields and open spaces, Malta has approximately 2.4 square meters per inhabitant, which is quite low, while the accepted standard is 4 square meters in Australia as it is claimed by The National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA). (Parks and Leisure, Austuralia, 2017)

The second category rural recreational areas refer to the areas that are located outside the boundaries but in close distance to the urban settlement. These activities can be hunting, trapping, walking, picnicking, cycling and horse riding.

Catering establishment, on the other hand, is permitted in the residential areas unless it does not cause any problem like noise, vibration, air pollution, traffic or unusual working hours, which would have negative impacts on the neighbourhood.

The other category- land-based sports, can be at national, regional or local level. At national level, activities can be athletics, horseracing, national swimming pool and etc., at local level they can be training football pitches, sports club, like table tennis and darts. It is said that sports complexes are ideal regional facilities, as they included variety of disciplines under one roof.

Another category of recreational activities is the nautical sports and coastal activities. This category is about water sport facilities such as sailing and diving. Although these types of activities take place at sea, some of the related facilities like training premises, clubs, storage, club offices and yacht marinas need land-based amenities. In this case, Malta has relevant policies for ruling out built development along the foreshore in their Structure Plan relating Coastal Zone Management.

The last category is cultural and entertainment attractions which includes nightclubs, theme/leisure parks, visitor attractions, theatres, cinemas, and/or Museums.

Recreational activities and their types are defined as active or passive, indoor or outdoor and group or solo. The defined types of recreation are; (https://plentifun.com/list-of-different-recreational-activities)

- "sporting like basketball, volleyball, cricket, baseball and etc.,
- recreation through adventure such as biking, skiing, bungee jumping and others,
- diversion through entertainment watching movies, singing, listening to music and dancing,
- recreation for amusement like partying, shopping, visiting parks, museums and visiting historical places,
- and club to recreate such as club, friends, company or organizations."

Each of these activities would be categorized as active or passive, indoor or outdoor and group or solo.

Depending on the discussion above, it can be said that there **are** many different types of recreational activity, but the main question is how do they affect place quality. It should be related to the reflection of the activity to the place and the recreation areas within the city.

GREEN INFRASTRUCTION

Amount of green areas would not be enough to increase a city's physical place quality as it may not guarantee place quality. Therefore, quality of green areas is one of the components of physical place quality. Therefore, the design, use or management of a green area would be crucial for the quality aspect. Accordingly, green infrastructure is an important concept to be studied profoundly.

> "Green Infrastructure can be broadly defined as a strategically planned network of high quality natural and semi-natural areas with other environmental features, which is designed and managed to deliver a wide range of ecosystem services and protect biodiversity in both rural and urban settings." (European Commission, 2013)

In the European Environment Agency (EEA) technical report (2011) it is claimed that green infrastructure does not have a single recognized definition. The concept can be defined with different approaches of disciplines like design, conservation and planning. Additionally, scale can be different related to the approaches. According to EEA there are two different scales, such as urban scale and landscape scale (regional, national and transnational). Therefore, different disciplines would have different scale for green infrastructure. The two scales, urban and landscape, are compared in the EEA technical report in terms of their description, obstacles, benefits, common structures, key topics and etc. (Table 11)

Table 11: Comparison of green infrastructure at urban and landscape scales

Green infrastructure characteristics	**Urban scale**	**Landscape scale**
Short Description	• Development and protection of a network of multifunctional green space in urban environments	• Development and protection of connections between valuable habitats in wider landscape scale
Matrix/obstacles	• Urban built-up environment	• Intensively farmed land • Built-up areas • Grey infrastructure
Key associated benefits	• Urban heat island mitigation • Water run-off management • Water retention (flood prevention) • Recreation • Visual pleasure, sense of nature and open space • Wildlife habitats	• Species migration • Water retention (water recharge and flood prevention) — to a lesser extent
Most common structures	• Parks, tree-lined avenues, green roofs, agricultural land and woodland inside towns, etc.	• Habitats (In the EU, more specifically the Natura 2000 sites) and corridors • Rivers and streams, hedges, etc. • Overlap with term 'ecological network'
Examples of disciplines using the term	• Urban planning • Landscape architecture	• Species conservation • Spatial planning

	• Environmental management	• Environmental management
Key topic/policy links	• Quality of life in cities • Biodiversity protection • Climate change adaptation • Climate change mitigation	• Biodiversity protection • Climate change adaptation
Key documents using the term	• US EPA, 2007, Green infrastructure: statement of intent. • Landscape Institute, 2009, Green infrastructure: connected and multifunctional landscapes — position document. • The Chartered Institution of Water and Environmental Management, 2010, Multi-functional urban green infrastructure. • Also in the United Kingdom: Natural England and CABE; and the US: The Conservation Fund.	• EC, 2010, Green infrastructure factsheet. • EC, 2010, LIFE building up Europe's green infrastructure. • EC, 2009, Towards a green infrastructure for Europe: Integrating Natura 2000 into the wider countryside (25–26 March 2009) Workshop related materials. • European Environment Bureau, 2008, Building green infrastructure for Europe.
Key documents using the term in both senses	• EEAC, 2009, Biodiversity WG Briefing Paper: Green infrastructure and ecological connectivity. • Environment Council, 2010, Biodiversity: Post-2010 EU and global vision and targets and international ABS regime — Council conclusions.	

Focusing on the comparison of two scale of green infrastructure it can be said that a physical place quality study would include green infrastructure at urban scale since it is an issue of urban planning. For better understanding the scale issue, EEA technical report summarizes some examples with different approaches and scales. (Table 12)

Table 12: Example definitions of green infrastructure

	Definitions	**Characterization**		**Reference**
		Disciplines	**Key benefits**	
LANDSCAPE SCALE	An interconnected network of natural areas and other open spaces that conserves natural ecosystem values and functions, sustains clean air and water, and	Land conservation	Conservation	Benedict, M. and McMahon. E., 2006, Green infrastructure.

	provides a wide array of benefits to people and wildlife.			Linking Landscapes and Communities.
	Green infrastructure is an approach to land use, underpinned by the concept of ecosystem services. Green assets such as parks, coastlines or embankments have generally been thought of in terms of their single functions — the approach that recognizes their vast range of functions and their interconnectivity is called green infrastructure.	Landscape architecture	Multifunctional	Landscape Institute, 2009. Green Infrastructure Position Statement.
	Connections between Natura 2000 sites. Valuable green urban areas and man-made bridges to natural areas, ecological corridors and zones where habitats merge.	Species conservation	Species migration	European Commission (EC, 2011a).
	Green infrastructure maintains and improves ecological functions in combination with multifunctional land uses. Natural and 'man-made' structures or a territory devoid of permanent man-made structures that provide — directly or indirectly, partly or totally — through the vegetation it supports, a series of services to society.	Species conservation	Multifunctional	Marco Fritz, European Commission, Environment DG.
	Green infrastructure is a strategic approach to land conservation, a 'smart' conservation that addresses the ecological and social impacts of sprawl and the accelerated consumption and fragmentation of open land.	Land conservation	Conservation	The Conservation Fund's Green Infrastructure Leadership Program (Benedict and McMahon, 2002).
	Green infrastructure is an approach to wet weather management that uses soils and vegetation to utilize, enhance and/or mimic the natural hydrologic cycle processes of infiltration, evapotranspiration and reuse.	Surface water management	Water run-off control	US Environmental Protection Agency, 2008, Managing Wet Weather with Green Infrastructure. Action Strategy.

	Green infrastructure is the actions to build connectivity nature protection networks as well as the actions to incorporate multifunctional green spaces in urban environment.	Species conservation	Nature protection	EEAC, 2009, Green Infrastructure and Ecological Connectivity.
	Green infrastructure is a concept that is principally structured by a hybrid hydrological/drainage network, complementing and linking relict green areas with built infrastructure that provides ecological functions. It is the principles of landscape ecology applied to urban environments.	Urban design	Water run-off control	Ahern, J., 2007, Green infrastructure for cities: The spatial dimension.
	Green infrastructure is a strategically planned and delivered network of high-quality green spaces and other environmental features. It should be designed and managed as a multifunctional resource capable of delivering a wide range of environmental and quality-of-life benefits for local communities. Green infrastructure includes parks, open spaces, playing fields, woodlands, allotments and private gardens.	Land conservation	Recreation	Natural England (Natural England, 2010).

As it can be seen in the table above (table 12) green infrastructure at urban scale would provide recreation, water run off control and protection of nature. The examples at urban scale show that green infrastructure includes trees, parks, open spaces, gardens, playing fields, allotments, cemeteries, woodlands, green corridors, rivers, and wetlands. And the most crucial point is that these green areas which are the components of green infrastructure at urban scale are strategically planned and are linked with each other for creating a green network.

European Commission (2013) has summarized the benefits of green infrastructure in a more general approach such as;

- Providing better living qualities and well-being of people, for example supplying a high-quality living space for living and working.
- Improving biodiversity, for example by providing reconnection of passive natural spaces and increasing mobility within the wildlife.
- Protecting people form the effects of climate change and other possible environmental disasters, such as carbon storage, floods, or soil erosion.
- Encouraging people for integrating to the developments which would ensure that the limited spaces of Europe is used as efficiently as possible.

Depending on the discussions on the recreation and green infrastructure, it can be claimed that both of the concepts would have a crucial role on the improvement of physical place quality of a city. In that case, these concepts can be the indicators of quality of parks and green areas.

Table 13: Indicators of quality of parks and green areas

Physical Place Quality (Yeang, 2006)	**Indicators**
Quality of Parks and Green Areas	Recreational areas
	Green infrastructure

2.4.2.4 Public Realm Quality

The last component of the physical place quality is public realm quality. First of all, it is needed to understand what the public realm is. Arc team, who are the architecture and built environment centre for Hull and the Humber region and are part of a national

network of architecture centres across the UK, explains public realm as “any publicly owned streets, pathways, right of ways, parks, publicly accessible open spaces and any public and civic building and facilities.” (What is public realm, 2017)

It is also highlighted in Loughborough Town Centre Masterplan that “The ‘public realm’ – the spaces around and between buildings including streets, squares and parks – has a major part to play in the character, attractiveness and success of any town.” (Charnwood Borough Council, 2007) The public realm also includes social interaction which is another crucial role in a city.

World Green Building Council explains in their Research Note: Quality of the Public Realm that “Public realm has positive impacts on health, wellbeing and productivity outcomes through recreational benefits and public enjoyment of space, if space is well managed.” So that providing well designed public spaces would not only contribute to the attractiveness and character of a city but also to the health, wellbeing and productivity of the users.

The Arc team claims that “the quality of our public realm is vital if we are to be successful in creating environments that people want to live and work in.” In fact, they are dealing with the possible physical elements of a public realm such as abstract sculpture, lighting, glazing seating, hard and soft landscape design and etc. But more important than these, public realm should provide personal freedom to all people, older, younger or disable people. This issue is also highlighted by the ‘Project for Public Spaces’ as “A great public space cannot be measured by its physical attributes alone; it must also serve people as a vital community resource in which function always trumps form.” If it is aimed to accomplish at Placemaking in action, people

from all ages, abilities and socio-economic backgrounds should be able to access and enjoy the place, and also able to be a part of identity, creation and maintenance of that place. (Project for Public Spaces, 2009)

Some of the councils in United Kingdom has public realm design guide which includes principles for quality public realm. For example, Hackney London Borough council (2012) defines five public realm principles "for achieving a high quality, robust public realm in Hackney". The principles are, accessible, enclosing, providing a set of facilities, reflecting local characteristics, ensuring vital, secure and safe streets for people (not only for vehicles), and sustainable in terms of environment and economic.

Another example is Rochdale Metropolitan Borough Council which also defines public realm principles. The council states that "Good streets and spaces are created not just by a single thing, but by the way buildings, landscape and street come together" (Rochdale Metropolitan Borough Council, 2007) and they list the principles as:

1. Character; good streets and spaces have a distinctive character and create a 'sense of place' that makes us feel that we are somewhere with its own character.
2. Safety and Inclusion; good streets and spaces are safe and accessible.
3. Diversity; A range of different uses along a street or surrounding a space can give it liveliness and vitality.
4. Ease of Movement; good streets and spaces allow people to move around easily.
5. Legibility; good streets and spaces help people to understand where they are in the town or village.

6. Adaptability; good streets and spaces are able to accommodate changes in the ways in which we live, work, travel and play – a quality called adaptability.
7. Sustainability; Adaptability is one quality that helps to make sustainable places, in addition to the environmental, economic and social aspects.

Apart from the council stated above, Northwest Regional Development Agency (NRDA) also published a guide for quality public realm in the Northwest, United Kingdom. In the guide it is quoted that "No longer should high quality public realm be considered a 'desirable' element of regeneration: it must be an essential ingredient." (Jim Gibson, Partner, Gillespies LLP, 2007) Eight comprehensive principles have been listed in the guide such as;

1. Animation
    a. Diversity; "space for everyone"
    b. Adaptability; "here today, gone tomorrow"
    c. Flexibility; "temporary, seasonal or time specific activities"
    d. Active Edges; "think outside of the space"
2. Sustainability
    a. Biodiversity; "valuable habitat for wildlife & people"
    b. Environmental Soundness; "think green"
3. Durability
    a. Strategic Fit; "should fit into national, regional and local strategies"
    b. Lifecycle; "the life span of the space"
    c. Economics; "long-term management and maintenance"
    d. Maintenance; "future secured"
4. Movement

a. Legibility; “signage, gateways and landmarks”

b. Movement Management; “put people first”

c. Access for all; “sharing the public realm”

5. Image

a. Branding; “more here and less anywhere”

b. Design Excellence & Innovation; “investing in quality design &materials”

c. The ‘Wow’ Factor; “everything that makes a place memorable and pleasurable”

6. Sense of Place

a. Local Distinctiveness; “understanding the place”

b. Experiential; “a sensory narrative”

7. People Places

a. Secure by Design; “is it safe?”

b. Inclusivity; “design for everyone”

c. Engagement; “it’s our space”

8. Management

a. Buy-In; “one vision”

b. Project Champion; “follow the leader”

c. Confidence; “maintaining quality”

Working on the principles determined by the Councils and NRDA, it can be said that all the approaches are more or less the same. The guide prepared by NRDA is more comprehensive and detailed compared to the principles described by the Councils. Accordingly, it can be helpful to compare and match the principles of all approaches to achieve the most appropriate indicators of the public realm quality. Additionally, it

would be beneficial to evaluate each principle from dimensions of livability perspective to be able to find out which principle is related to physical place quality.

Table 14: Comparing and matching the public realm principles

Principles for Public Realm Quality	By Northwest Regional Development Agency (Nrda)	By Rochdale Metropolitan Borough Council	By Hackney London Borough Council	Dimensions of Livability
Animation	▪ Diversity ▪ Adaptability ▪ Flexibility ▪ Active Edges	▪ Diversity ▪ Adaptability		Physical Place Quality
Sustainability	▪ Biodiversity ▪ Environmental Soundness	▪ Sustainability	▪ Environmentally sustainable	Environmental Quality
Durability	▪ Strategic Fit ▪ Lifecycle ▪ Economics ▪ Maintenance	▪ Sustainability	▪ Economically sustainable	-
Movement	▪ Legibility ▪ Movement Management ▪ Access for all	▪ Legibility ▪ Ease of movement	▪ Fully accessible ▪ Streets	Functional Place quality
Image	▪ Branding ▪ Design Excellence & Innovation ▪ The 'Wow' Factor			Physical Place Quality
Sense Of Place	▪ Local Distinctiveness ▪ Experiential	▪ Character	▪ Local Distinctiveness	Physical Place Quality
People Places	▪ Secure by design ▪ Inclusivity ▪ Engagement	▪ Safety and Inclusion	▪ Sense of safety and security	Safer Places
Management	▪ Buy-in ▪ Project Champion ▪ Confidence			-

As it can be seen from the comparison table above (Table 14), the principles described by NRDA is more comprehensive than the principles of councils. However, there are some missing points which can be added to the NRDA's principles to reach the most appropriate and comprehensive indicators of quality public realm. Thus, it would be

necessary to combine these principles. Starting with the 'animation' principle, the Rochdale Metropolitan Borough Council suggested diversity and adaptability principles, which matches with NRDA's approach. But the diversity described by Rochdale Council is only about the uses in the public realm while the NRDA's diversity is about both users' diversity that is different ages, abilities, and cultures, and uses diversity from private which are meeting, waiting, sitting, and watching to the communal such as markets, performances, and events. Furthermore, for the adaptability quality both institutions are mentioning the same thing; "good streets and spaces are able to accommodate changes in the ways in which we live, work, travel and play". Adaptability and diversity indicators are both including physical reflections on place; therefore, it can be said that they are within the physical place quality dimension of livability.

