Department of Architecture and
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The Social Value of Urban Design in Mixed Use Developments in London

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In the name of Allah the most Merciful and Beneficent

To my parents for making me be who I am

To Asma, Siba and each member of my lovely family

for their love, endless support and encouragement

ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the United Kingdom (UK) government's influence on the quality of urban design through the role of mixed-use developments. The Urban Task Force (UTF), the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE), the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions (DETR) and others have influenced and shaped development decisions by setting up broad recognition of the value of urban design and quality regeneration of private and public sectors. The thesis is an in-depth analysis of two inner-city mixed-use housing developments with publicly accessible spaces that exemplify this trend in valuing spaces that are available to the public in response to the drive for regeneration and to counter social exclusion. Empire Square and Bermondsey Square illustrate an interesting model of public/private partnership to provide public spaces that might be applicable elsewhere. These developments also have an effect on issues of control and management which has an impact on the performance of these spaces in our cities. The thesis explored this model of creating urban public spaces through the perspective of the user's perception and sought to identify its perceived value regarding use, identify, social coherence and others.

The work followed a case study approach and employed mixed methods. An extensive review of the literature helped to establish the criteria of analysis of case studies, social value and place making; this was to understand both the patterns of spatial constructions of individuals' actions and perceptions and the social life of publicly accessible spaces. In the two case studies combined, participants at the squares completed a total of a hundred surveys and thirty-three semi-structured interviews; additionally, many site observations were conducted at different times of the day to track human movement, activities, spatial qualities, social interactions and spatial interrelations.

The research has shown that, from the user's perspective, these parameters of social value are linked to vitality, the provision of events and activities, improving the supply of amenities, accessibility, control and the image. The findings demonstrated that, while both projects conform to the generic description of a good placemaking as defined by UTF, CABE, and others, non-tangible and programmatic performances override the perceived quality of aesthetic and form in the delivery of successful places.

The outcomes showed how objectives and principles of urban design are abstract and must be articulated by more detailed guidelines in terms of intangible and non-physical benefits for them to be beneficial for public places and to have an impact on people's lives. The balance between aesthetic aspects and activities and functions that enable and boost social value should occur in places that spread all over our cities. This research suggested that placemaking adds value by balancing the generation of space and behavioural settings to deliver social benefits to our communities.

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CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION

With the increased number of publicly accessible spaces within housing developments in inner-city designed to compete with other cities and attract investment (Space, 2003), the focus of interest among key stakeholders in urban design has tended to focus on the tangible returns offered by these places. Even though scholars have demonstrated that good urban design adds social value (CABE and DETR, 2001, McIndoe et al., 2005), which might increase the intangible benefits to the community and be advanced or hampered by current urban design decisions, the social value of urban design has also been challenged for some time (Carmona et al., 2010b). It thus appears that any social value added by good urban design is difficult to capture and that the social impact of diverse design solutions is less than perfectly clear.

By creating a large number of publicly accessible spaces, the dispersion of the distribution of new development projects can increase the fragmentation of our cities. This enclosure within a limited space also produces a distance from the rest of society that Young (1990) recognizes as a threat to urban diversity. The challenge for publicly accessible spaces in cities lies in their role in connecting the surrounding public spaces such as streets, plazas, sidewalks, parks and other open areas to make a real contribution to the overall city network of public spaces (Toronto, 2014), and in the approaches that have been taken to create cities and the way they represent the views of inhabitants and users regarding the quality of life (Tonnelat, 2010).

Government agencies highlight the benefits of urban public spaces (UTF, 1999, DETR, 2000c, DETR, 2000a, Punter, 2010), which has led to an increase in the number of public spaces provided by the private sector. The quality of urban public spaces has been identified as an instrument that can play an essential role in reducing several urban issues, including social deprivation in UK inner cities (ODPM, 2004).

There has been growing interest in the subject of public space due to the dynamic changes in western societies that have seen a reduction in the amount of public space. During the 1980s, the development and redevelopment of cities and towns drew attention to the essential role of public space in urban areas. Most literature focuses on the importance of public spaces where social interaction and daily activities occur (Madanipour, 1996). This is important because public spaces are now considered essential features of cities and as sites of sociability and

interactions areas. Indeed, the quality of public spaces is often used as an indicator of the quality of urban life (Dines et al., 2006).

According to Roberts and Lloyd-Jones (2010), London in the late twentieth century was suffering from lack of infrastructure, a poor public transportation system, the weakening of its public realm, a lack of investment in culture and, most importantly, the absence of high-quality new buildings. The agenda set out in the Urban Task Force (UTF) report defined a consensus that was developed amongst design professionals, academics and activists (UTF, 1999), and led to close attention from design professionals in London in discussions and aspirations regarding development sites in the central area of the city.

In 2001 and during the mayor tenure of Ken Livingstone more generally (2001–2008), central London had a choice between two possible paths for its development. The first was to restrain growth and pursue a policy of dispersal (Roberts and Lloyd-Jones, 2010) so that the population and their activities would be adequately met by existing infrastructure. The alternative was to encourage further development and growth in central London and use the revenues raised from that growth to fund the necessary improvements. Livingstone opted for the second approach (Roberts and Lloyd-Jones, 2010), which played a vital role in improving the city's quality of life and London's appeal as a focal point for commerce, business and tourism. An improvement in the quality of urban design in London was necessary to boost its economic growth and to reduce social exclusion (Roberts and Lloyd-Jones, 2010).

The creation and management of high-quality public spaces was a key factor in spurring London's urban renaissance. In 2002, Mayor Livingstone's program to create 100 public spaces demonstrated a strong desire to improve such spaces to deliver major results for London. Even though his attempt had its limitations and proved to be time-consuming, there has been a notable shift in the planning of urban public spaces, the significance of which has been widely recognised and even emphasised by local authorities and developers (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013). Consequently, there has been increasing interest, among both academics and practitioners, in evaluating and assessing the quality of urban design in the production of desirable public spaces.

The government has developed a national urban design framework to integrate the principles, processes and practices through national design standards. Comprehensive design advice can be found in the local planning authority practice manual *By Design* (DETR and CABE, 2000),

which is considered by those who influence and shape development decisions a proactive approach to design. Further valuable studies and advice have provided by the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) to determine 'the value of urban design' and 'quality regeneration of public and private sectors'. UTF developed a national urban design framework offering a range of tools to improve design outcomes, although the majority of local authorities proved unwilling to meet all the requirements (Punter, 2010). These government advice documents have provided information and suggestions to be followed, which might influence the development of London.

The concern over quality of urban design has fallen through the gaps created by the increase in the number of professional responsibilities related to urban design (CABE and DETR, 2001). It is not simple to draw attention toward the value of good urban design unless solid evidence of better social and environmental values is provided to go along with economic value. Once quality urban design is regarded as a rational goal, changes in private investment decisions may well be equal to those on the public investment side (CABE and DETR, 2001).

Towards the end of the 1990s, the UK Government launched CABE, funded through the Departments for Culture, Media and Sport and for Local Government, to drive forward a good urban design agenda with the explicit task of taking the campaign for quality to both the heart of government and the outside world (DETR, 2000a). CABE represented an improvement in people's quality of life through good design; it influences and inspires the different stakeholders who make decisions about building places to opt for good design (CABE, 2007b). CABE (2002b) showed the impact of good design on improving the quality of life through the built environment and its urban setting, which has been summarized by Lipton in the *Value of Urban Design* (2001) thusly: "We aim now to cast the net wider than commercial developments and look at capturing the socio-economic value of good design across a range of building types, particularly those in the public sector. We are confident that good design can be shown to bring a variety of benefits, including less crime, a more vibrant public realm, more efficient movement and improved health. All this means less social exclusion and cash savings for the public purse" (CABE and DETR, 2001: 3).

CABE (2006b) has offered guidance regarding how good design of public places can be distinguished from poor design. Key aspects of good design include efficiency, sustainability, resiliency, attractiveness, clarity, suitability for purpose and high responsiveness to context

(CABE, 2006b). Additionally, good design of public space can lead directly to the development of better social interactions in secure and attractive areas with an enriched 'sense of place' (CABE, 2005).

1.1 Problem Definition and Research Questions

The many models of public space management have led to various regulation of uses and conflicts between uses (Carmona et al., 2008). Recently, the complex vision of public spaces that has emerged from regeneration projects has shown that many public space models are available, including publicly accessible spaces that expose different ownership and levels of management, accessibility and control of public space. There has never been a better time for designers, planners and architects to demonstrate the delivery of social value, because there is widespread recognition at different levels, especially among government clients, of the social benefits that can be brought about by good urban design of public spaces. Despite the emerging vision of the intangible benefits of good urban design, evaluating these impacts remains a neglected area among both the private and public sectors; it appears that a culture of feedback is missing. The need for publicly accessible spaces to be assessed and reassessed again could readjust urban public space to accomplish a particular level of social benefits.

The social value of urban design depends on the inputs of regeneration developments which can provide connections between people, create or enhance opportunities for positive interactions, reinforce social identity and civic pride, encourage social inclusion and contribute towards to improved well-being, morale, neighbourly behaviour, safety and security while reducing vandalism and crime (CABE, 2006c).

Despite ongoing debate and increasing practical examples over the past thirty years, there are only a few studies that examine the social value of urban design and its relative place in the hierarchy of the benefits of design. Because there is only limited empirical research to date, this study focused heavily on the empirical evidence that is available in the previous literature and generated data from case studies to contribute to this aspect of the field of urban design. This study explores the social value of urban design at a deeper level by investigating two publicly accessible spaces purely from the social dimension, without factoring in economic aspects of those projects. The study thus aims to detail the potential contributions of achieving successful urban places from a social value perspective.

However, definitive answers about the social value of urban design are not simple to obtain. Complex methods are required to even approach conclusive results that actually expose the nature of added social value. Even though a design may have one direct and relatively easily measured impact regarding economic value; the uses and functions of the area as a whole will be significant in creating other values.

This research seeks to explore the social value that can be provided by the urban design through analysing public spaces within new mixed-use developments at the level of the relationships between the developments' inhabitants and local residents in the surrounding areas and these accessible public spaces. Moreover, this study examines the impact of privately managed and controlled public spaces on vitality and accessibility for all social groups within the neighbourhood. It is based on an extensive review of the literature and empirical work to explore the social value attached to the publicly accessible spaces of two mixed-use development in London.

In modern societies, a fundamental question has been raised about place as a product that is generated by design and architecture. How does good urban design produce different values—economic, social and environmental—to cities? Can high-quality public spaces provide intangible benefits, especially social benefits, to everyday users? How can those users capture the social value that emerges from good urban design? (CABE and DETR, 2001). All of the above concerns have been raised by the small body of researchers that have examined the relationships between social value and design. Given that this is a neglected yet significant area in the built environment research field, this study focuses strictly on the social value, that generated by good urban design to enhance better understanding of this phenomenon, without trying to balance social value with other types of value such as the economic or the environmental. The research seeks to answer the following question:

How can urban design affect the social value of publicly accessible spaces?

To answer this question, it is necessary to look at the means of creating, maintaining and experiencing places. While it is important to understand what place means to its users and to recognise the distinctive and essential elements of place and how human experience creates, transforms and maintains place, this study aims to understand the social construction of place through the physical environment to expand the knowledge of the social value of urban design.

1.2 Research Aims and Objectives

The primary aim of this study is to identify a correlation between the quality of urban design and social value in publicly accessible open spaces within mixed-use housing developments. The study seeks to examine the relationship between people and public places, relating patterns of use and perceptions of design quality and social value to the physical parameters of the behavioural environment. It examines both design-related indicators and non-physical design initiatives that can affect socio-spatial values. This study argues that good urban design can provide social value. Accordingly, it seeks to make a case for designing public spaces that explicitly aims to generate not only economic and use value but also social value.

The study is undertaken through a critical evaluation and adaptation of the existing frameworks for evaluating the quality of place. The study is proposed to work in a complementary manner to achieve an understanding of the behavioural, perceptual and social dimensions. The framework of this study focuses on how to maintain and foster the production of social value city's urban spaces through a case study method. The research methods facilitate understanding the social life of public places, such as uses and user perceptions to examine the physical features and human behaviours, gain knowledge of spatial constructions of individuals' actions and perceptions.

This study explores the social value of urban design by combining the intangible outcomes that can bond people together, generate interactions, reinforce a sense of place and sense of community, provide a feeling of security and encourage neighbourly behaviour. It focuses on what is meant by 'value' and 'good' urban design to seek a better understanding of this phenomenon. This study is important because it demonstrates how good urban design as a whole force has effects on a variety of outcomes, such as social interactions, a sense of place and a feeling of security while also avoiding excessive claims about it.

This study will assist designers, planners and decision makers to improve their understanding of the construction of social value and its correlation with the physical context. It is intended to illustrate the benefits of good-quality design, particularly in urban areas, and to encourage the delivery of social value in a wider form to the community as a whole rather than only to a particular development and its inhabitants. The study demonstrates the ability of the physical and tangible aspects of design to define the socio-spatial articulation of place and enhance users' experience and sense of meaning of a place. The study focused on a literature review

that emphasises the need for high-quality urban design to improve understanding of its impact on outcomes. It represents an effort that determine some aspects of the nature of values that can be obtained from good urban design solutions. This study adopts and deploys case studies approach for assessing place by combing both physical and intangible aspects of the place that can describe the socio-spatial relation of place and demonstrate users and residents' perception of place. This approach might lead to findings that support the emergence of new framework to evaluate the social value of urban design. Table 1-1 demonstrates the main aim, objectives and methods that are used to conduct the research.

Table 1-1: The research question, aims and objectives of this study

AIM	
▪ How can urban design affect the social value of publicly accessible spaces?	
OBJECTIVES	**METHODS**
• To demonstrate the role of the high-quality of publicly accessible spaces in establishing of generating use and image values that together support the generation of social value	• Literature review • Questionnaires • Unobtrusive observations
• To demonstrate the role of physical and non-physical design components in a sense of place to elucidate some aspects of the essence of social value	• Literature review • Questionnaires • Unobtrusive observations
• To demonstrate the effectiveness of physical appearance, activities and function and meaning of mixed-use developments' in delivering intangible benefits to its users	• Questionnaires • Unobtrusive observations
• To elucidate the perception of social value of urban design in relation to sense of place	• Semi-structured interviews • Unobtrusive observations

Since a space and its social content are related and it is difficult to conceive a space apart from its social dimension and *vice versa*, this study will help urban designers to understand the potential contributions of the socio-spatial perspectives on the development of a place. For instance, socio-spatial perception is introduced to show the connection between the function of an urban space and its image. The social construction of a place is addressed to understand the relation between place as a foundation of human meaning and the importance of the processes of the construction of places and the formation of urban features. The social behaviour of the users of urban places is expressed to reveal the factors that influence the relationship between users' behaviours and physical settings in the urban environment.

The research objectives address the role of publicly accessible spaces in establishing social interactions and identifying users' behaviours as they relate several factors: those individuals' expectations and needs; in connection with the characteristics of the place, such as access, location, quality of space, and amenities provided; and with regard to the physical settings of the urban place. The research objectives are keen to demonstrate the social benefits of good urban design, the effectiveness of mixed-use developments in the surrounding neighbourhood, users' perception of the social value of urban design and determining the role of urban design in improving social interactions and affecting the usage patterns of inhabitants and nearby residents within an urban place.

There are boundaries between the individuals and societal aspects in this study that are defined such that a place is not solely created for use, but also for a deeper purpose. In this regard, a considerable number of studies examine the human relationship with the environment in a dual context that has expressed the visual and perceptual side of urban places (Lynch, 1960, Bradford et al., 1997, Tufte, 1998, Amoroso, 2010). This study explores users' and residents' perceptions of a place such as place impression, place attachment, place vitality, and sense of community to understand more fully the added social value created by good urban design. This approach is combined with behavioural and social dimensions to illustrate the complexity of the role of urban places in operating as producers of change in the context of a city. This approach divides the notion of the behavioural environment from the comprehensive understanding of the spatial dimension of design.

Intangible benefits are interactions, encounters or occurrences that do not have a physical presence and cannot be perceived by the senses. This study will analyse the behavioural, social and perceptual dimensions of public spaces and their inter-relations to develop a better understanding of the essence of social value in public spaces and to explore actual spatial interactions. The practical outcomes and recommendations of this study are directed towards building knowledge for planners, urban designers, architects, decision makers and consultants. The desired outcome of the overall findings is to contribute to the effective management of the public realm.

1.3 Research Scope and Limitations

The research accommodates the investigation of the related influences between the social dimension of urban design, design quality and urban places by conducting an inquiry of the

contribution of the social value of urban design in the formation and transformation of the urban place. As Chapter Two details, investigating the interdisciplinary phenomena of the urban place and the complexity of the urban design field makes it difficult to limit the research within the borders of a single discipline because the substance of the study implicates issues raised across different disciplines.

Due to time and source limitations of the study, the scope of the research is limited to investigating the relationship between individuals and urban public spaces within urban regeneration projects, focusing on the role of urban design in developing this relationship. This study deals only with publicly accessible space to recognize its potential and requirements and its relation and contribution to producing social impacts; specifically, it examines urban regeneration projects in the UK context. As the subject of the study is extensive and the study objectives cover a wide range of discipline, intense selectivity in sources is required to express perceptions of social value and urban place and in the selection of case studies to clarify the argument of this research.

This study depends on a large volume of empirical information obtained from a variety of sources. The thesis uses three primary sources of data. Firstly, it introduces the critical literature on the nature and provision of public spaces, the relationship between good urban design and adding tangible and intangible benefits and the social issues at play in publicly accessible spaces. The second source is accessible secondary data, including government documents, reports and research conducted by a number of organisations and institutions, particularly in the UK, including the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions (DETR) and, CABE and CABE Space. The third source consists of perceptions and opinions regarding the social impact of urban design on urban places found especially in the case studies.

The major limitations of this study arise from either a lack of accessibility to documents and data or from a lack of resources. The lack of accessibility to data and documents prevented the study from generating a broader range of knowledge about the implications of social value in the design of each case development. I was unable to engage in dialogue with the private firms that developed each square, or with Southwark Council, despite many attempts to arrange meetings with the developers, investors, and designers of each case development to gather further data on design and social matters. Moreover, there was no response to my efforts to conduct an in-depth interview with the planning and building control body of the Borough of

Southwark. Since users of public spaces are a valuable source of information about local conditions, and there was such a notable lack of communication with designers, developers and local authorities, the study focused on the developments' residents, users and occupants to gather the necessary data. This led the study to explore the social value of urban design as a product delivered to the actual users of the public spaces, irrespective of the viewpoint of other stakeholders. In this study, the terms 'users' and 'residents' are employed interchangeably and refer not only to the people who live or work within or close to the squares but also to passers-by and shoppers.

1.4 Research Methodology

The present study must undertake the analysis of socio-spatial behaviours in relation to the social value as a means of assessing the value of urban design. For such a research study in the context of social science, the methodology is the theoretical background knowledge that demands appropriate research strategy and data collection. An analytical approach is adopted for evaluating participants' behaviour and their social perceptions of a place. This study draws on the findings of a case study that includes desk work, field work, and interview methods that involved studying qualitative approach in data collection.

Several different research methods have been combined in this study into one comprehensive methodology. Therefore, the knowledge claim for both case studies is that the overall methodology will provide both qualitative and quantitative data. There were two major trips undertaken in order to obtain data for this study. In total, 100 surveys were collected for the two case studies combined. The participants were asked to answer face-to-face surveys of about five to eight minutes in length. They were occupants, managing agents, residents, tourist and everyday users. The purpose of the first trip was to conduct site observations and collect response form questionnaire, which was based on five major elements to generate data for this study. It was determined that questionnaires would usefully supplement and extend the data of physical features, spatial values, accessibility, community, and quality of space. In the first trip, multiple site observations were undertaken to offer a representative view of the movements, types of activities, spatial qualities, social interactions, façade interactive points, and arrival points at each square during different times of the year. Taken together, the observations aimed to trace human behaviour in publicly accessible spaces.

The main purpose of the second trip was to compensate for the limitations of the questionnaire as a source of inquiry; semi-structured interviews were undertaken on this visit to elucidate unclear points that emerged from the questionnaire and multiple site observations. Participants were invited to spend 10 minutes on face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Each semi-structured interview was divided into six categories: expectation, place impression, place attachment, place vitality, sense of community and well-being. These categories ensured that the collected data conformed to the social dimension of the physical environment. The possibility of this data to take the research to another level was limited due to the difficulty of capturing the intangible benefits of urban design (Macmillan (2006).

The findings from each case are demonstrated in several charts and tables to express a valuable range of knowledge that promotes the understanding of the outcomes of the observational and socio-spatial analysis work. The 33 semi-structured interviews were undertaken to compensate for the data limitations that arose from the questionnaires carried out on the first trip. The semi-structured interviews were constructed to cope with a lack of understanding among some questionnaire participants of the complexity of vitality. Therefore, the questions on the second trip established the final aims of the study by encouraging participants to reveal their opinions in their own words. At the same time, the primary goal of the interviews was not to measure the user perceptions but rather to recognize the relationship of social value to urban design.

In addition, many site observations for this study were carried out during several visits to the field, at different times of the day in both cases. The unobtrusive observational approach was used to track human movement, human activities, spatial qualities, social interactions and spatial interrelations. Pedestrian traffic movement and static activities such as gathering and meeting were recorded on the basis of where individuals sat, met and moved. The outcomes of the site observations offer a comprehensive vision of the movement within and use of each square during different times of the day, thus reflecting the actual socio-spatial relationships that exist within them.

This research adopts a comparative analysis approach that aims to minimize the deficiency of research work. This approach can also generate findings that support and benefit the overall outcome of the research. A comparative study is the ideal approach for such a study due to its understanding of the socio-spatial interrelation and social values (Ragin, 1989). The

comparative analysis approach allows the researcher to evaluate the theories and test the outcomes of the study.

1.5 Thesis Structure

The thesis was structured in three main parts: the first part introduces the study and shows its objectives, conceptual definitions and theoretical background; the second part identifies the research methodology and introduces the two case studies and their analysis; and the third part includes the discussion and conclusion.

Part 1: Objectives, conceptual definitions and the theoretical background related to the context of the study

Chapter 1: Introduction

In this chapter, the project's aims and objectives are introduced and the need to explore the relationship between urban design and social value attached to publicly accessible spaces is demonstrated to understand the potential contributions of the socio-spatial perspectives in relation to the development of a place. This chapter also shows the scope and limitation of the study and demonstrates the difficulty of exploring the interdisciplinary phenomena of the urban place and the complexity of the urban design field. Finally, it details the methodological approach—the case study—that has been employed to undertake this study.

Chapter 2: Urban Design and Quality Value

In this chapter, a literature survey is presented on high-quality urban design that is needed to improve understanding the impact of good urban design on outcomes; the author emphasises the importance of the literature that recognises the value added to public spaces by good urban design and described previous attempts to identify the nature of values that can be obtained from good urban design. I also explore the previous different instruments used to capture the tangible and intangible outcomes of good urban design and offer a critical review of the limitations in the discourse and research on the value of urban design.

Different tools exist in the literature regarding assessing the external impacts of high-quality urban design and addressing major fundamental aspects that demonstrate how urban designers and planners can understand the potential contributions of socio-spatial perspectives to the development of a place. In this chapter, evidence of the difficulty in capturing the essence of

social value that is added by good urban design are laid out. It supports the need for further exploration to achieve a better understanding of the direct effect of urban design in adding social value.

Understanding the external impact of the urban environment with various tools such as Design Quality Indicators (DQIs), the Value in Design (VALiD) and Spaceshaper shows their limitations. There are certain drawbacks associated with the use of these models in providing more data that relates to user perceptions of publicly accessible spaces. They focus largely on evaluating the quality of the physical setting of the urban environment of a place and what needs to be improved. In this chapter a step further is taken by stepping on several valuation tools to come up with a method that can allow deeper insight into the social value of urban design.

Chapter 3: The Social Construction of a Place

The author provides insight into the social construction of a place through the physical environment. Socio-spatial perception is introduced to show the relationship between the function of the urban spaces and its appearance. Then, the social construction of a place is addressed to understand the relation between place as a foundation of human meaning and the importance of the processes of the construction of places and the formation of urban features. Afterwards, social behaviour in the physical setting of public space is analysed to reveal the factors that influence this relationship. Then, place and design are discussed to understand the engagement offered by design and the designer to encourage interaction amongst social groups in public spaces. Social capital is addressed next, so as to understand the patterns and qualities of social relationships in a community. The final section of this chapter deals with the matter of controlling space and other related issues that involve accessibility and social exclusion. This section aims to raise the awareness of the unconscious limitations of social value to the wider community.

Part 2: Research methodology, case studies and analysis

Chapter 4: Methodology

The author presents the research methodology chosen for this study. I express the reasons behind choosing the case study approach as a research method. I also shows the strategy of inquiries which used to demonstrate and evaluate the research outcomes. The selection of case

studies for this research is introduced and justified. The author shows how this research was undertaken, how much data was generated and the data's relation to the research question and how the data were analysed. The research limitations are presented toward the end of this chapter.

Chapter 5: Empire Square Case Study and Research Analysis

The author introduces Empire Square as a case study, the overall data gathering that occurred there and the study's analysis of the results. It is divided into two parts. The first part presents why this case study was selected for this project because it builds an understanding of how humans relate to urban public space and how social value emerges as an external impact of the urban environment. The second part of this chapter deals with the overall data gathering and analysis of this case study. The structure of the analysis also allows for further in-depth discussion well. The data were gathered from two trips, while the analysis contains three sections: the introduction, behavioural analysis and the social and perceptual analysis. The behavioural and observational analysis explores various movements and patterns of activity in spaces, while the social analysis considers the importance of social values. A comparative analysis approach was employed to minimise any deficiencies and to generate findings that support and benefit the overall outcomes of the research.

Chapter 6: Bermondsey Square Case Study and Research Analysis

Similar to the previous chapter, Bermondsey Square as a case study is introduced at the beginning of the chapter. Then, the data gathered was presented and analysed. It is also divided into two parts. The first part introduces the morphology, the process of developing the scheme and its use, the developer's vision regarding the scheme and the landscape of Bermondsey Square. The second part is concerned with the overall data gathering and analysis of this case study. The structure of the analysis also allows for further in-depth discussion. The data were gathered from two trips. The behavioural and observational analysis considers movements and patterns of activity in the location, the social analysis explores the importance of social values.

In the first part of this chapter, the context of selected case study for this project was introduced while the second part carried out individual analyses of the case study. The analysis contains three sections: the introduction, behavioural analysis, the social analysis and the perceptual analysis. The data used in the three kinds of analysis (behavioural, social and perceptual)

cannot stand on their own to generate further recommendations or discussions, so this chapter established analytical knowledge that has created a strong connection between the three dimensions of this study.

Part 3: Discussion and conclusion

Chapter 7: Discussion

In this chapter, the author discusses the two key parameters that are driven by the in-depth analysis of the two case studies, or what inhabitants, occupants and users look at when investigating the social value of urban design. The section on high-quality urban public space highlights the initiatives and policies reflected in the provision of open public spaces. It illustrates that there are common characteristics in the settings of the geographic structure of inner London urban spaces that are exemplified through a comparison of the two case study. The section discusses the intangible concepts of urban public places such as a sense of place and its direct impact on the emergence of place-making as an effective approach when creating high-quality urban spaces.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

The overall outcomes of the study are represented in this chapter. The author summarises the main findings and details the contribution based on the theoretical and practical implications of those findings for the future of social value in urban design. The lessons learned from this experience are laid out and future research opportunities are proposed.

CHAPTER 2 : URBAN DESIGN AND QUALITY VALUE

During the last decades of the twentieth century, the quality of urban design was widely researched, leading to an extensive body of literature on how good urban design can add economic, social and environmental benefits to the built environment. The outlook of critics of the modernist approach to the city, such as Jane Jacobs, Gordon Cullen, Kevin Lynch and Jan Gehl, has become persuasive in shaping the practice what would increasingly be recognized as urban design (Lang, 1994, Castello, 2006, Carmona et al., 2010a). The urban design discourse shows a strong interest in shaping urban space as a tool to make or remake public places, with attention to both the physical setting and social aspect of spaces (Carmona, 2014a). Physical elements and activities can not only create a sense of place but can also contribute to the creation of meaning (Najafi and Shariff, 2011). Moreover, urban design is seen to improve the symbolic value of place for the users of a city (Madanipour, 2006).

The need for the social value of public space within the built environment is a result of surveying the literature on this matter when looking for the quality of physical design alone, without considering the dynamic connections that exist between users and their built environment through the social aspects that mediate those connections. The literature on the quality of the design of public spaces is currently assessed with a variety of methods and by different tools that are not consistent, similar or transparent and adopt several points of view.

This chapter focuses on the literature that considers the need for better urban design and what value and good design mean in relation to the built environment, before introducing the existing methods to evaluate the value of good design in the urban environment. The perspective taken in this chapter argues for a particular definition of good design and how to define the nature and objectives of good design in terms of their relative merits. It explores the benefits of good urban design in a more in-depth consideration of the quality of the design objectives, principles and guidelines that are used to realise good urban design.

In this chapter, the author introduces a comprehensive concept of what establishes good design to offer a basis for making better judgments on that score. It discusses the fundamental principles of value and values to build a platform that helps to define the term ‘value’ reveal the areas that build an understanding of it. The concept of value in relation to urban design and the different types of value in the urban environment are discussed. The final part of the chapter

explores changes over time and the current state of evaluating the value of urban design while demonstrating the various instruments that assess the external impacts of urban design through public spaces.

2.1 Urban Design

Beginning in the early 1960s, a considerable numbers writers and designers, such as Jane Jacobs, Kevin lynch, Gordon Cullen, Richard Hedman, Roger Trancik, Jan Gehl, William Whyte, Raymond Unwin, Amos Rapoport and Henry Arnold, became persuasive in shaping the practice of what would increasingly be recognized as urban design (Lang, 1994, Castello, 2006, Carmona et al., 2010a, Biddulph, 2012). Throughout the 1970s, urban design, despite an unsuccessful decade in practice, experienced a golden decade for thinking and theorising, with contributions from authors and scholars such as Norberg-Schulz, Relph and Canter; Rowley (1994) states that many of the ideas that reinforce the current conceptions of urban design originate from the period of the 1970s.

It is often argued that modern architecture and planning has focused on the properties of 'geometric space', while ignoring the "activities and experiences those spaces are likely to engender for other people" and left the modern era with a legacy of neutral, impersonal public spaces and concrete monuments (Sime, 1986: 50). Contemporary urban design has become concerned mainly with shaping the urban space as an instrument that can make or re-make public places for people to both use and enjoy (Carmona et al., 2010a). Taking into consideration the definition of urban design offers a better understanding of its role and use in relation to public spaces. The term 'urban design' has been growing in applicability as a result of the attention and the growing number of academics and professionals who are engaged in the subject, which has created the need for a clearer definition.

Thus , Carmona et al., in *Public Places Urban Spaces*, define urban design as "the process of making better places for people than would otherwise be produced" (Carmona et al., 2010a: 3), adding that "urban design is not simply a passive reaction to change: it is—or should be—a positive attempt to shape change and to make better places" (Carmona et al., 2010a: 46). Even though ambiguity and confusion in forming accepted definitions of the term urban design have been discussed, substantial attempts to define urban design have emphasised several areas: 'dynamic multiplicity', the visual and spatial aspects of urban design, the spatial or social emphases of urban design, the relationship between the processes and products of designing

cities and the relationship among different stakeholders and their activities (Madanipour, 1996).

The term 'city design' was used by Lynch (1981) to mean "the art of creating possibilities for the use, management, and form of settlements or their significant parts" (Lynch, 1981: 290). The concern of city design is with "objects, with human activities, with institutions of management, and with processes of change" (Lynch, 1981; 290-291).Barnett (1982), in *An Introduction to Urban Design*, sees urban design as "the designing of cities without designing buildings" (Barnett, 1982). To him, urban design is a broad concept for the process of guiding physical design toward urban growth, conservation and change. This notion is understood to include landscape along with buildings, to encompass preservation along with new construction and rural areas as well as cities (Barnett, 1982: 12). According to Stein (as cited in (Lang, 1994: ix) urban design "is the art of relating: structures to one another and to their natural setting to serve contemporary living". Urban design is defined by Rowley (1994) as the approach and process of designing, creating and managing public spaces and places. According to (Lang, 1994: ix) urban design is attached to "the design of the four-dimensional physical layout of human settlements and their parts". Urban design encompasses the creation or improvement of urban spaces and places to achieve high standards of visual quality and functional efficiency (Schurch, 1999). It is applied to ensembles, to arrangements of buildings and human artefacts in urban space, with the combination of humanity and nature in such settings (Colman, 1988). Madanipour (1996) describes urban design as "the multidisciplinary activity of shaping and managing urban environments, interested in both the process of this shaping and the spaces it helps shape" (Madanipour, 1996: 117).

Rowley (1994) understands urban design as "both an approach and a response to the processes of urban change and development" and "a set of considerations and evolving principles concerned with satisfying social and emotional needs as well as the more prosaic requirements of a convenient, safe, healthy and efficient public realm". Therefore, it is "concerned with people's use, perception and experience of places over time", along with "how they work in a practical sense. In short, urban design is about the design, creation and management of "good" urban spaces and places" (Rowley, 1994: 195). Cuthbert (2006) observes that "urban design is fundamentally about the purposive production of urban meaning in certain urban forms" (Cuthbert, 2006: 25). Despite the variation in approach among creators of normative theories, the intention to the re-establish quality of place, especially in the public realm, is a crucial

common denominator (Aravot, 2002). The UK Government's guidebook of urban design, *By Design, Urban design in the planning system: towards better practice* defines urban design as "the art of making places for people. It includes the way places work and matters such as community safety, along with how places look. It concerns 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" (DETR, 2000a: 8). The *Urban Design Compendium 2* uses a similar definition for urban design as "the art of shaping the interaction between people, places, urban form and nature, and influencing the processes which lead to successful villages, towns and cities" (Partnerships et al., 2007: 5). Additionally, the quality of the public realm is one of today's urban design objectives, to ensure that public spaces are attractive, safe and uncluttered and can be used effectively by all people in society (Carmona et al., 2002b).

It is important to understand the ambiguity of urban design definitions before specifying is what meant by good urban design. Madanipour (1996) expresses this ambiguity in two crucial aspects: first is the concept that sees urban design as a producer of beautiful images. The second is the concept of urban design as involving only the aesthetics of the urban environment. The modernist design approach had the desire of changing societies by changing spaces. However, some others see urban design as purely spatial dimensions, regardless of the social side. For instance, architects deal with the product of their designs and planners have shifted their interest from the urban fabric toward policies and procedures. As a result, urban design now stands between planning and architecture. Madanipour also explain how process and product are involved in defining urban design. Urban design as a process is related to the thought of shaping the environment that has been built over time by different actors. Moreover, urban design can be seen as a product that can range from a small part of the city, such as a single streetscape, to a larger one like an entire neighbourhood. Urban design can be defined as multidisciplinary actions involved in the creation and maintenance of the urban environment. Urban designers are involved in all scales of both the social and spatial continuums using visual and verbal means of communication (Madanipour, 1996).

It has been argued by Adams (1994), Lang (1994), Rowley (1998), Jeffrey and Reynolds (1999) that planners, local politicians, architects, people, architects and urban designers have very different perceptions of architectural and place design. The views of what can establish good design in the built environment vary among these stakeholders and rely on the users' perceiving

them rather than on the precise nature of the development. An office employee or shopper may have a very different understanding of what makes a good place for a property manager charged with its upkeep, while a developer may perceive the added value in a development very differently from a nearby resident (CABE and DETR, 2001).

In the UK, the connections regarding which design and development choices are made has evolved in recent years. A restored concern for urban design is evident in the planning process (CABE and DETR, 2001). UTF report has made clear that urban design is considered as a key factor in regeneration. Developers have shown a restored enthusiasm for the part that high-quality design can play in the development process. CABE was established partly to advocate for and justify the effort required to achieve good urban design. As a result, it is all the more critical to be precise about the part that good urban design can play in realising social objectives (CABE and DETR, 2001).

The brief review above makes clear that contemporary urban design is a complex field, in which one key area of agreement is the effect of urban design on the people and how they interact. Indicating the value of good urban design or its social benefits is now part of the determination to connect design quality to the decision-making process.

2.2 The Demand for Promoting Higher Standards in Urban Design

In the late 1990s, the UK government realized the major changes underway in its cities. UTF was set up to identify the reasons behind urban decline and launch a vision to promote successful regeneration and place-making. It was charged to think about urban design not only from the start of planning but also during the development process (UTF, 1999). The UK government has commissioned a number of reports that related to the urban renaissance agenda since the 1990s to evaluate the condition of cities (DETR, 2000b, DETR, 2000e, ODPM, 2005, ODPM, 2006). The government's *State of English Cities* report (DETR, 2000e) emphasized that many English cities had fallen behind their US and European counterparts in terms of urban quality. Raising the standards of urban design and its practice will depend on the various stakeholders behind these projects and the high standards, as visualized in Planning Policy Guidance 1 (PPG1) (DoE, 1997), being involved and supported in the planning system (DETR, 2000a). The *State of English Cities* report (ODPM, 2006) was an independent document that offered an inclusive audit of urban performance in cities, a review of the effect of government policies on cities, an understanding of how cities are changing, a valuation of the drivers of

urban change, a review of lessons learned from successful cities, an assessment of the challenges and opportunities that cities face and a valuation of policy implications to allow cities to build in the context of recent processes (ODPM, 2006). Given the demand for promoting higher standards for urban design, assessments of places and well-designed schemes are needed if good places are to be created.

Punter (2010) argues that UTF report of 1999 and its recommendations and implementations in planning, housing and regeneration practices were still useful in assessing design outcomes as late as 2009. The report of UTF in 1999 focuses on the four components of design excellence, housing design and quality, urban environmental quality and management and local governance and delivery. The urban renaissance is a British government policy that focuses on the urban design dimension of the urban renaissance. It was evaluated by UTF in order to provide the setting to implement the renaissance aims in the major cities of the UK (Punter, 2010).

Mayor Livingstone's 100 public spaces programme took place in 2002 to create new public spaces across London. The mayor believed that the quality of public space should have a direct impact on London's beauty, connectivity and safety. The role of 100 Public Spaces for London was to support the promotion of best practice in enhancements to the public realm (RIBA, 2010). Carmona and Wunderlich (2013) indicate that the 100 Spaces strategy showed the limitation of the mayor's power in the local distribution of the public realm projects. The enormous land ownership, funding and planning complexities combined with lack of dedicated resources and absence of responsibility for the majority of public spaces in London led to inability of the Mayor to deliver on such an ambitious promise (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013). Policy 7.5 B, one of the London Plan policies, requires new development to "… make the public realm comprehensible at a human scale, using gateways, focal points and landmarks as appropriate to help people find their way. Landscape treatment, street furniture and infrastructure should be of the highest quality, have a clear purpose, maintain uncluttered spaces and should contribute to the easy movement of people through the space" (GLA, 2015: 281). These policies and initiatives aimed to establish awareness of the ability of a quality urban environment to have the potential to generate benefits for different stakeholders. The focus on the value of public spaces and the importance of management for these urban spaces were to increase security, liveability and amenity, as UTF suggested. The task force also recommended better "design of the public realm, reducing traffic and improving public transport and walking

conditions in towns and cities, better management of the urban environment as a whole and improving urban green space" (Punter, 2010: 24).

2.3 Good Urban Design

Over the past few decades, the quality of urban design has been discussed in the urban design literature by many writers such as Jacobs, Lynch and Lang. To understand good urban design, specific qualities, goals and principles have to be explored. Lang (1996) indicates that the quality of urban design relies on the quality of the design principles and guidelines that are used to realize design outcomes. He defines the terms objectives, principles and guidelines to show how they inevitably overlap in urban design. For Lang, 'objectives' refer to 'statements of what a design is to achieve', which is a mixture of economic, behavioural and aesthetic aspects. "Principles are statements describing and, ideally, explaining the link between a desired design objective and a pattern or layout of the environment", while guidelines are statements that specify (for uninformed people) how to meet a design objective (Lang, 1996: 9). Lang introduced two types of guidelines Lang (1996). The first was prescriptive a guideline that determines the basic characteristic of the end product. The second is a performance guideline that might be accompanied by advice on the way of achieving the end product (Lang, 1996: 9).

In *A Theory of Good City Form*, Lynch (1981) notes that the quality of a place depends on the joint effect of the place and the society that occupies it. He attempts to identify five fundamental principles that make successful urban places:

- **Vitality**: the degree to which the form of a place promotes vital functions.
- **Sense**: the clarity with which it can be perceived.
- **Fit**: the degree to which the form of a place matches spatial and temporal patterns with the customary behaviour setting of its users.
- **Access**: the ability to reach other people, activities or amenities.
- **Control**: the degree to which users and residents of urban spaces can create and manage access to these spaces and activities.

Jacobs and Appleyard (1987) proposed seven vital qualities for a good urban environment: 'liveability; identity and control; access to opportunity, imagination, and joy; authenticity and meaning; open communities and public life; self-reliance; and justice'. These elements were defined by Jacobs and Appleyard (1987: 115-116) as follows:

- **Liveability**: "a city should be a place where everyone can live in relative comfort".
- **Identity and control:** "people should feel that some part of the environment belongs to them, individually and collectively, some part for which they care and are responsible, whether they own it or not".
- **Access to opportunities, imagination and joy:** "people should find the city a place where they can break from traditional moulds, extend their experience, meet new people, learn other viewpoints and have fun".
- **Authenticity and meaning:** "people should be able to understand their (or other people's) cities, its basic layout, public functions and institutions; they should be aware of its opportunities".
- **Community and public life:** "cities should encourage the participation of their citizens in the community and public life".
- **Urban self-reliance:** "increasingly cities will have to become more self-sustaining in their uses of energy and other scarce resources".
- **An environment for all:** "good environments should be accessible to all".

Sherman (1988) offered a list of qualities or characteristics of successful places (Table 2-1), but only tells us what to look for, not why it is there. It is more than the surface appearance of such indicators that represents good urban places; we should also understand that good public places have a structure and an underlying dynamic of activity (Montgomery, 1998).

In *Making People-Friendly Towns: Improving the public environment in towns and cities*, Tibbalds (1992) proposes an urban design framework that includes ten objectives: place matter most; learn the lessons of the past; encourage mixed uses and activities; create a comfortable human scale; support pedestrian freedom; allow access for all; build a legible environment; produce a lasting environment; control change in the urban environment and contribute to the greater whole. This complicated framework draws more attention to the subjectivity of the design, leading to the fact that it is possible to produce a set of design objectives (Carmona and Tiesdell, 2007).

Rowley (1998) emphasises that urban designers find it difficult to agree on defining good urban design; he reinforces his claim by identifying 50 urban design considerations, classified into four groups: 'functional and social use considerations; natural environment and sustainability considerations; visual considerations; and considerations relating to the quality of the urban experience' (Rowley, 1998: 154). He points out that the quality of urban design cannot be

easily measured; however, adequate time is needed to allow better urban design to occur regardless of design cost. He emphasises that the qualities of an urban form are the result of the circumstances, values and times in which it was produced.

Table 2-1: The indicators of successful urban places, adapted from (Sherman, 1988)

1	Planning will be unseen, and the results will look natural, as though they happen spontaneously
2	There will be interesting and stimulating shapes
3	The 'familiarity' of streets and street life will be celebrated
4	There will be secret places that, once discovered, grow on users, making them look deeper to find more
5	There will be surprises to keep citizens awake, provide topics of conversation and prevent boredom
6	Experimentation will be encouraged, and there will be exciting things to do
7	There will be areas and opportunities for informal, casual meetings to take place
8	Food and drink will be a treat, and people will be able to purchase and consume it at varying prices and degrees of leisure
9	There will be a variety of comfortable places to sit and wait—a city worth living in has to be a city worth sitting in
10	There will be a good balance between the needs to prevent loneliness and to preserve anonymity and privacy
11	Changing seasons will not draw attention away from the sterner pursuits of daily life; rather, they will be an integral part of a continually changing city, and celebrated as such
12	The senses will be heightened: affection/friendliness/hospitality; a sense of belonging; historical and cultural continuity; a sense of fun/humour; opportunities for gossip; open-mindedness; vitality; fantasy; flamboyance; colour; beauty/aesthetic stimulus

Contemporary urban design draws greater attention to "the quality of the public realm—both physical and socio-cultural—and the making (and managing) of meaningful "places" for people to enjoy and use" (Carmona and Tiesdell, 2007: 7). In the UK, a greater understanding of the vital role of urban places and their design and management has developed during the past decade. UTF (1999) brought growing attention towards the issue of the urban environment and the way it should be designed and managed, emphasising how the nature of a plan can affect the quality of the local environment and a place's quality of life. Meanwhile, the pressure from inner-city demands for jobs and economic opportunities have compelled urban policy communities to adopt the position that good design and management are vital for improvements in the economic competitiveness of inner cities (UTF, 1999).

By Design: Urban design in the planning system: towards better practice (DETR, 2000a) reinforces the call in the previous UTF's report *Toward an Urban Renaissance* for greater and better-informed attention to urban design and high-quality urban places. *By Design* emphasises the role of good urban design in building "attractive, high-quality, sustainable places in which

people want to live, work and relax". There is growing attention to better design for places that inspire and can be cherished, places where vibrant communities can grow and flourish (DETR, 2000a: 5). According to Gehl, (2010) high-quality urban places can increase the vitality of public life. He argues that even though the climate differs from one place to another, the level of outdoor activities on a summer day in Rome is the same as Copenhagen.

Good design can support the creation of lively places that have distinctive character and streets and public spaces that are safe, accessible, pleasant to use and human in scale. These objectives have been established to achieve high standards in urban design (DETR, 2000a). *By Design* (2000a) notes the tendency for common characteristics to be considered successful streets, spaces, villages, towns and cities and thus to produce objectives of good urban design. The report identifies seven such objectives (Table 2-2). Both case studies for this research were evaluated initially according to the objectives of urban design that By Design (2000a) produced as shown in Table 2 3 and Table 2 4.

These objectives alone are abstract and need to be articulated by detailed guidelines for them to be beneficial for public places and to have an impact on people's lives. As illustrated in Table 2-5, eight guidelines were laid out to determine the characteristics of the physical form of development (DETR, 2000a). These aspects outline "the overall layout of the place (in terms of its routes and building blocks); its scale (in terms of building height and massing); its appearance (as expressed in details and use of materials); and its landscape (including all the public realm, built and green spaces)" (DETR, 2000a: 17).

As a response to the work of UTF, *Towards an Urban Renaissance*, the Urban Design Compendium (UDC) was developed to complete the design guide *By Design: Urban Design in the Planning System: Towards better practice*. The Compendium was published in 2000 to promote the importance of design quality in creating places. The document offers guidance on achieving and measuring the quality of urban design in developing and restoring urban areas (Davies, 2000). It was created to encourage greater standards in urban design and deliver sound, practical advice to help implement the government's commitment to good design, as outlined in Planning Policy Guidance Note 3: Housing (2000d). The Compendium sets out seven key aspects of urban design: places for people, enrich the existing, make connections, work with the landscape, mix uses and forms, manage the investment and design for change (Davies, 2000: 12). The scope of the Compendium was designed to evaluate at three levels of project

development: 1) commissioning and setting up development projects; 2) designing individual schemes; 3) evaluating project proposals in design terms (Davies, 2000). This document set out a character appraisal inventory to understand the perception of a place's form through understanding its physical and human geography, the morphology of past uses, the landscape and buildings on a site and its vicinity (Table 2-6).

Table 2-2: Objectives of urban design (DETR, 2000a: 15)

Character *A place with its own identity*	To promote character in townscape and landscape by responding to and reinforcing locally distinctive patterns of development and culture.
Continuity and Enclosure *A place where public and private spaces are clearly distinguished*	To promote the continuity of street frontages and the enclosure of space by development that clearly defines private and public areas.
Quality of the Public Realm *A place with attractive and successful outdoor areas*	To promote public spaces and routes that are attractive, safe, uncluttered and work effectively for all in society, including disabled and elderly people.
Ease of Movement *A place with attractive and successful outdoor areas*	To promote accessibility and local permeability by making places that connect with each other and are easy to move through, putting people before traffic and integrating land uses and transport.
Legibility *A place that has a clear image and is easy to understand*	To promote legibility through development that provides recognisable routes, intersections and landmarks to help people find their way around.
Adaptability *A place that can change easily*	To promote adaptability through development that can respond to changing social, technological and economic conditions.
Diversity *A place with variety and choice*	To promote diversity and choice through a mix of compatible developments and uses that work together to create viable places that respond to local needs.

Table 2-3: Empire Square initial evaluation according to the urban design objectives

Urban Design Objectives	Guidelines	Advantages	Shortcomings
Character	To promote a distinctive place with respond to local context	Use of landscaping by providing hard treatment versus natural grass and ash trees	Residential uses dominate modern style development with unattractive ground floor façade
Continuity & Enclosure	To promote well-defined, coherent & enclosed public space	One major space that is well designed with surrounding residential blocks that generate a sense of enclosure	Presence of gate that decreases continuity and less degree of openness into surrounding road
Quality of the Public Realm	To promote attractively, safe, & useful public space	providing safe and attractive public spaces with high-quality materials used in the development; providing proper maintenance	CCTV and signs are prominent
Ease of Movement	To promote a friendly pedestrian environment	Accessible at certain hours of the day; well-defined walking routes well connected to the surrounding	Closed at night; access control by gates
Legibility	To promote understandable & navigable environment	The square is apparently unique; pavilion in the middle is a landmark that provides a visible presence.	Unnavigable from the outside edges of the development
Adaptability	To promote adaptable & flexible environment	The square is detailed designed leaving less space for multi uses; the square is spacious especially when it is empty and not used	The pavilion divided the square into series of spaces; lack active frontage
Diversity	To promote a place with variety & range of uses & experiences	Providing mix uses-offices/hotel/grocery store/gym/nursery /residential units; used mainly for walking through	The square less used because most of the facility accesses are from the outside edges.

Table 2-4: Bermondsey Square initial evaluation according to the urban design objectives

Urban Design Objectives	Guidelines	Advantages	Shortcomings
Character	To promote a distinctive place with respond to local context	Using the old antique market site plus introducing new land-use that is associated with the provision of urban space.	Needs to express the historical significance of the site especially in non-markets days.
Continuity & Enclosure	To promote well-defined, coherent & enclosed public space	Major defined space by residential blocks, hotel and streets; good sense of enclosure between the development and surrounding buildings	
Quality of the Public Realm	To promote attractively, safe, & useful public space	Feeling of safety and security within the square is mainly due to depending on natural surveillance; attractive open space with provision of landscape furniture and sculpture cubes in the border of the square to prevent traffic from entering	Less soft landscape; lacking of the seating area and the place seems spacious on non-market days.
Ease of Movement	To promote a friendly pedestrian environment	Providing largely and friendly pedestrianised environment that encourages walking and well connected to the surrounding area.	Undefined paths when the market is taking place and it seems difficult to walk through at these events.
Legibility	To promote understandable & navigable environment	Easy to navigate through and understand the uses of the development. The hotel stands alone providing sort of landmark beside the bike shed	The connection from Bermondsey St. to the square is less clear
Adaptability	To promote adaptable & flexible environment	Very adaptable public spaces for range of uses with removable furniture in front of restaurants, café and bar	The west edge of the square is less active frontage
Diversity	To promote a place with variety & range of uses & experiences	Providing mix uses-offices/restaurant/bar/hotel/ grocery store/cinema/ residential units; well used during day and night and over the weekend.	The facility and amenities of the site are mainly to serve only working class as leisure spaces

Table 2-5: Aspects of development form (DETR, 2000a: 16)

Layout: Urban structure *The framework of routes and spaces that connect locally and more widely, and the way developments, routes and open spaces relate to one other.*	The layout provides the basic plan on which all other aspects of the form and uses of a development depend.
Layout: Urban grain *The pattern of the arrangement of street blocks, plots and their buildings in a settlement.*	The degree to which an area's pattern of blocks and plot subdivisions is respectively small and frequent (fine grain), or large and infrequent (coarse grain).
Landscape *The character and appearance of land, including its shape, form, ecology, natural features, colours and elements, and the way these components combine.*	This includes all open space, including its planting, boundaries and treatment.
Density and mix *The amount of development on a given piece of land and its range of uses. Density influences the intensity of development, and in combination with the mix of uses can affect a place's vitality and viability.*	The density of a development can be expressed in a number of ways, such as in terms of plot ratio (particularly for commercial developments), number of dwellings or the number of habitable rooms (for residential developments).
Scale: Height *Scale is the size of a building in relation to its surroundings, or the size of parts of a building or its details, particularly in relation to the size of a person. Height determines the impact of development on views, vistas and skylines.*	Height can be expressed in terms of the number of floors, height of parapet or ridge, overall height or any of these in combination; a ratio of building height to street or space width; height relative to particular landmarks or background buildings; or strategic views.
Scale: Massing *The combined effect of the arrangement, volume and shape of a building or group of buildings in relation to other buildings and spaces.*	Massing is the three-dimensional expression of the amount of development on a given piece of land.
Appearance: Details *The craftsmanship, building techniques, decoration, styles and lighting of a building or structure.*	This includes all building elements such as openings and bays; entrances and colonnades; balconies and roofscape; and the rhythm of the façade.
Appearance: Materials *The texture, colour, pattern and durability of materials, and how they are used.*	The richness of a building lies in its use of materials which contribute to the attractiveness of its appearance and the character of an area.

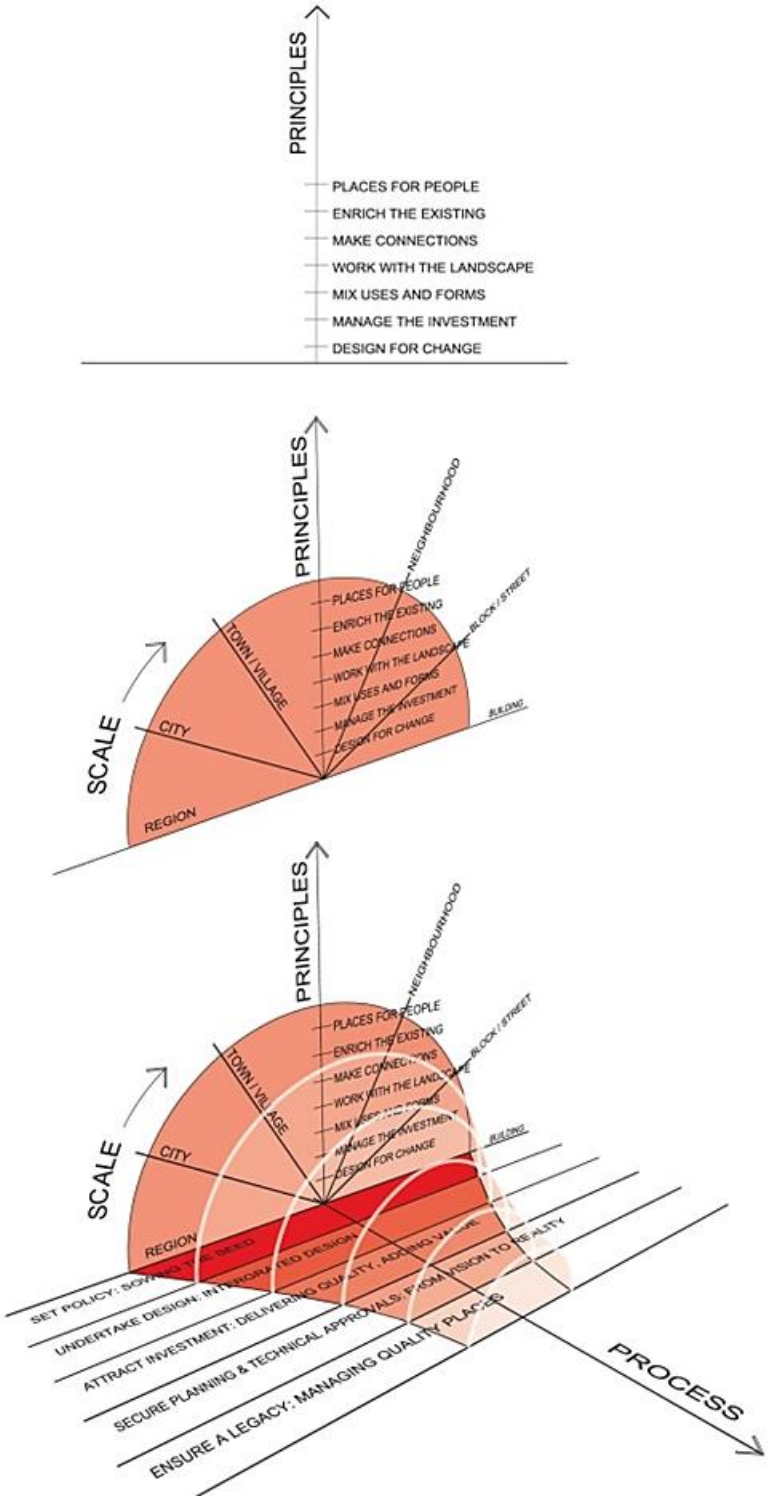
Table 2-6: Character appraisal inventory (Davies, 2000: 24)

	Subject area	Considerations
Roles and relationships of the site/area to its strategic context	▪ Function ▪ Linkages to wider area ▪ Relationship to adjacent areas	▪ Current performance relative to similar areas ▪ Identity
Contiguous areas	▪ Land uses ▪ Views and skyline	
Character appraisal	▪ Historical development ▪ Settlement pattern ▪ Archaeology (initial appraisal) ▪ Cultural characteristics and heritage ▪ Local history ▪ Colour and textures ▪ Local vernacular ▪ Façade treatments ▪ Roofscape	▪ Building elements and fenestration ▪ Rhythm and pattern ▪ Details and richness ▪ Local community aspirations ▪ Local/regional building traditions and materials ▪ Other local traditions ▪ Events/festivals ▪ Place names ▪ Natural environment/ ecology / local provenance (plants, trees etc.)
Streetscape and public realm analysis	▪ Visual clutter ▪ Lighting ▪ Barriers ▪ Live edges	▪ Street furniture, public information and signing ▪ Public art ▪ Safety
Buildings, structures and spaces	▪ Layout and form of spaces ▪ Public /private interface ▪ Layout and form of buildings (including height, scale and massing) ▪ Age and condition of buildings and structure ▪ Relationship between built and unbuilt form	▪ Sense of enclosure ▪ Types of buildings ▪ Continuity of façades ▪ Urban grain ▪ Public and open spaces
Uses and activities	▪ Ground floors ▪ Upper floors ▪ Evening economy ▪ Activity spines and nodes ▪ Public and open spaces	▪ Arts and culture ▪ Amenities and facilities ▪ Education ▪ Leisure and recreation ▪ Employment ▪ Wildlife
Visual analysis	▪ Image and perception of the area ▪ Gaps and enclosure ▪ Views (local and strategic), vistas and landmarks ▪ Skylines ▪ Gateways and thresholds	▪ Boundaries and barriers ▪ Aesthetic quality ▪ Legibility

The *Urban Design Compendium 2: Delivering Quality Places* (2007) was published seven years after the first volume was published. The second compendium was produced to address the process that guided successful villages, towns and cities after the first Compendium dealt

with the formal aspects of urban design. The second compendium offers guidance on how its principles can be effectively applied at all scales and level of practice to ensure delivery of places of high quality over the long term. As shown in Figure 2-1, Delivering *Quality Places* provides a third dimension, the delivery process, and explains how decisions made during the actual process of delivering quality places. This process has five steps that entail looking in turn at policy, design, economics, technical approvals and long-term management. As illustrated in Figure 2-2, *Delivering Quality Places* identifies obstacles to good design and offers guidance on how to overcome barriers in each step of the process.

The first step is 'sowing the seed', which addresses the role of design policies in achieving quality of place. The second step is 'integrated design', which focuses on the issues that the design must combine in order to be successful: "Integrated design requires interdisciplinary working and an understanding of how design decisions in one discipline can have impacts in other areas" (Partnerships et al., 2007: 57). The third step, "delivering quality and adding value", focuses on the benefits of good urban design that can add economic, social and environmental value. The creation of well-designed places not only adds economic benefits but also provides "places people want to live and work in, places people feel safe to walk around, places with good access to open space, public transport, facilities and job opportunities" (Partnerships et al., 2007: 101). Good design provides a wide range of social benefits that can deliver values such as increased civic pride, enhanced social cohesion, better security and less crime, relatively higher levels of physical and mental health, efficient land footprint, increased pedestrian traffic, enhanced sense of well-being and belonging and vitality (Partnerships et al., 2007). The fourth step, 'from vision to reality', is used in this document to ensure that guiding a project "should be continued through the approvals process to ensure that required changes do not reduce the quality of the design" (Partnerships et al., 2007: 139). The fifth step is 'managing quality places' which refers to the role of the physical form and management of a place in encouraging and discouraging social desires. Achieving safe, well-maintained and well-managed places entails managing the physical assets efficiently and appropriately (Partnerships et al., 2007).



The principles of urban design that were introduced in the Urban Design Compendium (Davies, 2000).

Appling the urban design principles to all scales of place.

Providing a third dimension, the delivery process, in *Delivering Quality Places*.

Figure 2-1: Principles, scale and process: How Delivering Quality Places builds on the principles of the original Compendium (Partnerships et al., 2007: 7)

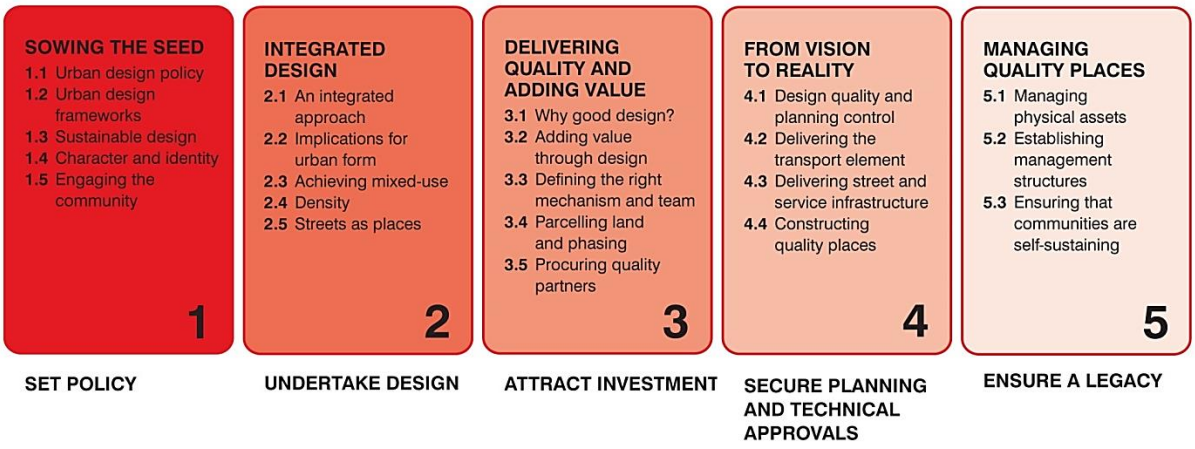


Figure 2-2: Five steps to delivery: Each chapter contains detailed guidance on the key issues for supporting the delivery of quality places (Partnerships et al., 2007: 9)

Good design should not only specific emphasise aspects such as the aesthetic virtue of an urban place, but also use the creative process to ensure delivering value that enhances the quality of places and of people's lives. Good design adds value by providing successful urban places that improve the sense of community, and must be a fundamental part of the development process. However, it is only embedded sometimes into the decision-making that processes that aim for high-quality outcomes and illustrate how social value can be added by good design.

According to Montgomery (1998), successful urban places are 'the transaction base' that must be as complex as possible. He states that urban places must produce spaces for social and cultural transactions. However, he indicates that will not happen "without a transaction base of economic activity at many different levels and layers" (Montgomery, 1998: 99). CABE and DETR (2001) both note that there has been greater emphasis on outcomes than on the process of ensuring high-quality design. They agree that the reduction of the role of the public sector in providing buildings and public spaces and paying attention to the quality of the urban environment has meant that the private sector has largely directed the development processes. They emphasise the necessity of identifying quality design to decision-makers in the private sector development by combining the value of good urban design with their logic. On the other hand, there is also a need to develop an understanding in the public sector that regulations can be modified and that legal and institutional barriers can be overcome to enable good design and increase motivations to obtain better delivery of high-quality design projects (CABE and DETR, 2001). Commercial pressure has a massive effect on long-term investment decisions, which can affect design quality. Consequently, when it comes to the built environment, many

unrelated parties are involved in these decisions (CABE and DETR, 2001).There is a potential that many stakeholders receive benefits from urban design, which has been widely considered (Parfect and Power, 1997). According to CABE (2005), individuals, groups and central and local authorities benefit from good urban design, because it enhances physical, social and economic dimensions that affect the local community and broader public good.

Carmona et al. (2002a) indicate that the quality of design emerges as a result of the different attitudes and perceptions among stakeholders. They state that there are reasons for each one of the different stakeholders to invest in good design; however, but that these reasons are not fixed in time (Table 2-7). Some stakeholders have short-term expectations of reaping benefits from well-designed places, whereas others base their approach on long-term results (Carmona et al., 2002a).

Complexity abounds in the relations among the various stakeholders and sectors, each of which might pursue different outcomes. The quality of urban design also relies on the principles and guidelines that are used to realise them. Establishing a relationship between value and good urban design through the previous discussion of good urban design led to the fundamental question of whose value is being emphasised. A wide range of qualities has been addressed by Lynch (1960), which depends on the effective correlation between the place and the society that occupies that place. Jacobs and Appleyard (1987) highlight the need for the qualities of a good city fabric, but there is a limitation in some of the characteristics that they noted as achieving the value of urban design, such as liveability, which needs further definition and demonstration. Sherman (1988) provided a list of qualities or characteristics of successful places to look for without producing justifications for the items of the list. Tibbalds (1992) and Rowley (1998) proposed objectives for good urban design leading to the subjectivity of the design which make it possible to produce a set of design objectives. However, contemporary urban design draws greater attention to the quality of the public realm in both physical and socio-cultural senses. *By Design*, *the Urban Design Compendium* and *Delivering Quality Places* highlight a greater understanding of the vital role of urban places, their design and their management. They emphasise how the nature of design can affect the quality of the local environment and quality of life in specific places (Table 2-8). However, these common characteristics that make up the objectives of good urban design are abstract and need to be articulated by guidelines for them to be beneficial for public places and have actual impacts on people's lives.

Table 2-7: Stakeholders and their motivations (Carmona et al., 2002a: 148)

Stakeholder	Primary motivations	Concern for better urban design
1- Private interests		
Landowners	Maximizing returns from land development	Only insofar as profits are not diminished and other holdings are protected
Funders (short-term)	Good financial security, risk balanced against return	Only if higher risk is balanced by a higher return
Developers	Buildable, marketable, profitable, quickly delivered, profitable	If better urban design adds to either marketability or profitability
Design professionals	Meets brief, satisfies client, individually designed, innovative	Depends on training, but too often concern for innovation in building design comes at the expense of urban design
Investors (long-term)	Good liquidity, easy and cost-effective to maintain, profitable over the long term	If a market exists and therefore if design adds to profits and reduces operating costs over time
Management agents	Management efficiency	Only if increased costs are reflected in higher fees
Occupants	Value for money, flexible, secure, functional, correct image	Insofar as better urban design creates a more efficient work environment and is affordable
2- Public interests		
Planning authorities	Protects local amenities, delivers a net planning gain, meets planning policies, respects broad public interest, has low environmental impact	Highly concerned, but frequently unable to articulate requirements or concerned to the extent that wider economic and social goals are not compromised.
Highways authorities	Safe, efficient, adoptable roads	As long as functional requirements are met first
Fire and emergency	Accessible in emergencies	Little direct concern
Police authority	Designed to prevent crime	Insofar as better design improves image and reduces crime
Building control	Designed to protect public safety	Little direct concern
3- Community Interests		
Amenity groups	Contextually compatible in design uses	Highly concerned, but often broadly conservative in outlook
Local communities	Reflecting local preferences and protecting property values	Highly concerned but would often prefer no development at all

Table 2-8: The quality of urban design depends on the quality of the design principles and guidelines that are used to define design outcomes.

	The quality of successful places
(Lynch, 1981)	The quality of a place relies on the joint effect of the place and the society that occupies it. Five principles can enhance the quality of public spaces: vitality, sense, fit, access and control.
Jacobs and Appleyard (1987)	Seven vital qualities for a good urban environment: liveability; identity and control; access to opportunity, imagination, and joy; authenticity and meaning; open communities and public life; self-reliance; and justice.
Tibbalds (1992)	An urban design framework that draw attention to the subjectivity of the design, leading to the fact that it is possible to produce a set of design objectives.
UTF (1999)	Took another approach towards the issue of the urban environment and the way it should be designed and managed, highlighting how the nature of a plan can affect the quality of the local urban environment and a place's quality of life. It underscored the role of good urban design in building attractive and high-quality places in which people want to live, work and relax
UDC (Davies, 2000, Partnerships et al., 2007).	Proposed guidance on achieving and measuring the quality of urban design in developing and restoring urban areas. It set out guidance on how its principles can be effectively applied at all scales and level of practice to ensure delivery of places of high quality over the long term.
Montgomery (1998)	Believed that successful urban places would not be accomplished without a transaction base of economic activity at many different levels.
Carmona et al. (2002a)	The emergence of the quality of design as a result of the different attitudes and perceptions among stakeholders
Macmillan (2006)	Evaluating good urban design should include comparisons with projects that have less successful characteristics to support detecting some of the key components of the good urban design.
This study	Relies on the design quality of the public spaces drawing attention to the users' appreciation by evaluating their behavioural, perceptual and social point of view. It achieves that by comparing two case studies that to detect some of the key components of the social value added by good urban design.

Lynch (1981) method has focused on objective and physical aspects of urban spaces in cities. However, the attention is given to social aspects, and meaning of place was less than expected as cultural dimension as well. He defined three components for the perception of the urban environment which are identity, structure and the meaning. Nevertheless, his study was limited to only two factors identity and structure eliminating meaning, while meaning is considered essential in improving the image of the city (Gustafson, 2001). In other words, Lynch (1981) inquiry techniques slightly ignore issues of individuals' feeling toward their urban environment and the meaning of their environment to them. However, this study attempts to rely on the design quality of the public spaces drawing attention to the users' appreciation by evaluating their behavioural, perceptual and social point of view. It achieves that by comparing two case studies as Macmillan (2006) indicated that to detect some of the key components of the social value added by good urban design from comparable cases.

The previous section attempted to clarify the quality of good urban design, principles and guidelines used to created successful urban places. However, high-quality urban design cannot be delivered without detailed urban design principles and guidelines. It is essential to understand precisely how these objectives for design quality can add value to completed developments.

2.4 Controlling the Space: Safety, Security and Accessibility

Providing a sense of security through public spaces for everyday users and residents is an essential task. The feeling of security plays an important role in daily life that cannot be neglected or underestimated. Feeling safe and secure is one of the basic human needs, and failing to deliver a sense of security in a community can lead to multiple negative consequences: "Security relates to the 'protection' of oneself, one's family and friends, and individual and communal property. Lack of security, the perception of lack of safety and fear-of-victimisation are threats both to the use of the public realm and the creation of better places" (Carmona et al., 2010a: 148). Failing to cope with fear or other feeling of insecurity can lead to anti-social behaviour and attitudes and may cause stress-related outcomes for the population (Bodson et al., 2008). Several theories have analysed the relationship between the physical environment and feelings of insecurity (Jacobs, 1961, Newman, 1972). Alongside studies that have focused on the impact of the physical environment on security and crime (Coleman, 1985), other research has highlighted social factors, such as homogeneity and community

solidarity, as essential elements in explaining crime and the fear of crime (Merry, 1981). This section clarifies the key factors that affect and increase a sense of security in public places. It also touches on the broader implications of a sense of security and how it can gradually lead to social isolation.

Jacobs's theories (1961), which are detailed below, were developed by Newman (1972) and emphasised surveillance and territorial definition. Newman explores the relationship between physical design and crime. Jacobs (1961) suggests that public spaces would be safe if they were zoned for a diversity of activities and various uses. This implies that more use of a place will lead to more informal surveillance, thus increasing people's perceptions of their own safety. There is a debate among social scientists and designers about whether it is the social conditions or the physical aspects of a place that most affect perceptions of security and safety. These factors depend on social ties and place attachments that arise out of the use of the place for a long period of time (Bodson et al., 2008). The more a place is used, the stronger the social ties and place attachment, which encourage the perception of security and safety. In their study, Newman et al. (1980) introduce social and managerial indicators that impact the perception of security. They provide insight into the direct influence of social, physical and managerial variables related to feeling unsafe and insecure through variables that include the use of space, social interaction and control of space (Newman et al., 1980). This highlights the important role of use and vitality of a place as an indicator of safety and security, which encourages people to feel safe enough to use the space. Some of his essential thoughts are still taken into consideration in the present time. Even though changes were made in the execution of the hypothesis in the 1990s, Newman's fundamental standards still exist in the design(Cisneros et al., 1995).

2.4.1 Physical Quality and the Improvement of a Sense of Security

The Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) strategy has many elements in common with Newman's concept of defensible space which aims to "restructure the physical layout of communities to allow residents to control the areas around their homes" (Newman et al., 1996: 9). CPTED is an approach that can be applied during the design stage to reduce crime and increase a sense of security in public spaces (Crowe, 2000). The concept of his approach is to manipulate the physical environment to promote behaviours that reduce the fear of crime and improve quality of life. It can be accomplished by reducing conditions in the physical

environment which support criminal behaviour (Crowe, 2000). The concept of territoriality, which includes access control and surveillance, is emphasised in the CPTED approach as a consideration to minimise incidents and reduce the fear of crime. Territoriality aims to create a sphere of influence in which residents or users of a place develop a sense of ownership of that place. The CPTED approach includes the two components of access control and surveillance to increase the sense of security. Access control minimises the opportunity for crime to occur in a physical setting through the presence of a guard, mechanical barriers such as gates, locks and cameras and natural barriers like the presence of people within a given setting (Crowe, 2000). Surveillance refers to what can be seen and otherwise observed in a place. Its main goal is to define the ability to observe an area and watch over the security and safety of users. Both access control strategies and surveillance are classified as organised, mechanical and natural. It can be achieved through design strategies such as lighting and the presence of closed-circuit television (CCTV) cameras.

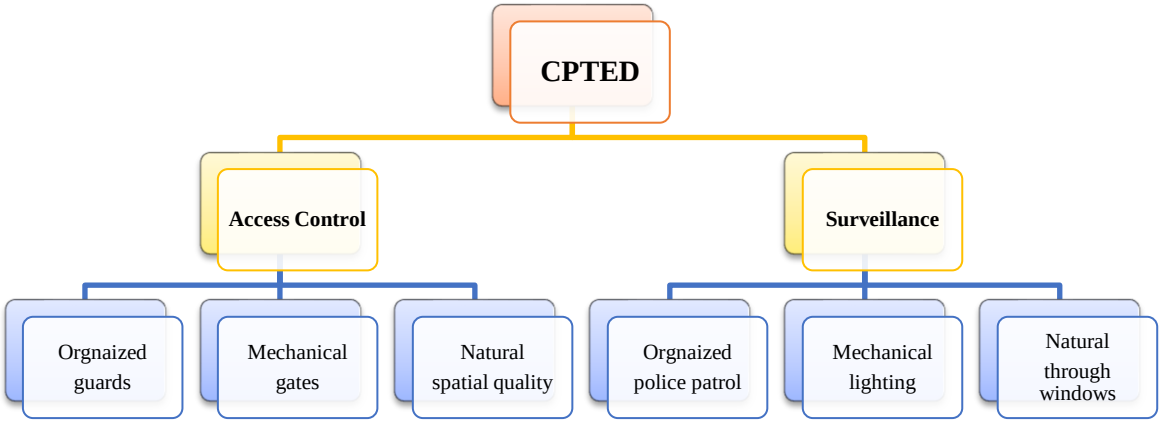


Figure 2-3: Access control and surveillance classification, adapted from (Fennelly and Crowe, 2013)

As shown in Figure 2-3,the CPTED theory identifies six factors connected to access control and surveillance as important design elements that could be combined with the creation of public spaces to increase people's sense of security (Fennelly and Crowe, 2013). Building a sense of safety and security is essential in any urban development. Two types of security have a direct effect on the design of urban open space. The first is to fulfil the physiological need so that people feel safe from crimes and exposure to accidents. The second is psychological, which promotes a sense of place socially and geographically. It can be achieved by providing a familiar physical and social environment among users so that individuals feel that they have control over their lives (Lang, 1994). The existence of a sense of security promotes many

factors that support the vitality of urban public spaces. Visibility in public spaces is one factor proposed by many authors to give a sense of security (Németh and Schmidt, 2007, Fennelly and Crowe, 2013). Visibility is the chance for users of a physical environment to be observed by others, which is related to natural surveillance (Crowe, 2000). In fact, the presence of mixed uses around urban public spaces supports the continuation of activities and encourages the presence of people. This allows natural surveillance to occur and increases the general feeling of safety.

Another factor on which the sense of security depends is the awareness of the environment and the possibility of finding help if it is needed (Wekerle and Whitzman, 1995). It contributes to increasing individuals' awareness of what is happening around them. The image of place also has an effect on the sense of security (Wekerle and Whitzman, 1995). Building quality design and aesthetic aspects into the creation of public space can increase a sense of security. However, merely enhancing the image of place cannot guarantee the safety of public space on its own (Wekerle and Whitzman, 1995).

2.4.2 Access and Exclusion

The division of social life into public and private spheres means that boundaries are drawn around spatial and temporal domains; the very concept of private means that some social groups are excluded from these domains (Madanipour, 1998). Accessibility is one essential aspect of any discussion of the public realm. Since the public realm should be accessible for all, some privately owned, publicly accessible spaces—intentionally or unintentionally—are less accessible to certain users or segments of society (Von Hirsch and Shearing, 2000). The interplay between social exclusion and integration primarily revolves around access. Madanipour (1998) argues that barriers in the physical setting of a space might be employed to put visible and strict limits on spatial practices. He indicates that these forms of barriers determine how inviting a place is and may prevent users from entering privately owned, publicly accessible spaces. One form of barrier is the mental space that could influence users through fear and perceptions of certain activities that might occur in particular places. Another form of barrier to spatial behaviour is social control, which can range from legal prohibitions on entering places to constructing physical boundaries along publicly recognised borders such as public-private boundaries. Madanipour notes that a combination of formalised rules, signs,

fears and desires could control people's spatial behaviour and make them more acutely aware of the limitation of their access.

The management of public space might involve some form of exclusion. Minton (2006: 2) describes the potential for social exclusion in two aspects: 'hot spots' of affluence and 'cold spots' of exclusion. 'Hot spots' are characterised by having clean and safe policies, such as urban regeneration projects that displace social problems. 'Cold spots' are characterised by socially excluding those who are not welcome in the 'hot spot'. According to this view, Carmona et al. (2010a) indicate that public space management creates socially divided urban public spaces and that exclusion can be realised in three forms: excluding behaviour, exclusion through design and the excluding of people. Preventing certain undesirable social behaviours in public spaces emerges from the management responsibility for maintenance, liability and marketability. Even though public and privately owned, publicly accessible spaces should facilitate use and should welcome users, Németh and Schmidt (2007) found that privately owned spaces heavily control the use and behaviour of users.

The second form of exclusion that occurs through management is exclusion through design. It is identified through visual, physical and symbolic forms of accessibility (Carr et al., 1993). Visual access or visibility is essential for users to feel free to enter a space and provide them with a visual sight that allows them to judge the space and to what extent that space is safe and comfortable for them before entering. Physical access determines the availability of the space to public. Therefore, exclusion can be facilitated by this physical design strategy where the inability to access or use the environment occurs (Carmona et al., 2010a). Symbolic access includes visual hints or symbols that suggest who is welcome in the space and who is not. Individuals and groups perceive inviting, comforting or threatening suggestions that might affect their entry into public spaces. Allen (2006: 441) highlights the role of 'ambient power' in public spaces, using Berlin's Potsdamer Platz as an example. He describes a 'logic of seduction' in which the layout and the design 'represent a seductive presence that effectively closes down options, enticing visitors to circulate and interact in ways that they might not otherwise have chosen'; 'power in this instance works through the ambient qualities of the space, where the experience of it is itself the expression of power' (Allen, 2006).

The third form of exclusion is actively seeking to prevent certain individuals or social groups from entry. The right of private ownership allows for the ability to exclude those who are

unwelcome and to prevent access. Banerjee (2001) notes that the public is welcome as patrons of shops and restaurants, office workers, or clients of businesses located on the premises. However, the claim of access to and use of the space is only a privilege, not a right. Hence, certain undesirable individuals or groups might be excluded for both the benefit of the security of others and for well-being (Carmona et al., 2010a).

2.5 The Fundamental Principles of Value

In the previous part of this chapter, a literature review was undertaken to show that good urban design enjoyed a real flowering in the last couple of decades and expressing the development of good urban design in the context of the UK. Surveying this literature demonstrated the present condition of knowledge on the subject and specifically affirmed the working meanings of key terms needed to create the questions on the questionnaire. This part of the literature review focuses on the publications that examine what is implied by the terms 'value' and 'social value' in the context of urban design. It also identifies existing tools that are used to evaluate the value of urban design. The survey then sets up the fundamental difficulties in assessing the value, especially the social value, of urban design, since it is an intangible benefit that needs deep insight to clarify.

According to Thomson et al. (2003a), there is a difference between the terms 'value' and 'values'; the latter is not simply the plural of the former. They stated that values are subjective due to the 'judgments' made by others, while value is related to 'assessment' and 'measurement' of products, which can also be subjective. People's values are the principles by which they live. Values are the essential faith, morals and ethics of individuals, and reflect their attitudes and behaviours in society. Usually, individuals share common values with others such as religious beliefs; however, these values can affect people's perception of the surrounding environment and their assessment of products. As a result, values shape the assessment of value. According to Oxford Dictionary, the term values is defined as 'principles or standards of behaviour; one's judgment of what is important in life'. The values are the principles by which any societies live together. In *The Place of Value in a World of Facts*, Köhler (1976) identified the ethical role of values by stating that 'at the bottom of all human activities are "values", the conviction that some things "ought to be" and others not' (Köhler, 1976: 35). Meanwhile, a value system can develop if values are expressed among individuals who share goals or targets (Thomson et al., 2003a).

2.5.1 The Nature of Value

The value judgment undertaken by an individual when assessing an object relates primarily to its benefits and expectations (Thomson et al., 2003a); see Figure 2-4. Vickers (2001) observes that value judgments are integrated with individuals' knowledge of their surroundings and stimulate their actions. Therefore, value is a perception, since the judgment of what is meant by good urban design can be diverse among different stakeholders. Users of urban places may have different perceptions according to their judgments of the quality of urban design or the perceived value that has been added, while the developer or the designer might perceive the added value of a regeneration development quite differently. The quality of urban design as a product of good practice and design-making is measured without the outcomes of a value assessment being attributed to the product as one of its qualities. Thus, 'value is a perception. It is not a measurable product attribute, unless the outcome of a value assessment is attributed to products as one of its qualities. In this case, the value represented as one of a product's qualities would be the result of an assessment' (Thomson et al., 2003a: 337). In this situation, value is represented as one quality of a product and the value results from an assessment. It is thus important to respond to the social context when creating a building as a subjective approach that helps to understand the nature of delivering value.

2.5.2 The Value Definition

According to Dent as cited in (Thomson et al., 2003b: 5), there are three philosophical issues with regard to value: "first, on what sort of property or characteristic 'having value' or 'being of value' is; second, on whether having value is an objective or subjective matter, whether value reposes in the object or is a matter of how we feel towards it; third, on trying to say what things have value". In construction, the understanding of value is delivered as a response to each of Dent's aspects of value. This approach "helps designers understand the social context in which their products will exist and the influence of values of the people present in that setting over their judgements of value; and helps designers establish objectives for value delivery and set metrics for their attainment" (Thomson et al., 2003b: 5). This view is thus integrated with the industry perception that value is associated with the demonstration of delivery performance. In the area of customer value management, Gale and Wood (1994) define value as a quality that "includes all non-price attributes' considered in relation to price, adding that 'quality,

price, and value are relative"(Gale and Wood, 1994: 29). This approach supports the view that value must always have some subjective element (Figure 2-5).

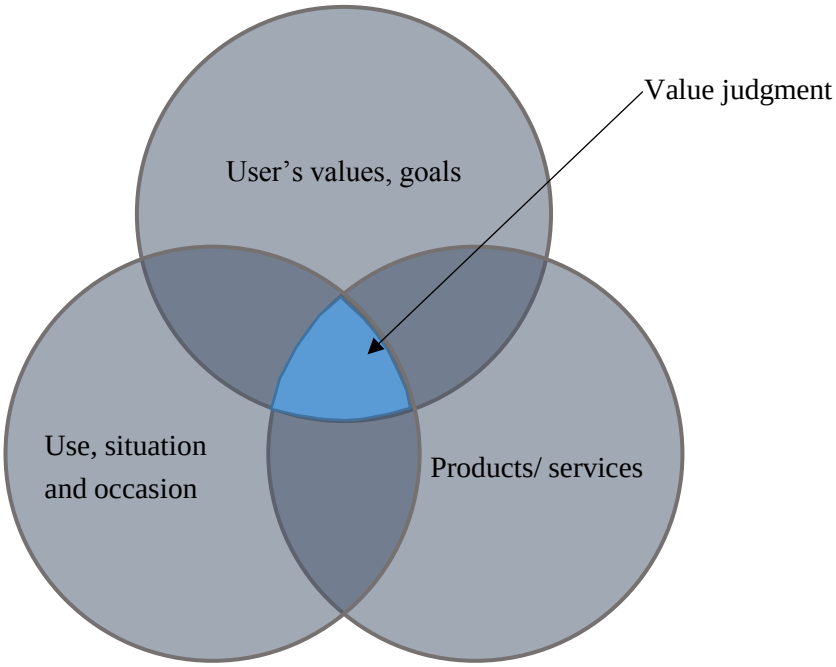


Figure 2-4: The content of a value judgment (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996)

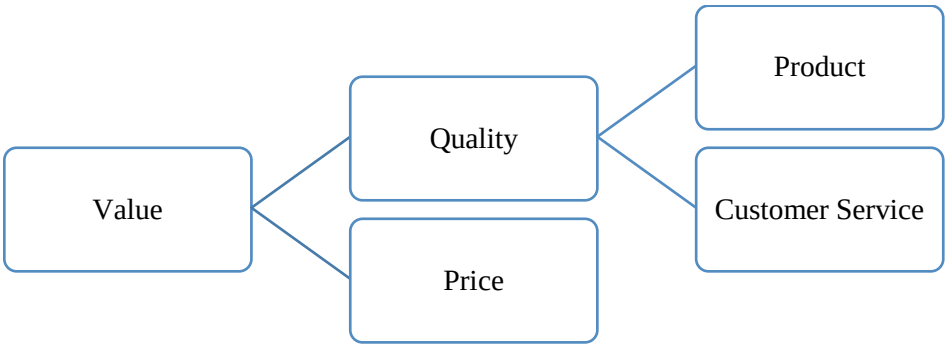


Figure 2-5: The customer's value management approach (Gale and Wood, 1994: 29)

Unlike the prevalence of subjective definitions of value, an objective position was taken by the British Standards Institution (BSI) (1997), which defines value as "the relationship between the contribution of the function to the satisfaction of the need and the cost of the function" (BSI, 1997: 3). This relationship implies that value can be captured and measured. In construction, CABE and DETR (2001: 14) suggest more of an objective view by defining value as "a measure of the worth of something to its owner or any other person who derives benefit from it, this being the amount at which it can be exchanged".