Sustainability principle is handled only from environmental perspective by NRDA, while Councils take it from environmental, social and economic perspectives. This is due to the fact that NRDA deals with economic and social sustainability within other principles. In this context, this principle may call for environmental sustainability and it should be evaluated within environmental quality dimension of livability. Durability, for example, is a principle which deals with economic sustainability beside the strategies and maintenance of a public realm. Therefore, this principle would not match with any livability dimension.

Councils and NRDA approach the movement issue from similar dimensions; accessibility and legibility. A public place should be easily accessible for all. This principle is a subject of functional place quality. Image principle, on the other hand, is only studied by NRDA. It is about branding, designing and increasing the attraction of

a public place. Furthermore, Councils and NRDA have same opinion on the sense of place issue. They claim that the principle of sense of place is about local distinctiveness of a place. Only NRDA clarifies 'experiential' issue within sense of place principle which can be combined with local distinctiveness since it is about encouraging distinctive uses. In this context, it can be said that both image and sense of place are subjects of physical place quality.

For both Councils and NRDA, the principle of people places is about safety, security and inclusivity. In addition, NRDA highlights issue of engagement for public realm quality. Accordingly, it is obvious that principle of people places is related with safer places, which is a dimension of liveability. Finally, management principle is only handled by NRDA. This principle includes partnerships, collaborative working, coordinated decision making, projects management and maintaining quality. However, management is not an issue to be studied within liveability dimensions.

Depending on the discussions above, three approaches on the principles for quality public places by Rochdale Metropolitan Borough Council, Hackney London Borough Council and Northwest Regional Development Agency, can be combined and compared with liveability dimensions to determine the most appropriate and comprehensive indicators of public realm quality through physical place quality perspective as it is shown in the table 15.

Table 15: Indicators of public realm quality

Physical Place Quality (Yeang, 2006)	**Indicators**
Public Realm Quality	**Animation** Diversity, Adaptability, Flexibility and Active Edges

	Image Branding, Design Excellence & Innovation and the 'Wow' Factor
	Sense of Place Local Distinctiveness

As a result of discussions throughout the literature review and several related example explorations, the most appropriate indicators for attributes of physical place quality has been suggested as shown in the table 16. These indicators are going to be studied and improved in Chapter 4, with the aim of determining evaluation criteria for each indicator that will be utilized for assessing physical place quality of cities.

Table 16: Indicators of physical place quality atrributes

Physical Place Quality (Yeang, 2006)	**Indicators**
Built Environment	Density and Intensity
	Land-use Mix
	Multiple Housing Options
	Street Scale
	Aesthetic Qualities
	Preservation of Historic Structures
Levels of Derelict Land	Derelict land
	Vacant Land
	Brownfield Areas
	Lost Spaces
Quality of Parks and Green Areas	Recreational areas
	Green infrastructure
Public Realm Quality	**Animation** Diversity, Adaptability, Flexibility and Active Edges
	Image Branding, Design Excellence & Innovation and The 'Wow' Factor
	Sense of Place Local Distinctiveness

Chapter 3

PHYSICAL PLACE QUALITY AS PUBLIC POLICIES WITHIN URBAN PLANNING SYSTEM

3.1 Introduction

As a common statement, public policies are a set of government actions that would affect people's life. Different scholars have studied public policies from design point of view. Jonathan Barrnett is the first scholar who called the urban design as public policy in 1974. Then in 1999, Baykan Günay highlighted the issue with the following statement: "Urban design is and must be a public policy" (p. 9). The studies have been followed by John Punter (2007), who worked on the benefits of integrating urban design as public policies within urban planning systems. In line with the studies from the design point of view, integration of physical place quality attributes with urban planning systems as public policies has been the focus of this thesis.

The benefits of urban design as public policies for planning systems explained by Punter, will be clarified in this chapter. With a similar manner, physical place quality as public policies will be studied. However, to be able to clarify the issues, first, planning systems should be understood.

There are different planning systems and approaches in the world, and each of them include different stages and enforcement. These systems should be understood well,

to be able to solve the relation between urban planning, urban design and physical place quality and public policies.

Consequently, implementation alternatives for urban planning decisions will be searched. Any decision or strategy about development, land use or growth management would be implemented through planning policies which are set within urban planning system. Especially within British Planning System, the local authorities are utilizing planning policies for controlling the development of land and buildings in an area. In other words, planning policies are helping local authorities for determining planning applications.

Planning tools/instruments on the other hand, also play an important role in implementation of planning decisions (York County Planning Commission, 2008). Public policies are also an alternative for the implementation of the planning decisions, since they can be written for any action of the government like education, health, environmental protection, transportation, design principles or qualities.

The table 17 illustrates definitions and context of the three possible implementation alternatives for planning decisions. Planning policies are reflecting common development decisions. Planning tools are kind of regulations for land use control. Public policies, on the other hand, could have taken place either in development plan law or in regulations, which would have impacts on people's life.

Table 17: Definitions and context of implementation alternatives for physical place quality attributes

Implementation Alternatives for Physical Place Quality Attributes	Definitions & Context

Planning policies	Help planners to decide where and when development takes place. They are generated for the general concerns, and not much detailed
Planning tools	The regulations providing implementation of planning decisions for land use controls and manage growth. They are defined within development plan law, with narrow context
Public policies	"Stated most simply, public policy is the sum of government activities, whether acting directly or through agents, as it has an influence on the life of citizens." They are defined either in development plan law or in the relevant regulations.

The definitions in table 17 helps to understand why scholars utilized public policies for implementing urban design principles. Public policies differ from other implementation alternatives as they have influence on the life of citizens while others are for general concerns and land use control. When investigating urban development plans, it can be seen that planning policies and planning tools for design principles and qualities do sometimes exist; however, they are not reflected in urban places. There is still need for public policies for implementation of design principles.

Other than being an implementation alternative, public policies are utilized as a tool for integrating urban design into urban planning. As Punter (2007) claims, urban design principles are integrated in to the urban plans through public policies, in a same manner quality of place could take place in urban plans as public policies. (Punter, J., 2007).

In this context, there is need for focusing on public policies and exploring the issue through examples around the world. Before exploring public policies, it would be beneficial to understand different planning approaches and systems. Then, working on

the relations between planning and physical place quality, and public policies in most liveable cities will enlighten the issue of physical place quality as public policies.

3.2 Planning Families and Systems

Depending on the law systems, and politic, economic and cultural structures of countries, planning systems are shaped in two different approaches; flexible (project-based) and strict (plan-based). Alternatively, as Punter (2007) refers, these two planning systems are regulatory (strict) and discretionary (flexible). Regulatory system is based on administrative law and written constitution, and is utilized in most of Western Europe and in North America. Discretionary system, on the other hand, is based on case law, used in Britain and Ireland. (Punter, J., 2007, p.167-168)

Planning discipline had faced several problems in both approaches (Türk ve Özkan, 2012, s. 71-72). Urban plans prepared with regulatory planning approach, is sometimes insufficient for meeting the needs of cities, which are in changing, transforming and have dynamic structures. Discretionary planning on the other hand, is insufficient at the implementation of planning decisions, because they are not legally binding. Those basis problems lead to a significant decrease in quality of life and place. In this context, the need for renewing the both planning approaches caused planners to search for solutions of the problems.

While planning had to include flexibility for providing multi-dimensional and non-linear decision-making process, it should not be too much flexible in order to be able to prevent losing control power of government on implementation of planning decisions and also to prevent increasing impact of private sector on urban development.

For a better understand of planning in different countries, it is needed to investigate planning systems. Literature review reveals that there are many different studies on planning systems and approaches. Stead and Nadin (2012, s.39) produced a table which compares and discuss four types of studies. The table mainly shows how planning approaches change in time. First, Davied et all. (1989) handled the planning control in two broad categories: common law and Napoleonic codes. Second study has been conducted by Newman and Thornley in 1996. This study is much more comprehensively highlighting the issue through five planning families diversified from two different planning systems. These families are British, Napoleonic, Germanic, Scandinavian and East European (Newman ve Thornley, 1996, s. 27-71).

Third study is EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems prepared in 1997 (Commission of the European Communities – CEC). In this study, the subject has been handled through four planning traditions, which are comprehensively integrated, land use regulation, regional economic and urbanism. Last study is ESPON- Governance of Territorial and Urban Policies from EU to Local Level project. In this project categorization of EU Compendium has been taken as basis and displacement of the countries within the categories has been worked (Farinós, 2007, s. 35-75).

Table 18: Four different studies on planning systems (Stead ve Nadin, 2012, s.39).

Davies vd. (1989)		Common law England		Napoleonic codes DK, DE, FR, NL		
Newman & Thornley (1996)	Nordic DK, FI, SE	British IE, UK	Germanic AT, DE	Napoleonic BE, FR, IT, LU, NL, PT, ES		East European
CEC (1997)	Comprehensive integrated; AT, DK, FI, DE, NL, SE	Land use regulation; IE, UK (and BE)		Regional economic FR, PT (and DE)	Urbanism GR, IT, ES (and PT)	

Farinós Dasí (2007)	Comprehensive integrated AT, DK, FI, NL, SE, DE (and BE, FR, IE, LU, UK) BG, EE, HU, LV, LT PL, RO, SL, SV	Land use regulation BE, IE, LU, UK (and PT, ES) CY, CZ, MT		Regional economic FR, DE, PT, (and IE, SE, UK) HU, LV, LT, SK	Urbanism GR, IT, ES CY, MT	

Among the studies on planning systems and approaches, the most comprehensive study is the book called "Urban Planning in Europe" written by Peter Newman and Andy Thornley (1996). In this context, it would be possible to understand, basis and details of planning systems and their stages, and how they work.

Difference in planning systems has emerged due to the fact that "urban planning takes place within a particular national framework." (Newman and Thornley, 1996, p.27) Thus, the legal systems of countries are influencing the planning systems.

British Family is evolved from 'English Common Law', which is a system of case law, generated through "decision by decision" (Newman and Thornley, 1996, p.30). It includes Britain and Ireland. In Britain, planning has been divided into three broad functions as; development control, development plans and central government supervision, by the comprehensive planning legislation. "Development control involves a local authority receiving applications for development and making a decision, taking into account the policy framework and detailed local circumstances." (Newman and Thornley, 1996, p.42) It is highlighted that, local authority can also prepare development plans, which is composed of land-use policies for the area. Newman and Thornley (1996, p.42) are mentioning another crucial characteristic of this system that "applicants have the right to appeal against a development control decision and the appeal is decided by central government." Sometimes central and

local government may have different opinions about the planning, in such situation while making their decision, “local planners will always be thinking about the implications of the applicant going to appeal and this can therefore influence their judgement.” This system has been criticized to be very flexible and involving too much interpretation.

Napoleonic Family is originated in France with legal approach of codification and it is the largest in Europe as it involves many countries such as, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Italy, Portugal, Belgium, Spain and Greece. The most distinctive feature of this family is that there is governmental hierarchy with a focus on planning (Newman and Thornley, 1996). For example, in French system there are four levels such as state, region, department and commune. State is responsible for producing national rules and guidelines. Together with state, region is responsible for preparing economic planning and coordinating transport, education and other public investments (Newman and Thornley, 1996, p.45). According to Newman and Thornley (1996, p.45-46) “the departments have no specific land-use planning powers but have a wide range of functions which impact on urban issues and planning decisions.” And the last level, commune is responsible for preparing a strict zoning plan which is known as the second level of plans-Plan d’Occupation des Sols (POS), after strategic plans-Schémas Directeurs. The systems within Napoleonic Family is mostly regulatory, however recently, most of the countries are seeking to introduce flexibility into either their plans or the implication process. (Newman and Thornley, 1996)

Germanic Family, which includes Germany, Austria and Switzerland, is regarded as a branch of Napoleonic family in some ways. Germanic family utilizes same legal approach with Napoleonic family, codification. The major difference of this family is

that there is no central power like it is in France and England. That would mean that there is no authority, however as it is highlighted by Newman and Thornley (1996, p.33) ancient Roman Law was dominating the whole system. In this context, it can be seen that there are two important features of Germanic approach, which are a strong legal framework and a decentralized decision-making structure (Newman and Thornley 1996, p.60).

The last system is Scandinavian Family including Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Finland. This family is obviously different from British family; however, it is very close to other two. The situation can be understood from Newman and Thornley's (1996, p.34) statement, "In medieval times the Nordic laws were based upon old Germanic law and these were then centralized and codified in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries." Again, there are levels in this system with interest in planning and decentralization in decision-making.

The distinctions between regulatory and discretionary planning systems are obvious when the systems of different countries are explored. Both systems have several problems as explained in previous lines. John Punter (2007) mentioned a significant point; the differences between two systems have become blurred at the design level through the invention of design review, which is an additional control process. Regulatory decisions are added to discretionary plans via urban design control, and oppositely, discretionary decisions are added to regulatory plans. Punter highlights the contributions of design control to both planning systems, and this would call to mind the potential contributions of physical place quality attributes to planning as well. In this context, it is important to work and understand the relation between urban planning, urban design and physical place quality.

3.3 Relation between Urban Planning, Urban Design and Physical Place Quality

To be able to understand the position of place quality in urban planning, disciplines of urban planning and urban design should be introduced together with their contexts and theoretical approaches. As it is highlighted by Nicolai Steino (2004), two disciplines, urban planning and design have both branched off from architecture. Urban planning has become independent for about a century. Looking into the urban planning history in early 19. Century, it will be seen that rapid urbanization due to the industrial revolution, causes cities and people to suffer from diseases, pollution, hunger, poverty and so on in the emerged working-class neighbourhoods. So that, those were the times urban planning discipline was born to find solutions to the problems (Ragon, M., 1998).

In time, problems are changing, and accordingly solutions and approaches are changing as well. As it is explained by Stenio (2004) urban design has only emerged from mid-1960's onwards. The reason for the emergence of urban design was a reaction to "the shift of focus within planning from the physical qualities of built space to land use, infrastructure and social issues." (Stenio, N., 2004) Since urban planning was only dealing with the land uses, infrastructure and other social issues, cities were losing their aesthetic qualities, identities and even liveability. Urban design discipline was going to deal with those issues to make cities better places to live in.

Aesthetic qualities may be the most important aspect for some scholars, although the value of those qualities is different for every scholar. Some of the scholars may perceive the quality of a city by focusing on capacity of a place to do specific kind of

business, while some others “may prioritize how a city meets their social, economic or cultural requirements to everyday life.” (Stenio, N., 2004) In this case, as Nicolai Stenio (2004) explains, many different theories of urban design have been studied such as, societal theories, formal theories, and environmental theories. Societal theories perceived city as an expression of society; the Contemporary City of Le Corbusier is an example for this theory. In contrast to the societal theories, formal theories were focusing on the city through aesthetic or conceptual paradigms of urban design. Camillio Sitte’s City Planning according to Artistic Principles (1965) is one of the examples of this theory. Environmental theories of urban design, on the other hand, are dealing with the environmental aspects, parallel with formal approaches to urban design. The main purpose of these theories of urban design was to find out how to create the best urban environment. (Stenio, N., 2004) According to Stenio, Leon Krier’s notion of urban quarters (1981) and the concept of New Urbanism (CNU, 1993) and Jacobs & Appleyard’s notion of liveable streets are the examples of this approach of urban design. Working through environmental approach of urban design, as quoted by Stenio (2004), Jacobs and Appleyard claims that liveability is a fundamental goal. To achieve this goal, they determined five physical characteristics such as liveable streets and neighbourhoods, minimum densities, functional integration and proximity, positive urban space, and human scale and variation (Stenio, N., 2004). As it is focused on chapter 2 these characteristics are all available within quality of place as dimension of liveability.