Value can also be regarded as an overall assessment of the positive and negative consequences or of benefits and sacrifices. Thomson et al. (2003a) propose five aspects to offer a summary definition of value: 1) value does not exist it is own right, but is rather an assessment of an object; 2) this valuation always happens in a context and is framed by characteristics of that context; 3) value assessment can be both subjective and objective, the former when framed against an individual's values and the latter when the relationship between benefit and expense is compared; 4) expense can be either resource consumption (time, money and people) or emotional effort (stress and attaining and maintaining buy-in); 5) value may be influenced by the time at which it is judged or assessed. The following definition of value is adapted by Thomson et al. (2003a): the provision of the right object (product or service), at the right time, for the proper consideration, to the right client (Thomson et al., 2003a).

In *Social Justice and the City*, Harvey (2010) indicates that the production of space is similar to commodity production, in which use value becomes exchange value through a social process of exchange. All goods have both a bodily form that is produced in nature or in the capitalist diversity of goods production, which grants them a particular use value as well as a value form, which is given to them through the exchange process and is about other commodities (Harvey, 2010). In this respect, use value becomes the starting point of any product to exchange. This suggests a controversial relationship between space and produced space, parallel to that of use value and value form. As long as urban space is socially produced under urbanism and differences are minimized by spatial practice, it is possible that urban space, as a physical space, can be the space form of value.

2.6 The Value of Urban Design and its Social Concept

The Value of Urban Design (2001) states that "value is a measure of the worth of something to its owner or any other person who derives benefit from it, this being the amount at which it can be exchanged. Two concepts of value have been distinguished in economics: 'value in use' (the pleasure a commodity—as a good or service—generates for its owner or user) and 'value in exchange' (the quantity of other commodities—or more usually money—a commodity can be swapped for)" (CABE and DETR, 2001: 14). By contrast, Mulgan (2005) argues that there is no such thing as an essential value in modern economics, insisting that value is created by people and is inherently socially affected. He argues that value is about the ability of how much individuals can afford to for pay something in the market. Even though there are many

individuals and aesthetic traditions that describe the distinctive value of an object, value becomes only a social fact when other individuals or organisations confirm it (CABE, 2005).

Madanipour (1996) identifies the relationship between use value and exchange value that is involved in the concept of looking at place as capital and labour when conceiving the city. He explains that these two types of value that can be found in a place, such as a building; it may be a place to live for some people and thus considered for its use value, while the rent generated from the building's occupants would be have exchange value for the property's landlord. Madanipour (1996) also notes is that some people might regard a particular place as accommodation, while some other see the same physical building as a product for selling or letting. The tension between use value and exchange value determines the character of the city and the way people comport themselves in the urban environment (Madanipour, 1996).

According to CABE and DETR (2001), the benefits of most services and goods, under economic analysis, go to those who pay for them and does not extend beyond that group. The price that is fetched in the market is considered to be the indicator of the exchange value of goods or services. However, this market price is not appropriate for measuring public benefits, due to the intervention of external factors that are not taken into account in purely economic analysis. CABE and DETR (2001) discuss the increase in the direct benefit that increases the value of an asset that can be assessed in the marketplace using standard valuation techniques. However, societal benefits cannot be evaluated. They note that standard valuation techniques work exclusively with value in the market sense, and that the idea of social and aesthetic value do not have a place in this notion. Carmona et al. (2003) claim that financial value and return is the dominant measure of success from investors' point of view. Even though public sector involvement and intervention raise design standards, significant improvement is not clearly in the general standards of development.

CABE has undertaken the key task of providing evidence related to the concept of social and economic outcomes achieved by good design through many reports (CABE and DETR, 2001, CABE, 2002b, Space, 2003, CABE, 2005, Space, 2005, CABE, 2006b, CABE, 2006c, CABE, 2007a). According to Macmillan (2006), when CABE published a literature review on the value of urban design (2001) there were two other related studies recognized at that time: a paper by Vandell and Lane (1989) and a study by the Property Council of Australia (1999). The Bartlett School of Planning at the University of London was commissioned by CABE and DETR

examine how good urban design adds economic, social and environmental value to the urban setting. The study analyses three pairs of commercial developments in three cities in the UK to provide hard evidence and develop a strong case that direct economic benefits for those who invest in developments and indirect social and environmental benefits for society can both result from good urban design (CABE and DETR, 2001); see Table 2-9). The findings of this study were as follows:

- Reaching occupant demand helps to offer high investment returns for both investors and developers.
- Even though good urban design provides economic, social and environmental value, the financial cost does not goes higher.
- Good urban design can improve workforce performance and enhance the quality of the occupant group.
- Good urban design can lead to effective regeneration by providing new investment opportunities.
- Good urban design increases safety and security beyond the physical borders of the development.
- Good urban design helps to bring accessibility to new places by everybody.

This CABE-DETR study thus found that good design can actually provide a wide range of social, economic and environmental benefits along with better rental levels, lower management and maintenance costs, improved regeneration and increased public support for development.

A similar document, *The Value of Public Space*, was published by CABE Space (2003). It shows how high-quality public spaces can generate economic, health and social benefits for cities. CABE Space is a new division of CABE that was established in 2003. CABE Space supports high-quality design and management of parks, streets, squares and other open spaces in towns and cities (CABE Space, 2004a). CABE Space published the *Manifesto for Better Public Spaces* to ensure that that 'creating and caring for well-designed parks, streets and other public spaces is a national and local political priority' (CABE Space, 2004a: 3). Similarly, *Does Money Grow on Trees* is a CABE Space document that examines how well-designed and well-managed places can have positive impacts on the value of an area and can attract inward investment and people to that area (CABE Space, 2005). *Physical Capital* is the collaboration of three thinkers who set out their perceptions of this concept. 'Physical capital' is defined by CABE as 'the potential value—financial, social and cultural—of the built environment. Schools, clinics, houses, offices, factories, streets, parks, museums, public art, squares and bridges combine to form the physical capital of a particular place' (CABE, 2005: 4). The three

essays work together to lay out approaches to measuring physical capital and how it can help generate better places.

Table 2-9: The beneficiaries of value in urban design, (CABE and DETR, 2001: 29)

Stakeholders	Short-term value	Long-term value
Landowner	• Increased property value	
Funders	• Greater and more secure investment, depending on the market	
Developers	• Swifter permissions • Increased public support • Higher sales values • Distinctiveness • Increase funding potential • Allows complex sites to be tackled	• Better reputation • Future collaboration more likely
Designers	• Increased workload • Repeat commissions for high quality	• Enhanced professional reputation
Investors	• Higher rental returns • Increased property values • Reduced operating costs • Competitive investment edge	• Maintenance of value • Reduced maintenance costs • Better resale values • Higher quality • Longer-term tenants
Managing agents		• Easier maintenance in the case of high-quality materials
Occupants		• Happier employees • Better productivity • Increased confidence in business • Fewer disruptive moves • Greater accessibility • Reduced security spending • Increased prestige for occupant • Reduced operating costs
Public interests	• Regeneration potential • Reduced exclusion	• Reduced public spending • Allows more time for effective planning • Increased economic viability • Increased local tax revenue • More sustainable environment
Community interests		• Better security • Less crime • Increased cultural vitality • Less pollution • Less stress • Better quality of life • More inclusive public space • More equitable environment • Greater civic pride • Reinforced sense of place • Higher property prices

Mulgan, Matarasso and Madanipour have approached physical capital from their own viewpoints. Mulgan explains how to develop a better understanding of measuring value in the

built environment, noting that 'the treatment of physical space as capital is highly sophisticated and well understood by the markets, but becomes more problematic in the relationship between private and public value' (CABE, 2005: 6). He proposes the concept of 'value maps' to set out the relationship between different values and the flows of value that they create. Matarasso emphasises the subjectivity of physical capital, arguing that the primary aim should not be about measurement itself but about how to improve places instead. Madanipour looks in detail at a specific place and an actual case study to deliver his understanding of physical capital. He explains the physical changes that affected the Castle Vale neighbourhood in Birmingham and provides lessons for how it has improved the residents' socio-economic conditions.

Mapping Value in the Built Environment was commissioned by CABE in late 2005 and managed by the Young Foundation; it drew attention to the methods available to capture the range of values, both tangible and less tangible, that are generated by well-designed places (Table 2-10). The aim of this document was to ensure that these values received greater emphasis in future decisions on proposed development schemes. This document was developed through a literature review and a series of seminars and is divided into three stages. The first stage defines the built urban environment and the concept of value. The former is "seen as consisting of several key aspects: use; connectivity with the wider urban area and its needs; size of development; lay-out; physical content (such as street furniture) and human activity", while value is defined as "becoming meaningful when people are willing to make a sacrifice (usually monetary) to get something". The second stage seeks to identify all the stakeholders who might be involved in any proposed development, because various "stakeholder perspectives needed to be factored in although the key players in most developments are likely to be: the developer and their team; the general public; other adjacent property owners; the local authority and, sometimes, national government". The final stage examines the different "methods use to understand value. These included stated and revealed preference methods used by environmental economists and Multi-Criteria Analysis approaches used by built environment professionals. All were found to have problems but, crucially, all offered an angle on the issue of value" (Mulgan et al., 2006: 3-4).

This document was keen to develop a method that is solid, replicable and comprehensive for use as a tool that ensures, first, that "developments receiving planning permission are valued (or not hated) by the public', and second, that the public sector would have 'mechanisms for allocating resources to jointly fund developments with the private sector" (Mulgan et al., 2006:

12). However, the instruments developed in this document focus more on the value of the built environment in general, as is discussed in detail in the following section.

Table 2-10: Summary of the main valuation and decision methods (Mulgan et al., 2006: 3)

Method	Strengths	Weaknesses
Hedonics	• Captures THE monetary contribution that environmental elements make to a development's private value	• Ignores buildings for which there is no market
Design Quality Indicators (DQIS)	• Easy to use • Allows for the involvement of numerous stakeholders; the public can feel engaged	• Not enough attention to public space issues • Weak at assisting resource allocation
Value in Design (VALiD)	• All the advantages of DQI • enables people to narrow down what they want from a development more than DQI does • Participants consider costs and compromises they might make	• Not enough attention to public space • Weak at assisting resource allocation
Contingent Choice	• Simple to grasp • Useable in investment decisions	• Hypothetical • The poor are seen as having less value • Measurement rather than dialogue
Choice Modelling	• Captures value of different elements • Useable in investment decisions	• Hypothetical • Omits the poor • Measurement rather than dialogue

The Value Handbook: Getting the most from your buildings and spaces (2006c) is a useful guide that demonstrate how public-sector organisations can benefit most from the buildings and places in their areas. It offers essential evidence about the benefits of good design and establishes an understanding of the various types of value generated by the built environment to demonstrate a wider vision of its full potential. This document describes how improving the built environment can enable meeting performance targets by assessing the built environment. The handbook is divided into four parts; the first shows how to capture and identify and deliver value through the procurement process. The second part illustrates the wide range of positive effects that improve the quality of life which a well-designed built environment can achieve. The third part explains these different types of value—exchange value, use value, image value, social value, environmental value, and cultural value—and demonstrate how all of these values provide a framework for understanding how the various types of value work together and their importance to stakeholders. The final part explains how a high-quality built environment contributes to enhancing performance within the policy framework.

A Sense of Place (2007a) offers a full picture of how high-quality places of new development affect their residents' perceptions and how they benefit from these places over both the short term and long terms. This housing audit built up a national sense of the design quality employed in new homes built by the development industry between 2002 and 2007. This audit focused on assessing the quality of development through seven variables: appearance, flexibility, layout of the development, public open space, roads and car parking, public transport and sense of community.

A recent review in New Zealand emphasised the value added to an urban environment. That country has worked toward presenting clear evidence of the benefits that can derived from good urban design. Additionally, observed evidence of the impact of urban design must be identified and understood. In 2005, a group of researchers at Victoria University, Wellington produced the document of *The Value of Urban Design* for the New Zealand Ministry for the Environment. The aim of this project was to provide evidence of how good urban design can add economic, environmental and social benefits to urban environment. The report targets different parties connected to urban design and who are involved in making decisions in that field. At the beginning of this project, principles of urban design and practices taken from Ministry for the Environment publications were identified. A literature review was carried out to discover urban design value propositions. The material was identified by reviewers and classified using the categories of 'conclusive', 'strong', 'suggestive' and 'anecdotal' to assess the quality of urban design in relation to economic, social and environmental values. A database has now been created to house forthcoming research (McIndoe et al., 2005). The research recommended that good urban design adds benefits, at least in the New Zealand context. The findings of this study are as follows:

- Good urban design adds benefits to society. On the other hand, poor urban design can have a negative influence on the urban environment and community.
- Even though good urban design sometimes can cost more, there remains a good chance of eliminating long-term costs.
- A better quality of life can be offered to community by good urban design.
- Good urban design is highly beneficial to society health through physical activity.
- Good urban design can increase safety and security in cities.
- High efficiency in urban design can be produced when multiple urban design elements come together.

The document identifies how society can benefit from good urban design but could not provide how a decision can be taken to maximise benefit that generated from bad urban design solutions. It supports the view of CABE/DETR study which good urban design can add social benefits beyond the site. The study shows that a quality such as connectivity can play a vital role in growing or limitation of the spread of social benefits from development. If the connectivity is poor, it might create social issues that can cost more money to be dealt with in the future.

It is essential to promote the role of good design of public space to develop better social interactions in secure and attractive areas with an enriched 'sense of place'(DETR, 2000a). Good design and quality public spaces through regeneration projects in neighbourhoods should meet not only regional and local priorities but also improve and enhance the social cohesion of cities (Space, 2003).

While the direct benefits to stakeholders, in term of enhanced real estate assessment value, can be evaluated through their financial exchange value in the market using standard valuation methods, the same approach cannot be taken with the wider 'use value' benefits that accrue to society as a whole. The literature has shown two approaches to evaluating the multifaceted values, including social value, of urban design (Table 2-11). The first approach is more subjective and can vary in terms of the perception of different stakeholders or even among members of the community itself. For instance, *The Value of Urban Design* (2001) and *The Value of Urban Design (2005)* both see the social value of urban design as a long-term advantage that can benefit the community in ways like better security, less crime, increased cultural vitality, higher quality of life, more inclusive public space, more equitable environment, greater civic pride and a reinforced sense of place. *The Value of Public Spaces* (2003) also recognises a social value of public space as the ability to bring a community together, provide meeting places that foster social ties, shape the identity of an area and provide a sense of place for its community. Other approaches, such as DQIs and VALiD, have been adopted to assess the value of urban design with limitations on some values that did not pay enough attention to public spaces in assessing the value of urban design. Those approaches are discussed in the next section.

Table 2-11: The approaches that have been taken to identify the value of urban design

	The value of urban design
Madanipour (1996)	Identifies two types of value that can be found in a place: use value and exchange value.
CABE	CABE has undertaken the key task of providing evidence related to the concept of social and economic outcomes achieved by good design
CABE and DETR (2001)	CABE and DETR examine how good urban design adds economic, social and environmental value to the urban setting.
CABE Space (2003)	shows how high-quality public spaces can generate economic, health and social values for cities
CABE (2005)	Introduces the physical capital concept which is defined as the potential value—financial, social and cultural—of the built environment.
McIndoe et al. (2005).	Provides evidence of how good urban design can add economic, environmental and social benefits to the urban environment
Mulgan et al. (2006)	drew attention to the methods available to capture the range of values, both tangible and less tangible, that are generated by well-designed places
CABE (2006c)	Offers detailed evidence about the benefits of good design and establish an understanding of the various types of value: exchange value, use value, image value, social value, environmental value, and cultural value. It demonstrates how all of these values provide a framework for understanding how the various types of value work together and their importance to stakeholders
CABE (2007a)	Indicates how high-quality places of new development affect their residents' perceptions and how they benefit from these places over both the short term and long terms.

2.6.1 The Social Value in the Urban Environment

Macmillan (2006) argues that the literature on the concept of the impact of good design on social and economic outcomes argues for the possibility of this research being taken to another level. It is inherently limited, due to the difficulty in capturing the value of intangible benefits. However, six main types of value delivered by the built environment were identified: social value, cultural value, image value, economic value, use value and environmental value (CABE, 2006c); see Table 2-12. In this context, social value is defined as the ability of "developments that make connections between people, creating or enhancing opportunities for positive social interaction, reinforcing social identity and civic pride, encouraging social inclusion and contributing towards to improved social health, prosperity, morale, goodwill, neighbourly behaviour, safety and security, while reducing vandalism and crime" (CABE, 2006c: 10).

These criteria can be used to use to identify whether the built environment is delivering the best possible social value by using the following indicators. Social value can encourage to residents to interact in ways that lead to trust, shared understanding, shared values and supportive behaviours. Social value emerges when people have common interests that can unite them with others (CABE, 2006c).

Social value of public space depends on the input that can be provided to people in terms of increasing their attachment to their local lives, in-person interactions with others and memories of sites. Streets and markets that reflect hard spaces are extremely beneficial to many people, as are green spaces such as parks (Dines et al., 2006). Social value can be a part urban identity, where these social behaviours are controlled by the design of these public spaces or are developed along with it. Walmsley (1988) claims that there is a relationship between the environmental perceptions of a place and its social behaviours. He also asserts that human behaviours are not only developed by inter-relations within the environment but also that the urban environment itself can be the foundation of this development.

The emergence of social networks is not solely dependent on the built environment, but there is much evidence to indicate that housing schemes contribute positively to social value and communities. Social value is usually measured by indicators that enable comparisons to be made among neighbourhoods and identify areas where enhancements are desired. Surveys before and after a project allow actual benefit increases to be evaluated. Examples of indicators that are associated with the built environment and are used in social surveys include:

- The percentage of people who believe there is a strong sense of a community
- The percentage of people who are proud of their neighbourhood
- The percentage of the community who feel safe being out at night
- The decrease in the number of people suffering from mental health problems
- The number of people taking regular exercise

Exchange value is the most commonly understood form of value. In this context, buildings can be of course be traded, just like any other asset. A building has a commercial value that measured by how much money the market is willing to pay. Looking to a building as a product to be traded with the awareness of market value can lead to a different point of view for the owner and developer. The value of the market is the book value for the owner, whereas for the developer the value lies in return on capital and profitability. Additionally, value covers other

matters such as ease of letting out and selling. The exchange value can be measured easily through book value, return on capital, rental and yield (CABE, 2006c).

Table 2-12: Types of value that are delivered by the built environment (CABE, 2006c: 10)

Type of value	What does it mean?	How is it measured?
Exchange value	The building as a commodity to be traded, the commercial value of which is measured by the price that the market is willing to pay. For the owner, this is the book value, while for the developer it is the return on capital and profitability. This also covers issues such as ease of letting and disposability.	Book value Return on capital Rental Yield
Use value	Contribution of a building to organisational outcomes: productivity, profitability, competitiveness and repeat business, arising from a working environment that is safe to use, promotes staff health, well-being and job satisfaction, encourages flexible working, teamwork and communication, and enhances recruitment and retention while reducing absenteeism.	Measures associated with occupancy, such as satisfaction, motivation and teamwork. Measures of productivity and profitability, such as healthcare recovery rates, retail footfall, educational exam results and occupant satisfaction.
Image value	Contribution of the development to corporate identity prestige, vision and reputation, demonstrating commitment to design excellence or to innovation, to openness, or as part of a brand image.	Public relations opportunities Brand awareness and prestige Recognition and 'wow' factors.
Social value	Developments that make connections between people, creating or enhancing opportunities for positive social interaction, reinforcing social identity and civic pride, encouraging social inclusion and contributing to improved social health, prosperity, morale, goodwill, neighbourly behaviour, safety and security, while reducing vandalism and crime.	Place making Sense of community, civic pride and neighbourly behaviour Reduced crime and vandalism.
Environmental value	The added value arising from a concern for intergenerational equity, the protection of biodiversity and precautionary principle in relation to consumption of finite resources and climate change. The principles include adaptability and/or flexibility, robustness and low maintenance, and the application of a whole-life cost approach. The immediate benefits are to local health and pollution.	Environmental impact Whole-life value Ecological footprint.
Cultural value	Culture makes us what we are. This is a measure of a development's contribution to the rich tapestry of a town or city, how it relates to its location and context, and also to broader patterns of historical development and a sense of place. Cultural value may include consideration of highly intangible issues like symbolism, inspiration and aesthetics.	Critical opinions and reviews Professional press coverage Lay press coverage.

The use value of a project or a building is concerned with its purpose and the contribution it makes to the outcomes valued by an organisation. It includes employing and keeping staff, productivity, profitability, competitiveness and repeat business. Achieving these factors arises from having a safe working environment that supports staff health, well-being and job satisfaction, enhances flexible working, teamwork and communication, all of decrease absenteeism. Most research into the subject of use value has been in the business sector, with more concern on the negative impacts associated with lack of comfort, noise and lack of privacy that cause the diminishing of buildings' use value. Use value can be measured in employment by factors such as motivation and satisfaction. It can be measured with reference to productivity and profitability such as healthcare rate, retail footfall, educational exam results and occupant satisfaction (CABE, 2006c).

There are powerful visual messages can be conveyed by the powerful ability of well-designed environment; many cities around the world are widely and immediately associated with a unique signature image. The Eiffel Tower has come to symbolise Paris. Businesses have also used their own buildings to present a strong identity, such as Selfridges with their flagship store in Oxford Street and their new 21st-century store in Birmingham. Image value can contribute to enhancing corporate identity, prestige, vision, and reputation. Image value demonstrates commitment to excellent design. It also indicates that innovation, creativity, openness are part of a brand's image. Image value can be measured by public relation opportunities, brand awareness and reputation. Buildings that make strong impressions on people can attract tourism, and visitors contribute positively to the local economy. Image value also offers a sense of awareness of a place, which might lead to the political aspects at the same time (CABE, 2006c). Cultural value is the measure of a generation's contribution to the rich tapestry of a town or city. Culture value relates to a city's location and context, and also to wider patterns of historical development and a sense of place. Cultural value may include consideration of most intangible issues like symbolism, imagination and aesthetics (CABE, 2006c).

There are interrelationships between the different types of value in the built environment that can promote social interactions and community cohesion. People get together and interact socially with one another in public spaces. Moreover, public spaces can contribute to the cohesion of a community through the economic behaviours and values of the city and its importance in terms of local economic growth that will support the immediate community. Cities must be desirable in order for their inhabitants to stay for long periods of time. Culture

shapes communities and cities to look the way they do today. Whether particular places are historical or contemporary, they are all part of a common culture that provides identity throughout time and place. It connects the past and future in the present formation of the city. Culture can represent human achievement and create a stronger sense of citizenship among people.

2.7 Change over Time and Measuring the Value of Urban Design

A widely recognized difficulty with many benefits associated with high-quality design is their intangibility, which makes them difficult to capture. It is challenging for those who develop buildings to evaluate how much to invest in design and construction (Macmillan, 2006). This subject was investigated by Summerson (1978), who claims that some value locations in certain UK cities are considered decent examples of good urban design. Moreover, good investment returns and an attractive built environment have been seen over many years. Summerson cites the example of the landed estates of central London, which reflect the creation of contractual relationships among diverse parties that still exist today. He argues that systematic regulation of building design and strategic orientation of urban public spaces; use value and long-lasting revenue and value asset growth for stakeholders take place when investing in good master planning. (Summerson, 1978).

On the other hand, architecture is a discipline in which art and science should be most creatively harmonized. There has long been a struggle to reconcile the objective and the subjective sides of architecture. Many architects disregard any attempt to systematise the evaluation of designers' output out of concern that measuring quality will have a corrosive impact on their vision of architecture as art; at worst, architecture can become mere infrastructure (Macmillan, 2003).

All these successful examples share the essential element of scale. The benefits that are captured through better design and high-quality public spaces were resulted large-scale leasehold developments were created. The other side of the coin was reinvestment and lease conditions that forced leaseholders to contribute to aid the survival and self-maintenance of the quality of many of these areas. An absence of quality occurred when there was a lack of coordination between freeholders and public authorities in making decisions about the leasehold system (Clarke, 1992).

Carmona et al. (2001) argue that good urban design can be found today in many cities that have no large-scale leasehold developments but still survive and continue to produce both use value and market value for occupants and owners. The key elements in the survival of these areas were flexibility and quick responses to the changing needs of both users and markets. Camden Town in London has frequently been scheduled for redevelopment, but even now it endures and grows largely through motivating street systems and flexibility in the uses of a building where commercial activity can be undertaken (CABE and DETR, 2001)

Carmona et al. (2001) showed that long-lasting value to society and stockholders can be delivered when urban design principles are integrated with social and economic realities. CABE champions the value of design and its effective role in improving the quality of life and equalising opportunities and economic prospects. CABE also demonstrates the cost of poor design in terms of social and economic effects. Many approaches have been taken to reveal the economic, social and environmental values that are related to the built environment.

2.7.1 Assessing the External Impacts of Developments

Economic benefits of well-designed developments can be easily measured. It is a simple task to arrange an acceptable level of investments that achieve particular goals. On the other hand, it is challenging to measure social and environmental benefits and to establish a standard of investment to obtain them. The difficulty of assessing value results in a desire to minimize design cost. As a result, many buildings in the past were built to a precise cost limit with less understanding of future operating costs or other consequences. Nowadays, with a better understanding of the benefits of well-designed projects, the values delivered by projects can be measured, and a reasonable level of investment can be set (CABE, 2006c).

A variety of approaches to evaluating places have been attempted. Some of these tools define the physical character of a valued place, while others evaluates a place's visual qualities. The DQI and the VALiD approaches are both examples of the most common method used to compare intangible and unvalued costs and benefits (Mulgan et al., 2006). DQI is used in the early stages of design to allow the client to measure and improve the design quality of buildings. Using DQI for assessing a design entails three main principles (Table 2-13). The assessment assures that the designers and end users have the same expectations and that the supply and demand sides have the same vision for a new scheme (Council, 1999).

Table 2-13: The three main principles of DQI (Mulgan et al., 2006: 48)

Heading	Sub-heading
Functionality (usefulness)	**Access, space and uses.** These are concerned with the arrangement, quality and interrelationship of spaces and how a building is designed to be useful to all.
Build quality (building fabric)	**Performance, engineering systems and construction.** These relate to the engineering performance of a building, which includes structural stability and the integration of health and safety aspects. They also refer to the robustness of the systems, finishes and fittings.
Impact (sense of place)	**Urban and social integration; internal environment, form and materials; character and innovation.** These relate to the building's ability to generate a sense of place and to have a positive impact on the local community and environment.

With DQI, the evaluation procedure has three stages. First, initial weightings of 1-3 are set for the ten sub-headings above by each stakeholder, leading to many different indicators within the ten headings (Council, 1999). The ultimate aim of a scheme is to achieve excellence in all three primary domains. Second, a design is then ranked or rated using a Likert scale ranging from 'agree strongly' to 'disagree strongly'. In this phase, only the impact sphere and the internal environment sub-heading are measured. The final task is calculating the overall DQI for both stages (Mulgan et al., 2006).

The main target of this task is the building's quality rather than the factors that make for successful places and spaces. However, there appears to be a flaw in that "the initial weighting is constrained to three/four choices—1-3 and not applicable. The problem is that stakeholders are allowed to give everything the top rank—rather than being expected to rank heading and sub-headings" (Mulgan et al., 2006: 50-51).

The VALiD method also involves weighting and ranking; however, it is a more advanced model. The first stage attempts to obtain the organisational values of the participants to stimulate their expectations. This task has no connection with design or the impacts that a development has in urban places. Instead, it features vague headings of various values types, including hedonism, stimulating, others-orientated and security. In the next stage of this method, stakeholders are requested to select their preferences from two general lists that include the benefits they seek and sacrifices they are prepared to make. Finally, the participants are asked to reflect on their views about resources, including risk (such as delays in securing planning approval), costs and time delays (Mulgan et al., 2006). The main issues in using this

method to assess the quality of design are the neglect of public spaces within the development and the weakness of evaluating resource allocation.

Paved with Gold is part of a long-term CABE research programme investigating the value of design (CABE Space, 2007a). It focuses measuring the full range of benefits, from direct, tangible financial benefits to indirect, intangible and long-term values such as improved public health or reduced levels of crime. Assessing design quality in this method depends on the use of the pedestrian environment review system (PERS), which is a tool used to evaluate the quality of an area for those on foot. PERS evaluates the way a street works both as a link in facilitating movement from point A to point B and as a place on its own. Figure 2-6 shows the categories included in PERS and the weight of each category against the others. PERS has been used to assess the quality of each high street. The final scores are calculated on a seven-point scale from -3 to +3. The results of this study suggest that improving street quality might add at least 5% to the value of property and rents. CABE joined Space Syntax in a new project to identify the effects of the physical design of a place on both economic values and the social values.

Spaceshaper (2007b) is a practical toolkit that created by CABE Space that can be used by anyone to measure the quality of public space before investing time and money in improving it. The mechanism of Spaceshaper emerges by capturing the perceptions of both the professionals involved in managing spaces and the individuals who use them. The results are discussed during facilitated workshops that argue for matters of design quality and provide a better understanding of how the space works for the various stakeholders involved in managing the space. The purpose of this toolkit is to raise positive aspirations and encourage users to demand more from their local spaces. As illustrated in Table 2-14, Spaceshaper works by capturing 41 characteristics, grouped into eight sections, to rate a site.

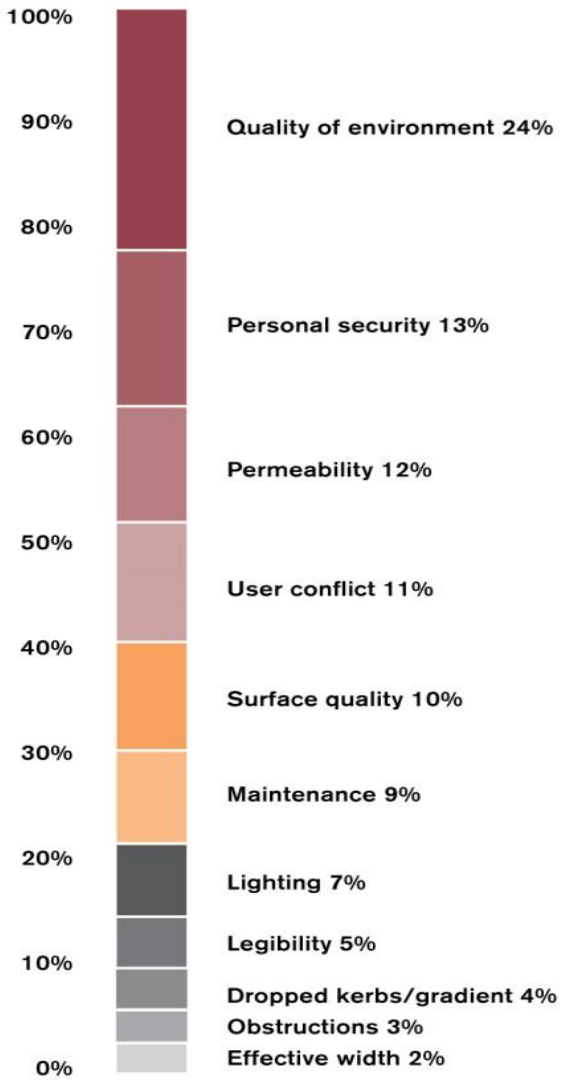


Figure 2-6: Individual importance of PERS categories (Space, 2007a: 5)

Table 2-14: The eight sections of space rating by Spaceshaper, (Space, 2007b: 6)

Measure	Question
Access	Finding your way and getting about
Use	What activities and opportunities a space has to offer
Other people	How the space caters for different needs
Maintenance	How clean and well-tended a space is
Environment	How safe and comfortable a space is
Design and Appearance	What a space looks like and what it is made from
Community	How important a space is to local people
You	How the space makes you feel

Spider diagrams are one of the ways in which the results of the questionnaires are illustrated during the workshops. As shown in Figure 2-7, eight lines, each representing one of the eight sections of the questionnaire, radiate from a central point. The score is marked on each axis and as more positive responses from people are noted about a place, the further away from the centre the point appears on the line. Then, all points are joined inside the shape and coloured in: the bigger the overall shape area, the better the perception of the site. This diagram is used to help initiate discussion among workshop participants and provide a chance for participants to evaluate the value and benefits of a place (CABE Space, 2007b).

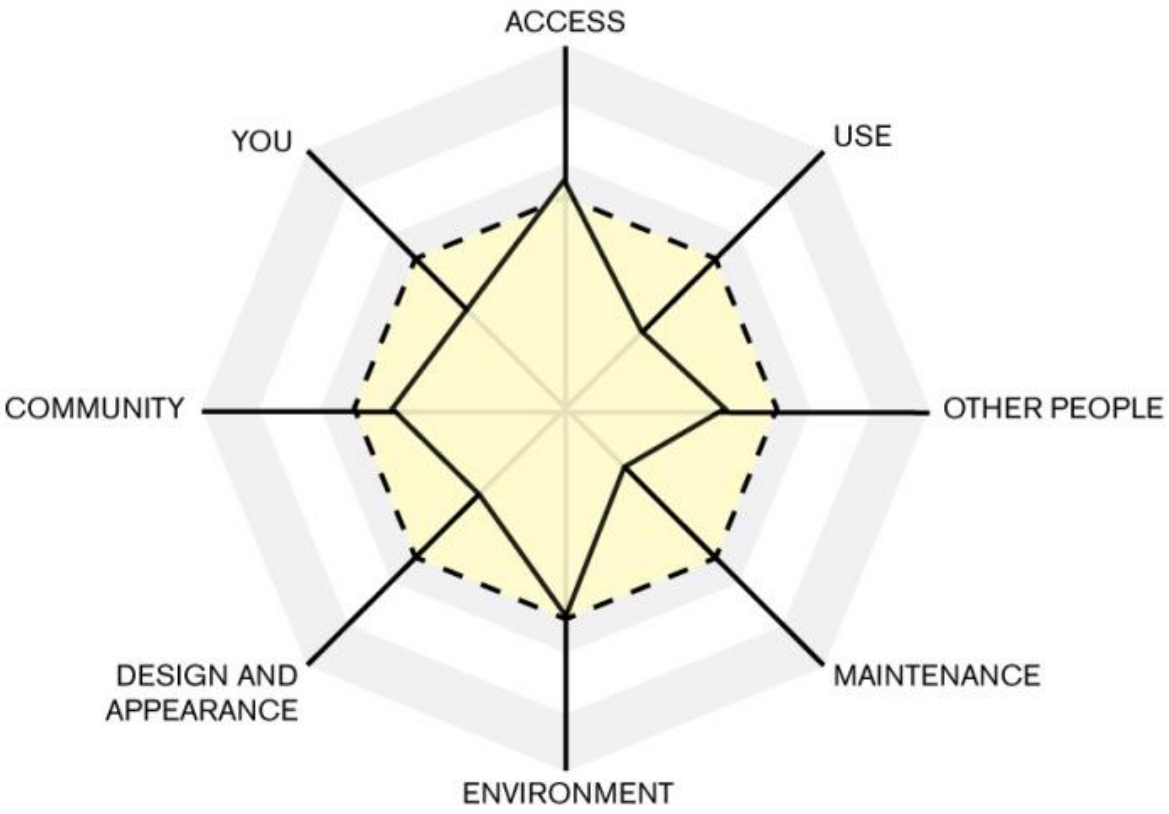


Figure 2-7: Sample results of the Spaceshaper method (CABE Space, 2007b: 7)

The Value Handbook (CABE, 2006c), is a useful guide that identifies the benefits that public sector organisations could obtain from the buildings and spaces within the surrounding area. It also demonstrates the different types of value that produced by the built environment. Another study by CABE, *The Cost of Bad Design* (CABE, 2006a), focuses on the sequences of poor design and its effects on inhabitants, neighbourhood and society. CABE has also carried out two studies to show the increase in economic value of nearby properties by well- planned and managed parks and squares near those properties (Space, 2005, Space, 2009).

According to the UDC (2000), a character appraisal is a tool used to define the perceptions of a place, which "are made up of layers of understanding—the settlement in the landscape, its overall structure, the district, the street, the building" (Davies, 2000: 22). A character appraisal evaluates the roles and relationships of the area or site to its context, using an appreciation of the individual characteristics of form and the use of a place in order to establish foundations for high-quality design (Davies, 2000). The key components that a character appraisal relies on when assessing an area are regional identity, linkage to surroundings, local character, morphology, natural features and socio-economic profile.

Placecheck is a companion method to Qualityreviewer and Capacitycheck that is widely used (UDS, 2012). Placecheck was developed by the Urban Design Alliance (UDA), with the support of English Partnerships and DETR. The initiative was authorised by CABE, the Local Government Association and One North East, the regional development agency for the north east of England (Cowan, 2001). Placecheck evaluates the qualities of a place, proposes improvements that are needed and focuses people on working together to achieve them "by asking a comprehensive range of questions about the processes of change and the potential for improving the area physically" (Cowan, 2001:5). The scale of the area that a Placecheck can cover ranges from a street or even part of a street, a neighbourhood, a city centre or an entire district or city. Placecheck is a simple method that can be carried out by local communities to generate an action plans to improve spaces, streets, parks and neighbourhoods.

Placecheck can be carried out by gathering a local partnership or alliance of people with a stake in a place's future. Participants in a Placecheck could include anyone who is a member local stakeholders or agencies. The significant resources that Placecheck requires to run include: "People who are in a position to organise the project"; local programmes of which Placecheck can be a part; "skills such as organising, facilitating, drawing and photography"; funding and financial support; venues; and publicity (Cowan, 2001: 8). However, Placecheck can also be carried out with limited resources. The essential element of Placecheck is a checklist of questions in three parts that are intended to prompt participants to think about what might be relevant to their area. Part A starts with three simple questions that "will get people thinking, and in some cases no more prompting will be needed. The last of those questions, 'What needs to be improved?' may start people wondering what the options are"(Cowan, 2001: 11). Part B sets out 15 questions that are more specific. The first six focus on who is involved in changing a place for the better and how they can be involved to achieve that goal. The other nine

questions focus on how people use a place and experience it. At this level, these questions may be adequate to draw out the data that is required. If not, the next part provides more prompts. The longest part of the checklist is Part C, which "goes more deeply into those 15 questions, listing a series of detailed questions (more than 100 in all) under each one" (Cowan, 2001: 11). Part C is comprehensive and does not have to be answered in its entirety. The concept, instead, is to help the users of this method to consider what might play a role in improving the place in question. This tool might help people understand their places and decide what the next steps should be. Other Placechecks might assist is preparing the ground for documents that councils, regeneration partnerships, developers and local communities generate to guide future development in an area (Cowan, 2001).

Qualityreviewer was introduced in *Qualityreviewer: Appraising the design quality of development proposals* (2010). Qualityreviewer is a tool for assessing the design quality of development proposals at the start of the planning process, a step-by-step guide that includes plans, case studies and examples to help planners, designers and other stakeholders focus pre-application discussions on quality, structure design statements and appraise design quality at the design review and development management stages (Cowan et al., 2010). It can be used at every stage of the planning process by any participant, including local authorities, agencies, design team, and consultees. It is not a "substitute for having the right skills or getting the necessary expert help. Indeed, when used alongside the skills audit method Capacitycheck, it can help local authorities identify what they need to do to bridge any skills gap" (Cowan et al., 2010: 9).

Qualityreviewer provides a series of steps, divided into three parts, to support designers, planners, local authorities and other decision-makers in thinking about the quality of development of all scales and types. Part A builds an understanding of the place in question; what is special about it, and how should policy and guidance be applied to it? Understanding the proposal from concept, impact and design quality to the designing team comes next. This step deals with implementation so as to ensure that the design is well-executed and the scheme likely to be well-managed and properly maintained. The last step in this part of the process is making a decision that highlights the importance of information and advice and ensures a balanced approach (Table 2-15). Part B provides more considerations of design quality, using diagrams to focus on the proposed development's weaknesses and strengths in relation to six elements of design quality: movement and legibility; space and enclosure; mixed uses and

tenures; adaptability and resilience; resources and efficiency; and architecture and townscape. Finally, Part C shows the importance of elevating the quality of design through the planning process to focus on making a successful place. The second section helps to streamline the planning application process and raises the design quality of development proposals (Cowan et al., 2010).

Table 2-15: Qualityreviewer method for appraising the design quality of development proposals, adapted from (Cowan et al., 2010)

Understanding the place	1- Site and context appraisal 2- How policy and guidance applies
Understanding the proposal	3- Concept 4- Impact 5- Design Quality • *Movement and legibility* • *Space and enclosure* • *Mixed uses and tenures* • *Resources and efficiency* • *Architecture and townscape* 6- Team
Understanding the implementation	7- Execution 8- Management and maintenance
Making the decision	9- Information and advice 10- A balanced decision • *For pre-application discussions* • *For a design and access statement* • *For appraisal*

Vikas Mehta's *The Street: A Quintessential Social Public Space* (2013) takes the view that public space can be planned and designed to create an environment that supports desirable social behaviour in neighbourhoods and cities. He used several methods to accomplish this goal, drawing on his experience as a daily user of public space, interviews from other users and field observations to enquire into the social dimensions of streets as public spaces. The three methods are used to support the results and deliver a solid understanding of social behaviour on the street. Mehta begins with exploring the street as an urban space by providing a historic overview of the use of the street, discussing sociability as a primary function of public space and defining the notion of sociable streets. He discusses a tactic for a design that is based on the understanding of everyday social behaviour by examining the design of modern public

space to grasp the motivations behind the design thinking involved in creating and evaluating public spaces. He shifts his focus toward the streets that are used as case studies for his research, defines his area of study as focusing on the degree of sociability of a street, which encourages people to be present both day and night and the types of activities that require people to spend a period of time on the street. He develops a typology of social behaviour on the street ranging that ranges from the passive sociability of an individual's simply being in the presence of other people through fleeting social behaviours to enduring sociability that shape the identities of both individual and group. Mehta (2013) synthesizes the findings of his research along with other relevant empirical and theoretical studies to develop a comprehensive set of design, planning and management guidelines to produce and sustain a sociable street. The guidelines generated by this work have the specific purpose of supporting social behaviour on the street. These guidelines address the physical aspect of the environment, human interactions aspect of space, accessibility and opportunities in space and the safety and management aspect of space (Table 2-16).

In *Measuring Urban Design: Metrics for livable places* (2013), Ewing and Clemente deliver detailed research on how high-quality urban design can 'make one street more inviting and walkable than another' (p. 1) and provide clear directions for evaluating the quality of the urban design in a neighbourhood. They develop a set of procedures that can be used to measure urban design qualities with a significant degree of validity, offering 'operational definitions and measurement protocols of five intangible qualities of urban design: imageability, visual enclosure, human scale, transparency, and complexity' (p. 3). Ewing et al. (2013) provide an instrument that has several strengths to assess these five intangible qualities of urban design, insisting that the instrument has been conceptually developed and structured from architecture, urban design and planning. It has been tested and validated, in addition to besides providing instructions for each factor to help assessing the five urban design qualities.

Ewing et al. (2013) outline six steps that were carried out by the research team to develop, test and validate a measurement tool that can be used to create pedestrian-oriented urban areas. They were keen to generate a tool that would be utilized by both designers and non-designers to allow individuals to assess the design qualities of a place, regardless of their expertise (White, 2015). They also provide a detailed field manual for students, urban designers and untrained people to conduct their own measurements in the field (Table 2-17). This tool provides a new way of analysing the built environment through a quantitative approach. It is

an accurate appraisal tool, though its complex statistical analysis might not spread widely among urban designers and planners who are motivated by the more qualitative or artistic aspect of urban design (White, 2015). Additionally, this tool has not been oriented well enough to measure urban design by local authorities to exert a positive influence on zoning codes and other planning policies.

Table 2-16: Guidelines for creating sociable streets, adapted from (Mehta, 2013)

1. Design and Manage the Neighbourhood Commercial Street as Gathering Space • Provide easy access to the street • Reduce speed and volume of vehicle traffic • Encourage and support seating on the street • Make sidewalks wide enough for movement and gathering • Provide shade and shelter • Design a well-furnished street • The street must be lit well after dark
2. Make the Street Attractive to All Users • Design the street for children • Design the street for older adults • Consider the less fortunate and needy • Consider community places for all
3. Preserve and Support Community Gathering Places • Encourage and support independent businesses
4. Strive to Achieve a Complete and Self-Sufficient Neighbourhood Commercial Street • The neighbourhood commercial street must be a place for a variety of businesses • Provide goods and services in unique ambience • Encourage more stores to stay open late in the evening
5. Make the Street a Delightful Place • Encourage personalization of storefronts and street fronts • Design buildings with articulated façades at street level • Design buildings with street fronts that are permeable to the street
6. Let Businesses and Users Claim Ownership of the Street
7. The City Must Assist Businesses in Managing The Street

Table 2-17: The definition and procedures for measuring urban design qualities, adapted from (Ewing et al., 2013)

Imageability refers to the quality of a place that makes it distinct, recognizable, and memorable.	
Steps	1- Count courtyards, plazas, and parks 2- Count major landscape features 3- Estimate proportion historic buildings 4- Count buildings with identifiers 5- Count buildings with non-rectangular shapes 6- Register outdoor dining 7- Count people 8- Estimate noise level
Enclosure refers to the degree to which streets and other public spaces are visually defined by buildings, walls, trees and other elements.	
Steps	1- Count long sight lines 2- Estimate the proportions of the street wall 3- Estimate proportion sky 4- Record street trees
Human scale refers to the size, texture and articulation of physical elements that match the size and proportions of humans and, equally importantly, correspond to the speed at which humans walk.	
Steps	1- Identify long sight lines 2- Estimate the proportion of windows at street level 3- Estimate average building height 4- Count small planters 5- Count street furniture and other street items, outdoor dining tables and lights
Transparency refers to the degree to which people can see or perceive what lies beyond the edge of a sidewalk, path or other public space and, more specifically, the degree to which people can see or perceive human activity beyond the edge of a street or other public space.	
Steps	1- Estimate the proportion of windows at street level 2- Estimate the proportion of the street wall 3- Estimate the proportion of active uses
Complexity refers to the visual richness of a place, which depends on the variety of the physical environment, specifically the numbers and kinds of buildings, architectural diversity and ornamentation, landscape elements, street furniture, signage and human activity.	
Steps	1- Count buildings 2- Count building accent colours 3- Record outdoor dining 4- Count public art 5- Count walking pedestrians

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature on the need for high-quality urban design to improve the understanding of the impact of good urban design on outcomes, the value added to urban places by such design and the different instruments that can capture both tangible and intangible outcomes of good urban design. The quality of urban design was discussed extensively in the urban design discourse in the last decades of the twentieth century.

Lynch's study of the quality of a place recognizes five fundamental principles of successful urban places which depend on the joint effect of the place and the society that occupies that place focusing on the quality of physical urban spaces and ignoring social and meaning aspects of place (Lynch, 1981). Jacobs and Appleyard (1987) propose essential goals for the future of the good urban environment. Sherman (1988) attempts to deliver a list of qualities or characteristics of successful places, but he did not produce a justification for that list. Tibbalds (1992) proposes urban design that draws more attention to the subjectivity of the design, providing the possibility to produce a set of design objectives; however, Rowley (1998) finds it difficult to agree on a definition of high-quality urban design.

The views of what can establish good urban design are diverse among the different stakeholders and depend on how the users' observing them rather than on the precise nature of the development. The contemporary urban design is a complex field, in which case quality of the design is considered as a key factor that has an effect on the people and how they interact. Showing the value of good urban design or its social value is now part of the determination to join design quality to the decision-making process. This study seeks to show the role of good urban design in developing or delaying the relationship between people and urban public places from the users' point of view. It attempts to evaluate social value of urban design through the outcomes of urban design principles and guidelines because high-quality urban design cannot be achieved without them.

Security is enormously important in key aspects of social comfort in public spaces. It is necessary to have direct visual access and raise openness with the surrounding context to increase people's feelings of safety. Meanwhile, barriers to visibility are one of the reasons why people avoid going to public places, so physical accessibility to a public space should be barrier-free and well-connected to paths. Visibility plays an essential role in terms of the potential of entering public areas. Typically, people glance at an area to see if they can enter

safely. Even though visual access to a site might reduce people's desire for privacy, the sense of security would rapidly increase in such an area. Access control is a risk-averse gesture from the perspective of those doing the excluding. Excluding is seen positively when identifying the characteristics of individuals or groups are who considered likely to contravene desired behaviour. On the other hand, it can of course be viewed negatively as discrimination against some users by excluding them from public space. This study seeks to show the role of safety and security as a part of social dimensions of urban design in developing or hindering the relationship between individuals and urban public places.

The emergence of a growing body of international research concerned with the correlation between design and value has placed the concept of added value at the forefront of urban design practice in the last decade. The demand for better design to promote successful regeneration and better place-making was the centre of the government's *State of English Cities* report. UTF produced a considerable number of reports promoting higher standards for urban design, assessment of places and well-designed schemes to create better places in the country's cities.

The first decade of the twenty-first century witnessed a profound understanding of the essential role of urban places in people's lives, which has influenced policies and practice at many levels to deliver high-quality places. *Urban Design Compendium, Delivering Quality Places: Urban Design Compendium 2* and *By Design: Urban Design in the Planning System: Towards better practice* emphasize the importance of good design and quality in the built environment.

There has been growing interest in research concerned with the value of urban design. Showing solid evidence of the value of urban design was a difficult task; however, Lipton's *Value of Urban Design* (2001) aimed to capture the values that can be generated by urban design beyond the purely economic sphere. He was keen to raise awareness of other values that can be captured. Many documents then emerged that strove to assess the value of urban design and to confirm that this value could be evaluated using quantitative and qualitative methodologies. CABE and DETR took on the primary task of providing evidence related to the social and economic benefits of good urban design through the creation of many reports. At that point, a wide range of tools for evaluating the outcomes of good urban design were proposed, using different approaches. The primary goal of all these approaches is to confirm that good urban design should be promoted due to its capacity to add various types of value to a given place.

The challenges in measuring the value of urban design identified in the earlier literature include the complexity of the relationships among the different stakeholders who may perceive and seek different benefits from good urban design. While there are overlapping and shared understandings, many variables have been associated with different viewpoints. Specifically, the necessity to assess the economic and non-financial variables and tangible and intangible benefits has proven especially challenging. The concept of the value of urban design was comprehensive and tended to focus on the value that can deliver to the wider community and place-making attributes like connectivity, vitality, attractiveness and aesthetic quality. Some other tools focused on the social impact of developments and places' ability to generate a sense of place and have a positive influence on the local community and environment. Chapter three focuses on exploring how urban design can impact social functions in public spaces. It discusses the integration of the social and physical dimensions of the built environment, and how a place can be conceived as multi-dimensional so as to dynamically develop a space socially and physically at the same time.

CHAPTER 3 : THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF A PLACE

Places are an essential component of the existence of humanity in our cities. "To be human is to live in a world that is filled with significant places; to be human is to have and to know your place" (Relph, 1976: 1). The deep involvement and attachment of people to the places in which they live has led to the creation of diverse, distinctive places. Not only are attachment and involvement with places considered essential for maintaining both individual and group identities and a sense of security, they are also necessary for human behaviour (Relph, 1976). Hence, it is necessary to pay careful attention to the creation, maintenance and experience of places (Relph, 1976).

The purpose of this chapter is to understand the social construction of a place through the creation of the physical environment. The author focuses on showing the complexity of the nature of the social dimensions of place and the development of the concept of place. How place was formally conceptualized by urban designers, architects, humanistic geographers and anthropologists is presented while investigating the impact of theories of meaning in this process. In this chapter, the author also shows how the social dimension of urban design is traced to understand the human aspects of design, managing spaces, developing schemes and understanding the needs of the community.

Socio-spatial perception is also introduced to show the relationship between the function of the urban spaces and their appearance. It is followed by identifying the role architectural and urban design studies and practice in implanting meanings into place. Social behaviour in the physical setting of public space is expressed to reveals the factors that influence this relationship. The social construction of a place is addressed to understand the relation between place as a foundation of human meaning and the importance of the processes of the construction of places and the formation of urban features.

3.1 Urban Design Attitudes

Urban design serves key social functions, especially in how to maximise the utility of a place through careful arrangement and design of its site. However, there are variations in attitudes towards urban design. For instance, Lang (1994) states that there is an inconvenient coexistence of four attitudes among designers. First, they adopt a financially rational attitude toward urban

design to create public spaces in a way that meets the profit demands of developers (Sorkin, 1992, Kashef, 2008). The users of these public spaces are seen as potential purchasers or renters, so public spaces from this viewpoint are designed as consumer products. This attitude tends to be more concerned with getting new developments built regardless of achieving good-quality urban design (Lang, 1994). Second, there is an attitude that considers urban design as art. This attitude focuses on the aesthetic aspect and has little consideration for users (Lang, 2005). The appearance of the urban environment promotes people's sense of identity and pride even if it does not meet their needs in other dimensions.

Third, there is an attitude that looks at urban design as a problem-solving process. This approach values nostalgia and sees users and users' needs from a retrospective point of view. Urban design in this case is about the design activity rather than designing buildings and creating new physical forms. It shapes the decision of key stakeholders in developing certain urban areas. However, most future policies and guidelines are abstract in nature (Carmona et al., 2010a), whereas design principles should be applied at a more local level to ensure achieving the best quality of life for people.

Urban design as community design is the fourth and final attitude; it emphasises the decisions made by users in the process of urban design. Here, the socio-spatial and legal-economic perspectives blur together (Lang, 1994). In contrast to this direction, some others view urban design as a problem-solving activity. Lynch, Whyte and Jacobs viewed urban design from the perspective that social problems and their solutions can be found in spatial forms (Lynch, 1960, Jacobs, 1961, Whyte, 1980). Another way that designers might adapt in their work is the politicised perspective on public space, which is related to the attitude of urban design as art and urban design through community participation. It emphasises the need for stimulating the environment rather than focusing on users' needs. This attitude was illustrated by Breitbart and Worden (1994) and Levine (2002).

Urban designers have also approached their designs with a view to the public interest (Barnett, 1974). Lang (2005) shows the difference between the attitudes that urban designers take when designing for the public. He includes the two tactics: one based on what is good for society and the other based on what people think is good for themselves. The former definition fits with the attitude many designers choose when designing, which is to give the users what they think

is best, while the second is used by designers who are more politicised (whether voluntarily or not) and involves give users what they say they want (Lang, 2005: 1).

However, neither attitude is sufficient, due to a lack of knowledge of the range of human behaviours and values and the absence of various segments of the public from taking part in decisions at the various stages of developing a scheme (Lang, 2005). There are still wide variations in the specificity of the approaches encouraged by the many design handbooks that have appeared of late. For instance, studying particular issues, such as children and vegetation or specific sites such as Bryant Park and the steps of the New York Public Library, through the Landscape Architecture Foundation's case study methodology was recommended by Francis (2003) . This method was designed to investigate specific issues in urban design. Therefore, as long as detailed needs and valuations can be provided, designs can be developed. This approach argues against the inclusiveness of urban design, in which urban design is placed in the wider context of the entire urban development process. A participatory approach like this can be challenging and painstaking to accomplish, and is typically not pursued by private developers.

Marcus and Francis (1997) and Carmona et al. (2010a) provide general approaches that introduce typologies. Marcus and Francis (1997) propose detailed design guidelines and checklists for wide-ranging types of public spaces such as neighbourhood parks and urban plazas. Meanwhile, Carmona et al. (2010a) argue that successful development of public space must consider six broadly socio-spatial dimensions of design: morphological, perceptual, social, visual, functional and temporal. Understanding the social dimension of urban design entails drawing attention to the human aspects of design, managing spaces, developing schemes and understanding the needs of the community. The social dimension depends on the relationship between space and society, which make it difficult to conceive space as being without social components, just as society is difficult to imagine without a physical location. The social dimension of urban design aims to generate an accessible, safe, equitable urban space for all. However, the current actions in designing and creating public spaces by urban designers lead to more exclusiveness and segregation and a society that expects and desires only private interactions and private communication (Carmona et al., 2010a).

These overlapping dimensions must be robust and capable of evolution and change, which might be difficult in reality. The Project for Public Spaces (PPS) thus recommends certain design principles that have near-universal applicability. For instance, many different public

spaces tend to fail when there is a lack of seating (Madden and Schwartz, 2005). Other documents such as the Charter of the Congress for New Urbanism (CNU, 2000) suggest a general philosophy of urban design that includes not only public space but also other land use matters. Kallus (2001) states that even though the primary point of postmodern urban design is to increase the attention paid to spatial human experience, its notion of space is abstracted, leading to discussion of the nature of a space rather than of its use. This shift has occurred because the focus on the urban experience is derived from the spatial understanding of the city. It is a matter of connecting the notion of urban space with its urban phenomenon. Kallus also uses 'type' in an attempt to explain and restructure urban elements. Introducing typology in public spaces is an attempt to understand the spatial features which are based on a formal-morphological approach, regardless of any social, political or economic discussions. It emphasises the physical aspects of the urban environment and its abstract morphological qualities (Kallus, 2001). However, this approach neglects both the utilitarian aspects and the social dimensions of a space.

3.2 The Socio-Spatial Perspective of Public Places

The idea of understanding public spaces according to the result of interactions or struggles between various factors and actors is not especially new (Calderon and Chelleri, 2013). Indeed, it is well-established in the fields of urban sociology and geography, where it has led to important debates about justice, democracy, conflicts, difference and power relations in the planning, design and management of public spaces (Low and Smith, 2006, Mitchell, 2003). However, the discussion of public spaces as a result of various factors and actors is also gradually entering the field of urban design itself. Even though urban design studies typically continue to emphasise form, function and aesthetics, the complexity of the social dimensions that have a direct influence on and indirect implications for public spaces and urban design are rarely discussed or analysed (Inam, 2002, Cuthbert, 2007).

The integration of social aspects at the individual and group levels must be addressed and defined. The socio-spatial perspective on public space addresses the notions of the identity and function of public space. Drawing on Lynch (1960), Jacobs (1961) and Whyte (1980) as starting points, two overlapping directions have been adopted by researchers regarding the socio-spatial perspective on public space. Firstly, acknowledging that public spaces deliver essential social functions focuses on how to make the most of the utility of such places through

careful design and planning. Secondly, urban design is conceived as a problem-solving process, which reflects the arguments forwarded by Jacobs, Lynch and Whyte that social problems can be and solutions can be found from the spatial form and its influence on human satisfaction.

The socio-spatial viewpoint on public space seeks to determine the function of space and its appearance. Numerous recent studies have built on the foundational work of Lynch (1960), Jacobs (1961) and Whyte (1980), who addressed the relationship between the social dimensions and public space from different points of view. Lynch (1960) investigated the spatial features of public spaces by examining their ability to lead to socially constructed mental maps that allow individuals to navigate and understand the logic of complex environment. By contrast, Jacobs (1961) addressed the social functions and use of public spaces, observing how the vitality and safety of certain urban inhabitants are closely connected to their spatial configurations, particularly to diversity and density. Whyte (1980) sought to describe the correlation between form and function empirically. He investigated open space through a precise observational methodology, first for urban plazas and then other types of open space.

From these foundational ideas, many researchers have adopted a socio-spatial perspective on public space (CABE and DETR, 2001, CABE, 2002a, Space, 2004b, CABE, 2005, Space, 2005, CABE, 2006a, CABE, 2006b, CABE, 2006c, CABE and GLA, 2009). They have proceeded in two overlapping directions. The first trend acknowledges the role of public spaces in producing safe but stimulating places to live, work and relax. The second trend is concerned with the influence of social aspects of the physical form of a place. The argument of this chapter strives to build awareness of socio-spatial complexity and to test the ability of places to generate social benefits while also operating as both a product and a producer of changes in the urban context.

3.2.1 The Influence of Social Aspects on the Physical Form

The second direction within the socio-spatial perspective identifies the importance of the physical planning and setting of open spaces but focuses more on the social aspects and consequences of these places. Social functions, in some situations, can have a direct influence on a place's physical form. Grannis (1998, 2005) observes the arrangement of the small residential streets, which are usually dismissed as a trivial in spatial analysis. However, many studies have shown that small streets actually have a strong effect on neighbourhood relations

(de Jong, 1986, Anderson, 2013). The relation between physical form and social function is addressed in many studies on how health and well-being, physical activity and mental health are related to the effects of public space (Dines et al., 2006, Cattell et al., 2008, McClimens et al., 2012, Chau, 2007, Townsend and Weerasuriya, 2010).

Some people benefit from the opportunities provided by spaces to be separated from everyone else, except for some select others; it is the shared values and common uses that are instrumental in both easing stress and maintain health and well-being. Individuals require a variety of spaces within their community to meet their everyday needs, including spaces to stay, spaces of transit and spaces that unite people (Cattell et al., 2008). While the significance of the visual quality, or liveability, of an urban place for well-being is unquestionable, the increased properties of urban spaces are not exclusively reducible to the physical setting or its aesthetic aspects. For instance, social interactions in urban spaces can bring alleviation from hectic lives, sustain individuals' bonding ties and affect people's overall well-being (Cattell et al., 2008). Thomas (1991: 222) highlights the social function of public space, remarking that "public space is an essential arena which provides opportunities for individuals and communities to develop and enrich their lives". He recognises four social roles for public space: as an arena for public life; as a meeting place for different social groups; as a space for the display of society's symbols and images; and as a part of the communication system between urban activities (Thomas, 1991: 210).

Madanipour (1996) integrates physical and social dimensions of built environment into one approach, describing the relationship between the various parties involved in developing a space socially and physically. He looks at the dynamics of the design and development of urban spaces in their capacity to provide information and a coherent structure. He explores many concepts of space and how they are related to each other and approach the idea of space. The term 'space' has been defined from multiple points of view. According to Colquhoun (1989: 223), urban space can be defined as 'social space' and 'built space'. Social space is 'the spatial implications of social institutions' that are studied by sociologists and geographers. Built space is concerned with the physical space and 'its morphology, the way it affects our perceptions, the way it used, and the meanings it can elicit', which is studied by architects. There are two approaches that can be observed: one sees 'forms as independent of functions' and the other sees 'functions as determining forms'(Colquhoun, 1989). This vision of urban space is the concern of sociologists and geographers. Colquhoun (1989: 224) reasserts the ordinary

distinction between social and physical space by focusing on the role of social functions. He evaluates the modernist tendency "to take a historicist and relativist view of architecture and to regard the city as an epiphenomenon of social functions, resulting in a particular kind of urban space". As a result, he sides with postmodern critics who tend to dissociate physical from social space and concentrating on the former as 'an autonomous formal system'(Colquhoun, 1989).

Madanipour (1996) remarks that the physical and social space relationship that take place between form and function in modernist architectural language has been one of the key themes of the postmodern challenge to modernism. The modernist formula that supports 'form follows function' relate social and physical spaces in a rather simplistic and deterministic way. On the other hand, the postmodern challenge has tried to escape this relationship and focus on physical space. However, just as social and physical space were not combined in modernist architecture and planning, nor can the later postmodernist disregard of social space and the political dimension associated with deal in a socially concerned way with the urban environment (Madanipour, 1996). The separation between physical and social space has actually extended the gap between architecture and social sciences, with their different visions of space.

Madanipour (2010) states that claims have an effective role in given public spaces their own image and identity. These claims can be made by many parties within a city, such as powerful individuals, institutions, the local authority, developers and sometimes informal groups. He agrees that these individuals and groups can shape and determine some characteristics of public spaces and urban areas, depending on their level of economic, political and cultural influence. He indicates that claims made by less powerful groups might have only temporary impacts on shaping cities. However, claims can lead to shaping spaces, depending on the image that organizations and individual desire to create. Moreover, they might shape spaces that allow them to feel safe and in control. Madanipour notes that these spaces may be developed with or without other's needs in mind. Space has different characteristics that are related to certain combination of groups and interests under pressure to find an identity within a particular fragment of society (Madanipour, 2010).

On the other hand, the absence of claims can play an effective role in shaping public spaces. Madanipour (2010) attributes people's abstraction from public spaces to three causes. Firstly, people might feel unsafe in public spaces. Secondly, mistrust and the appropriation of space by

other social groups can lead to avoiding public spaces. Finally, intensified social polarization within the public area can be a key aspect of this withdrawal (Madanipour, 2010).

Withdrawal can be seen in public space as neglect and decline, minimal maintenance and carelessness. Neglect of public space might be caused by accommodating vehicular movement in urban areas and the preference for automobiles, which was long a key focus that shaped cities. Public spaces deliver accessibilities and connections between private areas and represent the quality and local theme of an entire city. The decline that occurs in public spaces is visible in social interactions and spatial connections in the entire city. Moreover, changes in the nature of public spaces can have a significant effect on a city's social patterns and promote the creation of fragmented environment (Madanipour, 2010).

Madanipour (2010) argues that public spaces are always evolving in parallel with the other changes that are always occurring in cities and societies. For instance, public spaces can change from places that are embedded in specific communal themes to impersonal spaces that are formed by economic, political and management emphases. When public spaces turn into meaningful places, they becomes part of the transportation network that is dominated by cars. Public spaces are being taken over by alternative interests and being privatized for safety or exclusion, which increases fragmentation in both space and society (Madanipour, 2010).

Urban areas might take a long time to change physically, but socially they might reveal new beliefs and different behaviours in much shorter periods of time. Society's economic and social arrangements might shift from agrarian to industrial, which leaves some spaces intact. However, in urban societies change occurs dramatically in use patterns and in the meaning of the nature of these spaces (Madanipour, 2010).

The shape of a city can develop when many claims interact with each other in different parts of the city. An individual claim might help form one side of the city or change people along with changing space. Alongside with claims, resistance, transgression and contesting can establish fixed or abstract identities for places and signify their character (Madanipour, 2010).

Holland et al. (2007) indicates that, in the current literature, there are two ways of thinking and writing about public spaces in North America and Europe. First, privatization and surveillance have reduced the number of public spaces. Second, public spaces encourage different groups of people to bind together and express their experience in public areas. The literature on public

space over the last two decades has noted the emergence of different forms of the provision of public space, which now has different models of state ownership and management. There has been a complicated redistribution of roles, rights and responsibilities in public space governance, which has led to a variety of social actors, beyond the state itself, in a position to influence public spaces (De Magalhães, 2010).

Hillier and Hanson (1987) discuss the absence of models relating spatial structure to social formations when redefining space. They describe the fundamental approach of social theory to conceptualizing society as a relationship between a 'material realm' of physical space that neglects the social content in itself, and an 'abstract realm' of social relations that neglects the spatial dimension. Madanipour (1996) shows that understanding space, its influence on the urban environment and the outcome of urban design must look beyond appearances and spatial organization. He states that the possibility of seeing the people who occupy a space and the way they interact with that space and of focusing on the way that people utilize space that can allow urban design to obtain the best use of a space. He insists that urban space must be seen in a socio-spatial context, and that urban design should operate in that context. Moreover, he notes that emphasising one aspect over another in this complex context could lead to a decline in the significance of the role of urban design.

Public spaces typically represent the community, society and culture in which they exist (Carr et al., 1993). The concept of 'space' as opposed to 'place' was clarified by Madanipour (1996); space is found in an open area, while place is that part of a space that is occupied by people and hosts activities that have value and identity. It is necessary to understand the social process of a place's transformation and the key aspects that influence those changes to obtain a clear understanding of the evolution from space to place. There is a strong relationship between a place and its society. Usually, the social dimension has an impact on spatial change, leading to particular responses and social interpretations. As shown in Figure 3-1, a framework has been developed to describe and understand this process clearly by offering a view of socio-spatial transformation, which occurs through a process that involves space, needs, idea, order, form and meaning (Madanipour, 2010). The same thing happens with the analogous process of the production and management of a place. Space indicates to existing man-made space. Space becomes place through specific needs in specific circumstances related to its context. The need raises an idea that is related to how to address this need. The idea is that the start of the process is demanding structural organisation, which leads to form. The form physically represents the

need and idea; it takes on a specific shape, size and texture, all of which can be measured. From there, spaces can convey meaning to people over time. They also can appeal to human feelings,; when people feel safe and secure in a place, that can influence the use of a space and generate a different behavioural pattern from one space to another (Madanipour, 2010).

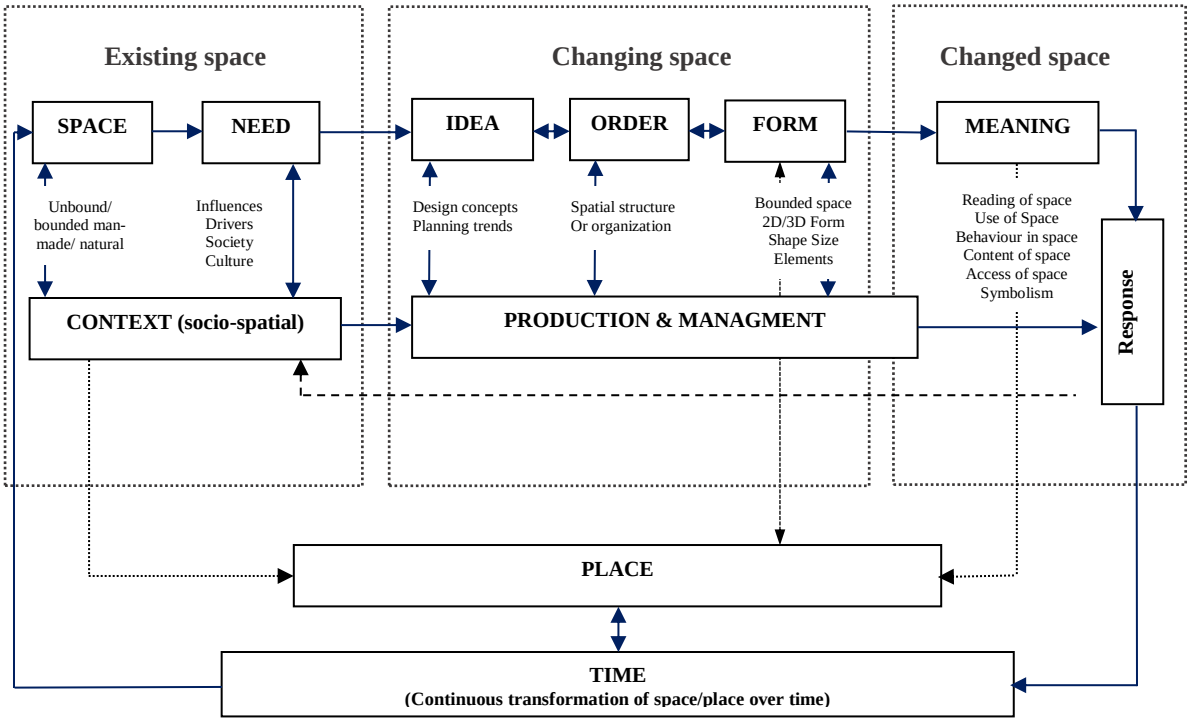


Figure 3-1: A framework for investigating the process of making and changing urban spaces(Madanipour, 2010)

There is a correlation between space and place; space is the first step in understanding place. Moreover, whenever a user feels or understands a space, that indicates that there is the concept of a place; a place is a space with a distinctive character. A place must have three elements to be identified as a place: function, form and meaning. They contributing to the sense of place and show the relationship between society and place (Madanipour, 2010). It is advisable for space to be linked and connected to society, because life and the space of individuals could lead to positive connections with culture, society, community and the economy. However, in order for people to become attached to their surroundings, there are basic requirements a space must achieve to be meaningful. For instance, a place should be recognizable and distinctive in order for people to see the meaning in a setting. Emphasizing connections and social meaning of a site can reflect its physical qualities (Carr et al., 1993).

3.3 Architecture and the Creation of Place

Designing spaces, for Sime (1986), is a process attributed to the architect, who focuses on the properties of geometric space. The architect might give insufficient consideration to how the uses and activities in those spaces generate feelings in other individuals. On the other hand, architecture is the best hope for creating places, regardless of any challenges. The term place, rather than space, suggests a powerful emotional tie—whether temporary or for a long- lasting period—between an individual and a particular physical area that produces a positive experience (Sime, 1986).

Recently, the importance of place has been recognized in architectural and urban design studies and practice (Norberg-Schulz, 2000, Dovey, 2014). As meanings are the key elements that distinguish places from mere spaces or geographic locations, it might be argued that the role of architects, urban designers and planners is to implant meanings into the built environment by designing them to have meaning. However, that begs the question of how to generate meanings in places (Alexander, 1979, Rapoport, 1982, Sennett, 1992, Dovey, 1999). The meanings of a place are influenced by the physical features of that place; Sennett (1992) believed that an original design for the physical environment generates meanings, while design that copies or borrows from other schemes lets the 'sense of place' become unclear. This suggests the responsibility that architects, designers and planners have in generating a meaning of place. Place researchers suggest that users of places play a key role in creating meanings for a place (Berdoulay, 1989, Massey, 2013). Based on this view, place emerges and changes according to a continuing process, rather than being a static object. The role of users in creating the meaning of place is no less important than role of the space's designer. People attribute meaning to places by the way they use it to construct some of their self-identity. This notion of using places for self-identification is part of the basic cognitive process of distinguishing places (Gustafson, 2001).

Both practicing architects and writers on architecture have recognized the importance of place in several ways (Dovey, 1999, Norberg-Schulz, 2000, Dovey, 2010). Richard Rogers believes that 'a sense of place is what generates the character of architecture. Without this, buildings are generally banal', while good architecture can create 'open minded or multifunctional public spaces' that 'encourage interaction between diverse social groups. Encounters in which architecture plays a vital role'(Cited in: Cresswell, 2015: 128-29).

The term '*genius loci'* refers to a more general 'spirit of place', not far removed from the concept of sense of place. Jackson (1994) indicates that the term 'sense of place' is a much used-expression by architects that has been appropriated by urban planners, interior designers and developers, where it lost its meaning since it is an ambiguous translation of the Latin term *genius loci*. The concept of *genius loci* has been developed by the architect and theorist of architecture Norberg-Schulz (1980). He described the assemblage of the physical and symbolic values in the environment by including both natural aspects of place—such as climatic conditions—and the human landscape. He states that "architecture means to visualize the *genius loci*, and the task of the architect is to create meaningful places, whereby he helps man to dwell" (Norberg-Schulz, 1980: 5). This perception is comprised of two viewpoints regarding the meaning and structure constituting the world. In the architectural view of Norberg-Schulz, the components of the physical environment are perceived as parts of the urban environment which offers meaning to places; architecture should concentrate on the meaning as much as it focuses on the physical structure of the environment. He discusses the conservative forms of architecture and city planning—such as 'new urbanism' or 'neotraditional architecture'—that advocate the reproduction of old or traditional styles to create a new sense of place from scratch. He emphasizes that "to respect the *genius loci* does not mean to copy old models. It means to determine the identity of the place and to interpret it in ever new ways" (Norberg-Schulz, 1980: 182).

According to (Sime, 1986), Norberg-Schulz (1971, 1980) actually draws on Lynch (1960) arguments when he lists some physical features of urban design that form the basis on individual's sketch maps of cities. While Lynch considers using node, landmark, path, edge and district as a foundation for individuals' orientating themselves in space, Norberg-Schulz uses the expressions paths, places and boundaries. There are two significant psychological purposes in determining place, 'orientation' and 'identification': "To gain an existential foothold, man has to be able to orientate himself, he has to know where he is. But he also has to identify himself with the environment, that is he has to know how he is in a certain place" (Sime, 1986: 51). Norberg-Schulz (1980: 5) remarks that 'man dwells when he can orientate himself within and identify himself with an environment or, in short, when he experiences the environment as meaningful'; which according to him suggests that 'the spaces that life occurs are places' (Norberg-Schulz, 1980: 5)

Lynch believes that a good environmental image gives its owner a meaningful sense of emotional security (Lynch, 1960); he does not worry himself with the 'meaning' of this particular image for this individual. In this regard, Norberg-Schulz extends his argument to Lynch's work into the realm of existential meaning. Norberg-Schulz notes that "man dwells when he is able to concretize the world in buildings and things" (Norberg-Schulz, 1980: 23). He firmly considers that the process of 'concretization' is the purpose of the work of art rather than the abstraction of science. He states that architecture "belongs to poetry and its purpose is to help man dwell". The vital role of architecture is 'to concretize the genius loci' (Norberg-Schulz, 1980: 23).

Norberg-Schulz (1980) outlines what he implies by a verbal and photographic 'description' of three cities Prague, Khartoum and Rome which he views as having in their own ways captured different qualities of places. His argument emphasises that features of the physical environment can be referred to as a part of the overall environment that offers meaning to the place. He also indicates that architecture and the creation of places are an artistic effort, rather than something that can or should be studied scientifically (Norberg-Schulz, 1980).

In *A Pattern Language*, Christopher Alexander has attempted to produced holistic buildings that challenge modern approaches to architecture (Alexander et al., 1977). He believes that good architectural practice can be achieved through studying existing places that work, which most often can be perceived as 'traditional'. Both Norberg-Schulz and Alexander insist on the connection between buildings and local senses of place; for them architecture needs to always be contextual (Cresswell, 2015).

3.4 Place as a Focal Point of Meaning

In architecture and urban design studies, David Canter (1977) developed a well-known theoretical model for a sense of place. This theoretical framework has the capability to explain the components of quality urban design. Based on the model of Figure 3-2, the urban environment is a place that consists of three dimensions: physical attributes, activities and conception. According to this theory, the quality of urban design is the result of success of these three elements (Canter, 1977). This model has led other scholars of urban design to present refined models that drawn on the attractiveness and efficiency of Canter's model of place. John Punter (1991) proposes a structure of urban life through the components involved in creating sense of place. Based on his model in Figure 3-3, he introduced the three

components of meaning, activities and physical setting as involved in creating a sense of place (Punter, 1991). The related subcategories as shown in Figure 3-3 clarify the fundamental segments of place that means to be of everyday utility in the urban life.

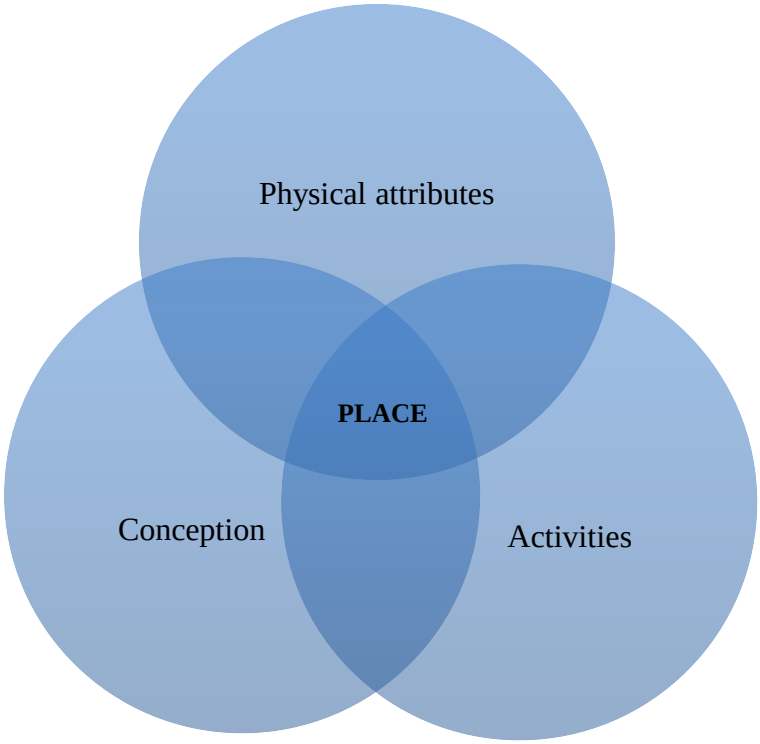


Figure 3-2: The sense of place model (Canter (1977)

In line with Canter and Punter, Montgomery (1998) proposes a model of place that contains three components: form, image and activity (Figure 3-4) . He introduces parameters related to each element to foster an urban sense of place as well as a means of evaluating the success of urban places; physical parameters assess the urban form, while perception parameters evaluate the image and functional parameters assess activities (Montgomery, 1998).

The importance of the role of the public realm and associated semi-public spaces is emphasized by Montgomery (1998), because it provides the territory for social interactions and a substantial part of a city's transaction base, such as market squares, shop frontage, street vendors and sidewalk cafés. It is advisable to be linked and connected to the community. However, for people to become attached to their surroundings, there are basic requirements must space achieve to be meaningful.

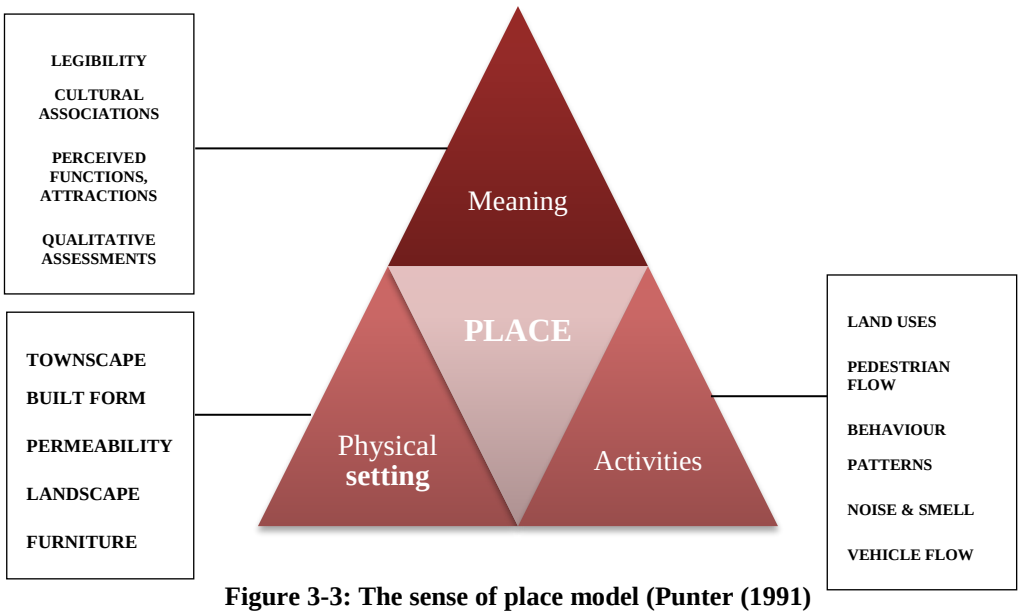


Figure 3-3: The sense of place model (Punter (1991)

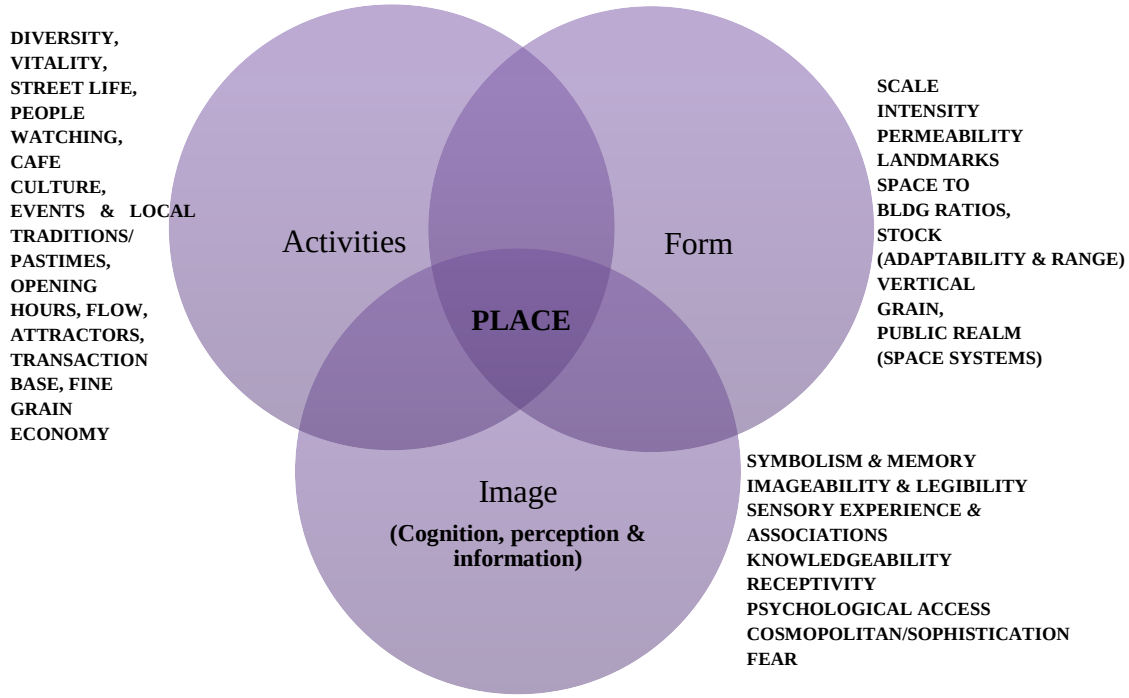


Figure 3-4: A composite derived model to foster an urban sense of place (Montgomery, 1998)

Based on these three models, a sense of place contains three interrelated aspects that combine to generate a sense of place. Physical components and appearance, observable activities and functions and meanings or symbols are the three components that merge into each other to form the overall sense of place. Analysing the physical setting and the functions and activities of the

urban environment is a mission that can be done; however, there it is difficult to grasp the meaning of the place because meaning is intangible.

3.5 The Physical Setting of the Place and Human Behaviour

Understanding the relationship between people and space is an essential component of urban design. Considering this relationship between humans and environment starts with architectural and urban design, because the physical setting of the environment has a determining impact, of at least some degree, on human behaviours in urban public spaces (Carmona et al., 2010a). In this respect, Kashef (2008: 416) describes an attitude within the social sciences that has seen space as 'a backdrop or a neutral container for economic and social activities (i.e. urban space may be configured and reconfigured by societal and cultural changes but not vice versa)'. By shaping the urban environment, urban designers influence the patterns of people's activities and their social lives. Dear and Wolch (2014), from the humanistic geography field, recognise three aspects of the socio-spatial dialects that show what social relations can be: 1) constituted through space, where site characteristics effect the form of settlement; 2) constrained by space, where the physical setting obstructs or facilitates human activities; and 3) mediated by space, where friction of distance facilitates or inhibits the development of various social practices. Physical factors are neither the sole nor necessarily even the dominant factors that affect human behaviour, though the available environmental can constrain people's opportunities. The human behaviour is situational, embedded in physical—but also social, cultural and perceptual—contexts and settings (Carmona et al., 2010a).

There are different views on the degree to which the physical setting of the environment influences human actions. Physical determinism takes over most the discussion in urban design. However, Franck (1984) lays out four weaknesses or limitations of physical determinist views on design to show how determinism has influenced the environment-behaviour discourse: (1) exaggerating the influence of the physical environment by underestimating the influence of other factors; (2) assuming the physical environment has only direct effects on behaviour; (3) ignoring the active role of human goals and choice; and (4) neglecting the active processes of creating and modifying environments by assuming that the environment is a given, static entity. Therefore, this relationship is not fully deterministic; however, the creation or modification of the environment only generates potentials. People determine how to respond to their environment according to their choices and preferences. In, *Creating Architectural*

Theory: The Role of the Behavioral Sciences in Environmental Design, Lang (1987) argues that this relationship is best viewed in terms of opportunities or 'affordances' of which people can take advantage.

Gans (1961) shows the difference between 'potential' and 'effective' environment, by which a physical setting is a 'potential' environment that offers a range of environmental opportunities that affect what individuals can do. What can people do, in any specific moment in time, is the 'effective' environment. Hence, though designers and planners create potential environments, people generate effective environments. This relationship is conceived as a continuous two-way process that allows individuals to create and modify spaces while also being influenced by those spaces at the same time (Carmona et al., 2010a). Urban design can be seen as a tool that can manipulate the probability of the occurrence of certain behaviours in public spaces. Some studies rely on the concept that human behaviour in public spaces emerges from interactions between humans and the physical setting of the space that is created by urban design. These factors that influence social behaviour are divided into two aspects. One the attributes of individuals, such as age, gender, culture, needs and expectations, religion and emotional conditions. The other is the characteristics of the physical setting, such as access, location, quality of space and amenities provided. Some scholars consider culture as a determinant of the meaning and use of space (Hall, 1966, Rapoport, 1990), while others recognise a role for culture but point to the significant influence exerted by the setting's characteristics (Rapoport, 1990). Gehl and Gemzøe (2004) show that changes might sometimes occur in cultural practices because of changes in the physical setting of a space.