Urban design discipline is seen as “an art of making places for people, including the way places work and matters.” The main concern of the discipline is “the connections between people and places, movement and urban form, nature and the built fabric, and

the processes for ensuring successful villages, towns and cities." (Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment, 2000, p.8)

Furthermore, it is claimed that "Good design can help to create lively places with distinctive character; streets and public spaces that are safe, accessible, pleasant to use and human in scale; and places that inspire because of the imagination and sensitivity of their designers." (Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment, 2000, p.8)

From another point of view, relations between urban design and quality of place would be expressed as urban design qualities, like imageability, legibility, enclosure, human scale, transparency, linkage, complexity, and coherence. The urban design qualities include quality of place attributes and indicators. For example, as Ewing (2006) claims, imageability as an urban design quality is the quality of a place that makes it distinct, recognizable, and memorable. A place would have high imageability when specific physical elements and their arrangement capture attention, evoke feelings, and create a lasting impression. Looking from this perspective to the chapter 2, it can be seen that the relation between urban design and quality of place has been expressed within the attributes of physical place quality such as image, animation, street scale, land use mix, aesthetic qualities and so on.

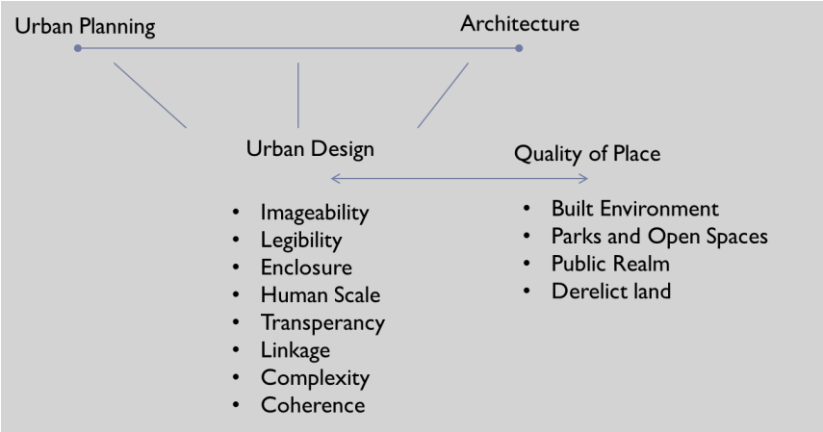

Figure 7: Relationship between urban design qualities and quality of place

Based on the explanations in previous lines, it can be claimed that directly or indirectly attributes of physical place quality should be integrated in urban planning. As John Punter (2007) explains urban design has been added to planning system as public policies which has been seen as a beneficial approach. And this approach would flash on how to integrate physical place quality attributes to the urban planning. However, first, it would be useful to review all alternatives for providing such integration and implementation of physical place quality attributes.

3.4 Planning Policies, Planning Tools and Public Policies for Implementing/Providing Physical Place Quality Indicators

As it has been explained in previous lines, planning decisions can be implemented in different ways such as through planning policies, planning tools and public policies. These implementation modes can be understood better by investigating different countries' planning systems and approaches. Depending on the governance model and planning system, countries produce their plans in different levels.

Studies on planning systems and approaches has been defined in previous lines, however it would be beneficial to work on these systems from implementation alternatives point of view.

Study called 'National spatial planning policies and governance typology' (Tosics, 2010), includes "formal structure and functioning of the government system and spatial planning in each of the 27 countries of European Union". Four approaches of spatial planning which were presented in EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policies (1997), have been taken as basis in this study. (Tosics, 2010, p.34). These four approaches are interpreted briefly as:

1. Regional economic planning approach (French model)

The approach known as French system considers social and economic objectives in terms of wealth, job opportunities and life standards all around the country. The main aim is to provide regional economic development by utilizing powers and funds.

2. Comprehensive integrated approach (German model)

German system is composed of hierarchical plans, form national to local levels. The aim of the system is coordinating public sector on spatial planning subjects rather than the economic development.

3. Land use management (British model)

British is system is totally different than others, focusing on the spaces themselves providing management through land use planning by utilizing zoning laws. Even the administration for planning is centralized, local authorities are responsible for most of the planning issues.

4. The ‘urbanism’ tradition (Mediterranean model)

The Mediterranean model is kind of a spatial plan, which focuses on the building regulations reflecting special characteristic for the Mediterranean countries at local level. Architecture and urban design disciplines have a significant role for this model. For providing such a system, rigid zonings and codes are utilized.

Exploring each type of planning system/model, it can be seen that planning policies, planning instruments and public policies may be included in different levels of authority. In order to illustrate that, a matrix table has been prepared by randomly selecting a country from each model of planning system. (Table 19) For the French Model, France, for the German Model, Germany, for the British Model, United Kingdom and for the Mediterranean Model, Italy has been taken as example. Within these planning models, the potential places of implementation alternatives have been shown in the table 19.

Table 19: Matrix of planning models versus implementation alternatives (Tosics, 2010)

Potential Places of Implementation Alternatives within Planning Models		**PLANNING MODELS**			
		French Model: France	**German Model: Germany**	**British Model: UK**	**Mediterranean Model: Italy**
ALTERNATIVES FOR IMPLEMENTATION	**Planning Policies**	**National level** *i. National Economic and Social Development Plan* The plan sets the strategic choices and objectives and defines the means by which these can be implemented. The regions are involved in their formulation. *ii. National infrastructure schemes* In accordance with the National Guidance Act on Domestic Transport, the State establishes with local authorities national infrastructure schemes. The purpose is to ensure the long-term coherence of transport networks and to fix priorities relating to their modernisation, adaptation and extension. *iii. National Roads Scheme* It is the third Scheme to be established on the basis of the National Guidance Act on Domestic Transport after these of 1986 and 1988. It is in the form of a map which shows intended links, accompanied by a file sting out the objectives of the national infrastructure schemes, the list of the links to be created, the retained development proposal and indications on the immediate profitability of those links which are prescribed by the National Roads Scheme for the benefit of the local authority concerned. iv. Map of higher education and research facilities. State services for higher education should contribute to the realisation of planning and development objectives 'through the location and development in the regions of senior scientific teams'.	**Federal/national (*Bund*) policy instruments** *i. The spatial planning policy instruments at this level comprise the following:* a. Federal spatial planning act (ROG) It is the federal 'framework' legislation for supra-local spatial planning in Germany, which is carried out by the *Länder*. *The ROG defines (i) the broad aims and guiding principles of spatial planning and (ii) the organizational rules and procedures for the carrying out the spatial planning by the Länder.* b. Guidelines and operational framework for spatial planning Provide a general outline for spatial development in Germany, based on the principles contained in the ROG, and are addressed to decision-makers at the *Bund*, *Länder and Gemeinde levels.* c. Federal spatial planning report It is a statutory requirement of the ROG and it is published at regular intervals (usually every four years) by the BMVBSBau (Federal Ministry of Transport, Building and Urban Affairs). d. Sector plans and sector acts They are prepared by the *Bundesministerien* and adopted by the *Bundestag*, in accordance with their responsibilities under the constitution. e. Federal building code (BauGB) and associated ordinances It is the most important act in relation to local land use planning. It combines the former federal building act 1960 and the promotion of urban development act 1971. The main contents include: the regulations covering the contents and procedures for the preparation of the local land use plans and the rules for the assessment of whether a development proposal is permissible or not.	**Regional level** *i. Regional Spatial Strategies in England, including London* They are short documents which contain no detailed maps and set out a broad strategy. Taking account of national guidelines where appropriate. The regional guidelines look ahead for a period of about 20 years and 'cover priorities for the environment, transport, infrastructure, economic development, agriculture, minerals, waste treatment and disposal'. *ii. Metropolitan areas: a range of initiatives* In the metropolitan areas outside London, the previous system of strategic guidance has been shifted to a range of initiatives. In some cases (such as Greater Manchester) the cityregion concept has been re-invented, as a non-formal spatial strategy, or as a formal 'Multi-Area Agreement' under the LDF system. The Regional Spatial Strategies also find that it is more effective to divide into 'sub-regional' units of 1-3 million population.	**Regional level** i. *Piano Territoriale di Coordinamento (PTCR- it is not the right term (for me) –in many Regions it is called "Territorial Regional Plan"or "Strategic regional Plan"* It contains prescriptions and indications on land-use effective in relation to lower tier authorities (*province*, *comuni*) and planning instruments (province structure pan, PRG). This plan is prepared and approved by the *regione*. The plan may cover all or part of the regional territory. *ii. Piano Territoriale Paesistico (PTP)* This landscape plan contains indications, rescriptions and restrictions relating to protection and exploitation of the landscape, and is effective in relation to lower tier authorities and their planning instruments as well as the private sector. The plan is prepared by the *regione*, or by the *provincial* on its behalf. The plan may cover the whole territory of the *regione* or part of it.
	Planning Tools/ Instruments	**Regional level** *i. Regional plan* It determines the medium-term objectives of the economic, social and cultural development f the region for the length of the application of the plan. It defines the development policies of productive activities be seeking a greater coherence of the regional economic pattern and by mobilising small and medium-size enterprises and the plans of major public and private companies.	**State/Regional (*Länder*) level** *i. State development plan or programme* It includes comprehensive, State-wide, spatial planning objectives and also functions as documents for the coordination of all policies and decisions with a spatial impact in the *Land*. *ii. Regional plan*	**Local and county level** The Local Development Framework is the local planning policy instrument through the UK. This is the primary source of policy when decisions are made on development proposals. The development plan may comprise a number of different documents depending on progress in preparing plans.	**Local level** i. *Piano Territoriale di Coordinamento Provinciale (PTCP)* It contains prescriptions and indications on land-use which local authorities and public administrations must conform to in the exercise of their respective competences. The plan is prepared and adopted by the *provincia*. The procedures for its approval are established by regional law. The

		ii. State-region plan convention Between the State and the region, is in principle designed to be an implementation tool of the national plan, has effectively become an instrument of joint and negotiated planning. *iii. Principal sectoral planning instruments produced by the regions* The regions also produce sectoral planning instruments of which the following are of particular interest: a. Regional Transport Plan, b. Provisional Structure Plan on the location of secondary school and vocational training facilities, c. Regional Plan on vocational training facilities of young people. *iv. Principal sectoral planning instruments produced by the departments* The departments produce sectoral planning of which the following are worth noting: a. Sectoral planning scheme on infrastructure provision, b. Departmental Transport Plan, c. Aid Programme on Infrastructure Provision in Rural Areas. *v. Sectoral planning documents drawn or approved by the prefect.* Key sectoral planning documents drawn and approved by the Prefect includes: a. Plan setting out those areas exposed to potentially high noise levels in the vicinity of airports, b. Departmental quarries scheme, c. Sectoral Scheme on the development and management of water resources, d. Plan on the disposal of household and industrial waste. *vi. Physical planning instruments of regional significance.* Physical planning instruments with a regional coverage and a statutory nature only exist in the following regions: lle-de-France, Corsica and Overseas Departments. vii. Coastal Planning Scheme It is a document which can be used in coastal areas for the protection, the management and the development of the coastline. *viii. Directive on the conservation and enhancement of natural landscapes* Such directives can be imposed by the State in relation to outstanding areas given the beauty of their landscapes and which are defined as such in consultation with the local authorities.	It is a supra-local plan which groups all sectors of spatial planning together for a single region. *iii. Spatial planning procedure* It is an internal coordination procedure for public authority. It serves as an instrument to examine large-scale public and private development proposals.	*i. Structure plans* They provide firm and legally robust strategic guidance for the whole of the area of a county council. They have a 15-year horizon but longer for some policies such as green belt. They have been prepared for the whole of the rural 'county' areas, and many subsequent alterations and replacement plans have been prepared. They set out the strategic framework for local planning, ensure general provision for development is consistent with national and regional policy, and secure consistency between local plans. The structure plan is not a 'plan' but a written statement with reasoning and key diagram which shows only the general distribution of new development as areas to be prepared in a diagrammatic form. *ii. Local plans (1991 act style)* All non-metropolitan district councils in England and Wales now have an obligation to prepare one district-wide local development framework. Authority-wide local plans have a 10-year horizon, or longer for conservation, land protection policies and long-term phased development. The plan must be in general conformity with the structure plan and national and regional guidance. It is the primary consideration in the control of development. Local plans set out detailed policies and proposals allocating for specific purposes, together with general policies which are used to guide development control. They include proposal maps on an ordnance survey base at a scale generally between 1:500 and 1:10.000. *iii. Unitary development plans (UDPs): up to 2004* Each metropolitan district council must prepare a UDP. These plans will replace previous structure and local plans, and bring aspect of both into one plan. They will provide firm guidance and be the primary consideration in regulation of development. They have a general horizon of 10 years but will look further ahead for some policies such as green belt. A UPD is made up of two parts: Part 1 is a framework of general policies and proposals and Part 2 contains detailed policies and proposals with a proposal maps. *iv. Waste plans* They have the same characteristics as local plans expect that the proposals are limited to land use policies ad proposals on the treatment and disposal of waste.	plan covers all the territory of the *provincial*. There are no time limits. ii. *Piano Regolatore Generale (PRG)* It provides indications for land-use at the general level, defining land-use for the area of the *commune*. Usually, it requires an executive plan for implementation. However, PRGs often provide for the possibility of direct implementation by owners through building permits (e.g. for agricultural zones, for completion of building zones, etc). The PRG is prepared on the instructions of the *giunta comunale*, adopted by the *commune* council and approved by the *regione*, or by the *provincial* acting on its behalf. The zoning plan must cover the whole territory of the *commune*. Many Regions (Emilia Romangna, Lombardia, Basilicata, etc) have adopted owns special regulations that introduce a new Municipal Plan, divided into two main components (called plans): - a *Strategic Plan*- managing the most important structural land use (geomorphologic, water resourses, vegetation, cultural heritage, protected areas, main infrastructures) - an *Operative Plan* (also called Major Plan)- strictly linked to the administrative committee/council development activity during five-year mandate. This new Municipal Plan was an afford to better managing land use increasing cost, trying to influencing high cost of urban transformation activity, introducing a new land use managing instrument called *perequazione*. iii. *Piano di lottizzazione (PDL)* This is based on an imitative by private owners. iv. *Piano per l'Edilizia Economica e Popolare (PEEP)* This is prepared to implement policies for social housing through the finding and making available to the builders (firms, cooperatives, local or national housing authorities, etc) of areas where low-cost building is possible by means of either low-cost loans or capital grants. Implementation and managing of this plans were very difficult in these last 15 years, because of the less financial support to popular building policy and mostly for the expensive land cost (lack of a new national regulation about land use management (see the new regional regulations on municipal land use plans). v. *Piano per gli Insediamenti Produttivi (PIP)* This is conceived to implement policies for the development of industry, crafts and services, specifically by the finding and making available to businesses of low cost sites with facilities. vi. *Piano di Recupero (PDRE)*

				v. Mineral plans They have the same characteristics as local plans expect that the proposals are limited to land use policies and proposals related to minerals exploitation, environmental protection at sites, restoration of sites and disposal of mineral waste. They must be prepared by each minerals authority in the non-metropolitan areas of England ad in Wales, which is the county council or national park. *vi. National Parks cover 9 areas of the highest quality landscapes in England and Wales.* The 'National Park Committees' are delegated with planning powers, including making of spatial plans which are similar to the county structure plans, and legal powers of development control and enforcement.	This is prepared to recover and reuse decayed areas of town centres and of existing built – up areas in general.
	Public Policies	**Local level** *i. Framework plan (Schéma directeur)* It is a forward land-use planning document. It provides the principal planning and development guidelines for an area taking account of the necessary balance of objectives. It prescribes the general land-use of areas and in particular the nature and the location of major infrastructure works. It consists of a report and graphic documents, whose scale is generally between 1/10.000 and 1/25.000. *ii. Area plan* The *schéma directeur* can be supplemented by area plans. iii. Local land-use plan (PLU, *plan locaux d'urbanisme*) iv. Urban planning documents serving as a POS Two urban planning documents may be used instead of a POS: the area development plan (*plan d' aménagement de zone-PAZ)* in the context of a planning and development zone (*Zones d' aménagement concrete*-ZAC), and the detailed local plan specifying conservation policies (*plan de sauveguarde et de mise en valeur-PSMV*). v. Local regulation for the application of the national urban planning rules Aside from the areas covered by a POS or a document used instead, building rights outside of urbanised areas are strictly limited and subject to the provisions of Chapter I of Book No.1 of the *code de l'urbanisme* or on regulations based on these provisions. These represent the general rules of urban planning which are issued by decree under consultation of the *Conseil d' Etat* and codified under Articles R.111-1 to 27 of the *code de l'urbanisme*. *vi. Local housing programme* Defines the objectives and the principles of a policy intended to answer housing needs and to ensure between *communes* and the areas of a *commune* a balanced and diversified distribution of housing supply. *vii. Urban Transport plan* Defines the general principles surrounding the organisation of transport, traffic flows and parking within the urban transportation perimeter. *viii. Intercommunal Charter on Panning and Development* Define the medium-term perspectives for their economic, social and cultural development, determine the corresponding action programmes and specify the conditions surrounding the organisation and the management of infrastructure provision and facilities as well as public services.	**Municipal / Local level** *i. the preparatory land use plan (F-plan)* Includes County-free town or Communal planning association and must be prepared for the entire administrative area of the *Gemeinde*. *ii. the binding land use plan (B-plan)* It forms the second level of the local land use plan hierarchy and provides the basis for the detailed and legally binding control of building development. It can be applied to virgin land to open it up for first-time development, or equally it can be prepared to cover areas already developed or to be redeveloped, where this is considered to be necessary in the interest of planned urban development. It must be developed out of the F-plan and are generally not prepared for the whole area of a *Gemeinde*, but only for specific small areas where building development is to take place.		**National level** i. *Programmi di Riqualificazione Urbana (PRU)* It is the latest-generation instrument (1992) and is strictly linked to the granting of State public funding activated with procedures of competition among *comuni*, and assigned by the Ministry of Public Works. It applies to those areas, within the larger *comuni* or those *comuni* hit by the effects of metropolitan growth or industrial development/crisis, that have already been developed and are now in a state of decay. The objectives are: a. To renew urban areas characterised by structural, urbanistic or environmental decay and that are strictly residential, b. activate private resources, with public resources being assigned the guiding role, and c. intervene with an operational style, thereby eliminating the downtime that ordinarily results between the planning of a project and its realisation, generally at the expense of urban quality.

In each planning models there are authority levels such as national or federal, state or regional, and local or municipal. At each of those levels, planning responsibilities are defined and explained how they are implemented. In this respect, the matrix illustrates which implementation alternatives are included in each level of planning responsibility. Depending on that illustration, it can be claimed that every planning model or system would include planning policies, planning instruments or tools and related public policies. Therefore, it would be worth to define and understand the context and benefits of each alternative.

3.4.1 Planning Policies

As it has been described before, "Planning Policy is concerned with preparing and implementing plans that help us decide where and when development takes place" (Eastbourne Borough Council, 2017). Besides, Borough Council of Wellingborough (2017) defines planning policy as a "method by which the development of land and buildings is planned for, managed and controlled." The council explains that planning policy is a kind of guideline "which are designed to guide future development in the borough, including how much development there should be and where it should go, and to aid the determination of planning applications." Depending on the definitions, it can be claimed that planning policies are strategic decisions rather than place specific decisions. This claim is also supported by table 19 which illustrates the planning policies are found within the federal, national or regional levels of authorities responsible from making plans for all types of planning systems.

According to New Forest District Council (2017) planning policies are set of decisions on planning applications which indicates what development would be happened, where and how much. They claim that "some planning policies are set at national level by the Government". For example, national planning policies for England has been set

in National Planning Policy Framework in March 2012. The framework is composed of thirteen main subjects, which are;

- Building a strong, competitive economy
- Ensuring the vitality of town centres
- Supporting a prosperous rural economy
- Promoting sustainable transport
- Supporting high quality communications infrastructure
- Delivering a wide choice of high quality homes
- Requiring good design
- Promoting healthy communities
- Protecting Green Belt land
- Meeting the challenge of climate change, flooding and coastal change
- Conserving and enhancing the natural environment
- Conserving and enhancing the historic environment
- Facilitating the sustainable use of minerals.

As it can be understood from the titles framework does not include specific policies, and it acts like a guideline for the local plans. Local plans also would contain planning policies for major infrastructure and strategic decisions and more detailed policies including identifying specific sites for new development. (New Forest District Council, 2017)

3.4.2 Planning Tools/Instruments

Planning tools are the regulations providing implementation of planning decisions for land use controls and manage growth (York County Planning Commission, 2008). In other words, planning tools provide solutions for plan decisions to how to implement them. Thus, in some resources they are called implementation tools (Loveland,

Colorado 2005 Comprehensive Plan) or planning implementation tools (Centre for Land Use Education, 2005). Depending on these definitions, it can be claimed that planning tools are acting like bridge between urban development plans/master plans and their implementation.

Figure 8: Planning tools between urban development plans and implementation process

Every country has different governance, so that they have different planning models as it has been indicated in table 19. Whichever planning system is utilized, planning tools play an important role in the implementation part. In fact, without planning tools most of the planning decisions cannot be implemented.

Although different planning systems are available for different countries many planning tools are serving for solving same problems. So that most of the countries with different planning systems are utilizing the same planning tools. As it is described in the Loveland, Colorado 2005 Comprehensive Plan, “The City relies on a few traditional programs, such as the zoning ordinance and subdivision regulations, as well as some non-traditional approaches such as conservation easements.” (Appendix A: Guide to Implementation Tools) The word “programs” in the guide mean implementation tools. In this guide of Loveland, Colorado 2005 Comprehensive Plan, implementation tools have been organized under three title, which are public sector implementation measures, public investment programs and private-sector plan implementation programs. The tools of each section are as shown in the figure 9.

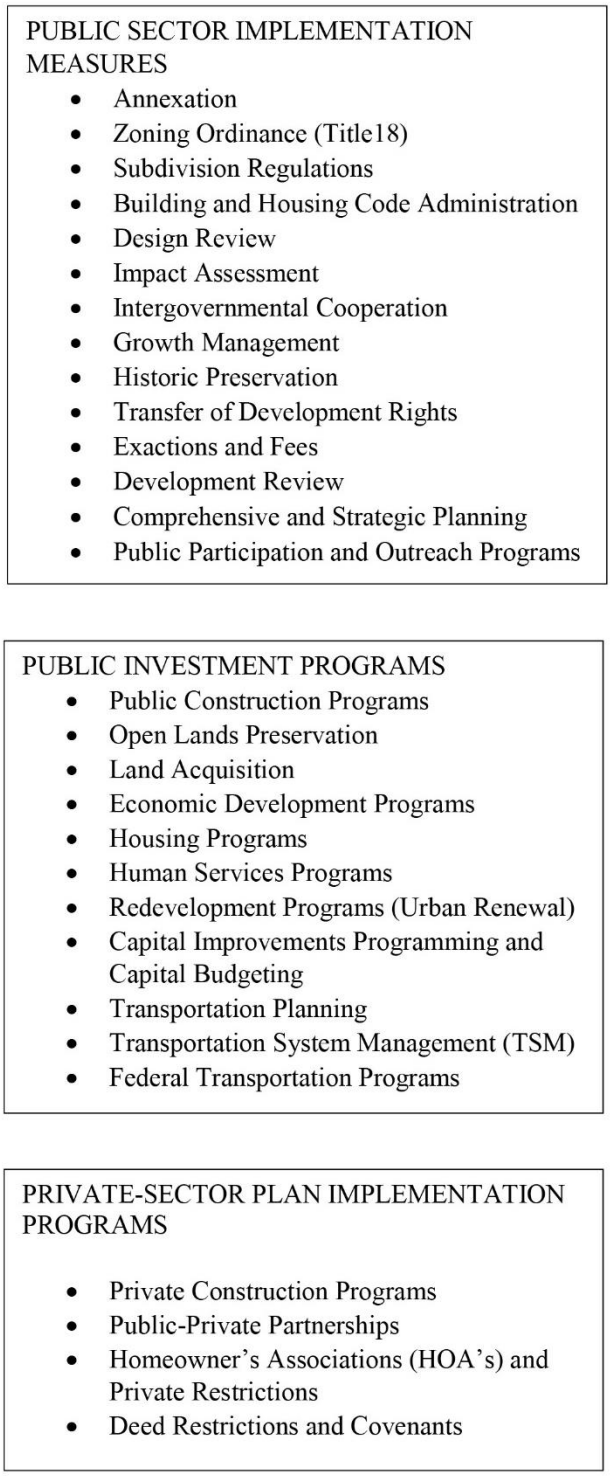

Figure 9: Colorado 2005 Comprehensive Plan implementation tools

For each implementation tool, the guide uses an outline composed of four sections, however not all four of them are used for each tool:

- the implementation measure's or method's definition;

- the method's purpose as an implementation tool;
- historical perspective and current use as an implementation tool; and
- relationship to long-range and short-range plans and planning, where applicable.

In the definition part of these tools, the regulations, rules and conditions are explained, and then in the other parts, purpose of the methods are explained. Historical perspective and current use are explored, and relationship to long-range and short-range plans and planning, briefly scope of the tool is explained. Exploring all of the listed tools above, it will be seen that the tools are composed of a set of policies and their common purpose is based on the public welfare. These explanations are a guide for producing the public policies since the main purpose is public welfare.

As another example, York County Planning Commission (2008) advise local governments number of tools that can be used for planning, implementing plans and managing growth. They listed the tools in three parts which are primary planning tools, primary implementation tools and smart growth tools. "The Primary Planning Tools are the most basic instruments a municipality should employ to guide growth and development and protect natural resources." (York County Planning Commission, 2008) These tools are comprehensive plan, capital improvement plan, sewage facilities plan and recreation plan, which are involving information on historical trends and the current conditions of a municipality, and providing an outline for a wide vision of future. The comprehensive plan, is said to be an "advisory plan, not a regulatory ordinance." (York County Planning Commission, 2008) So that, in order to implement such a plan there will be need for ordinances and actions, as it is explained by the Commission (2008) Comprehensive plan "provides a process for community dialogue,

and prepares a framework for adoption of official map, zoning and subdivision and land development ordinances to implement the Plan." Capital Improvement Plans (CIP), on the other hand, is a type of plan that is prepared for usually 5 to 10 years and it sets priorities for projects and how to finance them. Again, this tool is composed of policies, as it is understood by the words; "when a CIP is included in the planning process, a clear spending policy based on needs, priorities, costs and potential funding sources can be set." (York County Planning Commission-YCPC, 2008) Other planning tools like Sewage Facilities Plan and Recreation Plan depends on some Laws and also need again implementation tools such as Subdivision and Land Development Ordinance in order to be implemented.

As it can be understood, the outlined visions in the Primary Planning Tools are supported and implemented through Primary Implementation Tools which are zoning ordinance, subdivision and land development ordinance, official map ordinance, transportation impact fee ordinance and storm water management ordinance. Other than the implementation tools, there are smart growth tools which are more detailed tools. As it is described by the YCPC (2008), 'Smart Growth Tools' would have effects on many different issues about a community, such as transportation, historical heritage, housing and environment. Although, the tools are not binding legally, it has been proven that they are beneficial in providing some standards that would support sustainability of the communities.

These Smart Growth Tools are listed as;

- Alternative Residential Developments
  - Cluster Development
  - Open Space Development/Conservation by Design

- Planned Residential Development
- Traditional Neighbourhood Development

- Agricultural Protection
  - Agricultural Protection Zoning
  - Transfer of Development Rights
- Environmental
  - Landscaping
  - Street Trees
  - Protection of Sensitive Environmental Areas
- Transportation
  - Flexible/Shared Parking
  - Traffic Impact Studies
- Other
  - Dedication of Recreation Land/Fee in Lieu of
  - Historical/Cultural Preservation.

Briefly, from the two different examples on planning tools it can be understood that through different approaches same goals are pursued. Planning tools are used for managing and drawing a framework for the development and growth issues, and also guiding how to implement the planning decisions.

3.4.3 Public Policies

Policies are political, managerial, financial, and administrative mechanisms which would be the way for achieving some defined goals. This mechanism can be utilized by government, by private sector organizations and groups, or by individuals. Public policies on the other hand is “a choice that government makes in response to a political issue or a public problem.” (Geurts, T., 2011) And this choice should be based on the

norms and values of the society or the group. The main purpose of the policies is to make a bridge between these norms and values and a situation. As it is claimed by Geurts (2011) "the term public policy refers to the decisions and actions of government and the intentions that determine those decisions and actions."

As it is clearly described by Anderson (2003) "In the course of their daily lives people are affected, directly and indirectly, obviously and subtly, by an extensive array of public policies." So that the public policies are everywhere in modern and complex society, sometimes providing advantageous but sometimes disadvantageous, and can cause delight, annoying feelings, and pain, and have significant results for people's wealth and happiness. (Anderson, J. E., 2003)

Policies as it is highlighted before are the arranged set of rules by government, which are also enabling the public to measure the achievements of the government. (The Shillong Times, 2012) So that there is a double-sided benefit of public policies for both government and public. Government would be able to control and manage society with policies, and public would be able to measure the achievements of government.

In the Anderson's book 'Public policymaking: An introduction' (2003) a policy is defined "as a relatively stable, purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern." This definition highlights what is actually done through the public policies not only what is proposed or intended, which is the difference between a policy and a decision.

As it is explained by Thomas A. Birkland (2014), there are many sources that defines public policy. He claims that "for many people, defining public policy helps them

define their own role in policy making, as well as that of the organization they work for." Because the definitions of public policy would provide to understand the shape of the field people seek to study. (Birkland, T. A., 2014) Birkland had listed some definitions of public policy when an agency, which is aiming to make a strategic planning, asks him to define public policy for them. (Table 20)

Table 20: Defining public policy

Definition	**Author**
"The term public policy always refers to the actions of government and the intentions that determine those actions."	Clarke E. Cochran et al.[1]
"Public policy is the outcome of the struggle in government over who gets what."	Clarke E. Cochran et al.
"Whatever governments choose to do or not to do."	Thomas Dye[2]
"Public policy consists of political decisions for implementing programs to achieve societal goals."	Charles L. Cochran and Eloise F. Malone[3]
"Stated most simply, public policy is the sum of government activities, whether acting directly or through agents, as it has an influence on the life of citizens."	B. Guy Peters[4]

Resource: Birkland, T. A., 2014, p. 8

Public policies could be for any subject related to the decisions of a government or a private sector etc. They could be produced for education, health, environmental protection, transportation, design principles or qualities and so on. These issues are actually subjects of urban development plans, which composed of government's decisions for the future of the cities and societies. Those decisions would turn to be

[1] Clarke E. Cochran et al., American Public Policy: An Introduction, 6th ed. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1999)
[2] Thomas R. Dye, Understanding Public Policy. 7th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentince-Hall,1992)
[3] Charles L. Cochran and Eloise F. Malone, Public Policy: Perspectives and Choices (New York: McGraw Hill,1995)
[4] B. Guy Peters, American Public Policy: Promise and Performance (Chappaqua, NY: Chatham House/Seven Rivers, 1999)

action through producing related public policies. So that public policies would play an important role for a successful implementation of an urban plan.