In his concept of behaviour setting as part of ecological psychology, Barker (1966) shows how daily human behaviour relates to physical settings. He explains that the idea of a behaviour setting observes and realises the colouration between the built environment and the patterns of behaviour that might occur within it. A behaviour setting includes a 'milieu', which is a particular layout of the environment, a standing pattern of behaviour that is a frequent activity, and a 'synomorphy', which is a harmonious bond between the two (Barker, 1966). The better the relationship between the layout of the built environment and the activity, the better a behaviour setting can satisfy human needs (Mehta, 2013). The concept of ecological psychology was refined by Wicker (1984), who placed it in the broader context of social structures and issues. He highlights the importance of behaviour settings and the importance of the theory of manning, which means relying on the behavioural setting to work with the

optimal number of individuals. He proposes that in situations of over-manning or under-manning, modifications to the layout must be undertaken in order for the behaviour setting to work effectively.

As noted above, Canter (1977) adds another aspect to behaviour setting in environmental psychology in his discussion of his vision of place. For Canter, places are defined by their physical characteristics, the activities within these areas and the meanings that places deliver to people. In contrast to other writings about place (Relph, 1976, Tuan, 1977, Hiss, 2010), this concept of place does not involve the quality of place as a factor that can affect the behaviour setting. Canter (1977) proposes that people develop their understanding of an environment according to what they do in places and the way they feel about these places.

Mehta (2013) cites two important features in developing an understanding of the relationships between people and the environment: personal distance and territoriality and proxemics. Personal distance is a critical factor that can determine the range of social behaviours possible in a given place. Social behaviours, both active and passive, require the engagement of people with one another. Therefore, interpersonal distances between people in public spaces shape their social behaviours and experiences. In *Cities for People* (2010), Gehl defines four communication distances between people that are worth emphasizing in relation to the site observation of the present study: intimate, personal, social and public. The scale of these four distances is determined by the physical distance between human bodies, and show different sensory perceptions among people. The intimate distance involves people who are between 0 and 45 cm apart, allowing them to exchange strong emotions. At this distance, senses are mostly attached to people's feelings, and they can smell and touch their companions. This is the distance of love and tenderness, as well as of communicating rage and anger. People at a personal distance are between 45 cm and 1.20 m apart. This is the distance at which people contact their families and friends. Providing a better behaviour setting suitable for social interactions can support interactions that take place within this personal distance. Social distance is in the range of 1.20 m to 3.70 m. It can be described as the distance when conversation is about work or vacation memories. Exchanging information through eye contact is possible, and people can easily recognise each other at this distance. Public distance is 3.70 m or more, and is for formal contact and one-way communication, such as in a performance or communication to a group. Understanding these different distances shows the value of public spaces. Public places usually force people who initially chose to be at the public distance to be

at a more social or even personal distance, which increases the chances for social interactions and engagement in passive or active social behaviours (Mehta, 2013).

Territorial behaviour in public space is a second feature that is important in relationships between people and the environment. This is a human spatial behaviour whereby a person temporarily lays claim to a particular area by personalising it with the use of physical and/or representative barriers, artefacts and markers (Mehta, 2013). The property defence mechanism of territorial behaviour helps the organisation of human behaviours in a given setting. Territorial behaviour serves many goals, such as maintaining privacy, providing an identity for individuals or groups and providing stimulation within the setting. It is important to allow for this behaviour mechanism in public spaces (Mehta, 2013).

Many studies have recognised distinct types of social behaviours in public spaces. Lofland (1998) identifies social behaviours that occur in actual physical space. Social behaviours are dominated by relationships among individuals who are strangers to one another. Lofland (1998) classifies the social interactions that occur among strangers into primary and secondary relationships, while also suggested a typology of social relationships in public spaces: the fleeting, the routinized, the quasi-primary and the intimate-secondary. This typology was developed to improve the understanding of social life in the public realm. Fleeting relationships are defined as very brief, mostly civil, visual and/or verbal exchanges between users of the public realm. Routinized relationships occur between individuals who are familiar with each other, such as a customer and waitress; a degree of expectation of exchange governs this type of social behaviour. According to Lofland (1998), fleeting and routinized relationships are not completely understood as relationships so much as interactions. Quasi-primary relationships are brief encounters that are distinct from fleeting and routinized relationships due to being ‘emotionally infused’. Individuals feel a kinship in this context, such as a group of people gathering to watch a public performance. Lastly, intimate-secondary relationships are ‘emotionally infused’ but longer-lasting. They are generated over time by frequent and repeated contact among individuals. An example of this type is elderly people who regularly meet in a restaurant or coffee shop. Lofland (1998) resists the noted tendency to evaluate the synthetic form by the metric of the primary relationship. However, this range of social relationships shapes the foundation of typological classification of social behaviours in public spaces (Mehta, 2013).

3.6 The Social Construction of Place

The development of the idea of place was developed, during the 1980s, as a central, meaningful element in human life. This new approach to the idea of place emerged from and was influenced by theories of Marxism and feminism to explore the social construction of place in order to explain the unique attributes of place (Cresswell, 2015).

The primary concern of Marxist thinking about place began by pointing out the social processes in the construction of place. The material structure of place was associated with the decisions made by the powerful based on their desires. According to Cresswell (2009), Marxist criticism claims that the meanings associated with places, if they are shared, are the 'meanings assigned to place' by people with power who "build the buildings and monuments and inscribe texts on to the material fabric of place", which leads to excluding people and the meaning they represent (Cresswell, 2009: 5).

In the late 1980s, place was the centre of debate due to the emergence of social and cultural conflicts over class, race, gender and sexuality. These conflicts led to the development of a new understanding of place beyond considering it the mere result of social processes (Cresswell, 2015). Place, within these continuing conflicts, was conceived as an opportunity to provide another tool that could "demystify and understand the forces that affect and manipulate our everyday lives", a tool that could establish "the creation, maintenance, and transformation of relations of domination, oppression, and exploitation" (Cresswell, 2015:42-46). David Harvey, from the cultural geographer's point of view, explores the nature of places which do not actually exist but are always being socially constructed by the powerful institutions in society. He draws attention to the notion of place in social life by remarking that "place, in whatever guise, is like space and time, a social construct" and notes that "the only interesting question that can then be asked 'is by what social process(es) is place constructed?' " (Cresswell, 2015: 92). However, he reports the response of the media to the view of Oscar Newman (1972), who introduced 'defensible space' that can produce gated communities and secure neighbourhood against crimes. Harvey asserts that place was used in both progressive and reactionary ways, expecting some threat from difference pursuing to create clear boundaries (Harvey, 1997).

Cresswell (2009) shows how critical cultural geographers explore how places and their associated meanings have played a role in processes of exclusion: 'The mapping of particular meanings, practices and identities on to place lead to the construction of normative places'

where ‘others’ are excluded ‘both physically and existentially’ (Cresswell, 2009: 5). Places and the meaning associated with them are not natural and obvious; they are generated by individuals with more power than others (Cresswell, 2015). In this case, meanings are connected to the designers and the creators of the place, leaving the inhabitants and everyday users to develop their own meanings of a place progressively over time.

Cresswell (1996) insists on the strong connection between people and their practices and particular places. The unspoken rules in the common-sense world determine what is and what is not appropriate in places, thus creating place-based norms (Cresswell, 1996). In contrast, Cresswell argues that because assuming that human forces made a place within the broader social construction of places, it is equally possible for human power to undo it: the “social constructions of place are constantly contested, transgressed, and resisted by the excluded” through practices in places (Cresswell, 2009: 6). According to this view, the construction of places is a continuous process that never ends, and places are always open to changes and transformation (Cresswell, 2009). This is what leads some scholars to believe that the construction of places is never actually finished, and that places are always changing and transforming.

In the contemporary debate about the social construction of place, Cresswell (2015) responds to the question of ‘what is it that place is socially constructed of?’ by providing two components that construct place: ‘meaning’ and ‘materiality’(Cresswell, 2015: 46). The meaning that is associated with places is created socially by the groups and individuals who use, experience and live in these places. The meaning of a place comes from ‘a social milieu’ that is dominated by human cultural values. The second component is materiality which, is ‘the very fabric of place’ and is ‘the product of society’ as well (Cresswell, 2015: 46).

This view of the construction of place emphasises both the social and geographical context of place bonds and the sense of place, such as the appearance of the physical setting or the feeling of residents toward their urban places. This approach is different from what Madanipour (2010) has suggested generates spaces in the urban built environment; for him, the three elements are function, form and meaning fulfil that role. Function or use is one of the key components that can construct place; Jacobs (1961) expresses the need for variety and primary uses that are considered attractions that engage people in their community and create the diversity out of the presence of many uses.

In *Getting Back into Place: Toward a renewed understanding of the place-world*, Casey (1993) comments on his own work by stating that "In the past three centuries in the West—the period of 'modernity'— place has come to be not only neglected but actively suppressed. Owing to the triumph of the natural and social sciences in this same period, any serious talk of place has been regarded as regressive or trivial"(Casey, 1993: xiv). Casey attempts to reverse this trend, hoping that a deepened understanding of the role played by place in people's lives might renew attention to the important place and emphasise the care of places (Casey, 1993).

A much deeper role for place was introduced by the geographer Robert Sack, who insists that David Harvey's view of the privilege of the social is not correct: 'the only interesting question that can be asked is by what social process(es) is place constructed? (Sack, 1997). Sack (1997) emphasises the essential role of place in our lives as human and warns that it should not be reduced to the social, the natural or even the cultural. Instead, place is a phenomenon that partially generates these worlds and links them together.(Sack, 1997, Cresswell, 2015).

The philosopher Jeff Malpas asserts that the concept of place "as much more than a segment of the inhabited earth—even a meaningful one" (Cresswell, 2015: 48). Malpas believes that "the idea of place encompasses both the idea of the social activities and institutions that are expressed in and through the structure of a particular place and the idea of the physical objects and events in the world that constrain, and are sometimes constrained by, those social activities and institutions. There is no doubt that the ordering of a particular place—and the specific way in which a society orders space and time—is not independent of social ordering. However this does not legitimate the claim that place, space or time are merely social constructions. Indeed the social does not exist prior to place nor is it given expression except in and through place—and through spatialized, temporalized order… It is within the structure of place that the very possibility of the social arises" (Malpas, 1999: 42,43). He emphasises necessary relation between place and the human (Malpas, 1999).

According to Cresswell (2015), both Sack and Malpas insist that 'humans cannot construct anything without being first in a place—that place is primary to the construction of meaning and society' due to ' the experiential fact of our existence' (Cresswell, 2015: 50). They both assert that place is a construction of humanity and that society is inconceivable without place: 'the social and the cultural is geographically constructed' (Cresswell, 2015: 49). Unlike Harvey's view of place, Sack, Malpas and Casey think of place in general and lack empirical

examples to support their cases. Their argument about place focuses on the need for place as a foundation of human meaning and social relation, but they failed to clarify the processes of making a place and the construction of urban areas (Cresswell, 2015).

In examining place in depth, Relph (1976) describes sense of place through different degrees of what he calls insideness and outsideness. He views insideness as the most original contribution to the understanding of place. This concept is the core lived structure of place as it has meaning in people's lives. Relph describes the characteristics of what a person inside a place feels. He suggests that a person inside a place feels safe, enclosed and at ease when he or she is in that place. On the other hand, a person can be separated or alienated from place; Relph calls this mode of place experience outsideness. In this mode, a person or a group feels separation or division between themselves and the world, as people do when they feel homesickness in a new place. Relph emphasises that insideness and outsideness establish a fundamental conflict in human life. Through changing combinations and intensities of insideness and outsideness different places take on different identities for different individuals and groups. Hence, the human experience takes on different qualities of feeling, meaning, ambience and action (Relph, 1976). Both modes of experience depend on the full variety of human feelings and experiences, such as culture, memory or society, regardless of the physical urban environment.

The impact on this thesis can rely on different qualities that demonstrate the social value added. It also clarifies the process of making the place and its construction through the physical setting of place and the activities that occur by the place users. Relph (1976) calls the strongest sense of place experience 'existential insideness'. This occurs when a person is in deep, unselfconscious engagement with a place, such as being at home in a person's own community. The opposite of that is what he labels 'existential outsideness', which is strangeness and even alienation. For instance, newcomers to a place or individuals who have been away from their homelands for a long time, feel like strangers because the place they come back to is not as they knew it before.

A sense of place is perceived as a connection due to the understanding of routine symbols and activities. These different feelings can be created in an individual's living area and can become deeper over time (Relph, 1976). The social behaviour of people within a place is impacted by their feelings for the site where they live. Individuals' participation in social activities also

depends on their feeling about a place. A sense of place delivers a feeling of security and emotional awareness beyond its role coordinating the function of the human and urban environments (Canter, 1977).

McCreanor et al. (2006) define the sense of place as the way people describe their attachment to a place. Describing a place as a safe and comfortable place where people can socialize and interact with others is the method that many people use to describe their sense of place. The degree of positivity in the way people describe their places reflects their attachment to them. Showing less interest in a place is a sign of less attachment to it, whether due to their negative views of a place or simply a lack of personal experience of a place.

Hay (1998) suggests that sense of place is influenced by residential status. He shows that superficial connections to place, such as transit or tourist, develop place attachment more slowly than insiders who were raised and spent their most lifetimes in a place. He describes the term 'sense of place' as a more inclusive term than 'place attachment', which implies more specific associations with place. Residential status as a factor that affects the degree of sense of place is tested in the present study to offer a view of the modern practice of urban design in construction places in our community.

The overview of the definition of sense of place illustrates that the sense of place is a result of the relationship between the individual, his or her mental images, and environmental characteristics. On the one hand, it invokes subjective experiences such as culture, tradition, society and memories. On the other hand, it can be influenced by objective and external effects of the environment, such as design, sound and smell. In this respect, the sense of place is a complex concept of human feeling and attachment to a place that is shaped by the adaptation to the use of a place, which means it results from people-place interactions.

The understanding and the experience of places are both affected by the activities that occur in them; it might be necessary for some places to gain meaning through certain activities (Tuan, 1977). Even though some scholars indicate the importance of remarkable events in the conception of places, the sense of place is also heavily dependent on everyday activities (Relph, 1976) and "the reiteration of practice on a regular basis. Space becomes a place when it is used and lived. Experience is at the heart of what place means" (Cresswell, 2009: 2).

Meaning has been used widely as a central concept of place (Rapoport, 1982, Tuan, 1991); however, it is seldom clearly defined. Lefebvre (1992) indicates that space becomes place as humans invest meaning in it and become attached to it. Although a sense of place is considered one of the primary aims of urbanism and architecture, it is affected by the perceptions and feelings of people that people gain during their experience of place (Relph, 1976, Tuan, 1977, Hay, 1998, Carmona et al., 2010a). The potential of place in stimulating people's feeling of creates different places (Lynch, 1960). In other words, perception and people's feelings give an identity to place (Relph, 1976). Cresswell (2009) suggests that 'meaning can be very personal and connected to individuals and their personal biographies. … but meanings are also shared and, in some important ways, social (Cresswell, 2009: 1). According to Cresswell (2009), the physical features or setting of the place are formed by people's activities, according to the meanings that people might wish to evoke: "Meanings gain a measure of persistence when they are inscribed into the material landscape but are open to contestation by practices that do not conform to the expectations that come with place" (Cresswell, 2009: 2).

The previous section has explored in depth the sense of place from the humanistic geographer's point of view. Relph (1976) discusses the sense of place through different degrees of insideness and outsideness. He also illustrates the strength and the weakness of senses of place experienced as existential insideness and existential outsideness. Both aspects are related to the duration of time spent in an area and the experiences undergone in a place. Sense of place, as stated above, can also be understood by the routine symbols and activities and can be created by the tenure of people' residence.

This literature survey demonstrates that lack of interest in a place can cause less attachment to it, because of individuals' negative interpretations of a place or a lack of personal experience of a place. Residential status can also influence the sense of place. The function of the place, such as transit or tourism is tested in the present thesis in terms of delivering place attachment and sense of place. In this respect, the sense of place is a complex concept of human feeling and attachment to a place that is shaped by the adaptation to the use of a place, which means it results from people-place interactions.

Place attachment is one of the affective aspects of the meaning of place (Altman and Low, 1992b). Hidalgo and Hernández (2001) indicate that place attachment is embedded in the affective link between individuals or groups and particular places, and can describe special

feelings. They define place attachment, in its basic form, as 'the desire to maintain closeness to the object of attachment'(Hidalgo and Hernández, 2001: 274). This symbolic bond with place is formed by giving emotional meaning and common sense to a place and explaining how people perceive of and relate to places (Altman and Low, 1992a). The more positive the experience of a place is, the more positive the beliefs and emotions that an individual will develop when interacting with that place and giving it meaning (Relph, 1976). Meanwhile, place attachment emphasises the emotional communication with place based on the characteristics of the place and the interactions that at or in the place. Place attachment is connected to attachment theory and the importance of feeling a sense of belonging to society, rather than simple devotion to the place itself (Kyle et al., 2004).

Architects and urban designers are working towards affecting the perception and feeling of people in a positive way so that people will have better experiences when interacting with places (Tuan, 1977). This is a result of activities and interactions among individuals within a special place and between people and the place itself (Altman and Low, 1992a), and of the two-way interaction of feelings, beliefs, memories and behaviour connected to that place (Proshansky et al., 1983). Place attachment emerges as a result of an individual's interest, understanding and experience of a place that is based on personal, group and cultural features and social communication among people (Altman and Low, 1992a). This relationship is based on emotional, behavioural, cognitive interactions amongst individuals, groups and social physical places in a conscious or unconscious mode and the emotional relationships established between people and place based on their judgment, preference and understanding and their perception of places (Riley, 1992) (Table 3-1).

Table 3-1: Different aspects of people's interaction with the urban environment and its relationship with different components of places, adapted from (Canter, 1977)

	Type		**Place components**
Interaction between people and place	Cognitive:	General perception to grasp the geometry of space and its orientation.	Form
	Behavioural:	Perception of space capabilities to obviate needs.	Function
	Emotional:	Perception of satisfaction and attachment to place.	Meaning

For Canter, the physical aspects of place should be characterised in connection to 'different elements of the place being referred to a mental and behavioural process which encourage the identification of place' (Canter, 1977). He stresses users' viewpoints and activities associated with the place. However, he does not give a detailed account of possible examples of individuals' activities (Sime, 1986). The conception given by individuals lies between the physical attributes and social activities that represent a scientifically measured rational relation. The sense of place that was an important aspect of the humanistic geographers is lost in Canter model (Sime, 1986).

A literature review of place attachment might reveal factors which affect the promotion of place attachment, such as physical factors, social factors, cultural factors, personal factors, memories and experience, place satisfaction and features of interactions and activities.

Physical factors: Many studies in place attachment discourse have depended on the physical setting of place (Ramkissoon and Mavondo, 2015, Ujang and Zakariya, 2015). Most of these researchers tried to answer the questions of which places were important to people and why they were important. The physical and social qualities joined with individuals' perceptions and functional needs to shape place attachment. The results indicate that physical and social features play the same role in the generation of place attachment (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013). In his study, Stedman (2003) investigated the role of physical place on place attachment and argued for a direct role for physical place on satisfaction and an indirect role for physical place in place attachment.

Social factors: Many studies have examined place attachment as a concept that depends on people's participation, social network engagement and cultural interactions. Place attachment is seen as developing from positive interactions in a place. Therefore, the power of place attachment has an effective relationship with the power of communication (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013).

Cultural factors: Place attachment is related to groups, families and members of society whose cultural similarities enable the creation of place attachment. It is related to the activities that people perform in the setting where they fulfil cultural requirements (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013).

Personal factors: Place attachment is viewed differently by different people. People are attached to a particular location according to their own tendencies, which result from personal characteristics: 'Place reflect identities, differences and competitions in different groups based on gender, class, race, ethnic, and culture and indicate individual political tendencies, power, liberty, interest and social system and common interests in consumption motives' (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013: 10).

Memories and experiences: Place attachment occurs when people have experienced a place for a long period. Tuan (2013) indicates that being rooted in a place is a factor that correlates with the integration of individual and place. Hidalgo and Hernández (2001) show that place attachment deviates from developmental period memories and communication that happened in areas rather than just a simple place. They assert that people remember a place that they experienced positively and that place is part of human experience.

Place satisfaction: Place satisfaction has been described in the attachment of place theory as a component that is essential to meet people's needs and expectations about a place. Place attachment is formed from people's expectations of a place as a result of their previous experience and their cognitive process (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013). The satisfaction factor depends on facilities, visual characteristics, management, the place's economic values, architecture and design features, social interactions and place adaption (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013).

Features of interactions and activities: Activities and interactions play an effective role in the promotion of place attachment. It begins when individuals interact with a place socially and physically in the form of meaning, behavioural, emotional and cognitive interactions. These place activities result in the development of place meaning, which causes place attachment (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013). Place attachment can be promoted through permanent activities in places such as festivals and celebrations, which can be important factors in terms of people's cultural attractions.

Time factor: Long-term residency can increase place attachment; many studies support this finding (Lewicka, 2008, Raymond et al., 2010, Rollero and De Piccoli, 2010). The time factor has been investigated as a deterministic feature of both the process and the rate of place attachment creation.

3.7 Conclusion

The social dimension of urban design attitudes towards creating places demonstrates insufficiency due to a lack of knowledge of the full range of human behaviours and values. Public spaces users' are often seen as purchasers or renters when the concern shifts to financial returns, regardless of the quality of the built environment. Urban design studies continue to focus solely on the matters of the form, function and aesthetics; the complexity of the social dimensions that have a direct influence on and indirect implications for public spaces and urban design are rarely discussed or analysed.

In this chapter, the author has also reviewed the socio-spatial perception of place. It was addressed through two overlapping directions that have been adopted by many researchers who argue for a socio-spatial perspective of public spaces. The main aim was to focus on maximizing the social function in public spaces through urban design. From the perspective of Lynch (1960), Jacobs (1961) and Whyte (1980), many writers and researchers have acknowledged the role of public spaces in serving social functions, while others consider urban design as art. When the integration of the social and physical built environment is conceived as multi-dimensional, that can dynamically develop the space both socially and physically, at the same time. Favouring one dimension over another in the discussion of this complex context might lead to a decline in the role of urban design.

Carr and others identified 'human dimensions' to help design and manage public spaces. They described the relationship between users and places across different culture and groups. They drew attention to the role of the physical design of places, which are usually designed according to compact programmes that apply to individual purposes and potential meanings. Thus, users try to build their own programmes and fit them within the spaces, which can create conflicts for managers. Managers then struggle to control people's behaviour within the restrictions of the space. Carr and others also emphasised the need to understand users' potential needs of a place.

The social construction of place re-emerged during the 1980s and was concerned with the exploration of the unique attributes of a place. Many scholars from various disciplines contributed to the demonstration of this notion. Influenced by theories of Marxism and other cultural studies, the anthropologist and geographer David Harvey explored the social construction of place and the role of power relations in the process of producing place and the

meanings attached to it. He raised a key question that influences the debate of the nature of place, asking, 'By what social process(es) is place constructed?' His view sees places and their related meanings as not natural and obvious but as made by those individuals who have more power than others. Places are also socially developed by intense institutional forces in society.

Norberg-Schulz drew attention to place as an integral part of human existence. Alexander and Rapoport developed connections between the meanings of a place and its physical features. They believed that a place's meaning is a process that is created and refined by practice. Massey emphasised the role of users in creating the meaning of a place. For him, architecture and the construction of place is an artistic effort that should not focus on scientific logic.

Relph and Tuan focused on the essence and authenticity of place, while Canter, Punter and Montgomery concentrated on the links between social behaviour and mental processes that occur in a place. The understanding and experience of a place are influenced by the activities that happen there; it may be necessary for some places to increase meaning through specific activities. Place attachment can be advanced with permanent activities in a place, such as festival and celebrations.

Scholars such as Casey, Sack and Malpas have a generic view of place and need more demonstration of the processes that produce a place. They viewed place as a meaningful area that provides social interactions, expressing the relationship between people and place as a fundamental relationship. Hay explored the superficial connections to place, such as transit or tourism, which develop place attachment more slowly than insiders who were raised and spent most of their lifetimes in place. Long-term residency can increase place attachment; many studies support this finding. However, the literature survey has shown that physical and social features both play essential roles in the generation of place attachment.

This study aims to express that the social aspects of place involves both considerations regarding the human dimension of designing public spaces and understanding the need of the society. The social dimension relies on the relationship between space and society, which makes it difficult to consider space without any social components. Similarly, it is challenging to imagine society without a spatial component. The interdisciplinary and complex nature of the concept of place requires the present study to investigate place through behavioural, perceptual and social viewpoints. This approach should include the capacity for the socio-

spatial articulation and promotion of place to recognise social value and its creation in the urban environment.

This study aimed to address the relationship between the intangible concepts of urban public places such as sense of place and social interactions and its direct impact on the emergence of place-making as the major approach when creating high-quality urban spaces. It focuses on recognising how urban design can impact social functions in public spaces. This study attempted to understand the role of place as a product of urban design in serving social functions as Lynch, Jacobs and Whyte emphasise this role. The social construction of place and the role of power relations in the process of producing place and the meanings attached to it were expressed while concentrating on the links between social behaviour and users' perceptions of a place.

CHAPTER 4 : METHODOLOGY

As described in Chapter one (1.3), the primary aim of this study is to address the relationship between urban design and social value through publicly accessible spaces within regeneration developments. The study focuses on relevant design-related indicators that can affect socio-spatial values. Accordingly, it is essential for this study to demonstrate the relationship between individuals and urban public places, with a focus on the role of urban design in developing or hindering this relationship. The literature survey has demonstrated that the correlation between human and public spaces is enormously complex and has been analysed according to many different strands of thought in urban sociology, geography and urban design. While all of these fields argue for some correlation between the social—in the form of bonding ties, cohesion, vitality, safety, etc.—and place, they tend to focus their analysis on social constructions (urban sociology) or spatial and design parameters (urban design). Geography seeks to correlate people and space through the notion of place but does not give due consideration to issues of design and its quality. Accordingly, this study explores the complexity of the social dimensions from these angles to identify their direct influence and indirect implications on public spaces and urban design.

The research methods for this study bring together architectural and urban design analysis, based on a critical evaluation and adaptation of the existing frameworks for evaluating the quality of place, as well as research methods that facilitate understanding the social life of public places such as use, occupation, and user perception. Accordingly, the study correlates physical features and social values in order to understand patterns of spatial constructions of individuals' actions and perceptions, and thus the social life of public places.

The purpose of drawing on the architectural and environmental dimensions in this study is to provide support for the claims that urban design can promote social values and that public places themselves are not only behavioural spaces but also have underlying philosophical aspects. The study aims to enhance knowledge to support decision-making for better provision of urban public spaces. The overall objective of this research is to provide empirical evidence regarding the social value of good design—an area that remains under-researched (CABE and DETR, 2001, McIndoe et al., 2005, Worpole and Knox, 2008)—as well as deriving guidelines for the design of public spaces within housing developments. In addition, this study seeks to

identify and extend the notion of the social value of public space not only to include use value, but also to help construct deeper affiliations such as identity and belonging. Open public spaces contribute to developing social value by increasing people's attachments to their localities and providing opportunities for social interactions and by promoting people's memories of places (Dines et al., 2006).

Based on the above, the main question for this research is as follows: ***How can urban design affect the social value of publicly accessible spaces?***

4.1 The Research Approach

This research considers the interactions between social dimensions of urban design, design quality and urban places by investigating the contribution of the social value of urban design to the formation and transformation of urban space. The interdisciplinary fields concerned with the analysis of the city and the complexity of the urban design field itself make it difficult to constrain the research within the borders of a single discipline, given the issues it raises and investigates. The study undertakes an analysis of socio-spatial behaviour in relation to the social value of urban design. For research studies in the context of social science, the methodology chosen should be based on the background theoretical knowledge, which facilitates the formulation of an appropriate research and data collection strategy. The hypotheses of the study must be explicit with regard to methodological choices; however, this may affect the relationship between the theory and the data gathered (Esterberg, 2002). The methodology of a study represents the way in which the data is gathered. It must be clearly outlined in order to demonstrate and evaluate the study outcomes that require epistemological and ontological rigor. According to Bryman (2003), epistemology involves the nature and scope of knowledge, thus addressing both the potential extent and the validity of knowledge, while ontology is the organized arrangement of relative entities of knowledge that comprise the knowledge domain as a whole. In this case, a researcher can specify categories, social entities and their related similarities and hierarchy (Eldred, 2008). In light of this, the study also analyses socio-spatial behaviours in relation to the value that is brought by urban design. An analytical approach is taken in order to evaluate participants' behaviours and their social perceptions of a place.

Thus, this research employed methods drawn from urban design disciplines. The main framework for this study is a mixed-methods approach, since even though the research is

presented as a qualitative study in terms of its characteristics, it uses both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. According to Saunders et al. (2009), it is useful for a single study to integrate both "quantitative and qualitative techniques and procedures in combination as well as use primary and secondary data" (Saunders et al., 2009: 151). In this respect, different methods can be used to achieve a range of aims via investigation of the interdisciplinary and complex concept of place and social value within the field of urban design.

When a researcher is focused on selecting the most appropriate approach for the study at hand, different methods can be freely combined depending on the purpose and nature of the research questions to be explored (Creswell and Garrett, 2008). For instance, in social science research, addressing questions that do not fit comfortably within a wholly quantitative or qualitative approach suggests using mixed methods (Armitage and Keeble-Allen, 2007).In *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research,* Creswell and Clark (2011) provide a comprehensive discussion of mixed methods and argue that the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches enables researchers to obtain a better understanding of the nature of the research and the problem under study, compared to using either approach alone. Planners and urbanists face societal issues that can be seen as 'wicked' multi-dimensional problems (Rittel and Webber, 1973: 160), which require the use of mixed methods in order to provide optimum solutions. Groat and Wang (2013) relate the use of mixed methods to the conduct of case studies by arguing that settings or circumstances can be clarified in a comprehensive way when different data collection tools and different analysis tactics are used.

Identifying interdisciplinary and complex concepts of place such as vitality, place attachment or meaning of place needs to have both quantitative and qualitative methods, as is true of the perception of quality of design. Mixed methods are thus necessary. Since each method has its distinctive strengths and weaknesses, the mixed method approach can be used, as the weakness of one method can become a strength with the support of the other (Smith, 1975). Different methods can be utilised for different purposes within a single study (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.2 Research Design

A case study approach was adopted for this research. The case study approach enabled the collection of evidence regarding the role of urban design in adding social benefits to two squares in the City of London. In *Case Study Research in Education: A qualitative approach,*

Merriam (1988:27) sees "the case as a thing, a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries". The defining characteristic of a case study in Merriam's view is that it is a bounded system. She points out that the case study is "an ideal design for understanding and interpreting observations of social phenomena" (Merriam, 1988: 2). Since the core objective of this study is to investigate the relationships between people, places, and social value, using a case study approach is a suitable strategy.

Understanding the strengths and limitations of case study research is necessary to determining the need for any methodological approach. The case study method permits investigators to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of everyday life events and neighbourhood changes (Yin, 2013). However, there is the concern that case studies afford little foundation for scientific generalisation. It is particularly difficult to generalise from a single case study; however, a case study is similar to an experiment that is generalizable to a theoretical proposition, rather than to populations or universes (Yin, 2013).

The research methodology used in this study is similar to those of Jacobs (1961) and CABE and DETR (2001). Jacobs (1961), in her initial study of New York, focuses on how to maintain and foster the vitality of that city's urban spaces. This study provides a well-respected example of using the case study strategy, and Jacobs uses different research techniques in the particular case to investigate multiple socio-physical dynamics that contribute to a single context. She also utilises different empirical methods, such as participant observation, informal interviews and documentary evidence, to support her argument and finally to build a theory for wider application. However, Carmona (2014b), in his research on how public spaces in the contemporary city are shaped, argues that London comprises a single-city meta-case study from which wider theory can be hypothesized in a relevant way for other locations. He emphasizes that researchers must be careful not to over-claim when applying findings from one context, such as London, to another. The present study follows Jacobs' (1961) approach in terms of utilizing several empirical methods, such as questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and participant observation, to support the study's argument and to reveal details in relation to two specific squares in London. The use of the case study approach facilitates an evaluation of these two squares with shared or similar socio-spatial objectives in terms of behavioural, perceptual and social dimensions. Each dimension requires the use of different tools and tactics in order to generate and analyse data, and all dimensions are then combined in a further cross-analysis

as a preliminary stage for the discussion. Finally, practical recommendations and theoretical suggestions are outlined (Figure 4-1).

The literature survey has shown that the human behaviour is situational, embedded in the physical but also social and perceptual contexts and settings of a place. It has also shown that the social dimension of urban design attitudes towards creating places is insufficient due to the lack of knowledge of the range of human behaviours and values. Therefore, the behavioural dimension of this study aims to explore human behaviour according to people's perception of a place and how this perception can influence the use of a space and generate a different behavioural pattern from one space to another. The behavioural and observational analysis in this study explores various movements and patterns of activity in the spaces under study, while the social analysis toward considers the importance of social values. An 'unobtrusive observational method' is used to collect data that track human behaviours in an urban place, as is explained in greater detail later in this chapter.

The perceptual dimension of this study is used to see the ability of a place to generate positive perceptions in its users. The physical quality of place evaluates the urban form which influences the perception parameters that evaluate the image. The place is affected by the perceptions and feelings of people, who increase these perceptions during their experience of a place. It is necessary to explore the perceptual dimension in this study to see the capability of planners and designers to affect people's perceptions and feelings of different places and for people to create a better experience when using the urban places. Face-to-face semi-structured interviews with public place users were employed to collect relevant data for this dimension, as is explained in greater detail later in this chapter.

Since the social dimension of urban design aims to create accessible, safe and equitable urban spaces for all, current practice raises the issue of more exclusiveness and segregation. The social dimension of this study seeks to explore how urban design solutions can maximise the utility of a place through careful arrangement and design of the site. Meanwhile, the social dimension seeks to investigate the social roles for public space as a meeting place for different social groups and as a space for the display of symbols and images in society. Questionnaires were used to seek this dimension of the study, as is explained in greater detail later in this chapter.

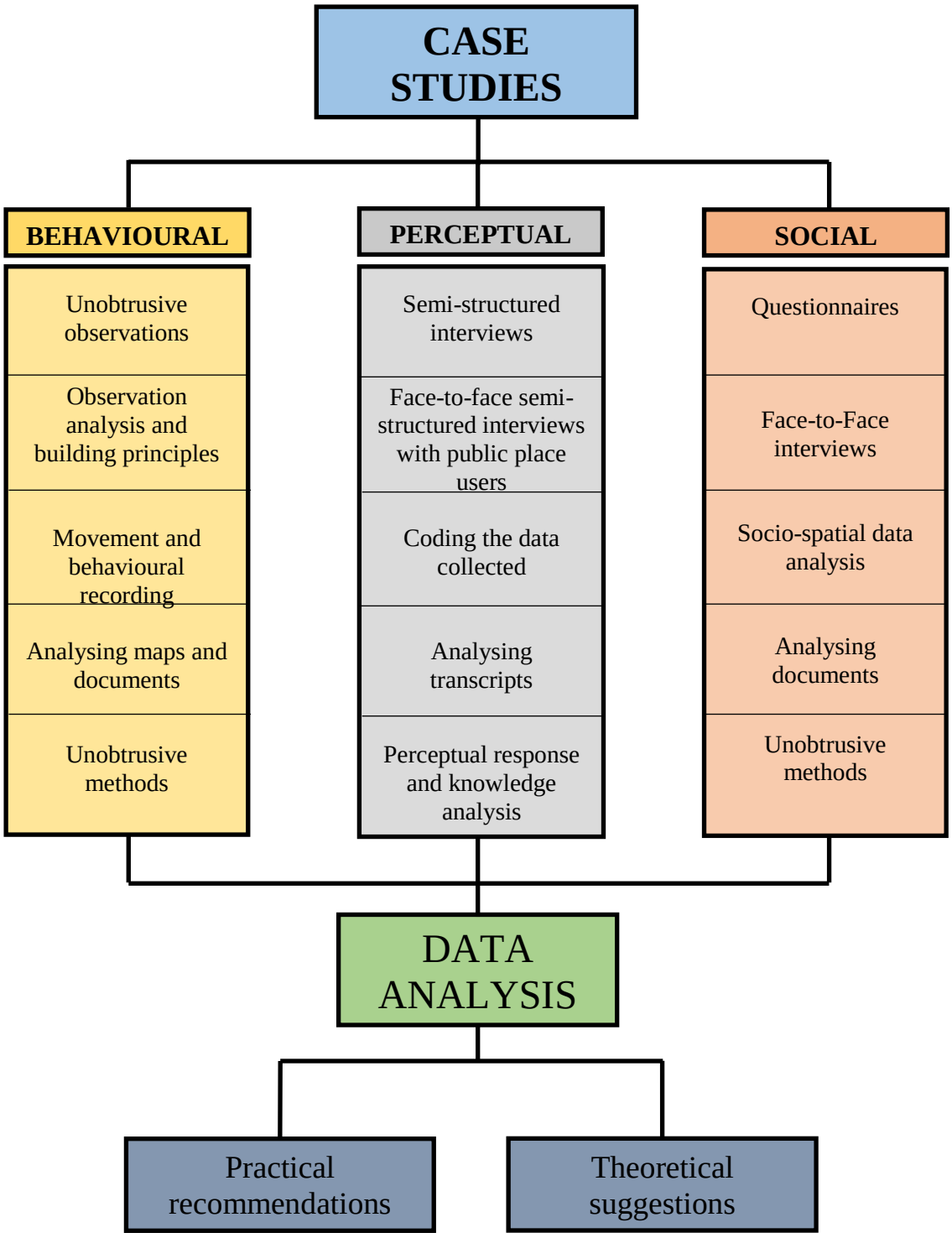


Figure 4-1: Relationship between the case study design and the data collection tools

The case study approach is an ideal method when in-depth investigation of phenomena is needed (Gagnon, 2010). Within the research context, it is used to reveal details from the viewpoint of participants by combining various sources of information. Yin (2013) describes four reasons for using a case study model: (1) to clarify complex causal relations in real-life

interventions; (2) to explain the real-life context of the intervention; (3) to describe the intervention itself; and (4) to discover situations in which the intervention is evaluated with an unclear set of results. According to Yin (2013), the methodology will also have four stages: (1) designing the case study; (2) conducting the case study; (3) analysing the case study evidence; and (4) developing the conclusions, recommendations and implications.

This study employs a multiple case study approach; two case studies are conducted within the same urban context in London. As expressed by Yin (2013), to bolster the reliability and viability of the research and develop a good argument, utilising a multiple case study is helpful. This study employs a multiple case study approach to investigate the subject of inquiry within the similar urban context. The two case studies, Empire Square and Bermondsey Square, are hypothesised to work in a complementary manner to accomplish an understanding of the behavioural, perceptual and social dimensions and to provide a reasonable argument for the discussion.

4.3 Strategies of Inquiry

As noted above, the case study approach was chosen as a viable tool for gathering the qualitative and quantitative data necessary for this study. Selecting the case studies comprised an important part of this research. The case studies were selected following an in-depth review of many mixed-use developments in central London. The two cases adopted for this study met the following criteria: (1) They are both primarily residential blocks, which allowed the researcher to examine the impact of urban design on residents and the local community within the development; (2) the size of each mixed-use development is large enough to have a practical impact on the social dimension of the surrounding neighbourhood; (3) both mixed-use developments include a public open space that is available to both the development's residents and the surrounding community; (4) both cases reflect the importance of urban design policy and planning; and (5) the cases take different approaches to developing the residency scheme.

The cases selected for this study had to represent a range of urban development projects and be similar in physical and social terms to each other and in relation to local urban policies and practices of urban development projects in London, in order to ensure they had some focus on improving the social conditions of the surrounding areas (see Figure 4-2). The case study selection was carried out in two stages the researcher initially identified five potential sites, which were then narrowed down to two to ensure a range of mixed-use developments were

considered. Both cases are considered to be good development models of a public/private negotiations that can be applied elsewhere.



Figure 4-2: The relationship between the two selected case studies according to the urban context

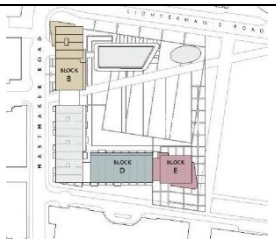
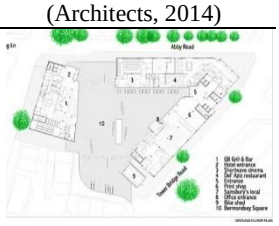
4.3.1 Initial Selection of Case Studies: Stage One

Aside from fulfilling the objectives of urban design, the cases adopted in this stage had to meet the following criteria:

- Selected case studies of mixed-use developments should focus on mainly residential blocks in order to determine the impact on residents and the local community around the development.
- The size of the mixed-use development should be large enough to have a practical impact on the surrounding community generated by good practice of urban design on the neighbourhood level.
- The mixed-use development must include a public open space that is available to both its residents and the surrounding community.
- The selected cases should reflect the importance of urban design policy and planning as per UTF (1999) report.
- The selected cases could have different approaches in term of developing the scheme to enable a meaningful comparative assessment.

Table **4-1** shows the mixed-use development cases that were initially chosen as potential choices for this study.

Table 4-1: Initial case studies selected

Project	Location	Completed	Size (units)	Usage	Site Plan
Saffron Square	Croydon London	2010	792	Residential apartments, retail and commercial spaces, public square	 (Judd, 2010)
Empire Square	Borough London	2007	572	Offices, health club, retail and residential units, public square	 (Judd, 2007)
Indescon Court	Canary Quarter London	2009	364	Residential apartments, landscaped public plaza, restaurants, cafés, retail outlets, health spa and gymnasium, business centre	 (Architects, 2014)
Brewery Square	Clerkenwell London	2003	204	Residential apartments, open courtyard, restaurants and cafés, shops and gallery	 (Architects, 2014)
Bermondsey Square	Bermondsey London	2008	76, plus 79-bed boutique hotel	Offices, retail units, residential units, hotel, bar, restaurant, cinema, café, public square	 (Igloo, 2013)

Early investigation of the selected cases focused on building a general understanding of their different contexts. The collected data concentrated on each development's urban design, public space and social impact, both at a broader level by reviewing the developments' documents and at a more specific level through site visits. As a result, a fundamental understanding of the nature of each case was developed for the in-depth case studies in the next stage.

Saffron Square, Croydon

Saffron Square is a high-quality mixed-use development in the heart of the London Borough of Croydon (Table 4-2). The development includes 45 storey tower and new public square. It also comprises commercial uses on ground floor area and part first floor levels. Saffron Square is introduced to the heart of the area with a new landscaped public square that offers cafes, bars and shops for its users. The square offers a safe and attractive atmosphere for users to interact, relax and play. The design of the square allows accessibility and connectivity with the surrounding area and provides a range of facilities and functions that meant to increase the level of vitality in this area of Croydon (Judd, 2010).

Table 4-2: Initial case study- Saffron Square, Croydon (Judd, 2010)



Developer	Berkeley Homes
Size	792 units, retail spaces and a public square
Completed	2016

Empire Square, London SE1

Empire Square is an urban regeneration residentially led development. It is located in the heart of the London Borough of Southwark. It has a public square that accessible to all, with a mix of uses at ground level to increase the degree of vitality in the area (Table 4-3). There are the gym, nursery, grocery store, retail, and office uses surround the square with a sculptural building in the middle of the square. At the north-west corner of the development, there is a residential tower acting as the landmark for both the development and regeneration of the Borough area. Due to the high quality of the finished development, it has been acknowledged through winning some awards such as Housing Design Awards – Overall Winner 2007, and receiving of a CABE Gold Standard Award in 2007. The project was also recognized for the Building Awards – Major Housing Project of the Year 2007 (Judd, 2007).

Table 4-3: Initial case study- Empire Square, London (Judd, 2007)



Developer	Berkeley Homes (North East London) Ltd
Size	572 units that include 212 units are affordable under various tenures: shared ownership; rented; and key worker
Completed	Spring 2007

Indescon Court, Canary Quarter

Indescon Court is a part of a mixed-use development that is located in the heart of the Millennium Quarter in Canary Wharf area. The development is located ideally to take advantage of the vibrant business district has to provide. It comprises residential areas, hotel uses and retail spaces set around a landscaped courtyard (Table 4-4). The designing stage of this scheme was influenced by GLA and CABE to encourage more public spaces in the same quantum urban area. The development includes a high density of affordable and private units on three sides of the courtyard while leaving the fourth side wide open to connect with the pedestrian route (GRID Architects, 2014).

Table 4-4: Initial case study- Indescon Court, Canary Quarter (GRID Architects, 2014)



Developer	Galliard Homes Limited
Size	364 apartments, retail spaces and public space
Completed	Completed 2013/ the courtyard expects the completion of phase 2 before the local residents can fully use it.

Brewery Square, London

Brewery Square is located near London's historic Smithfield Market. The development includes mixed-use residential retail, work spaces and public space (Table 4-5). The development has a direct connection to the surrounding routes which encourage the pedestrian movement while providing a safe environment. Brewery Square is fully open to the public and the ground level accommodates restaurants, café and shops that promote the vitality of the area. Brewery Square was a very early example of active frontages on a new, high-density residential development. The development is 'the winner of 11 awards for design and place making and one of the first recipients of the Building for Life Gold Standard'(GRID Architects, 2014).

Table 4-5: Initial case study- Brewery Square, London (GRID Architects, 2014)



Developer	Berkeley Homes
Size	198 units, six townhouses
Completed	2004

Bermondsey Square, London

The vision of the development is set around a new square that host the Antiques Market. There are some events such as a farm market, exhibition and another community related outdoor event are being scheduled and held at Bermondsey Square to help increase social interaction and enliven the space. The Development is located at the end of Bermondsey Street. It has intervened with the less gentrified Tower Bridge Road which considers the outer limit of the city centre. The main aim of creating the square according to the developer and council is to be the heart of Bermondsey(Stewart, 2009). As shown in Table 4-6, Bermondsey Square development is a mixed-up property development that includes residential units, offices area, a boutique hotel and associated facilities, a community Art House Cinema, retail units and a public square (Igloo, 2013).

Table 4-6: Initial case study- Bermondsey Square, London (Igloo, 2013)



Developer	The Aviva Investors igloo Fund, Southwark Council, the London Development Agency and the local community
Size	76 apartments, 79-bed boutique hotel, 55-seat community cinema, retail spaces and a public square.
Completed	2008

4.3.2 Selection of Case Studies: Stage Two

It was not easy to identify a suitable pair of case studies. I visited each case study during the initial stage and during this visit each case was subjected to assessment against a common set of criteria covering matters such as accessibility, image, public space design, activities, sociability, comfort, ownership and control. Empire Square and Bermondsey Square in the London Borough of Southwark were ultimately selected (Table 4-7). They were chosen because they are mixed-use, contain significant areas of public open space and were built at roughly the same time. Moreover, they are located near each other (Figure 4-3), which meant that the social impact of each development could be tested within the same broad urban context. Empire Square and Bermondsey Square also both reflect London's planning policies for the provision of public spaces (Figure 4-4).

The spatial development strategy for London, which is known as the London Plan, emphasizes the public realm in Policy 7.5: "London's public spaces should be secure, accessible, inclusive, connected, easy to understand and maintain, relate to local context and incorporate the highest quality design, landscaping, planting, street furniture and surfaces" (GLA, 2015:281). It also states that "public and private open spaces, and the buildings that frame those spaces, should contribute to the highest standards of comfort, security and ease of movement possible" (GLA, 2015:281). This policy has been applied to Bermondsey Square, which is considered a good example of a privately owned, publicly accessible space in London that many people would previously have not considered visiting. Today, Bermondsey Square is the safe, well-known, and dynamic area. It was named 'London's best new public space' at the London Planning Awards in January 2011. Similarly, Empire Square won Housebuilding Innovation Awards' 'Best design initiative/partnership with an architect' in 2006, and was also the Housing Design Awards 'Overall winner' in 2007. Both cases follow local planning policies that sought to promote the building of accessible and inclusive public realms through new developments. The London Plan's Policy 4B.1, which also applies to both cases, sets out 12 guiding principles for a compact city, one of which is that new developments 'create or enhance the public realm' (GLA, 2008:191).Both cases were completed seven years ago, so their intangible impact is already being felt in the surrounding communities. Both squares were supported by the Urban Renaissance agenda, which led the drive for urban integration via urban open spaces by establishing a direct relationship between space and the people who live or work around it

(UTF, 1999). The common urban design approach used in both cases enables a comparison of the social value.

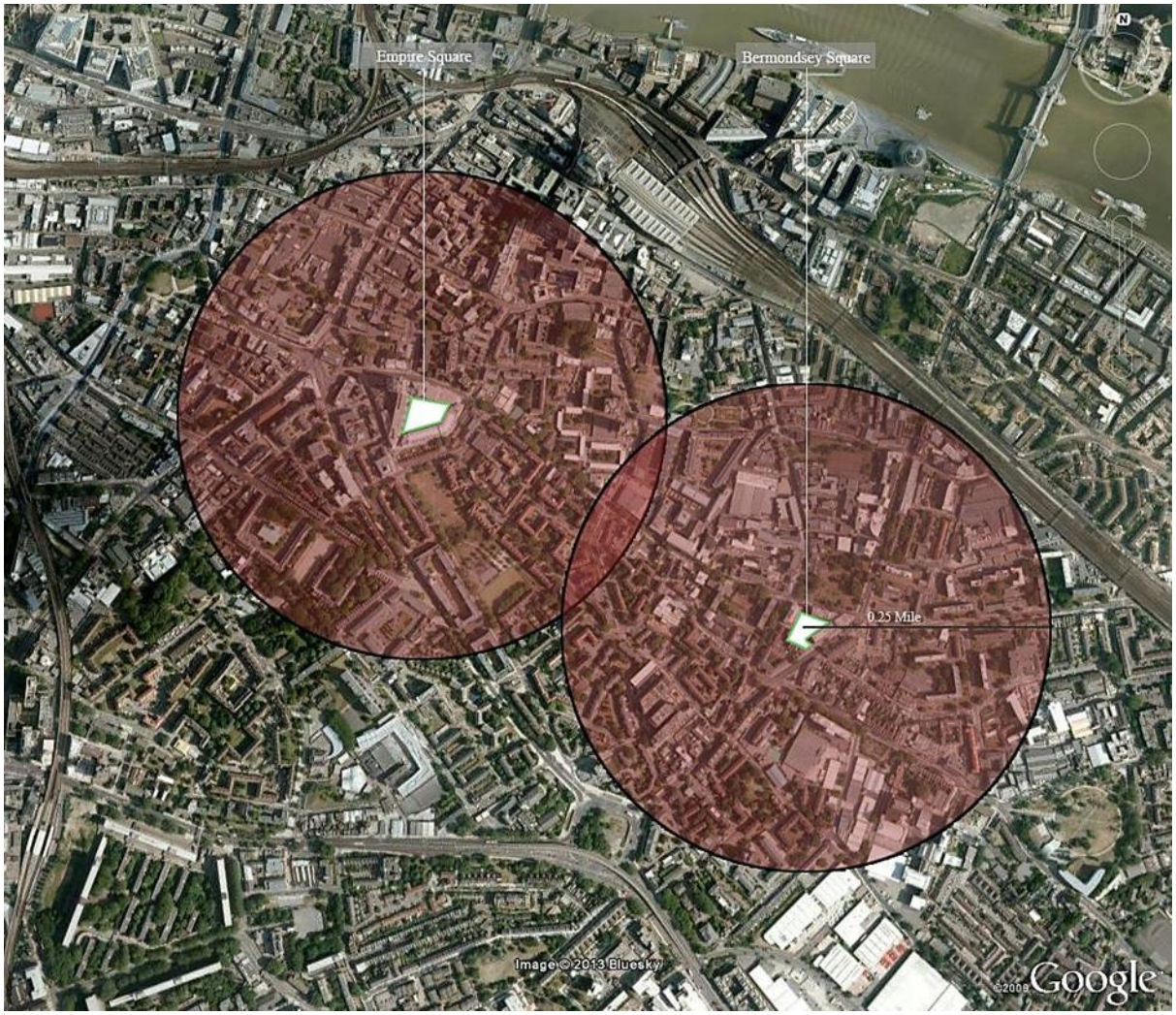
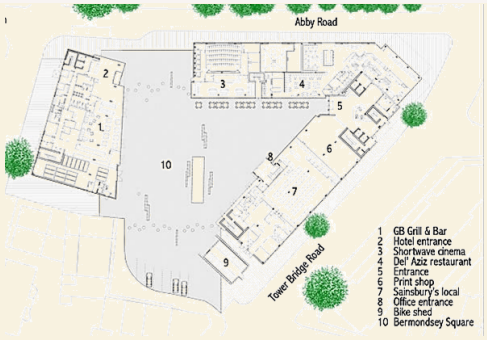


Figure 4-3: Empire Square and Bermondsey Square are located within 0.25 mile from each other



Figure 4-4: Empire Square (left), Bermondsey Square (right)

Table 4-7: Selected case studies for stage two, and their characteristics

	Empire Square	Bermondsey Square
Location	London Borough of Southwark	London Borough of Southwark
Usage	Offices, health club, retail units and residential.	Offices, retail units, residential, hotel, bar, restaurant, cinema and café.
Developer	Berkeley Homes	Igloo Regeneration
Design	Rolfe Judd	Munkenbeck + Partners Architects
Size	572 units & commercial retail space	76 units, a 79-bed boutique hotel & commercial retail space
Occupiers	Gym, retails, nursery, NHS facility, grocery store and office uses	Hotel, restaurants, café, bar, cinema, grocery store and office uses
Completed	2007	2008
Site plan	 (Judd, 2007)	 (Igloo, 2013)

4.3.3 Case Study Introduction: The Borough of Southwark

Southwark is one of the inner London boroughs that face the River Thames. It is home to a wide range of commerce, business and leisure (Figure 4-5). The Bankside area contains many tourist attractions, such as the Tate Modern and Shakespeare's Globe Theatre; these are located beside large regeneration developments such as the Elephant & Castle, one of the largest redevelopment schemes by borough in London, and the Aylesbury Estate. Southwark obtains benefits from the many attractions at its fringes, which offer substantial tourist traffic that is associated with providing many job opportunities (Figure 4-6). The population of Southwark is increasing rapidly, even faster than the national average. The population is becoming younger and more diverse, with people from many different backgrounds (Council, 2007). The north area of the Borough has been transformed in the last ten years. The Rotherhithe and Bermondsey areas were once dominated by industry, but are now filled with residential

buildings that boast over 3,000 new homes. In the middle zone of the Borough are some of the most deprived areas in the UK, especially Peckham, Nunhead, Newington and Camberwell. These areas have more ethnic diversity, more social housing and more people at low earning levels than the other areas in the Borough. However, Dulwich, in the south part of the borough, has more residential use with less diversity; most people have above-average income levels (Southwarkheads, 2009).



Figure 4-5: Southwark areas, adapted from (Council, 2015)

A local strategic partnership for Southwark Borough was established with major agencies that directly influenced public policy and services. The alliance strives to shape the future of the

Borough by bringing together 18 representatives from the council, care trust, police, community sector, Job Centre Plus and other local organisations.

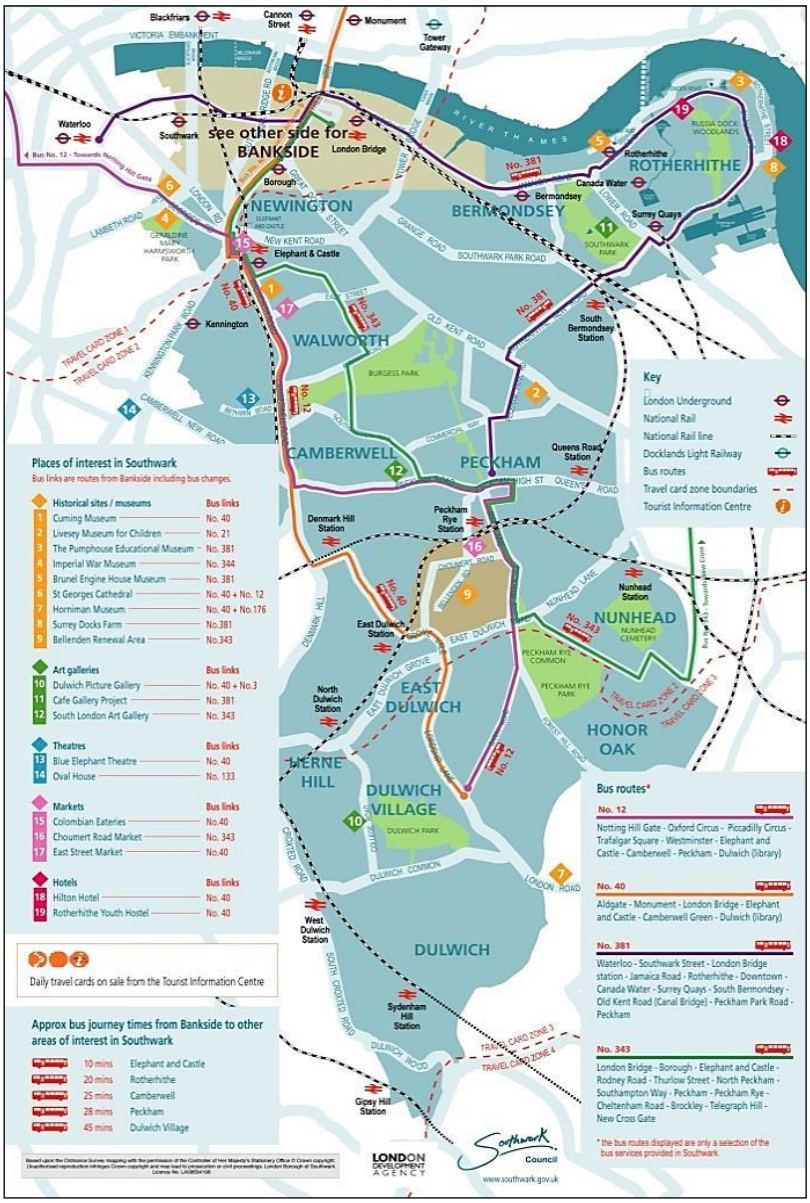


Figure 4-6: Southwark attractions (Council, 2013)

The aim of this partnership is to achieve the following key objectives and priorities (Council, 2007): 1) To improve the life opportunities of people who live or work in the borough through: achieving economic well-being, achieving their educational potential, being healthy, staying safe, enjoying cultural and leisure opportunities, valuing diversity and being active citizens. 2) To provide a better place for individuals through a better-quality place that has: localities of mixed communities, sustainable use of resources, more and better homes, a vibrant economy and a liveable public realm.

4.4 Research Method and Data Collection Tools

This study utilized a large volume of empirical information obtained from a variety of sources. Documentation, archival records, interviews and observations are the primary sources of data for any case study (Gagnon, 2010). Bearing in mind that no single source has an insuperable advantage over any other, the various sources are highly complementary.

The sources used to obtain the data here are related to the research questions of this study, and were divided into three main sets. The first set was used to identify and address the first goal of this study, which is to understand the beneficial role, in relation to the social dimension, of good urban design in public spaces within mixed-use developments in central London. Secondly, the aim was to determine the extent to which places can be effectively used by both residents and the broader society, and the third goal was to explore the social benefits that go beyond the borders of the developments and extend into the surrounding neighbourhoods.

Two dimensions of data gathering were needed in this study: literature-based exploration and fieldwork-based investigation. Data collection for the literature exploration was performed based on the history of the value of urban design in the UK. For example, the evolving concept of the value of urban design was explored with reference to a key document, UTF document, which shaped the future of cities in the UK (Punter, 2010), and allowed the investigation to develop social dimension guides for urban design policy.

The fieldwork-based investigation included questionnaires, unobtrusive observation and semi-structured interviews. The fieldwork investigation of the case studies enabled a better understanding to be derived of the capacity of urban design to improve social interactions and create new types of social activities within public spaces. These data were collected through questionnaires and unobtrusive observations, while semi-structured interviews were conducted with residents, occupants and everyday users to measure their perspectives on the social value of urban design. This also provided deeper insight into the social dimension of central London in relation to its spatial setting, and addressed issues of place vitality and inclusiveness. The sources were selected to provide data that allowed the study to build an understanding of how people interact socially with each other, and how they use spaces according to the diversity of time and functions of space. To achieve this goal, public spaces in the chosen case studies were considered on two scales: the macro scale, which was related to the site of the neighbourhood, and the micro scale, which was related to the mixed-use development itself. In this manner, the

data collected were intended to provide a comprehensive understanding of the structure of social value within the urban place, and to elucidate how such urban places can impact UK cities socially. Moreover, the data collected in this stage were intended to increase the understanding of the ability of urban design to affect the usage patterns of inhabitants and nearby residents within a space. Finally, the ability of good urban design to provide a distinctive identity in terms of local characteristics of these developments was explored through the data.

4.4.1 Literature-Based Exploration as a Source of Inquiry

The literature review focused on the nature and provision of public spaces, on the relation between good urban design and tangible and intangible benefits and on social issues in publicly accessible places to outline current discourse in the field. The literature review was used to outline the complexity of the topic and the relative scarcity of attempts thus far to demonstrate the importance of social value in an urban design context.

As stated in Chapter two (2.6), most of the methods used here aimed to capture the range of value, both tangible and intangible, generated by urban design. For instance, Hedonics, DQIs, VALiD, contingent choice and choice modelling methods (Mulgan et al., 2006) have been used to measure the value of the built environment in general, with less focus on public spaces and related issues. Tools such as VALiD assess the design quality alone, irrespective of any open public spaces within the development, while other tools like PERS (Space, 2007a) assess the long-term value. On the other hand, Placecheck, Qualityreviewer, and Capacitycheck (UDS, 2012) are used to evaluate the qualities of a place. However, they only take physical aspects into account, and do not consider social benefits.

As noted in Chapter two (2.6.1), literature on the social value of urban design is not as plentiful as one might hope (see Table 4-8). Only a few studies examine how good urban design adds economically, socially and environmentally to the urban environment (Vandell and Lane, 1989, CABE and DETR, 2001, McIndoe et al., 2005). Most of the discourse on urban design explores the quality of urban design, which has declined of late due to the increasing number of professional responsibilities related to the field of urban design. CABE and DETR (2001) identify the value of urban design in relation to producing economic and social value. They explore how literature can capture this value and conduct three pairs of case studies in order to explore practical matters. This includes interviews with key groups: investors, developers, designers, occupants, local authority representatives and everyday users of public or semi-

public spaces. A study by McIndoe et al. (2005) investigates the value of urban design and its economic, environmental and social benefits, in order to evaluate the claims set out by the New Zealand Ministry of the Environment in other publications. Their review of the literature aims to establish empirical evidence to support or disprove these claims. An essential part of the study is an assessment of the quality of evidence using the categories conclusive, strong, suggestive or anecdotal. Consequently, considerable weight is placed on empirical findings. The authors suggest that when various outcomes have been determined, an important task is to interpret and judge the quality of the findings.

Table 4-8: The different methods used to examine the value of urban design

	Method	**Data Collection Tools**
Jacobs (1961)	New York is used as a case study to understand the vitality of urban space.	• Participant observation • Informal interviews • Documentary evidence
CABE and DETR (2001)	A three-stage methodology is adopted: (1) literature and research review; (2) case studies; (3) synthesis and dissemination.	• Literature review • In-depth interviews • Site observation
McIndoe et al. (2005)	Government publications are identified by the reviewers and classified. The method is intended for use in the New Zealand context using a general approach.	• Literature review • Evaluation of the quality of urban design using the categories conclusive, strong, suggestive or anecdotal, derived from a government publication
Macmillan (2006)	Six main types of value (social, image, cultural, economic, use, and environmental value) delivered by urban design are considered through workshops organized as structured focus groups comprising five groups of stakeholders.	• Focus groups
Current Study (2016)	The case study approach is used to examine the social value of urban design	• Literature review • Semi-structured interviews • Site observation

A study by Macmillan (2006) reviews current research about the social and economic benefits associated with good urban design to set out new methods that enable intangible benefits to be captured. Through three workshops organized as structured focus groups, five groups of stakeholders are derived between whom value is exchanged, and six main types of value delivered by urban design are identified: social, image, cultural, economic, use and environmental values. The sample in the Macmillan study is based on a six-way model of stakeholder value exchange introduced by Saxon (2005). The approach by Macmillan (2006) aimed to collect data from investors, designers, building occupants and local authority

representatives. However, the sample paid less attention to everyday users of the public realm than it did to delegates to the workshops.

The present study employs a case study approach, following Jacobs (1961) and CABE and DETR (2001). It examines the social value delivered by urban design with Macmillan's (2006) definition the social value of urban design. Jacobs (1961) used New York as an urban context to provide an understanding of the subject of enquiry. CABE and DETR (2001) used a pair of three different case studies in various urban contexts to investigate their subjects. In the present study, two case studies within the same urban context are used to examine the social value of urban design. The data collection tool is a combination of Jacobs (1961), CABE and DETR (2001) and McIndoe et al. (2005), including a literature review, semi-structure interviews and site observation.

The literature review determined that multiple methodologies have been used to evaluate how good urban design adds different benefits to everyday users, residents and the community as a whole. The variety of approaches by which social value can be assessed makes it difficult to achieve a clear understanding of social value outcomes in regeneration development. The difficulty of evaluating social value at present is due to the breadth of the concept of different stakeholders, including investors and occupants. For example, designers aim to achieve social value through site regeneration that enhances social wellbeing and civic pride. They agree with the idea that social value must spread beyond the boundaries of a specific development, so that a scheme must be designed in a way that integrates with its surroundings (CABE and DETR, 2001). On the other hand, the social value provided through these developments, compared to investors' intentions, is less clear and easy to define. Thus, reviewing other research methods provided an accurate and deep understanding of the extant literature in order to develop a research approach for this study. These existing studies on the value of urban design have been conducted in a broad manner that covers three dimensions of urban design, with different stakeholders are involved in the study's targeted population sample.

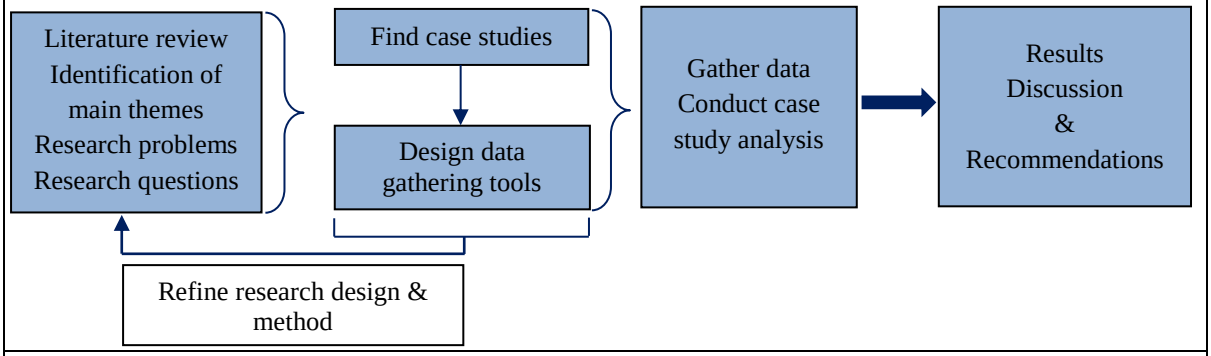
The current study was developed following this same approach for a number of reasons. Firstly, the social value added by urban design could be completely evaluated from the user's point of view. Secondly, the role of urban design in producing social benefits should be investigated through different case studies within a similar urban context in relation to the planning and development process, and those cases should share the same urban characteristics. Thirdly, the social value generated within development projects should be investigated in relation to the

social issues of urban design using case studies as a means of investigation. Fourthly, the evaluation of case studies and comparisons between similar contexts served as valuable additions to the discussion of the social value of urban design. Finally, additional qualitative evidence needed to be gathered on the social value of urban design.

4.4.2 Fieldwork-based investigation

In this section, data-gathering tools selected for this study are described (Table 4-9). The reasons behind their selection, as well as their strengths and limitations, are detailed. The decision as to whether to utilize a single or multiple data source is complex. Here, multiple data-gathering tools were chosen due to the existence of various types of evidence that produce different perspectives on the topic under scrutiny, with the aim of extending the understanding that the study would generate (Sommer and Sommer, 2002). The combination of research methods that were developed and used in this study formed one comprehensive methodology, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative data. Outcomes are illustrated in various tables, charts and maps. Even though each method is discussed individually, they should be taken together as contributing to one coherent body of research.

Table 4-9: Research phases and data sources

Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
Literature-based exploration		Fieldwork-based investigation	
			
Research methods			
Qualitative Deductive	Qualitative	Qualitative Quantitative Deductive	Qualitative Inductive Deductive
Sources of data collected			
Documentation Archival records	Documentation Archival records Site visits	Questionnaires Unobtrusive observation Semi-structured interviews	

Behavioural Analysis: Site Observation

According to Walmsley (1988), qualitative assessment can provide a significant contribution to the understanding of human behaviour. Tonn (1984: 216), points out that behavioural analysis is expressed as a 'behavioral schedule'. He explores this through his observational method to measure individual strategy, movements, spatial interrelations and constraints. Walmsley (1988: 48) draws attention to the fact that individuals have 'socio-spatial schemata' that can provide a sense of guidance and be used as a 'guide to behaviour'. Therefore, site observation can reveal the actual spatial behaviours of people in a place and provide in-depth findings through a comprehensive approach. The site observation for the present study measured static and dynamic activities in the urban place. It detected socio-spatial interrelations and indicated the levels of interaction happening in the place. Furthermore, the approach demonstrated the spatial determinants of activity as indicators of how places can affect human behaviour. The researcher also tracked and recorded with maps and diagrams the flow of movements, patterns of use and interactions between people in the study areas (see Appendix 1). It is necessary to understand the relationship between the physical environment and the way it affects activities and social behaviour by recording the use of urban space by individuals. This can support the enhancement of design development and the changes that take place in urban spaces and places (MFE, 2006).

An 'unobtrusive observational method' is the primary data collection approach, in which human behaviours are tracked in an urban place (Denzin, 1968). The data collected via this approach were analysed through 'disguised field analysis'. Frequent repetitions of observations for both case studies were held at various times to ensure the validity of the results. Ten visits were conducted at specific times, from 11:30 to 13:30 and from 15:00 to 17:00. Tracking human behaviour at different times with different activities requires the collected data to be analysed based on evaluative observational variables to validate suggestions based on site observations (Babbie, 2007). The present research explores various features, including the social value added to the places, their socio-spatial value, behavioural evaluations, the places' social characteristics and the social interactions that occur within them during the selected times for this study.

Analysis of the behavioural map was essential for showing how users perceive the environment and for providing an in-depth perspective on the explanatory results. Changing societal

behaviour and values can be identified due to the strong connections between behaviour and the environment (Walmsley, 1988). Observations and mapping must be conducted alongside other relevant research methods. Furthermore, the relationship between behaviours and space should not be understood solely with reference to rules and resources (Dyck, 1990); instead, it should become explicit in the different dimensions and scales of the social sciences. Individuals are not only participants in a formed space but also the very essence of the social environment (Walmsley and Lewis, 1993).

Gehl (2011), introduced a methodology for the observation of public spaces in his book *Life Between Buildings*. Subsequently, Gehl and Gemzøe (2004), developed the public spaces and public life methodology. The primary purpose of this observation method by Gehl (2011) is to define how public spaces are used and by whom, and what facilities are provided for the users of public spaces. Gehl's observations were carried out for 15 minutes every hour between 10:00 and 22:00. Age, gender and activities were recorded, and observational positions were chosen to provide the best view of pedestrian movement. These positions were initially selected using, and recorded on, prepared maps. The observations were grouped by age as 0–6, 7–15, 16–30, 31–64, and 65 and over. Gender was also recorded, while activities were not predefined. Table 4-10 compares Gehl and Gemzøe (2004) method with the observational method from the present study.

The social, behavioural analysis in this study focuses on the physical environment of both squares. The observational method used in this study is similar to Gehl's approach, as shown in Table 4-10. The unobtrusive observational approach was chosen for this study to track human movement, activities, spatial qualities, social interactions and spatial interrelations. Pedestrian traffic patterns and static activities, such as gathering and meeting, were recorded on the basis of where individuals sat, met, and moved. Site observations were detailed on maps to provide a comprehensive vision of the movement and use of each square during different times of the year.

For both case studies, the researcher undertook various site observations at different times of day. Site observations took place in the summer of 2013 and the winter of 2014, with data registered on both weekdays and weekends. From the comprehensive observational maps generated, five were selected for the study to offer a representative view of the movements, types of activities, spatial qualities, social interactions, façade interactive points and arrival points in each square during the two different times of the year. These site observations

generated data that is related to the practical rules of social interactions and behaviours in developments and their surrounding neighbourhoods.

Table 4-10: Comparison of the Observational Method

	Approach used by Gehl and Gemzøe (2004)	Approach used in this study
Observation time	15 minutes	15 minutes
Observation position	One position	Many positions at the site by walking around
Observation forms	Recorded using simple notes Notes include details on age, gender, and activities Observations were conducted individually	Recorded on an extended map that details a range of information Notes include details on pedestrian movement, type of activities, nodes and spatial qualities, interactions and movement, façade-to-space interaction, façade interactive points, and arrival points Observations were conducted for all people within the site
Age groups	0 to 65, and older	0 to 65, and older
Activities	Not predefined	Predefined as gathering and meeting, standing, sitting down, walking, and other activities
Direction of movement	Provided on map	Provided on map
Frequency of observation	Every hour from 10:00 to 22:00 Minimum of two observations made, during weekdays and weekends	From 11:30 to 13:30, and from 15:00 to 17:00 Minimum of two observations made, during weekdays and weekends

Questionnaires

This method supported the subsequent qualitative analysis, thus adding to the social dimension of the present study. Questionnaires were used as they are a helpful data source (Berg, 2001). However, it is difficult to collect appropriate data using this method, and it has inherent limitations in representing social value. It is also important to bear in mind that a social science study cannot be completed using statistical surveys and analysis alone. Despite these limitations, this tool was used to generate specific data regarding physical features, spatial values, accessibility, community and quality of space. The questionnaire must be derived based on the aim of the study, with short answers and the necessary analyses. The questions must be pre-coded and encourage the respondents to reveal their opinions in a direct manner (Jones, 1992).

A list of questions was developed in an interactive style to obtain data for this study. The questions were developed after reviewing the relevant literature that supports the study's objectives. The questionnaire consisted of five major elements: physical features, spatial values, accessibility, community and quality of space (see Appendix 2). These categories were developed to understand the social dimension of this study.

An initial questionnaire was formed, and a pilot study undertaken. The aim of conducting a pilot study was to detect any flaws in the questions and correct them before the main study data collection process began. In addition, running a pilot study allowed the researcher to avoid and remove complex urban design terminology that might confuse participants; the amendments helped to maximise participants' response rate and minimise error rates on answers in the main study. The questionnaire was tested on 10 participants who are users and residents of both case studies. The pilot study revealed a difficulty in communicating urban design terminology, leading to limitations in the participants' responses. The questionnaire was therefore revised to facilitate better understanding of its objectives. 100 surveys in total were conducted with participants selected randomly as they passed through the development's square. The participants—occupants, residents and everyday users—were asked to take a face-to-face survey that required five to eight minutes to complete. Random selection was used as a sampling method for this study to eliminate conscious or unconscious bias on the part of the researcher (Babbie, 2007). Following a preliminary round of interviews, the data gathered thus far at both sites contributed to supporting knowledge for the social analysis section of the study. The questionnaires were structured in two major sections for the first round of interviews. Briefly, the first section focused on the participant's visit—including regularity of visits, purpose of current visit, length of time spent at the square and travel time and means of transportation to the square—while the second part addressed the participant's impressions of the square and its perceived social value. In more detail, the two sections each contained eight questions, with the first section beginning with the following:

1. How often do you visit this open space?
2. What do you normally do when you visit this open space?
3. How long do you usually stay at this open space?
4. Where do you usually travel from when you come to this open space?

These questions were designed to assess the duration and purpose of the respondent's visit—factors that contribute to defining the space. The next four questions were designed to measure the length of time people spent in the space and its desirability as a meeting place:

5. How do you normally travel to this open space?
6. How long does your usual journey take to get to this public space?
7. Do you usually visit this open space alone or with others?
8. When you travel here as part of a group, who accompanies you?

In the second section of the questionnaire, eight questions measured the physical quality, impressions and social values of the open space. The first three questions tested the participant's impressions of the space:

1. Do you use this open space regularly?
2. Why don't you use this open space more often?
3. What are your impressions of this space?

The four subsequent questions considered the space's quality and recorded the participant's suggestions for improvements:

4. In terms of qualities, what do you like about this open space?
5. What would you change about this space to make it better?
6. What gives this open space a unique character?
7. In your opinion, who do you think would not feel welcome in this open space?

The last question in this section comprised 12 statements that measured the social value of the open space. The end of the questionnaire thus explicitly supported the social aspect of the study by providing data in a socio-spatial context. The primary elements of these 12 statements were accessibility, sense of community, inclusiveness, activities, comfort, physical features, well-being, connectivity, the supply of amenities and social cohesion using Likert scale to represent people's attitudes to the subject:

8. How much do you agree with the following statements?
    - This open space is attractive.
    - This open space is accessible and well connected to the surrounding areas.
    - This open space contributes to the identity of the local context.
    - This open space contributes to local civic pride (sense of community).
    - This open space is active and lively during different times of the day.
    - The design plays an effective role in welcoming all people to this place.

- The design of this open space has affected the vitality of the place in a positive way.
- This open space influences my feelings (well-being) while I am here.
- This open space has improved the local connectivity of this development.
- This open space contributes to improving the local supply and quality of amenities.
- This open space encourages the community to use it in their free time.
- This open space generates strong community relations (social cohesion).

However, using the questionnaire as a data-gathering tool turned out to be time-consuming. It also proved difficult to convince participants at the site to participate in the study. The questionnaire took about five to eight minutes per participant to complete, which was considered a long time by most of the participants. For this reason, the last section of the questionnaire was not considered very carefully by the participants, leading to ambiguous answers. These limitations of the questionnaire as a source of inquiry led the researcher to create a semi-structured interview to elucidate on the unclear points that emerged from of the questionnaire.

Semi-Structured Interviews

The key difference between the unstructured, structured and semi-structured interviews pertains to the degree of rigidity concerning the presentational structure (Berg, 2001). The different types of interview used in research depend on the main goal and focus of the particular study. Different types of interviews are suited to different situations. For example, semi-structured interviews are practical with a case study approach because they enable the researcher to collect specific data from each respondent, while also letting participants elaborate on areas of the interview in which reasons, intricacies, and other ramifications of the subject can be revealed (Hall, 2008). While structured interviews have a formalized set of questions that are determined ahead of time, semi-structured interviews contain both structured and unstructured sets of questions, so that new questions can be asked as a result of what the interviewee says during the interview (Henn et al., 2009). A semi-structured interview approach was thus selected for this study.

The semi-structured interviews in this study explored how the urban public space relates to a social understanding of a place and its users. They were used in the present study to obtain more specific or focused information that could not be captured by the questionnaire to give consideration to users and inhabitants' perception of public spaces. The interviews aimed to

explore the following: place impression, place attachment, place vitality and sense of community. These categories were developed to understand the perceptual dimension of this study, which seeks to understand the ability of a place to generate positive perceptions in its users and how people's perceptions can affect their feelings of a place through their experience of using it.

Participants followed a script of open-ended questions that were relevant to the objective of the study. According to Bernard (2012), semi-structured interviews are often used in situations where the interviewer will not have another opportunity to question someone who is suitable for the study. Consequently, the interview becomes a two-way conversation, with both the interviewer and interviewee receiving and giving information on matters relevant to the study. The majority of questions were created during the interview; while semi-structured interviews are guided, that direction provides only a framework for the conversation (Henn et al., 2009). The guide comprises a list of questions for the interviewer to ask. The order of these questions can be modified whenever appropriate; moreover, questions can be added, deleted and expanded upon so as to obtain adequate answers from each participant (Cargan, 2007). Unlike an unstructured interview, which is open and free-flowing, the semi-structured interview is focused and produces relevant information that might have been missed if a completely unstructured approach had been followed. Thus, data obtained from semi-structured interviews is rich and deep. Such data gives the researcher a fuller understanding of the interviewees' perceptions of issues relevant to the subject, and the reasons behind the views and opinions that participants express (Simons, 2009).

The purpose of using interviews is to address specific dimensions of the research questions from a sample of the population (Galletta, 2013) and to gain a range of insights on particular issues. This enhances the understanding of the results obtained and the credibility of the study's findings. Esterberg (2002: 87) notes that the primary aim of semi-structured interviews 'is to explore a topic more openly and to allow interviewees to express their opinions and ideas in their own words'. The major benefits of using this tool are that it confirms what is already known, but also provides the opportunity for new information and the reasons for these answers to be accessed.

The researcher employed semi-structured interviews to facilitate causal inferences and compensate for the limitations of the questionnaires from the first visit. The questions in the

semi-structured interview were intended to overcome the lack of familiarity with academic terms such as social exclusion, sense of community and social value exhibited by participants in the first round of data collection; the interview questions were worded so as to encourage participants to reveal their opinions directly. At the same time, the goal of the semi-structured interview was not only to measure user perceptions, but also to examine the socio-spatial value of urban design. The semi-structured interview was divided into six categories: expectation, place impression, place attachment, place vitality, sense of community and well-being (see Appendix 3). These categories ensured that the data collected conformed to the social dimension of the physical environment. Six open questions were designed to allow for any new ideas and thoughts that were generated during the interview, and carefully structured so as to avoid jargon:

1. What are your impressions of the square and its use?
2. What is the most important area in the square? Moreover, what does the square mean to you?
3. Do you think the square is a sociable place? If so, why?
4. What do you think of the liveliness of the square in the current condition?
5. Do you feel safe and welcome in this square? How does the square help to generate social interactions with others?
6. Does this square help generate a sense of community? If so, how?

The above questions explored how the urban public space relates to a social understanding of that place and its users. This social analysis of both Empire Square and Bermondsey Square was based on place impression, place attachment, place vitality and sense of community. The interviewees were keen to reveal their perceptions of the place and to express their insights into what it offered them socially. The open-ended questions allowed the interviewees to focus on the matters that *they* found most relevant for supporting their points, which led the researcher in new directions in investigating the phenomenon.

Eliminating spatial interaction prevents the possibility of explaining a socio-spatial relation in the context of this study. Therefore, the interviewees had to be selected carefully to ensure that substantial results could be obtained that would support the purpose of the study. The findings were recorded in writing and the data were generalized and analysed after coding.

4.5 Undertaking the Research

As noted above, the first stage of the empirical data collection comprised a literature-based exploration that led to the case study selection. Exploring the relevant literature provided a better understanding of the history of urban design in the UK. Thus, this stage identified appropriate cases for the study by setting indicators that represented a range of urban development projects. They are similar in physical and social terms and in relation to local urban policies, and are both examples of urban development projects in London that seek to improve social conditions within the surrounding area.

The primary data collection phase, outline of definitions and theoretical study design—that is, the case study preparation as a whole—was followed by selecting case studies, Empire Square and Bermondsey Square, for the research. The design of the questionnaire, preparation of observational maps for both case studies and planning of the field visit to London took place after this selection.

Prior to undertaking the primary case studies, a pilot study was conducted in September 2013 in Empire Square to test the reliability and effectiveness of the methods, particularly the questionnaire. Data collection from Empire Square and Bermondsey Square started in late January 2014 and lasted for about a year. I adopted an evolving approach to data collection and analysis, which ran alongside the process, instead of following serial steps of data collection and data analysis. Thus, the more my analysis of the data advanced, the more the field had to be revisited to collect additional data.

4.6 Research Limitations

The major limitations of this study arise from either a lack of accessibility to documents and data or a lack of resources. The lack of accessibility to data and documents prevented the study from generating a broader range of knowledge about the implications of social value in the design of each case development. The researcher was unable to engage in dialogue with the private firms that developed each square or with Southwark Council, despite many attempts to arrange a meeting with developers, investors and designers of either development to gather further data on design and social matters. Moreover, there was no response to the researcher's efforts to conduct an in-depth interview with the planning and building control body of the Borough of Southwark. As a result, the study focused on the residents and everyday users in

order to gather the necessary data. This led the researcher to explore the social value of urban design as a product delivered to the actual users of the public spaces, irrespective of viewpoint of other stakeholders. The researcher also includes as a limitation the fact that the very nature of social value and design quality are difficult, complex concepts that many interviewees might find difficult to understand.

Access to CCTV footage at either site was not available. Such footage would have revealed the structure of human movement patterns and activities in the public spaces and allowed the researcher to identify social matters more deeply, and thus would have offered a distinctive approach to the social value of urban design. The unobtrusive observational approach was used instead to track human movement, activities, spatial qualities, social interactions and spatial interrelations. This method was utilized to compensate for the methodological weaknesses of interviews and questionnaires (Lee, 2000). In fact, the unobtrusive approach complements the impressions and attitudes derived from the interviews and questionnaires, wherein respondents may be attempting to control how they are perceived by the interviewer (Lee, 2000).

CHAPTER 5 : EMPIRE SQUARE CASE STUDY AND RESEARCH ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the case study is introduced and the overall data gathering and data analysis employed in the present study are presented. It is divided into two parts, beginning by introducing the case study that has been selected for this project. This study will feature multiple-case or holistic designs. For such studies, data and practical knowledge are fundamental to the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the findings. The second part is concerned with the study's overall data gathering and analysis. The structure of the analysis also allows for further in-depth discussion. As stated in Chapter Four, two case studies were selected for this study; both represent regeneration development projects and the local urban policies and practices of urban development projects in London. The data were gathered from two trips to each site. A behavioural and observational analysis explores the various movements and patterns of activity observed in the spaces, while the social analysis considers the importance of social values. A comparative analysis approach is employed to minimize any deficiencies and to generate findings that support and benefit the overall outcome of the research.

The first part of this chapter introduces the context of selected case study for this project, while the second involves individual analyses of the case study. The analysis contains three sections: the introduction, the behavioural analysis and the social and perceptual analysis. This chapter is structured to present the first case individually, while the other case is presented in the following chapter.

5.1 Empire Square: Background

Empire Square is a residentially led mixed -use development in the historic district of Southwark, located at the end of Borough High Street (Figure 5-1 and Figure 5-2). The site formerly had industrial uses, including as a goods depot, until the London Borough of Southwark saw possibilities for its development until the late 1990s. They insisted that high-quality design be integral to this project. Initial approval was granted for 270 residential units of a gated community development with no public access. However, Berkeley Homes, the developer, sought to increase the density to 576 mixed-tenure units. The developer saw the potential of a new public square and affordable units by giving around 33% of the site to public use as a public square. The new public square was a price worth paying for the additional units

they obtained (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013).The project was completed in 2007 and won the Housing Design Awards and the CABE Gold Award (Keddie, 2010) (see Figure 5-3, Figure 5-4 and Figure 5-5).