In detail, Punter (2007) explains that in mid-1990's urban design has become the major concern in planning, and consequently many agendas were produced for its development in both policy and control (p.169).

> These included greater public concern with the protection of a sense of place and local distinctiveness in a globalizing world, greater environmental concern with the sustainability of development at the macro and micro scale, a more strategic view of urban design as a shaper of urban form citywide, and greater concern with urban regeneration (particularly reversing the loss of population from major cities). (Punter, J., 2007, p.169)

As it is understood from the statement, urban design as a main concern of planning, included mainly public concerns, therefore defining the principles and qualities of design as 'urban design as public policy' became imperatives for development plans of cities within globalized world.

3.5 Physical Place Quality as Public Policies

Three alternatives for integrating and implementing physical place quality attributes have been defined and explained in previous section. Planning policies and planning tools as first two alternatives, are part of urban planning themselves. Both planning policies and planning instruments/tools would include or composed of public policies. Thus, it is worth to understand the role and importance of public policies in urban planning. This issue will be enlightened by approaching through urban design point of view.

Punter claims that by the mid 1990's design had become one of the main concerns in planning and he says that "there was a desire to improve the attractiveness of urban settlements as places to live and work…".

Depending on the observations and preliminary research, it can be claimed that when urban design is project oriented, its scope, content and scale is closer to the architecture, and when it is policy oriented then it can be integrated into urban planning. (Figure 10)

Figure 10: Relations between urban design, urban planning, architecture and public policies

According to Stenio (2004) urban design and planning are branches of architecture containing physical qualities of built environment, however according to John Punter (2007) urban design is a dimension of planning. Punter (2007) claims that design dimension of planning should be considered by discussing differences between two planning systems; regulatory (restrict) and discretionary (flexible).

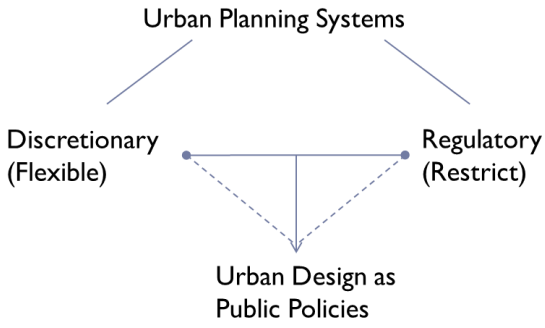

Figure 11: Integration of urban design in urban planning as public policy

The integration of urban design as public policies to urban planning would have an important advantage for the planning systems. As explained in previous parts, Punter (2007) describes two types of planning systems which are discretionary and regulatory. Discretionary planning system is criticized as it is flexible and regulatory is criticized as it is restrictive. When urban design has been integrated into the urban planning as public policy, these two systems come closer to each other, so the difference between them becomes blurred.

As Punter (2007) highlights it took a long time to integrate urban design to the planning practice. In 1980's design review has been established to achieve such integration by setting 12 principles for developing better systems of design regulation (Punter, J., 2007), although it was 1974 that Jonathan Barrnett first called the urban design as public policy. The principles of design review have been set up on four groups of principles by asking the questions:

- How the community might develop a vision, and the local authority a corporate programme, to develop a strategic role for urban design and provide the context for the exercise of design review;
- How planning, zoning, housing and fiscal instruments might be harnessed to help develop a comprehensive and coherent approach to design review and deliver better designed projects;
- What types of substantive urban design principles might underpin design policy, guidance and intervention; and
- What types of review processes might be adopted to ensure fairness, efficiency and effectiveness within the decision-making process. (Punter, J., 2007)

Exploring these groups of principles, it has been seen that the first group is about ‘community vision’. It is about the participation of community to the design projects, in other words any design project would be developed and monitored with the users. The second group of principles is ‘design, planning and zoning’ which includes strategies, regulations, instruments and actors. Implementation alternatives would be effective within this principle while implementing the design principles indicated in the third group as amenity, accessibility, community, vitality and sustainability. Then, within the last group of principles which is termed as ‘due process’, implementation process has been defined.

The main aim of the design review was to integrate urban design principles within planning system as public policies. The success of this attempt has been experienced in many different cities of UK and North America as becoming the most liveable cities in the world (Punter, J. 2002). Considering the main aim of this thesis, that is integrating physical place quality attributes into the planning system as public policies, it can be seen that it overlaps with the aim of design review.

Inclusion of urban design as public policies in urban planning has provided greater contributions to the cities. As it is mentioned in Punter’s paper, this inclusion contributed for an increased public concern by protecting sense of place and local distinctiveness within a globalizing world, higher environmental concern with the sustainability of development at the local and regional levels, a more strategic view of urban design as a shaper of urban form citywide, and a focus on urban regeneration (particularly reversing the loss of population from major cities).

As it can be understood from the figure 7 and figure 11, so as the urban design principles, quality of place would be integrated into urban planning as public policies.

As it is clearly defined by Ryan Weber (2014), planners and policymakers have difficulties in working in a complex, interconnected and ever-changing world. The benefits of the public policies in implementation of an urban plan are obvious, however how to achieve arranging most appropriate and effective policies is a challenge for planners and policymakers.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY FOR EVALUATION OF PHYSICAL PLACE QUALITY

4.1 Introduction

Since the aim of this thesis is to provide a basis for suggesting public policies and strategies for improving physical place quality in a city, there is a need for determining the current state of the physical place quality. To be able to do so, it is necessary to determine a methodology for evaluating physical place quality. In this context, after describing the indicators of physical place quality attributes, it is necessary to determine criteria for each indicator for generating a methodology to evaluate physical place quality.

The methodology for evaluating physical place quality is going to be a normative and positive approach , which would provide a basis for understanding the current situation of physical place quality within different parts of a city and producing strategies and policies for increasing the physical quality of places. As a normative approach liveability-based methodology and for positive approach data-based methodology can be utilized. A normative approach is a kind of methodology, through which users' perceptions and expectations are analysed, positive approach on the hand, deals with the actual experiences, value-based data, and measurable criteria. As it has been mentioned before, in an assessment, one of the approaches can be utilized as well as utilizing combination of the both approaches. For the accessibility assessment in an

article İstillozlu and Doratlı (2020), a normative approach had been utilized and a new liveability-based methodology, had been generated since the expectations and perceptions of the users should have been focus for increasing functional place quality. Similarly, for producing policies to increasing physical place quality in a city, liveability-based methodology would be the most appropriate assessment mode. However, some of the evaluation criteria may need data gathering for a better understanding of the current situation. Therefore, beside liveability-based methodology, data-based analysis may strengthen the assessment.

As it has been explained in Chapter 3, design review, established in 1980's for developing better systems of design regulation, has been seen as a good example for integrating public policies with urban planning. Therefore, it would be beneficial to utilize the principles of the design review for generating evaluation methodology for physical place quality. The first principle 'community vision' should be reflected in the evaluation methodology as it is developed with a normative approach. The determined attributes and their indicators and criteria would be counted as the third principle which is 'broad, substantive design principles'. The second principle includes policies, strategies and instruments which would be related with planning tools. And the last principle is about the implementation process-public policies which should be defined for each criterion included in the evaluation methodology.

Table 21: Utilizing aim and principles of design review for generating physical place quality evaluation methodology

	Design Review	*Evaluating Methodology for Physical Place Quality*
Aim	Integrating design principles into planning system as public policies	Integrating physical place quality attributes and indicators into planning system

Principles	Community Vision	Consulting Residents
	Design, Planning and Zoning	Planning Instruments
	Broad, Substantive Design Principles	Indicators and Criteria
	Due Process	Implementation process-public policies

Thus, in this section, evaluation criteria of each attribute will be determined depending on the discussions in previous section and the most appropriate methodology will be decided for each criterion. The methodology will include evaluation of the determined criteria, the location of the potential applicable part of the city.

4.2 Evaluation Criteria of Built Environment

In previous section indicators of the built environment attribute has been determined as; density and intensity, land use mix, multiple housing options, street scale, aesthetic qualities and preservation of historic structures.

Handy, Boarnet, Ewing and Killingsworth (2002) explain density and intensity in three different ways; population- person per acre, employment- jobs per square mile, and building square footage per unit area. The scholars had determined these measurable criteria for their study on relations between built environment and physical activities. Therefore, these criteria are more comprehensive than the other possible criteria that can be used in a physical place quality evaluation study. Population and building density would absolutely affect place itself, however employment density would not, since employment is a socio-economic issue rather than a physical place quality issue. In this context, for evaluating built environment, data on population and building density should be gathered and compared with the other cities of the country to reach a standard (if it doesn't exist). The units also should fit to the countries' standards for

population and building density. The general standards can be compared with the countries, which contain most liveable cities. For example, according to the Worldbank 2105 data, population density in the Southern Cyprus is 126 people per square km while in Austria it is 106 people per square km. Which means that Cyprus may be more crowded than Austria and that would affect place quality in a negative way. In this context, density and intensity data should be gathered and compared to be able to produce suitable strategies and policies for improving place quality.

The population and building density data can be different for each part of a city, so that these data should be gathered for different parts of the city such as city centres, activity spines, and neighbourhoods.

Table 22: Evaluation of density and intensity

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
BUILT ENVIRON MENT	Density and Intensity	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Population density Building density	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research

Land use mix is defined as proximity of different land uses. This indicator can also be measured in 3 ways; distance from house to nearest store, dissimilarity index- number of different land uses within an area, and proportion of each type of land use within the total area. The key question is “are the land use decisions supporting each other?” The distance between house and nearest store can be compared to the walking distance which is known as 500 meters in average. Dissimilarity index is about the number of different land uses within an area and this can be measured by counting the types of the uses. Examining whether the land use decisions are supporting each other or not, can be done through questionnaire and fieldwork.

Table 23: Evaluation of land-use mix

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Land-use Mix	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Distance between house and nearest store	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research
			Dissimilarity index- number of different land uses			
			Are the land use decisions supporting each other?	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre

Multiple housing options would examine the single/multiple housing options, price ranges of the houses, and the government policies and strategies for housing. These criteria should be evaluated in the city centres and neighbourhoods. Single or multiple housing options and price ranges of the houses are going to be evaluated by provided alternatives. ‘How many of the choices are available’ and ‘what are the percentages of the choices’ are the questions to be answered for this evaluation. The government policies and strategies should be investigated if they are existing and enough to meet the needs.

Table 24: Evaluation of multiple housing options

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Multiple Housing Options	City Centers Neighborhoods	Single/multiple housing options	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research
			Price ranges of the houses			
			The government policies and strategies for housing	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre

As it is stated before, street scale is about the three-dimensional space along the street bounded by buildings. The evaluation criteria of this indicator would include ratio between building heights and street widths, and average setback- distance from street to the buildings. These types of criteria determined through urban development plans or development laws, depending on the planning system of the country. In this study, the determined ratios and setbacks should be examined in terms of created places that is whether the ratio is enough for users to feel the human scale, to get enough daylight along the street or the setback is enough to provide side walking, landscaping and semi-public spaces in front of the buildings.

Table 25: Evaluation of street scale

Physical Place Quality	**Indicators**	**Part of the city**	**Criteria of Indicators**	**Approach**	**Methodology**	**Tool**
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Street Scale	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Ratio between building heights and street widths Setback- distance from street to the buildings	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research

Another indicator of built environment is aesthetic qualities. Design of the buildings, landscaping and availability of public amenities like street furniture and lighting elements. For design of the buildings criteria the buildings are going to be examined by their façades, heights, proportions, roofs, setbacks, ornaments and etc. within an urban context. Landscaping and public amenities, on the other hand, can be examined by observation of the users.

Table 26: Evaluation for aesthetic qualities

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Aesthetic Qualities	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Design of the Buildings Landscaping Public Amenities	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre

The last indicator is preservation of historic structures. This indicator can be evaluated by examining the strategies and policies for conservation and preservation of historic environment whether exist or not, and the obsolescence levels of the historic elements.

Table 27: Evaluation of preservation of historic structures

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Preservation of Historic Structures	Urban Historic Quarters	Strategies and policies for conservation and preservation Obsolescence levels of the historic elements	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research

4.3 Evaluation Criteria of Levels of Derelict Land

Based on the literature review and discussions on the Levels of Derelict land issue, derelict land, vacant land, brownfield areas and lost spaces have been determined as indicators. First of all, the difference between derelict land and vacant land has been explained. Although two terms are very similar in meaning, derelict land is previously developed land which has physical constraint caused by its previous use, while vacant land is previously undeveloped land, without any physical constraints. For evaluating

physical place quality, reaching data like the percentage of vacant and derelict land within a city would be beneficial.

Table 28: Evaluation of vacant and derelict lands

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
LEVELS OF DERELICT LAND	Derelict Land	Whole City	Percentage of derelict land	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research
	Vacant Land		Percentage of vacant land			

On the other hand, brownfield areas are defined as previously industrial, commercial or institutional areas which became vacant or underused properties as they couldn't satisfy today's needs. According to the vacant and derelict land definitions it should be claimed that these types of areas should called derelict land as they have been used previously. More important than brownfield areas definition, it should be examined whether there is any brownfield development strategies and policies for regaining these areas which is an attempt for increasing physical place quality as well as other benefits like social, economic and environmental. In this context, for evaluating physical place quality within a city, document investigation should be done for checking the brownfield development strategies and policies.

Table 29: Evaluation of brownfield areas

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
LEVELS OF DERELICT LAND	Brownfield Areas	Whole City	Strategies and policies for brownfield development	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research

The last indicator of levels of derelict land is determined as lost spaces. As it has been quoted in previous section lost space is “leftover unstructured landscape at the base of high-rise towers or the unused sunken plaza away from the flow of pedestrian activity in the city.” (Trancik, R., 1986) Within this frame, lost spaces should be calculated within parts of a city for evaluating these areas in percentage.

Table 30: Evaluation of lost spaces

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
LEVELS OF DERELICT LAND	Lost Spaces	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Percentage of lost spaces	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research

4.4 Evaluation Criteria of Quality of Parks and Green Spaces

With a comprehensive approach, indicators of parks and green spaces have been determined as recreation and green infrastructure. Recreation includes open spaces, multiple sports- indoor/outdoor, and parks. Most of the countries has an accepted standard for recreational areas or open spaces and parks. For example, as it is stated before, Malta has defined recreational areas as public gardens, playing fields and open spaces and has 2.4 square meters per inhabitant which is said to be quite low, Australia on the other hand has accepted a standard for open spaces as 4 square meters per person in Australia. In this context, first of all there is a need for an accepted standard for all recreational areas in square meter per person, then calculate the existing areas to be able to evaluate whether they are enough or not. For achieving this kind of evaluation, a fieldwork should be done within whole city. Another criteria should be the satisfaction of the residents with the existing recreational areas, whether they are safe,

clean, accessible and etc. In order to reach such data a questionnaire can be conducted with residents.

Table 31: Evaluation of recreational areas

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
QUALITY OF PARKS AND GREEN AREAS	Recreational Areas	Whole City	Size of the Recreational areas	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research
			Evaluation of the residents	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre

Another indicator of quality of parks and green spaces is green infrastructure. The term green infrastructure refers to all type of green areas which are linked each other and are strategically planned to create a green network within whole city. Existence of green infrastructure would certainly contribute to the physical place quality of a city. Therefore, first of all, development plan of a city should be investigated if it includes any strategies and policies about green infrastructure, then the success of the related implementations should be examined by asking the users/residents.

Table 32: Evaluation of green infrastructure

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
QUALITY OF PARKS AND GREEN AREAS	Green Infrastructure	Whole City	Strategies and policies for Green Infrastructure	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research
			Evaluation of the residents	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre

4.5 Evaluation Criteria of Public Realm Quality

Different approaches have been searched and discussed about the principles of quality public spaces and the indicators have been determined as animation, image and sense of place. Animation refers to the diversity, adaptability, flexibility and active edges. As it is indicated by Northwest Regional Development Agency, diversity is about the range of users (different ages, abilities and cultures) and uses (meeting, waiting, sitting and watching). The space should be for everyone and for understanding that it should be asked to the residents. With the adaptability durable public realm is meant. "Using high quality materials and a strong concept ensures the space retains its character when activity is absent." (Northwest Regional Development Agency) So that for measuring adaptability of a public realm, its vibrancy should be examined by a questionnaire. Flexibility is referring to the activities take place in public realm as temporary, seasonal or time specific. It should be examined that how the space adopts to the such quick changes. Active edge is about a semi-public space which can be found in front of a restaurant, café, bar and etc. and is used by these uses. It's a kind of interaction between building and space.

Table 33: Evaluation of animation

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
PUBLIC REALM QUALITY	Animation	Public Realm	Diversity	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre
			Adaptability			
			Flexibility			
			Active Edges-semipublic space			

The second indicator of public realm quality is image which has criteria like branding, design excellence and innovation, and the ‘wow’ factor. Branding of a city or a public realm is a contribution which provide strengthening an existing identity or sometimes creating a new image. Especially a public realm which has lost its function could rejuvenated by branding. So, when the image of a public realm is going to be evaluated it can be examined if there is any branding strategy or branding implementation for the area.

According to Northwest Regional Development Agency using quality materials and design in a public realm would contribute to creating a positive image. So that for evaluation of the image of a public realm, the materials should be observed and assessed. Also apart from the materials design, it should be evaluated as it is creative or innovative. For example, design competitions for a public realm would positively affect the design of the area. So that it should be examined whether there had been a competition for the area. For such an evaluation of materials and design, planners or designer should make an observation and fieldwork.

By the criteria of ‘wow’ factor it is meant any element or feature of a public realm that makes impact. These elements or features can be a lighting element, planting, surfacing, any furniture, public art and etc.; “everything that makes a place memorable and pleasurable” (Northwest Regional Development Agency). Therefore, perceptions and expectations of users need to be understood for assessing the wow factor of a public realm.

Table 34: Evaluation of image

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
PUBLIC REALM QUALITY	Image	Public Realm	Branding	Positive	Data-based	Observation Field research Data research
			Design Excellence and Innovation			
			The 'wow' factor	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre

And the last indicator of public realm quality is sense of place which can be evaluated through local distinctiveness of a place. As it is mentioned by Northwest Regional Development Agency, local distinctiveness would be emphasis in different ways such as; "surfaces and street furniture are made from local materials or in traditional crafts, the site history is metaphorically reflected through lighting, art and water, and planting may make reference to local ecology." Apart from these, a well-integrated public art would also help to create sense of place. Thus, investigating local distinctiveness and public art in a public realm would be the way for evaluating its 'sense of place'.

Table 35: Evaluation of sense of place

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Approach	Methodology	Tool
PUBLIC REALM QUALITY	Sense of Place	Public Realm	Local Distinctiveness	Normative	Liveability-based	Questionairre
			Public Art			

4.6 Evaluating Physical Place Quality

As to conclude, indicators and related criteria of physical place quality has been determined for making an evaluation by elaborately searching, explaining and

discussing the physical place quality issue. The aim has been clearly indicated as to provide a basis for understanding the current situation of physical place quality in a city to be able to produce policies and strategies for enhancements, in other words for more quality places.

In determining criteria for evaluation, normative approach, which defines as "A theoretical, prescriptive approach to sociological studies that has the aim of appraising or establishing the values and norms that best fit the overall needs and expectations of society" (Normative approach, 2022)

As it has been deeply explained in the study of İstillozlu and Doratlı (2020), since the quality of place is a dimension of liveability, utilizing liveability-based assessment methodology would be the most suitable way. Liveability-based methodology is a kind of methodology which follows a normative approach. And the tools, measurements and results shown in the table below has been generated by utilizing the study of İstillozlu and Doratlı (2020) and also the literature review conducted in this chapter.

Table 36: Liveability-based methodology for physical place quality assessment

Methodology	**Approach**	**Tools**	**Measurements**	**Results**
Liveability-based	Normative	Questionnaire Likert-scale Evaluation table	Physical place quality attributes and criteria	Public policies for improving physical place quality

As it has been explained in previous lines, some of the criteria has been determined as measurable criterion so that data gathering is needed. The analysed data is going to be supportive for both understanding current situation, however as long as the main focus

of the assessment is on the expectations and perceptions of the users, the measurable criteria are going to be within the evaluation table. Accordingly, table 37 is indicating all attributes of physical place quality with their determined indicators and criteria, which would act like a check list in further studies of physical place quality.

Table 37: Evaluation table for physical place quality

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Density and Intensity	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Population density
			Building density
	Land-use Mix	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Distance between house and nearest store
			Dissimilarity index- number of different land uses
			Are the land use decisions supporting each other?
	Multiple Housing Options	City Centers Neighborhoods	Single/multiple housing options
			Price ranges of the houses
			The government policies and strategies for housing
	Street Scale	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Ratio between building heights and street widths
			Setback- distance from street to the buildings
	Aesthetic Qualities	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Design of the Buildings
			Landscaping
			Public Amenities
	Preservation of Historic Structures	Urban Historic Quarters	Strategies and policies for conservation and preservation
			Obsolescence levels of the historic elements
LEVELS OF DERELICT LAND	Derelict Land	Whole City	Percentage of derelict land
	Vacant Land		Percentage of vacant land
	Brownfield Areas	Whole City	Strategies and policies for brownfield development
	Lost Spaces	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Percentage of lost spaces
QUALITY OF PARKS AND GREEN AREAS	Recreational Areas	Whole City	Size of the Recreational areas
			Evaluation of the residents
	Green Infrastructure	Whole City	Strategies and policies for Green Infrastructure
			Evaluation of the residents
PUBLIC REALM QUALITY	Animation	Public Realm	Diversity
			Adaptability
			Flexibility
			Active Edges-semipublic space

	Image	Public Realm	Branding
			Design Excellence and Innovation
			The ‘wow’ factor
	Sense of Place	Public Realm	Local Distinctiveness
			Public Art

4.7 Planning and Public Policies in Most Liveable Cities (through Physical Planning Perspectives)

As it has been highlighted several times in this thesis that quality of place is a dimension of liveability, it would be possible to approach place quality issue through liveability studies. In this context, while searching the indicators of physical place quality, liveability and quality of living surveys had been explored in Chapter 2. In this exploration it has been claimed that Mercer, which is a consultant, making quality of living survey annually and ranking most liveable cities, uses the most appropriate indicators with physical place quality indicators. Therefore, for the aim of producing public policies for improving physical place quality of cities, it would be helpful to discuss the public policies implemented in some of the most liveable cities that are determined by Mercer in 2019.

In order to do so, the most liveable cities determined by Mercer will be explored through their urban plans, planning laws and related regulations. Since Mercer provided a long list with 231 cities all around the world, the scores show the most liveable cities at the top and continues until the least liveable cities at the bottom. The most liveable 10 cities are,

1. Vienna, Austria
2. Zurich, Switzerland
3. Munich, Germany
3. Vancouver, Canada

3. Auckland, New Zealand
6. Dusseldorf, Germany
7. Frankfurt, Germany
8. Copenhagen, Denmark
9. Geneva, Switzerland
10. Basel, Switzerland.

In Vienna, the most liveable city for the last ten years, Germanic Planning system is utilized. Within the planning systems, Germanic Family is the one that differs from others since it includes flexibility although it has a regulatory planning approach. In other words, Germanic Planning System is a system where regulatory and discretionary approaches come close to each other (İstillozlu, E., 2021, p.49). The success of being the most liveable city for many years should not be a coincidence, utilizing both planning approaches in a system would have a positive effect on liveability and high-quality places. In this context, it is worth to search and explore public policies related with physical place quality within urban development plan of Vienna.

PUBLIC POLICIES IN VIENNA

In previous chapters, importance of public policies for both planning approaches has been introduced. Integrating quality of place attributes as public policies with urban plans would be a beneficial way for creating better places in cities. In this manner, public policies of Vienna is going to be explored. There are four categories of those indicators which are built environment, levels of derelict land, quality of parks and green areas, and public realm quality. The built environment is evaluated through the

suggested evaluation table (table 37) for physical place quality as it is shown in the table below.

Table 38: Policies about built environment within Vienna Urban Development Plan

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Related Policies and Strategies in Vienna Urban Development Plan
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Density and Intensity	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Population density	By 2025, up to 120,000 additional flats are needed in Vienna. In keeping with Vienna's tradition, the most important of pillar in new housing construction will be multi-storey apartment buildings. In addition, sufficient green areas, social infrastructure, industrial and commercial areas and technical infrastructure must be made available. In this context, traditional centres of the city and the centres of new urban developments will become the hubs for the everyday needs and activities of the population.
			Building density	
	Land-use Mix	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Distance between house and nearest store	Distances covered between work, home, errands and leisure time activities are as short as possible. The share of trips done on foot or by bike to shop for supplies or accompany someone as well as distances covered for leisure time activities will increase from 38.8% in 2013 to 45% in 2025.
			Dissimilarity index-number of different land uses	Vienna is building new areas with a compact, mixed-use approach that is geared towards pedestrians and cyclists in

			Are the land use decisions supporting each other?	order to create high-quality urbanity. To achieve this, existing practices are being adapted, new methods are being developed and new technologies are being tested, for example, in pilot projects.
	Multiple Housing Options	City Centers Neighborhoods	Single/multiple housing options	Vienna is a city where people like to live. The long-standing tradition of municipal and subsidized housing construction safeguards a good social mix, affordability and high quality of both housing and living and will continue to play an important role for urban growth.
			Price ranges of the houses	
			The government policies and strategies for housing	
	Street Scale	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Ratio between building heights and street widths	<u>Building Law for Vienna:</u> Newly constructed buildings may now approach the property border up to a maximum of half the building height of the front facing the respective neighboring property. However, a minimum distance of three meters must always be adhered to. This creates more air space or green area between the buildings and means that the higher the building, the more distance between the neighboring houses.
			Setback- distance from street to the buildings	<u>Building Law for Vienna</u>
	Aesthetic Qualities	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Design of the Buildings	<u>Building Law for Vienna</u>
			Landscaping	The types of agricultural use so emblematic and characteristic of Vienna's landscape will be preserved, in particular the identity-creating vineyards

				and meadows with scattered fruit trees.
			Public Amenities	new, largescale office projects and big municipal facilities are directed to locations that can be reached by efficient public transport and are key development zones of the city. As a result, existing urban structures and infrastructure facilities are used effectively, while locations are in their turn upgraded. This is of particular benefit for existing shopping streets, whose clientele will be enlarged and whose range of services or goods will be positively complemented.
	Preservation of Historic Structures	Urban Historic Quarters	Strategies and policies for conservation and preservation	Sub-centres and historic village cores are to be strengthened and rendered more attractive by means of targeted interventions and investments.
			Obsolescence levels of the historic elements	In the case of historic city centres, their former residential use has been largely abandoned.

Figure 12: Public spaces of Vienna (Public Space as a “Living Room”, 2022)

Figure 13: Landscapping in Vienna (Vienna – the world's greenest city, 2022)

Table 38 shows that, some of the criteria of built environment are included within Vienna's development plan and some others are implemented through regulations or laws. By this way, all of the criteria are somehow implemented. The reflections of the success of the physical place quality attributes can easily be seen from the figures above. Design of the buildings is in a harmony; vibrant shopping streets are created; moreover, public policies for landscape makes the city the world's greenest city. This approach of utilizing public policies related with physical place quality, makes the city the most liveable city for years.

Chapter 5

CASE STUDY OF NICOSIA

5.1 Introduction

In previous chapters, importance of physical place quality within urban planning system has been highlighted by exploring and explaining deeply with many different examples from all over the world. The attributes, indicators and criteria of physical place quality determined in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4, has been studied in order to find out how to integrate and implement them within the planning system. Accordingly, three alternatives such as planning policies, planning tools and public policies have been defined. Studying the alternatives, it has been realised that planning policies and planning tools may also include or composed of public policies. In this sense, the importance of public policies has been highlighted by describing 'design review' which is developed for the aim of integrating urban design with planning systems as public policies that would have many advantageous for the cities. One of the advantages is that when urban design principles have been integrated, two types of planning systems- restrict and flexible systems, have come close to each other. Thus, public policies would be a solution for integrating and implementing physical place quality criteria into the planning system.

From this point of view, cities of Northern Cyprus are going to be discussed since the preliminary research reveals that the cities are suffering from low quality places. Additionally, the existing planning system of Northern Cyprus has a crucial problem

as it is a flexible (utilizing Anglo-Saxon planning system- British model) planning system (55/89 Planning Law). However, considering the implementation process, the approach is not same (Planning Permission Regulation), but still includes too much speculation due to the lack of policies and guidelines. Another problem, which can be easily understood from the Planning Law (55/89 İmar Yasası), is the absence of any planning tools to be utilized while implementing planning decisions.

In this context, planning system of Northern Cyprus is going to be discussed, and then existing national and local plans of the country will be explored with a focus on physical place quality attributes.

5.2 Overview of the Existing Planning System in North Cyprus

Within two different planning approaches- discretionary and regulatory, four types of planning systems have been described in Chapter 3. Addition to the explanations, the table 39 prepared by the Centre for Comparative Housing Research (2009, p.18) is illustrating five countries' governmental levels and functions with their own approaches in planning. According to the Research Center (2009) "In each of the countries studied there is a hierarchical relationship with central government at the top setting the overall policy and providing the basic legislation." And the local administration, municipalities for example, is responsible for preparing more detailed land use plans. In between these two levels, there is a middle tier, which sets guidance and provides some planning principles for the region/province. Only in Spain there are two different and significant tiers between central government and region, which are autonomous communities who provide planning legislation and the provinces who then provide general spatial frameworks within this legislation. Other countries hierarchy is similar but have different plan types and functions. North Cyprus could

also be added to this table to compare and understand planning systems in Cyprus that is regarded within British Family according to its legal framework. The table 39 compares five countries from three different families of planning systems, which are British, Napoleonic and Germanic.

In North Cyprus, according to the 55/89 Planning Law, planning systems is very centralized which means only Town Planning Department (TPD), under a determined ministry, is responsible for preparing plans in all governmental levels, such as National Physical Plan, Master Plans, Environmental Plans and Ordinances. Not only the plan making responsibility belongs to TPD, but also planning approval/permission in North Cyprus planning system. Unfortunately, the responsible ministry for planning is unsteady. According to the law, Ministry of Interior should be responsible, however, depending on the political conditions the responsible ministry can be changed as it is today. The responsible ministry for planning in North Cyprus is Ministry of Tourism and Environment. This situation proves that there is a political pressure on the urban planning.

According to the legal framework in Northern Cyprus, which is based on Anglo-Saxon system, the plan making process at regional level can be regarded within British family, however as it is illustrated in table 39, the function of plans is not the same. In fact, only central government is responsible for planning and its implementation. There is no responsibility sharing with regional or local authorities. Central government prepare development plans for cities and the plans are set up by general decisions. At local level no plans, no guidelines are prepared. The general decisions are trying to be implemented to the cities again by central government. In other words, national or regional planning decisions are trying to be implemented at local level- directly to the

parts of the cities or to the plots, by central government. As a result, cities are losing their identity and sense of place, numbers of vacant lands and lost spaces are arisen, aesthetic qualities cannot be provided and so on. Consequently, place quality and liveability decreases.

Figure 14: A Shopping street in Famagusta, North Cyprus


Figure 15: Residential area in Famagusta, North Cyprus

It is worth to discuss existing plans in North Cyprus to understand deeply the system from planning and public policies perspective.