Figure 5-1: The site location of Empire Square

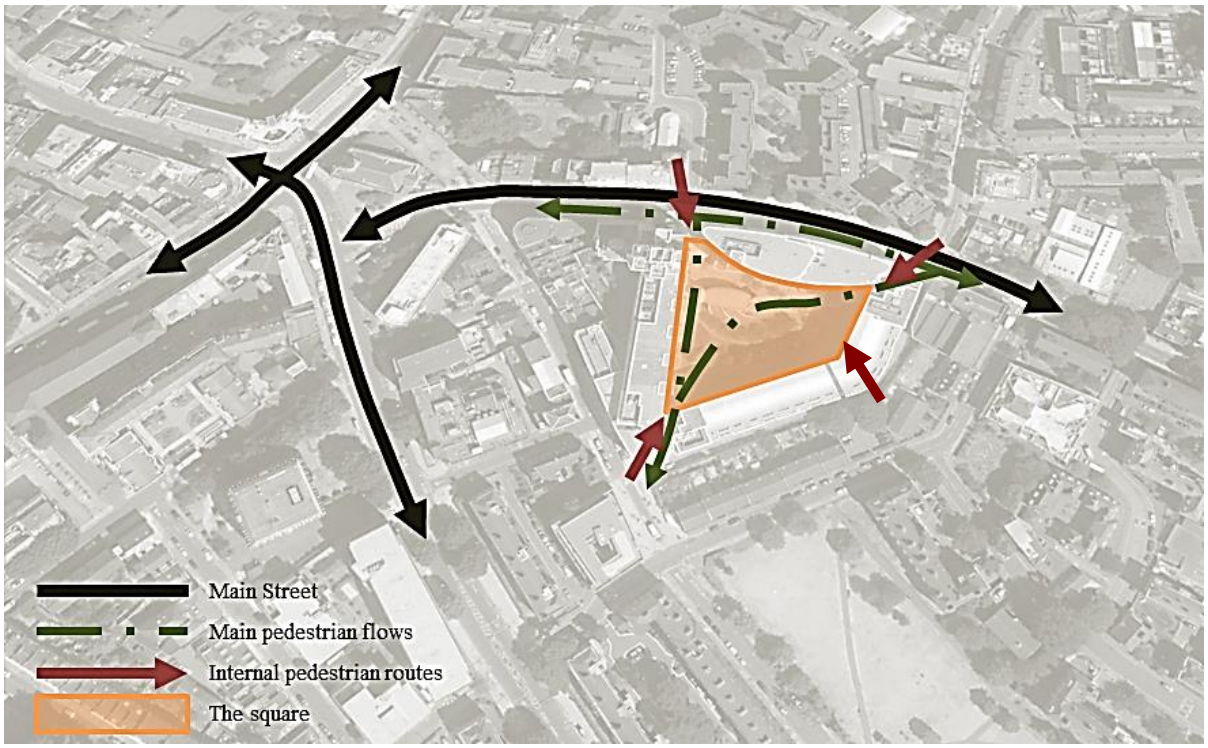


Figure 5-2: Connections to Empire Square

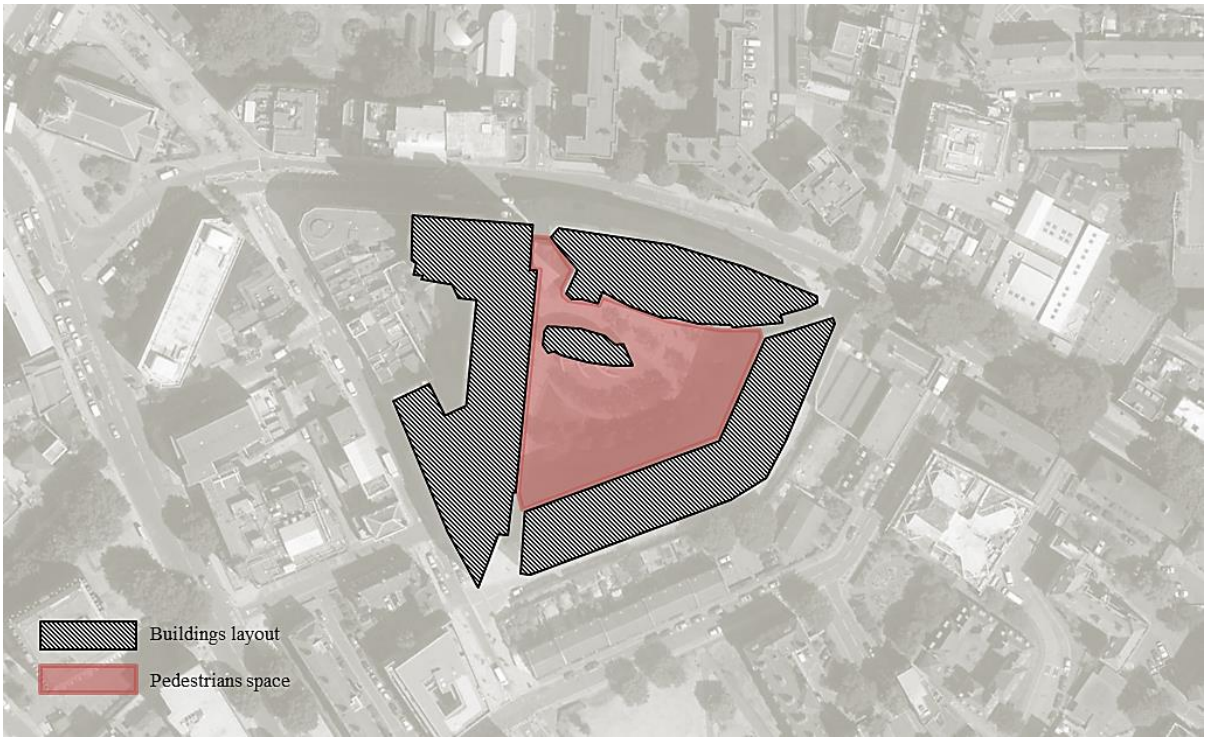


Figure 5-3: Building layout and pedestrian space of Empire Square

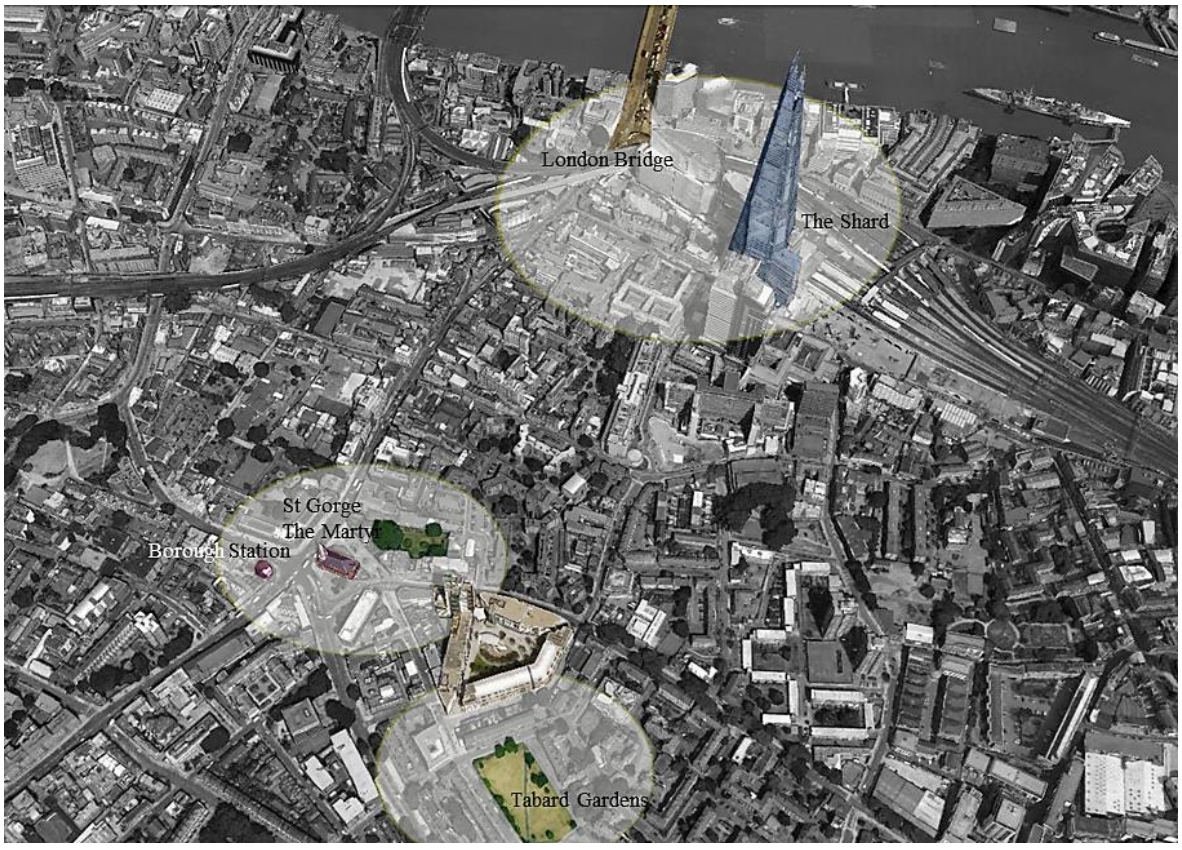


Figure 5-4: Key buildings and spatial characteristics near Empire Square

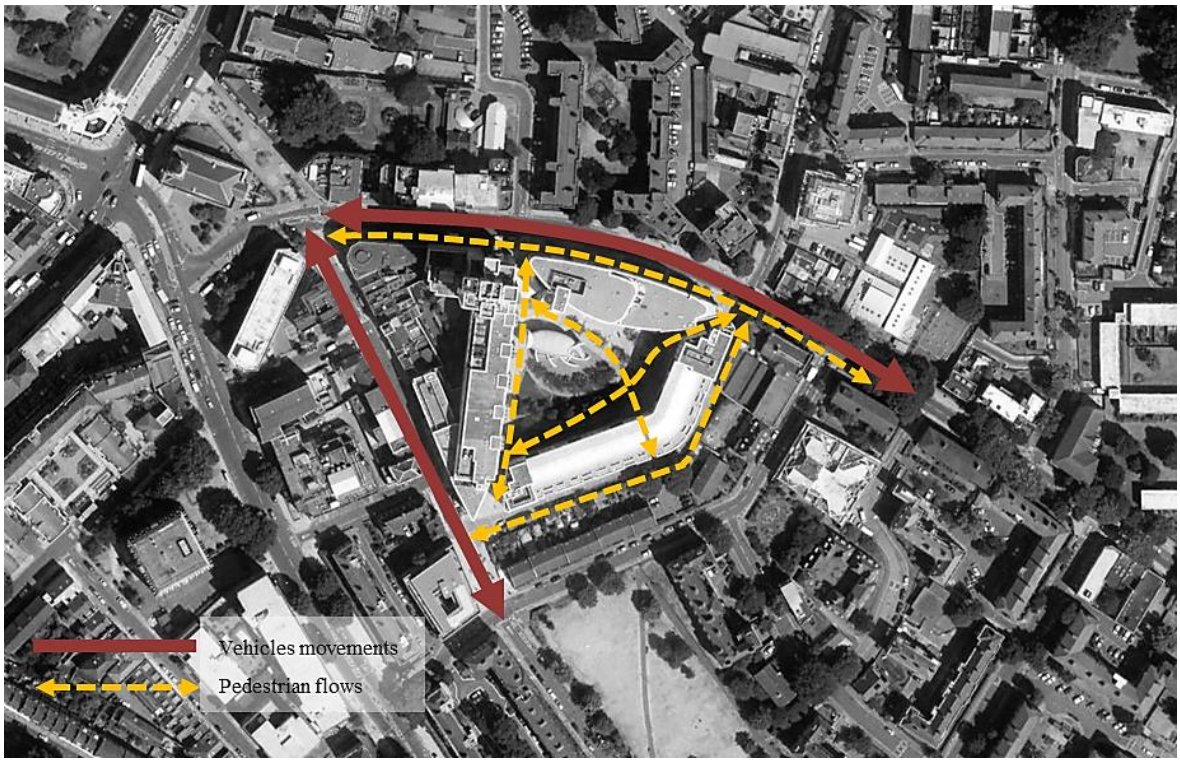


Figure 5-5: Vehicle and pedestrian flows of Empire Square

5.1.1 The Morphology of Empire Square

The planner of Empire Square was keen to challenge the historic scale of the area, which runs from one-storey shops and restaurants to modern seven-story buildings and mixed-use developments, by providing a large development that would make a positive contribution to the urban setting (Marshall, 2007). Looking at Empire Square in a broader context, residential blocks around Tabard Garden Estate present to the street and demonstrate a lack of interest in the edge of the street in terms of providing activities that attract people to the development. Plants and wide pavements run alongside Long Lane, which is one of London's busy primary red routes, with wide carriageways and pavements and on-street parking in places that serve parades of shops. There is a busy node area at the northwest corner of Empire Square where Long Lane, Marshalsea Road and Borough High Street come together. The heaviest pedestrian traffic is along Marshalsea Road, where small shops line the street, while a quieter local route runs in parallel alongside Long Lane. This street pattern illustrates how a period of redevelopment in the twentieth century led to a large number of earlier streets being separated or removed, reducing the legibility of the patterns. For instance, Pardoner Street has no through routes for traffic (Figure 5-6).



Figure 5-6: Pardoner Street has no through routes for traffic, obtained from google earth.

The urban structure and built forms of the area alongside Long Lane vary a great deal in age, scale and style of building. The buildings lining Long Lane have a number of gaps in the frontage that are used as car parks, open space and vacant land. Active building frontages are expanding toward the north where Long Lane joins Borough High Street. The buildings range from one-storey shops and restaurants to modern seven-story buildings and mixed-use developments. Large residential estates currently cover the area between Tabard Street and Long Lane. Blocks of flats lining Tabard Street stand between three and five storeys in height; they are constructed mostly in brick with pitched roofs. These buildings tend to set back from the street, leaving a shared open space. The limited modern buildings alongside Long Lane are either housing or mixed-use developments (Figure 5-7).

The study region contains a wide variety of open urban spaces, including public places for recreation, private gardens, squares and communal spaces. The largest public open space in the study area is Tabard Garden (shown in Figure 5-7), which is divided into three sections. The first is allocated for children's play facilities and multi-use games. The second area is a proper square with seating area and trees. The third area is considered an open parkland area and has grass, shrubs and ash trees. In the context of the urban fabric, Tabard Garden increases the openness and delivers the correct setting for the surrounding residential buildings.

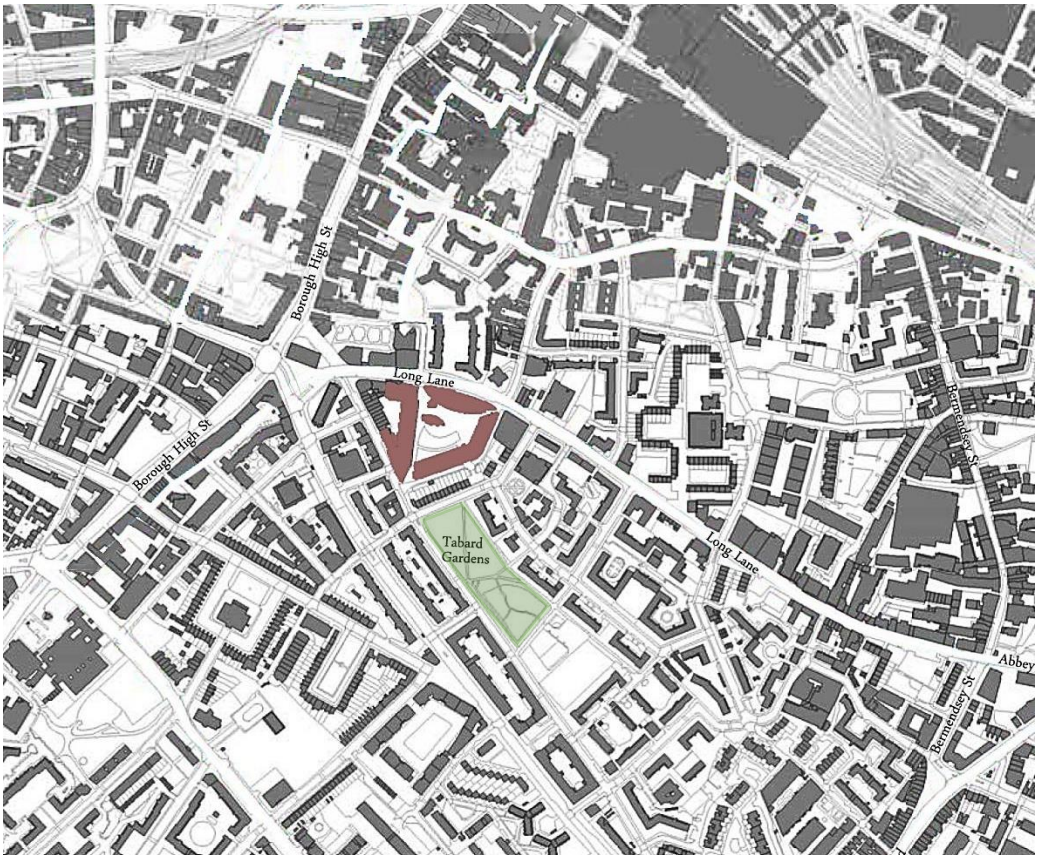


Figure 5-7: Empire Square—Urban structure and built form



Figure 5-8: The ground level and the four entrances to Empire Square and residential blocks, adapted from (CABE, 2011)

Empire Square consists of blocks of residential apartments surrounding a publicly accessible courtyard space. The planner of this project opened up one side of the space to the surrounding context and the road; however, the developer, who was worried about noise and its being less attractive to potential inhabitants, opposed this proposal. The planner thus closed up the building tightly to the space, leaving six-metre entrances at the four corners of the scheme (Figure 5-8). As a result, when one enters the square, the historical pattern of Borough High Street's narrow lanes contrasts strongly with the modern space inside the development (Figure 5-9) (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013).



Figure 5-9: the historical pattern of Borough High Street's narrow lanes vs. the modern space inside the development, obtained from google earth

5.1.2 The Process of Developing the Scheme

According to the Southwark Plan (2007), the Borough's strategic objectives emphasised lower-rise (four- and five-storey) urban neighbourhood solutions for new projects. However, the new scheme failed to meet these essential objectives. Nevertheless, permission was given in 2001, after the planners realised the key benefits that the public space (Figure 5-3) would offer to the surrounding areas (CABE, 2011). These benefits include creating additional linkages and movement routes through the site, allowing sunlight into the surrounding residential units and offering amenity space (CABE, 2011). Rolfe Judd, the architect, wanted to link the site with London Bridge Station (Figure 5-4 and Figure 5-5) through a series of connected green spaces

leading all the way to the station (CABE, 2011). Rolfe Judd Architecture is a London-based firm of architects, town planners and interior designers. It has a history of blending creative and responsive architecture with practical urban planning expertise. It has built new housing developments and refurbishment projects in several urban situations.

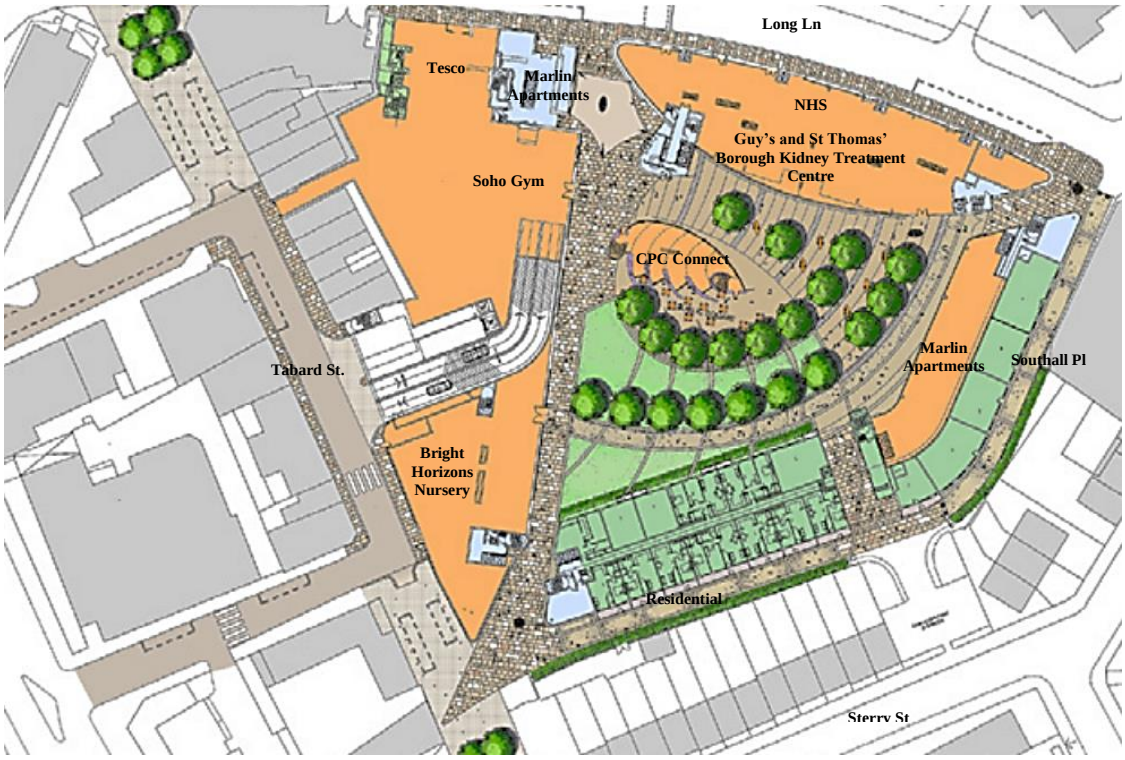


Figure 5-10: Ground-floor plan, obtained from CABE

The vision of the project was to produce something for the community, in addition to boosting the local area through a variety of commercial uses at the ground level of development (Figure 5-10; (Judd, 2007). Moreover, having an active frontage satisfied the local authorities. According to Carmona and Wunderlich (2013) the local authorities and the Mayor's Office were eager to see greater permeability and good mixed-use development in the area, and the project was sold to Fairhold Athena Ltd after its completion in 2007. According to Carmona and Wunderlich (2013), Fairhold Athena Ltd. assigned a managing agent to handle the development on its behalf. Residents were satisfied with the high quality of the area, and initial concerns about the impact of the 22-storey tower did not develop into actual problems (CABE, 2012).

According to Carmona and Wunderlich (2013), Berkeley Homes took great advantage of public space in its development. First, they benefitted from the public space economically by adding

value to the project as a whole. Secondly, they have achieved the number of units they needed through the tower. Decision-making in the scheme involved internalizing the public space to minimise its direct impact upon surrounding public roads or buildings (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013). However, this decision led to a positive impact by creating a sense of exclusivity and ownership.

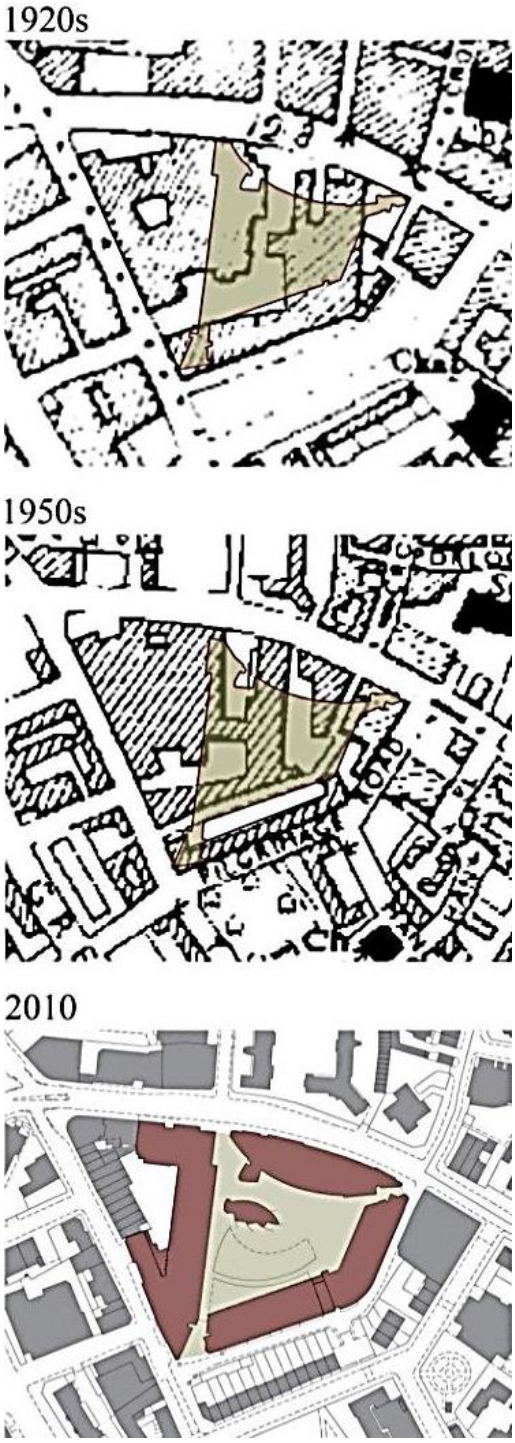


Figure 5-11: Site of Empire Square

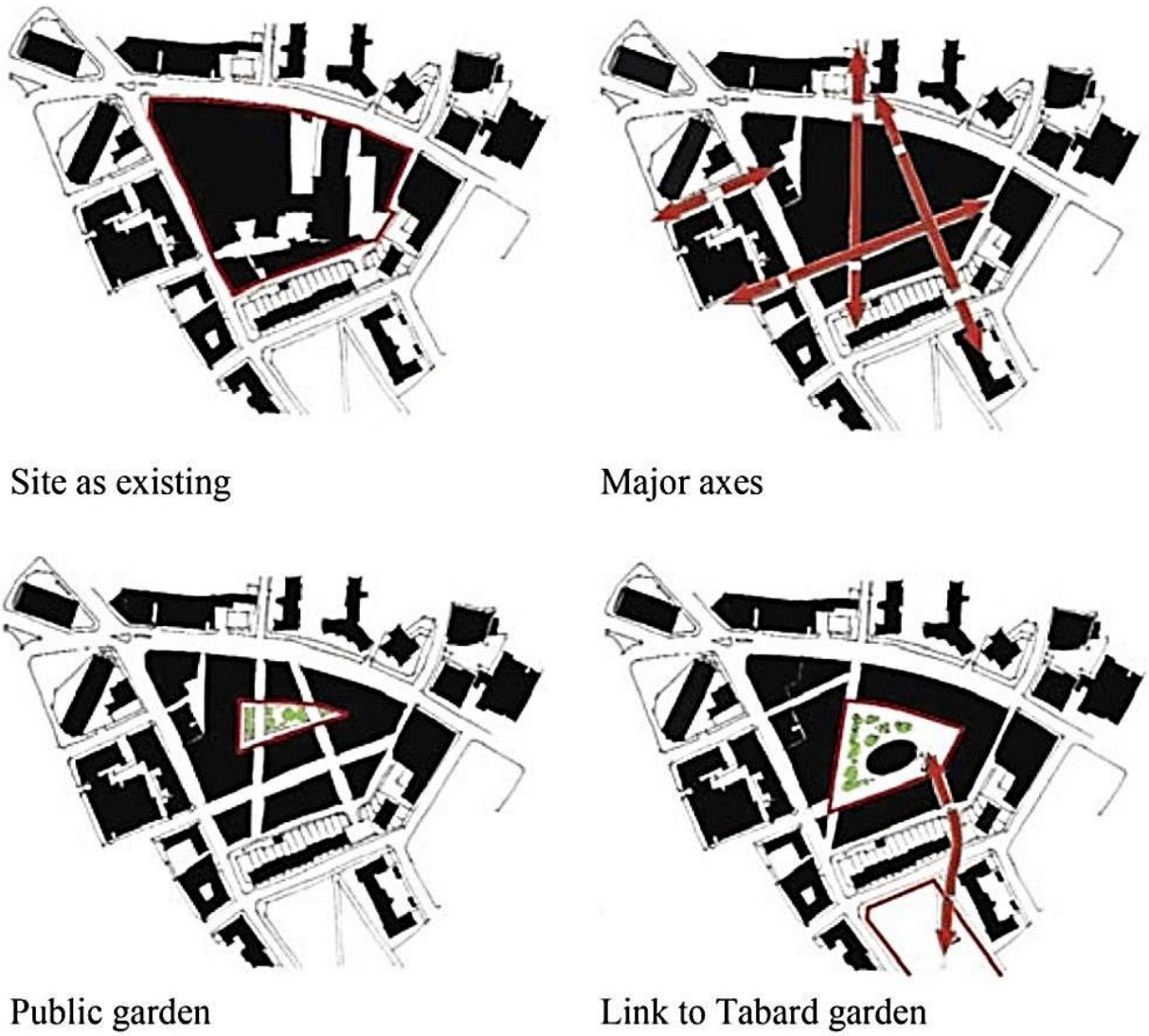


Figure 5-12: Design development of the scheme by the architect and the link to Tabard Garden (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013)

Empire Square is relatively recent, and was built in consideration of the rises in London's cost of housing over the last two decades. Providing a new publicly available space was one aspect of its planning conditions. The project was developed on a former brownfield site and transformed into high-quality housing that supported social mixing in the neighbourhood (Figure 5-11). However, despite the fact that Empire Square was conceived as a public resource for all people from the surrounding context, the space is actually underused by local populations and suffers from limited access (Figure 5-12).

5.1.3 The Uses of the Scheme

The development of Empire Square was influenced by the manner of development around parks and squares that is fundamental to London (Judd, 2007). These traditional spaces are seen as opportunities for designers to develop intimate new public spaces that include buildings (Marshall, 2007). The desire line through the development site, along with allowing pedestrians through the square, was seen as an opportunity for the fabric of the vicinity to penetrate the space (Marshall, 2007). Rolfe Judd (2007), the designer of the scheme, was thus keen to see an active regeneration corridor to the north of Empire Square, and ensured that the scheme would have dynamic frontages onto the surrounding streets wherever possible. The original mixed-use vision consisted of a large supermarket facing Long Lane and a restaurant in a pavilion building in the middle of the square (Keddie, 2010). The scheme currently includes a small Tesco convenience store, gym, nursery, a facility for Guy's Hospital Rental Unit and small commercial offices, including the pavilion. These changes in land use for the pavilion, which was intended to be a restaurant, and limiting users' interaction with the ground floor around the square do not promote an active space (Figure 5-13). The supermarket faces onto Long Lane, and the spaces have no connection to revive it. Moreover, the use of the pavilion as an office building does not attract many people. The nursery, NHS facility and Tesco store have their entrances on the outside border of the development. Most of the active land use in the scheme has no direct relationship with the space, with the exception of Soho Gym. According to Carmona and Wunderlich (2013), land use has a direct influence on the failure to achieve the desired vision of Empire Square. This includes failures to lease the large supermarket and the pavilion restaurant space. The restaurant site was regarded as too far off the beaten path, while the supermarket lacked parking; even though the developer constructed 40 parking spaces underneath the square, these failed to satisfy the needs of the square's users.

The domestic space in this project reveals itself in green and reflects London's traditional residential squares. Lovejoy London designed the landscaping at Empire Square after considering a variety of treatments of the space (Marshall, 2007). According to Carmona and Wunderlich (2013), hard treatment versus natural grass and ash trees suggested an orchard, a reference to the time when fruit was imported into London from Kent via Southward. The space is divided mainly into hard and soft treatments and the pavilion.



Figure 5-13: Empire Square from the inside as well as the nursery, a facility for Guy's Hospital Rental Unit and small commercial offices, including the pavilion

5.2 Empire Square: Research Analysis

The first case study of Empire Square occurred during January and February 2014 and during August and September 2014. Empire Square during these times of the year is used mainly as a pedestrian path, with a minority of people using it for resting and relaxing. The square is open from 06:00 in the morning until 22:00 at night. During the day, when the weather is mildest, children from a nursery play on the green area and a group of gym trainers hold classes outdoors.

5.2.1 Site Observational Analysis

As stated in Chapter four (4.4.2), the data collected by this method is analysed through disguised field analysis. Frequent repetitions of observations for the Empire Square case were undertaken at various times (11:30 – 13:30 and 15:00 – 17:00) to ensure the validity of the results. From ten visits to the site, two themes were developed to describe human behaviour at the specific times chosen for this study. The data generated from these observations are analysed based on evaluative observational variables to validate suggestions based on site observations (Babbie, 2007). The temperature, wind and weather condition were obtained from The Met Office (Office, 2014). The selected site observational mappings illustrate that high

traffic by pedestrians occurred along the path connecting Sterry Street (south) with Long Lane (north). The seating area was not heavily active during lunch, despite good weather. Activities and social interactions were concentrated in the seating area and main pedestrian path, especially near the Long Lane entrance. People also gathered under the tent by the north entrance or at the green area. The latter was the most-used area of the square, especially by office workers. Soho Gym provided the most façade-to-space interaction and was the most popular destination in the square.

First Theme of Site Observation

In late afternoon on a sunny day in late winter (Table 5-1), the majority of pedestrian flow occurred between Long Lane and Tabard Street at 348 pedestrians per hour (Figure 5-14), with Soho Gym being a focal point. The square was originally intended to provide many benefits, including creating additional linkages and movement routes through the site, allowing the sunlight into the surrounding residential units and offering amenity space (CABE, 2011). Instead, the square functions primarily as a shortcut, echoing the function of the surrounding streets.

Table 5-1: Data from the day that analysis work was undertaken

Date	14/03/2014
Time period of observation	15:00–17:00
Temperature and wind	16^0 windy
Weather condition	Sunny

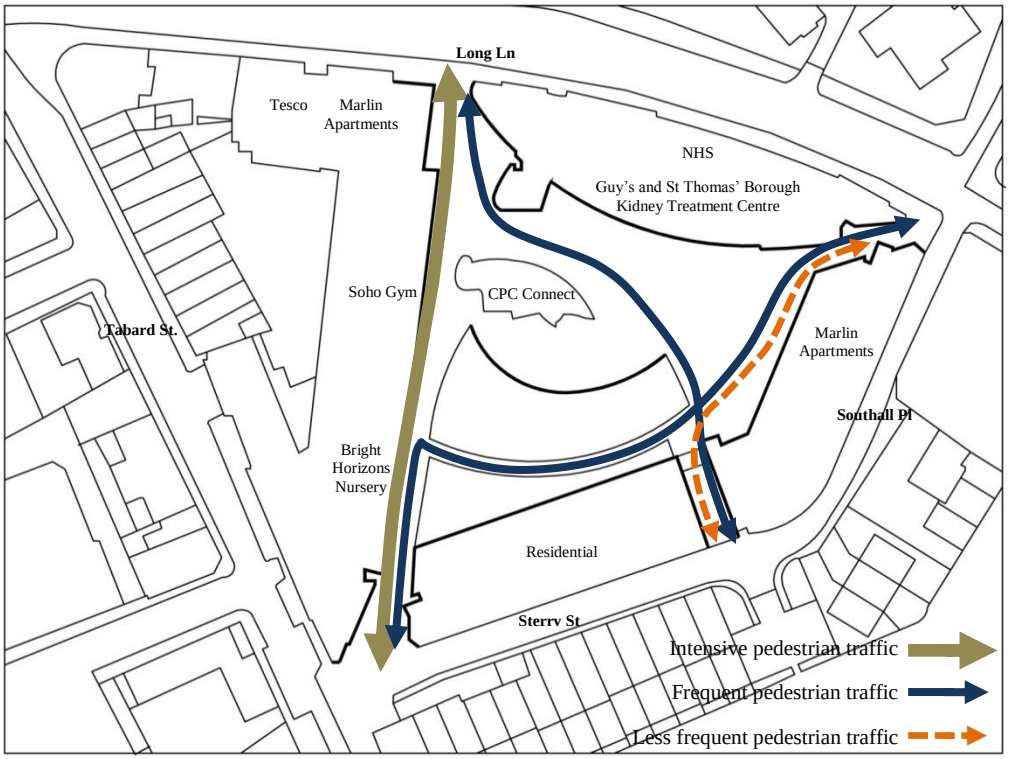


Figure 5-14: Pedestrian movement in Empire Square

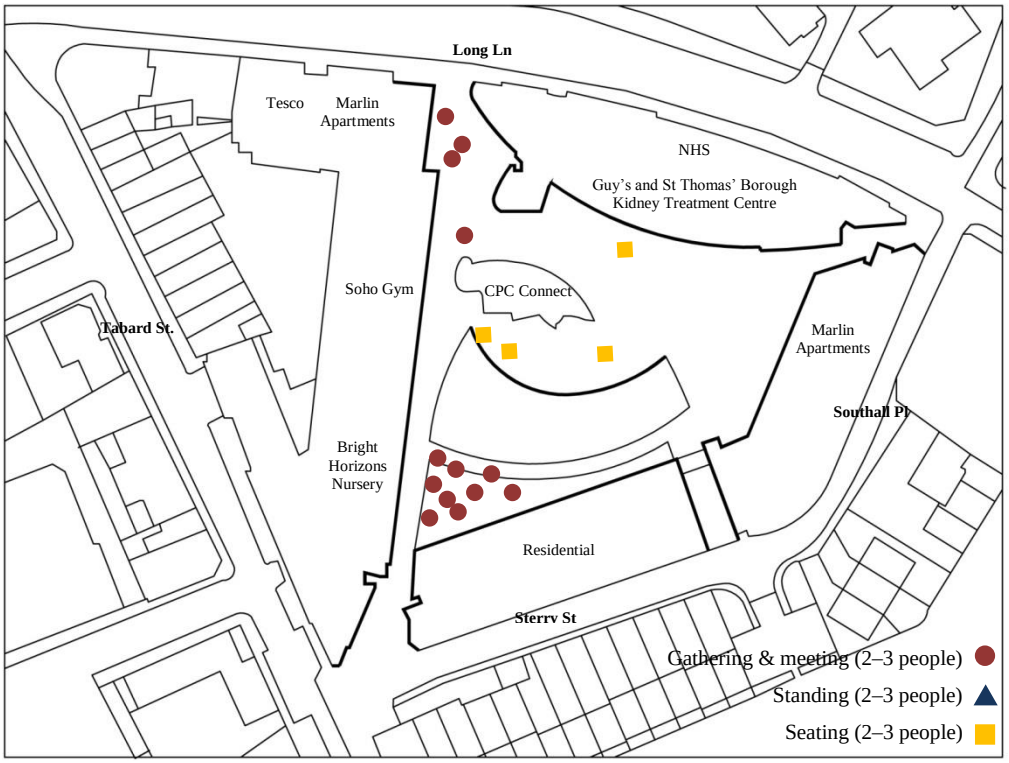


Figure 5-15: Types of activities at Empire Square

Activities and interactions are concentrated near Bright Horizons Nursery (Figure 5-15). In good weather, small groups of children spend short periods of time in common gathering areas on the south side and in front of the nursery. However, they prefer Tabard Garden because it has a playground. Social interactions also occur near the north entrance, which is used by office employees as a place to smoke. Other than the occasional use by small groups of workers or students eating lunch, the seating area remains largely empty despite good sunlight. Similarly, the primary social interaction node is in front of the nursery, with secondary nodes at the northern smoke-break site and at the seating area in front of Guy's and St Thomas' Borough Kidney Treatment Centre (Figure 5-16).

The straight route linking Long Lane with Sterry Street is the most interactive, while the space between Marlin Apartments and the pavilion is the least interactive (Figure 5-17). This is because the apartments have private gardens that are not connected to the square, and the pavilion is currently an office building; it was formerly a café. The most active point occurs alongside Soho Gym. With the exception of a few office workers coming and going between the Marlin Apartments office, there is no other interaction. Because the entrances to Tesco, Marlin Apartments and Guy's and St Thomas' Borough Kidney Treatment Centre are along Long Lane rather than in the square, the main arrival points are Soho Gym and the north residential block entrances (Figure 5-18). Users agreed that addressing the needs of people using these facilities would be critical to increasing the density of users in the square.

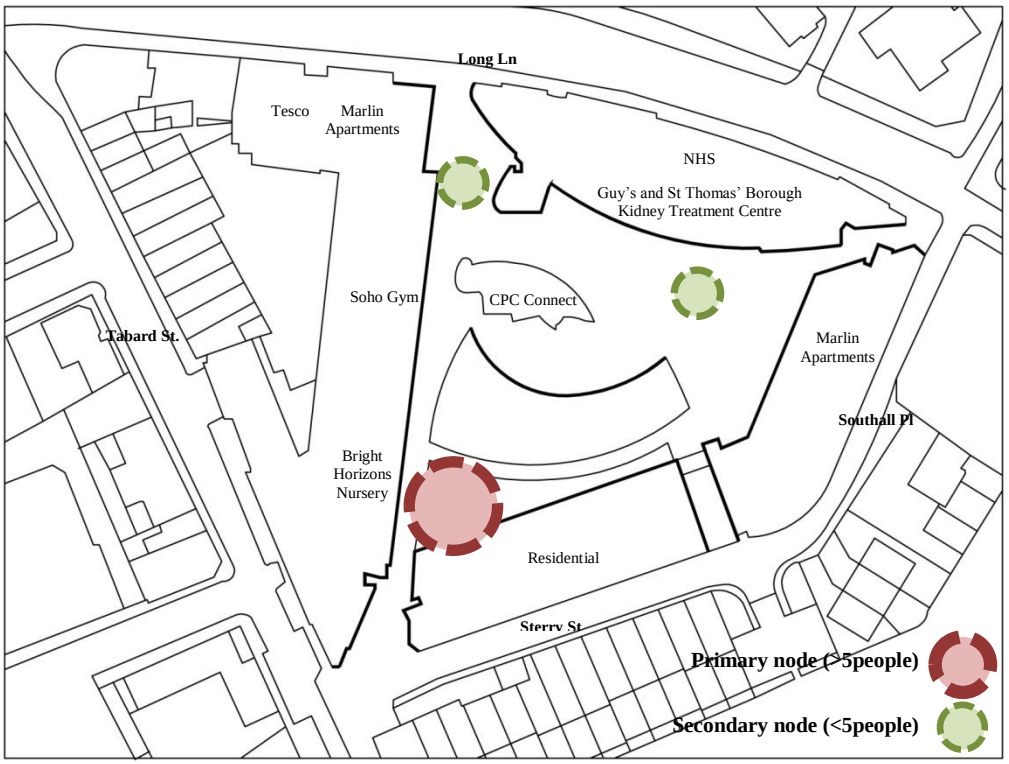


Figure 5-16: Nodes and social qualities in Empire Square

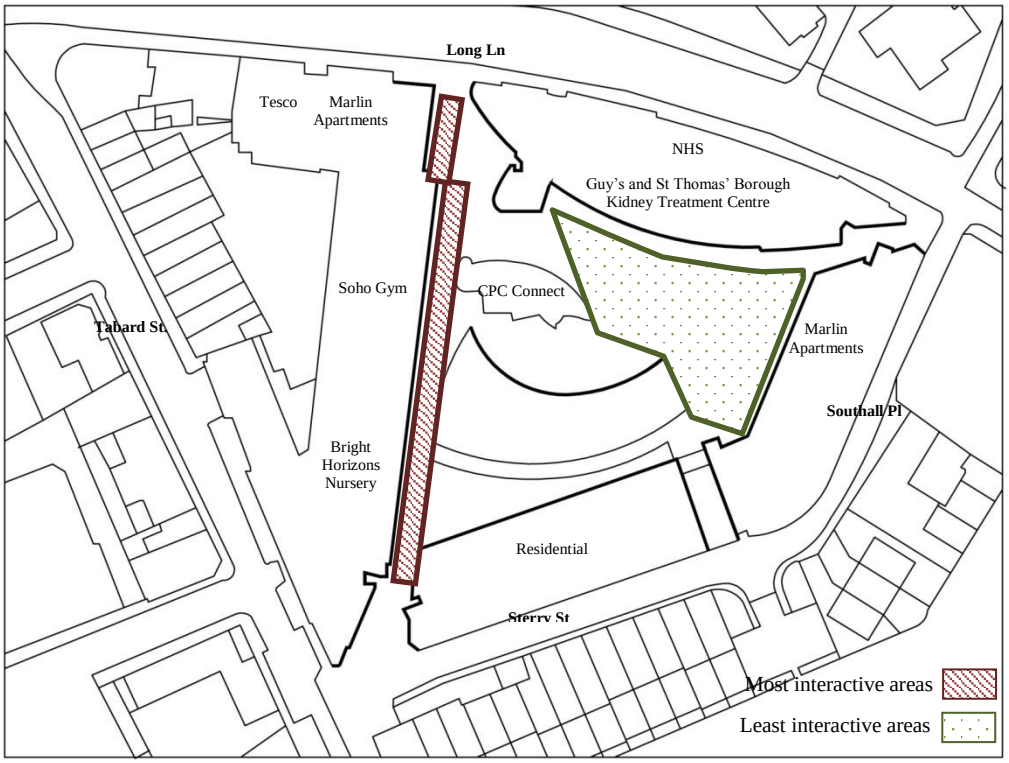


Figure 5-17: Interactions and movement in Empire Square

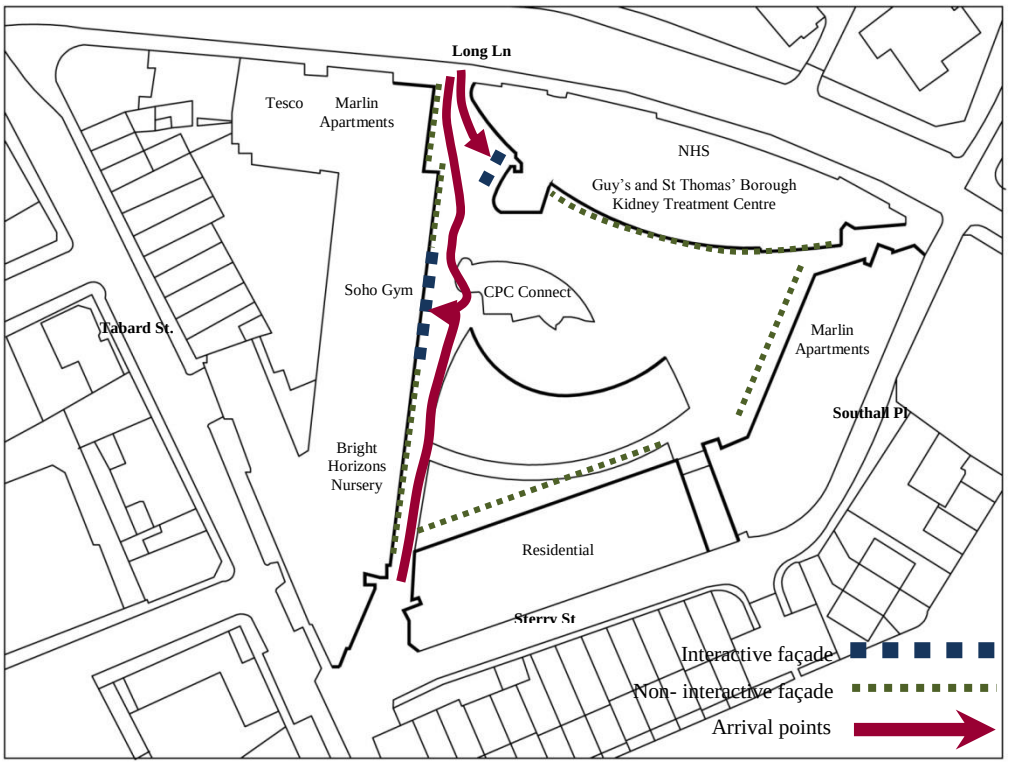


Figure 5-18: Façade interactive points and arrival points at Empire Square

Second Theme of Site Observation

At lunchtime on a sunny day in late summer (Table 5-2), the picture is slightly different. Pedestrian movements are similar, with the straight path between Tabard Street and Long Lane still serving as a main throughway (Figure 5-19). Activities are also similar, although the children are not playing outside; it is notable that only a few people use the seating area, even at lunchtime (Figure 5-20). The area between Guy's and St. Thomas' Kidney Treatment Centre and Marlin Apartments now serves as both the primary social node and primary interactive area instead of the area in front of Bright Horizons Nursery (Figure 5-21-Figure 5-22).

Table 5-2: Data from the day that analysis work was undertaken.

Date	10/09/2014
Time period of observation	11:30–13:30
Temperature and wind	17^0 breezy
Weather condition	Sunny

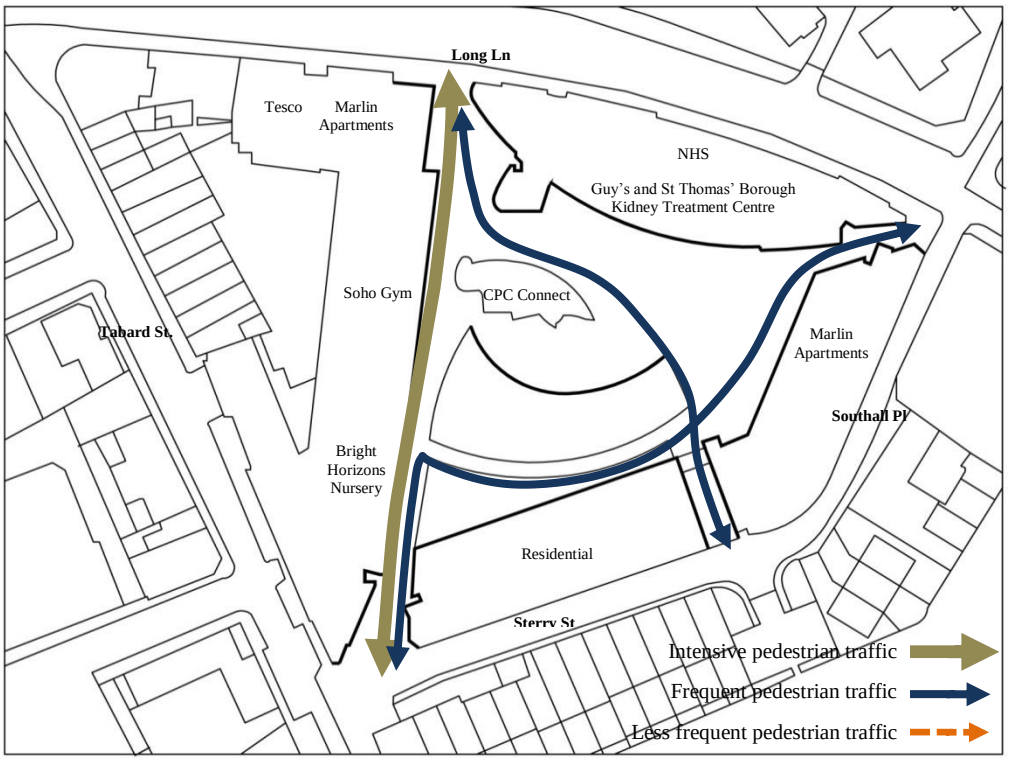


Figure 5-19: Pedestrian movement in Empire Square

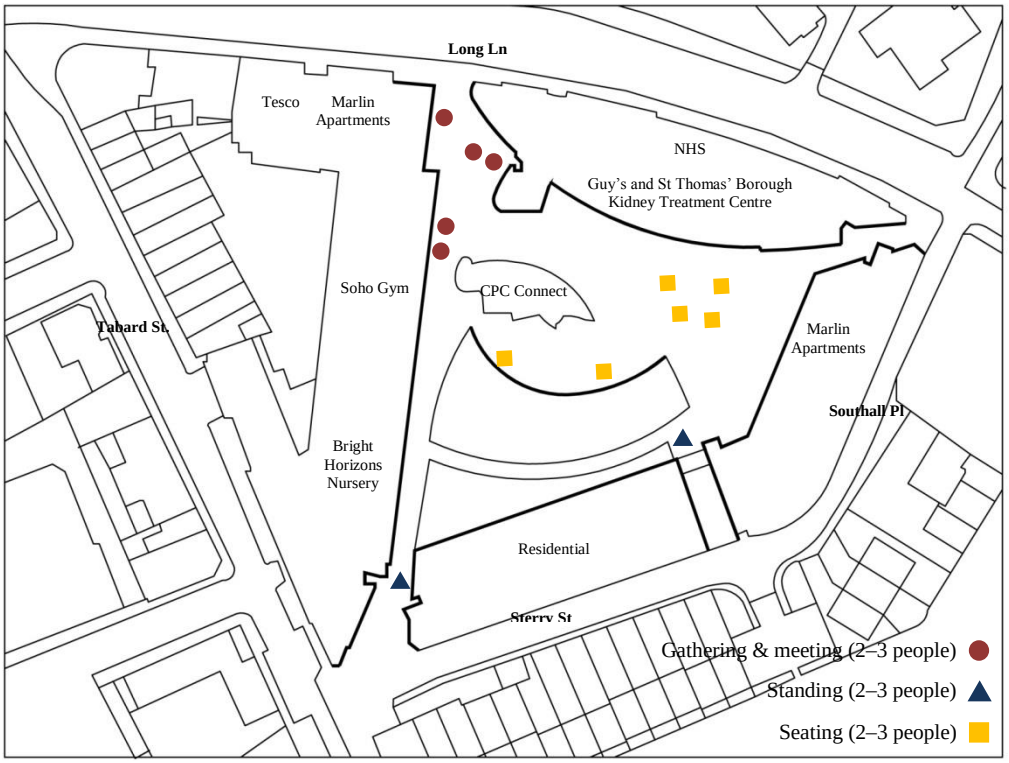


Figure 5-20: Types of activities in Empire Square

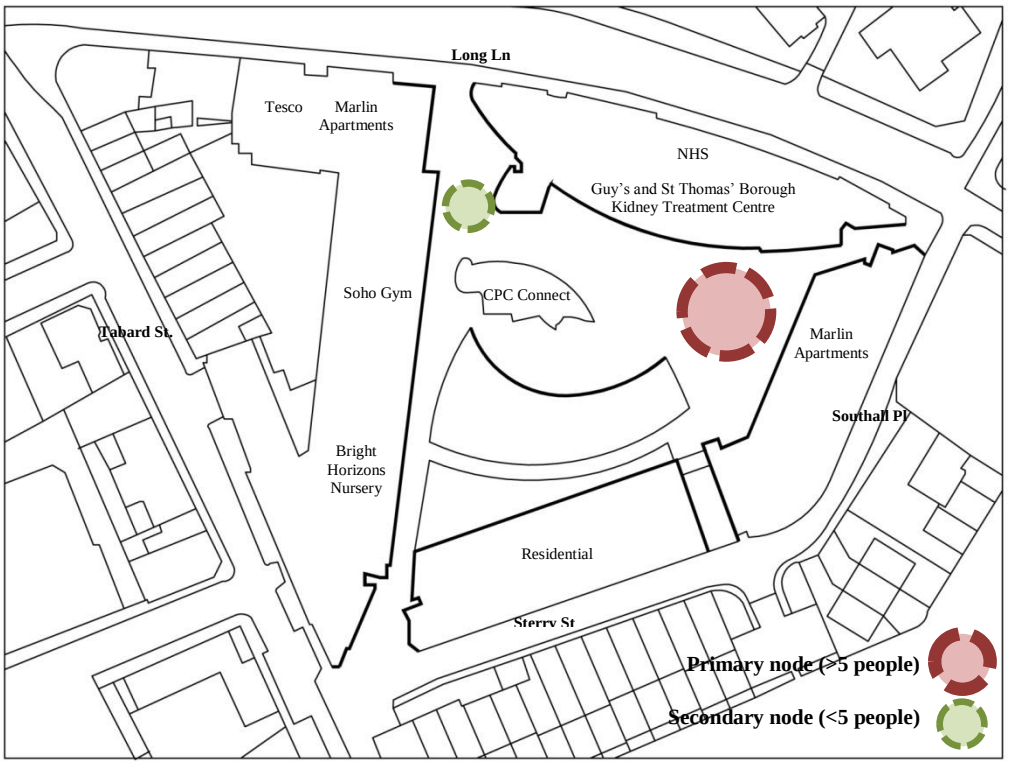


Figure 5-21: The nodes and social qualities in Empire Square

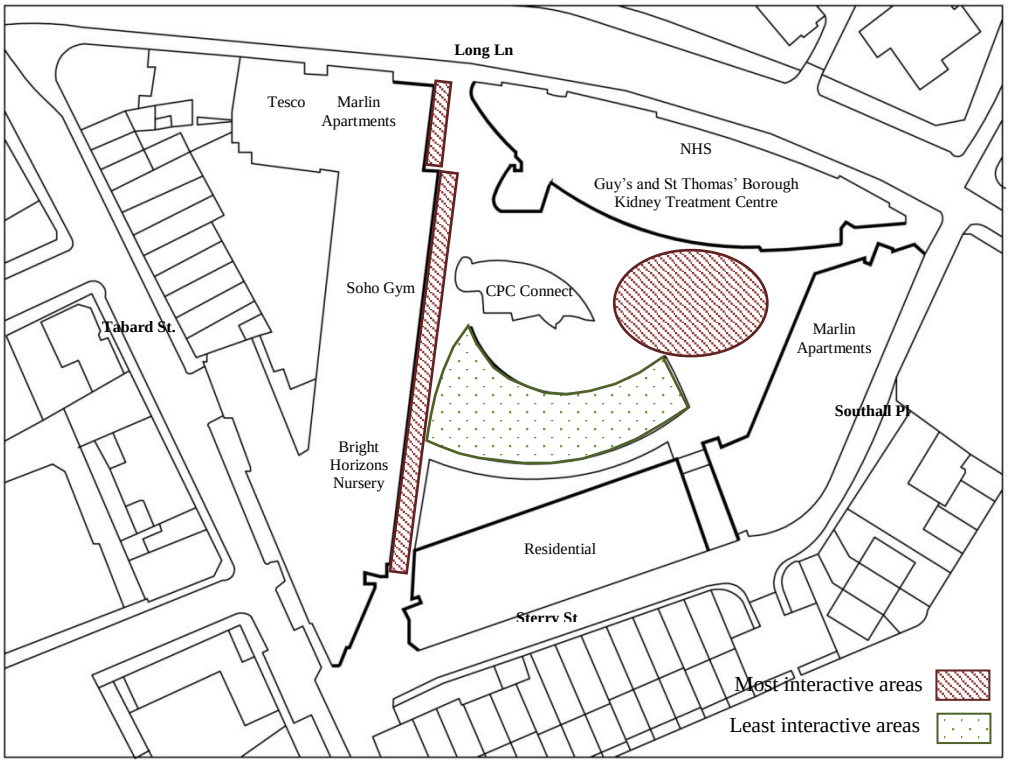


Figure 5-22: Interactions and movement in Empire Square

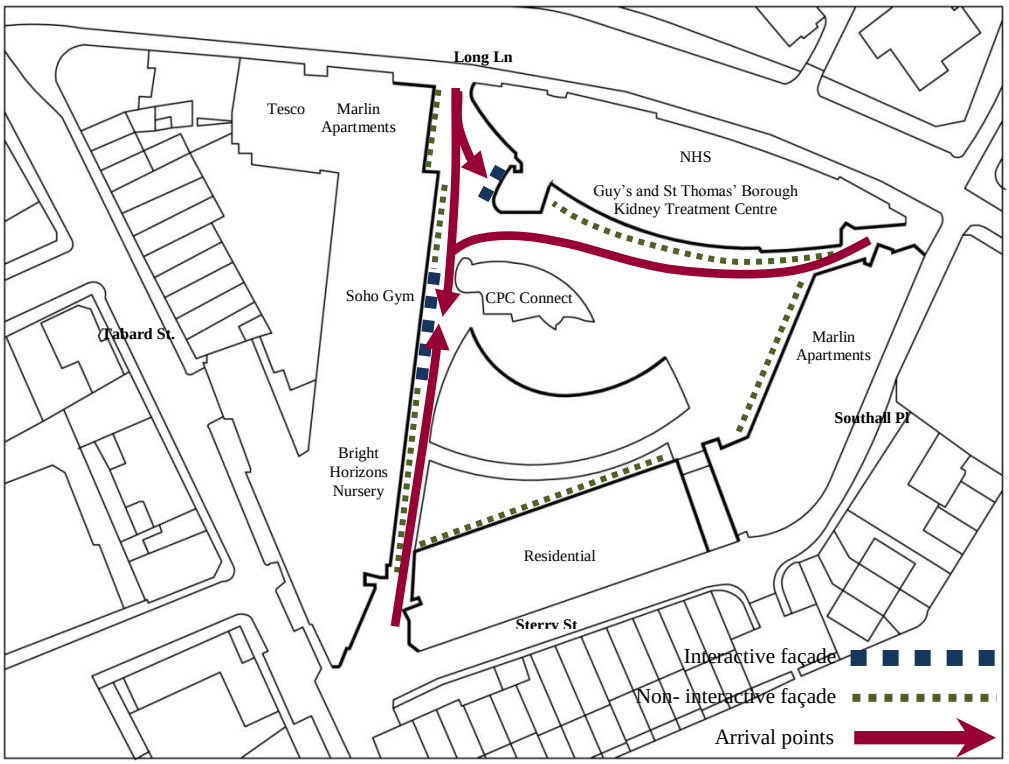


Figure 5-23: Façade interactive points and arrival points at Empire Square

The data from the behavioural analysis of Empire Square establishes the dominance of the pedestrian path between Long Lane and Tabard Street over the entire area of the square (Figure 5-23). The majority of pedestrians are nearby residents who follow this main path on a daily basis to walk to and from work. This suggests that the number of people using this path remains low. The activities and interactions that formerly took place on the main path involved Soho Gym users exercising outside the gym, but the development's management stopped this activity. This move by the management was a bid to keep the square calm and quiet for its residents. The management decision was according to the complaints from residents which helped the management to maintain and secure the place. Soho Gym is the most active area that affects the way users interact with both the square and with one another (Figure 5-24). The evidence suggests that walking activities and freedom of using the place are valued by some of the development's residents and most users of this urban space. Evidence from many sites suggests that reducing the encouragement to walk within urban places leads to decreased level of social interaction, which may weaken the sense of community. A study by Talen (1999) suggests that providing a walkable urban environment leads to higher level of social interaction, which will strengthen the community life.



Figure 5-24: Soho Gym is the only active frontage of Empire Square.

The area in front of the gym in Empire Square is the meeting point that users prefer for socialising and interacting with each other. Therefore, Bright Horizons Nursery has become the only encouraging factor to provide extra activity at the square by letting the children out to use the green area in front of the nursery for limited amounts of time on sunny days (Figure 5-25). The entrance to the nursery is from the outside border of the development, which reduces the movement inside the square (Figure 5-26).

Workers at CPC Connect and Marlin Apartments, tourists arriving at the reception and students are the primary groups of users who spend any significant time in the square for sitting, standing and gathering activities. Workers and students largely generate social interactions during lunchtime in the sitting area and on the main path, if the weather is pleasant. This suggests that the tent by the entrance that is located on the north side of the square becomes the primary social interaction node during unpleasant and wet weather (Figure 5-27). Such a detail in this particular area of the square draws attention to the quality of urban spaces that contribute to social interaction. It calls to mind the socio-spatial relationships that were applied here and raises the concern of unpleasant weather in many cities.



Figure 5-25: Children from Bright Horizons Nursery use only the grass area in the square.



Figure 5-26: Bright Horizons Nursery entrance from the outside border of the development.

The evidence illustrates that the quality of design of places and developments can limit the spread of social benefits and might lead the community to suffer socially from unwelcome decisions. Where urban areas require renewal, the CABE and DETR (2001: 74) study advocates that 'good urban design could confer social and environmental value'. The same study shows that 'private sector activity alone has great difficulty delivering the full range of positive social impacts that well designed development can deliver'(CABE and DETR, 2001: 78). This emphasises the point that the benefits of good urban design result from beyond the site and the public spaces within a development should be reasonable in term of accessibility and location in relation to its surrounding urban context.



Figure 5-27: The north gate of Empire Square

As shown in Figure 5-28, one side (edge 3) of Empire Square is dominated by a large kidney treatment centre on the ground floor, with its entrance on the street side. It is dull, adds no interactive edge to the place and has in effect paralysed the area. Only with edge 2 does there

appear to have been any real attempt to have an interactive zone with the square. The rest of the edges of the square are dull and inactive. Edge 1 has a residential unit on the ground floor that has small bushes in front of the balconies to increase privacy and prevent direct contact between users and residents. Edge 4 has the Marlin Apartment office, which is a large unit that has a few doors with an inactive and unattractive ground floor façade. The land use of Empire Square has failed to increase the temporary use of areas that can animate the place.

The findings suggest that mixed use brings intangible benefits related to perceptions of people's satisfaction. A study by CABE and DETR (2001: 11) indicates that 'mixing uses leads directly to higher user and occupant satisfaction and was fundamental to the social, economic and environmental value added by the most successful case studies'. The users of public spaces within mixed-use developments value easy access to a variety of uses and facilities; at the same time, uses and facilities are missed by users when they do not exist (CABE and DETR, 2001). Thorns (2002: 128) notes that 'choice and the freedom and opportunity that mixed use is seen to bring can improve the well-being of individuals'.



Figure 5-28: The relationship between the square and its edges

Even though Empire Square is accessible and open to residents from nearby neighbourhoods with no physical barriers for any meaningful amount of time, the mere presence of gates and signs deters other groups of users from visiting the space (Figure 5-29). The square creates a sense of safety and security by providing security surveillance through CCTV, while lighting and the residential blocks increase the eyes on the place. The sense of security is tilted towards residents over users. The profusion of signs, CCTV, lighting and gates make the square a safe place to use but limits accessibility and decreases the user population.



Figure 5-29: CCTV and signs increase the privatisation of the place

There is no doubt that safety and security is a major consideration in public spaces. However, the increasing private control and management of public space and the increased focus on safety and security in these areas can create alienating places in the urban environment

(Goheen, 1998). This can occur if concerns over safety are perceived as relating more to the convenience of management than to actual human safety (Holland et al., 2007).

The continued use of such practices will ultimately empty places of vitality and generate stark, impersonal places that lack social meaning. However, it is crucial to remember that it is essential to have a sense of security in order to have an occupied urban space in the first place. By inviting walking, biking and staying, security in a city space will develop automatically. Reinforcing urban life will encourage people to walk and stay longer in city spaces, because the presence of others is a signal that a place is safe and secure (Gehl, 2010).

The square generates a sense of safety and security by the presence of security surveillance (CCTV), lighting, the degree of openness and the provision of amenities. Koskela (2002) states that being under surveillance is 'an ambivalent event' because cameras can make people feel both more secure and more fearful. The appearance of CCTV at the entrances of the square is not obvious due to the cameras' small size, but the presence of cameras does not necessarily reduce the fear of crime because CCTV can actually be read as an indicator of high crime in an area (Figure 5-29).

5.2.2 The Social Analysis: Questionnaire Data

As discussed above, the questionnaire contributed to answering the central research question of this study. Each questionnaire took about five to eight minutes per participant to complete, generating a variety data that consisted of five major elements: physical features, spatial values, accessibility, community and quality of space. This section presents the data in accordance with the questions that were answered by participants.

First of all, age and gender questions were asked in order to establish the demographics served by the square. The questionnaires show a high presence of young people (age 18–29) using the square (Figure 5-30), thanks to gym memberships. The elderly are very poorly represented in Empire Square, which may lead to social exclusion and create instability issues.

The majority of people in Empire Square who answered the questionnaires live either inside the development or within ¼ mile from it (Figure 5-31). Many people stated that they use the square because of its proximity to where they live. People who live more than two miles away from the square stated that they visited mainly because they study or work nearby.

The majority (46%) of interviewees stated that they were using the square as a through-route to their destination, while the second most popular purpose was to use the gym (Figure 5-32 and Figure 5-33). In the winter, the number of people who came to use the square for other purposes than walking through was very low; however, the results indicate that they used the square's indoor facilities instead.

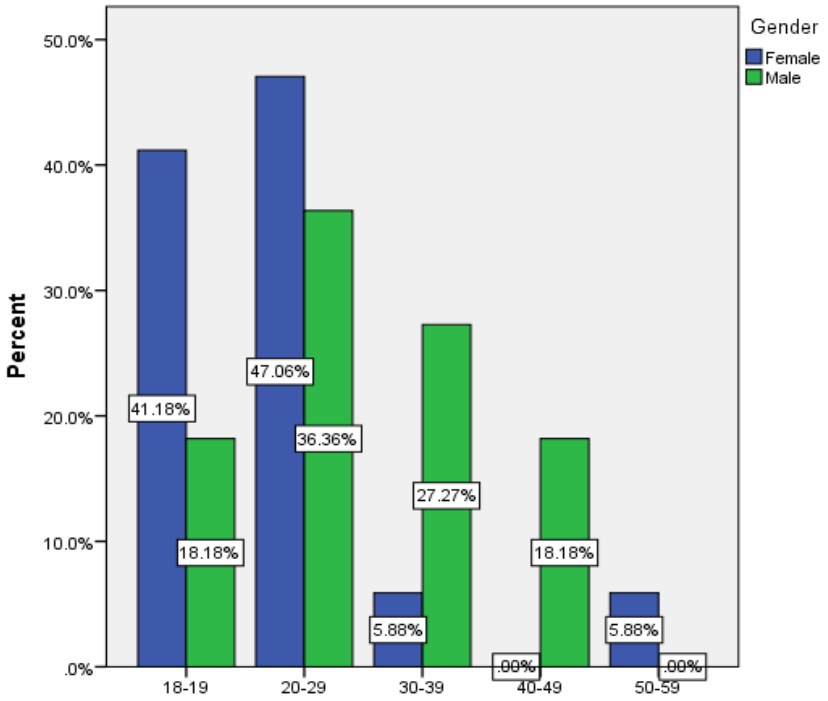


Figure 5-30: Age and gender of local users of Empire Square

According to Gehl (2010), activities necessary to living a normal life are influenced slightly by the physical condition of the urban environment due to their importance. On the other hand, optional activities take place only when the qualities of an environment are optimal. Social activities might occur whatever the physical condition is. Three types of activities occur in Empire Square: necessary activities, such as walking through or taking a short-cut for transit; optional or leisure activities, such as relaxing or using the gym; and social activities in which people meet friends and interact with each other. The questionnaires indicate that necessary activities dominate the daily use of Empire Square (Figure 5-33), as would be expected during winter. Even allowing for the season, social activities were not particularly significant, due to the edges of buildings and the degree of enclosure. Public space should take priority over architecture; building edges should connect the square by defining user activities, and other factors such as material and scale should be designed to support the vitality of the square and the neighbourhood life in general.

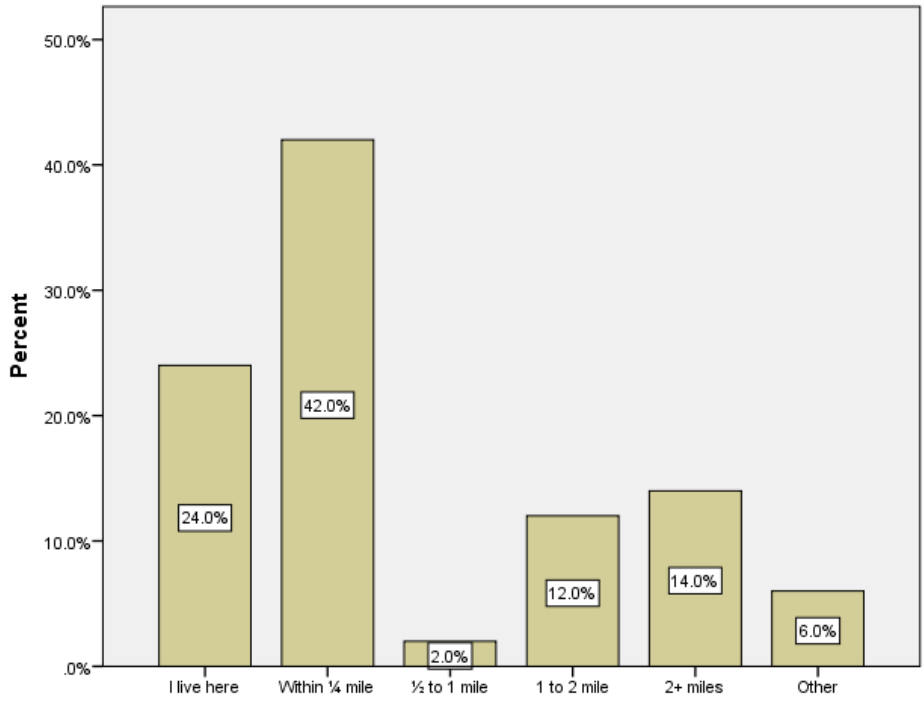


Figure 5-31: Distance to home from Empire Square

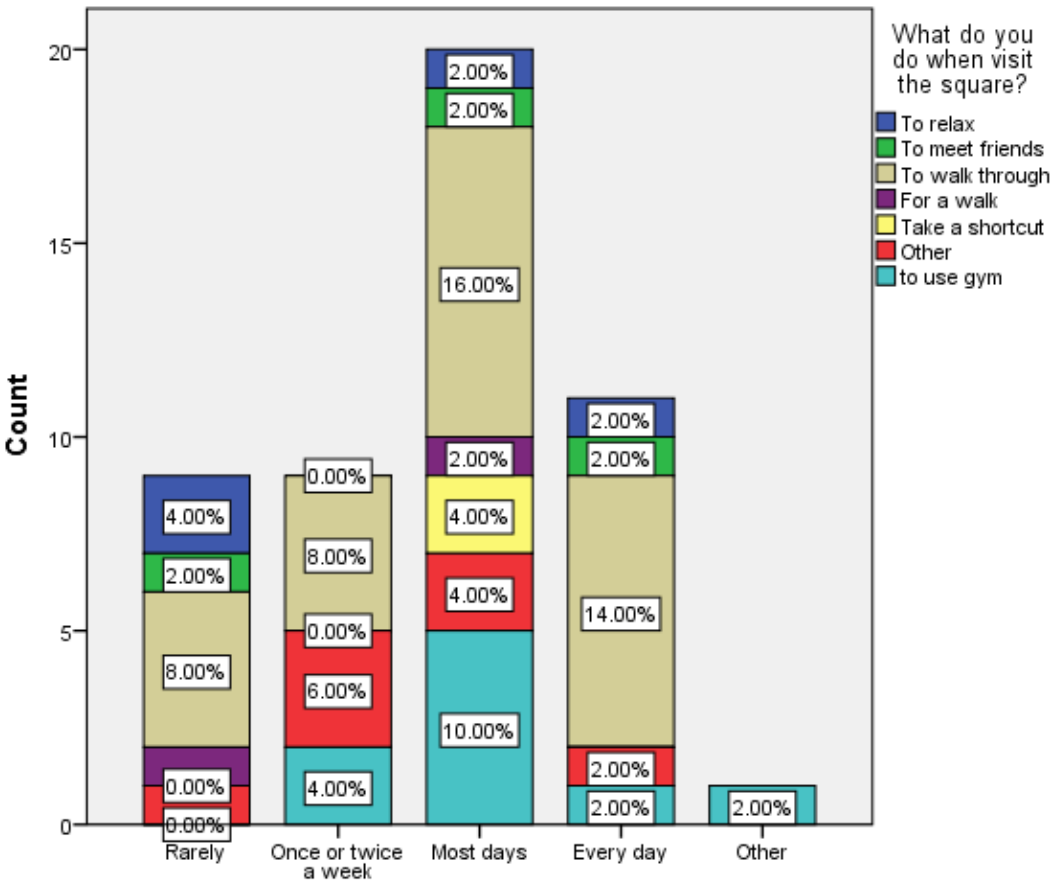


Figure 5-32: The purpose and frequency of visiting Empire Square

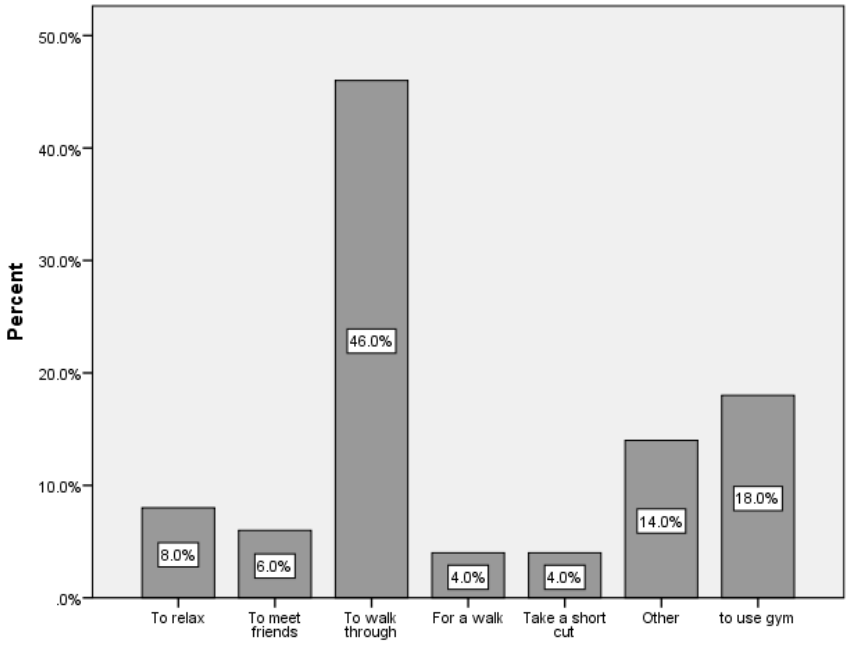


Figure 5-33: Purpose for visiting Empire Square

In Empire Square, 48% of interviewees stay in the open space for a short period (less than 30 minutes), and 28% come to use the gym rather than the square itself (Figure 5-34). Only 18% of people spend a relatively long time at the square (30 minutes or more). This may be due to a lack of activities in the square; people may not want to spend a long time in a place that tends to be similar every time they visit. In their time at the square, most users tended to spend time at Soho Gym. There might be a few students or office workers from nearby areas having lunch and a couple of tourists arriving at the reception of Marlin Apartments.

The data shows that 80% of interviewees come to Empire Square on foot in trips of less than 10 minutes (Figure 5-35 and Figure 5-36). It also shows that 64% come from their homes and 18% come from work. These statistics suggest that most users of the square are from the local area. However, the space had scarcely 20 people in it at any given time, during winter or summer whereas Bermondsey Square can held more than 100 people at once during sunny or market days. There are 62% of interviewees who visit Empire Square alone, whereas 38% of interviewees visit the square either alone or as part of a group (Figure 5-37). Figure 5-38 illustrates that Empire Square is primarily inhabited by friends and young people; families are very poorly represented. Lack of facilities is the biggest singly reason that people do not visit Empire Square (Figure 5-39). Although a noisy street runs along one side of the development, the square appears from the outside to be a quiet and even isolated place, making people reluctant to visit. People are attracted spontaneously to activities and to other people (Gehl,

2010), so a more lively square might appeal more strongly to them. Other participants avoided Empire Square because it is inconvenient or they prefer other open spaces in the area.

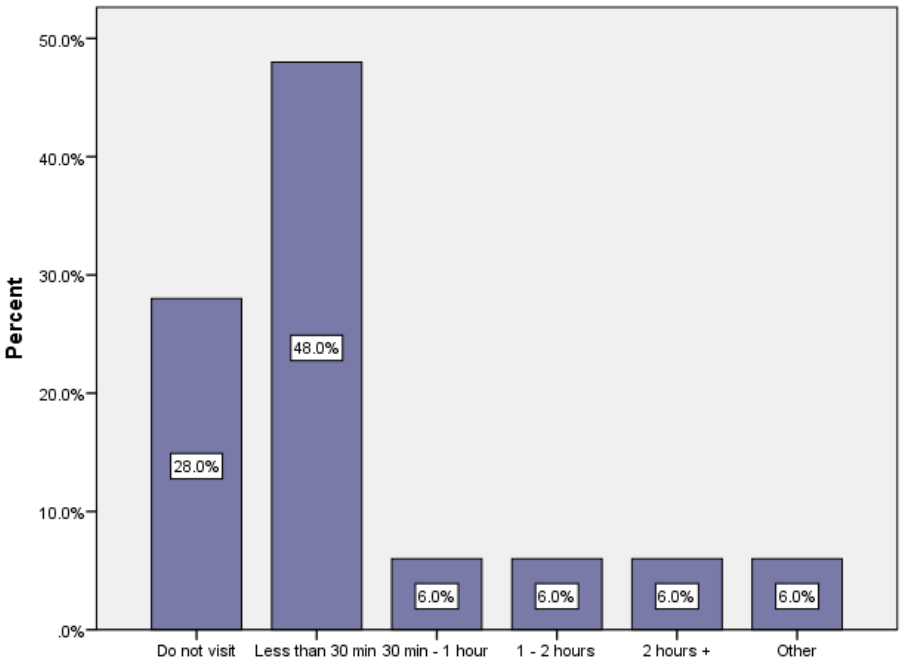


Figure 5-34: The duration of stay at Empire Square

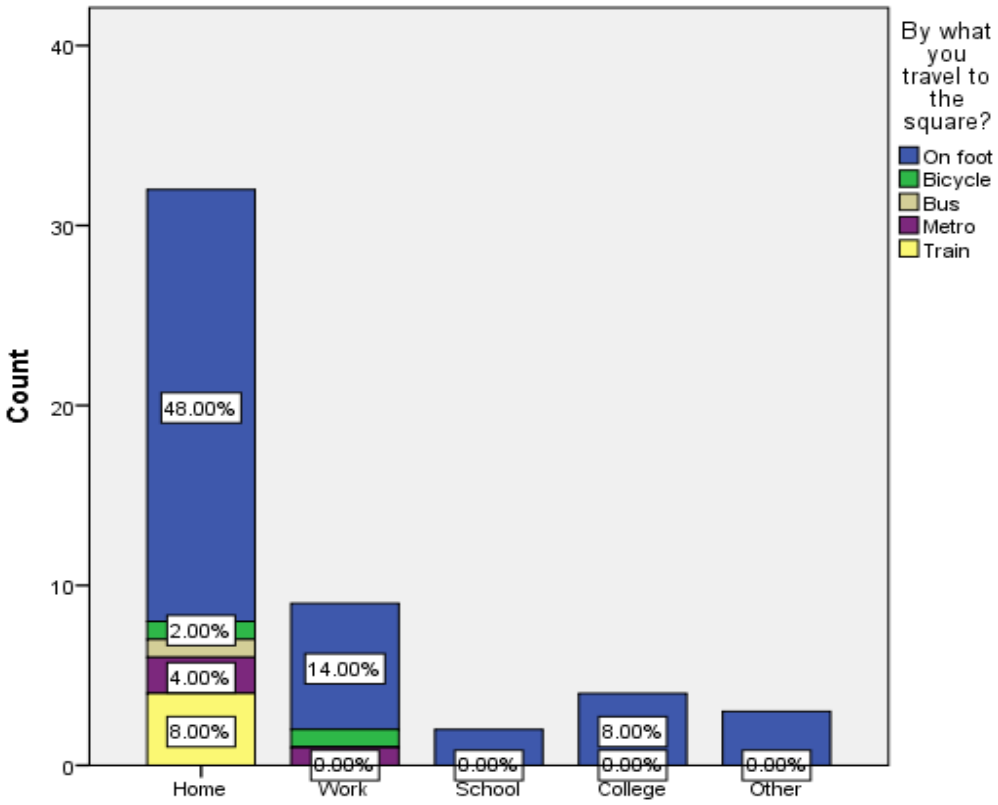


Figure 5-35: From where people come to Empire Square and how they arrive

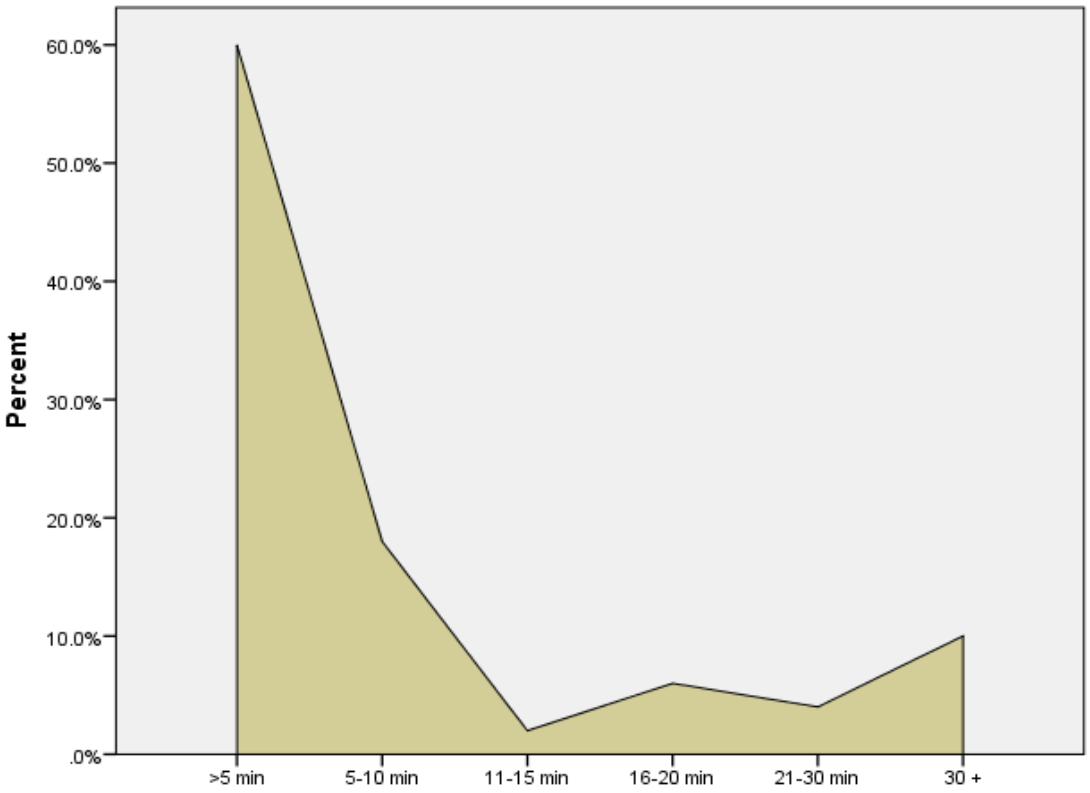


Figure 5-36: The duration of the journey to Empire Square

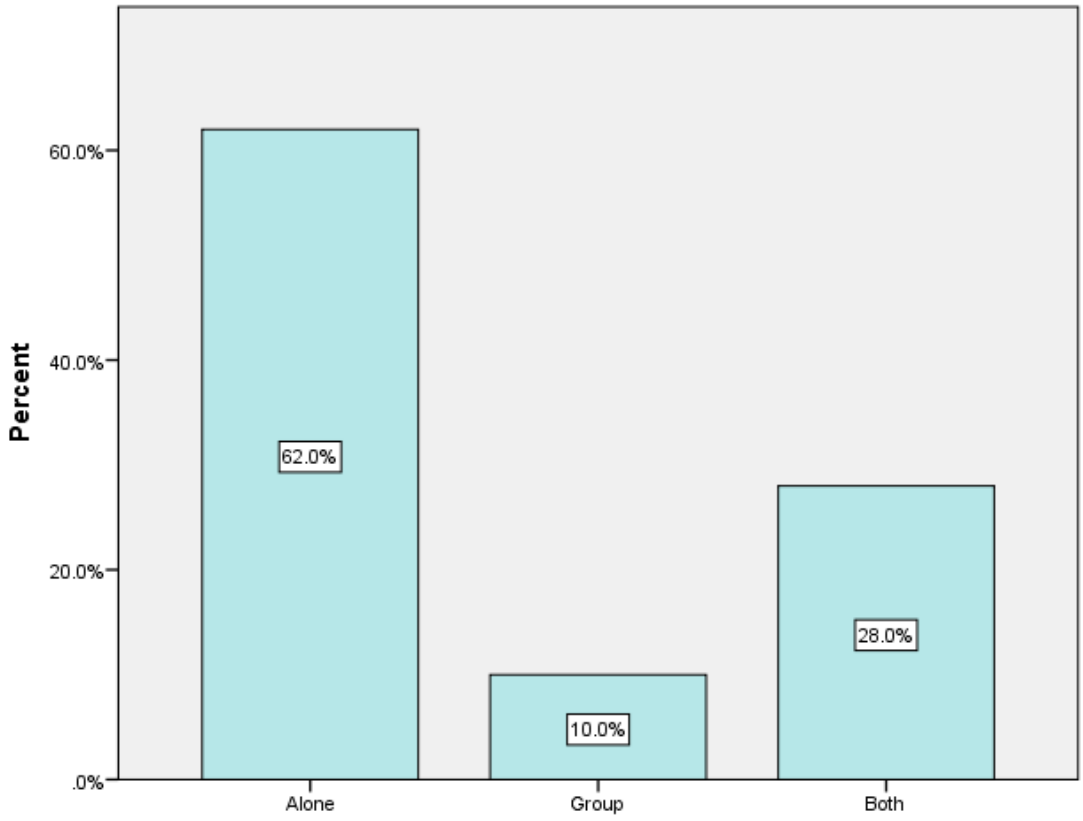


Figure 5-37: Visiting Empire Square alone or with a group

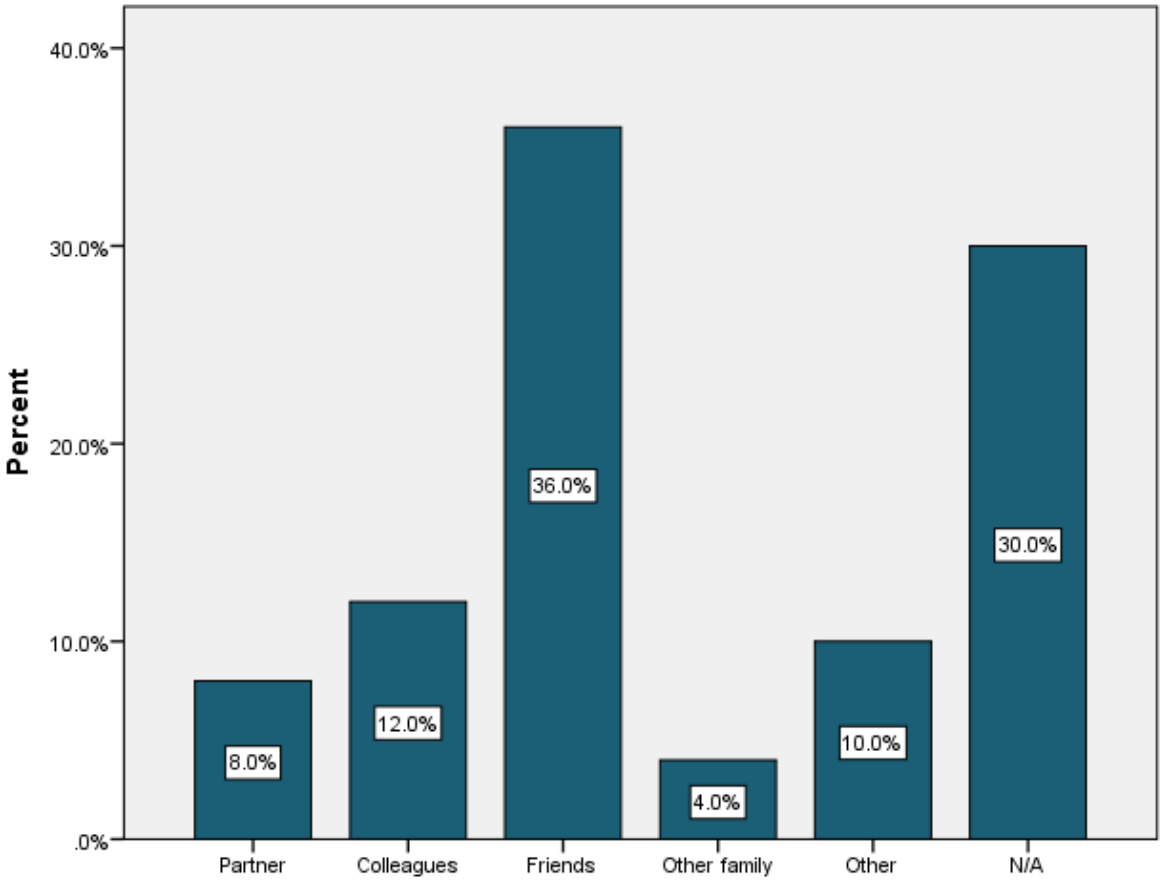


Figure 5-38: Empire Square users

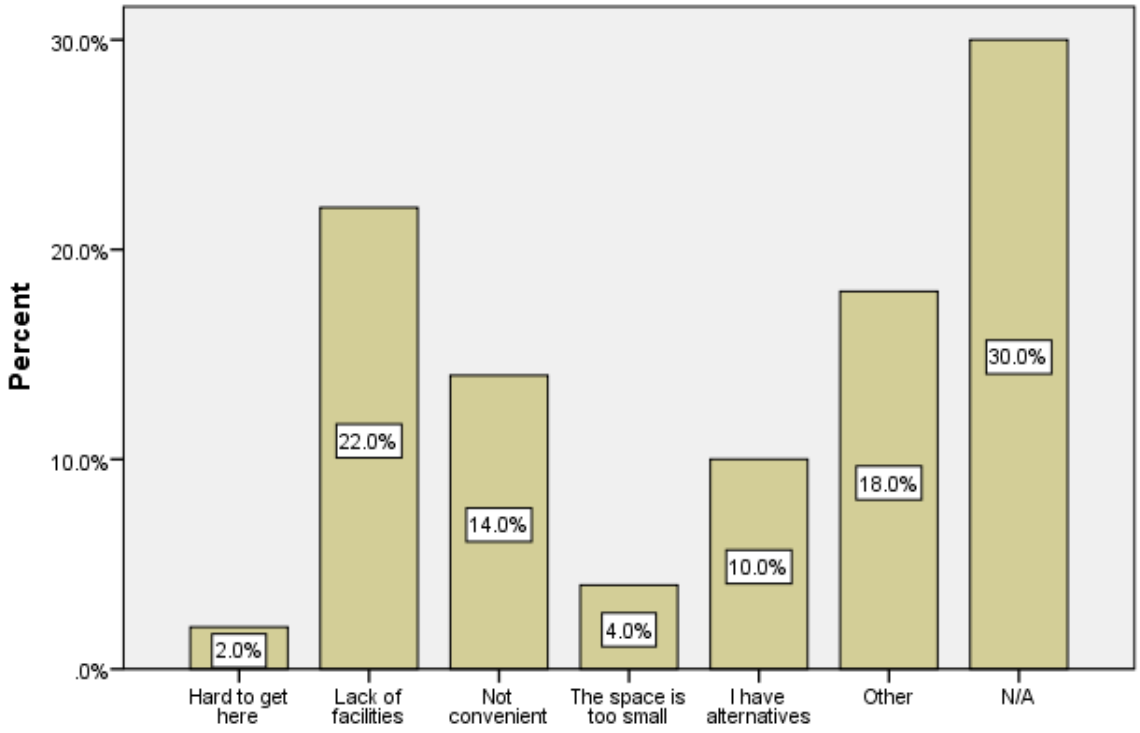


Figure 5-39: Reasons why people do not like to visit Empire Square

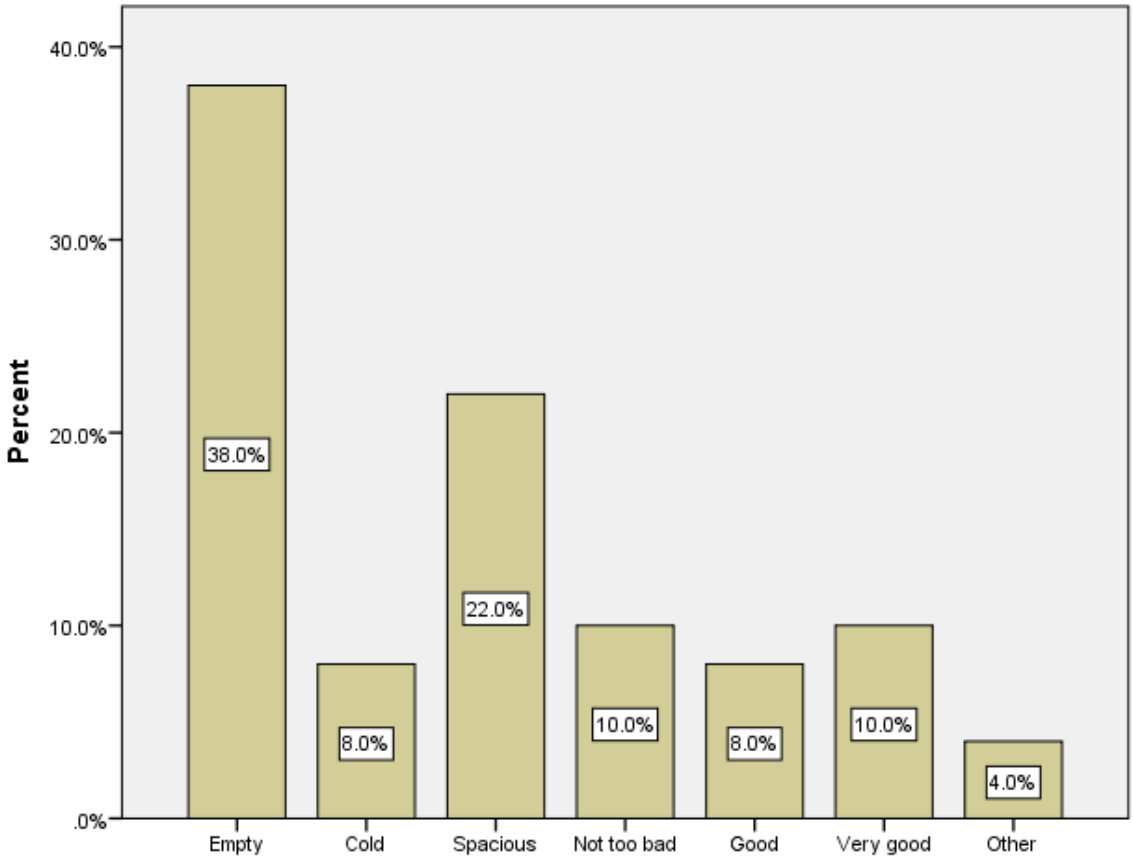


Figure 5-40: User's impressions of Empire Square

The predominant impression of Empire Square was that it is empty and spacious (Figure 5-40). Aside from a small group of students having lunch or a few workers taking a smoke break, few people linger or walk through the square. No residents come and go because their flats are accessible from the street or the car park underneath the square. Attracting people to linger is not easy, but a lack of activity can make public places seem empty. The square is also underused because its inside edges fail to attract people from the surrounding streets; people tend to be more motivated to walk by a row of shops than by a blank wall (PPS, 2013). The land use of Empire Square therefore has a direct influence on the failure to achieve its desired vision. However, some residents had the opinion that the square's emptiness is not a bad thing, as it makes for a quieter living area for them. Even though Empire Square provides a considerable amount of seating, 44% of people suggested adding more (Figure 5-41) as a way to increase the number of people who use the space.

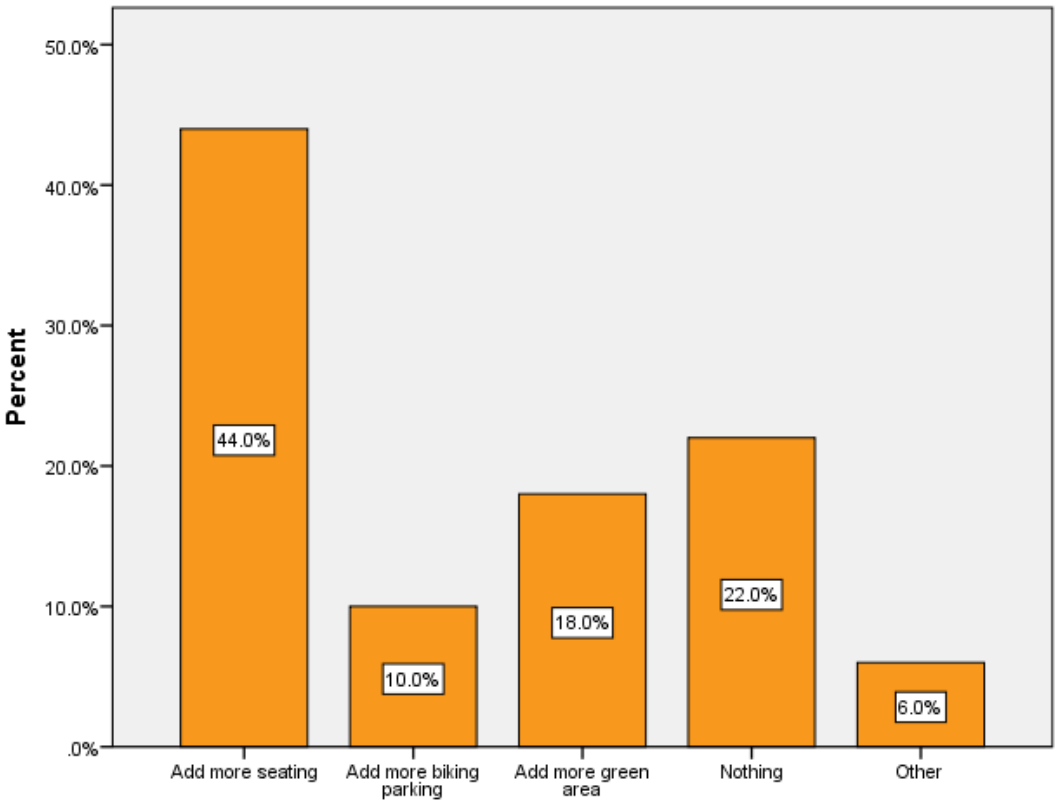


Figure 5-41: What people would like to change in Empire Square

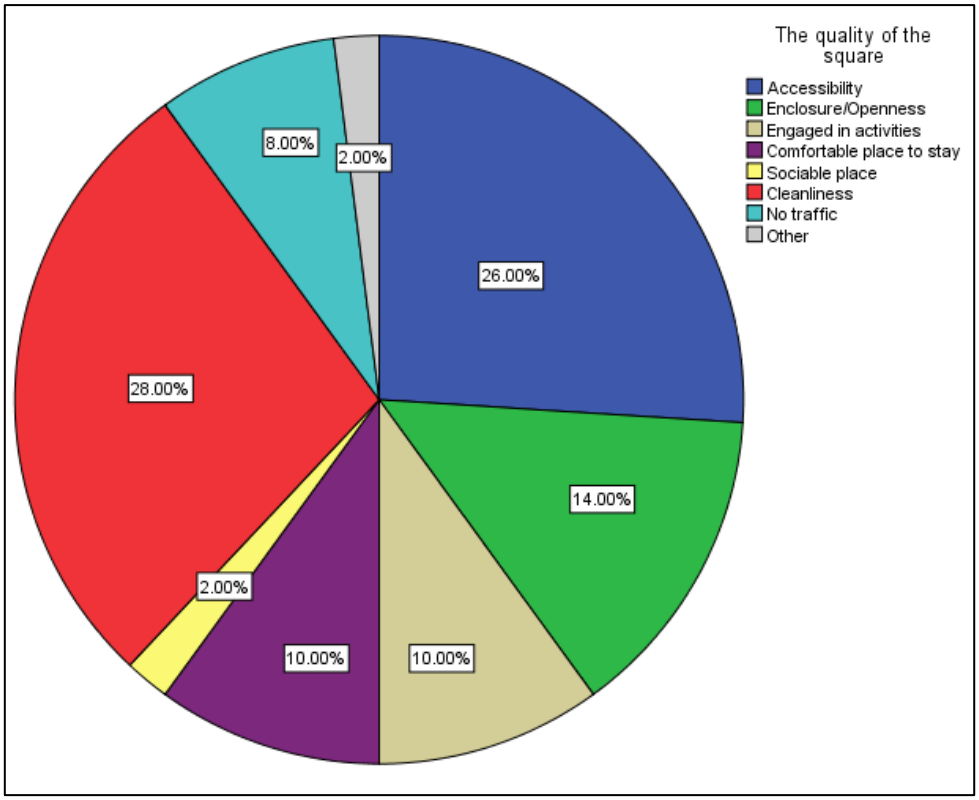


Figure 5-42: The quality of Empire Square

While people see Empire Square as clean and accessible, they do not see the square as an arena for social activities (Figure 5-42). Moreover, the square's interesting design was seen as a unique feature by 28% of interviewees (Figure 5-43); even though good design and good management both promote safety and are welcoming, the analysis implies that the space has been over-designed by customizing the uses of the square and does not allow for multiple uses. Most of the qualities of the place emphasise physical features—such as an interesting design and the provision of good maintenance— which should be beneficial to support the creation of place attachment amongst residents and users. In addition, the sense of safety and security and the sense of familiarity with the place can develop positive effort toward the place attachment.

Only 16% of interviewees felt that non-residents were unwanted in the square (Figure 5-44) due to the large gates and CCTV at the entrance, which give an unwelcoming impression, although they might equally give residents a feeling of safety. Many interviewees thought all users were welcome, but 32% suggested that homeless people were excluded. The data shows that 76% of interviewees agreed that Empire Square is an attractive open space (Figure 5-45). Cities should not only invite people to move in and remain, but also must provide a sense of safety for people who use urban spaces, which can be achieved by providing short walking routes, attractive public spaces that encourage people to stay longer and distinctive urban functions: 'good design and layout of new development can help to achieve the Government's objectives of making the best use of previously-developed land and improving the quality and attractiveness of residential areas. In seeking to achieve these objectives, local planning authorities and developers should think imaginatively about designs and layout which make more efficient use of land without compromising the quality of the environment' (DETR, 2000d).

The data illustrates that 80% of interviewees were satisfied with the accessibility of the place and its connection to surrounding areas (Figure 5-46). The square's design provides new shortcuts to the surrounding streets; however, the gates are closed at 22:00 for security purposes, limiting late-night and early-morning accessibility. Only 36% of interviewees agreed that Empire Square contributes to the identity of the local area (Figure 5-47)—with long-term residents in particular seeing a positive impact in the gentrification of Long Lane—but 46% of interviewees neither agreed nor disagreed. The latter percentage could represent either actual ambivalence or a reluctance to offer an opinion.

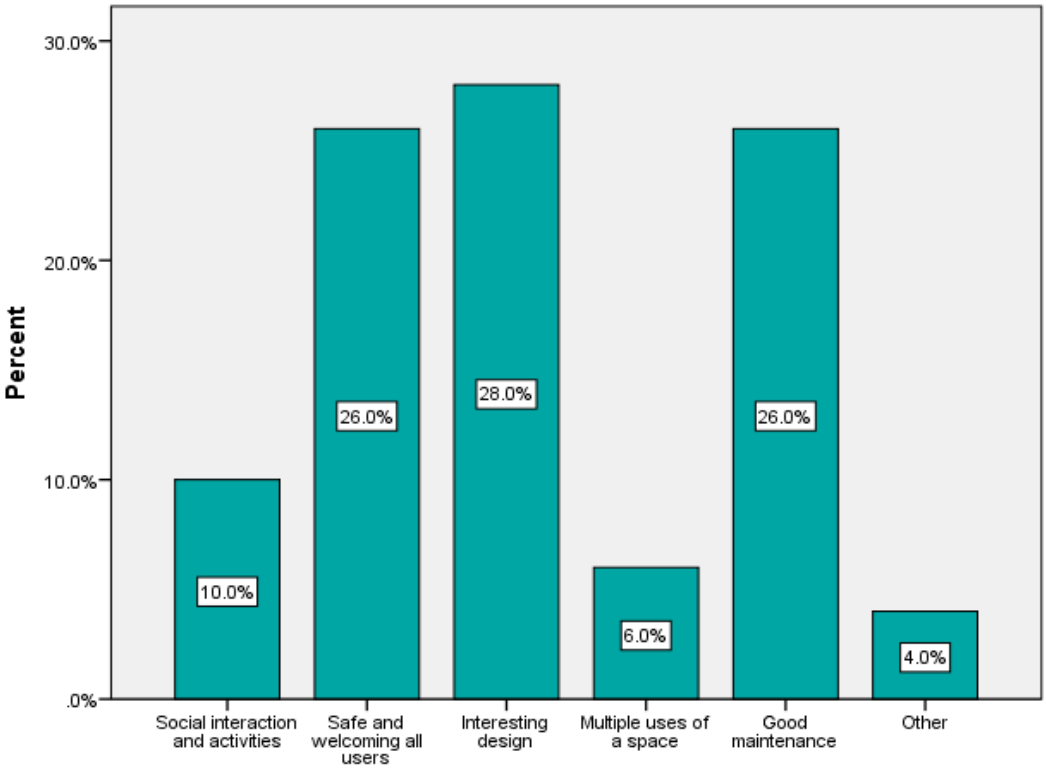


Figure 5-43: The unique character of Empire Square

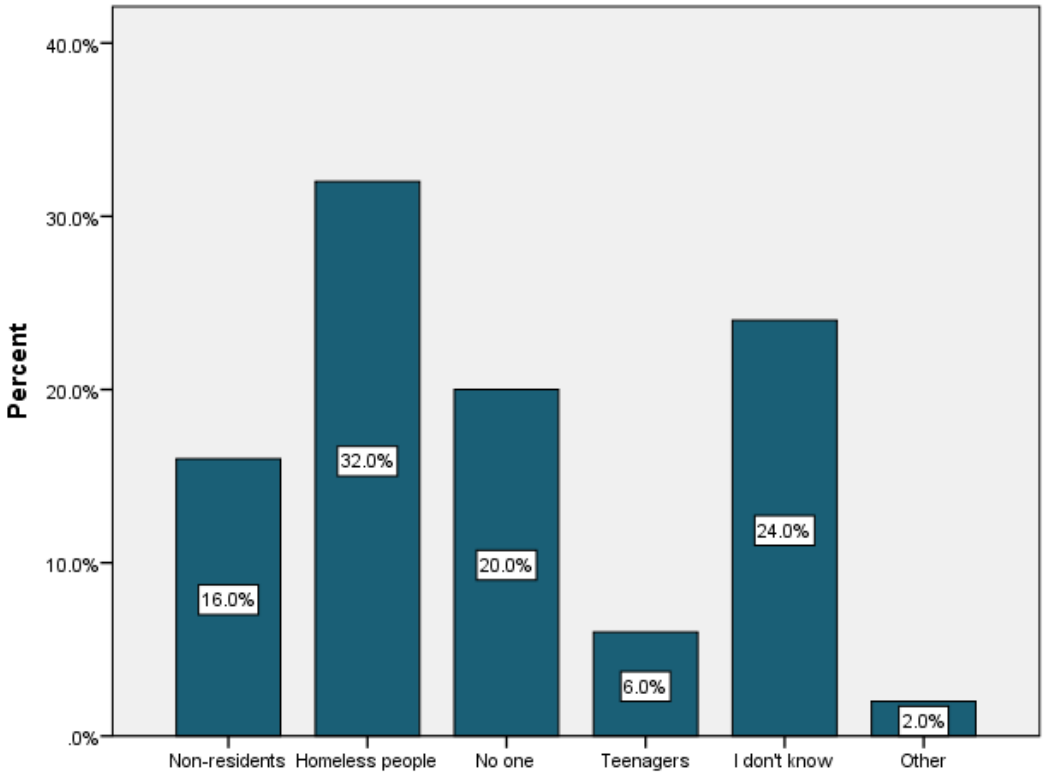


Figure 5-44: The users excluded from Empire Square

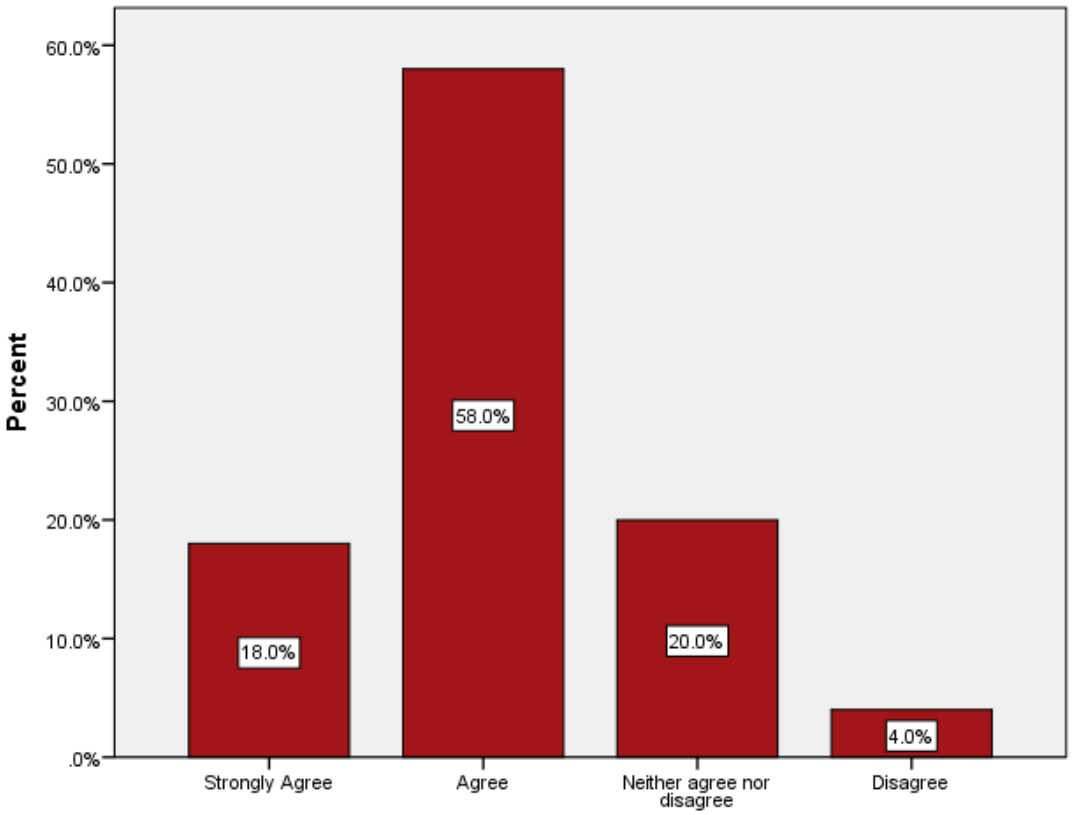


Figure 5-45: Attractiveness of Empire Square

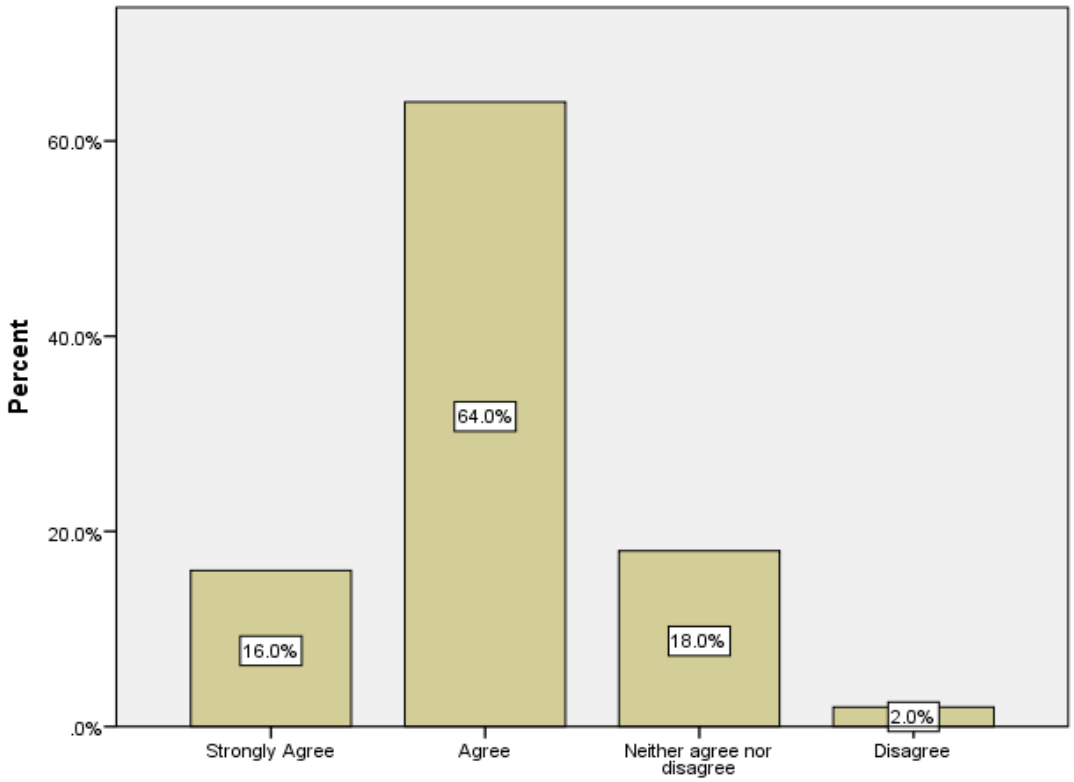


Figure 5-46: Accessibility of Empire Square

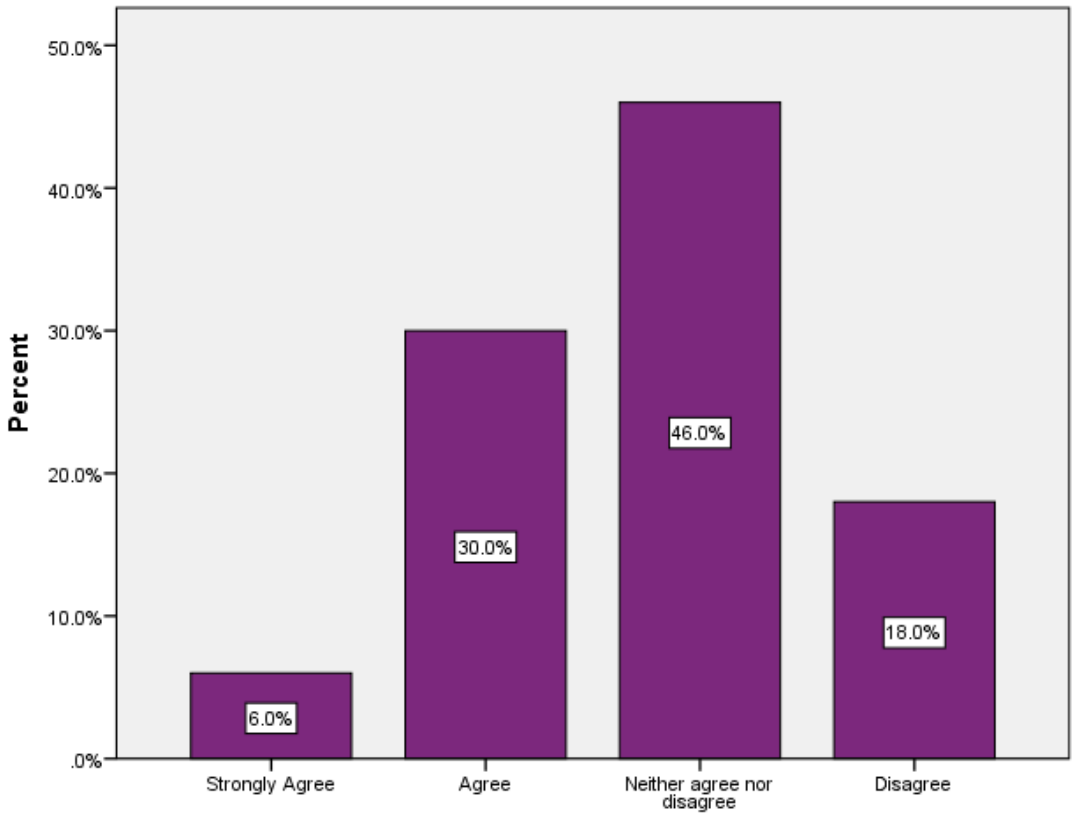


Figure 5-47: The contribution of Empire Square to the identity of the local context

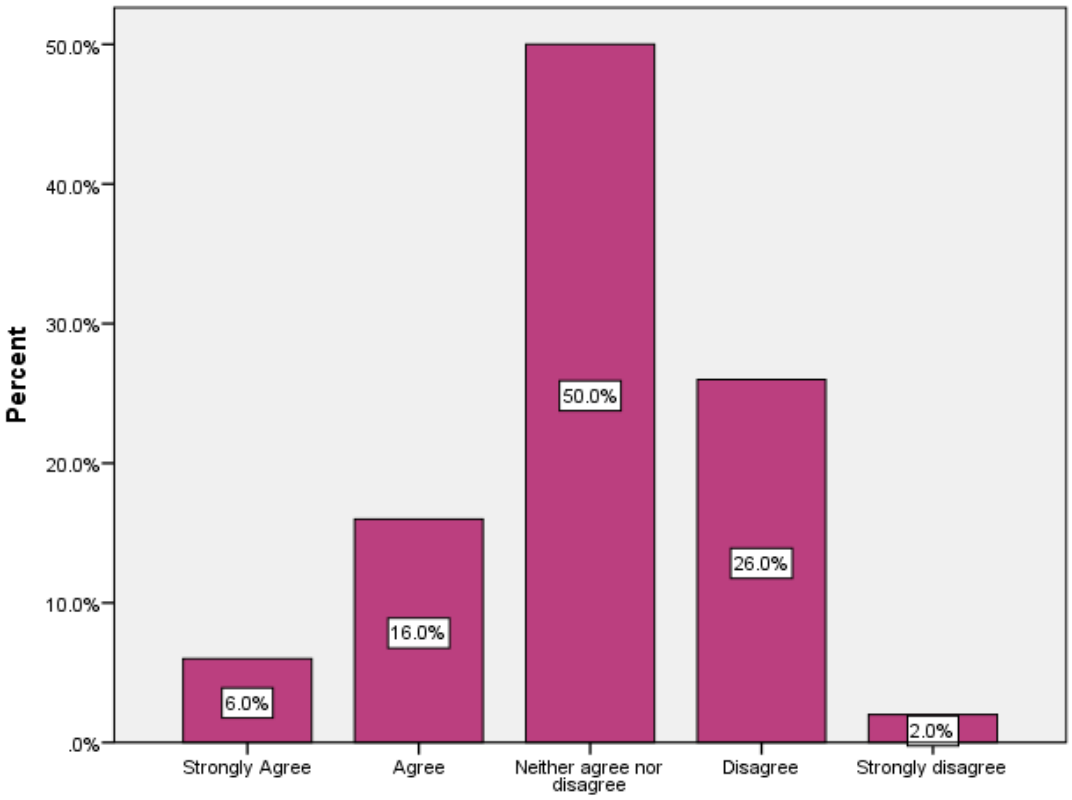


Figure 5-48: The role of Empire Square in promoting civic pride and enhancing civic image

Promoting civic pride and enhancing civic image are two social outcomes that can be enhanced by urban design. 50% of interviewees neither agreed nor disagreed that Empire Square contributes to the local sense of community; 28% disagreed (Figure 5-48). Even though many participants think Empire Square is attractive and accessible, yet it fails to promote the larger 'value' of civic pride. This occur because the users might view Empire Square as an unnecessary drain on resources and fails to connect people to their local environment. While the square currently has no social spaces, it can potentially be improved by changes in land use. However, it may be difficult to give people a reason to linger without running afoul of the management.

The data gathered shows that 44% of interviewees disagreed that Empire Square is active and liveable during the day (Figure 5-49); despite the vision of the stakeholders, it is essentially a large transient space used as a shortcut, a place for smoke breaks and an access point for surrounding buildings. A large number of activities would have to be added to enliven the square.

Even though 52% of interviewees agreed that the square's design succeeds in welcoming all people (Figure 5-50), its current position amongst residential blocks obscures it from the surrounding streets. Metal gates across the entrances, which are closed between 22:00 and 06:00, reinforce this isolation and make the place more private than public to local users. Only 44% of participants agreed that the design of Empire Square has affected the vitality of the place in a positive way; however, 48% were neutral on this issue (Figure 5-51). The management regime of Empire Square should take advantage of the edges of the residential areas, which can add vitality to the surrounding urban areas.

The data shows that 40% of participants agreed that Empire Square influenced their feeling of well-being, but 16% of participants disagreed and 44% neither agreed nor disagreed (Figure 5-52). Similarly, 44% of participants agreed that Empire Square has improved the connectivity of the development with the local area, while 42% had no opinion (Figure 5-53). These results indicate the inaccessibility of Empire Square for a significant users, who may feel excluded from part of their own neighbourhood. When asked whether Empire Square contributes to the local supply and quality of amenities, 46% of interviewees were neutral, while 38% of interviewees agreed (Figure 5-54).

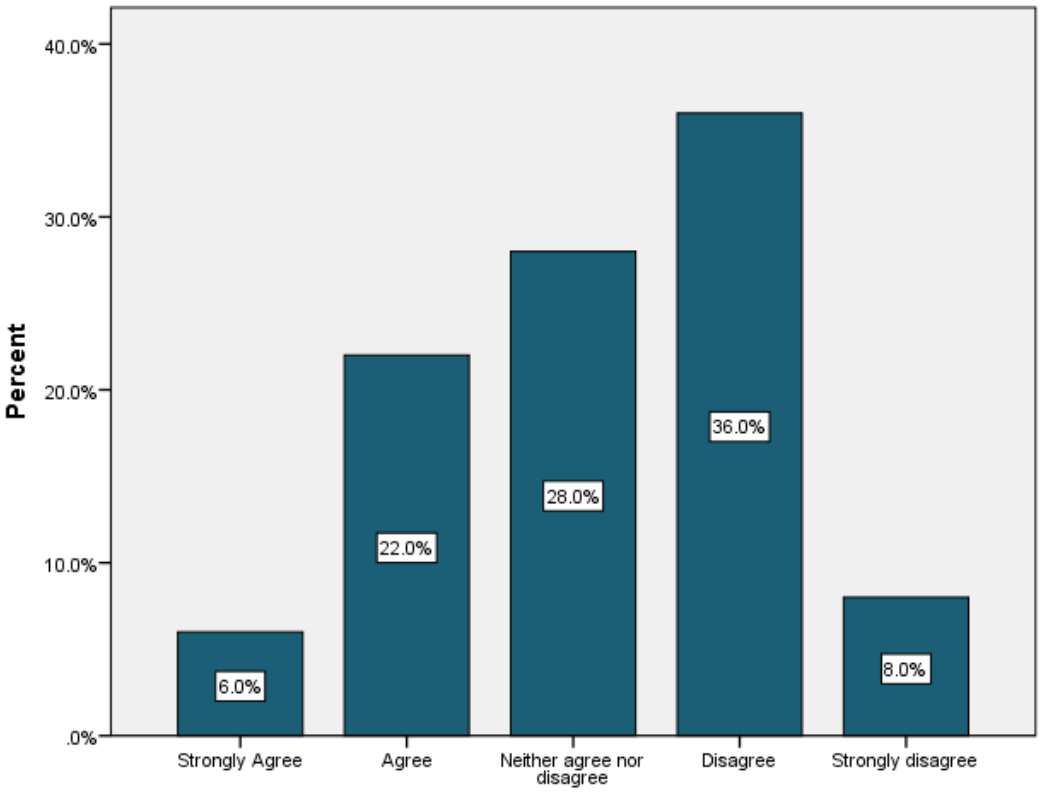


Figure 5-49: Activities and liveability of Empire Square

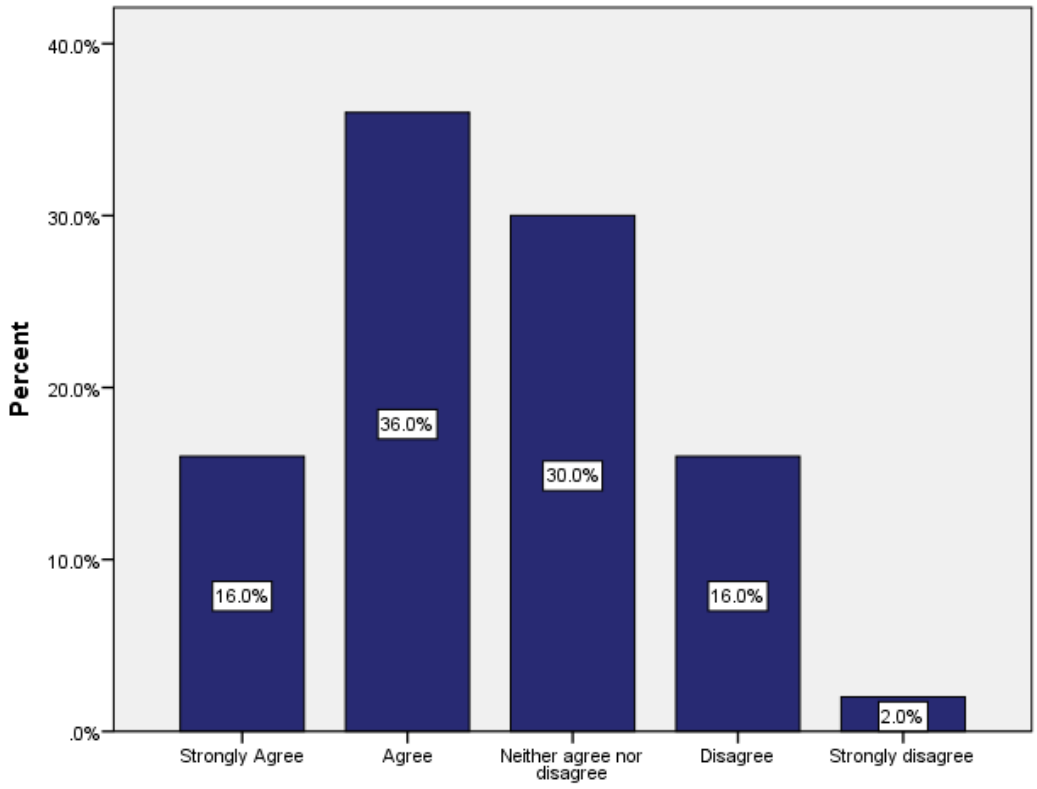


Figure 5-50: The design of Empire Square welcomes all people

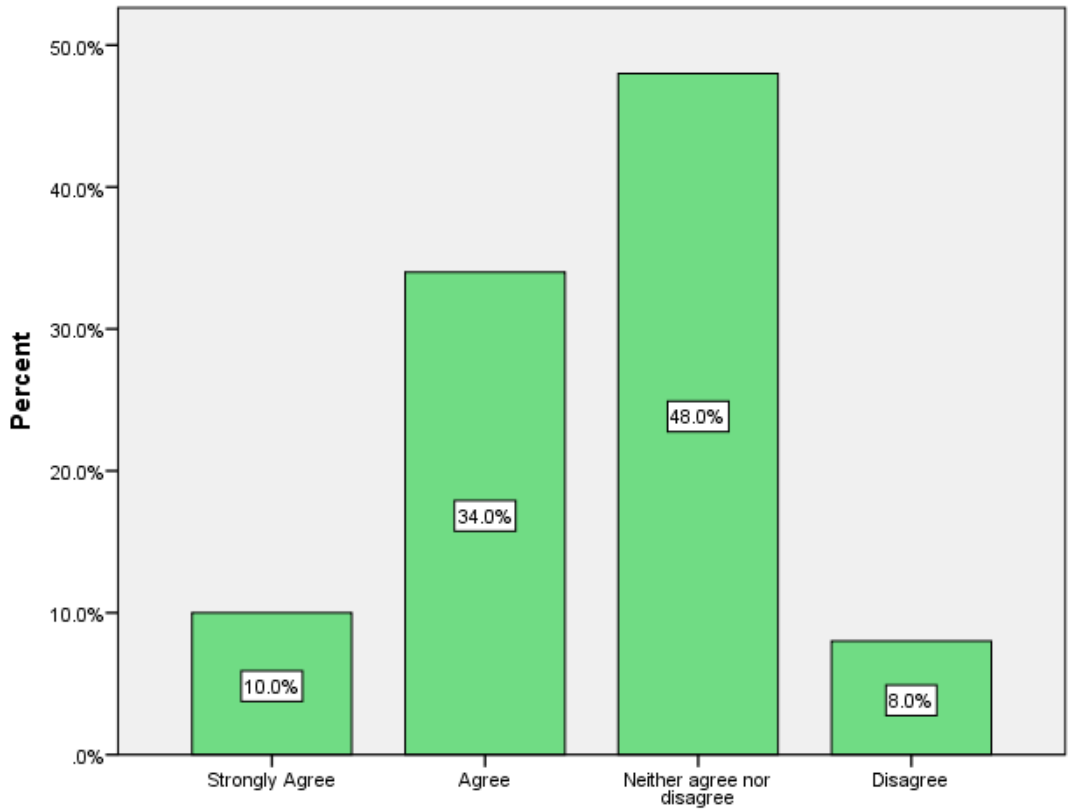


Figure 5-51: The design of Empire Square has affected vitality

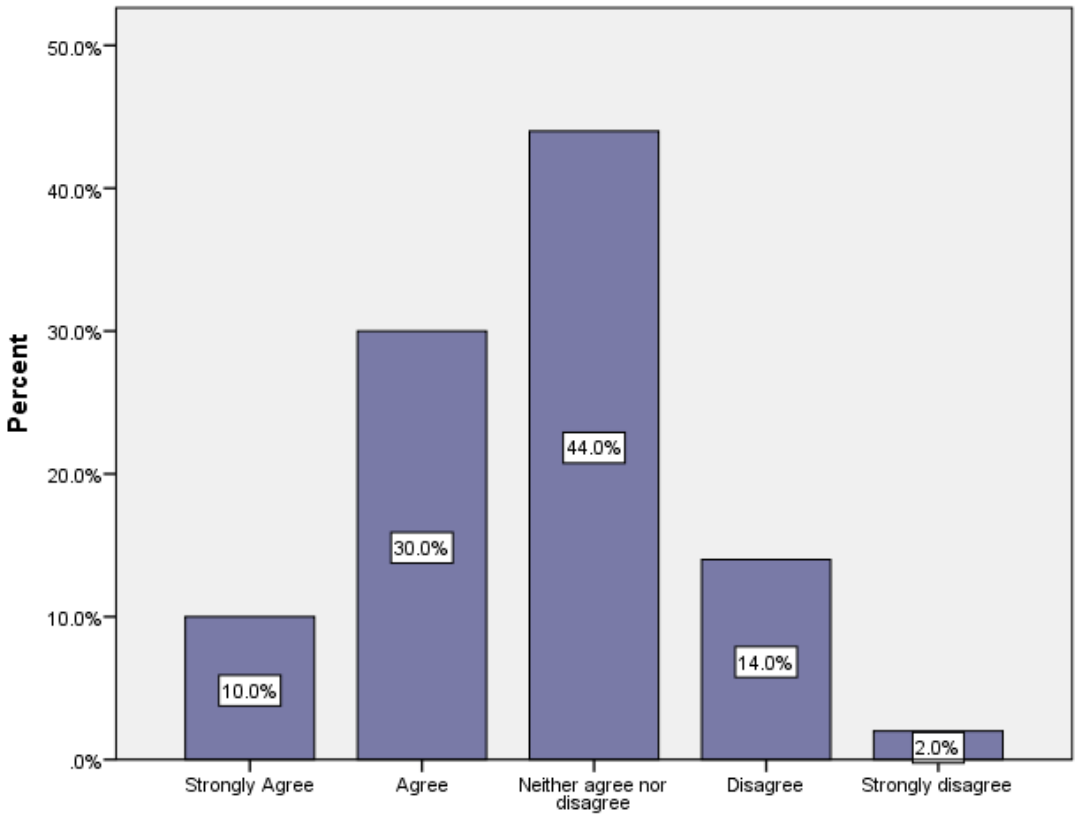


Figure 5-52: The effect of Empire Square on social well-being

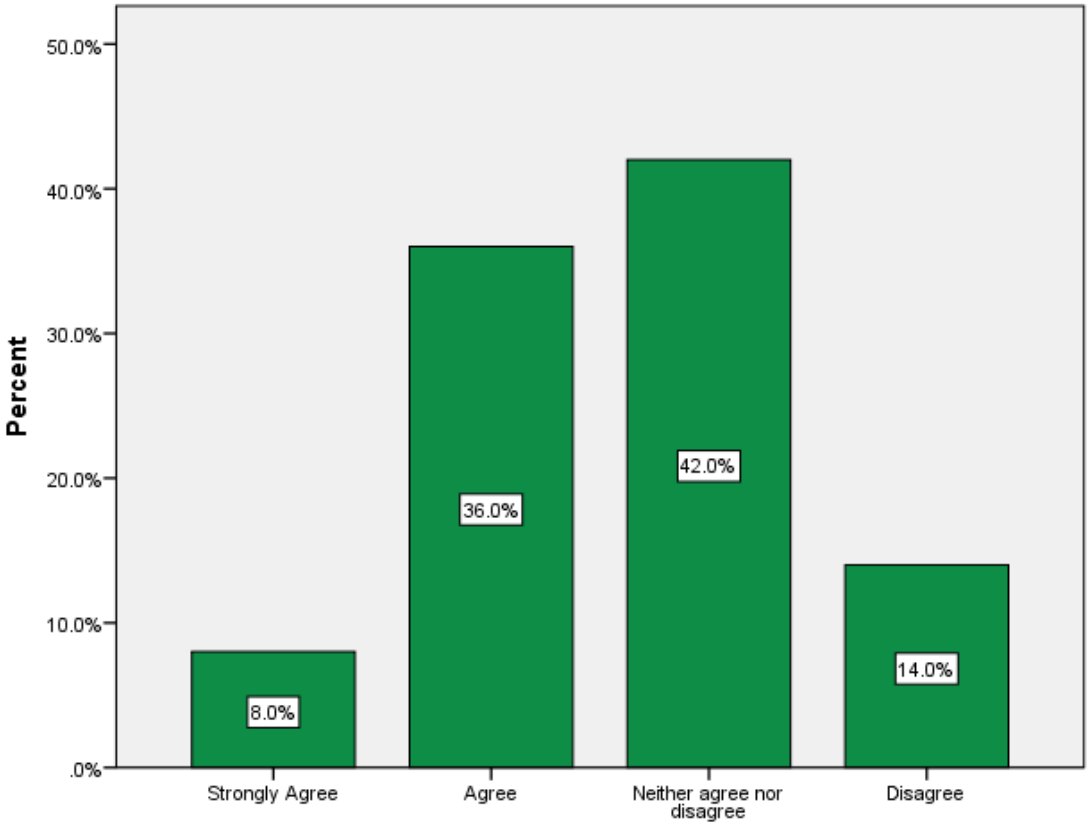


Figure 5-53: Empire Square improves connectivity

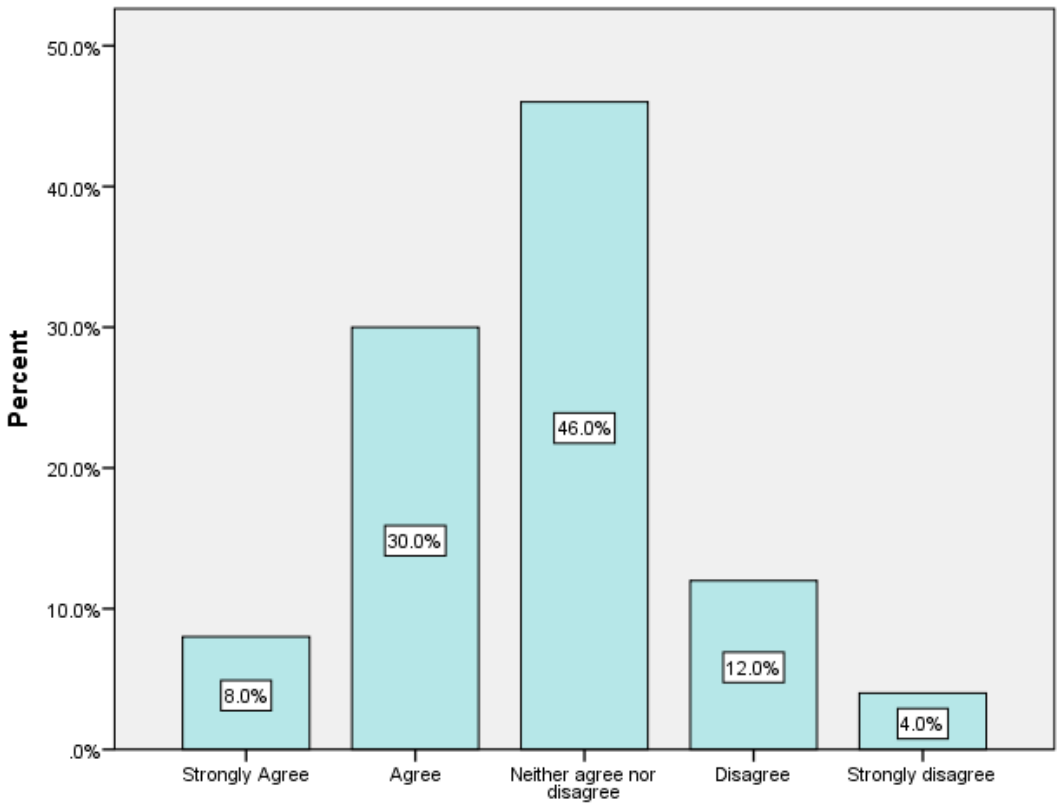


Figure 5-54: Empire Square improves the supply and quality of amenities

The data illustrations that 42% of interviewees agreed that Empire Square encourages them as a community to use the place in their free time, while 28% of participants disagreed and 30% of participants were neutral (Figure 5-55). Underuse is the key issue that designers should address, rather than the potential overuse that might result from increasing amenities and seating spaces. Empire Square was conceived as an open public space for all neighbourhood residents, but its limited accessibility and underuse has instead create a somewhat forbidding atmosphere. Furthermore, while 28% of participants agreed that Empire Square generates strong community relations, a larger proportion (32%) did not see it as contributing to social cohesion (Figure 5-56). The 40% who did not give an opinion might have found it difficult to experience social cohesion via a public space due to the lack of trust they had gained from such spaces. That 40% number may also be partly due to the complexity of the term and concept of social cohesion leading them to not give an opinion.

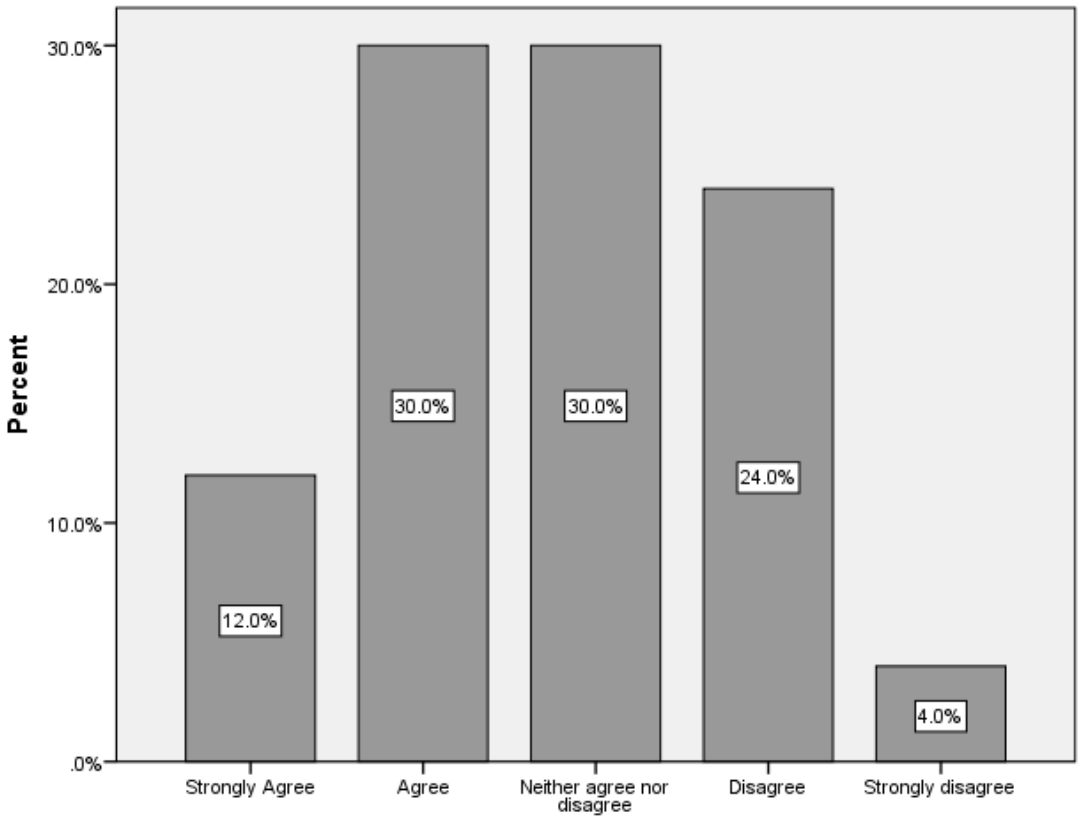


Figure 5-55: Empire Square encourages the community to use the space

The social evaluation of the place was explored through questionnaires where individuals were asked directly at the site about their understanding of their relationship with the place. There are two types of image evaluation that users perceived when they are asked about it, according to Pocock and Hudson (1978). First, the 'evaluative image' means that individuals can express

their views and provide a complete understanding of their feelings and sense of place. Secondly, by 'effective image' participants usually evaluate environmental qualities and identify how they feel. Thus, the social value of urban public space is explained through how people feel about and see their surrounding environment.

The data from the Empire Square case shows that 40% of users who were asked about their visit to the place agreed that they came to Empire Square most days. There appears to be some association with where they live, as shown in Figure 5-57. The findings show a correlation between the density of use and the quality of public space. An empirical study by Gehl and Gemzøe (2003) demonstrated the relationship between the quality of urban space and attracting users. They offer definite evidence that high-quality urban space that offers appropriate conditions for its particular setting prompts a significant increase in terms of density of use and activity. Gehl notes that only 'necessary activities' take place in poor-quality outdoor areas. However, a place with high quality can produce an additional 'wide range of optional activities' that occur because 'place and situation now invite people to stop, sit, eat, play and so on' (Gehl, 2011: 11).

The benefit of the increased everyday activity might be intangible; where there might be a link is between the quality of the accessibility of Empire Square, both visually and physically, and the use of the space because it is easy for users to get to and to get through. The association between awareness of place and physical activity that occurs suggest that these experiences of place are influenced by the specific activities users undertake within a place. Canter, Punter and Montgomery have all suggested that the understanding and experience of a place are influenced by the activities that happen there; it may be vital for some places to increase meaning people associate with them by staging specific activities.

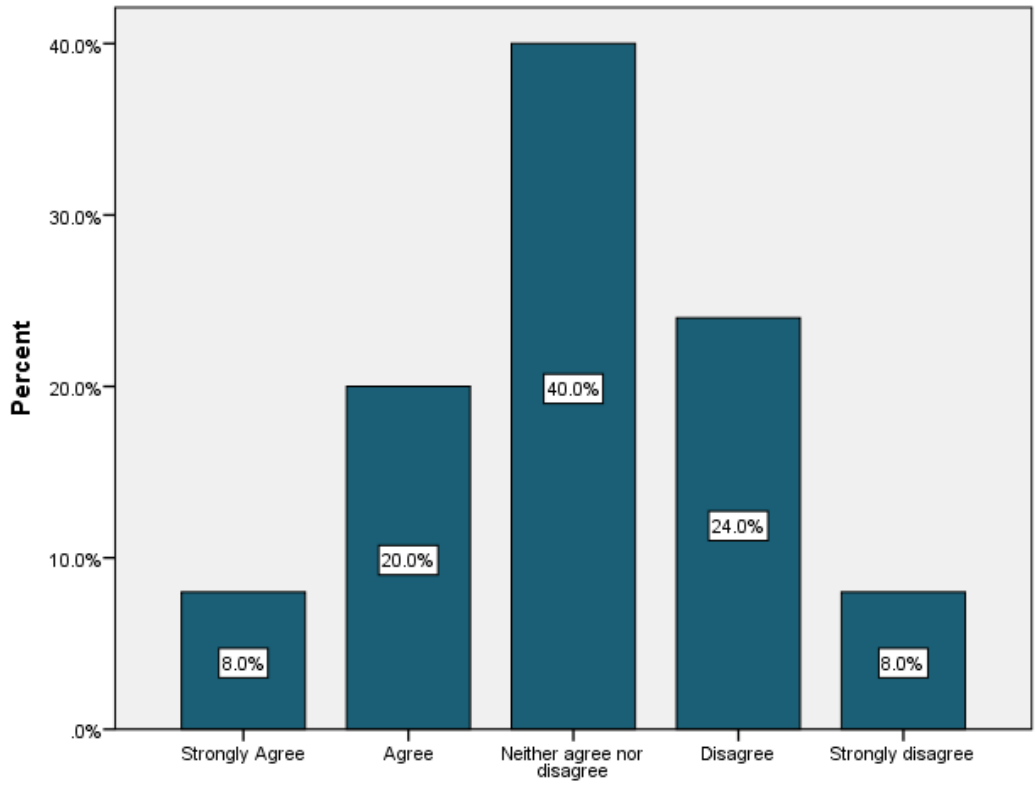


Figure 5-56: Empire Square generates strong community relations

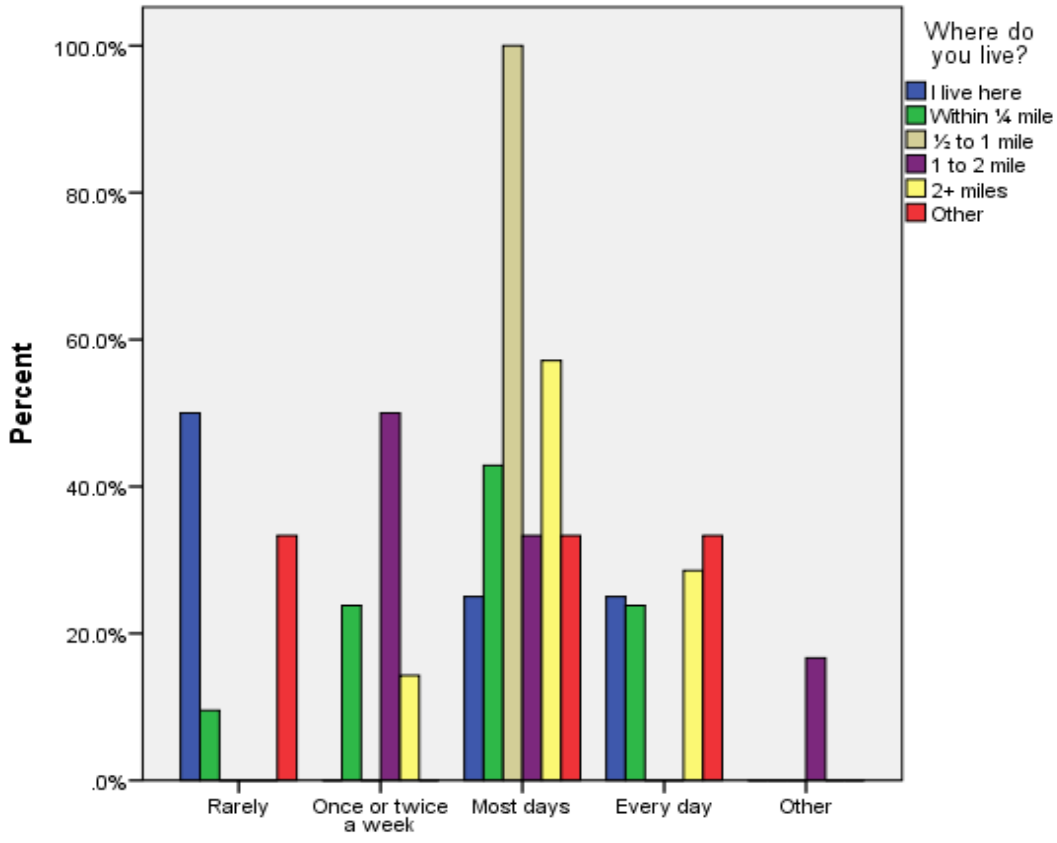


Figure 5-57: The frequency of visits relative to distance from Empire Square

The data gathered show a high tendency for people to use this place as a pedestrian path, though there are other uses. In regards to interaction and the significance of the use of the place, 48% of users spent less than 30 minutes when visiting Empire Square. This could demonstrate that Empire Square is a place that people use for a limited amount of time, mainly during lunch breaks or as a through-route to a different place. As shown in Figure 5-58, most of the activity related to Empire Square involved people walking, either in the square itself or using it to access a destination. Both types of pedestrians are found in Empire Square, given that the square provides a safe place to walk. In this context, safety means the square is free from vehicles and crime. However, there was some confusion amongst the participants in regards to the time they spent at the gym and the time they spent in the square. This might indicate the strong visual connection to the square while in the gym, due to the wide glass windows that give a clear view of the square. The connection between ground-floor façade and pedestrians is one of the most important factors in the quality of a pedestrian environment. Thus, some participants included the use of the gym as part of their activities they carry out at the square, while others did not.

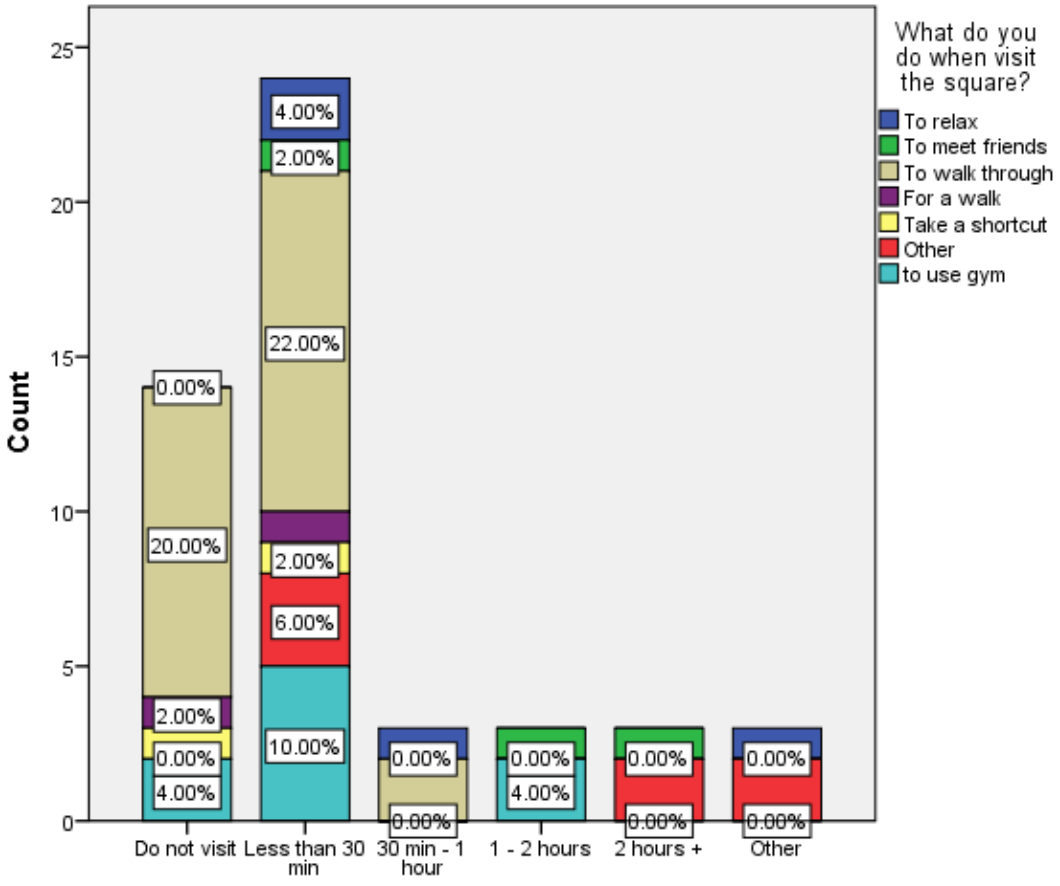


Figure 5-58: The purpose of visit associated with time

The data indicate that 62% of participants were using the space solely to walk through since, the place does not offer activities or other functions. This limited use of Empire Square was a result of the lack of facilities that encourage people to visit, as was shown in the data. Participants agreed that they did not visit the square regularly or spend more time there when they did visit because of the lack of facilities and activities within the vicinity of the square. Accessibility, security and a good image are thus not adequate components to make a place successful. Users want to engage in active use of a place in order to have a reason for their presence. Hence, a place will be empty or nearly so if it does not stage or generate enough activities for its audience. Gehl (2010) indicates that the absence of stimulation in public spaces within a residential development encourages children to stay home in front of the television, while older people would prefer not to sit on the benches provided because there is nothing to see. He suggests that if people were to stay for a longer period, the number of people and activities in public spaces would have to increase. Even though participants value good qualities in public space, the findings illustrate that Empire Square was not appreciated by its users in term of delivering social benefits because of its lack of vitality.

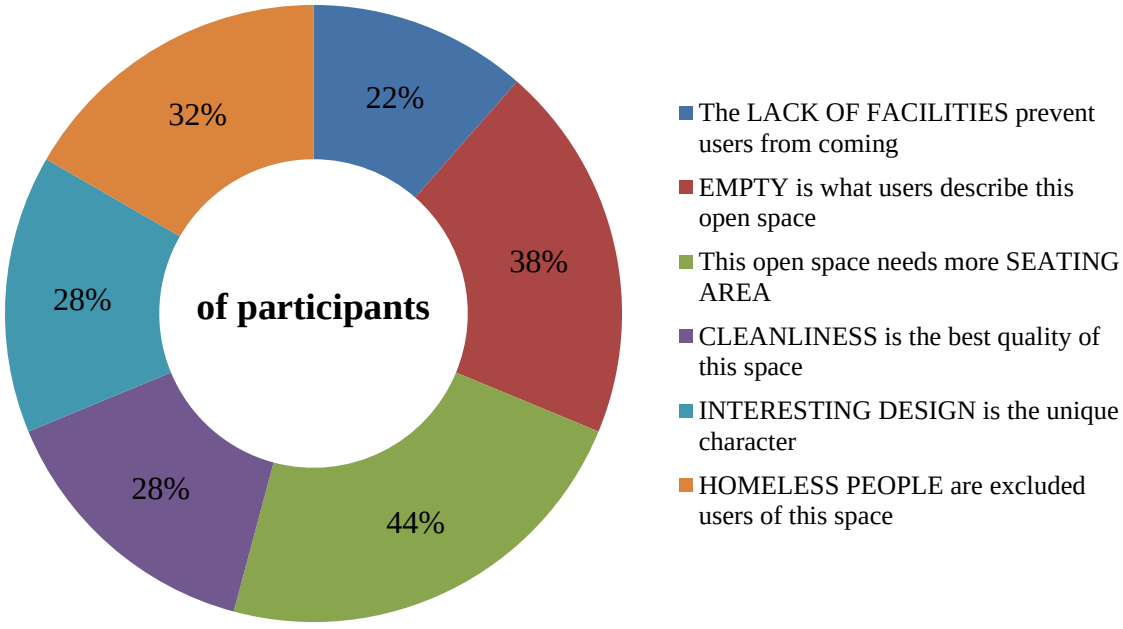


Figure 5-59: The most outstanding qualities of Empire Square

The lack of facilities, emptiness, cleanliness, interesting design, social exclusion and the need for more seating area are the most quality that stands out when asking participant about most quality that can describe Empire Square. All these qualities formed together in to show the correlation and the impact of them on the user's satisfaction and perception. The appointed qualities are subjected to cross analysis with other data from the observational and perceptual aspects of this study. The data gathered from the perceptual analysis suggests a greater tendency to perceive Empire Square as an empty space, ahead of other impressions of the square (Figure 5-59). Considering that the space looks empty, when participants were asked about what they would like to change about the current design of the space, there was enormous demand for seating areas to be added. However, the cross-analysis data indicate that many residential users and everyday users were looking for more than social interactions or social activities. They wanted to have more green areas and seating areas for the sake of their families' comfort and relaxation (Figure 5-60). The Empire Square management works hard to achieve user satisfaction in terms of visible aspects of space, including cleanliness. Most participants stressed that cleanliness was the best quality of the place. However, participants think that homeless people are not welcome in the square, which might lead to a negative image and ironically make users uncomfortable if the presence of undesirable people were to occur in the square. On the other hand, this social exclusion to some expected users of public space occurs because of the pressure to gate the open public space when economic value demands it, even though this means that social value has a greater chance to be minimised. The above data suggest that Empire Square seems to care about generating an identity for the place and privatises it for a particular group: the residents of the development. This should lead to developing a bond that brings that community together, but unfortunately, the social cohesion of Empire Square was diminished. The place is not socially defined enough for people to improvise a social relationship with it. The relationship with the physical environment is exaggerated by management's neglecting the issue how individuals interact with others in the square. The social value entails the commitment of a place towards its people rather than its physical appearance. The place must represent its people and people must represent the place. The denial or the exaggeration of the physical quality of the place affects the improvement of the social relationship among individuals. The evidence shows that the design of the square with its self-imposed orientation towards the inside, the presence of the metal gates and the demand for quiet space by the management all prevent segments of society from expanding their social relation to the place.

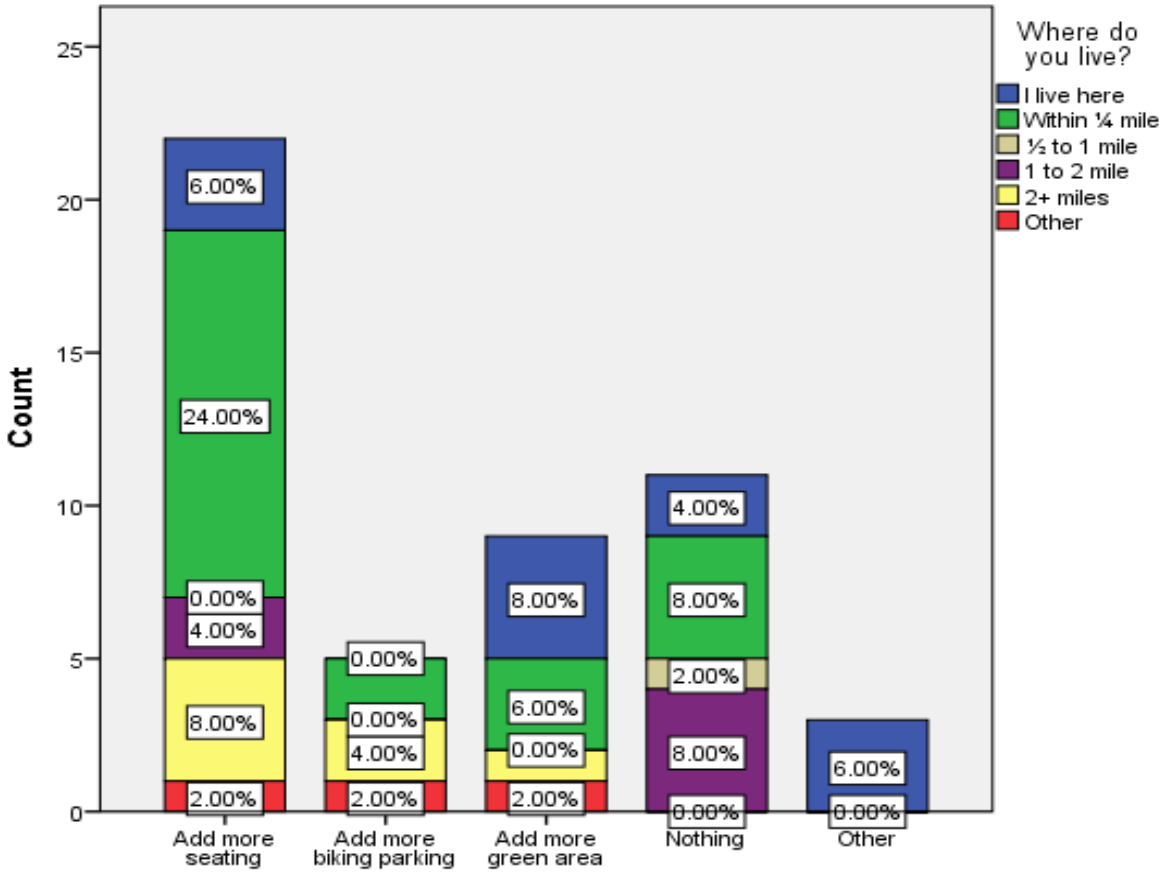


Figure 5-60: Users who live nearby Empire Square wish to add more seating and green area

The data collected show significant results in terms of the attractiveness of the place. According to the Project for Public Spaces (2013), the components of a comfortable and attractive place include the perceptions of cleanliness, safety and the availability of seating areas. As shown in Figure 5-61, 76% of the participants admired the role of attraction that the square offers to its users. However, the users and residents of the development both felt that mere visual attractiveness was not sufficient to promote vitality through its physical setting. Participants agreed strongly on the significant impact of design on the vitality of the square. Thus, only 28% of the participants agreed that Empire Square is an active and liveable space. This low percentage suggests that the lack of activities, facilities and amenities offered by the square must be eliminated, so that activity can join attractiveness to increase the square's vitality level. A study by CABE and DETR (2001) shows that communities benefit from the long-term value of urban design through better security, less crime and increased vitality in the areas developed. The same study indicates the social value of greater vitality and safety that satisfaction is associated by both residents and visitors with the provision of facilities and amenities and pleasant places. Gehl (2003) indicates that most of the activities that take place in public spaces

are free-choice activities. He suggests that people do not have to use urban public spaces as leisure spaces because there private gardens and amusement parks are also available. People make use of urban public space today because they like using them, not because they are forced to do so (Gehl, 2003).

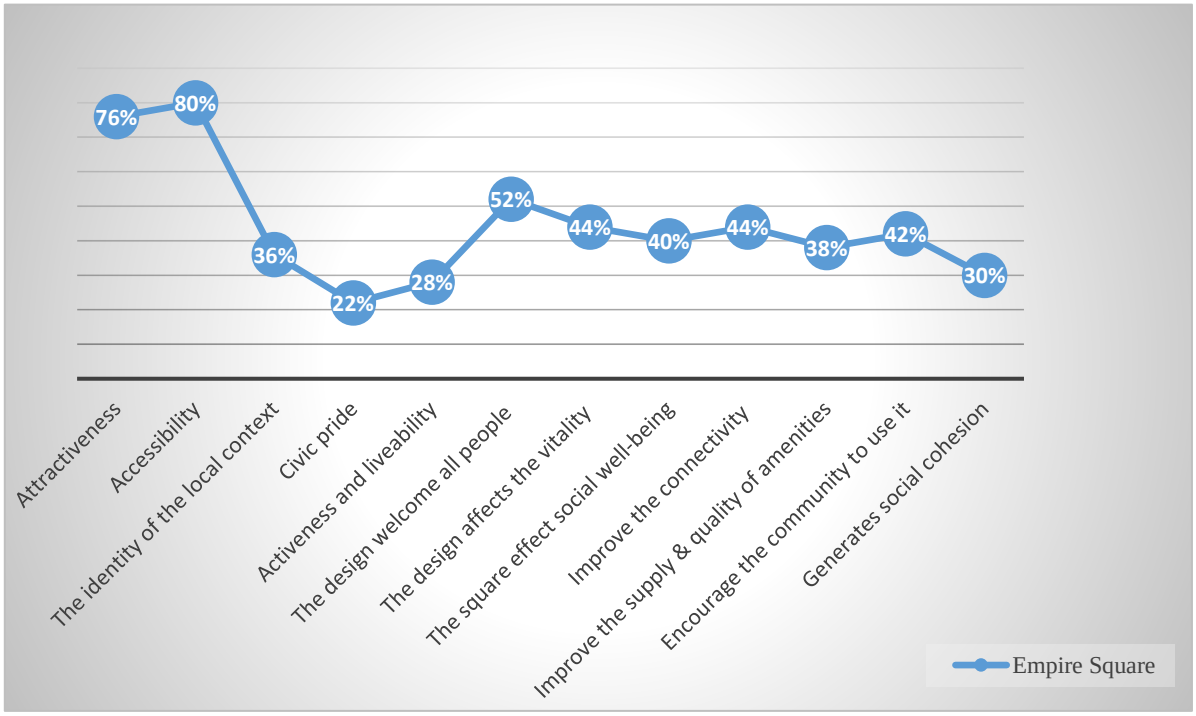


Figure 5-61: The social value of Empire Square

The data in Figure 5-61 indicates that Empire Square failed to promote the identity of the local context, even though it increased the sense of the privacy of the space. Only 36% of the respondents felt that Empire Square contributed to some extent to the local identity of the area. Being inside Empire Square makes one realise that the development is in self-imposed isolation from its surroundings. The urban identity of Empire Square depends on, to some extent, the social behaviour controlled by its design and management. It also has a direct influence on the civic pride and the sense of community created by the square. Only 22% of the participants agreed that Empire Square helped boost civic pride or enhanced the sense of community. Short-term inhabitants played an important role in reducing this sense of community. The development provides accommodations and short-period apartments that have a direct impact on the local community. Residents of Empire Square notice the daily or weekly changes of inhabitants, which serve as a barrier that prevents them from developing a fuller sense of community. The design of the square has met users' expectations to some extent, with 52% of

participants agreeing that the design of Empire Square welcomes all users. However, the square does not encourage the nearby community to use it socially and thus generate social cohesion (Figure 5-61).

For social value to be delivered to the community through public space, high satisfaction among users must be shown. The perception of meaning and emotional relation to the physical environment can be detected by observing human satisfaction. Users' satisfaction with and appreciation of a place can increase the level of place attachment, but that also depends on users' cognition of the place (Hashemnezhad et al., 2013). In terms of good urban design and its connection to user satisfaction, a study by McIndoe et al. (2005) suggests that a combination of mixed-use developments with convenient access to people, places and activities can generate greater user satisfaction and develop social connectedness.

5.2.3 The Perceptual Analysis: Semi-Structured Interview Data

Even though the questionnaire was used as the initial data-gathering tool for this study, it turned out to be time-consuming for participants. It also proved difficult to convince people at the site to participate in the study. The questionnaire took about five to eight minutes per participant to complete, which many people considered a long time. For this reason, the last section of the questionnaire was not considered as carefully by the participants, leading to some ambiguous answers. The neutral options in the survey might have given some respondents an excuse not to answer questions (Fink, 2002). There were ten qualities to measure social value in the last section of the questionnaire: accessibility, sense of community, inclusiveness, activities, comfort, physical features, well-being, connectivity, the supply of amenities and social cohesion. However, this part did not fulfil its purpose of contributing to answering the central research question of the study. These limitations of the questionnaire as a source of data for this study led to the addition of semi-structured interviews to help clarify the unclear results that emerged from of the questionnaire, especially its final section. The semi-structured interviews explored how the urban public space related to a social understanding of that place and its users. This perceptual analysis of Empire Square is based on place impression, place attachment, place vitality, social impact and sense of community (Figure 5-62) and buttresses the data that were gathered in the earlier stage. The open-ended questions of this tool have led to a better understanding of users' perceptions of the place and the reasons behind their views and opinions.

Place Impression and Place Attachment

Even though participants view place impression and place attachment differently from others, because they are highly individualised phenomena, many considered Empire Square to be an empty, quiet place, though well-maintained grass and trees area seems to add significant value in term of place attachment, as does the availability of seating areas.

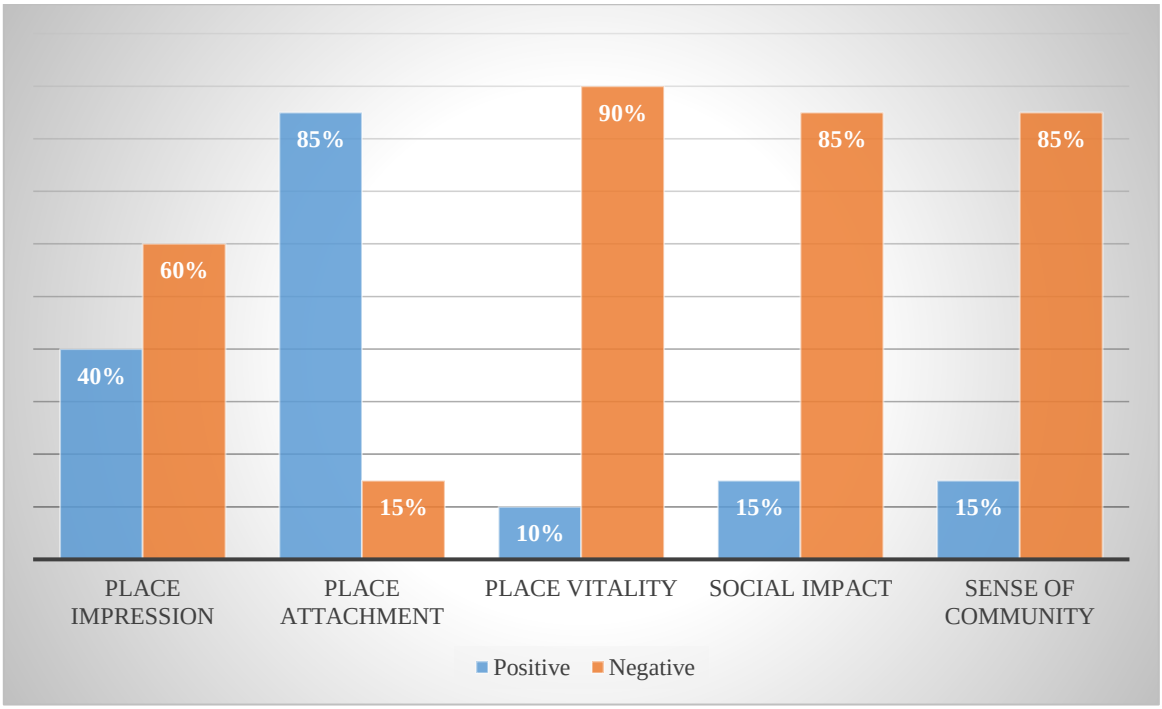


Figure 5-62: The social analysis of Empire Square on the basis of place impression, place attachment, place vitality, social impact and sense of community

The data reveal an overall positive impression of, and satisfaction with, the square (Figure 5-62). A majority (85%) of the participants thought positively about place attachment, with comments concentrating mainly on physical features like seating areas, grass and the garden in the middle of the square and on their utility, although attachment could also emerge from a sense of familiarity with the place. One participant said, "Most people use the grass area. They should increase this area and make it more park-like", while another said, "The seating area is the most important area of the square, perhaps because it has a function". A third observed, "The walking path between the north side and south side of the development is the most important area; it is the reason why people enter the square", while a fourth said, "The grass area has no use because of the signs. The nursery faces that grass area but there is no allocated space for the kids to play around". An additional user said, "The building in the middle looks like the most dominant element in the square but, unfortunately, has no functions

that serve the public". A lack of functional facilities may impede the building of attachment and meaning; indeed, one interviewee said, "To me it is only one open space with a small area for grass and trees. There are signs everywhere keeping people off the space". On the whole, respondents were keen to see changes that would enhance their emotional connection to this local place.

Respondents identified the square primarily as a transit path for their daily trips. One participant said, "I see people using the seating area during lunchtime; other than that you are not allowed to do more than walk through'. Pressure to keep the square as quiet and empty as possible may prevent people from growing attached: 'It is such a quiet place. I come through every morning and the only thing I see is people at the gym. When I come back from work at 4:30 pm, there is no sign of people". This indicates the importance of the visible activity seen via the gym.

The social aspect of place attachment is seen as a result of the development of positive interaction in a place. These results come from asking the participants directly about their own personal views of place attachment. Their opinions can vary from one to another and people are attached to a particular location according to their individual preferences, which result from personal characteristics. Therefore, there might be a limitation to this part of the results. These impressions aggregate into a concept of place identity for the users of Empire Square. Relph (1976) and Proshansky et al. (1983) defined place identity as a symbolic quality that concerns the importance of a place and the attachment of users, whether as individuals or in groups. In Empire Square, the lack of function limited participants' sense of place identity.

Place Vitality

The development itself contains a variety of facilities, including NHS Guy's and St Thomas' Borough Kidney Treatment Centre, CPC Connect Company in the pavilion building in the middle of the square, a small Tesco convenience store, a gym, a nursery, and small commercial offices. With most of these commercial spaces facing onto Long Lane, there are no connections to the square to enliven it. Moreover, the pavilion was originally planned to hold a restaurant, but instead has become more office space. In other words, most of the active use of the development has no relationship with the square, except the gym.

According to the development's manager, "The Square was designed with no public access, which was the original intent. However, the council did say I have to have limited public access

between the hours of 6:00 to 22:00 and the public can come in and use the area as long as they do it within the confines and rules and regulations of being here'. Most of the interviewees agreed with this claim: 'The management of this development try to provide as much privacy as they can, so the square is quiet and empty".

Some interviewees commented on the lack of sunlight and high degree of enclosure which are considered as design features that would have been better if dealt with during the design stage, while others suggested that the profusion of signs, CCTV, and gates increased safety and security but at the same time limited access by some social groups: "Seeing signs and CCTV around makes it unwelcome for us [residents]. I think it needs more attractive points for people to come around and stay longer". Even though the majority of the development scheme is residential, residents do not actually constitute a large proportion of square users. This is due to the car park underneath the square that residents use to get to their flats and to the lack of a playground for children.