Table 39: Comparing North Cyprus Planning Systems with different countries through government tiers and planning functions

Government Tier		England	France	Germany	Ireland	The Netherland	Spain	North Cyprus
Central/Federal government	Plan	Set policies and guidance.	Sets national codes, which provides the basis for local regulation.	Guidelines and principles.	Sets policies and guidance. Sets National Spatial Strategy.	Policies and guidelines.	Provides general framework for the planning system.	Set policies and guidance. (England) National Physical Plan Development Plans Ordinanaces
	Function	Sets policies that are to be implemented by lowers tiers of government. Coordination between national and regional planning.	Sets policies that are to be implemented by lowers tiers of government. Coordination between national and regional planning.	Sets policies that are to be implemented by lowers tiers of government. Coordination between national and regional planning.	Sets policies that are to be implemented by lowers tiers of government. Coordination between national and regional planning.	Sets policies that are to be implemented by lowers tiers of government. Coordination between national and regional planning.	Sets policies that are to be implemented by lowers tiers of government.	Outlines how planning will be managed in the local area. Planning permission
Autonomous communities	Plan						Provides policies and guidelines	
	Function						Implements the basic urban planning and housing policies. Develops own planning legislation.	
Regional Authorities	Plan	Regional Spatial Strategies	The SCOT (Schema de Coherence Territoriale-Intercommunity PLU)	Regional development plan	Regional Planning Guidelines	Regional plans	Regional plans	
	Function	Provides a spatial vision for the region. Outlines housing figures for district and unitary authorities to take forward in their Local Development Frameworks.	Covers several communes and ties together low-cost housing, infrastructure and environmental protections policies.	Establishing principles for planning within the region. Develops own planning legislation.	Requires regions to follow the provisions set out in the NSS.	Regulate spatial planning. Regional plans are developed from the national spatial plan.	Establish the framework for the spatial organisation of land uses and activities.	Building Permissions
Local Authorities	Size- Average population	119,000	1,550	5,000	40,000	23,000	4,800	Any size of settlement area
	Plan	Local Development Framework.	The PLU (Plan Local d'Urbanisme-Local Urban Plan)	Preparatory land use.	Development plan.	Land use plan.	Master Plans.	
	Function	Outlines how planning will be managed in the local area.	Decisive legal document which provides the development plan for the local authority or groups of authorities. Establishes planning zones.	Binding future municipal development planning.	Sets out the local authority's policies for land use control and development.	Must fit with the regional plan. Regulate the use of land within the municipality as well as maximum height and width of buildings and constructions.	Define the distribution of different types of land (zoning) inside their jurisdiction. Plans also have detailed provisions for aspects such as density and building typologies.	Building Permissions

Resource: *Centre for Comparative Housing Research, 2009*

5.2.1 A Briefing of the National Physical Plan as a Spatial Plan of Northern Cyprus

According to the 55/89 Planning Law of Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, National Physical Plan (NPP) should have been prepared within two years following the enactment of the Law in 1989. However, the plan could not be prepared until 2015, although many efforts had been spent, which was a significant gap for the country since the national physical plan is kind of a guideline for the regional and local plans including planning tools, planning and public policies.

The plan has been prepared with a strategic approach for;

- Providing relationship between the policies, plan and strategies produced at governmental level, and sectoral functions at local level.
- Providing sustainable development
- Guiding spatial site selection at national, regional, local and sectoral levels
- Protecting resources and providing effective use of the resources.

Thus, NPP includes spatial strategies and policies on many different fields at national, regional and local levels with their implementation regulations. It has seven chapters with introduction, existing situation and trends, vision, aim and objectives, spatial strategies, sectoral policies, regional strategies and policies, implementation, monitoring and revision.

In the NPP, planning policies are included within spatial strategies which are aiming at guiding the local plans about the issues likes spatial development, settlements, rural development, border crossing areas, transportation, coast, mountains and protection areas.

In the spatial development section, there are planning policies about distribution of population according to the scenarios of the plan and distribution of economic activities with roles of the regions. Hierarchy of settlements and their planning policies about macroform, infrastructure, protection, revitalization, economics, socio cultural situations and etc. are found in the settlements section.

Rural development section is composed of planning policies for rural regions development. Border crossing areas includes territorial border crossing gates, airports and harbours. Planning policies for border crossing areas are like to improve infrastructure of the areas, providing economic and social facilities, increasing place and environmental qualities.

Transportation has been considered again with land, marine and air transport. Planning policies are mainly for improving infrastructure of all kinds of transportation and also giving priority to the public transportation besides providing non-motorized transportation, pedestrian and bicycle ways. On the other hand, strategic approach to the coastal and mountain areas is to utilizing the potential of the areas by protecting them. Thus, the planning policies are suggested in a way that would provide people to use areas while protecting them from any hazards. Lastly, policies of the protection areas are for the conservation of agricultural areas, forest, wetlands and water basins, specially protected environmental areas and historical and cultural heritage areas.

Apart from the planning policies, public policies are defined in the sectoral policies section. The public policies are suggested in four main issues; economic development including, tourism, higher education, property development and construction, agriculture, industry and commerce; technical infrastructure composed of,

transportation and traffic, water and waste water infrastructure, solid waste management, telecommunication infrastructure, and energy and electric infrastructure; social infrastructure including, housing, education, health, social services, recreation and open spaces; and environment and historical cultural heritage.

Planning tools are considered within implementation, monitoring and revision section of the plan. Four types of planning tools are suggested for implementing decisions of national physical plan such as land regulations, nationalization, incentive privilege and transferable development rights. Although these tools are suggested within the plan, the tools can only be implemented when the Planning Law (55/89) is changed and regulated, since the national physical plan is not legally binding. In this context, even the national physical plan says that there should be planning tools, it is not possible to use them until the Planning Law is changed to include planning tools.

As it is aforementioned, NPP is a strategic spatial plan at national and regional scale. Even the plan includes many different planning and public policies, there are no policies for improving physical place quality attributes except, population (Spatial Strategies, Chapter 4, p.12), preservation of historic structures (Spatial Strategies, Chapter 4, p.139), and recreational areas (Sectoral Policies, Chapter 5, p.277).

NPP is a very important document by means of public policies for different issues. It includes population policies, transportation policies, housing policies, education policies etc. Each issue is under the jurisdiction of a different Ministry that should have taken responsibility for implementing the suggested policies within the plan by setting detailed rules and regulations. However, these responsibilities are never taken by any Ministry of Northern Cyprus. The first reason is that NPP is not legally binding, and

the second reason is most probably disrespectfulness to the plans. This situation transforms a very important plan into a list of wishes and advices. The only way for implementing the policies of NPP is, firstly, it should become a legally binding document, which would also be considered as a basis when preparing master plans.

5.2.2 Discussing North Nicosia Master Plan as only Master Plan in Northern Cyprus

In North Cyprus, at local scale, there are seven ordinances which are a kind of planning instrument rather than a plan, only for drawing development boundaries and limiting the development and density, two environmental plans for protection areas and four master plans prepared until today after the Planning Law was enacted in 1989. NPP suggested seven environmental plans, one ordinance and nineteen development plans. Most of the areas that are suggested for preparing their development plans are under control of ordinances today. According to the Planning Law, the ordinances are only aiming to limit and control the construction of buildings.

However, in practice they are prepared in much more detail than it has been targeted in the Law. As the ordinances are utilizing like a development plan, the suggestions of NPP are not implemented. The general approach of the governors of central government in North Cyprus to the planning is that ordinances are enough for regulating the development and no need for the master plans.

Nicosia Master Plan is the first Master Plan, which was published in 2001 by the Town Planning Department, includes six settlements (Lefkoşa, Gönyeli, Hamitköy, Haspolat, Alayköy and Kanlıköy). The report of the plan includes planning area, vision and main objectives, main issues, opportunities and constraints, development plan, policies and suggestions, and implementation process.

As the planning system in Northern Cyprus is depending on the British model, which is flexible, the plan is based on policies, and the decision map is at 1/25000 scale. On the other hand, the implementation maps are at 1/2500 scale. The decisions are reflected on those two scales of plan maps without any details. In this context, it can be claimed that there is a huge gap between those two edges (1/25000 and 1/2500) in terms of implementation urban design principles and providing quality places. There is a need for a connection between decision at higher and lower scales. Design review has been established within British model of planning in order to fill this kind of gaps, however North Cyprus still utilized very old system of British Family, too much flexible and includes speculations.

That much flexibility sometimes creates a state of chaos while implementing planning decisions. The English legal framework depends on a case law, starting from that point, planning implementation is a kind of decision-making process which is a part of local planning. In fact, Nicosia Master Plan has been prepared in that manner based on the case law. Planning policies and decisions reflected at 1/25000 scale maps are open to comments, thus the planning permission process is very important and planners should interpret the policies and decisions for making the final decision. However, the Town Planning Department is not working in that manner. Planning permission process is done through only checking some rules for buildings and plot ratios by the officers who are architects, engineers and even technicians rather than urban planners.

In this context, low quality places can be observed all around the city created by existing approach to the implementation process of planning. In order to change the existing approach and improve place quality of the city, the plan should be questioned

through physical place quality attributes perspective and public policies can be suggested for providing a more effective implementation process.

5.3 Evaluating Physical Place Quality of Nicosia, Northern Cyprus

As it has been mentioned in previous lines, Nicosia is the first city in Northern Cyprus that has a master plan. In fact, according to the Planning Law 55/89, before preparing master plans there should have been a National Physical Plan acting like a guideline including planning and public policies which should be utilized in master plans. However, Nicosia Master Plan had been entered into force in 2001, long before National Physical Plan, which was enacted in 2015. Thus, it is expected that the master plan would have deficiencies in terms of policies, before claiming that the plan should be evaluated with physical place quality attributes. In order to do so, the evaluation table suggested in Chapter 4 can be utilized to understand the context of the Nicosia Master Plan in terms of public policies related with physical place quality attributes.

Table 40: Evaluating physical place quality attributes within Nicosia Master Plan

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Public policies
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Density and Intensity	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Population density	✓ Chapter 6.1: Population Distribution
			Building density	✓ Chapter 6.13: Density, Plot Rations & Heights
	Land-use Mix	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Distance between house and nearest store	X
			Dissimilarity index-number of different land uses	✓ Chapter 6.7: Commerce
			Are the land use decisions supporting each other?	Community Vision
	Multiple Housing Options	City Centers Neighborhoods	Single/multiple housing options	X
			Price ranges of the houses	X
			The government policies and strategies for housing	✓ 63/2007 Housing Supply Law

	Street Scale	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Ratio between building heights and street widths	✓ CAP 96 Streets and Buildings Regulations ✓ Chapter 6.13: Density, Plot Rations & Heights
			Setback- distance from street to the buildings	
	Aesthetic Qualities	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Design of the Buildings	✓ CAP 96 Streets and Buildings Regulations
			Landscaping	X
			Public Amenities	X
	Preservation of Historic Structures	Urban Historic Quarters	Strategies and policies for conservation and preservation	✓ 60/1994 Historic Structures Law
			Restoration or rehabilitation for obsolete historical elements	X
LEVELS OF DERELICT LAND	Derelict Land	Whole City	Percentage of derelict land	X
	Vacant Land		Percentage of vacant land	X
	Brownfield Areas	Whole City	Strategies and policies for brownfield development	X
	Lost Spaces	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Percentage of lost spaces	X
QUALITY OF PARKS AND GREEN AREAS	Recreational Areas	Whole City	Size of the Recreational areas	✓ Chapter 6.10: Open Spaces & Recreational areas
			Evaluation of the residents	Community Vision
	Green Infrastructure	Whole City	Strategies and policies for Green Infrastructure	X
			Evaluation of the residents	Community Vision
PUBLIC REALM QUALITY	Animation	Public Realm	Diversity	X
			Adaptability	X
			Flexibility	X
			Active Edges- semipublic space	X
	Image	Public Realm	Branding	X
			Design Excellence and Innovation	X
			The ‘wow’ factor	X
	Sense of Place	Public Realm	Local Distinctiveness	X
			Public Art	X

As it is illustrated in table 40, each criterion of physical place quality attributes is utilized for evaluating physical place quality of Nicosia through its master plan. Each criterion is checked to see whether it exists in the plan or not. In the built environment attribute, the first issue which is population density has been considered within the ‘population distribution’ section of the plan. Actually, it would not be enough to check

only if there is any policy for the criteria, but also the context of the policies should be examined. In fact, the population policy of the plan is only reflecting and supporting existing trend. On the other hand, policy for the building densities are more detailed and effective in the plan. The plan includes policies for different land uses and also there is a regulation for the land use classification, however there is no any policy for 'distance between house and nearest store'. According to the investigations about the multiple housing options, for the criteria of single/multiple housing options there is no public policies, only planning policies exist within the housing section of the plan. Price ranges on the other hand, are only considered as the existing situation, though any policy is not suggested. Within the National Physical Plan there are policies about housing sector and some public policies in the 63/2007 Housing Supply Law, nevertheless the plan does not include them. Policies for street scale are found within the density, plot ratios and heights section of the plan. Additionally, CAP 96 Streets and Building Regulations which is an old English legislation still valid in Northern Cyprus, includes some public policies for street scale. The regulation is also effective on design of buildings, however there is not any public policy for the design of buildings in the plan. For the landscape issue the plan does not include any policies. Public amenities also considered through planning policies in the plan, rather any public policy. For the last indicator of built environment, preservation of historic structures, there are planning policies within the urban conservation areas of the plan and also public policies in the 60/94 Ancient Monuments Law. However, the policies are only for conservation and preservation of the historic areas, rather than determining obsolescence levels and suggesting needed interventions such as restoration or rehabilitation.

Figure 16: Shopping street in Nicosia, no building design, no landscapping


Figure 17: A residential area in Nicosia

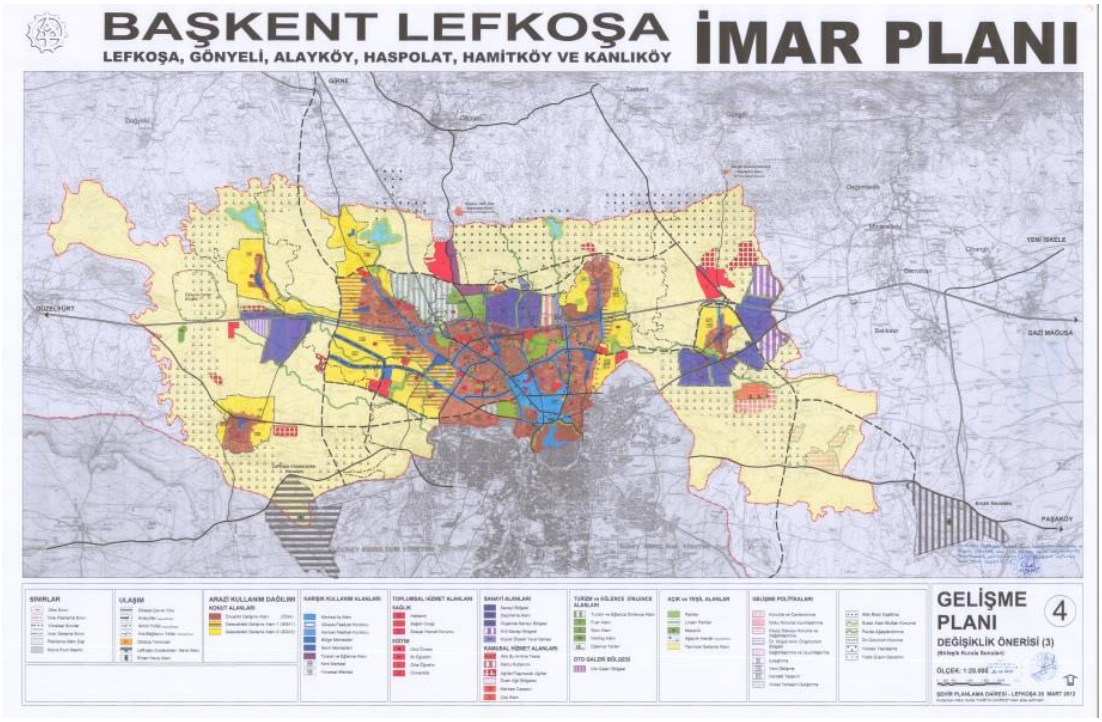

Figure 18: Nicosia Master Plan- 1/25000 development plan

The second attribute of physical place quality is levels of derelict land including derelict lands with vacant land, brownfield areas, and lost spaces. Nevertheless, in the Nicosia Master Plan there is only a study for vacant land calculation to understand existing situation, but no policies have been suggested for the areas. The plan doesn't define vacant land, derelict land, brownfield areas and lost spaces, and no policies for such urban problems are suggested.