There are two aspects of the control of this public space. First, the management needs to keep Empire Square as safe and quiet for residents as possible. The manager of the Marlin Apartments, who is in charge of running this development, said, "It is a quiet area that non-residents and residents can use. As I said, if we start using any form of noise in there, it is like a gladiator arena. It easily gets noisy, and I start getting complaints. There is no way to expand the grass area". He also explained that "the rules are simple rules: no loud noises, no cycling, no litter, and no ball games. It does not say no drinking but if we end up getting large parties sitting on the grass that start getting loud we [as management] would ask them to kindly calm that down because they cannot turn it too loud". From this point of view, then, limitations prevent the local use of Empire Square and reduce its vitality, even though it is clean, well-maintained, well-lit, safe, accessible and comfortable to use. According to Nemeth (2009), developers of privately owned, publicly accessible spaces are often financially driven, which leads to limitations on the political, social and democratic functions of their spaces. In addition, such spaces can directly impact visions of citizenship and representation, which implicates them as new models for urban space provision and management. The right of the private sector to exclude certain individuals and groups from these publicly accessible—but not truly public—spaces leads to limiting accessibility and inclusion (Nemeth, 2009).

The second aspect of control is that for activities from the perspective of a visitor to the square. One participant commented, "It is a dead area. There is nothing to do here. I do not use this space. It is just a waste of land for us [community] but for them [developers] it is important to make the development look fancy". Empire Square has a substantial bias towards inactive space. As one resident said, "The gates seem to be the big issue with this development even for its residents—when they come late at night they have to walk all the way around to get inside".

Social Impact and Sense of Community

From the data gathered, 85% of interviewees showed negative responses when they were asked about the social impact that they felt from Empire Square. There are some factors that have a direct effect on decreasing the emergence of social impact in the square. The most significant elements that affect social impact are accessibility and the lack of activities. In this regard, one user stated that "when they [the management of the development] close the gates I don't feel welcome anymore, and this place is quiet. People need something to make them come together and interact with others". The presence of the gate made the square an unclear place for users, in terms of whether it is clearly public or clearly private. Furthermore, the importance of occupying the place with activities and maximizing the number of people within the place help to build a strong sense of a community and meaning that a place has started to have a positive impact on its surroundings. A study by Dines et al. (2006) found that social value of public space depends on the input which can be provided to people in term of increasing their attachment to their local lives, interacting in person with others and their memories of sites. One user of Empire Square accused the management of the development of pushing people away from the place by keeping the square quiet for the sake of the residents who are more important to the management than enlivening the place by attracting more users. Most of the participants were keen to experience social impact in their community, and provided suggestions such as adding a playground for kids, removing the gates, and changing the use of the pavilion. Moreover, the short-term inhabitants played an important role in reducing the sense of community. Marlin Apartments offers accommodation and short-period apartments, which impact the local community. The effects of having daily or weekly changes in inhabitants are noticeable for the residents who continue to live in this development or even in the nearby community. One participant expressed his feeling on that matter by saying that "residents do not benefit from this development. Marlin apartment block offers people short stays where most of this apartment building accommodates young people. So, there is no social

interaction in this area". The design of the place creates an issue that forces the management to keep Empire Square as quiet as possible. According to the manager of Marlin Apartments, "the problem with the square is, although it looks a nice and lovely square, in general, it is an empty theatre". The noise can affect all flats that face inwards onto the square and residents can start to complain about the noise. When the manager was asked about the pavilion and its use and how it could impact the liveliness of the square he answered, that 'the plan was that the pavilion in the middle of the square was designed to be a restaurant. It is not a restaurant now because Berkeley Homes kept it as a sales office. They just recently sold it to a company called CBC Connect. They will be running that during the day. So that will have no role to play in what it is originally designed for. There is nowhere else to put the café or anything else within the grass area; that will never happen but cafés are all around the area. People quite often come with a cup of coffee from a nearby café and sit down on the grass or sit on the benches and have a cigarette. So, local people do use the square'. This indicates that there is no intention to make any changes to the place that would deliver more social benefits to the community.

Empire Square, as a large-scale building, is required under London Plan Policy 4B.10 which insists that public space within these schemes 'support vibrant communities both around and within the building' and 'where appropriate, contain a mix of uses with public access'. (GLA, 2008). However, as to the provision of public space, the issue is that whether the current use is appropriate to the scheme or not. The square itself is conceived as a public space that meets the requirement of local and regional planning priorities. On the other hand, the square implicitly isolates itself from users and surrounding inhabitants.

Most interviewees felt that the square lacked a sense of community and was instead exclusive to residents. Indeed, one said, "This square is only for residents, so no one is allowed to use it with the presence of gates and signs". Another observed, "This square is locked by the gates and there is nothing to do in here. I think it is good to look at but at the same time, it is useless space. We do not benefit from this square as a community". A third said, "Look at the gate. It seems like a private courtyard but definitely does not look a public space for all". Another commented on the isolation: "There is no sign of a sense of community regarding this square. I only use the square because I know this place, but for other people, it is hidden behind these huge blocks". Moreover, a lack of attractions and activities prevents nearby residents from visiting. One local user suggested that, "If the council would start putting some activities in this square, the sense of community would start growing. The council failed to make this place

active". While the square was used mostly as a throughway, one user actually saw this as a positive: "The sense of community can be seen in the walking path where people can meet when they are going to work or coming back from work. They can see each other on a regular basis". However, according to another, "The apartment building destroys the sense of community. There are more people coming and going in a short period of time". These comments might arise from the high expectations for this development or from a lack of understanding of the details of the agreement between the council and development management.

As shown in Figure 5-63, Figure 5-64 and Figure 5-66, the respondents interviewed at Empire Square had positive reactions in terms of their impressions of the place; this was mainly due to the interesting design of the physical setting (the landscape design) and to the cleanliness of the square (Figure 5-59). Meanwhile, the data also indicate that Empire Square has already started creating a relationship with its users. The data show that 85% of interviewees felt that they were attached to the place, had a connection to it and gained meaning from using the place. The positive response to the place attachment among respondents was due to the physical setting, which users and residents can perceive and experience over time. Beyond the provision of marble surfaces, chunky wooden benches, metal shard sculptures and glowing ambient lights, Empire Square has put value in the seasonal experience for its users and residents by planting ash trees and gardens. Even though the place is considered to be active or vital, according to users' and residents' responses to questions in this regard, Empire Square does generate bonding between people and place.

Empire Square has succeeded in generating meaning for its users. The positive response to this factor compared to other factors, such as place vitality and social impact, makes clear that attachment to a place is embedded in an individual's perception of that place. This relationship with the physical environment must be on a personal level to be understandable, as the results confirmed.



Figure 5-63: The hard treatment versus natural grass and trees suggested an orchard, which referred to the time when fruit was imported into London from Kent via Southwark (The author, 2015)

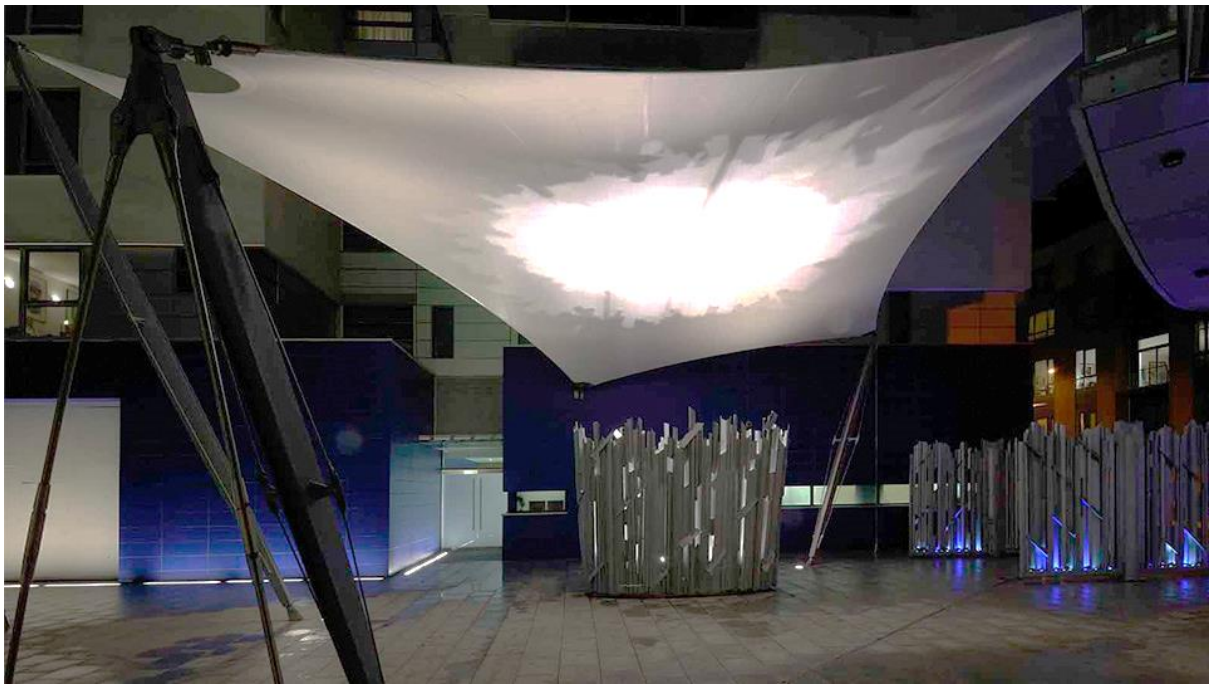


Figure 5-64: Metal shard sculptures used as a gate that secures the square overnight (Multy+, 2016)

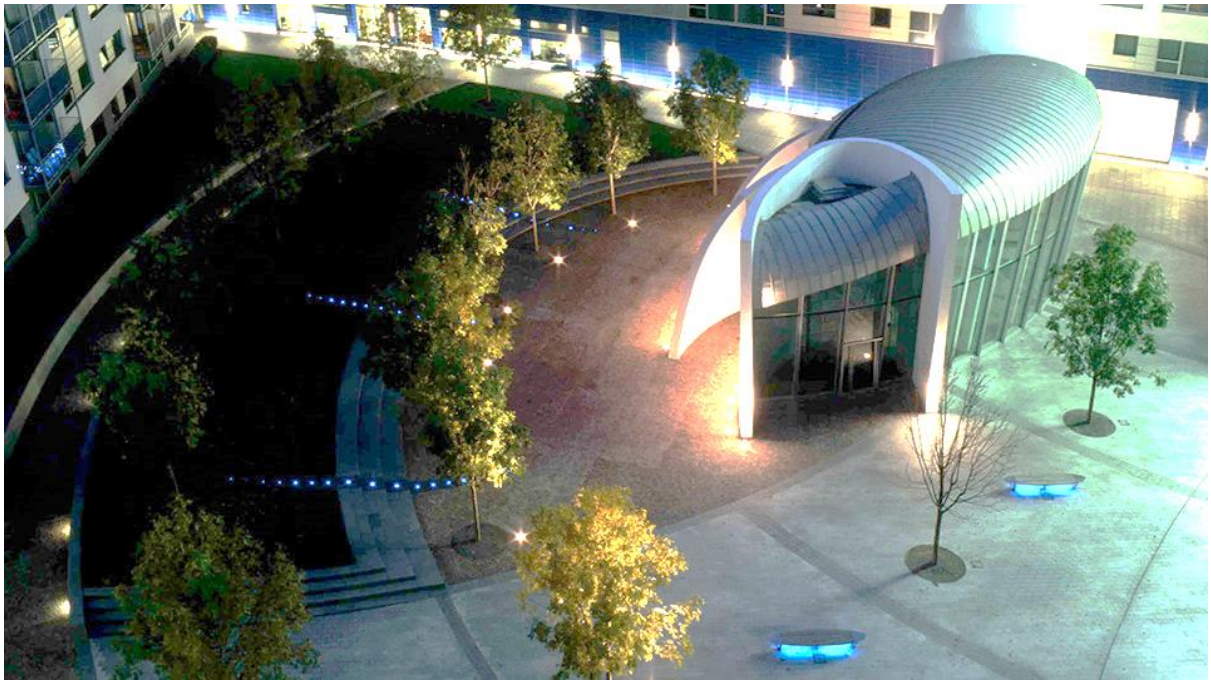


Figure 5-65: The use of glowing ambient lights creates a different experience at night and provides a sense of security (Multy+, 2016).



Figure 5-66: Respondents' perceptual views of Empire Square

The new creation of space at Empire Square has indicated that vitality is a common attribute of the place in particular ways. However, in the case of Empire Square, the site explains how

it works according to the effect of management of the public space while considering the current policy directions. The vitality of the square was executed with certain factors in mind: user types, social groups, activities and social interactions and the timing of activities in the open space. Residents from the surrounding area make the most significant difference in the vitality of Empire Square as a mixed-use development. The dominant user groups in Empire Square were local people from the surrounding area who do not have families or groups of friends who use it for that purpose. Users of Empire Square tended not to engage with others in the space, since they were largely just walking through it on the way to their destinations. It is clear that users' attention in Empire Square is more towards walking through rather than socialising or exploring the surrounding environment. The short-cut between Sterry St. and Long Lane at Empire Square works like a magnet that attracts local users to walk along the path that becomes the main activity in the square. The time and duration of users' presence and activity in the square run from 06:00in the morning, when the gates open, until 22:00, when the gates are closed. The most vital time is from late morning until early evening, when most users are going to Soho Gym or are walking back home from work (in the case of the evening).

Participants were originally asked via a questionnaire about how effective Empire Square was in contributing to the social cohesion of the community. Some were then asked again using a different tool, a semi-structured interview, in order to ensure that the questionnaire results were accurate and to obtain more data in this respect. Only 30% of the questionnaire participants thought that Empire Square supported the creation of social cohesion (Figure 5-61), while 15% of interviewees offered a positive response regarding the role of the square in the demonstration of social cohesion to the surrounding context (Figure 5-66). The decrease from 30% to 15% indicates the limited performance of Empire Square in fostering social cohesion. It also expresses the high expectations of users of the square, since the place is physically attractive enough to hold activities and bring more people in. The respondents were asked about how the square can generate social cohesion by providing of a sense of belonging and breaking the isolation that they have felt in their prior experience with the place. Running against place attachment, the square discouraged a sense of inclusive space through the presence of gates, signs and a lack of visual accessibility that prevent people from entering. A study by CABE and DETR (2001: 78) shows that "good urban design enhances social inclusiveness by cutting down on the need for high profile security arrangements". From the site observation, it was unusual to see a group of people socialising at Empire Square. The square somehow does not

bring the community together due to its lack of inclusiveness and the lack of a sense of belonging and group activities, though it does deliver a sense of belonging and inclusiveness to its residents.

Empire Square has failed to deliver social impact to its non-residential users and the surrounding community. Only 15% of interviewees reported feeling social benefits from the Square. Empire Square does make an effort to provide a level of intimacy to its own residents, which demonstrates an imbalance between visitors and residents. Some factors have a direct impact on decreasing the emergence of social impact in Empire Square, the most significant of which are limited accessibility and the lack of activities. Users of Empire Square have accused its management of limiting user numbers by keeping the square quiet for the sake of residents, which is more important to them than enlivening the place by attracting more people. This conflict in the role of Empire Square has led to its being avoided as an arena for social activities and shifted its role to being used as a transit path. On the one hand, the square itself was conceived as a public space that met the requirements of local and regional planning priorities. On the other hand, the square implicitly isolates itself from users and surrounding inhabitants. The square acts as the kind of blank and alienating public space that Young (1990) recognises as a threat to urban diversity.

Furthermore, social exclusion that occurs within public spaces can create instability issues such as marginalisation and insecurity, although individuals can cope with that. Encouraging people of different socioeconomic status to use public spaces and to interact with one another is an essential role of successful urban planning. It helps to reduce social exclusion and conflict among people and develops stability and maturity within a society (BCNecología, 2012). Meanwhile, there is a need for better coordination to address the multiple concerns of effective management and maintenance and social cohesion and inclusion. Dealing severely with the regulation of particular places must be reassessed if they are to become more inclusive.

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter has produced analytical knowledge that has established a strong connection between the behavioural, social and perceptual dimensions of the study. In this respect, further discussion of social value has occurred through an integrated approach. The comprehensive analysis need to express the importance of the three dimensions according to the visions,

changes and observational basis. In addition, a cross-analysis study was undertaken as an initial stage for the discussion part of the study.

In conclusion, this chapter explores the first case study individually and introduces the designers and developers' vision and process in developing Empire Square. The analysis shows that the square exists in an area with a great variety of age, scale, urban fabric and style of buildings. Because the data about Empire Square was obtained during both winter and summer, the analysis indicated a steady pattern of use. Additionally, Empire Square does not offer (or rely on) any activities or uses but serving as a path to walk through. The analysis demonstrates that some of the parameters used in the guidance of 'good urban design' and 'place' are limited if not applied properly, and that the provision of activities and adequate spaces provides value but not such social value.

The analysis illustrates that users and residents deny the social value of Empire Square by not spending their free time there, due to its ambiguous approach to users and its lack of activities. The lack of functions limited users' sense of place, vitality and social cohesion. However, looking at uses and activities as a component that generates a place makes it impossible to define the essence of Empire Square. It does not change what the space represents but can express its essence in order for users and community to have a better understanding of the role of urban public space in adding social value. In subsequent chapters, the relationship between people and their urban environment will emerge more fully to define the implications of good urban design in generating social value.

CHAPTER 6 : BERMONDSEY SQUARE CASE STUDY AND RESEARCH ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the author continues the function of previous chapter in introducing a case study, the overall data gathering and analysis of the study. This chapter is divided into two parts. The second case study selected for this project is introduced in the first part. The second part is concerned with the overall data gathering and analysis of the study. The structure of the analysis also allows for further in-depth discussion. The data were gathered from two trips to both sites. A social analysis explores the importance of social values while a behavioural and observational analysis considers movements and patterns of activity in the space. A comparative analysis approach is employed to minimize any deficiencies and to generate findings that support and benefit the overall outcome of the research.

The first part of this chapter introduces the context of the second case study for this project, while the second part will carry out detailed analyses of that case. The analysis contains three sections: the introduction, the behavioural analysis and the social analysis and perceptual analysis. The final part of this chapter explains the research implications of the cross-analysis in the study as a whole. The final two chapters concentrate on discussion, research recommendations and conclusions.

6.1 Bermondsey Square: Background

The Southwark Council, Igloo Regeneration Partnership, the London Development Agency and the local community worked together to redevelop Bermondsey Square as part of an economic, social, environmental and physical intervention. The vision of Bermondsey is set around a new square that hosts the Bermondsey Antique Market (Figure 6-1). A farmer's market, exhibits and community-related outdoor events are scheduled and held at Bermondsey Square to help increase social interaction and enliven the space (Figure 6-2 and Figure 6-3). The development is at the end of Bermondsey Street and intersects with the less-gentrified Tower Bridge Road, the outer limit of the city centre. The square was intended by both the developer and the council to become the heart of Bermondsey (Stewart, 2009) (Figure 6-4 and Figure 6-5).

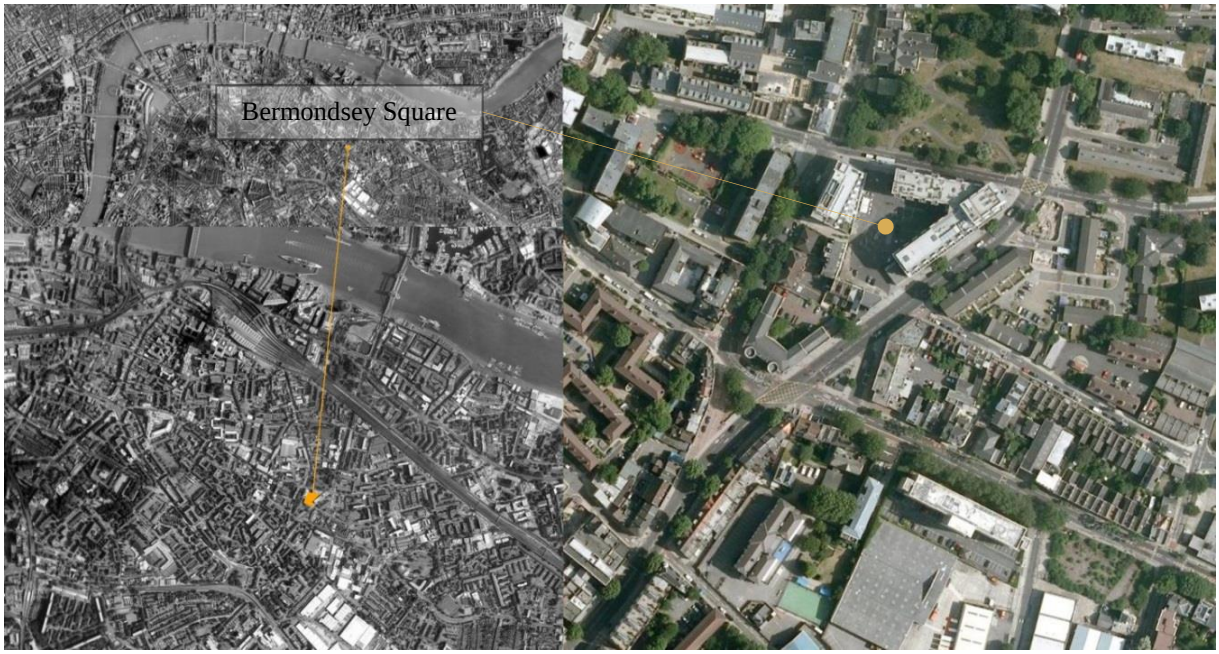


Figure 6-1: The location of Bermondsey Square



Figure 6-2: Key buildings and spatial characteristics near Bermondsey Square



Figure 6-3: Building layout and pedestrian space in Bermondsey Square

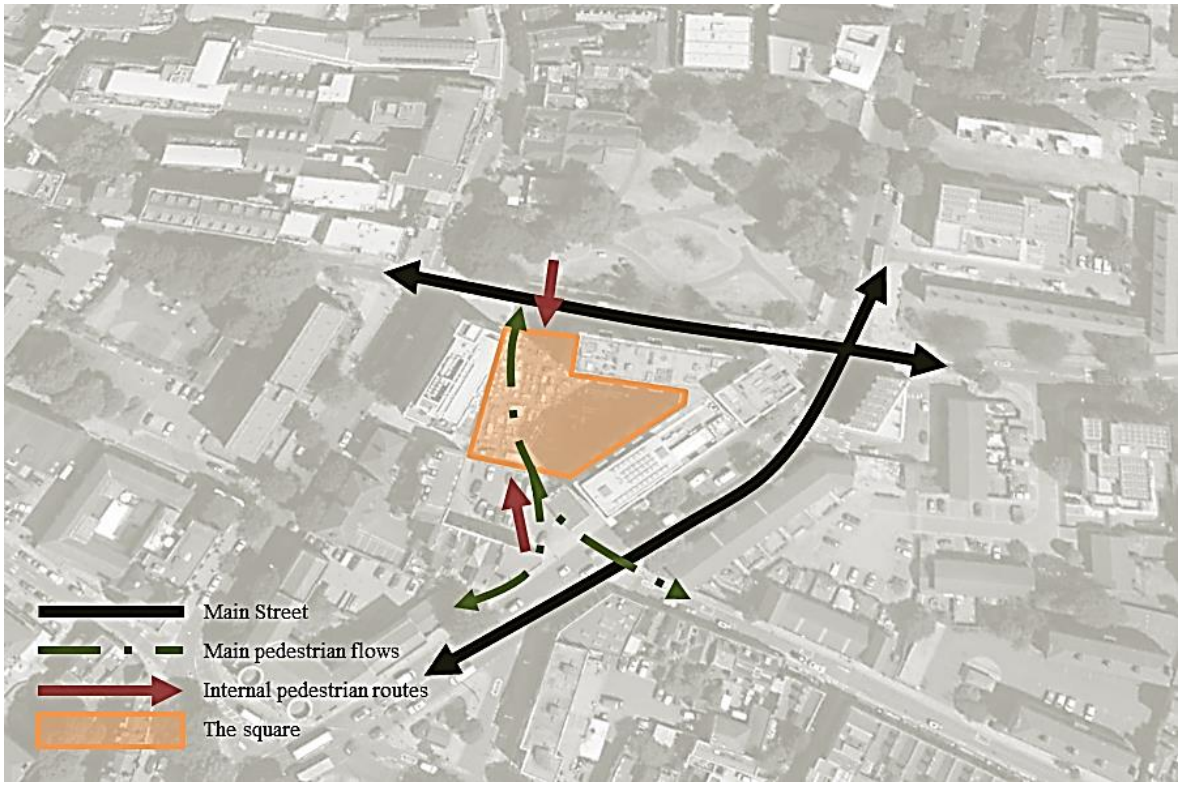


Figure 6-4: Connections to Bermondsey Square



Figure 6-5: Vehicle and pedestrian flows of Bermondsey Square

6.1.1 The Morphology of Bermondsey Square

According to the London Borough of Southwark (2007), the character of Bermondsey reflects its diverse history, which includes a conservation area, listed building, and archaeological priority zone, in addition to a number of local architectural or historical buildings. Bermondsey Square is located at the junction of four crucial routes through Bermondsey: Long Lane, Bermondsey Street, Abbey Street, and Tower Bridge Road. The urban structure and built form of the area surrounding Bermondsey Square is diverse. Alongside Long Lane in the north-west of Bermondsey Square, buildings of varying scale, age and style can be found. Buildings occupy most of this area, but a few gaps in the frontage are used as parking spaces or are simply vacant. Building height is diverse; it includes a one-storey shop and restaurant, modern six- to seven-storey buildings and modern mixed-use developments. Residential estates dominate this area, especially around Tabard Garden.

In the north of Bermondsey Square lies Bermondsey Street, which is predominantly characterised by medieval street frontages. According to Roger Evans Associates (2003), plots facing Bermondsey Street measure 4.5 to 5 m wide and are comparatively long, with most of

the buildings 19th-century brick terraces two to four stories high, some with mansard attics. In south Bermondsey Street lie factories and warehouses, with the pivotal St. Mary Magdalen Church (URS, 2013) visible from the open space of Bermondsey Square and the nearby Tower Bridge Road (Figure 6-6).

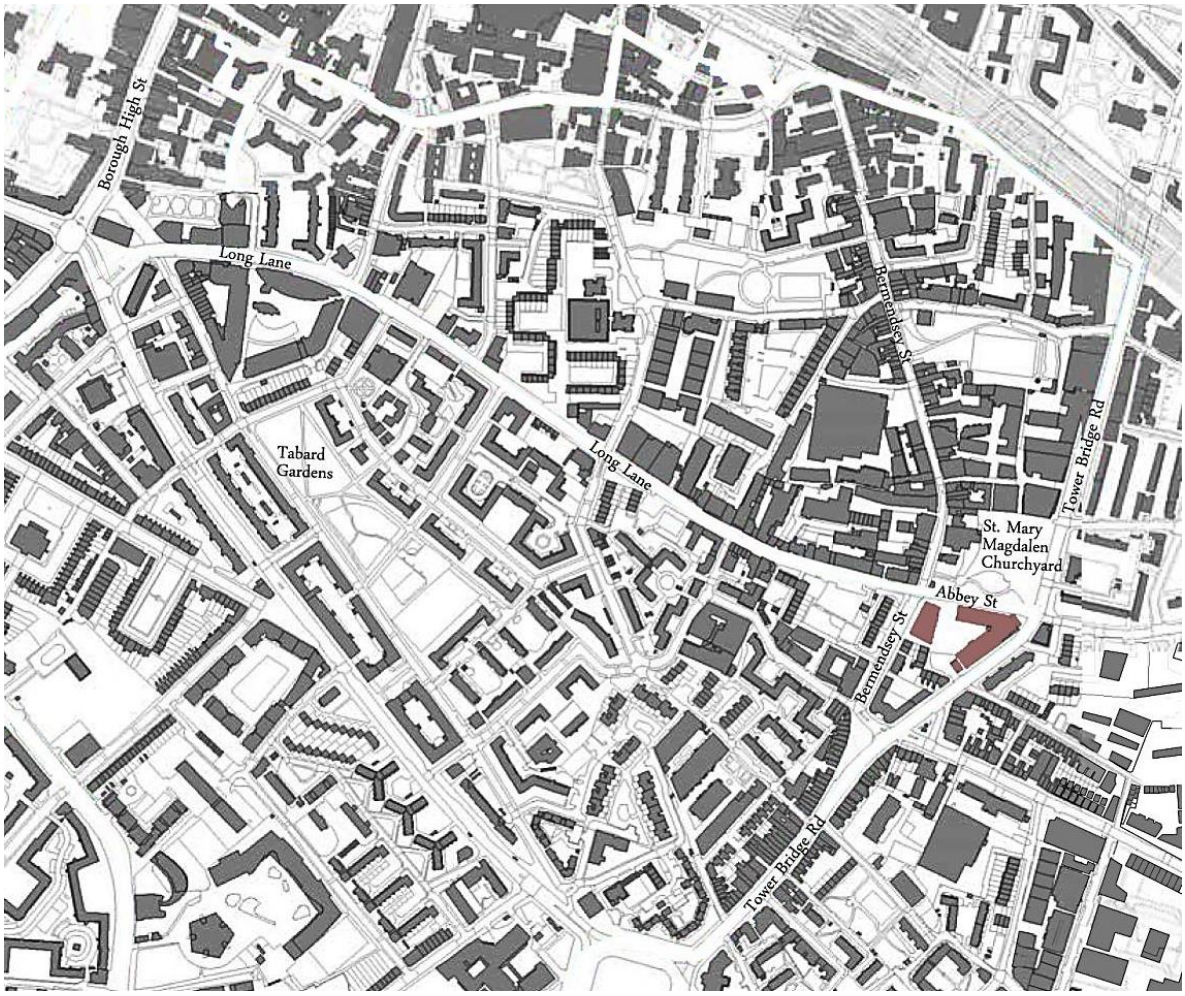


Figure 6-6: Bermondsey Square—urban structure and built form

Victorian buildings lining Tower Bridge Road are small in scale and tend to be narrow in accord with the plots of the original layout (URS, 2014). Here, single-storey buildings create breaks in the roofline. An outstanding late Victorian Building, Bermondsey Central Hall, stands at the corner of Bermondsey Street and Decima Street. A local landmark (URS, 2014), it is recognised for its decorative architectural detailing and prominent brick tower, which is taller than the surrounding buildings.

There is an extensive variety of open spaces within Bermondsey Square. St. Mary Magdalen Churchyard, located at the very busy junction of Abbey Street with Tower Bridge Road, is a

significant local recreation space and a feature of historical meaning. Despite its use as a recreation facility, it has the character of a municipal park rather than a churchyard (Southwark, 2007). According to Southwark Council (2007), the railings, trees and shrubs around St Mary Magdalen Churchyard have a direct impact by enclosing and isolating the space from its busy surroundings and the high-quality public space at Bermondsey Square. The Southwark Council report indicates that benefits to the square from the surrounding buildings are delivered by restaurants that spill out into the square and offer seating and trees.

The morphology of Bermondsey Square comprises a block of residential apartments, an office building, a hotel, and a bike shed surrounding a publicly accessible urban open space. The planning of this project emphasised the openness of the space to the surrounding context and the road. The square opens from the north and south sides to attract life toward the open space and create a link with the surrounding communities and neighbourhoods. However, the side of the block that faces Abbey Street has only an emergency exit for the Shortwave Cinema. All retail units on this side face the square rather than opening onto the road, and the apartment building entrance is inside the square at its most welcoming point, where the office building and apartment block meet. The designer opened up the buildings to the space by leaving 20-m entrances to the north and the south sides, which has led to substantial contact between the square and nearby communities (Figure 6-7).



Figure 6-7: The development opened up leaving 20-m entrances to the north and the south sides

6.1.2 The Process of Developing the Scheme and Its Use

The square was previously a parking area; when the cars were taken out, the Southwark Council, in partnership with Igloo, wanted a location for the Bermondsey Square antiques market. The market dates back to 1855 and has become a London tradition. Southwark owns the land, although it allowed Igloo to build three commercial buildings around the square in exchange for funding (Figure 6-3; (Stewart, 2009). The development of Bermondsey Square follows a mixed-use scheme that includes: 76 apartments, 35,000 sq. ft. of office area, a 79-bed boutique hotel and associated facilities, a 55-seat community Art House Cinema, a Sainsbury's local store, 6,000 sq. ft. of retail units, an additional site for the delivery of an innovative and affordable housing block (the 'Island Site') (Igloo, 2013).

6.1.3 The Developer's Vision for the Public Space

Bermondsey Square is located in an area that lacks green space. The contribution of the developer to the regeneration of this local area is to create a new public space within the Bermondsey development. According to the developer, transformation of the rarely used square into a lively hub for the local community has affected the economic and the social dimensions of the area (Square, 2014). Even though it is a small project, there is a tremendous potential to develop the neighbourhood and create a continuum of rising aspirations across Bermondsey (Figure 6-8). For example, Bermondsey Square is now the home of the New Caledonian Antique Market, which takes place every Friday from 6:00 to 14:00 and contains up to 200 stalls, along with private sector initiatives led by Igloo's management team, and the Southwark Council, London Fashion and Textile Museum, and London's Farmer's Market Association aiming to develop additional markets (Igloo, 2013).

By keeping the antique market on the site, the developer of Bermondsey Square has created links with neighbouring businesses and residential communities, in accordance with a vision of Bermondsey Square as a destination and attraction point in terms of its community, cultural and commercial appeal. The management agency is looking forward to satisfying the needs of residents, tenants and the local community by bringing Bermondsey Square to life with a comprehensive programme of events and activities that will become anchors for the place, attracting not only the local community but also Londoners and tourists. The local community can bring ideas to the management team, as the simplicity of the design allows for all types of

activities. The square changes over time through the organisation of various activities on different days and due to its flexibility for multiple uses (Igloo, 2013).

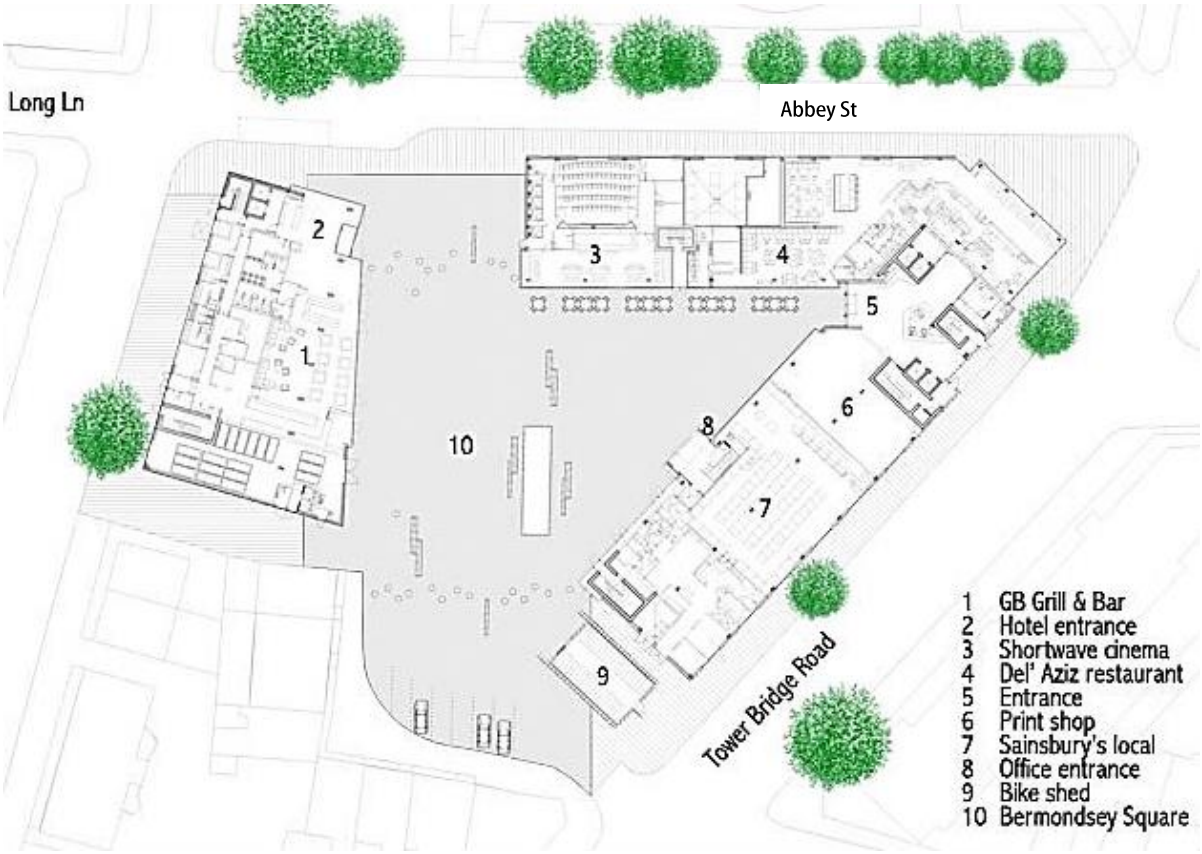


Figure 6-8: Ground floor plan, Bermondsey Square, adapted from (Igloo, 2013)

In addition to its primary function as an essential resource and regional hub for commercial and cultural activity, Bermondsey Square also has the potential to connect the local community with its neighbours to the north side. The developer, council and community partnership are working towards making Bermondsey Square a model for good public practice (Igloo, 2013).

The landscape design of Bermondsey Square provides an adaptable open public space that can host weekend or seasonal events and markets. The square is enclosed by modern-style, mixed-use developments and Georgian terraced buildings (Figure 6-9). A paving of patterned dark-red brick with brighter strips creates the feeling of a single space, and wooden benches and abstract sculptures along the edges of the square prevent vehicles from entering the interior. Catenary lighting connects the square to three points of the surrounding buildings and brings a cinematic atmosphere when night falls.

1920s



1950s



2010

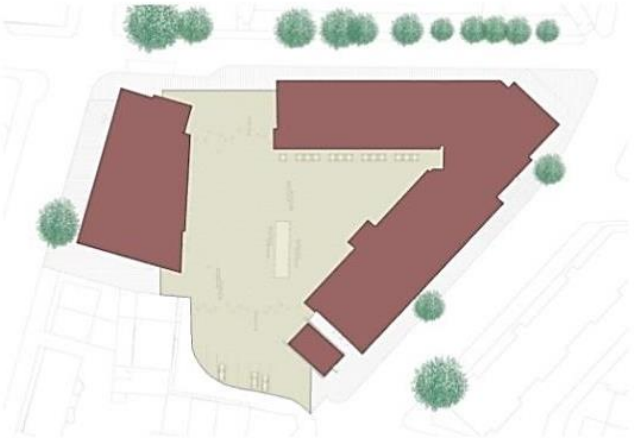


Figure 6-9: Bermondsey Square, 1920s, 1950s and 2010.

6.2 Bermondsey Square: Research Analysis

Bermondsey Square, the second case study subject, is open to the public both day and night, with major activities taking place during the weekend, such as the Bermondsey Antique Market and a farmer's market. From numerous site observations, three are analysed here; these were undertaken in January and September 2014.

6.2.1 Site Observational Analysis of Bermondsey Square

Similar to the previous case, frequent repetitions of observations for the Bermondsey Square case were undertaken at various times (11:30 – 13:30 and 15:00 – 17:00) to ensure the validity of the results. From ten visits to the site, three themes were developed to describe human behaviour at the specific times chosen for this study. The data generated from these observations are analysed in similar approach for the previous case which based on evaluative observational variables to validate suggestions based on site observations (Babbie, 2007). The temperature, wind and weather condition were obtained from The Met Office (Office, 2014).

First Theme of Site Observation

The selected site observational mappings show that high traffic accrues along the pedestrian along the path connecting Abbey Street (north) with Tower Bridge Road (south; Figure 6-10). At lunchtime (Table 6-1), the seating area is active (Figure 6-11), especially in good weather, and a variety of activities and social interactions occur at weekends. There are meeting points in front of Sainsbury's as well as secondary nodes and meeting points distributed within the square (Figure 6-12). Sainsbury's, Shortwave Cinema and Café and Del' Aziz restaurant attract the most interpersonal interaction and serve as the main arrival points (Figure 6-13). On weekdays, the least interactive area is alongside GB Grill & Bar (Figure 6-14).

Table 6-1: Data from the day that analysis work was undertaken

Date	27/02/2014
Time period of observation	11:30–13:30
Temperature and wind	10^0 Windy
Weather condition	Partly cloudy

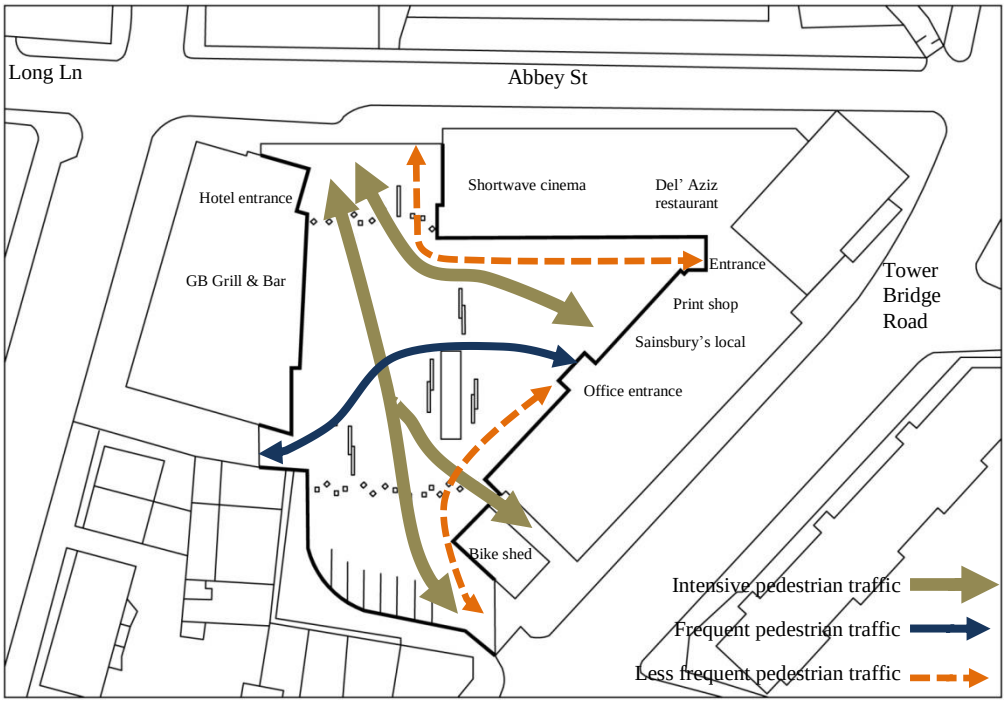


Figure 6-10: Pedestrian movement study of Bermondsey Square



Figure 6-11: The types of activities at Bermondsey Square



Figure 6-12: Nodes and spatial qualities of Bermondsey Square

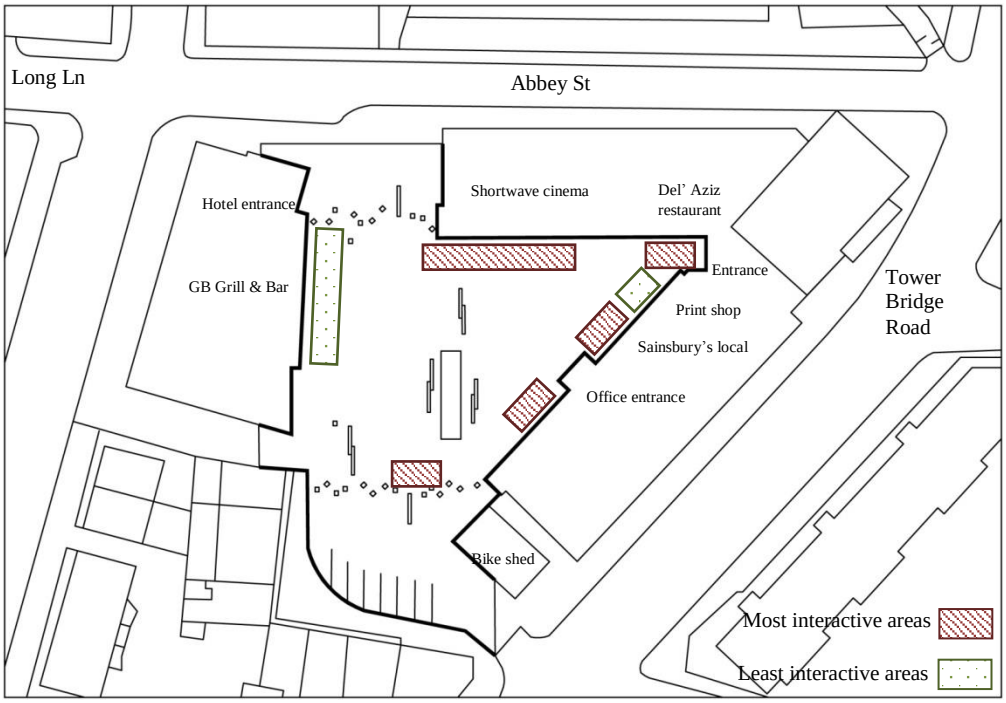


Figure 6-13: The analysis of social interactions at Bermondsey Square

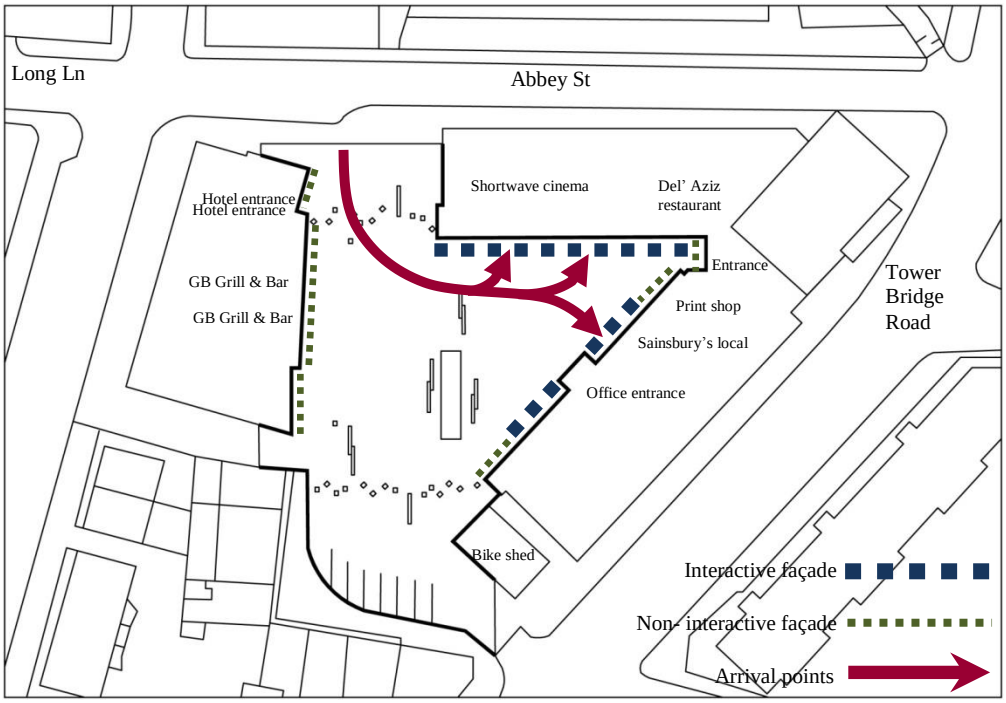


Figure 6-14: The analysis of socio-spatial values of Bermondsey Square

Second Theme of Site Observation

On weekend evenings (Table 6-2), there is increased pedestrian flow to Sainsbury's, but the most important flow remains the connection between Abbey Street and Tower Bridge Road with 696 pedestrians per hour (Figure 6-15) whereas the majority of pedestrian flow occurred in Empire Square was at 348 pedestrians per hour. The seating area remains popular, and additionally a great deal of gathering and meeting occurs along the edges of the square (Figure 6-16), particularly when it is sunny and not windy. The primary node for social interactions on weekend evenings is near Del' Aziz Restaurant (Figure 6-17), where a considerable number of seats and tables are out in the sun. Secondary nodes are at Shortwave Cinema and Café and GB Grill & Bar.

Table 6-2: Data from the day that analysis work was undertaken

Date	15/03/2014
Time period of observation	15:00–17:00
Temperature and wind	17^0 windy
Weather condition	Sunny

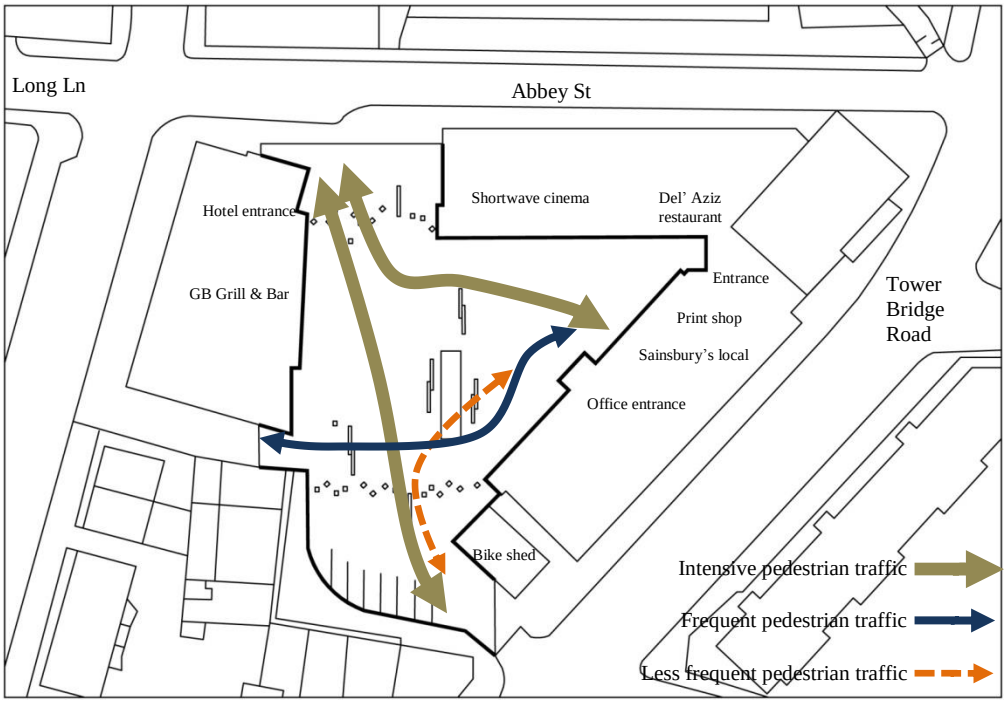


Figure 6-15: Pedestrian movement study of Bermondsey Square

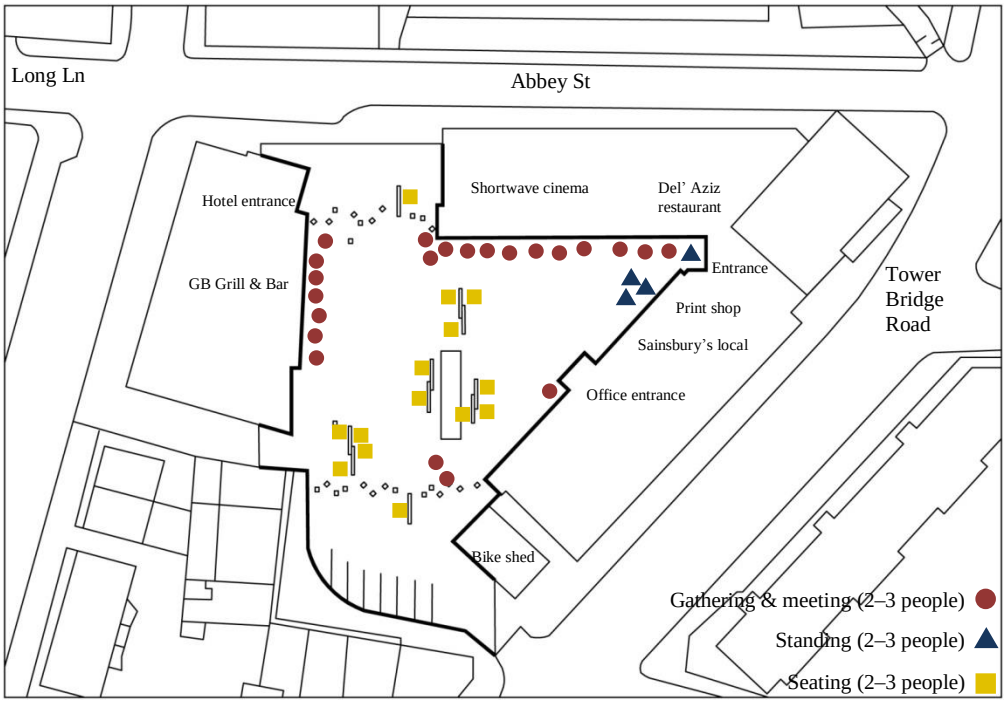


Figure 6-16: The types of activities at Bermondsey Square



Figure 6-17: Nodes and spatial qualities of Bermondsey Square

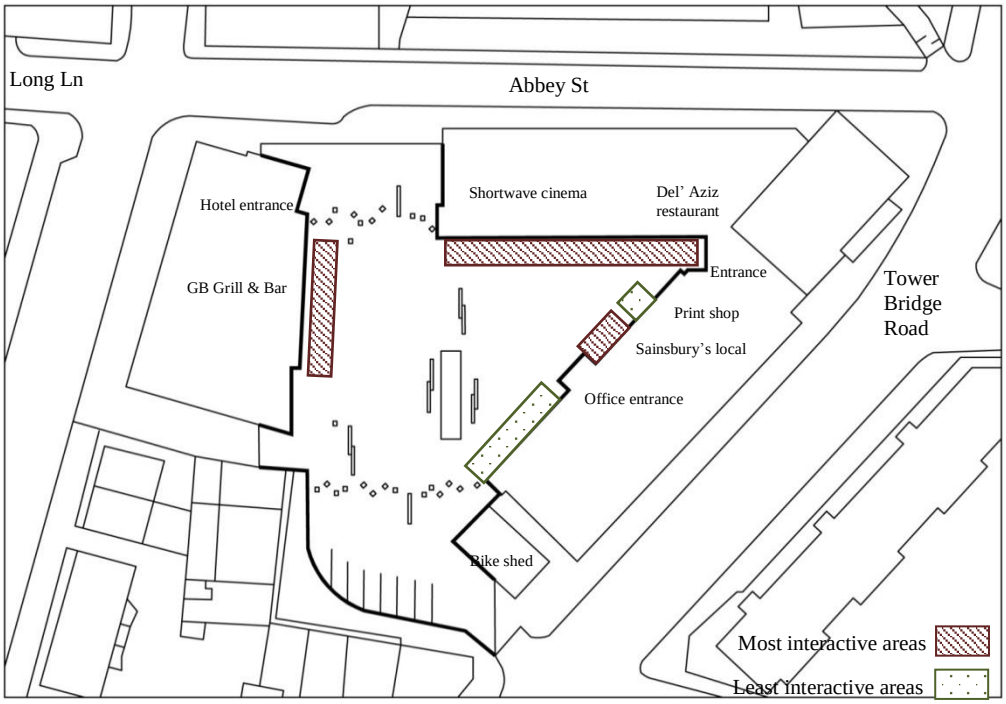


Figure 6-18: The analysis of social interactions at Bermondsey Square

As would be expected, these are also the most interactive places on weekend evenings, while the area along the office building is the least interactive (Figure 6-18). At weekends, the major arrival point is from the north entrance of the square because of the importance of Abbey Street;

in contrast, the southern edge of the square exhibits little interaction due to a physical barrier created by parked cars (Figure 6-19).

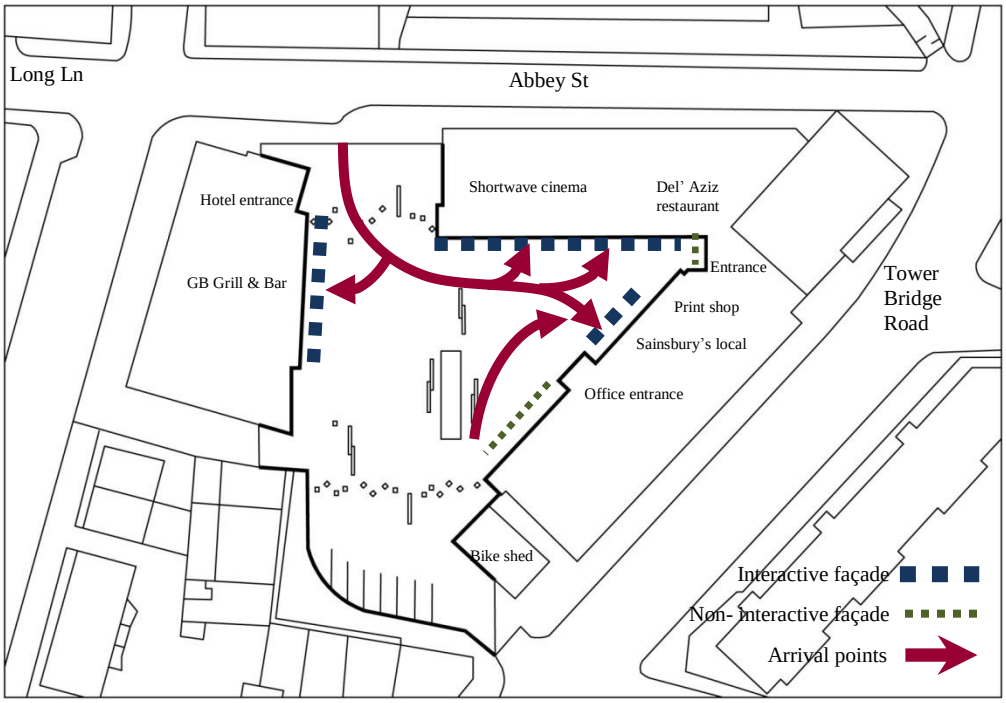


Figure 6-19: The analysis of socio-spatial values of Bermondsey Square

Third Theme of Site Observation

On a weekend afternoon, there is increased pedestrian flow to the middle of the square and the antique market. The most significant flow remains the connection between Abbey Street and Tower Bridge Road with around 904 pedestrians per hour. Users hardly deny the presence of the market and try to avoid walking through the stalls. It is rear to see someone walking through the square at that period without stopping to see some presented items at the market (Figure 6-20). The seating area loses its position as the favourite spot, while a large number of standing activities occur within the market area. Gathering and meeting activities remain along the edges of the square (Figure 6-21), though mostly when it is sunny and not windy.

Table 6-3: Data from the day that analysis work was undertaken

Date	19/06/2015
Time period of observation	11:30–13:30
Temperature and wind	21^0
Weather condition	Sunny

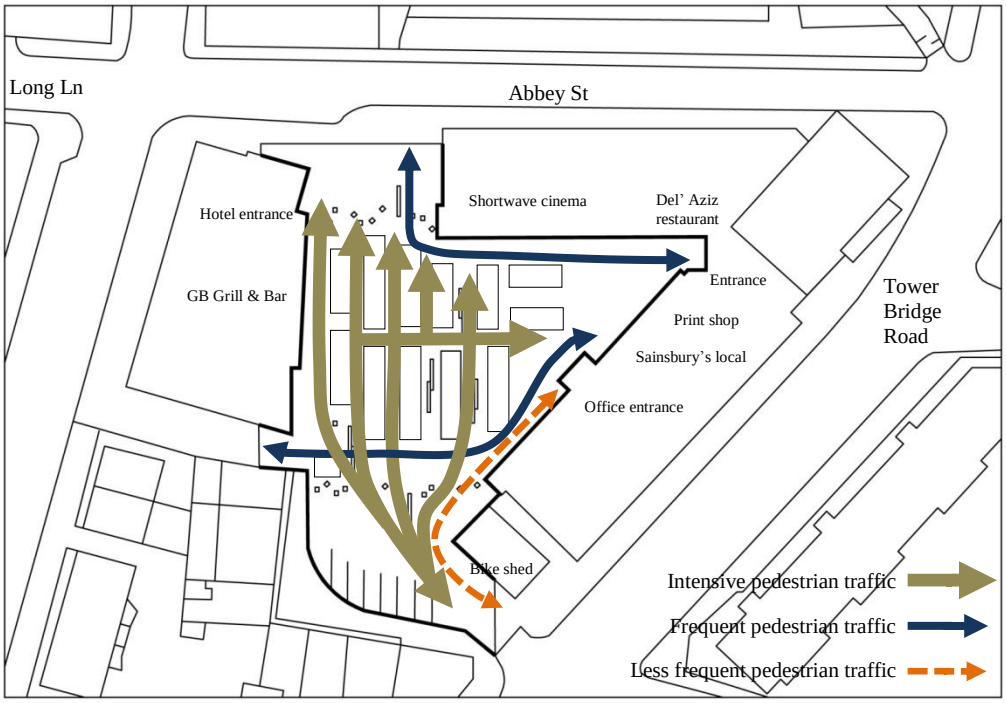


Figure 6-20: Pedestrian movement study of Bermondsey Square

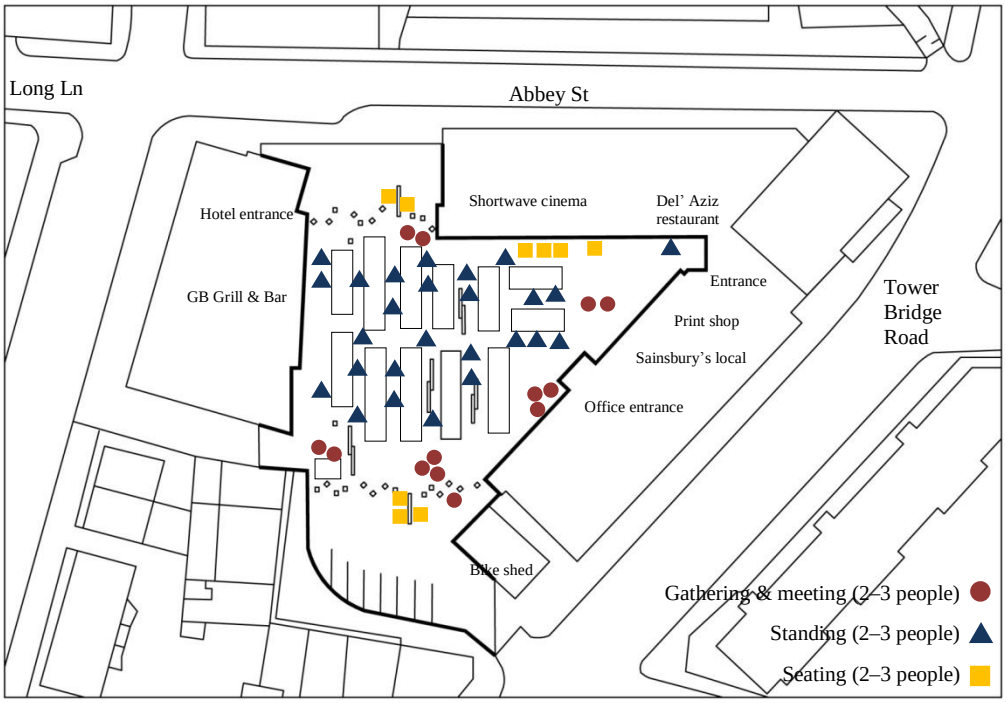


Figure 6-21: The type of activities at Bermondsey Square

The primary node for social interactions on weekend afternoons occurs in the middle of the square (Figure 6-22), which is the focal point for shopping and meeting with others. Secondary nodes occur along the edges of the vendor stalls, the entrance to the extension area of the market

inside the building and the allocated seating area for Del' Aziz restaurant and the front of Sainsbury's. As would be expected, the assigned space for the antique market is also the most interactive place on a weekend afternoon, while the area along the hotel, the office building, Shortwave Cinema and Café and GB Grill & Bar is the least interactive (Figure 6-23).

At weekends, the primary arrival point remains the north entrance of the square because of the importance of Abbey Street; in contrast, the southern edge of the square exhibits little interaction, due to a physical barrier created by parked cars (Figure 6-24). The interactive façade shows different patterns during these times, with the non-interactive façade during the week almost becoming the focal point for the relationship between space and façade on weekend afternoons.

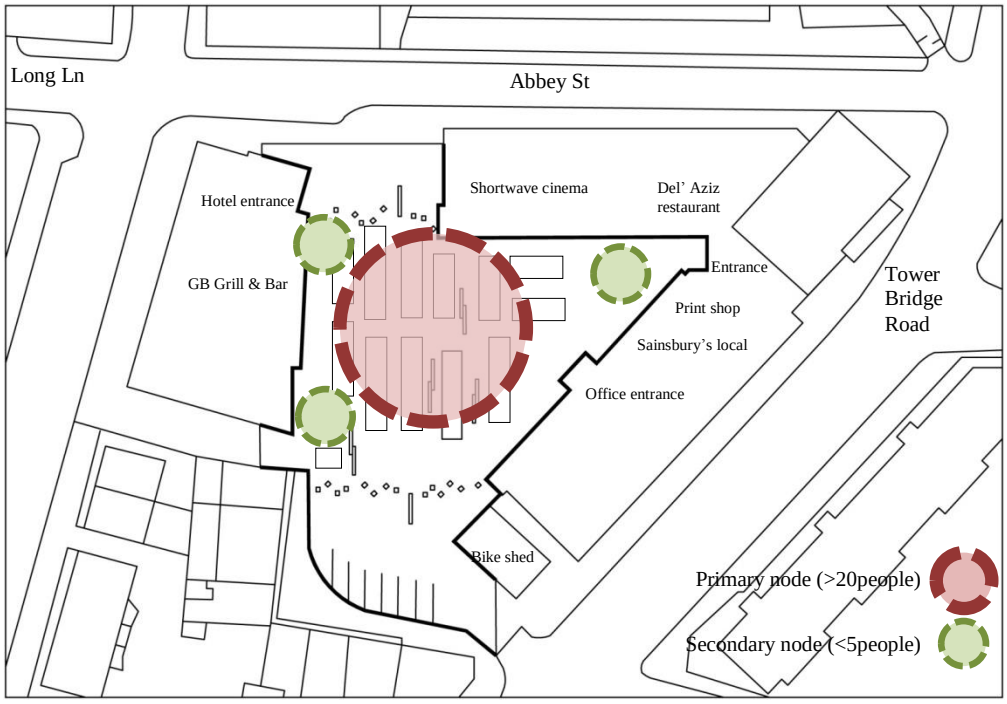


Figure 6-22: Nodes and spatial qualities of Bermondsey Square

The pattern of movement and activity in Bermondsey Square during weekdays, other than market days, is walking through the square (movement activity) along the path that connects Abbey Street (north) with Tower Bridge Road (south). The major arrival point is from the north entrance of the square, because of the importance of Abbey Street, towards Sainsbury's (Figure 6-24). The pattern of movement on weekends increases in terms of pedestrian flow to the middle of the square and the antique market. The most significant flow remains the connection between Abbey Street and Tower Bridge Road. The pattern of movement and

spatial interaction is a reflection of the physical realities of Bermondsey Square; forcing people in indirect ways to walk slowly and stay longer within the place enables the provision of activities.

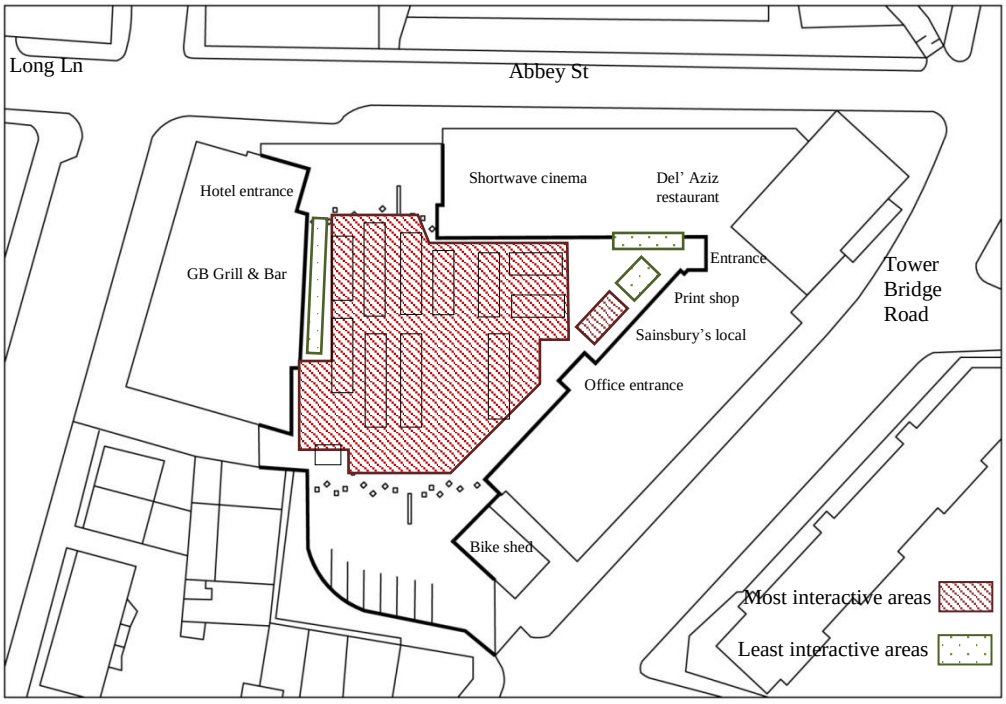


Figure 6-23: The analysis of social interactions in Bermondsey Square

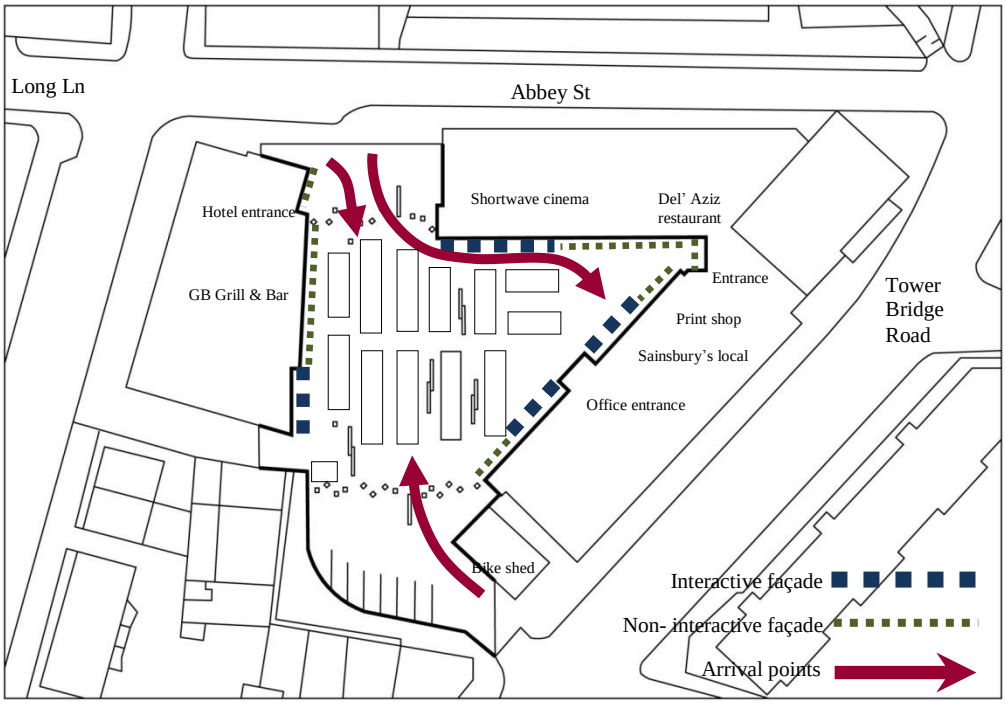


Figure 6-24: The analysis of socio-spatial values of Bermondsey Square

The findings suggest that walking contributes to connectivity as one quality of the physical environment. The findings also suggest that the number of people walking is increased by the activities that are taking place within this urban space. Walking enhances the social bonds within and between people and their urban environment (Mannarini et al., 2006). A study by Brown and Cropper (2001) shows that residents in walkable developments reported an increase in interacting and neighbourly behaviours such as socializing with neighbours. Gehl (2011) indicates that walking brings residents together and closer to their community. In a study by Lund (2003), a significant connection was found between social activities and walking. She emphasises the key role of pedestrianism in improving the sense of community in a neighbourhood.



Figure 6-25: The pattern of movement and activity in Bermondsey Square on weekdays

The most significant meeting point is the area in front of the entrance of Sainsbury's (Figure 6-25), which is the most socially interactive spot. Users meet at this area for a quick conversation with others from nearby areas when going into or coming out of the store. People tend to stay at the edge of space (Gehl and Svarre, 2013); a behavioural map demonstrate how people stay in selected areas of public space.

There are three spots in Bermondsey Square that users prefer when taking part in stationary activities. As noted above, the area near the entrance of Sainsbury's is the most popular meeting area. The second spot is at the entry of the office building where workers stand to smoke, and the third spot is on the edge of the square near the bike shed. Individuals stay there to chat, talk

on the phone, wait for friends or simply watch others (Figure 6-26). The most active edge of the square is located on the north side; it includes a cinema, a café, restaurants and bars. This edge supports the square by providing a communal activity centre for the neighbourhood. The ground level of Bermondsey Square encompasses large and small units with chairs and tables in front of the café, bar and restaurants, which animates the square during pleasant weather. Creating such a pattern of activities in Bermondsey Square stimulates others to stay longer and generates social interactions, whereas this pattern of activities is missing in the case of Empire Square.



Figure 6-26: Three areas that people at Bermondsey Square prefer to use while standing and meeting

The urban spaces contain all parts of the physical environment that people can use, increase their experience or have access to these areas. The façades of surrounding buildings that frame public space are associated with quality public space in contributing to the social interaction

and increasing the vitality of space. The findings suggest that providing an inclusive environment for social and recreational interactions, as well as high-quality public space and connectivity to allow pedestrian movement, all contribute to the sense of place. The findings advocate well-designed urban space that has the potential to be seen as central areas for interactions in cities. Good urban design that includes dense nodes, public space, mixed use and high-quality surrounding buildings, is essential for attracting residents and users and offering them a better quality of life.

The data obtained from the behavioural analysis of the Bermondsey Square shows that the stationary activities occur mostly at lunchtime on weekdays, except market days, and takes place in the seating areas around the square. The benches are fully occupied, especially in nice weather. The outcomes of the analysis shows the dominance of the antique market when the square fills with life on Fridays with a mixture of residents and a small number of tourists. During the weekend, the farmers market animates the square and is associated with the most active edges. The antique market has sparked a neighbourhood revitalisation and fostered vitality. Browsing and walking around the stalls are the most popular activities occurring, while conversations between sellers and buyers also take place at times. The provision of mobile food units allows people to stay for a longer time by providing food and drink for them on-site. Pleasant weather conditions increase the number of people in the square, especially when the antique market is open. However, the market goes ahead even in the rain, and it is striking how many people are still there despite inclement weather (Figure 6-27).

The existence of both farmers and antiques markets ensures that human behaviour is influenced by the meaning and identity of the place, based not only on what the place represents but also on its continuously changing image (Featherstone et al., 1995). The data show that the number of users increase when the markets are open. This particular use complements the existing facilities in the development and strengthens the place's attractiveness. Providing an appropriate space for such an activity to take place within the development is considered an example of a good-quality urban design solution. A CABE and DETR (2001: 76) study suggests that 'good urban design supports the "life giving" uses in developments (cafes, shops, pubs, etc.), elements which were seen as important in projecting a contemporary image and in attracting occupants'. The findings indicate that places that change activities and events regularly over time have an impact on the sense of place, and this is certainly true in Bermondsey Square. Public spaces often play an essential role as locations for socialising with

others and accessing specific activities. They play crucially social functions in many areas of a city ; attracting that volume of human traffic is a critical component that can enhance dragging activities and trading at the site (Carr et al., 1993).



Figure 6-27: The Antiques Market takes place in different weather conditions throughout the year

The use of lighting at Bermondsey Square increases safety and highlights the identity of the area. It contributes to the sense of security of the place and encourages pedestrians to walk through the space without encountering intervals of darkness. The degree of openness aids in increasing the visual accessibility, which is a key benefit for an easier and safer walking route through the square. A few studies advocate the opposite claim, that activity within public

spaces cause users to lose confidence in using the space where there are poor pathways, insufficient lighting and the lack of a sense of safety (McIndoe et al., 2005).

The provision of facilities leads people who are inside the café, restaurants and bars to monitor the activities at the square and enhance safety. These facilities not only increase the visibility of people in the square but also make users feel safe and not isolated. Moreover, the design of the square maximises visual accessibility due to the orientation of the buildings and their degree of openness to the surroundings (Figure 6-28). To sum up, good design of the layout of open space is paramount to providing well-being, serves to increase safety and security and enhances community cohesion (DETR and CABE, 2003).



Figure 6-28: CCTV surveillance within Bermondsey Square

6.2.2 Social Analysis: Questionnaire Data

As stated above, diversity in age, culture, income and occupation is important for any stable urban system. Bermondsey Square shows a high presence of young people (aged 18–29), and also a considerable number of elderly people (Figure 6-29), who often come for the antique market. On the other hand, Empire Square shows also a highs presence of young people (age 18–29) using the square due to the gym memberships but the elderly are very poorly represented. The majority of interviewees live more than two miles away from the square (Figure 6-30), and the most frequent visitors use the square as a throughway to where they work or study (Figure 6-31). If designed well, small urban spaces can be energetic and encourage people to use them (Whyte, 1980).

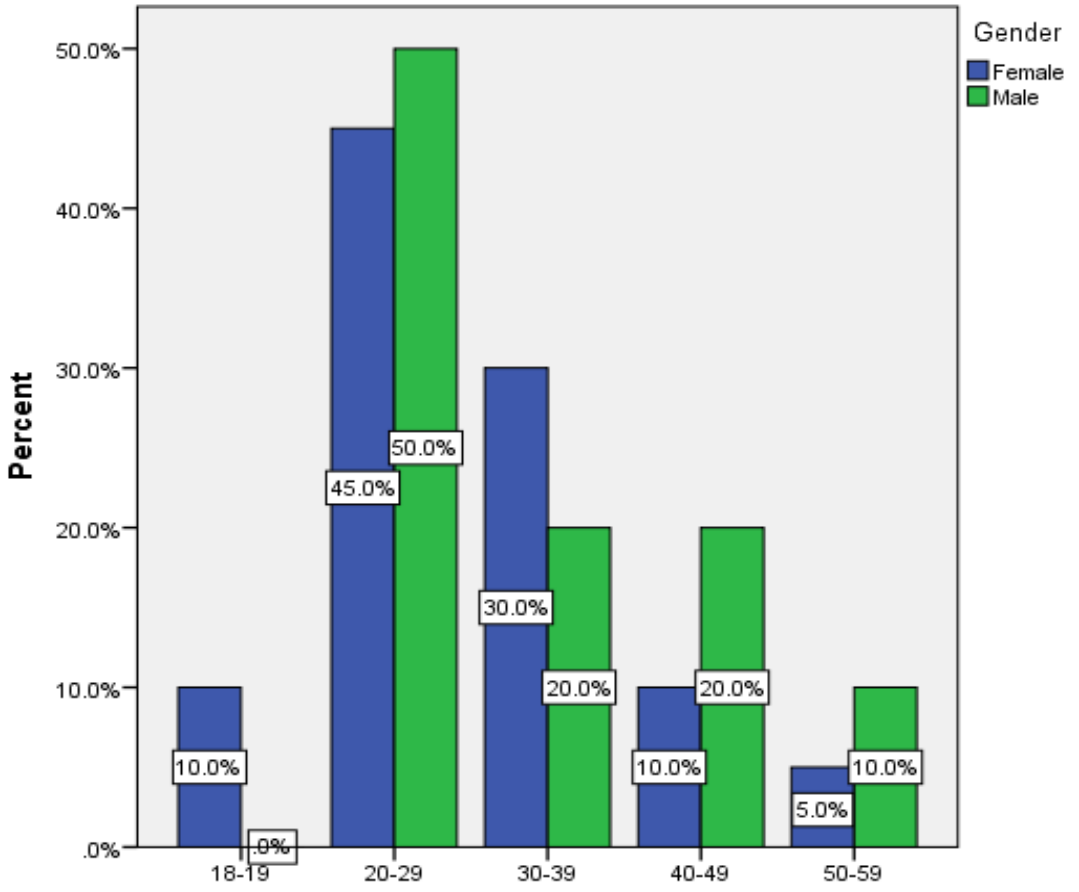


Figure 6-29: Age and gender of local users of Bermondsey Square

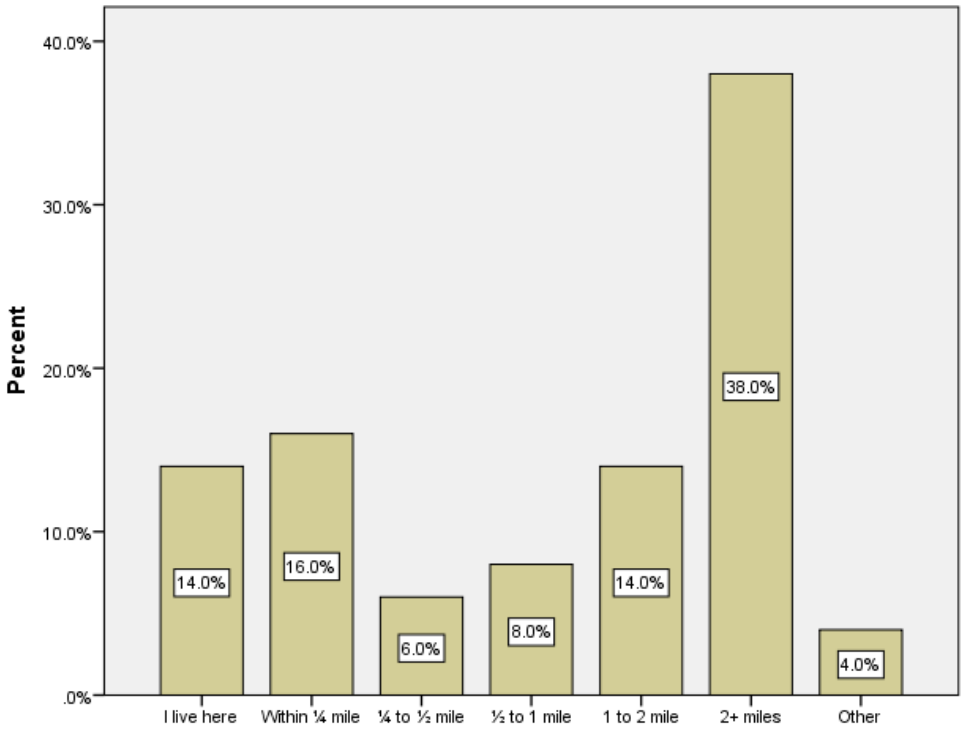


Figure 6-30: Distance from home to Bermondsey Square

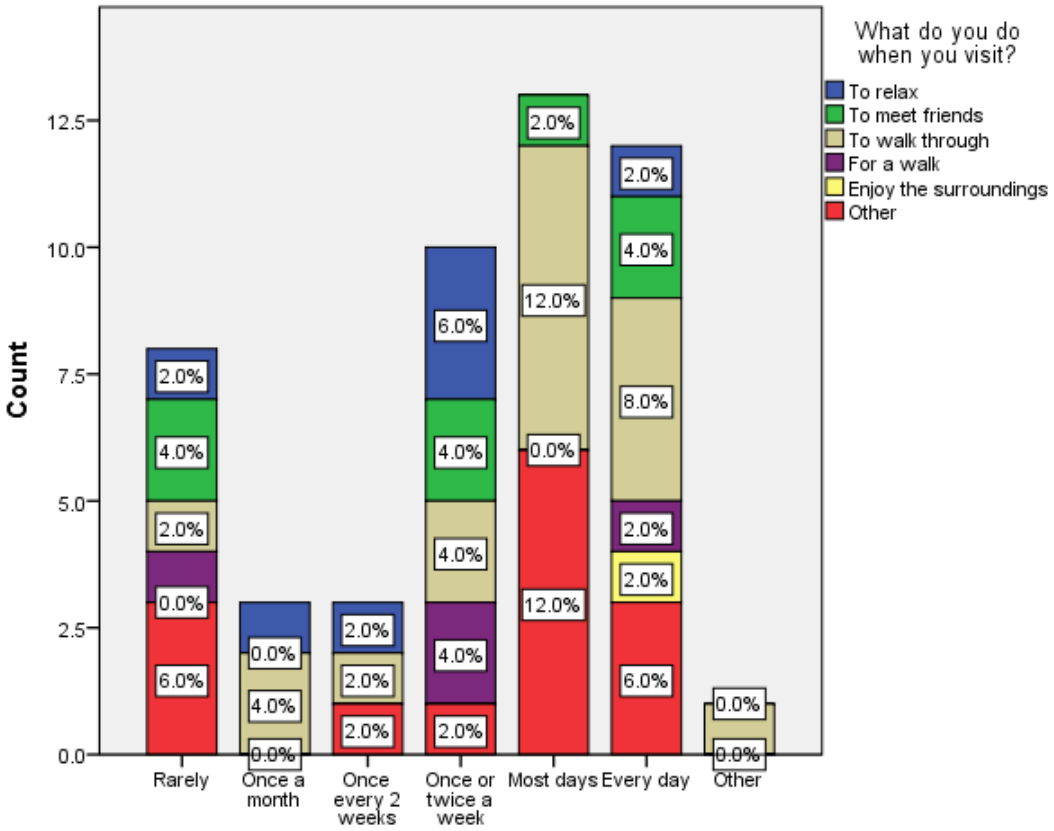


Figure 6-31: The purpose and frequency of visiting Bermondsey Square

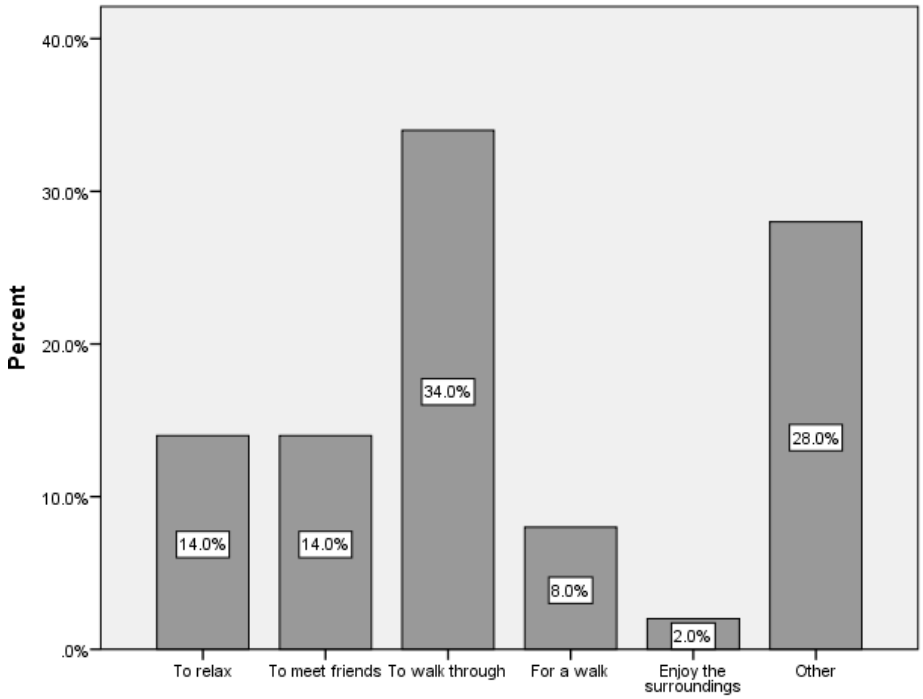


Figure 6-32: The purpose of visiting Bermondsey Square

The questionnaires indicate that walking through and leisure activities are the most popular reasons for visiting the square (Figure 6-32). This is especially true at weekends, when the antique and farmers markets occur. In the case of Empire Square, The majority of participants live either inside the development or within 250 m from it and many of them stated that they use the square because of its proximity to where they live. People who live more than two miles away from Empire Square visited mainly because they study or work nearby. The necessary activities dominate the daily use of Empire Square and social activities were not particularly significant, due to the edges of buildings and the degree of enclosure.