Figure 19: A vacant land in a residential area of Nicosia

Figure 20: Unused car park in Nicosia, North Cyprus-lost space

The plan includes policies for size of the recreational areas, standards for local green spaces and sport areas. Additionally, there is a planning policy which says that the lands above 8000 square meters has to transfer 10% of their lands to the public as green spaces. This policy is obviously not an integrated approach, in other words fragmented piece of green spaces are useless within an urban area. As it has been highlighted in Chapter 2, green infrastructure concept is an efficient way for providing sustainable green spaces in the cities. However, the Nicosia Master Plan does not include any policy for such a concept.

Finally, the last attribute of physical place quality, that is public realm quality, has not been considered within the plan. In fact, public realm quality is rather an urban design issue, and as significant as has to be focused in a master plan through public policies. Since there is no public policies about public realms, they can be rented to coffee shops, cafes or restaurants to be used by their clients, rather than creating a public space for all citizens.

Figure 21: Famous public space of Nicosia, (2022) in use of a coffee shop

Evaluation table (table 40) is developed through a normative approach to determine physical place quality of Nicosia through public policies that are provided within its master plan. As it can be understood from the table, most of the criteria of physical place quality have been disregarded in the plan. In this sense, it would be possible to say that Nicosia suffers from low place quality and needs public policies to improve its place quality.

5.4 Formulating Public Policies for Improving Place Quality in Cities of Northern Cyprus

Assessment of Nicosia Master Plan with a focus on physical place quality has shown that the city would have low quality places, since most of the attributes does not regarded within public policies (see Table 40). As it has been explained several times in this thesis, any decisions for development of a city would need an implementation alternative such as planning tools, planning policies or public policies. Planning tools in Northern Cyprus are not included within its Planning Law (55/89), therefore until the law is changed most of the plan decisions cannot be applicable only if there are

strong policies suggested. In this context, public policies have gained crucial role in improving place quality.

Reviewing the evaluation table of Nicosia's physical place quality section by section according to its attributes would be an effective way for suggesting policies. In the built environment section, firstly, policy about land use mix- 'distance between house and nearest store' should be suggested. Such distance should be as short as possible, as it is mentioned in Vienna' 2025 urban development plan. The trips should be calculated considering non-motorized transportation (on foot or by bicycle) for every citizen. A public policy would also be suggested for this issue by considering public transportation stops. Multiple housing options are also missing within policies. 'Single/multiple housing options' should be suggested by calculating housing demand and supply. Within changing time, people would demand for different types of living spaces in different parts of the cities. These parameters as well as price ranges of the houses should be measured and most efficient policy should be provided to improve options for citizens.

Aesthetic qualities is another disregarded issue within the plan. Especially landscaping in the built environment is a crucial quality, which should be suggested through a set of policies. In fact, suggesting a guideline, which could include Cyprus weather conditions and vegetation, would be an effective policy for providing appropriate landscaping for the city. Additionally, many different public amenities could improve aesthetic quality of cities such as street furniture and lighting. A design guideline for public amenities can be suggested as a set of policies as well.

In order to ensure that physical place quality attributes, especially built environment, are implemented in cities, building codes or design guidelines composed of public policies are needed. As John Punter (2007, p.180) illustrates, a design guideline would include

> "going beyond architectural control to focus on urban design and the spaces between buildings, giving full consideration to sustainable forms of development; basing guidelines on both generic principles and careful contextual analysis; and carefully selecting the level of intervention and not stifling innovation, spontaneity and pluralism in design and development."

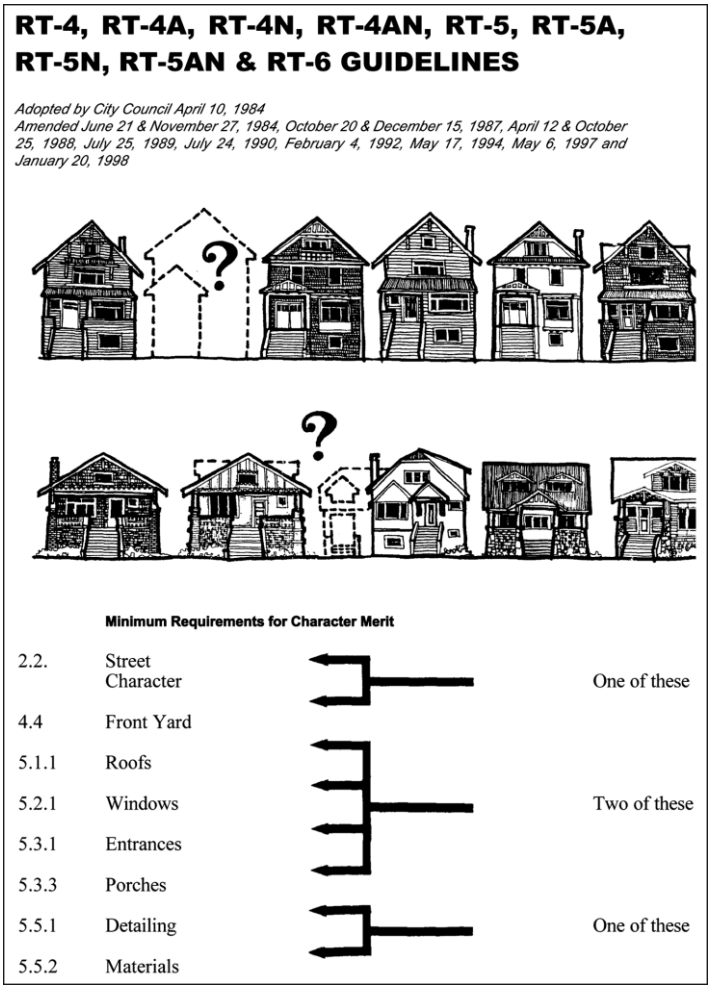

Figure 22: City of Vancouver RT zoning design guidelines (1997) (Punter, 2007, p. 181)

Preservation of historic structures has been considered in the plan and policies has been provided. However, depending on the physical place quality criteria, determining

obsolescence levels of historic structure is very important to be able to providing most appropriate intervention for preservation of historical heritages.

Table 41: Suggesting policies on built environment for improving physical place quality of Nicosia

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Public policies
BUILT ENVIRONMENT	Density and Intensity	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Population density	✓ Chapter 6.1: Population Distribution
			Building density	✓ Chapter 6.13: Density, Plot Rations & Heights
	Land-use Mix	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Distance between house and nearest store	-Considering public transportation stops. -as short as possible - considering non-motorized transportation (on foot or by bicycle) for every citizen
			Dissimilarity index- number of different land uses	✓ Chapter 6.7: Commerce
			Are the land use decisions supporting each other?	Community Vision
	Multiple Housing Options	City Centers Neighborhoods	Single/multiple housing options	✓ Chapter 6.3: Housing -Providing percentages of different types of living spaces
			Price ranges of the houses	X -calculating all parameters to provide a sufficient range of prices
			The government policies and strategies for housing	✓ 63/2007 Housing Supply Law
	Street Scale	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Ratio between building heights and street widths	✓ CAP 96 Streets and Buildings Regulations
			Setback- distance from street to the buildings	
	Aesthetic Qualities	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Design of the Buildings	✓ CAP 96 Streets and Buildings Regulations -Provinding building codes
			Landscaping	X -Proving a guideline
			Public Amenities	X -Providing a design guideline
	Preservation of Historic Structures	Urban Historic Quarters	Strategies and policies for conservation and preservation	✓ 60/1994 Historic Structures Law
			Restoration or rehabilitation for obsolete historical elements	X -Determining obsolescence levels of historic structure and providing most appropriate intervention

Levels of derelict land is totally disregarded in the Nicosia Master Plan. First of all, derelict and vacant lands, brownfield areas and lost spaces should have been determined, then according to their percentages within city precautions should be taken for providing regaining of those areas to the city for example as public spaces, social housing or recreational areas and etc. If there are not such areas found in city, then some precautions again should be taken for preventing lands to become derelict or vacant.

Table 42: Suggesting policies on levels of derelict land for improving physical place quality of Nicosia

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Public policies
LEVELS OF DERELICT LAND	Derelict Land	Whole City	Percentage of derelict land	X -regaining of those areas to the city -as public spaces -as social housing -as recreational areas
	Vacant Land		Percentage of vacant land	
	Brownfield Areas	Whole City	Strategies and policies for brownfield development	
	Lost Spaces	City Centers Activity Spines CBD Neighborhoods	Percentage of lost spaces	

There are strategies and policies for the recreational areas in the plan, however, in order to understand the quality, consultation should be done with citizens. How satisfied the citizens are with the recreational areas would confirm the success of the strategies and policies within the plan. Green infrastructure, on the other hand, is disregarded. Policies should be suggested for creating green infrastructure in Nicosia. The policies should be generated depending on the existing data and community vision.

Table 43: Suggesting policies on quality of parks and green areas for improving physical place quality of Nicosia

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Public policies
QUALITY OF PARKS AND GREEN AREAS	Recreational Areas	Whole City	Size of the Recreational areas	✓ Chapter 6.10: Open Spaces & Recreational areas
			Evaluation of the residents	Community Vision
	Green Infrastructure	Whole City	Strategies and policies for Green Infrastructure	X Connecting all of the open and green spaces with each other, for generating an ecological network
			Evaluation of the residents	Community Vision

Public realm quality is another physical place quality attribute which is totally ignored in the plan. There is a need for a design guideline for making high quality public realm in the city. The guideline, which would be composed of public policies, should include all the indicators of public realm quality and their criteria.

Table 44: Suggesting policies on quality of parks and green areas for improving physical place quality of Nicosia

Physical Place Quality	Indicators	Part of the city	Criteria of Indicators	Public policies
PUBLIC REALM QUALITY	Animation	Public Realm	Diversity	X -Design guideline for public realm quality
			Adaptability	
			Flexibility	
			Active Edges-semipublic space	
	Image	Public Realm	Branding	
			Design Excellence and Innovation	
			The 'wow' factor	
	Sense of Place	Public Realm	Local Distinctiveness	
			Public Art	

As to conclude, after evaluating the NMP in terms of public policies related with physical place quality attributes, it has been detected that most of the attributes are disregarded in the plan. Therefore, building codes, guidelines and strategies are

suggested for those missing attributes. These suggestions will need further studies in order to be able to determine relevant public policies.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION

In mid-1990's, urban design has become main concern of urban planning in quest for protection of a sense of place and local distinctiveness within globalizing world. Correspondingly, the cities have started to questioned through liveability perspective. Planners are paying attention on how to improve cities' attractiveness, which would provide people want to live, work and visit. In this sense, many scholars had worked on the liveability issue and suggested different approaches.

By exploring approaches of liveability, it has been understood that the most comprehensive and clear approach has been suggested by Yeang (2006) that he studied liveability with its dimensions. According to Yeang, the dimensions of liveability are environmental quality, physical and functional place quality and safer places. Based on the arguments, it is claimed that quality of place is acting like an umbrella among other dimension, since, as long as high-quality places are provided in cities, consequently it will have safer places and high-quality environment. In this context, urban plans should include quality of place attributes for providing more liveable cities.

As Yeang defined, quality of place is composed of two dimensions; functional and physical place quality. Functional place quality deals with accessibility and transportation issues and physical place quality includes built environment, quality of

parks and green spaces, levels of derelict land and public realm quality. Functional place quality has been studied deeply in previous study, master thesis, and provide a base for measuring accessibility of cities for suggesting improvements for more liveable cities. Therefore, this thesis has been focused on physical place quality, searching for its attributes, indicators and criteria with similar approach.

Literature review on physical place quality attributes reveals that they are all included within design qualities of urban design discipline in detail. It is claimed that just like urban design principles and qualities, physical place quality attributes should have taken place in planning systems.

There are two main planning systems which are discretionary and regulatory. As John Punter (2007) interpreted, both systems are criticized as they are too flexible and too restricted respectively. Punter explains the establishment of design review which aimed to integrate urban design principles in to urban planning as public policies, and that would provide two planning systems to come closer each other. The design review has seemed as a successful example for integrating and implementing physical place quality attributes.

The success of coming closer of the two different planning systems are observed in the most liveable city for the last ten years, Vienna. In Vienna, Germanic planning system is utilized, which differs from other planning systems since it includes flexibility although it has a regulatory planning approach. This is a good example for discretionary planning systems where regulatory system is a need for the implementation of the planning decisions without speculations created by the flexibility in the system.

The planning decisions would be implemented through planning policies, planning tools and public policies. However, planning policies are for the general concerns of the plan- where would developments take place, and planning tools are mostly utilized for land-use control. Public policies, on the other hand, are the actions of the government that are affecting people's life. In this context, just like the statement 'urban design is public policy', physical place quality would be integrated and implemented through public policies. Even if there are planning policies or planning tools related with physical place quality attributes, public policies are still needed in order to be able to reflecting the attributes in cities.

Being aware of the importance of physical place quality for cities and effectiveness of public policies for integrating physical place quality with urban plans, cities of Northern Cyprus are criticized and Nicosia Master Plan is examined through this perspective, observations and preliminary research reveals that the cities are suffering from low quality places. Actually, planning system of Northern Cyprus is based from British model of planning so that the system is centralized and based on policies. Therefore, public policies gain an important role for integrating physical place quality attributes.

From this point of view, master plans of cities in Northern Cyprus could be evaluated in terms of their physical place quality. The first city to have a master plan in North Cyprus is Nicosia and Nicosia Master Plan is evaluated, in Chapter 5. Evaluation result has shown that most of the physical place quality criteria are not considered within the plan. Especially, criteria of levels of derelict land and public realm quality are totally absent in the plan. Thus, a basis/framework for suggesting public policies have been provided on those missing issues for improving physical place quality of Nicosia.

To conclude, physical place quality as public policies within planning systems has been the focus of this study. Two types of planning systems have been defined and problems faced in each system has been explained. The solutions for the problems of the planning systems were somehow mixing the two systems with each other. Public policies gained important role at that point. By utilizing public policies, flexibility could be added to regulatory system and strictness could be added to discretionary system. This situation would provide to create more liveable cities. In this context, development plan of one of the cities in Northern Cyprus, which suffers from low quality places and consequently low liveability, has been questioned through a liveability-based methodology suggested in this study. The methodology included physical place quality attributes, indicators and criteria. As a result, the missing attributes in the plan had been suggested to be integrated and implemented by relevant public policies.

The liveability-based methodology can be utilized for questioning any development plan of any city. This would provide to understand the current and future condition of physical place quality within the city. Additionally, relevant public policies can be produced to be integrated in to plans and implemented in the cities, for proving high quality places.

To be able to provide a set of public policies such as design guidelines, building codes, or regulations for implementation and integration of the attributes of physical place quality with plans, there is a need for further studies. Each attribute with their criteria should be studied deeply for suggesting concrete public policies. Methodologies like Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), which is used for organizing and analysing complex decisions, or Delphi Technique which is conducting multiple rounds of

questionnaires with experts, can be utilized. Those guidelines, codes and regulations should be used in the decision-making stage of planning permission approvals within Northern Cyprus planning system. By this way speculations and interpretations would be eliminated in the planning, in other words strictness would be added to the discretionary planning system of Cyprus, which would provide success in creating and improving physical place quality in its cities.

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