While 58% of interviewees spent less than 30 minutes in the square, 28% of interviewees spent longer (Figure 6-33). The variation shows some relationship with the outdoor activities on offer. On the other hand, 48% of interviewees stay in Empire Square for a short period (less than 30 minutes), and 28% come to use the gym rather than the square itself.

The data shows that 80% of interviewees reach Bermondsey Square on foot (Figure 6-34), with 72% having a journey of less than 10 minutes (Figure 6-35). 48% come from home and 48% from work (Figure 6-34). There are 40% of interviewees who visit Bermondsey Square alone, while 50% visit both alone and with others (Figure 6-36). Companions are mainly colleagues and friends, rather than family members or partners (Figure 6-37).

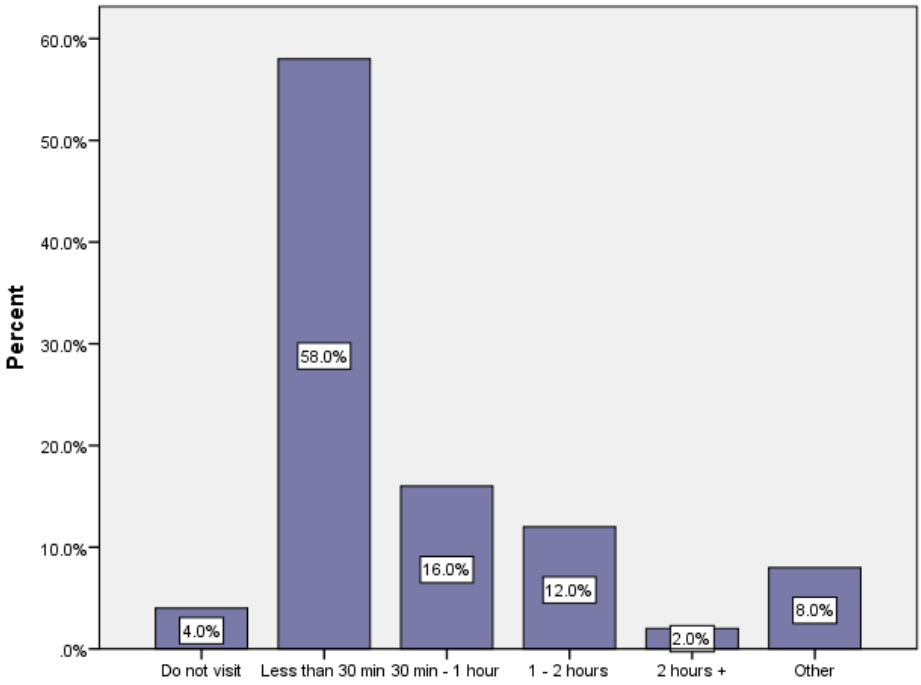


Figure 6-33: The duration of visits to Bermondsey Square

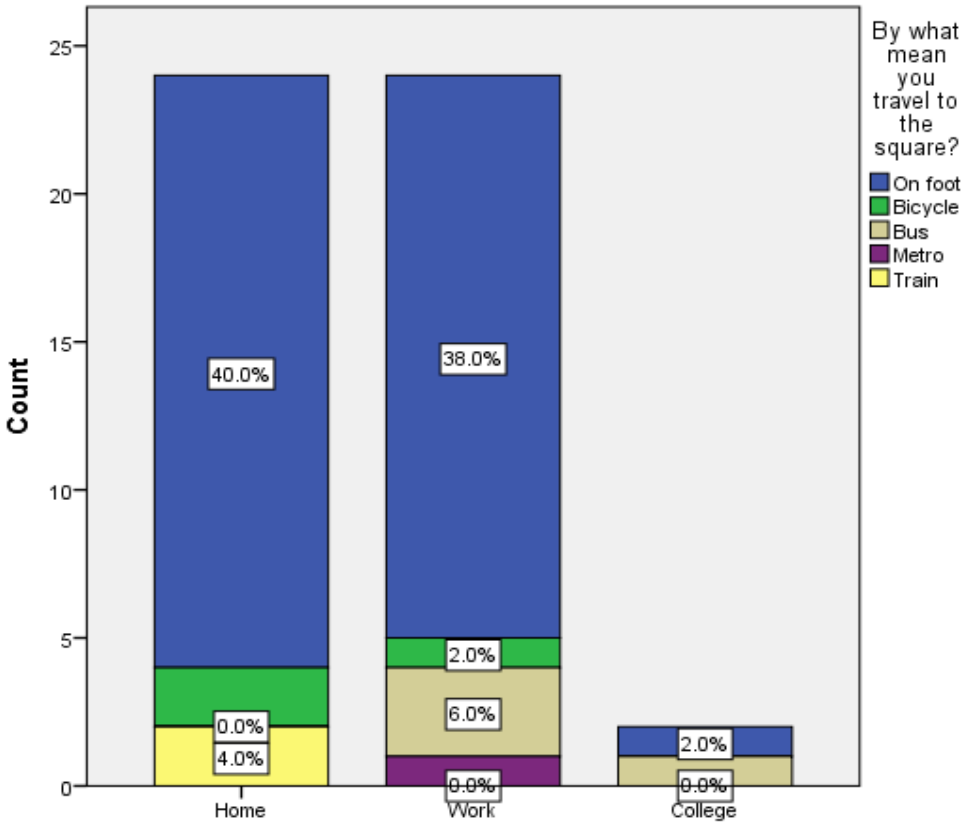


Figure 6-34: From where and by what means people come to Bermondsey Square

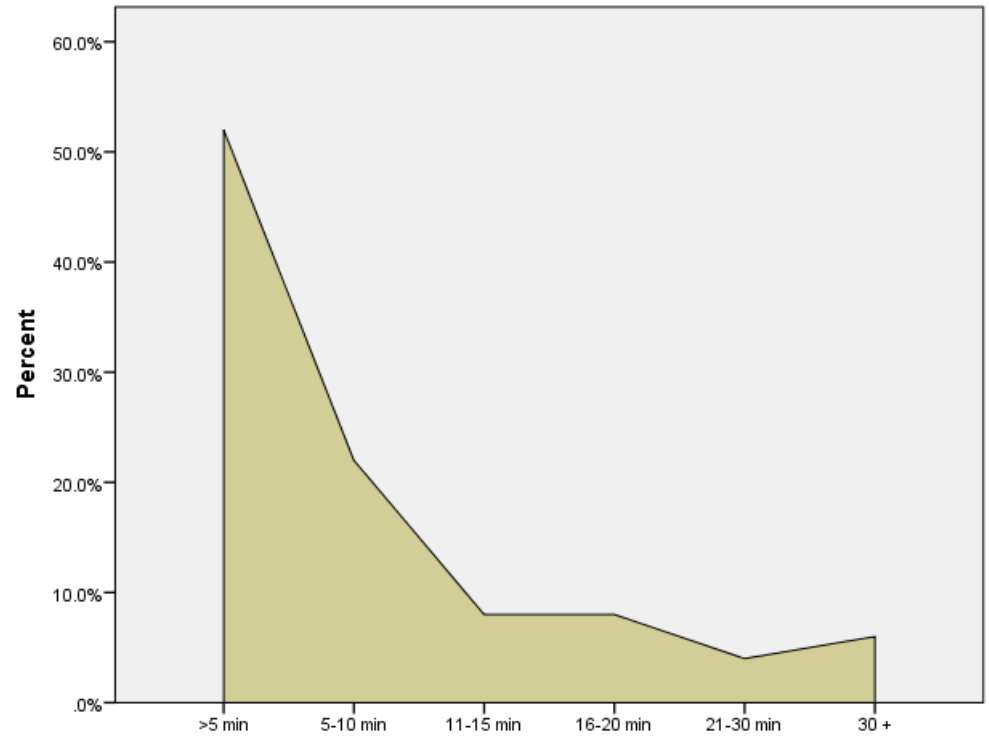


Figure 6-35: The duration of the journey to Bermondsey Square

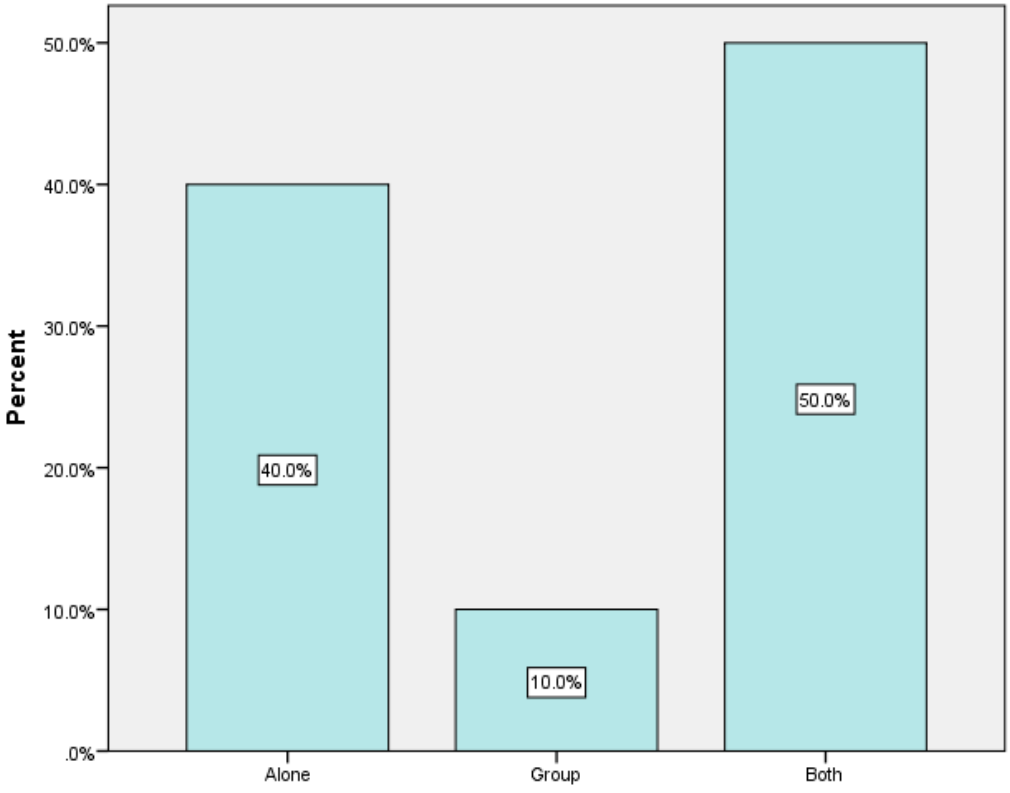


Figure 6-36: Visiting Bermondsey Square alone or in a group

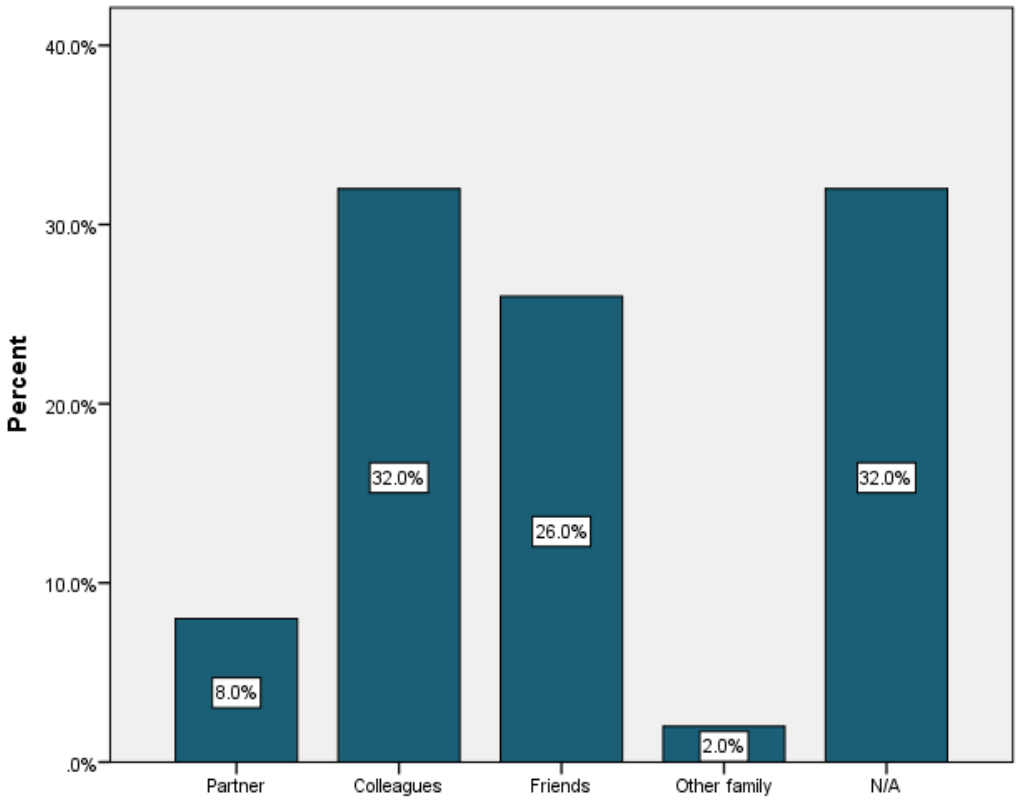


Figure 6-37: Bermondsey Square users

Some interviewees preferred to spend time at alternative places, while others saw a lack of facilities; however, the majority of participants marked this question as not applicable, because they enjoyed visiting (Figure 6-38). Users mainly saw the square as spacious and empty in January (Figure 6-39). Although many people wanted to see more seating and green areas (Figure 6-40), users rated the square highly for its accessibility and sociability (Figure 6-41). In similarity, 44% of people suggested adding more seating in Empire Square can increase the number of people who use the space even though the square provides a considerable amount of seating. It appears that the strongest characteristic of the square was its multi-use design, with users also seeing it as interesting and sociable (Figure 6-42). Most participants also agreed that the square is highly inclusive (Figure 6-43). While participants see Empire Square as clean and accessible, they do not see the square as an arena for social activities. Moreover, the square's interesting design was seen as a unique feature by 28% of interviewees.

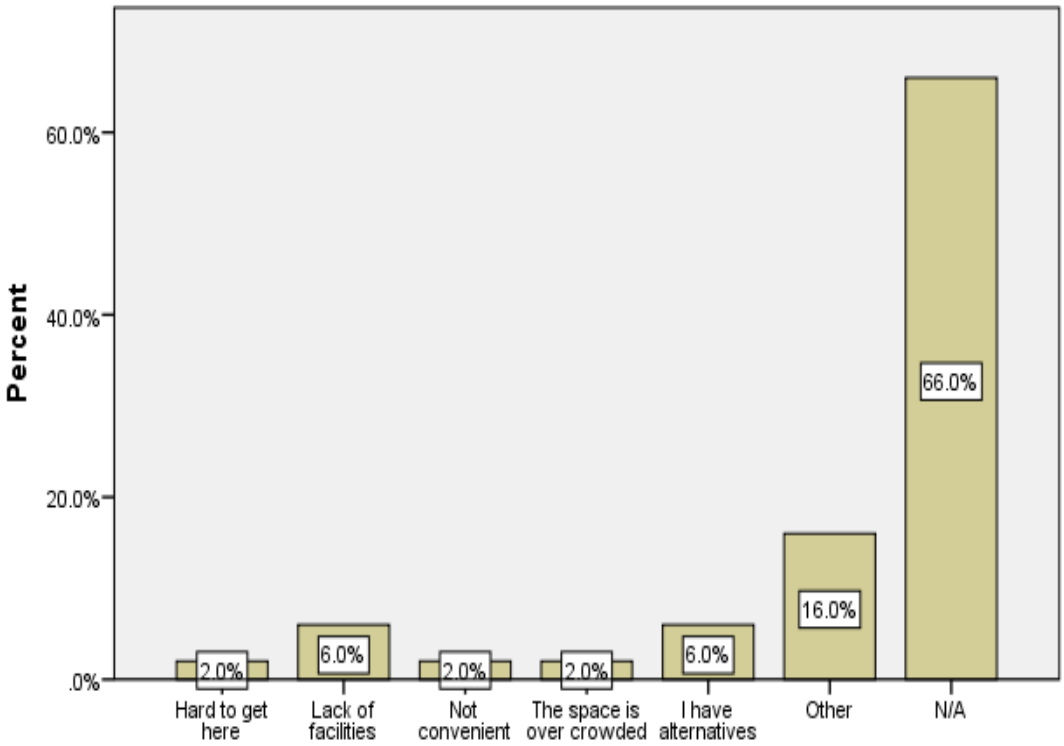


Figure 6-38: Reasons why people do not like visiting Bermondsey Square

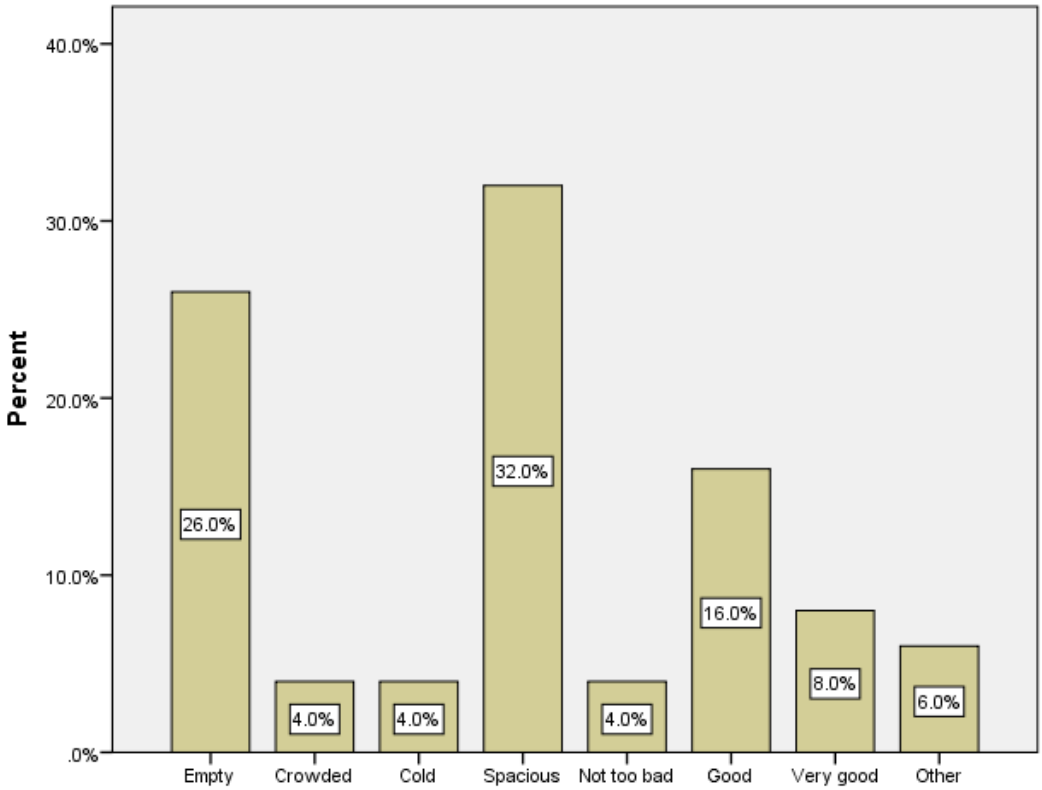


Figure 6-39: Users' impressions of Bermondsey Square

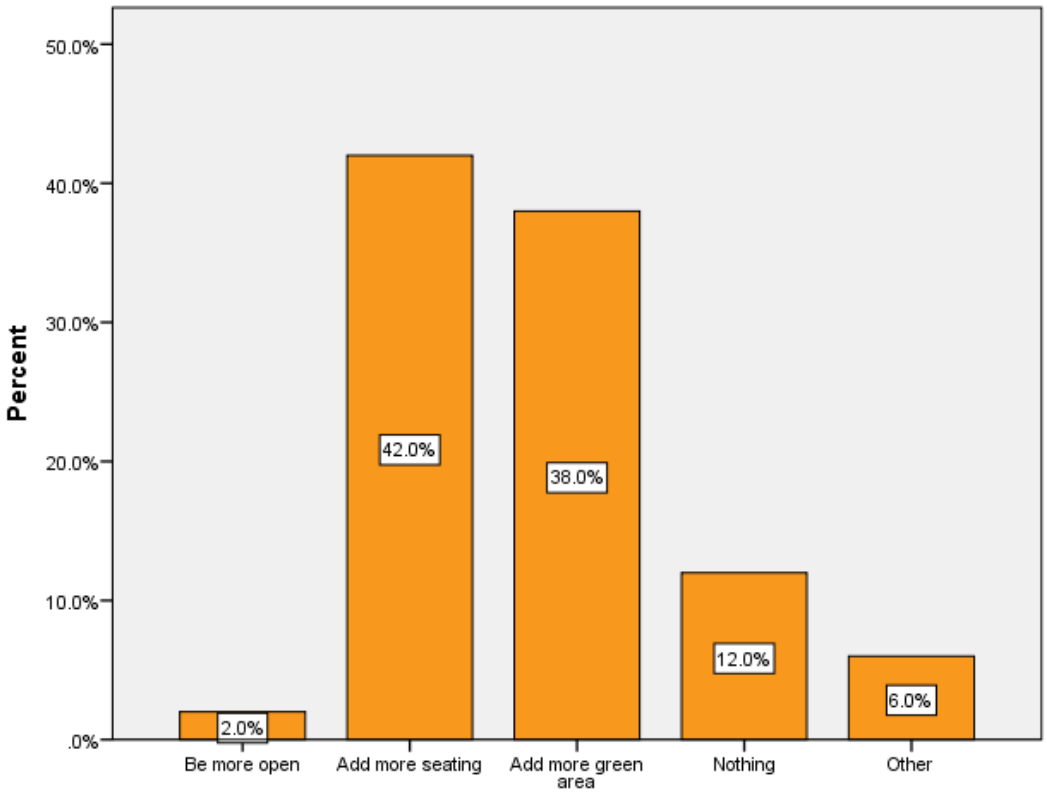


Figure 6-40: What people would like to change in Bermondsey Square?

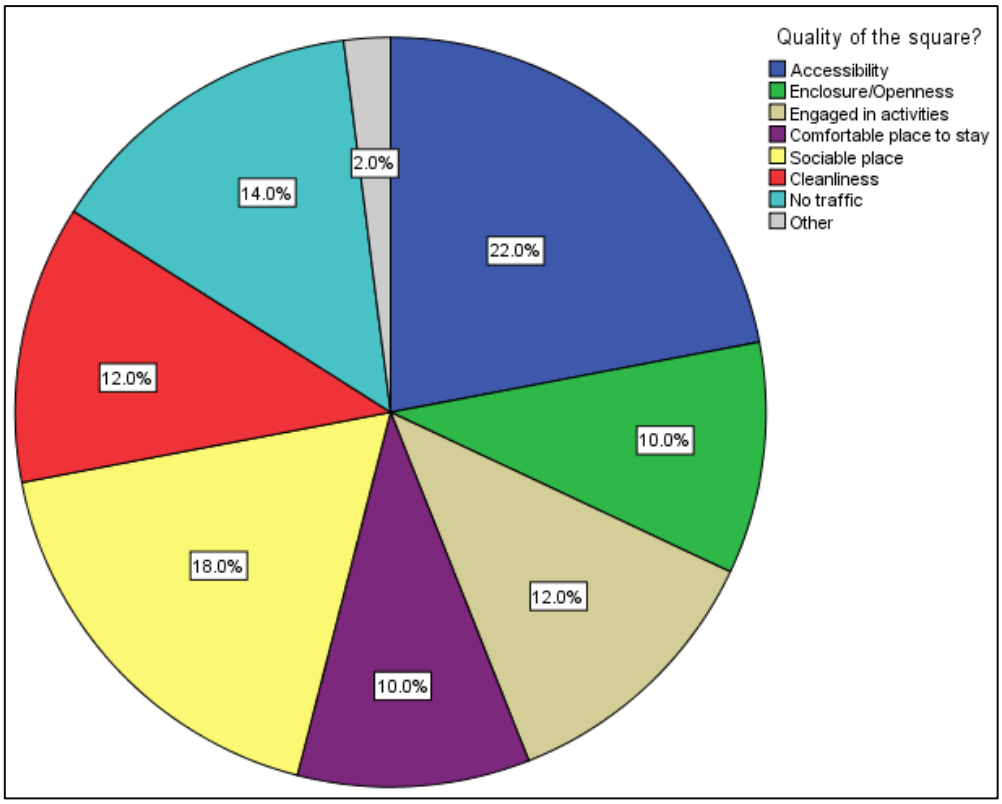


Figure 6-41: The quality of Bermondsey Square

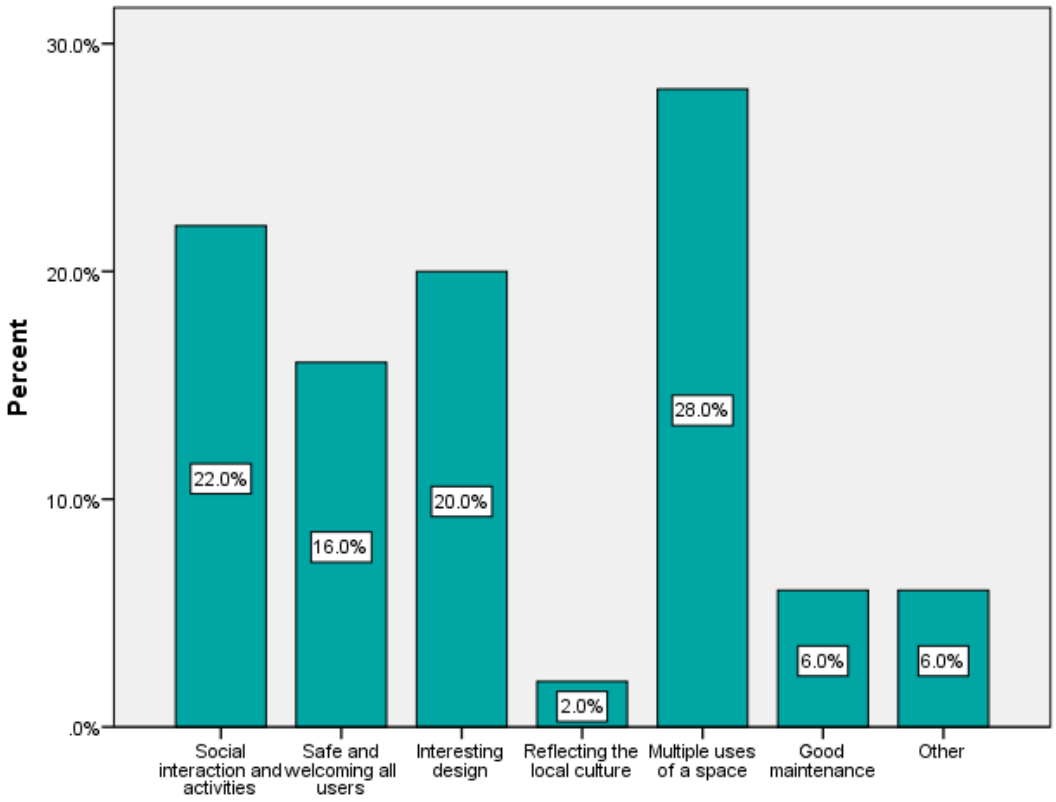


Figure 6-42: The unique character of Bermondsey Square

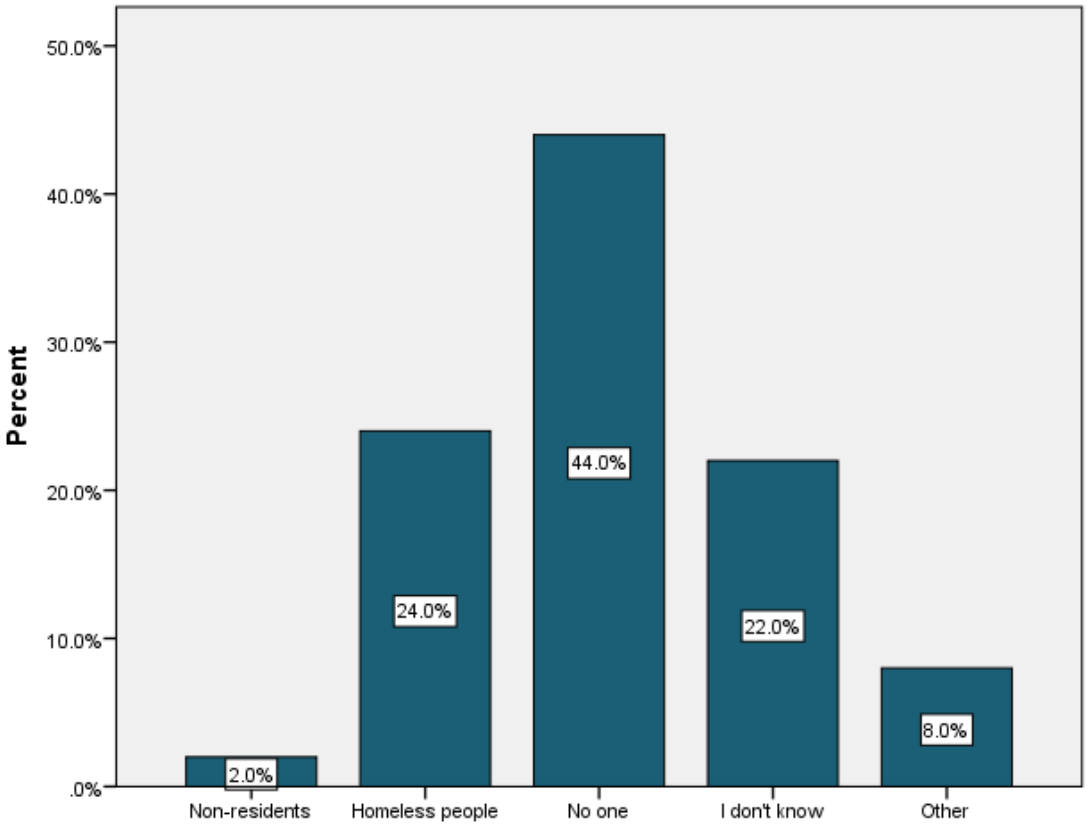


Figure 6-43: Users excluded from Bermondsey Square

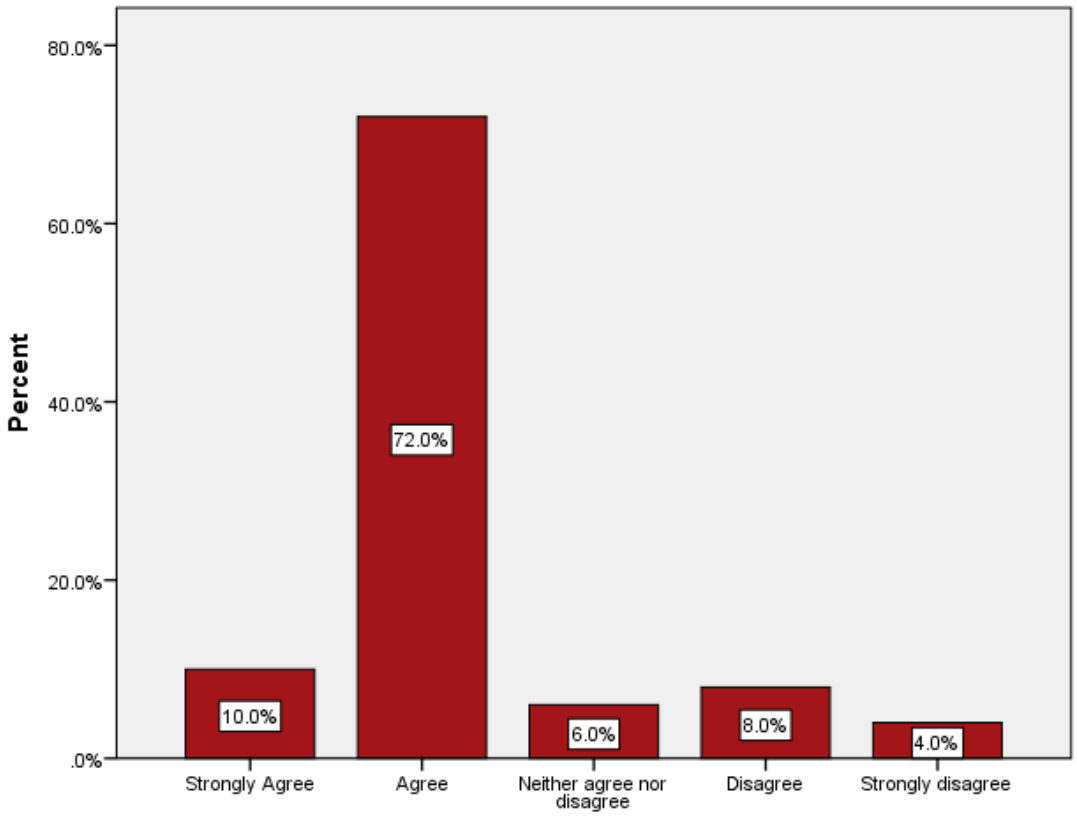


Figure 6-44: Attractiveness of Bermondsey Square

The data illustrates that 82% of interviewees agreed that Bermondsey Square is attractive (Figure 6-44). This supports the idea that good design can improve social interactions and enrich a sense of place(CABE, 2005). Moreover, 86% of interviewees agreed that Bermondsey Square was freely accessible (Figure 6-45) due to its connections to surrounding streets. There are 62% of interviewees who agreed that the development contributed to the identity of the local context (Figure 6-46), and 62% credited it with promoting civic pride (Figure 6-47). Also, 60% of participants viewed the square as an active and lively place (Figure 6-48) and 64% found it welcoming (Figure 6-49), whereas only 28% of participant agreed that Empire Square is active and liveable during the day. Many people thought all users were welcome in Empire Square, but 32% suggested that homeless people were excluded as well as 16% of participants agreed that non-residents were excluded.

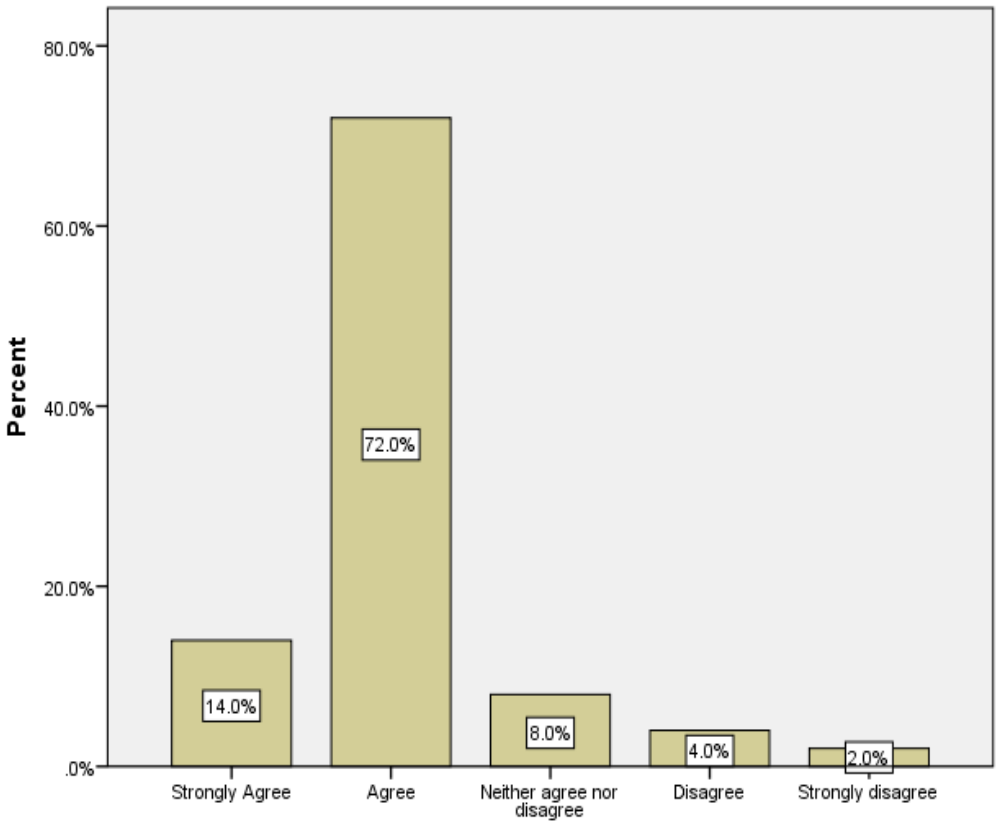


Figure 6-45: Accessibility of Bermondsey Square

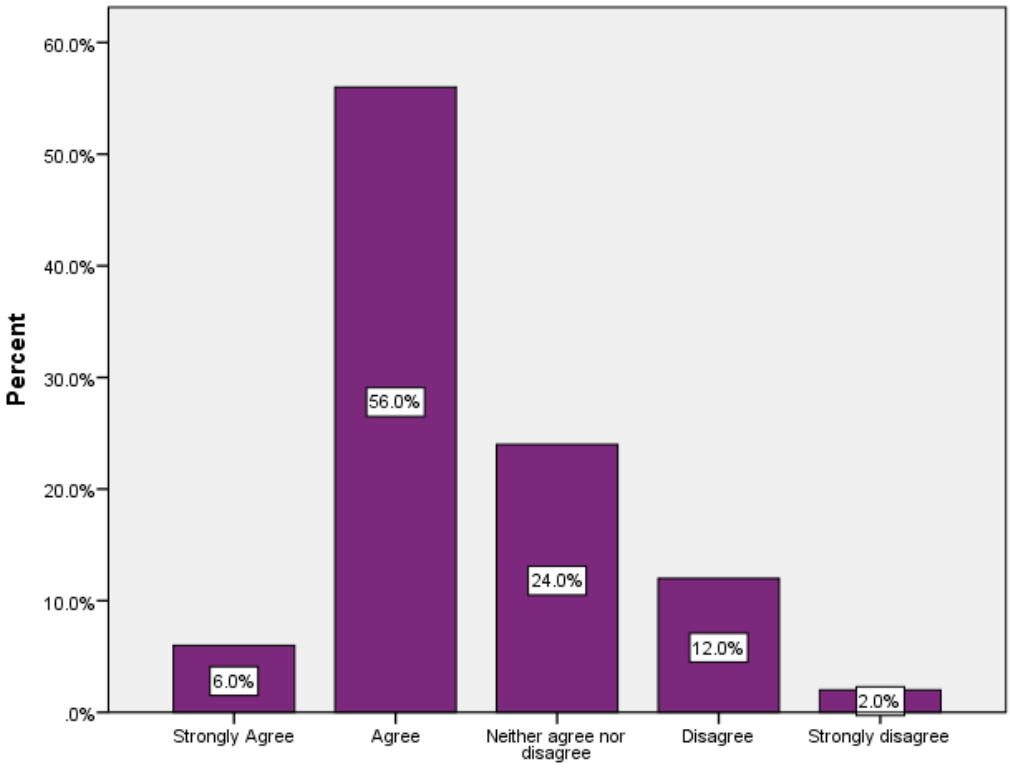


Figure 6-46: Bermondsey Square's contribution to the identity of the local context

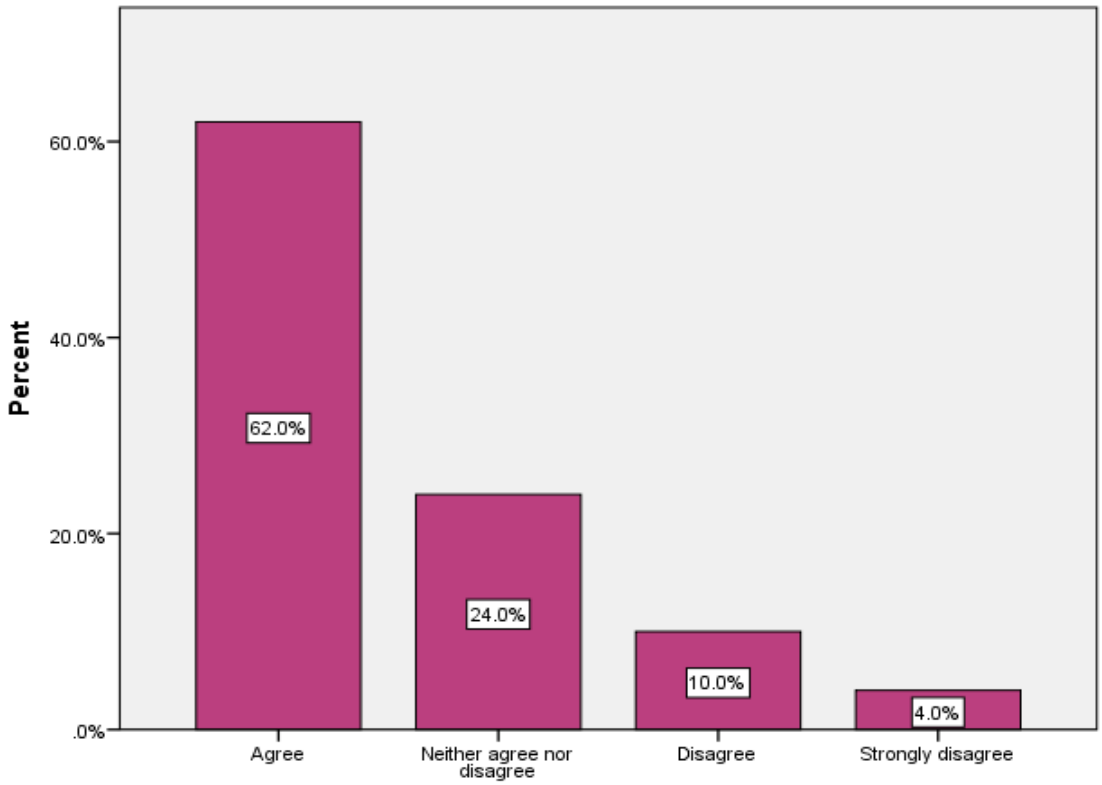


Figure 6-47: The role of Bermondsey Square in promoting civic pride

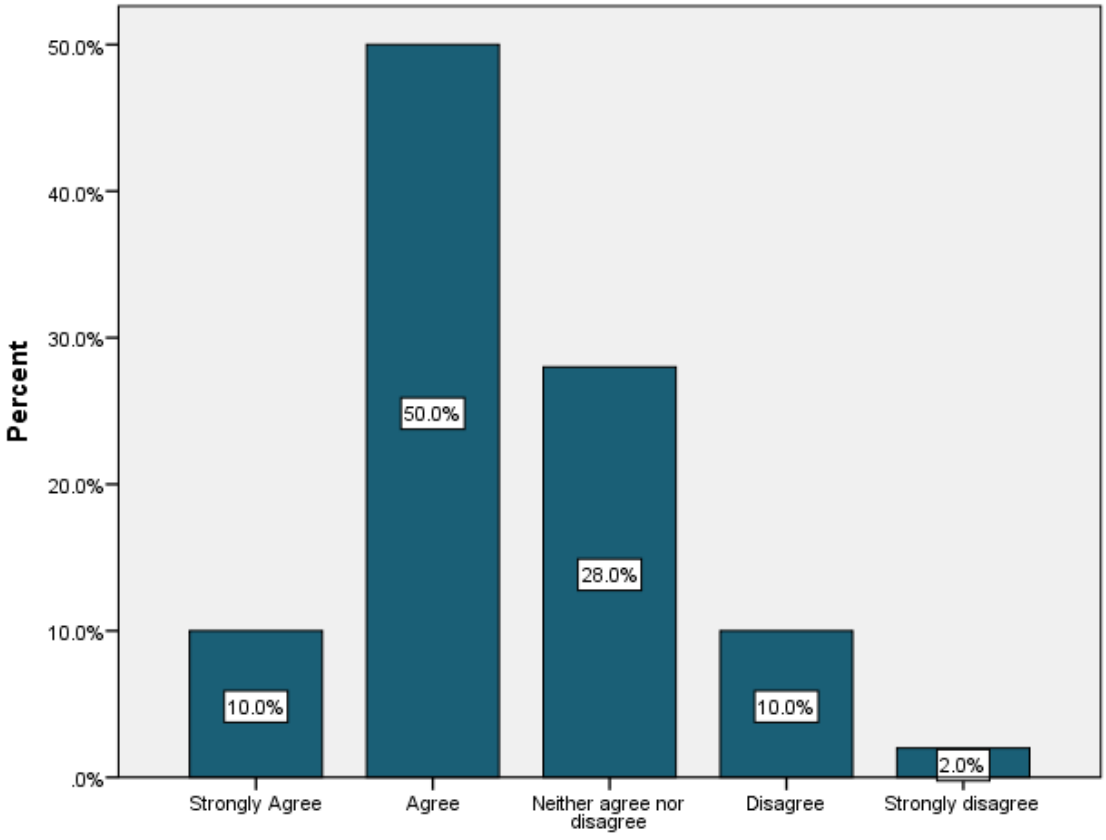


Figure 6-48: Activeness of Bermondsey Square

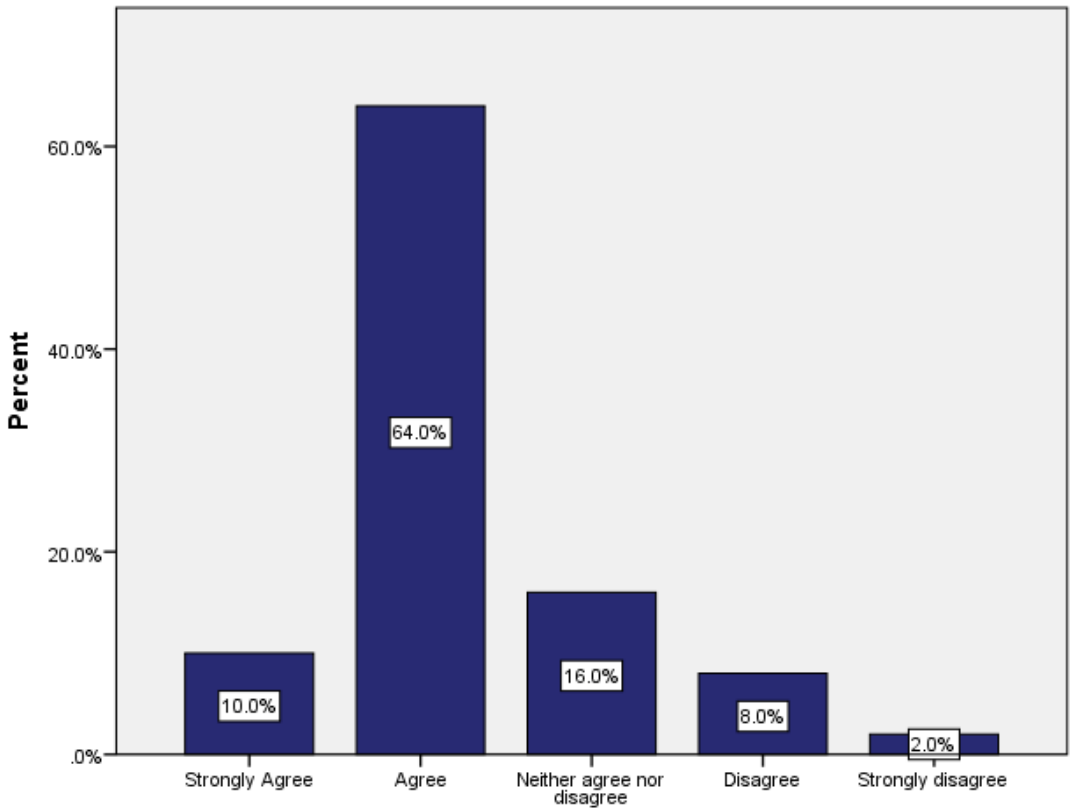


Figure 6-49: The design of Bermondsey Square welcomes all people

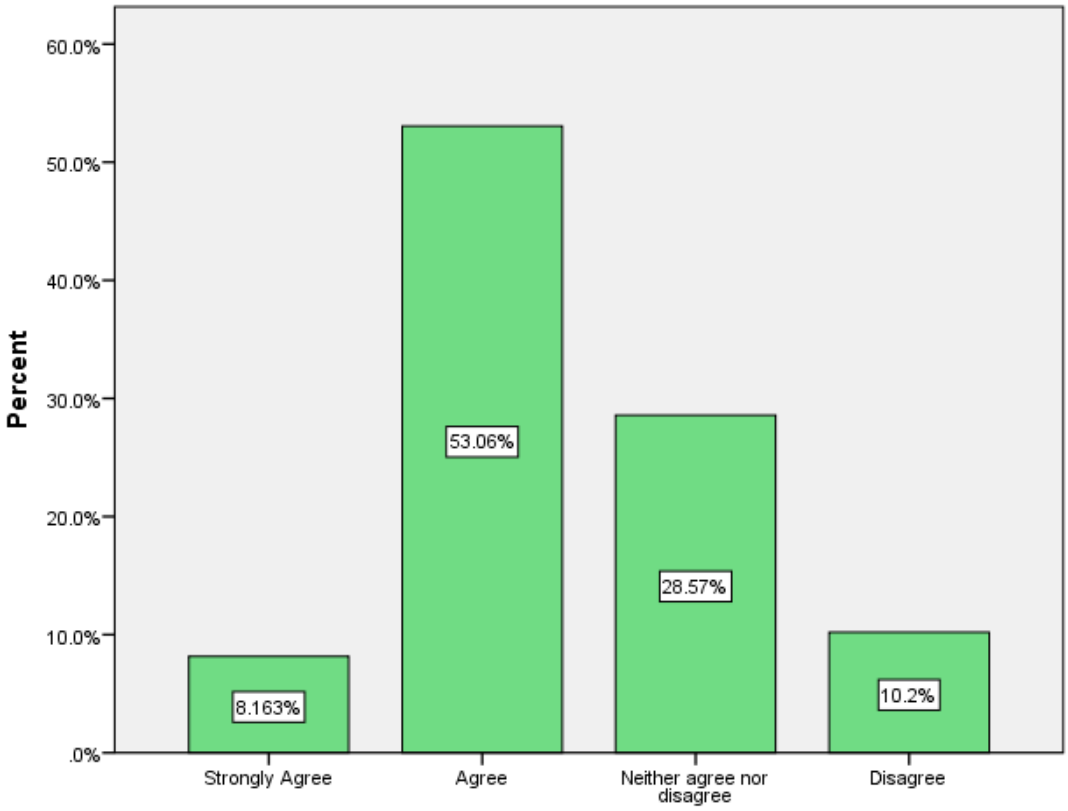


Figure 6-50: The design of Bermondsey Square affects vitality

A majority (61%) of interviewees thought that the design of the square impacted its vitality (Figure 6-50), indicating that building edges and ground-floor frontages are important. Edges define a space and can provide a sense of organisation, well-being and safety, while ground-floor frontages link the outside with the inside and provide opportunities for indoor activities to spread outside (Gehl, 2010). On the other hand, only 44% of participants agreed that the design of Empire Square has affected the vitality of the place in a positive way. 70% of users agreed that the square influenced their feelings (Figure 6-51), while 68% saw the square as improving connectivity with the surrounding area (Figure 6-52). A majority (80%) of users agreed that the square improved the supply and quality of amenities in the local context (Figure 6-53), a key indicator of vitality. On the other hand, 38% of interviewees agreed that Empire Square contributes to the local supply and quality of amenities. There are 78% of interviewees who agree that Bermondsey Square encouraged the community to use the space in their free time (Figure 6-54), and 42% agreed that it generates community cohesion (Figure 6-55). However, 24% disagreed with this assertion and 34% found it difficult to give an opinion. The results of the case of Bermondsey Square provided insights into the square's daily visitors, when 50% of participants indicated that they came to Bermondsey Square on a daily basis (Figure 6-56). This shows that most users come to the square because they live or work nearby. The data also signify that some users visit the square once or twice a week, largely because of the markets that take place there. The cross-analysis indicates that the most frequent visitors used the square as a throughway to where they work or study.

Despite the substantial percentage of people using the square only as a throughway, the number of people standing or sitting in the square is also significant. Most of the uses of the square are leisure activities, which is one of the most popular reasons for visiting the square (Figure 6-57). The findings suggest that the mix of leisure and retail uses available in Bermondsey Square was valued by visitors and residents. Walking is an easy means of transportation that offers complex possibilities for people to be present in public areas. It requires sufficient space to walk reasonably without any barriers (Gehl, 2011). The balance between the different uses in Bermondsey Square occurs due to management's vision in operating the place. According to Gehl (2011), it is necessary to focus on the design details to increase the possibilities of people's staying in public spaces. He expresses that if the space has no street furniture and the façade has no interesting details, it is challenging to encourage people to stop.

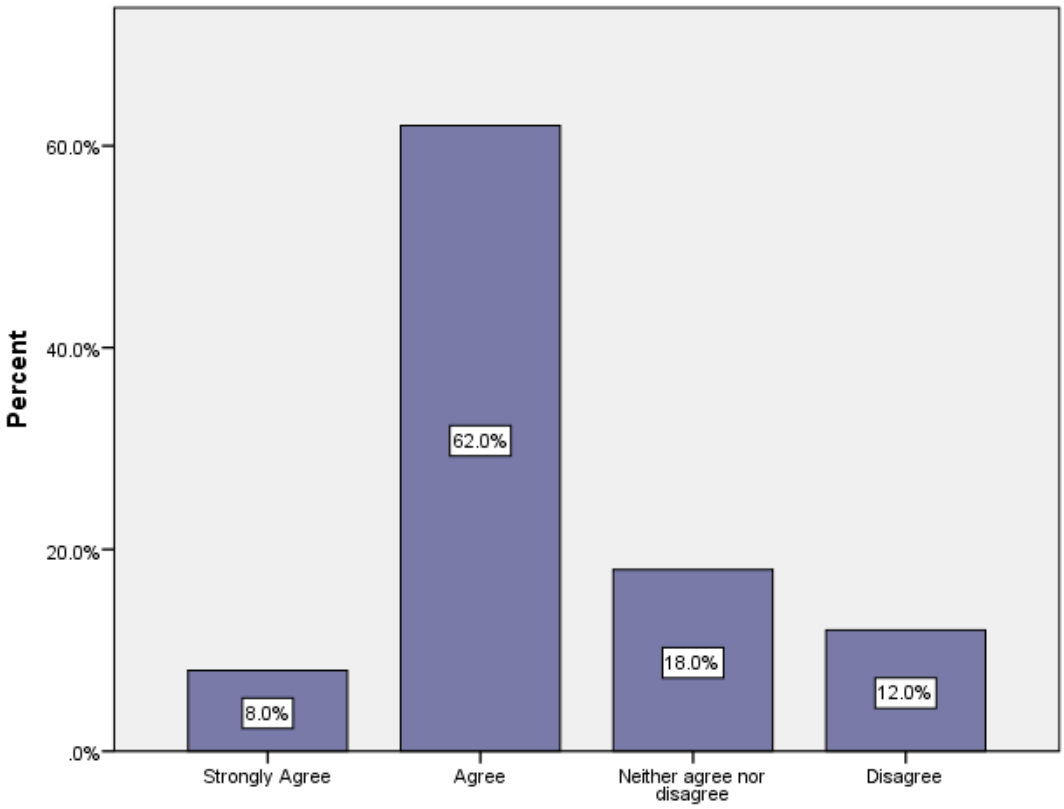


Figure 6-51: The role of Bermondsey Square in affecting social well-being

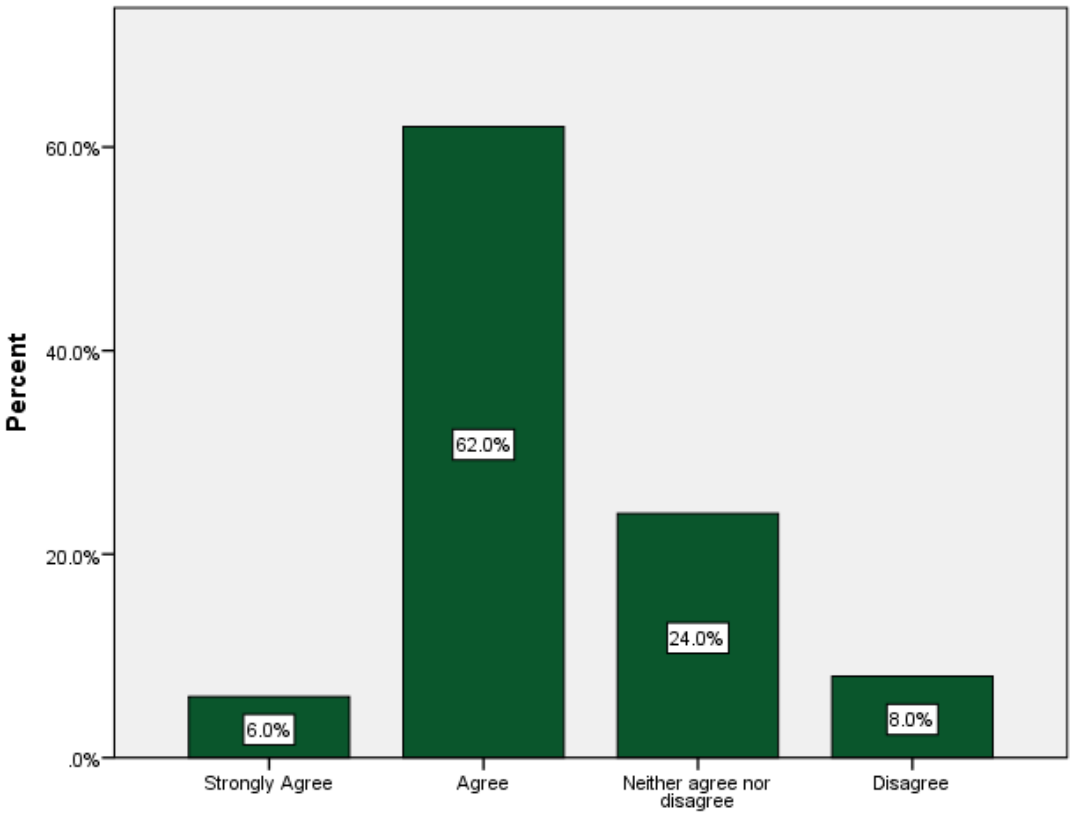


Figure 6-52: Bermondsey Square improves connectivity

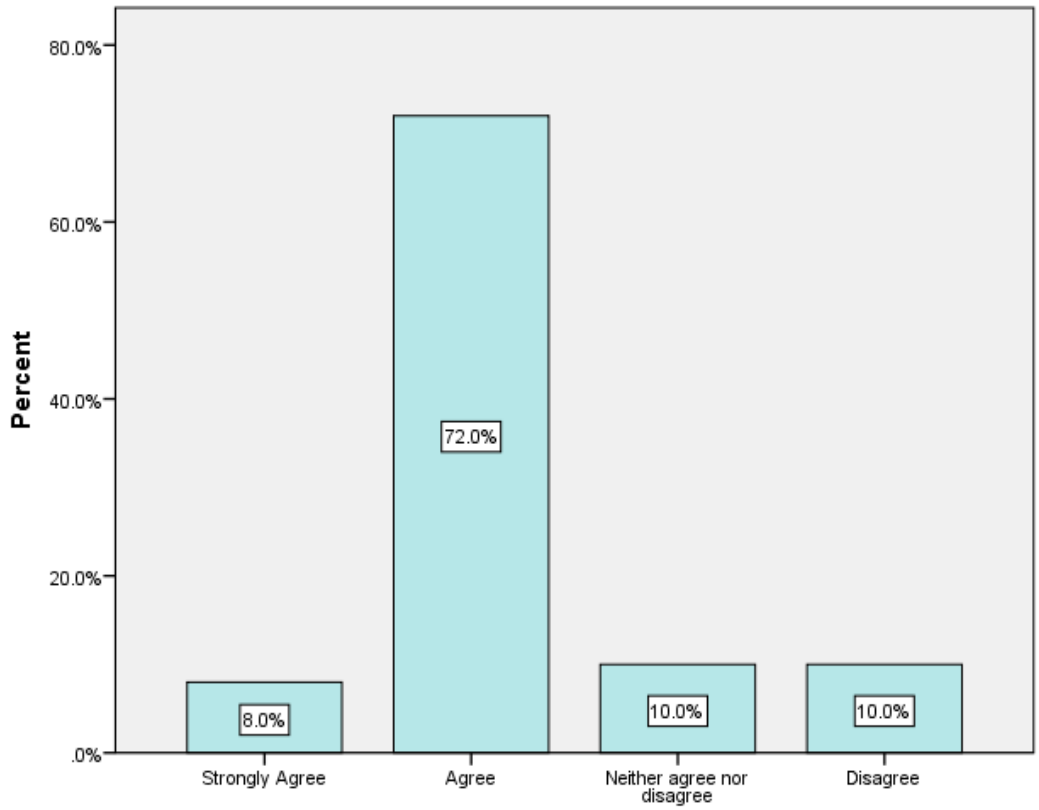


Figure 6-53: Bermondsey Square improves the supply and the quality of the amenities

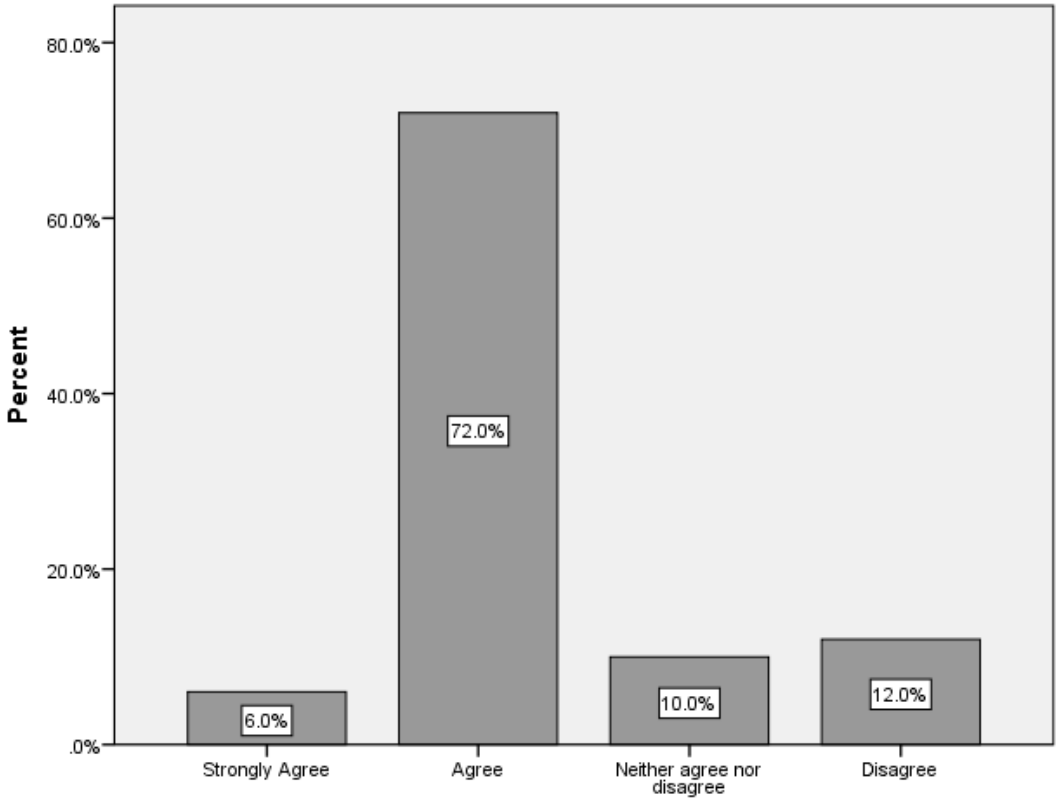


Figure 6-54: Bermondsey Square encourages the community to use the space

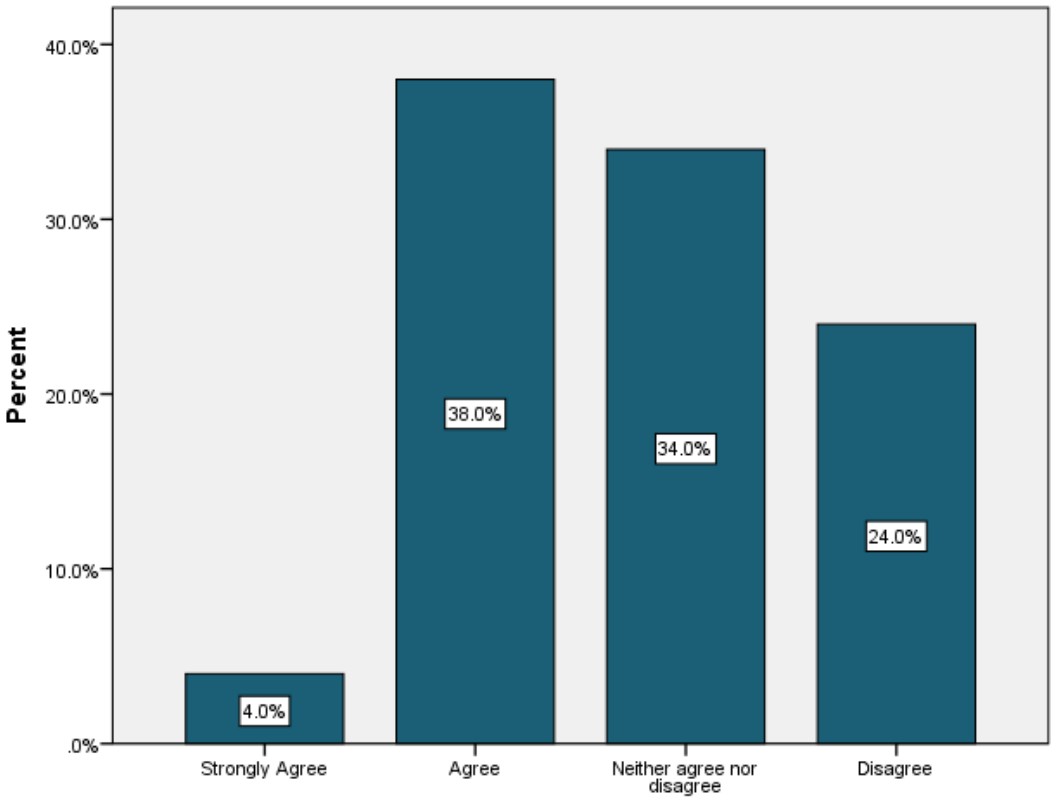


Figure 6-55: Bermondsey Square generates community relations

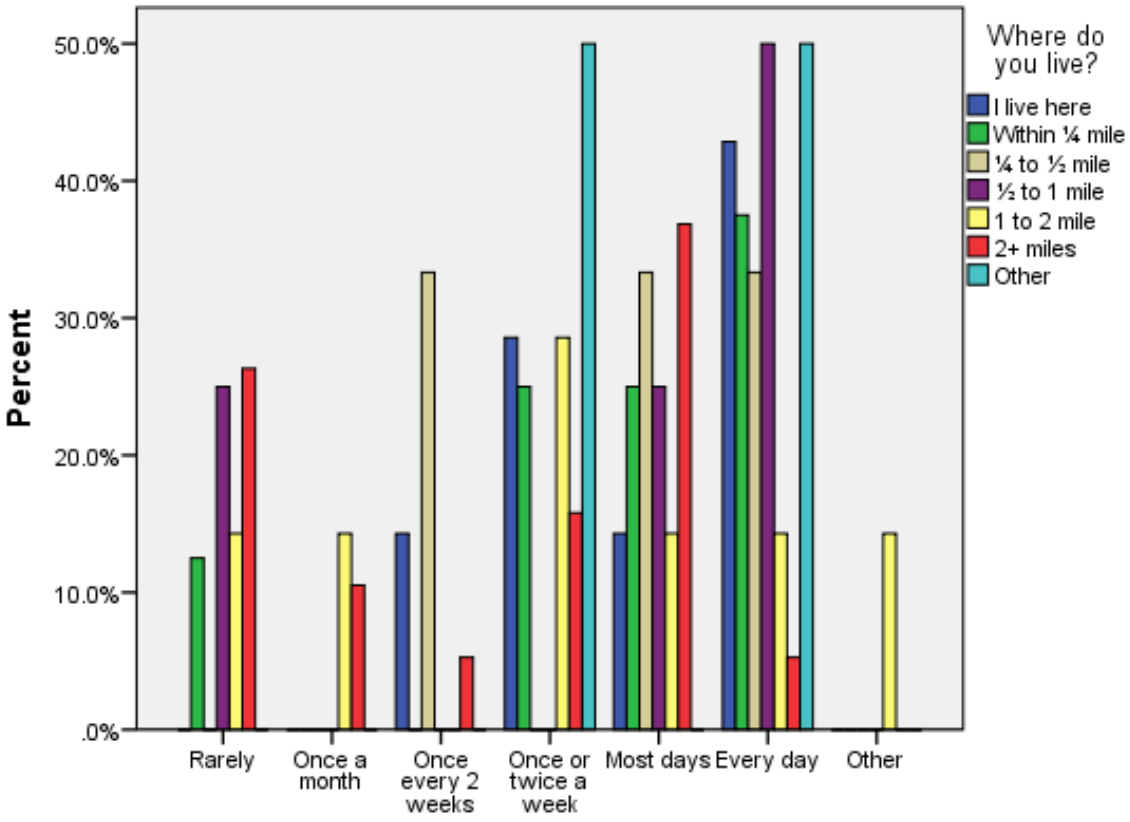


Figure 6-56: The frequency of visits relative to distance from Bermondsey Square

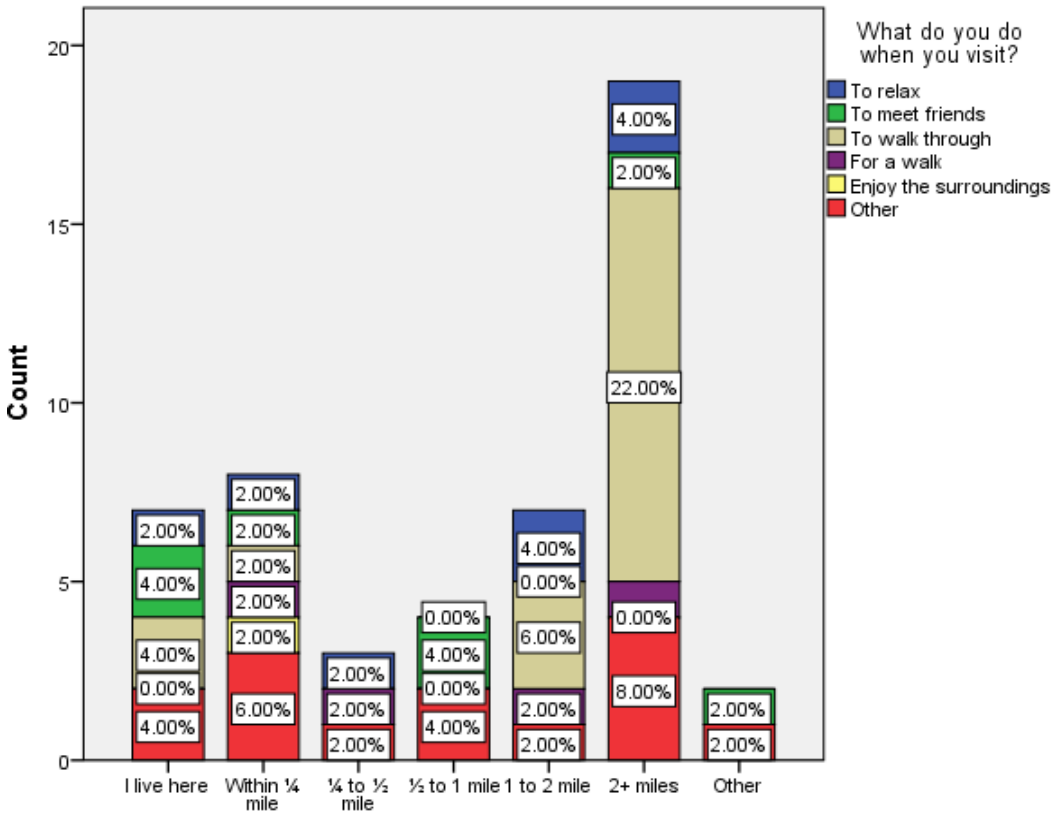


Figure 6-57: The purpose of the visit relative to the locations of users' residences

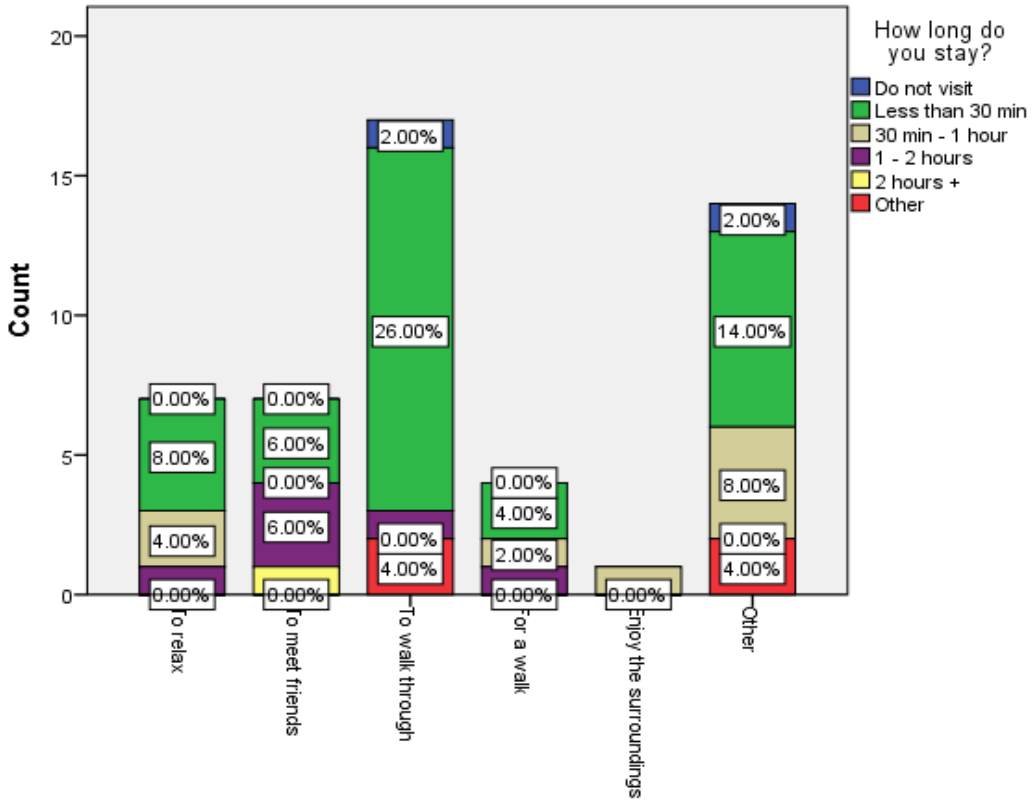


Figure 6-58: The purpose of visits relative to time spent

In terms of social interaction associated with the use of the place, the data show that 58% of users stayed in the square for less than 30 minutes when visiting. As shown in Figure 6-58, users chose the 'other' option when they were asked about the purpose of their visit, which demonstrates the role of what is placed around the edge of the space, as it has an effect on why users come to the square. People tend to stay for a longer period to seek out places along the edges of a space (Gehl, 2010). The influence of Bermondsey Square has reached as far as two miles away, which signifies the role of the place in building relationships and creating meaning to its users, encouraging them to come again. This occurs at different levels that make Bermondsey Square a place for people nearby to come and use, as well as for people from further distances to come, create or participate in activities, and benefit from the square.

Walking as the primary means of travel signifies that 80% of participants were demonstrating the ability of the square to attract people from the nearby areas; these people usually come to Bermondsey Square with others. The data show that 66% of interviewees thought that Bermondsey Square was attractive enough to make them come and visit again. Most users described Bermondsey Square as spacious and open due to its accessibility and the lack of furniture in the square. This openness allows both users and management to arrange activities in a more flexible way. The openness of the square supports its ability to host different events and to be used in multiple ways. Accessibility was the best-perceived quality of Bermondsey Square from the interviewees' perspective. It increases vitality since people from around the square can see the activities inside and *vice versa*; physical and psychological barriers are eliminated. This promotes the concept of mixed use that Jacobs (1961) advocated long ago. She supported the presence of mixed-use development, because it encourages different people to use facilities at various times, which helps cities thrive.

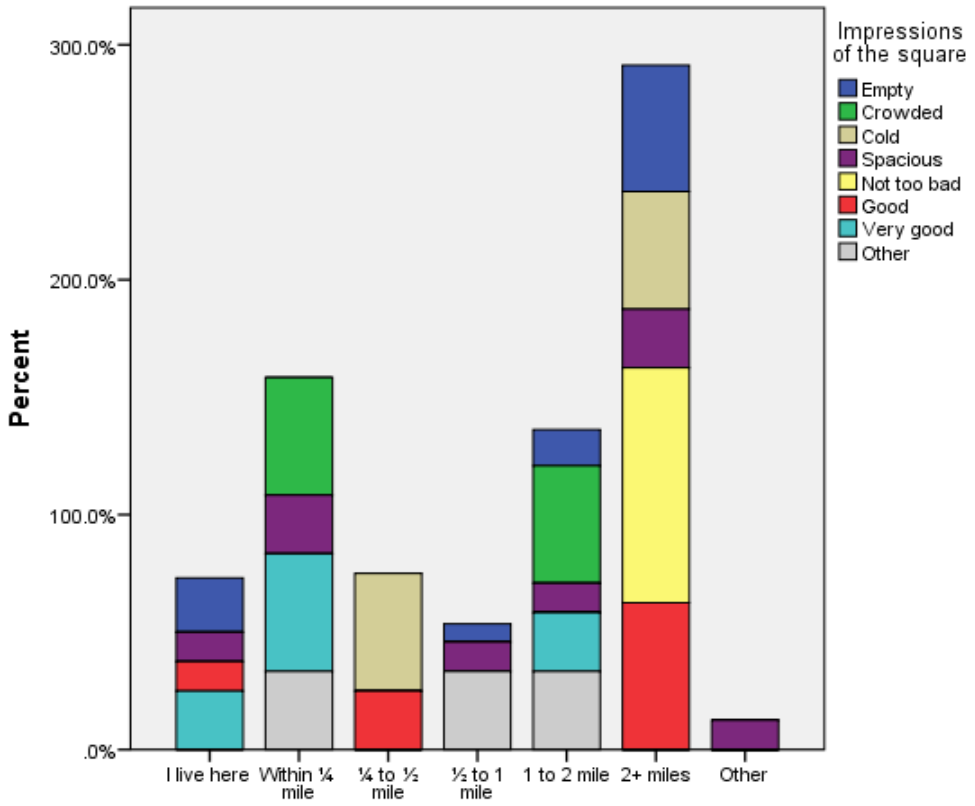


Figure 6-59: Users' impressions of the square related to their homes' distance from the square

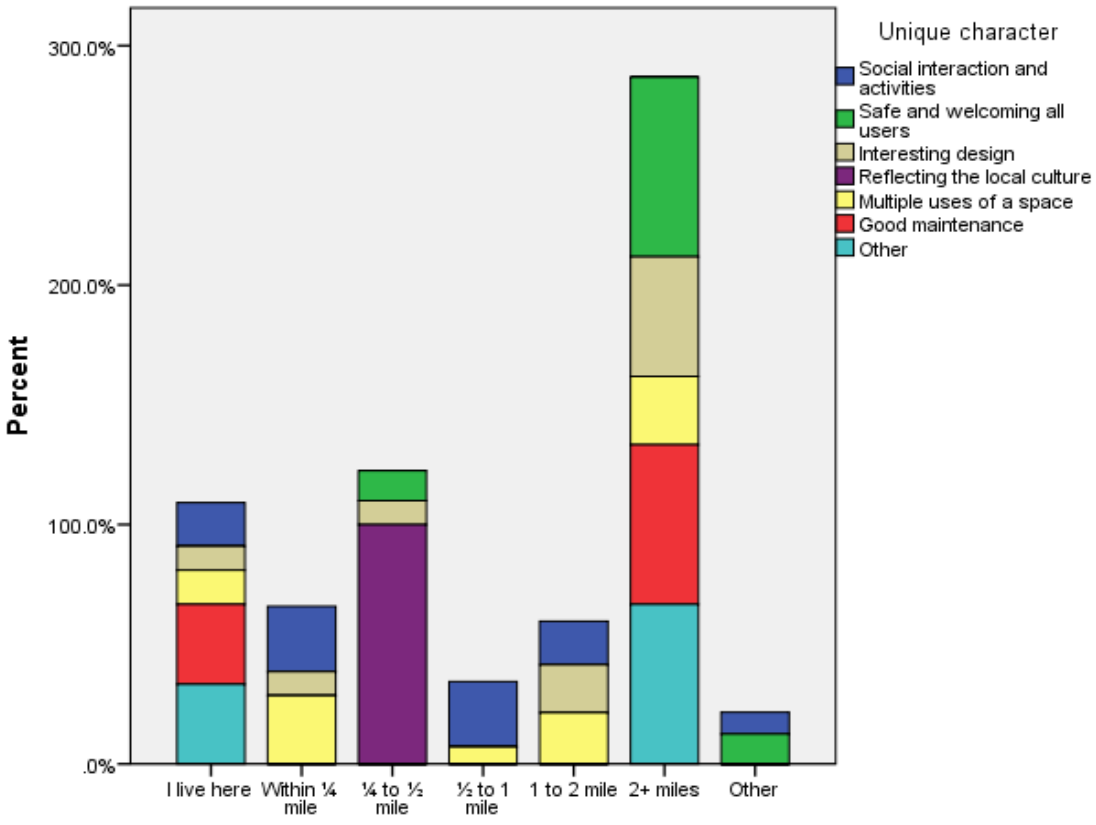


Figure 6-60: The square's character related to users' homes' distance from the square

On the one hand, the data illustrates that people who live within half a mile of the square provided good feedback and expressed positive feelings about their impressions of the square which might reflect residents' civic pride, as shown in Figure 6-59 and Figure 6-60. It offers them activities that support social interaction with others and reflect their local culture. On the other hand, users who lived beyond half a mile of the square had not experienced enough while in the square to be convinced that the square offered them enough social benefits. However, the square did provide them with a sense of security and a welcoming atmosphere, which allows all users to use the space freely. The residents' view of the square was divided into two categories. First, some residents saw the square as so spacious as to be empty with less use and functions than they desired; this implies the need for more freedom for others from outside the development to be involved in the generation of social life within the square. On the other hand, some residents appreciated the cleanliness and peacefulness of the square, which was management's explicit goal in the way they operate the square.

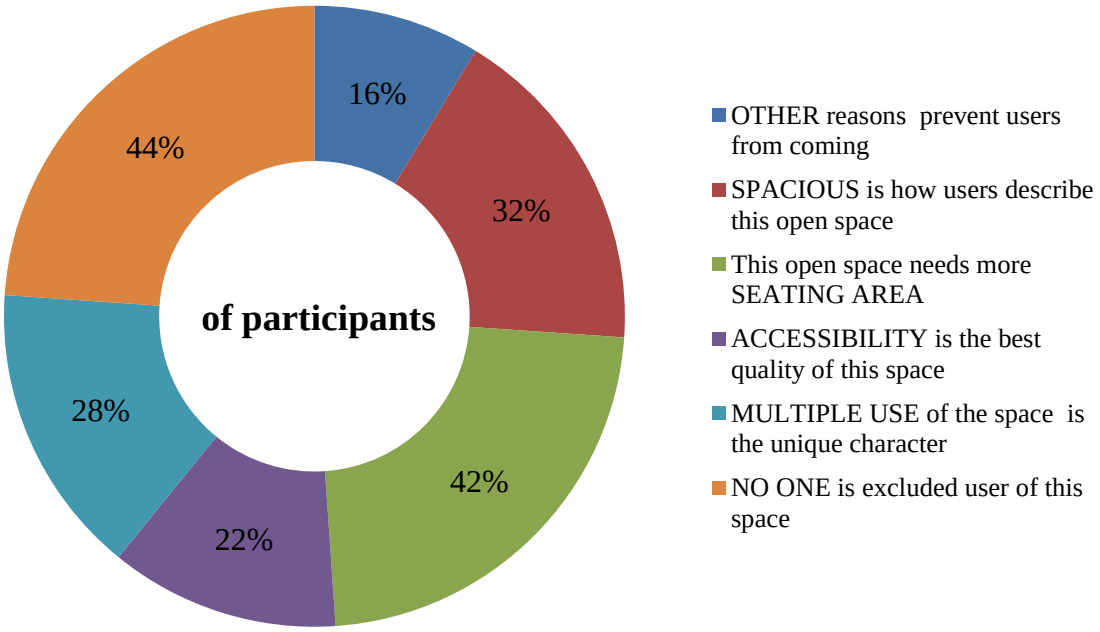


Figure 6-61: The most outstanding qualities of Bermondsey Square

The data gathered from the perceptual analysis suggest a greater tendency for Bermondsey Square's being perceived as spacious and more open than any other impressions of the square (Figure 6-61). As noted above, the lack of landscape furniture, the degree of openness and the

accessibility all support users' perceptions of Bermondsey Square. The need for open space to maintain the antique market and give the new facility an instant destination was one of the aims of the architects and developers. Conversely, some other users perceived this spaciousness as an abstract place with limited diversity. The data signify the limitation of seating areas that are provided in Bermondsey Square, given that most of the current seating areas are under the private control of bars and restaurants. The data show an enormous demand for a variety of seating areas to be added to the square. However, the cross-analysis data indicate that accessibility is one of the primary qualities of the square, since the degree of openness plays an effective role in providing physical and visual accessibility (Figure 6-62). The openness of the square makes it easy to reach and walk through while building a close connection to the surroundings. All these qualities are the most quality that stands out when asking participant to describe Bermondsey Square as they perceive the place while using it. All these qualities formed together in to show the correlation and the impact of them on the user's satisfaction and perception. The appointed qualities are subjected to cross analysis with other data from the observational and perceptual aspects of this study.



Figure 6-62: The degree of openness plays an effective role in providing physical and visual accessibility

Most participants indicated that the multiple uses of the space are its best quality. Bermondsey Square provides diverse activities that can be accessed simultaneously or at different times. There are three types of activities that can be found in public spaces: necessary, optional and social activities. All three occur in Bermondsey Square but walking through, a necessary

activity, was the most popular reason given by users for frequenting the square. However, a wide range of optional activities was also observed in Bermondsey Square, because it invites people to sit, eat, shop, play and simply stop by. Looking at activities in cities over a long period after the dawn of the automobile, there has been a distinct and obvious change in the character of urban activities. Today, most activities in public spaces are deemed as either necessary or optional and participants can choose to be part of either necessary or optional public life as they wish. It becomes clear that most activities now have an optional attribute. Before the automobile, most people in public spaces were there due a lack of choices and were effectively compelled them to be there. Furthermore, people had to walk through public spaces because there were no motorized vehicles at that time (Gehl, 2003).

The presence of homeless people occupying some of the benches at the place was observed, which made some users of the space feel uncomfortable and unsafe. Only a few participants said that they did not use Bermondsey Square due to their personal preference. Whyte discussed this issue of undesirable people, noting that homeless people, who take advantage of open empty spaces, cause a reduction the use and vitality of these spaces. It is necessary to tackle this issue by enlivening the place and making it attractive to everyone else.

The data collected show significant results in terms of the attractiveness of Bermondsey Square. As shown in Figure 6-63, 82% of participants admired the level of attractiveness that Bermondsey Square provided to the area. A considerable percentage of users (60%) believed that keeping the square active and liveable not only increased the physical image but also enhanced the perception of attractiveness of the place. This high percentage supports the concept that attractiveness and activities can play a key role in enhancing the image of a place. Bermondsey Square represents the urban design principle that seeks to "promote character in townscape and landscape by responding to and reinforcing locally distinctive patterns of development and culture" (Carmona et al., 2002b: 66).

The data shows that 62% of participants agreed with the role of the square in increasing the vitality. This reflection suggests that Bermondsey Square offers enough activities to qualify as a viable place. Attractive public spaces can play an effective role in encouraging people to stay for longer periods in urban places. According to Planning Policy Guidance 3, good design is simply not an option that can be passed by. Good design is ideal for attractive urban environments and can deliver sustainability through the efficient use of land, enhance

connectivity to local amenities and public transport, increase safety and security, improve social interactions and promote energy efficiency (DETR, 2000d).

The residents of and visitors to the square valued the distinctiveness and the provision of activities that this urban space delivered in their community. This is further supported by evidence from McIndoe et al. (2005: 25) study, which indicates that good urban design supports the character of a neighbourhood. Character develops when urban places have 'distinctive physical and social characteristics' and 'residents benefit from a clearer sense of personal identity'. The same study suggests that residents might be more motivated to become actively involved in their community when it has character.

The data show that Bermondsey Square is freely accessible (86%) due to its connections with its surroundings and its degree of openness. The connectivity of the surrounding area is considered a key feature that can affect the success or failure of new developments. Neighbourhoods of every shape and size inevitably depend on progress both in their immediate areas and in connecting them to the wider context (DETR and CABE, 2000). The data show a significant percentage of participants (62%) agreed that the development contributes to the identity of the local context, with 62% crediting it with promoting civic pride. A study by CABE and DETR (2001) shows that good urban design solutions boost civic pride and enhance civic image. It emphasises that good design of public spaces, in conjunction with excellent architectural design, support civic pride. This claim is further supported by Taniguchi (2005) study, which suggests that a good built environment that features social integration can help citizens feel at home in their city and possess a highly developed sense of civic pride.

This place-identity is a comprehensive reflection of the effect of the meaning of place on users' identity while in Bermondsey Square. Empirical studies reported by Carr et al. (1992) support the notion that high-quality design of urban places could be meaningful by allowing individuals to have strong connections between their personal lives and the place moving towards the larger world. Relph (1976) reports that the identity of a place is not simply the production of various components but is socially geared towards the image as a whole. The urban identity of Bermondsey Square depends to some extent on the activities in and the accessibility of the square. With these characteristics in place, the greater density of use and increased choice of engagement with the urban environment becomes preferable, as Jacobs (1961) suggested for vital cities.

The design of the square has met the majority of users' expectations, given that 74% of participants agreed that the design of the square welcomed all users. In addition, the square encourages the community to use it by improving the supply and quality of amenities to generate social cohesion. 70% of participants agreed that the square had a direct influence on their well-being. This high response from residents and users suggests that the place has a positive effect on people.

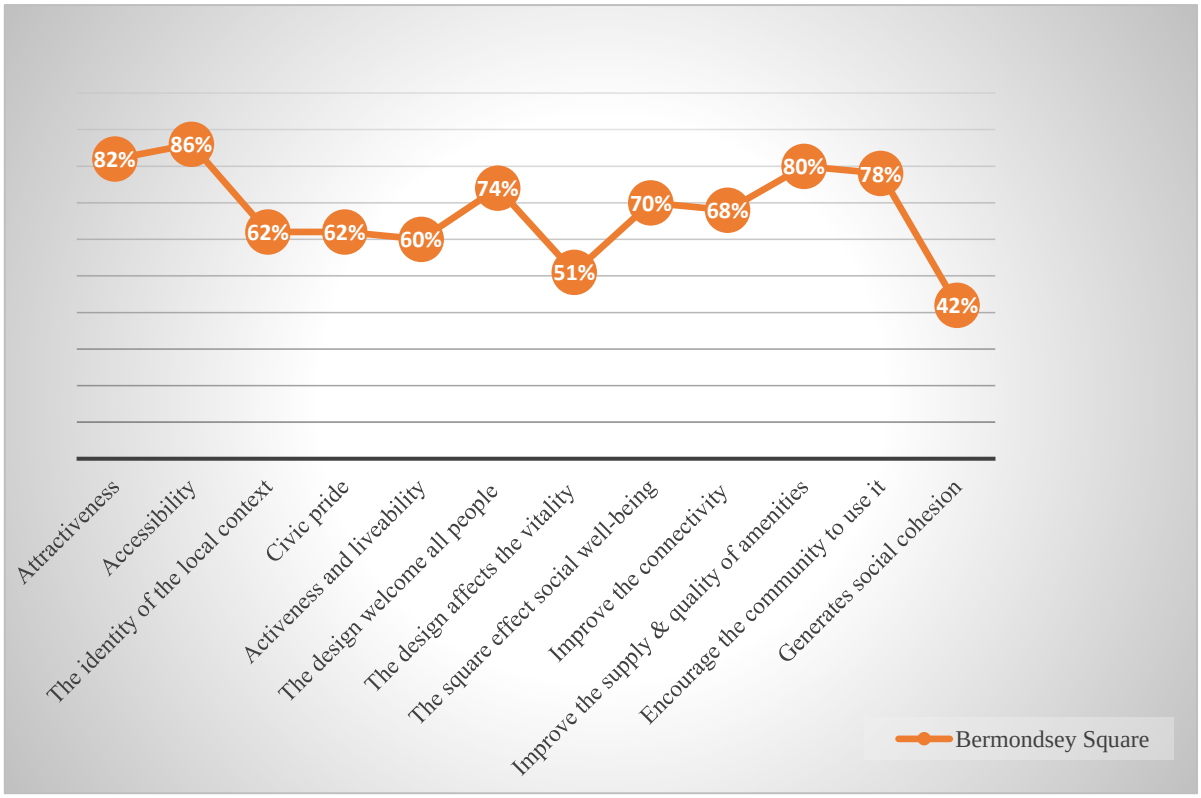


Figure 6-63: The social value of Bermondsey Square

To a meaningful extent, social value has been delivered to the community by Bermondsey Square. The results showed high satisfaction among users when they were asked about the contribution of the square to the surrounding neighbourhood. Indeed, most factors met expectations in more than 50% of responses for the indicators shown in Figure 6-63. However, the results show that Bermondsey Square has not convinced its residents of its ability to generate social cohesion; given the otherwise positive response, this outcome might mean that these type of squares are simply appropriate vehicles for achieving that goal.

The evidence shows that users of Bermondsey Square value the ease of accessibility, the attractiveness, the provision of amenities and leisure facilities and the encouragement they

receive from the development to use it. On the other hand, the results show that users of Empire Square appreciate the attractiveness of the place and its accessibility but that square failed to improve the supply and quality of amenities as well as failing to encourage them to use Empire Square for social and optional activities.

Compared to the case of Bermondsey Square, most factors for Empire Square unfortunately show that less than 50% of expectations were met regarding the following indicators: attractiveness, accessibility, identity, civic pride; activeness and liveability, the role of design in welcoming all users, the role of design in affecting vitality, the role of the square in affecting social well-being, the role of the square in improving connectivity, the role of the square in improving the supply and quality of amenities, the role of the square in encouraging the community to use the place and the role of the square in generating social cohesion. In summary, Bermondsey Square rates far better than Empire Square because of the activities and opportunities that it provides to its users. People spend much more time in Bermondsey Square than in Empire Square. Bermondsey Square provides more opportunities for groups to hold activities, and strikes users as more open and vibrant than Empire Square, which is isolated by residential buildings. Additionally, Bermondsey Square is a multi-use space, while study participants found the design of Empire Square interesting but less than ideal in terms of usefulness. Comparing the results from the two squares makes it clear that both utility and aesthetic value are important for attracting people and increasing their enjoyment of public spaces. Indeed, Bermondsey Square was found to be more active and liveable than Empire Square. Participants in Bermondsey Square understood its effect on social well-being, but in Empire Square most found it hard to give an opinion. Moreover, Bermondsey Square improves the supply and quality of amenities within the local area, while Empire Square does not. Bermondsey Square encourages the community to use it; Empire Square does not. Results for community cohesion were uncertain, but it is not clear whether participants genuinely failed to experience it or simply misunderstood the term.

Site observations revealed that Bermondsey Square has heavy pedestrian traffic during the day because of its openness and design. In Empire Square, most people used a single route to pass through. Most of the activities in Bermondsey Square take place along its edges, because the ground-floor frontages have been employed so successfully. On the other hand, Empire Square is enclosed and does not attract enough people to enter. Furthermore, Bermondsey Square offers a considerable number of seats and tables, thus providing opportunities for social

interaction, while Empire Square lacks these features in sufficient numbers. The land use of Empire Square thus needs to be improved.

According to Crane and Crepeau (1998), the difficulty of linking a specific individual component of good urban design with a certain positive effect is a clear challenge in urban design studies. That statement is an example of how good urban design components work together in a balanced mixture that can be difficult to measure, instead of demonstrating that good urban design is irrelevant or ineffective (McIndoe et al., 2005). There is no one component that can act independently of the others; in fact, the need for various factors to support one another is important to fully appreciating successful examples in the field (Filion et al., 1999). This shows that the urban design guidance is generic in term of implementing them in real production of urban places in cities. They need to be defined as well as looked after during and after the creation of urban spaces to ensure the delivery of intangible and social benefits for both users and inhabitants. If the right balance is not achieved , specific elements of quality urban design perceived as being good might actually have undesired impacts (Crane and Crepeau, 1998). Accordingly, while the individual impacts of an urban design component are unlikely to be extracted from the full vision of good urban design, the effects of mixtures of urban design components can be understood, with the proper approach. The implementation for each element is planned in consideration of their interaction with other elements (McIndoe et al., 2005).

6.2.3 The Perceptual Analysis: Semi-Structured Interview Data

As with Empire Square, semi-structured interviews were carried out to supplement the data collection. This perceptual analysis of is based on place impression, place attachment, place vitality, social impact and sense of community and supports the data that were gathered in the earlier stage. The open-ended questions of this tool have led to a better understanding of users' perceptions of the place and the reasons behind their views and opinions.

Place Impression and Place Attachment

Place impression and attachment in Bermondsey Square depended on the time of the year, but 84.6% of participants found it vital and inviting (Figure 6-64). One participant said, "Bermondsey square is a clean and open area. The high degree of openness to the street allows people to see what is in it and that helps to drag people inside". Additionally, Bermondsey

Square offers a considerable amount of seating, particularly in the centre and in front of the restaurants and café, which may add to place attachment by encouraging users to linger. One user said, "What is important is the square itself. I like to come here and get out of the boxes and buildings that we live in. I like to see other people. I can get to my house from another route but I prefer to come through here. Every time I come here I see something different", while another participant observed, "It is a sociable place when there is always something going on. I guess you have to stimulate people to make them talk to someone they do not know". A third person stated, "Shops and restaurants are my favourite areas. I like food and drink… It is a sociable place when they have the markets", and a fourth said, "The effective features around the square increase its importance to local users. There are the cinema, restaurants, shops, and running hub".

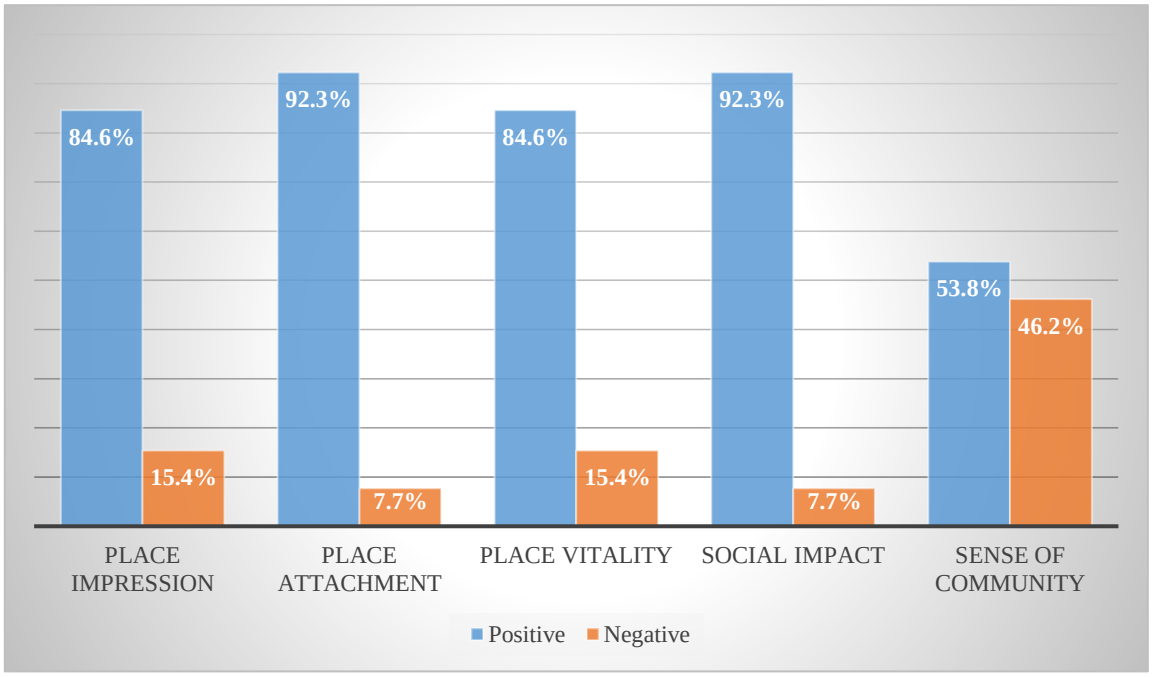


Figure 6-64: The social analysis of Bermondsey Square on the basis of place impression, place attachment, place vitality, social impact and sense of community

Users indicated that the square's functional facilities bring them there quite often. One said, "Sainsbury's brings most people to the square. I like the idea of a square that has a lot of functions. Also, it is quiet and open which welcomes people". When asked what the square was like prior to its development, one user answered, "Before the development, the square during the week was a car park but quite often was locked and nobody could use it and then on Fridays it became the antique market. So, it was pretty much kept empty at that time". He

agreed that the square is the heart of Bermondsey, saying, "The square has become the centre for the area, and it could be improved but it definitely is the focus of the area. It is used for various events. In the summer, they have the Bermondsey Street Festival and at Christmas and other times of the year they have evening events". Another user agreed, saying, "I have lived in this area for more than 14 years. I go to Bermondsey Square most days. Every Friday for the last 15 years, I have been going to the antique market. The usage of the square with the market contributes to its identity". These statements provide evidence of the long-term relationship that can develop between users and a place.

Place Vitality

The development contains a variety of functions, including a hotel, restaurants, bars, a café, a cinema, markets, and a grocery store. The restaurants and bars attract tourists, while workers enjoy the recreational facilities. The restaurants and café add vitality to the square during the week, as their seating areas are often fully occupied in good weather. Most interviewees also pointed to the market and seasonal activities as creating a vibrant atmosphere. According to a seller at the antique market, local patronage is strong: "I can tell you that 90% of the market costumers are local people. I have worked here in the market for two years, and most of our customers are from these areas around here". The lack of tourists is possibly due to a large number of nearby attractions that draw them away, such as the Saint Mary Magdalene Churchyard, Tower Bridge, and the Shard. Moreover, many locals see the square's activities as directed toward residents. As one user said, "The square, with all its amenities, serves the residents but local people use it for walking through". Despite this, the range of offerings was appreciated: "I think Bermondsey Square is an active place with all the activities and the different atmospheres during the year". Bermondsey Square has a high degree of openness to the streets, which can work as a draw to attract people into the square.

Social Impact and Sense of Community

As noted in Chapter two (2.6.1), social value is the ability of the built environment to connect people with each other, creating or enhancing opportunities for positive interactions. The social value of urban spaces depends on the input that can be produced; people can increase their attachment to their local lives and increase their memories of a place.

From the data gathered, 92.3% of interviewees indicated positive responses when they were asked about the social value that they get from Bermondsey Square. Some factors have a direct impact on increasing the emergence of social value in the square. The most significant elements of Bermondsey Square that affect social value are accessibility and the provision of activities which bring the community together, provide meeting places that foster social ties, provide activities and provide a general sense of place for the community.

In this regard, one user stated that "Bermondsey square is a sociable area, especially when they have the film festival and the market", while another user said, "I think with all the markets and shops, the square can play an effective role in creating social values". It is necessary to populate a place with people and encourage activities that enhance a sense of community. The mixed-use scheme, with a residential element, offices, shops, restaurants and a good range of activities work together to enliven this key space in the Bermondsey area. A local user of Bermondsey Square indicated that "I have made two friends from the running hub. I think the square helps to bring people from around the area and create community". Other participants emphasised the role of the antique market, which create links with the surrounding residential communities that border the square. One local user stated that "the antique market brings social value to the square". The vision of the Bermondsey Square's developer was to keep the antique market to connect the local community around the square with one another. Bermondsey Square, with its comprehensive programme of events and activities, works to make itself attractive to the local community. A local user appreciates the atmosphere of Bermondsey Square, indicating that "it is a good environment for people to spend a couple of hours with friends".

The impact of having daily changes of inhabitants will be visible for residents who continue living in Bermondsey Square or in the nearby community. The hotel plays an effective role in reducing the sense of community by having new people coming and going over short periods of time. However, Bermondsey Square is subject to London Plan Policy 4b.10, which insists on using public space within these schemes to "support vibrant communities both around and within the building" that "where appropriate, contain a mix of uses with public access" (GLA, 2008). For most users of the square and in the researcher's view, the square meets these requirements, but a minority thought that "all the services around the square are geared toward the working people. You see a pub, a bar and shops that serve their needs. Old people only have the market". The positive results of having the square in its current condition can be seen

from one local user, who insisted that "there is a social value there because there was nothing before in the square. There is improvement now but it could be better".

Only 53.8% of participants thought that Bermondsey Square helped to generate a sense of community, but 46.2% of participants disagreed. One interviewee said, "The square is not bad compared to what it used to be. There are a lot of things that can bring the community together", while another said, "People from the local area can come and do various activities. They can do their shopping, go to see a movie, sit for a drink or have a meal at the restaurant". The profusion of events at Bermondsey Square enhances community cohesion. One participant said, "I see people interacting with each other when there are activities in the square", while another said, "Bermondsey square is a good place to meet people. I gather with some people that I know from the market when the weather is good. So, there is definitely social interaction with others". Some interviewees who had only recently moved to the area could not yet comment on this in depth, but one new arrival said, "There is a good indication of experiencing social cohesion, which is the market and how it can bring people together". Others saw limits to social cohesion; as one participant observed, "There is the hotel, which means people come and go in a short time, which does not play a role in creating social cohesion in the area".

Users, residents and occupants from in Bermondsey Square showed a positive response regarding place impression, as shown in Figure 6-65. The landscape design of Bermondsey Square has made it an adaptable open public space that can host a range of small and large events during different times of the year. Users and visitors are attracted to the place because of this multiple-use aspect. The landscape design also cleverly creates the feeling of a single space, as the ground is paved with patterned dark-red bricks with brighter strips. The ground-floor surroundings animate the place by enclosing the square with modern-style mixed-use developments and Georgian terraced buildings. This makes the square the heart and focus of the Bermondsey area as a whole, which was the intention of the developers and the council. The respondents found Bermondsey Square to be in better shape than it was before this development. They have seen and even experienced how the square changed from being a car park during the week and only hosting the antique market on Fridays to becoming a vital and inviting space when hosting a range of activities and events during the different seasons of the year. Overall, the regeneration of Bermondsey Square was perceived as being successful in the respondents' view.

Such evidence is needed to support the enhancement of development design and the changes that take place in urban spaces and places. It is powerful testimony to how outdoor space and better events for people to attend work on the fine scale of detail, which means that designing the spaces between building and façades take a lot of effort. Strong relations between the buildings and activities depend on how close and active the exchange zones between streets and façades are (Gehl, 2011). A combination of compact, dense and good-quality urban spaces leads to vibrant cities. It is also beneficial to have an active ground-floor frontage that interacts particularly well with city space, which is a matter of design (Gehl, 2010).

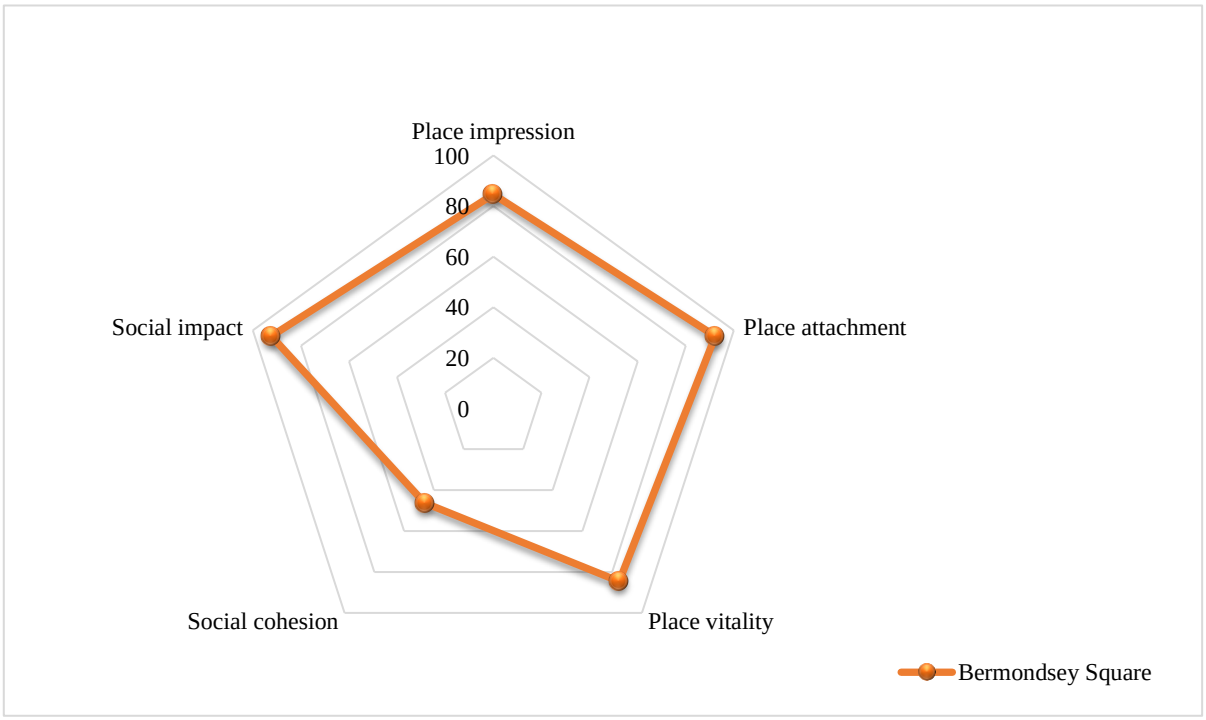


Figure 6-65: Respondents' perceptual view of Bermondsey Square

The data gathered shows a positive response from 92.3% of interviewees with regard to having a good connection to the place (Figure 6-65). Physical qualities can influence the form and degree of users' relationships with the place. Bermondsey Square has succeeded in this respect by generating a range of functional facilities that attract more people to use the square on a regular basis. The interaction with Bermondsey Square on a consistent basis leads to the creation of emotional bonds with the place among its regular users. All the facilities that were encouraged by the development management, all the activities that were generated by different initiatives and the current regular use of the square by the farmers and antique markets combine to contribute to the place's identity. These sentimental ties to the place are supposed to lead to

greater social cohesion (Brown et al., 2003). The results in the present case suggest that place attachment was observed with individuals but they reported less social cohesion. Individuals' experience of place attachment is embedded within both the physical and social impacts of a place.

The creation of the new development of Bermondsey Square, including the public space, has shown vitality to be a common attribute of the place in particular ways. There is a complex set of elements that work towards producing the social components found in Bermondsey Square. Besides the good quality of the physical form and the environment of the square, there are some other social factors. These matters, such as issues of users and their preference for engaging with the space, led to specific types of activities and social interactions occurring within this area. In-depth analysis was carried out while concentrating on the following factors to assess the place's vitality: user types, social groups, activities and social interactions and the timing of activities in the open space. The vitality of Bermondsey Square was brought about by residents, office workers and the presence of tourists.

The design quality of the mixed-use development of Bermondsey Square attracts a mix of users, which contributes to vitality. A study by NWDA/RENEW Northwest observes that high-quality design for mixed-use development with public access to public spaces and good management will increase vitality, improve a sense of belonging and improve social cohesion (Partnerships et al., 2007). The user groups in Bermondsey Square were quite diverse and included families and groups of friends, which is notable. The normal day-to-day use and engagement of users in Bermondsey Square play a useful role in making the social atmosphere friendly. It was evident that users' attention was focused more on socialising rather than exploring the surrounding environment. Sitting at the café and restaurants is more significant than shopping at the Sainsbury's store. The time and duration of users' presence and activities in Bermondsey Square begins in the early morning, especially on market days, until about 23:00, while the bars, restaurants and Sainsbury's store are still open. Generally speaking, the most vital times at Bermondsey Square are early mornings and evenings. In this case, the vitality of the place is an important quality that can encourage social interaction, increase commercial interest and promote security and safety. Overall, the results indicate four major factors that support the positive place vitality response in the case of Bermondsey Square: the activities and events; the variety of users and levels of use; the levels of interactions and

transaction through the places; and finally the ability to present all these assets to the outside world.



Figure 6-66: Bermondsey Square's antiques market opens from 4:00 am to 1:00 pm every Friday, regardless of weather

The results from respondents' perceptual views on the role of the development, including the public space, in forming social cohesion show two main strands of thought. The first strand considers the contribution of Bermondsey Square to be its service as an arena for activities, uses and interactions that increase membership attitudes, belonging and social interactions by asserting the endorsement of the market and events during the year. Social cohesion was based on the users and activities, because such attitudes are proximate factors that force users to remain in their community or choose to depart from it. The other side of the coin considered

the factor limiting social cohesion: the boutique hotel. This creates a tourism scene in the area, which does not create stability among inhabitants in the community. The development of Bermondsey Square is defined by its residents and economic activities that occur in order to create a sense of community. The square offers a lifestyle supported by its edginess and vibrancy, which is seen in bars and a boutique hotel accompanied by a cinema. The development was designed to create cultural gentrification in the area and balance it with traditional neighbourhood activities, which is represented by the use of this development for farmers and antique markets (Figure 6-66).

It is noticeable that Bermondsey Square is vibrant and liveable with a strong sense of community, not only from long-term residents but also from tourists and other users. The place generates this influence among the long-term residents who find their connection to the place through the markets. On the other hand, both permanent and new residents face new competition for land use in the square, where the shops, pubs and cinema serve only the working people as leisure spaces. This was discussed by Madanipour (2012) as a type of cultural exclusion, when long-term residents become fully marginalised from associating with the discourse of change in the area. Even though there is no physical barrier to access to the spaces accompanying these developments schemes, the restrictions are more implicit and subtle, as older residents and lower-income earners do not have the same access to innovative culture and economic capital (Allen et al., 2012). The scheme can develop an identity of the place within the area of Bermondsey by limiting some social groups from using according to their desires.

Bermondsey Square generated positive responses regarding its role in creating social impact for its users. Several factors lie behind the emergence of social impact in the square. The most significant elements of Bermondsey Square that affect the social impact—besides cleanliness, aesthetics, comfort and security—are accessibility and the provision of activities (Figure 6-67). A successful public place is capable of providing clear and easy ways to reach it and to get through it, and it is critical to work with the edges of public space. It is also beneficial to have an active ground-floor frontage that interacts particularly well with city space, which is a matter of design (Gehl, 2010). Bermondsey Square has succeeded in fulfilling this requirement. The mixed-use scheme comprises a residential element along with offices, shops, restaurants and a good range of activities, which all work well together in enlivening the Bermondsey area. The vision of the Bermondsey Square developer and the council was to keep the antique market to

connect the local, neighbouring community with the square. Gehl (2011) outlines how to assemble people and functions in space and time and develop methods to interact, integrate and open up activities in urban areas. This is a key factor that combines time and space to allow activities to occur in outdoor spaces. However, it is also significant to allow them to develop organically (Gehl, 2011).



Figure 6-67: Bermondsey Square provides many activities that generate social impact on residents and users (SE1, 2010)

This leads to the social impact of public space, which depends on the input that can be provided to people to increase their attachment to their local live, interacting face-to-face with others, and their memories of sites. Streets and markets, which are hard spaces, are as beneficial to many people as green spaces like parks (Dines et al., 2006). Social value can be a part of the urban identity when these social behaviours are shaped by the design of public spaces or developed alongside them. Good urban places facilitate social interactions as a priority, then empower the community by providing a particular experience that influences human behaviours. Hillier and Hanson (1987: 223) note that "spatial layout in itself generates a field of probabilistic encounter, with structural properties that vary with the syntax of the layout".

6.3 Beyond the Research Analysis: Discussion

The social analysis of both case studies reveals a collective awareness and understanding of connections between humans and their environment. People exhibit common basic behavioural patterns in public spaces (Gehl, 2010); thus, it was appropriate to use the same survey methodology in two different places. The data gathered explore users' experiences and wishes for each place, and build toward a comprehensive understanding. Furthermore, site observational analyses and mappings elucidated relationships between physical characteristics, spatial patterning and user behaviours. The resulting ensemble of socio-spatial characteristics and movements supports the study of human-environment interaction. In addition, urban design demonstrates its role as a social means that can add social value. The two case studies have been influenced differently by the urban design product of social value. Complementary semi-structured interviews demonstrated users' awareness of urban places and their desire for a social dimension in such places, which is addressed in greater detail in Chapter Seven.

6.3.1 Cross-Analysis: The Implications of Research

In this chapter, analytical data facilitated explicit connections between the behavioural, perceptual and social dimensions of this study. Such connections are necessary for a holistic understanding of the social value of urban design. Each case study illustrated a different set of social perceptions. In Empire Square, limited accessibility and a lack of activities have combined to result in a relatively empty and underused space. For urban design to deliver social value, places should enable interpersonal connections that lead to trust, supportive behaviour, shared understanding and shared values (CABE, 2006c). This is evident in Bermondsey Square, which has a high level of openness and many activities in a mixed-use scheme that brings life to the square and has made it the heart of the local area. Occupation of places by people and activities generates values and shapes a place's identity (Madanipour, 1996); bringing the community together is one of the roles of Bermondsey Square. Secondary benefits include crime reduction, noise reduction and better lighting (Carmona et al., 2008). While one may question whether achieving better urban design necessarily adds social value, the evidence in this chapter strongly suggests that it does. Chapter Seven explains further how high-quality urban space can create a positive social impact and value, showing its importance for environmental knowledge.

CHAPTER 7 : DISCUSSION

Urban design literature and design guides generally underscore that urban spaces cannot rely solely on form or geometry. It is agreed that communities need well-designed spaces that can provide amenities, accessibility, security, place attachment and other notions that underscore the social value attached to place (Worpole and Knox, 2008). The social value of public spaces consists of intangible components that can be difficult to quantify in assessing high-quality urban design. These intangible benefits are related to of users' perceptions of their experience of a place. As Relph (1976: 8) argues, 'space is amorphous and intangible and not an entity that can be directly described and analysed. Yet, however we feel or know or explain space, there is nearly always some associated sense or concept of place'.

Given the importance of public space, it is notable how little research has been undertaken to substantiate the evidentiary base for its social value. Only a few studies have offered empirical evidence from robust studies. For instance, the social value added by urban design in a CABE and DETR (2001) study came through the provision of leisure facilities and amenities included in the quality public space, such as attractiveness, connectivity, accessibility and vitality. For New Zealand's Ministry for the Environment, the benefits of added social value through urban design was perceived in greater user satisfaction, enhanced social connectedness and enhanced social equity generated by improved access for individuals who do not have access to their own means of transportation (McIndoe et al., 2005).

Urban design can be seen as a means to deal with spatial rather than social aspects of the urban environment, but when the social dimension is neglected during the transformation of the urban environment, the resulting development may express only visual aspects of urban design. Therefore, urban design should not be seen as a simply field without any social component. Chapter Five showed the consequences of the fact that Empire Square emphasised the visual element of urban design. The physical transformation of the urban public space should be both caused by and cause social change within its urban context, as Chapter Six demonstrated was executed so well in Bermondsey Square. The impact might occur on a variety of scales and degrees, but the relationship between the spatial and social aspects are inevitable. The case of Empire Square can serve as a cautionary tale when urban design focuses too much controlling

the place or changing the land use of a place. The socio-spatial significance of the urban design is where the link between the two aspects can be observed by society.

From both efforts, users, residents and occupants saw the social value of the urban design from different viewpoints. Social value is observed as the ability to provide opportunities for social interactions, social inclusion, social bonds and making people feel attached to their local context; these are non-physical qualities that are nevertheless central to urban design. Social value also is generated by the audience of a public space and perceived through the provision of facilities and amenities, the physical enhancement of the area, the potential of its being a landmark or destination and by improved accessibility. The physical elements of urban design can support successful outcomes in these areas. Fundamentally, social value in urban design is unlikely to materialise if the socio-spatial approach to urban design is lacking.

This research contributes to expanding the role of physical and non-physical design components in a sense of place to elucidate some aspects of the essence of social value. The research relies on inhabitants, occupants and users, regardless of other stakeholders who have a direct influence on the process of urban design development, such as planners, or others, who have an indirect but very real influence, like developers and investors. The purpose of the present study is to use a pair of case studies to explore the deeper levels of the social dimension of urban design, without concern for economic and environmental dimensions, and to support and expand the limited previous research of this kind.

This study has reviewed a wide range of evidence, from anecdotal to conclusive. The findings of this research reveal key characteristics that users rely on when perceiving social value. The components that raised the perception of social value are high-quality urban public space and a sense of place. These key parameters are driven by the in-depth analysis of the two case studies, which demonstrate what inhabitants, occupants and users look at when investigating the social value of urban design. In order to achieve social value, people must use and adapt the space to serve social functions. However, many of the social benefits delivered by urban design are intangible and difficult to measure due to their very nature as non-market concepts that cannot be assessed through financial exchange value.

Therefore, this part of the discussion not only highlights the implications of social value but also promotes the process of social value development. In addition, a comparison of the findings from the two case studies demonstrates the implications of social value at a profound

level and produces data and information that can support further discussions and make recommendations for further study. The normative comparison study highlights the fundamental and common factors in both cases to seek answers within different contexts and allow a better understanding of the research objectives.

7.1 High-Quality Urban Public Space

The historical and contemporary processes of place-shaping have gone through different natural and cultural contexts that have shaped the nature and qualities of spaces in cities (Carmona, 2014b). The continuing trend towards characterising place-shaping processes in the UK from the late 1990s tends strongly to the provision of contemporary spaces (Punter, 2010), due to the state taking a more active role in the delivery of public spaces while still looking to the private sector to take the lead (Carmona, 2014b).

UTF (1999) was established to identify the reasons for urban decline and develop a vision to promote successful regeneration and place-making, and to consider urban design not only from the start of planning but also during the development process (UTF, 1999). However, the new spaces in the 1980s had been shaped by the private sector, which conceived of the urban square as the centre of large-scale urban development and otherwise ignored public spaces (Carmona, 2014b). A continued insistence on promoting higher standards for urban design, assessments of places and well-designed schemes are all needed for the construction of good places.

The vision of the urban renaissance increasingly saw an active role for the public sector as a promoter, partner or even direct provider in the provision of public space. During the late 1990s, there were problems funding large-scale, high-quality investment in public space, which was accompanied by the abandonment of the mayor's 100 Public Spaces project; London benefited from small-scale partnerships and private initiative projects (Punter, 2010). This vision of public space provided by the private sector was reflected in London's planning policies and initiatives.

Dealing with the limitation of the mayor's power in distributing 100 public spaces in London, the London Plan sought to promote the city's growth within its boundaries without encroaching on open spaces. At the same time, it sought to make London a more attractive, well-designed and green city (RIBA, 2010). This plan aimed to develop the quality of London through

enhancing the public realm, public space and waterways. It also emphasised the importance of the creation of new public spaces in such a compact city (GLA, 2008).

However, the public realm has a broader vision than simply competing globally or taking satisfaction in Londoners' pride. It has a 'significant influence on the quality of life because it affects people's sense of place, security and belonging' (GLA, 2015: 281). Public space does support London's economy and local people globally, and residents are expected to benefit from the intensive development and to be provided with a social venue that increases social interactions.

Looking at such initiatives and policies as reflected in the provision of open public spaces, common characteristics can be seen in the setting of the geographic structure of urban spaces in central London. These shared features can be distinguished by literally looking at these public spaces. Many contemporary public spaces in central London are located within mixed-use developments or multi-functional areas. Thus, they are diverse in term of characteristics and uses. As a result, these spaces tend to be more inclusive and sociable with a greater degree of adaptability (Carmona and Wunderlich, 2013). On the other hand, Jacobs (1961) long ago criticised modern approaches that generate isolated, unnatural urban places. She argued that these modern urban places destroyed communities and increase isolation in the urban environment. She emphasised the social interactions that occurred in traditional urban places and the freedom that existed within those spaces, which is composed of movement and change.

The two case studies in this research are good representatives of how the initiatives and policies are reflected in the actual provision. The development of Empire Square was the first attempt by Berkeley Homes to design a 227-dwelling gated development with no provision for open space (see Chapter Five). However, collaboration with English Partnerships led the scheme to double the number of the residential units while adding a new public space. The desire was to create a contemporary design that contrasted strongly with the location's previous use as a goods depot.

The eight-storey development now fitted better into the scenic context and the skylines of the surrounding five- and six-storey buildings. The development eases comfortably into the current street scene physically but the findings from the case study show that it struggles to deliver any social benefits to the people around it. One of the key factors behind this outcome lies in the restrictions at the entrances and the presence of gates that reduce the connectivity between the

square and its surroundings. These factors decrease any real impact that adds social value to the Empire Square community.

Despite the concept of Empire Square as a public resource, the space was actually built to serve the development rather than the local population. The lack of defining attractive street frontage, the limited access and converting the square to a quiet space all contribute directly to minimising its potential to add social value to the area around it. At an early stage of the design process, Empire Square was intended as a regeneration development to boost the local area through mixed-use development.

Both the community and local authorities had high expectations for the possibilities of Empire Square. However, the case study's findings show that the level of control within the space along with the presence of gates limits users' comfort and minimises any direct social impact upon surroundings. According to Rolfe Judd, the designer of the scheme as cited in (Marshall, 2007), the project was influenced by the surrounding park and square development, which is fundamental to London's planning aspirations. Judd's intention was to increase the footfall and allow users through the square by injecting life into the square with facilities that serve the local community and generate activity. However, the development process of Empire Square changed over time and forced the designer to minimise the degree of openness and accessibility to the surrounding area and exaggerate the design of the public space to achieve greater aesthetic value at the expense of use value. This particular development thus failed to achieve its original vision, which was to add benefits to its community, especially social benefits.

The experience of Empire Square shows, though in a negative way, the combined effects of social and physical dimensions of generating use and image values that together support the generation of social value. Good urban design can help achieve a relatively good urban design, even though it is not always clear to users and residents that a design will generate enough social impact or social cohesion. User and resident interviews show that Empire Square represents its development firm far more than the community around it. However, the existence of the development does benefit the surrounding neighbourhood through its positive image, a providing shared change experience in the area and the development of place attachment.

In the intervention-focused processes of development and design, places are shaped and reshaped for use in carefully planned ways. However, everyday use and management continues to shape places long after the main reason for which a place was created has been satisfied

(Hall, 2012). It is thus enormously difficult to predict how any new public space will be used until a distinct use profile arises, after which it is a matter of the continuous flow of the modern city to change the patterns of use and thus the urban design outcomes over time. Carmona (2014a) suggested that use defines a place through day-to-day activities, commercial amenities and the processes of adaptation and appropriation over time.

An entirely different scenario has occurred in the transformation of the development of Bermondsey Square. Southwark Council, Igloo Regeneration Partnership, the London Development Agency and the local community worked together to achieve their goal by making the square the heart of Bermondsey (see Chapter Six). That chapter's findings show that the antique market supports Bermondsey Square by linking the development with neighbouring businesses and residential communities. The existence of the antique market had an immediate and continuing impact on the community and on the cultural and commercial aspects of the area, all of which have given the development unquestioned authenticity. The most substantial benefits from the antique market, besides selling goods, are that it maintain historical links, a sense of place and local identity (Solnit and Schwartzenberg, 2002). The Bermondsey Square Community Fund is in charge of managing a comprehensive programme of outdoor events and activities held at Bermondsey Square to help increase social interaction and enliven the space. The initiatives of the management of Bermondsey Square have led to the integration of the space with the surrounding context and met the needs of its residents and the local community.

Unlike Empire Square, the design of Bermondsey Square offers an adaptable open public space that can host weekend or seasonal events and markets. The design of the space consists of one single space surrounded by wooden benches and abstract sculptures along the edges of the square. The square is well-integrated into the surroundings because it offers visual and physical accessibility and provides amenities and activities for the community. This integration with the surroundings increases the footfall and allows users to walk through the square and increase the time they spend there for a variety of purposes.

The vision of this development among the different stakeholders was to enliven the area and provide land use that would support the needs of the local community. The designer of Bermondsey Square was keen to deliver value to the area by including a new public space that would become a destination in itself for locals and visitors alike during the lifetime of the

square. The result showed that a majority (61%) of participants agreed that the design of the square did in fact positively impact its vitality. The results illustrate how keen different stakeholders of the development were to achieve their goal in developing the public square.

Bermondsey Square is perceived as a large open space by participants because of its degree of openness and accessibility, which, along with the provision of activities, affects the vitality of the place. It implies an association between how people perceive a public space and how they use it. The impression of the expansion of space could have resulted from the time that the questionnaire phase was conducted, which was on weekdays other than market days.

Stall-holders offered a different view of the space at the market. It was perceived as less wide than before the new development was built. Participants thought that the tall buildings which surround the market had restricted the openness of the place and that the market looks smaller that it should. The comparison of those perceptions within Bermondsey Square reveals the historical image that was developed over time among users and occupants. It reveals their concerns and desires for the place. They are keen to maintain the market as it used to be. Accessibility is another quality that is positively associated with the use of Bermondsey Square. It allows users to walk through the square without restriction and benefit from the many shops and amenities.

The experience of Bermondsey Square shows that social value is perceived through its image value, the formation of sentimental ties to the place, its vitality and its social impact. A high-quality physical setting can help define the activities and reinforce social interactions. The ability of an urban public space to provide users, residents and occupants with their needs for facilities and functions has been demonstrated to be an ingredient in social value, from the audience's point of view. Attachment to a place can be gained from the various experiences that people have while being in that place. The level of social cohesion, in this case, is raised slightly. It might be affected by land use, inclusiveness and the degree of a place's openness. The social impact of urban public space can be achieved due to the level of clarity of the physical and social goals of the place.

The development of Empire Square minimises the social impact on its users, and it does not tie the community together by contributing to strong social cohesion. It implies weak connections and relationships between the different social units within its context. On the other hand, the place attachment is strong among the users of Empire Square. This suggests that the square

significantly contributes to the binding together of individuals with a place. The square becomes meaningful and recognisable to users who use the place individually, which delivers meaning to them.

The findings reveal that good urban public spaces can increase a user's awareness of the surrounding area and begin a profound relationship that leads to greater place attachment. In this context, the social value of a place can be captured through the growing nature of a place from the experience of using it. The character of the place, part of which is defined by the activities of the many users who walk through, stay, visit or even avoid it, leads to possibilities rather than definite, unchangeable outcomes.

In the case of Bermondsey Square, the data gathered show a positive response regarding place impression and place attachment. The place offers a meaningful site for local users and generates activities that can also involve their families and friends. Bermondsey Square also maximises the social impact on its users by the provision of accessibility and activities. The square also links the community together by contributing to strong social cohesion. The role of the place in delivering intangible benefits to the community occurs as a result of a shift in public policy, moving away from physical aspects such as a cleaner, safer and greener agenda (UK-Government, 2006) to strengthening a sense of community in its broadest sense rather than its purely tangible aspects.

The role of users' participation in the progress of forming the place builds and maintains positive and effective bonds between the community and a place. The occupants of commercial spaces in the square support the trust financially. The fund is open to applications from locals to support events and activities that enliven the square and make a positive contribution to the wider community of Bermondsey (Bermondsey Square, 2014). This collaboration between local residents, the square's occupants and other businesses around Bermondsey Street has contributed to Bermondsey Square's success. For instance, the presence of the antique market, farmers market and Vitrine Gallery offer residents and the local community the opportunity to shop in a welcoming environment.

Southwark Council provides an environment in the Bermondsey area in which a variety of uses and housing types can be established. The area has been allowed to develop at its own pace and in its own style (Schwab, 2013). This approach has allowed the community to become involved in developing its own public spaces according to its own ideas and timelines. This

tactic, which gives space and time to the local residents to participate in the development of the area, can be a double-edged sword, because it acknowledges that regeneration can be a long-term process.

Some portion of the community will get involved positively and cooperate with the different stakeholders to accomplish the ultimate goal for their neighbourhoods while others will lean on the public sector without getting involved. However, the association with people, places, activities and events still support the abstainers' sense of belonging to the community (Lofland, 1998).

The character of a place is formed through a complex process of cultural and landscape effects that contribute to its distinctiveness (DETR, 2000a). Achieving such quality has been accomplished in the case of Bermondsey Square through introducing new land use that is associated with the provision of urban space. The experience of inhabitants and users in Bermondsey Square has been reshaped by providing a new and distinctive urban space, a process that can be replicated in the rest of London and in cities far beyond the capital.

Publicly accessible spaces bear a considerable responsibility for the ambiguity of continuity and enclosure of a place when design details are overlooked or the need to protect the place from its surrounding environment is exaggeration, as the present study's findings suggested. Madanipour (1998) asserts that forms of barriers determine the degree of inviting or excluding users when entering privately owned publicly accessible spaces. He claims that a combination of formalised rules, signs, fear and desires could control people's spatial behaviour and remind them of the limitations on their access, which is illustrated in the case of Empire Square. The degree of continuity and enclosure contributes more decisively to defining a place than either being simply public or simply private.

Even though good urban design is essential to providing high-quality places, the present study shows the difficulty in quantifying social value, due to the need for a substantial and multidisciplinary research approach. However, the findings do permit educated speculation on the likely causes for some aspects of social value that can be incorporated into good urban design.

The study shows the influence of the degrees of ease of movement in new urban developments. It shows how this sort of quality can contribute to the urban grain network of connected routes

beyond the boundaries of the development site itself and help form a sense of community. Accessibility is a key method of transferring the social impact of the development to its broader urban context. The study also reveals that Bermondsey Square and Empire Square enhance the existing urban context and contribute to the local identity by promoting legibility through generating visual interests.

High-quality urban public space based on the London Plan, which sought to promote the growth within the existing boundaries, was not able to promote social benefits for the community surrounding the mixed-use development of Empire Square. This results in developing an unsuccessful place in the view of most users, and shifts the emphasis from designing spaces to reforming the sense of place and injecting a sense of community into it. Designers and urban planners should focus on users' experience of public spaces as a necessary prerequisite for conceiving and constructing places in cities.

Re-evaluating current mixed-use developments that include public spaces, whether individually or collectively, contributes to developing the public sphere and can enhance the experience of future users. There is thus a necessity to expand the focus on achieving high-quality urban public space that is beyond the user's immediate perception. It is essential to generate dynamic places that allow both individual and community opportunities to grow.

7.2 The Implementation of a Sense of Place: The Potential Determination

The debate on the intangible concepts of urban public places such as image (Lynch, 1960), place identity (Norberg-Schulz, 1980), sense of place or *genius loci* (Norberg-Schulz, 1980) and social interactions (Jacobs, 1961, Whyte, 1980, Gehl, 2011) has a direct impact on the emergence of place-making as the predominant approach when creating high-quality urban spaces. Relph (1976) makes clear how place is such an integral part of the human experience by developing the notion of insideness. This concept indicates that the more strongly an environment produce a sense of belonging, the more strongly that built environment will become a genuine place. He shows that when people feel safe, enclosed and at ease inside a place, they develop a deep sense of that place. It is significant that in both cases in the present study the publicly accessible spaces generate a sense of place by imbuing a strong sense of belonging. The findings show that the case of Bermondsey Square has developed a greater

sense of place among its community by allowing a wide range of users and residents to use the place equally. In the case of Empire Square, the respondents illustrated this point when they were asked about how the square could generate a sense of place by providing a sense of belonging and overcoming the isolation that they currently experience in that place. They agree that the square was built to deter people from entering through the presence of gates, signs and a lack of visual accessibility, which accords with the desires of the actual residents of the development itself, though it literally leaves out the neighbouring community. A study by CABE and DETR (2001: 78) shows that 'good urban design enhances social inclusiveness by cutting down on the need for high profile security arrangements'. The square somehow does not bring the community together due to its lack of inclusiveness and its lack of a sense of belonging to the community but does deliver a sense of belonging and inclusiveness to its own residents.

Generally, the findings reinforce the model of place as (Relph, 1976) defines it: physical appearance, observable activities and functions and meaning are combined to generate a sense of place that is discussed in depth in the following section. The study outcomes indicate that both urban public spaces are considered attractive and well-designed, at least in terms of physical appearance. Bermondsey Square produces activities and perform useful functions for their users; it creates meaning and encourages users to come again. All these components play an effective role in generating a sense of place. The final product of place-making delivers a different sense of place depending on the elements that shape these places and 'the subjective and emotional attachment people have to a place'(Cresswell, 2015: 14). Therefore, places must have relationships with humans so that human capacities can act on their ability both to consume and to produce meaning in a place.

7.2.1 Physical appearance

Relph (1976) describes the role of the physical setting of place in relation to the notion of insideness. The place is seen as an arrangement of objects, views or activities. He describes the experience that people go through while getting comfortable and becoming aware of new places. A sense of place can be developed by knowing what is where and how the various physical objects of a place—paths, landmarks and so on—all unite together to deliver a complete place for people. Relph (1976: 49) describes the characteristics of people's behaviours when they genuinely feel like they are inside a place. He remarks that 'being inside

is knowing where you are'. Being inside make people feel safe rather than threatened, at ease rather than stressed and enclosed rather than exposed. He suggests that when a person feels deeply connected with a place, he or she will develop a strong identity with that place. Both case studies show the role of the publicly accessible spaces in developing not only physical qualities such as attractiveness but also non-physical benefits such as increasing a sense of security, promoting identity and ultimately creating insideness.

The results support the notion that increasing a sense of connected security within Empire Square requires not only visibility but also more mixed uses and a better awareness of and connection to the surrounding environment. This could increase the natural surveillance that will promote a feeling of safety and allow more users and residents to use the square. The development of Empire Square relied design elements and its physical appearance to raise people's sense of safety, but these security measures actually hinder the use of the square.

The findings from the observational aspect of the Bermondsey Square development show a place that is freely accessible day and night. Even though there are CCTV cameras on site, Bermondsey Square appears to depend much more on natural surveillance as a means of delivering a sense of security to its users. The design of the development and the arrangements of the boundaries of the public realm enhance people's safety and sense of security. Another factor that affects the sense of security in Bermondsey Square is that it has become a well-known local attraction, which increases users' awareness of the environment. Bermondsey Square has developed a place attachment that allows users to create a territorial place that sustains their sense of security. The square increases users' familiarity with the square and becomes the heart of the Bermondsey area due to its accessibility and vitality, which could also increase the sense of security.

The findings indicate that social value can be expressed by good-quality public spaces that can directly reduce the need for high-profile security measures. Heavy-handed security arrangements at a place, as in the case of Empire Square, actually signal that the place is private rather than public, reducing the overall social inclusiveness of the area.

It is clear from both case studies that delivering social value entails both physical and non-physical design measurements. The perception of security is an example that can be influenced by good qualities in the physical environment but also be affected by the presence of other users and the overall vitality of a place. These non-physical conditions must be influenced by

the local authorities or management agencies to enhance the sense of security without recourse to gates and cameras that send a message of exclusion. Finally, good urban design can improve the sense of users' sense of security, although it is influenced by other elements such as social interactions and users experience.

The reported benefits that the design of Empire Square created are aesthetic appreciation and safety and security that attract and benefit residents. However, users can only use the square according to the many rules that restrict and limit their use of the place. Even with such controls by the private sector, the square still manages to deliver some function and meaning to its surroundings through its physical setting. According to King as cited in (Algreen-Ussing, 2000: 26) 'a full understanding of the aesthetics of our cities and regions is an important part of the planning process. We must, however, be careful to make sure that it is not an empty aesthetics, but rather one that has a basis in the values and concerns of its residents and users'. Balancing the qualities of use and physical appearance can lead to producing useful, meaningful, beautiful and socially valuable urban places in our cities.

7.2.2 Activities and functions

The study supports that the level of variety of activities in a mixed-use development attracts more people to use it and encourages social interactions while generating a sense of vitality. The presence of facilities and activities provide purpose to a space, as Jacobs (1961) noted; the provision of facilities can have a direct influence on the social vitality of public spaces. McIndoe et al. (2005) shows that the relationship between public spaces and the provision of activities is growing because people want to meet in person and socialise with one another, despite the raid development of technology-based communications that has had such a strong impact on personal and business intercourse.

In the case of Empire Square, the management agency's approach was to let users use the space in certain hours and to provide functions and activities for users in the belief that this would contribute towards the vitality of the development. Users from the surrounding area managed to adapt to the current limitations and restrictions on the way the place must be used. They use the square as a pedestrian zone that offers them a short-cut. The major use of the square (46%) is only for walking through. However, the results suggest that the square adds some intangible benefits and resists the control of its management, at least to some extent. The

perception of some users of Empire Square is positive, and several thought that it had a potential that will be maximised over time.

From the experience of Bermondsey Square, the main source of generating a sense of place is allowing users, residents and occupants to become involved in the provision of the public life within the vicinity of the development. Bermondsey Square contributes a sense of place to both locals and tourists through the activities, events, amenities and services. The deliberate intention of engaging the area by staging activities and events and maintaining the market add social value on a broader level. The square allows all users to use the place freely, without restrictions or limitations.

As noted above, Bermondsey Square succeeds in introducing new land use to the area, even though it might exclude a group from its community. The design qualities of Bermondsey Square, such as good connectivity, accessibility, the degree of openness and mixed uses, all correlate with creating a sense of place. The footfall observed indicates the success of the collaborative plan for the square and is a measurable indicator of its social benefits. The design of the scheme promoted beneficial outcomes that create and enhance opportunities for positive social interactions and contribute to an improved sense of place.

The mixed use and activities that occur in the square not only support the vitality of the place but also encourage informal surveillance. This shows the high quality of connectivity that allows both people and places to benefit from natural surveillance that occurs by increasing 'eyes on the street', as Jacobs (1961) suggested; users feel safe while criminals feel exposed. The provision of activities within public spaces attracts diverse users whose presence reinforces the feeling of safety. Shoppers on the ground level can also see what happens in the square itself, showing the significant role that active edges facing public spaces, which have the quality of inter-visibility, can play in contributing to a sense of security.

The role of social interaction in the generation of a sense of community is clear from the presence of meeting points at a place, visiting in groups, the provision of events and activities and engagement of the community in those events and activities. The results illustrate three primary preferred areas for social interaction in Empire Square. These meeting points are assumed to support the development of a sense of community. The data show that 66% of participants who use Empire Square live within a quarter-mile radius of it, but only 10% visit the square as part of a group. This is actually an opportunity to develop opportunities for

residents and local users to generate social encounters among themselves. As mentioned above, engagement in community-related activities is essential not only for social interaction and place attachment, but also to build a strong sense of community. Residents begin to know their neighbourhood and other residents through the process of social interaction. The lack of stimulation in Empire Square minimises opportunities for residents to learn about their community and surroundings.

The findings show that Bermondsey Square increases social interaction and enriches the liveability of the area. Moreover, there are favourite areas within the space where users prefer to gather and meet. One major meeting point is in front of the Sainsbury's local store. This reflects the association between the sense of community and the presence and quality of local shops. It supports the concept that shops are important as meeting and gathering places in a neighbourhood and provide opportunities for social interactions (Lund, 2003). The data also show a significant number of participants visit the place as part of a group of people. The findings support the fact that the vitality of a place boosts its sense of community, which also reflects the role of activities and events as a means of facilitating social networks and the development of friendships (Coleman and Iso-Ahola, 1993). Bermondsey Square is a pleasant environment that encourages involvement in the neighbourhood. The square manages through the community fund to allow residents, as an essential element in the local society, to take part in organising activities and events. This contributes to a strong sense of community (Chavis and Wandersman, 1990).

Providing functions such as a walkable urban environment leads to higher levels of social interaction, which strengthens community life and increases interacting and neighbourly behaviours (Talen, 1999, Brown and Cropper, 2001). Empire Square provides a walking environment, despite the lack of footfall that was observed there. Here, the presence of the gates and the lack of activities have a direct effect on the place's vitality and the number of people who spend time in it. Even though Empire Square succeeded in being an attractive place for its residents, given its striking physical setting, which was not sufficient to increase the number of pedestrians. On the other hand, Bermondsey Square contributes significantly to increasing walkability by investing in the walking environment and providing a good experience for pedestrians. The design of the development provides mixed land use, accessibility, connectivity and a commercial ground floor to improve the quality of the place's function such as walkability. Bermondsey Square not only succeeds in facilitating the place for

the presence of people, whether they are standing around, shopping or enjoying being in the place but it also embraces pedestrian mobility. The findings support the assertion that one role of accessible public spaces is to provide public functions and facilities that can produce opportunities to meet with others (Jacobs, 1961, Whyte, 1980).

The social value of urban public spaces is a key factor in the cities due to its close relation to people needs from the very basic level to the complex. Since public spaces can affect people's quality of life, one role of the public spaces is that affording activities. If public spaces fail to provide these activities, parts of the society will be moved out of the public realm.

7.2.3 Meaning of place

The meaning of a place is captured by interacting with the place, which creates links and emotional bonds. Relph (1976) explored the meaning of places through the relationship between space and place. He first sought the types of spaces that people normally experienced and how their spatial experiences of these places helped develop a sense of place. He found that one quality of place was its power to call up and centre human expectations, experience and behaviour spatially. Emotional bonds are manifested as the place attachment formed by individuals for a physical location (Milligan, 1998). The coloration between the physical settings of space and meaning is undeniable if the place becomes distinctive; Sennett (1992) advocates that an original design of the physical environment generates meanings, while design that copies or borrows from other schemes allows the sense of place to remain or become unclear. The responsibility that architects, designers and planners have is significant in terms of generating a meaning of place.

Another aspect that can influence meaning of place is user perceptions. Place researchers suggest that users of places play a key role in creating meanings to the place (Berdoulay, 1989, Massey, 2013). According to this view, place emerges and changes according to a continuing process rather than being a static object. The role of users in creating the meaning of a place is of at least equal importance as the role of the designer of that space. People attribute meaning to places by the way they use them to construct part of their self-identity. This is a matter of using these places for self-identification, which is a basic cognitive process of distinguishing places (Gustafson, 2001). However, capturing the meaning of the place as an element of creating the sense of place is a difficult task because the meaning of a place is spontaneously attributed to it by users around and between the three components of self, others and

environment (Gustafson, 2001). It is difficult to grasp the meaning of a place because of the intangible and evolving nature of that meaning.

The development of Empire Square failed to generate enough leisure facilities and amenities that support the use of place and social interactions. Therefore, its meaning of place is not yet complete. Residents' personal relationships with the place might be stable at some levels but the same is not necessarily true with the users of the place. The attachment to the place, which was significantly high in this case according to the findings, can help generate a meaning of place, as the data show that 85% of interviewees feel some attachment to the place, have a connection to it and gain meaning from using the place over time.

Bermondsey Square increases people's attachment to local life, social interactions and people's memories by interactional processes between users and a place, as defined by Milligan (1998). The meaning of place, in the Bermondsey Square case, can be observed in both the active and passive roles of the place's users. Its users can be thought of as experiencing meanings that are physically embodied in the place, like the presence of the market and the other heritage site at Del' Aziz restaurant, that reinforce the social and cultural relations associated with Bermondsey (Relph, 1976). Meaning can also be associated with places and created socially by the individuals and groups who use and experience them (Cresswell, 2015).

The findings make clear meaning of place is expressed in the way that users attach themselves to place; Relph (1976) describes a place as a mix of the physical setting, its activities and the meanings that are intertwined in the experience of place. Place attachment is defined as the emotional and affecting bond that occurs between people and places.

The design of Empire Square generates appearance satisfaction among users and especially residents. The findings show that the design of Empire Square leads to attractiveness and welcoming everyone. A majority (76%) of participants agree that Empire Square is an attractive open space and 52% of participants agree that the square's design fails in welcoming all people. Character is a key element that should be considered in the design process, as by allocating sufficient space to maintain the traditional market in the case of Bermondsey Square. That development's design is informed by the profound character and identity of the area, which helps to determine the sense of place, which is scarcely defined completely by the modern appearance of the development. The results shows that 62% of participants agree that the development contributes to the identity of the local context through the presence of the

market: ‘There is a clear view that genius loci and “character” can be created through appropriate design and planning: this runs contrary to the view that these characteristics emerge from individual and community perception, values and experience‘ (Jive´n and Larkham, 2003: 74).

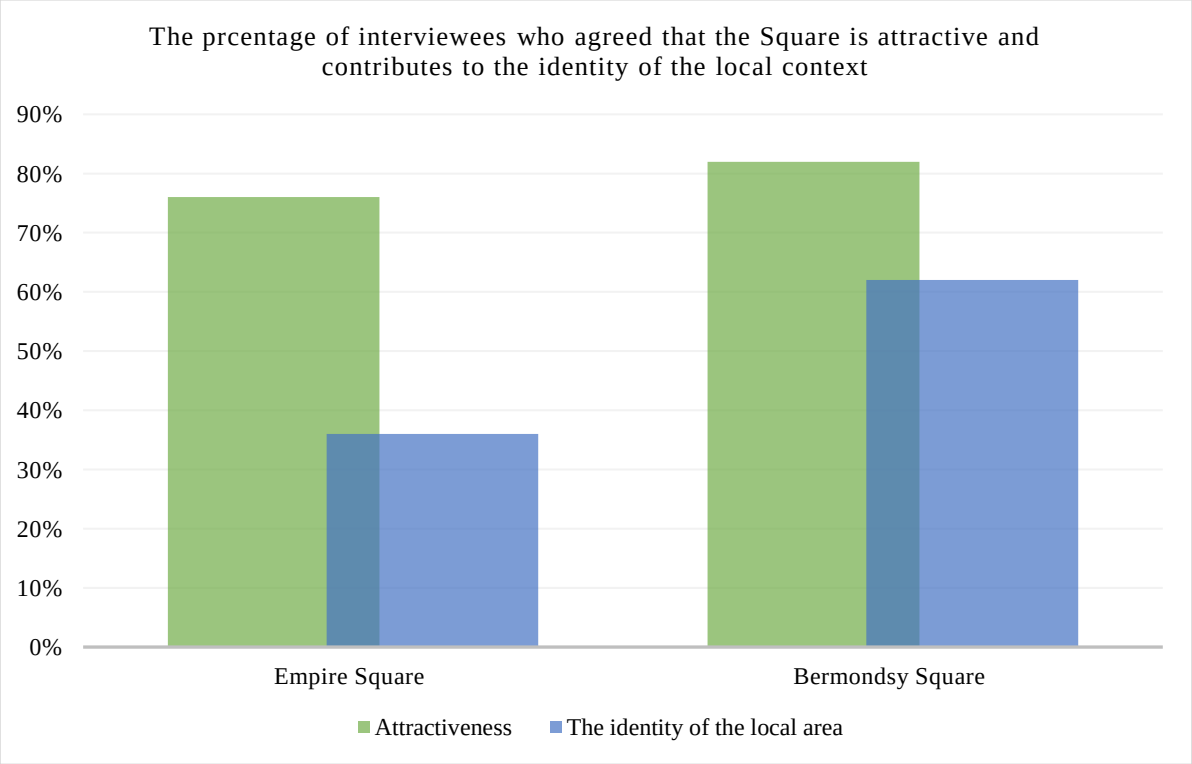


Figure 7-1: Design leads to an attractive atmosphere and contributes to the character of the local area

Both experiences show a significant effort in following the guidelines to generate a good physical form of development, including the creation of publicly accessible spaces. Both developments paid careful attention to details and use of materials. The character and appearance of both squares in terms of shape, form, natural features and the use of materials contribute to the attractiveness achieved by appearance and dissimilarity in contributing to the character of the local area (Figure 7-1). Because physical appearance is one of the indicators used to rate the quality of good urban places, it is an indicator of the good practice of urban design.

The attention toward social value has been increased as a result of the adverse effects of the visual–artistic trends in urban design and a focus on the requirements of vehicles rather than pedestrians. In this context, a comprehensive review of different tactics and aspects in urban public space was found important to uncover that social value has a deep connection with the

encouragement provided to residents. Encouragements are provided by places and buildings to interact in ways that lead to trust, shared understanding, shared values and supportive behaviours among society. Social value emerges when people have common interests that can join them with others. The social value of public space depends on the input that can be provided to people in term of increasing people's attachment to their local life, interacting face to face with others and people's memories of sites. Streets and markets that reflected hard spaces are extremely beneficial to many people as green spaces such as parks (Cattell et al., 2006). Therefore, Social value can be a part the urban identity where these social behaviours are controlled by the design of these public spaces or developed along with it.

7.3 Conclusion

The aim of urban design in generating publicly accessible spaces within new regeneration developments is partly to add social value to the existing, surrounding community. These spaces within new developments allow urban designers to evaluate and assess the impact of the transformation of cities along with the shifts in other aspects such as management, ownership and financing urban spaces. It is possible to describe and illustrate social value through the concept of public spaces. The re-emergence of publicly accessible spaces through the proper practice of urban design can help cities recover from fragmentation and support integration and interaction in communities.

Correspondingly, the discussion in this chapter has contributed to the visible expression of the challenging matters of urban design and adding social value through the concept of publicly accessible spaces within a new development. Considering the importance of the relations between individuals and their environment, Lynch (1960:6) notes that 'environmental images are the result of a two-way process between the observer and his environment. The environment suggests distinctions and relations, and the observer—with great adaptability and in the light of his own purpose—selects, organises, and endows with meaning what he sees'. Therefore, the provision of new regeneration projects including publicly accessible spaces is not only about providing a physical entity to the urban contexts but also about delivering a place where social life creates its own community values.

Users of Empire Square have a good understanding and awareness of the square and the limited type of activities it offers. They have adapted their use of the place and the time they spend in it according to its rules (see Chapter Five). Empire Square minimises the significance of the

role of the ground floor and its use by allowing only one active point of contact between users and the place (through the gym). This limitation on use is intended to prevent the place from becoming overcrowded and inviting non-residents into the square. The most successful place attributes represented by Empire Square are accessibility, security and a good visual image, but it lacks a key component that could attract more users to the place, which is the provision of leisure facilities and amenities. Social interactions are what residents and especially users are looking for in publicly accessible spaces. Simply being such a physically attractive place is not enough to add social value; indeed, overprotecting the square alienates people and deters them from using the square for longer visits of more varied purpose.

The lack of amenities and facilities in Empire Square has isolated the place from its community and potential users. It is reasonable that people want to use urban public spaces in our cities because they choose to, not because they are forced to do so. Urban design should give such places meaning and encourage their use. If not, it simply adds more alienating components to the fabric of cities. Even though it is important to have successful urban regeneration in our cities to improve quality of life, Empire Square was not successful in terms of increasing its vitality as a place.

The findings suggest that good development works well with the urban context in physical terms but at the same time underestimates its role in delivering social cohesion. Empire Square provides a level of intimacy to its residents without much concern for the surrounding community. Empire Square has changed from being the social arena for activities that it was supposed to be to simply a walking path for non-residents, and might have actually brought about a decline in terms of the social impact of the place. The findings show that the main use of Empire Square is confined to a pedestrian path, while the land use on the ground floor has failed to enliven the square.

On the other hand, Bermondsey Square has encouraged users to use the place more often by providing a wide range of leisure activities, so users tend to stay longer and the possibility of social interaction is increased. The management of the square shares its vision with users and the community to arrange activities and events. This creates a denser urban area which implies more place attachment, connectedness and visible liveability. The physical setting of the square makes it possible for it to hold these events and functions through its multi-use space.

Beyond the provision of activities and events, Bermondsey Square's most positive quality is that it is perceived as an accessible place for all, which makes it an attractive place that can and already does play an effective role in enhancing the image of its urban context. The development generates meaning for the place and has a positive effect on users, residents and tourists. The square has succeeded in creating a positive impression because the physical design enables flexible uses in which the community has significant input. The long-term process of the development of place attachment developed quickly in the current use of the place because of these positive effects. In this regard, Bermondsey Square provides events and activities that represent the local area to create a place attachment not only among its own community, but also among people over a wider area of London. Producing such a large number of events and activities reflects directly on the vitality of the place. Bermondsey Square has shown its intention to create social interaction by providing many activities, which has made it a success.

However, when it comes to social cohesion, the data show a division in the interviewees' responses. Some see Bermondsey Square as a means of increasing membership attitudes and behaviours by providing these activities and events. Social cohesion, in this case, is based on users and activities because this environment in particular can force users or even residents to fit in such attitude or to leave it altogether. Others see Bermondsey Square as a place that limits social cohesion because of the modern land use; in particular, the boutique hotel that has created a tourism scene or the leisure activities that cater only to a certain part of the population.

Bermondsey Square provides social impact to shape social value through its design and by the activities within the public space. These two factors are designed to influence social behaviour and help generate an urban identity. The uses and activities were assumed to generate spatial interrelations with users and residents and lead to an increase in well-being and community cohesion.

The study shows that the process of generating social value entails fundamental elements that including a high-quality urban public space, a sense of place, a sense of security and a sense of community rather than depending solely on the quality of the physical environment to deliver social value. Both physical design components and non-physical initiatives must be combined to eliminate the fragmentation of cities. The concept of generating places instead of mere 'geometric space' allows the relationship between users and a space to emerge and increase their sense of place.

The sense of place in the development of Empire Square favours the internal side of the development by providing aesthetic value and safety and security. Empire Square is a modern public space that suffers from a lack of sense of place and a beautiful but inauthentic and unwelcoming physical environment. In contrast, the Bermondsey Square development contributes directly to its community. It generates a sense of place by offering many activities, while the physical setting of the square allows everyone to participate in those activities and develop their own experiences of the place.

However, seems that Bermondsey Square is also seeking a new identity by introducing modern land use to the Bermondsey area, which might cause social exclusion. The place increases people's attachment to local life, generates meaning and creates a sense of belonging by allowing them to participate in activities and events.

Finally, social value is an intangible benefit that can be gained from places that shape community attitudes and help to create an identity for their neighbourhoods. Social value is among the benefits associated with good urban design that cannot be fully assessed within the scope of this research, due to many limitations. Some of the cumulative outcomes of several aspects of good urban design, such as those derived from place-making on a wider scale, cannot be observed in the short time period that was required for this study. Some others are perceived as benefits that are hard to capture or assets, including social cohesion and social inclusiveness that require sophisticated and long-term research approaches to measure accurately.

CHAPTER 8 : CONCLUSION

This study sought to address the relationship between urban design and social value through publicly accessible spaces within regeneration developments. The research went through a critical evaluation and adaptation of the existing frameworks for evaluating the quality of place, as well as research methods that facilitate understanding the social life of public places, such as use, occupation and user perception. The findings, through examining both physical features and human behaviours, gained knowledge of the spatial constructions of individuals' actions and perceptions and of the social life of publicly accessible spaces. The study posed the question, 'How can urban design affect the social value of publicly accessible spaces?' to investigate the development of social components delivered to cities by good urban design.

8.1 Conclusions Drawn from Both Case Studies

The main arguments presented in this study are that there are social benefits perceived by inhabitants, users and occupants of mixed-use developments that include publicly accessible spaces through facilitating behavioural, social and perceptual dimensions of the place as well as providing good physical solutions for urban design. The behavioural approach revealed the spatial determinants of activities and interactions that show how places can affect human behaviour. In this respect, the enhancement of design development and the changes that take place in urban spaces can be supported by providing better urban design solutions. The case of Empire Square limited its users' options by the degree to which management controls access to the place and by the place's land use approach. The social approach of the study sought to understand better the beneficial role of good urban design for public spaces and the social benefits that go beyond the borders of the developments and extend into the surrounding neighbourhoods to eliminate the fragmentation of our cities. Bermondsey Square serves as an example of the physical transformation of the urban public space that caused social change within its urban context. Meanwhile, the perceptual dimension of this study focused on the perceptions of users and residents of specific aspect like place impression, place attachment, place vitality and a sense of community to understand more fully the added social value attained by good urban design. Users of these spaces found social value in the provision of a variety of uses and activities, while the absence of these factors can cause spaces to be less vital and

underused. However, striking a balance between quietness and liveability in publicly accessible spaces is important for both users and residents.

The research supports the case that good urban design adds social value (Carmona et al., 2001, McIndoe et al., 2005). Good urban design offers tangible qualities that users, occupants and residents of a regeneration development can readily appreciate, such as accessibility, connectivity, attractiveness, continuity and enclosures. However, this study found that the need for non-physical design components, such as sense of place, sense of community, place attachment, user experience and meaning of place are equally necessary to maximise or even achieve social value.

The findings give much weight to the role of non-physical design components to explain certain aspects of social value. This approach has been applied because the research relies on only inhabitants, occupants and users to investigate how social value can be added and maximised, regardless of the other stakeholders who have a direct and indirect influence on the process of urban design development, such as planners, developers and investors.

The study also found it difficult to capture the social value of urban design fully through indirect methods that assess the perceptions and effects on the relevant individuals with an interest in better urban design due to the conceptual ambiguity of social value. It shows that it is not easy to quantify the user's perceptions of good urban design and its social benefits, which is difficult to demonstrate for two reasons. The first issue is the difficulty of involving a wide range of audiences to come to a definitive answer regarding the intangible benefits of urban design. The second issue is the challenge of defining what good urban design is and how it can be distinguished from bad urban design, which calls for thinking about urban design as both a process and a product at the same time.

Combining the behavioural and social and perceptual dimensions shows how complex the role of urban places can be when operating as a producer of change in urban contexts. Gathering data from two squares in London allowed the research to explore how the socio-spatial perspective on public space influences the social aspects of the physical form in creating social value. The provision of places should not rely solely on aesthetic aspects at the expense of minimising activities and functions that clearly enable and boost social value. A balance between the two aspects should always be sought. The physical transformation of urban places

needs to be both caused by and cause social changes instead of focusing strictly on spatial aspects.

This study used a behavioural, social and perceptual dimensional approach to show the social outcomes of good urban design. The primary goal of this approach is to support the view that good urban design should be promoted due to its capacity to add different types of value to a place. Producing enough tangible and intangible outcomes through good urban design can help solve the problem of urban fragmentation. The study could not provide precise measurements of the intangible benefits of good urban design, but did show that these intangible benefits are unquestionably related to the perceptions of users' experience of the place. The findings suggest strongly that Bermondsey Square contributes to its community by providing intangible benefits like social cohesion and social inclusiveness that bring the community together. The role of the place in this case was the result of a shift in public policy that involved moving away from physical aspects such as a cleaner, safer and greener agenda (UK Government, 2006) to supporting a sense of community, instead of simply emphasising physical and other tangible aspects. The approach of this study also promotes the re-emergence of the culture of feedback by drawing attention to both the tangible and intangible advantages of good urban design.

8.2 The Research Contribution

The study has taken further steps toward exploring at a deeper level how the social value that is attached to two specific urban developments is perceived by its audience. It has also taken further steps in filling the gap in the understanding of the sense of place and high-quality urban design found in the literature by combining the existing literature on the concept of place and the value of urban design and related disciplines. The study expressed the need for the integration of the social and physical built environment to be conceived as a multi-dimensional effort that can dynamically develop a space socially and physically at the same time. Limiting one dimension from another in addressing this complex context may lead to a decline in the role of urban design. It is essential for users of public space to see the opportunity that public space can give them to interact within their spatial environment instead of having meaning or specific experiences forced into place by designers or developers. The quality of people's lives can unquestionably be affected by urban public spaces. Therefore, they must provide people with both tangible and intangible benefits; otherwise, parts of society could be alienated from the public realm and suffer severe limitations in their daily lives.

This research took further steps by exploring specific aspects of the social value of urban design. Social value is a combination of intangible outcomes of urban design that can bond people together, generate interactions, reinforce a sense of place and sense of community, provide a sense of security and encourage neighbourly behaviour. While it is important to avoid excessive claims about the social value of urban design, this thesis has presented a wide range of evidence to illustrate how good urban design as a whole enables all kinds of influences on a variety of outcomes such as social interactions, sense of place and sense of security.

The research will benefit urban designers, planners and decision-makers by improving their understanding of the construction of social value. It shows the benefits of high-quality urban design, especially in the provision of public spaces, and encourages social value to be delivered in a wider form to the community as a whole rather than solely to the development and its inhabitants. Other aspects of this research are concerned with intangible qualities that make it difficult to provide definite answers. For instance, investing in a greater sense of community can be a thorny decision for the various urban design stakeholders when examining different urban design solutions that are supposed to have greater or wider benefits.

This study shows the need to increase the awareness of the broader and long-lasting outcomes of the social value of urban design on the wider society that result from regeneration developments. The aim of the social value of urban design is to create publicly accessible spaces that can enable a sense of place, a sense of community and a sense of safety and security, a combination that can be difficult to deliver. Indeed, this study raises the concern for urban designers in the contemporary context that achieving good urban design, from a physical or tangible perspective, does not necessarily guarantee the enhancement or even the existence of social value.

The findings support the intervention of urban design in aiding the promotion of the social dimension in cities. It shows the ability of the physical and tangible aspects of urban design to help define the socio-spatial articulation of a place and enhance users' experiences and meanings of a place. Thus, the understanding of the social value of urban design helps to reflect the identity of the geographic location as being part of the city as a whole. The social value of urban design cannot be delivered in fragmented cities where developments exercise the right to refrain from integration with their surroundings and limit accessibility to the site and its constituent parts.

It can be argued that this thesis cannot be used to generalise a definitive solution to the challenge of urban design in the regeneration development context. The study is limited in that it explores only one pair of case studies in a specific regional area. It was undertaken to focus on its main aim, which is to seek the direct effects of urban design on social value, rather than worrying about expectations that might be decades away from becoming an issue. The study could not assess the social value of good urban design directly. However, it did explore the relationship between the implementation of good urban design and how it is weighed against the social returns that were observed by the researcher and perceived by users of publicly accessible spaces. Therefore, the findings of this study indicate that the social value added by urban design is considerable. It can be seen as a further step in bridging the gap in the relationship between urban design and social value and as providing onward opportunities for further research.

The existing work supports many of the theoretical benefits of good urban design revealed in the literature review (see Chapter Three). The experience of both case studies confirms that the emergence of social value in urban places does not operate using similar procedures. Therefore, the provision of places should not rely on the aesthetic aspects alone at the expense of activities and functions that enable and boost social values. A balance between both aspects should always be sought. The outcomes of this research strongly suggest that urban design adds value by balancing the generation of space and behavioural settings to deliver social benefits to our communities.

8.3 Opportunities for Further Research

The main aim of this study was to provide an understanding of the relationship between urban design and social value in publicly accessible spaces. The results are consistent with the findings of related studies in this area and should be followed by further research. It would be beneficial to develop a relatively portable and adaptable research method that measures the social value added by new regeneration development so as to identify areas where enhancements are desired. The target of this method is a qualitative tool that can support maximising the social impact of urban design. It should serve as an additional step towards a perceptible assessment of social return from the physical and social transformations of our cities. The use of this method should be beneficial for decision-making by offering a measurable social value that will be generated or diminished as a result of developments. The

concern is not with creating a method that can assess social value from a static perspective but with one that will examines changes in the perceptions of value and how those perceptions and changes inform urban places. Producing such a tool for urban design would require comprehensive case studies to assess and refine the tool.

This research can be taken to the next level by increasing the number of case studies and allow for even more meaningful conclusions to be drawn and to show more of the variety in the practice of urban design. A greater number of case studies that involved the UK as a whole would help to evaluate the benefits of good urban design that can be combined with the expectations and practices of decision-makers. Each case study should be assessed in a way that enables meaningful findings by requiring significant local knowledge and the specific social background of each urban context.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Site Observation Map

The Social Value of Urban Design in Mixed Use Developments in London

Site Observation Form

A.1 Name of the site

Empire Square ■ Bermondsey Square ☐

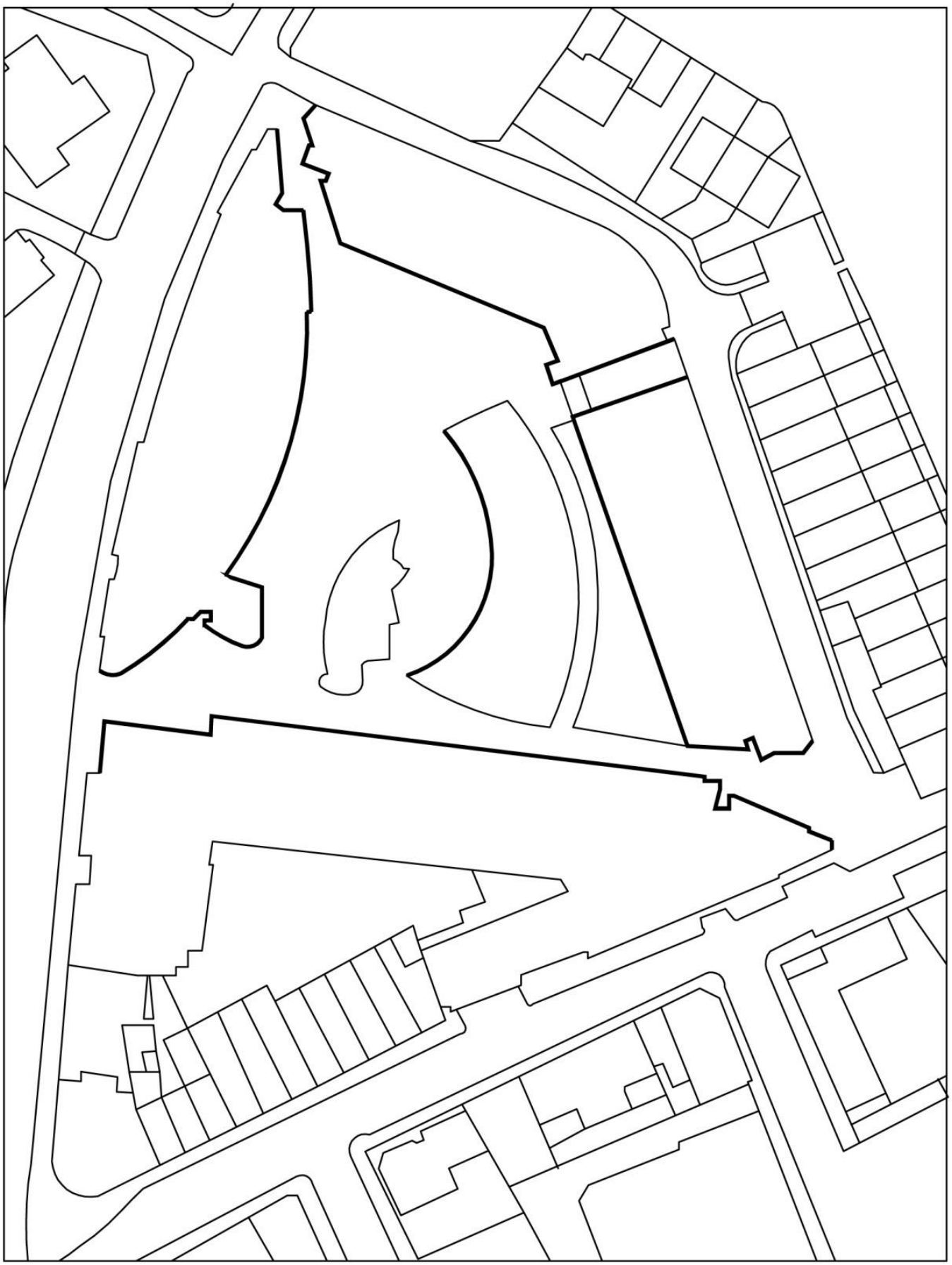
A.2 Data of the day observation work is undertaken

Date	
Period of observation	
Temperature and the wind	
Weather condition	

A.3 What to observe?

Category	Data	Comments
Pedestrian Movement	Intensive pedestrian traffic Frequent pedestrian traffic Less frequent pedestrian traffic	
Types of Activities	Gathering & meeting Standing Seating	
Nodes and Spatial Qualities	Primary node Secondary node	
Interactions & Movement	Most interactive areas Least interactive areas	
Façade Interactive Points & Arrival Points	Interactive façade Non- interactive façade Arrival points	

A.4 Pedestrian Movement

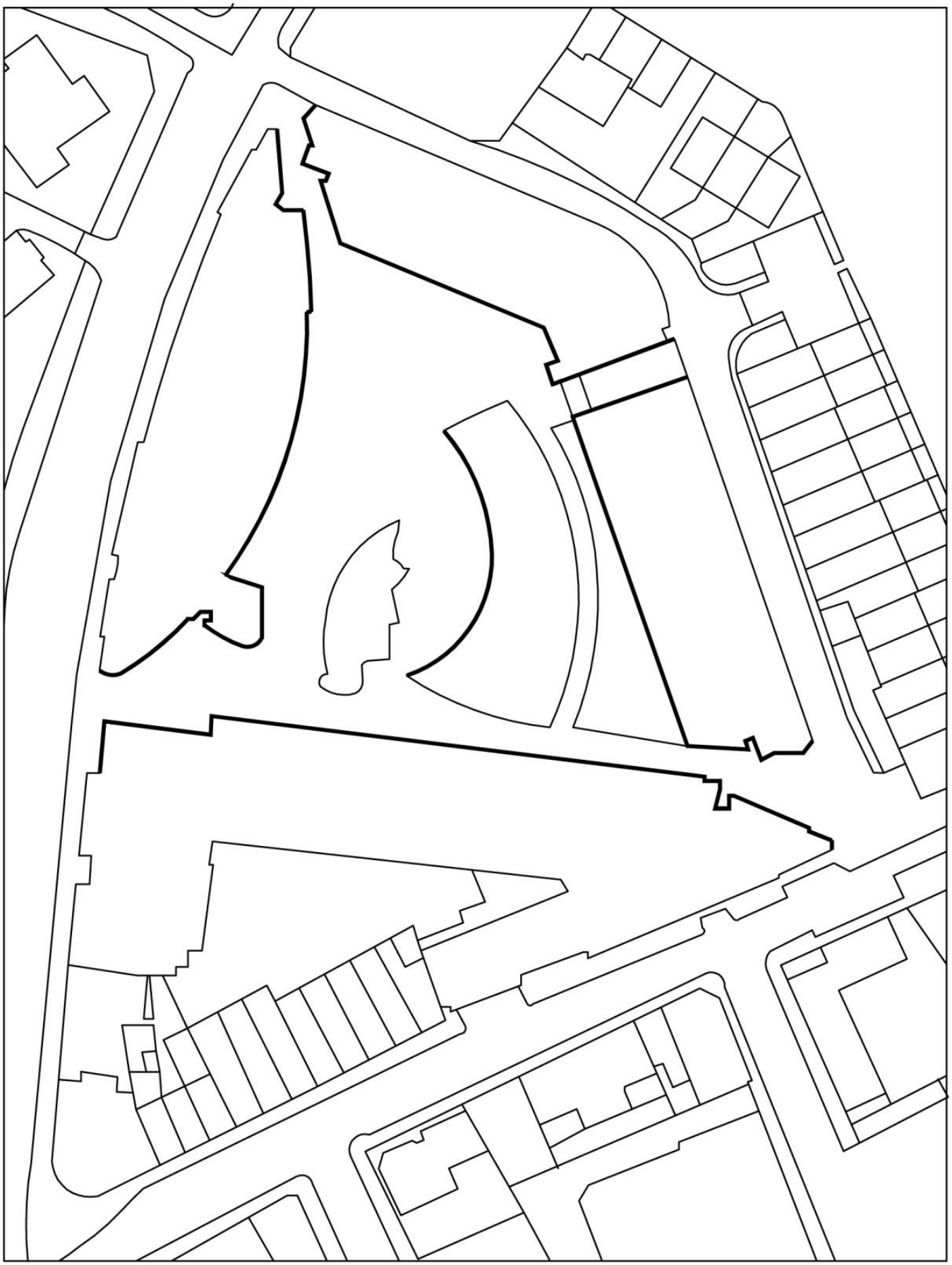


Intensive pedestrian traffic

Frequent pedestrian traffic

Less frequent pedestrian traffic

A.5 Types of Activities

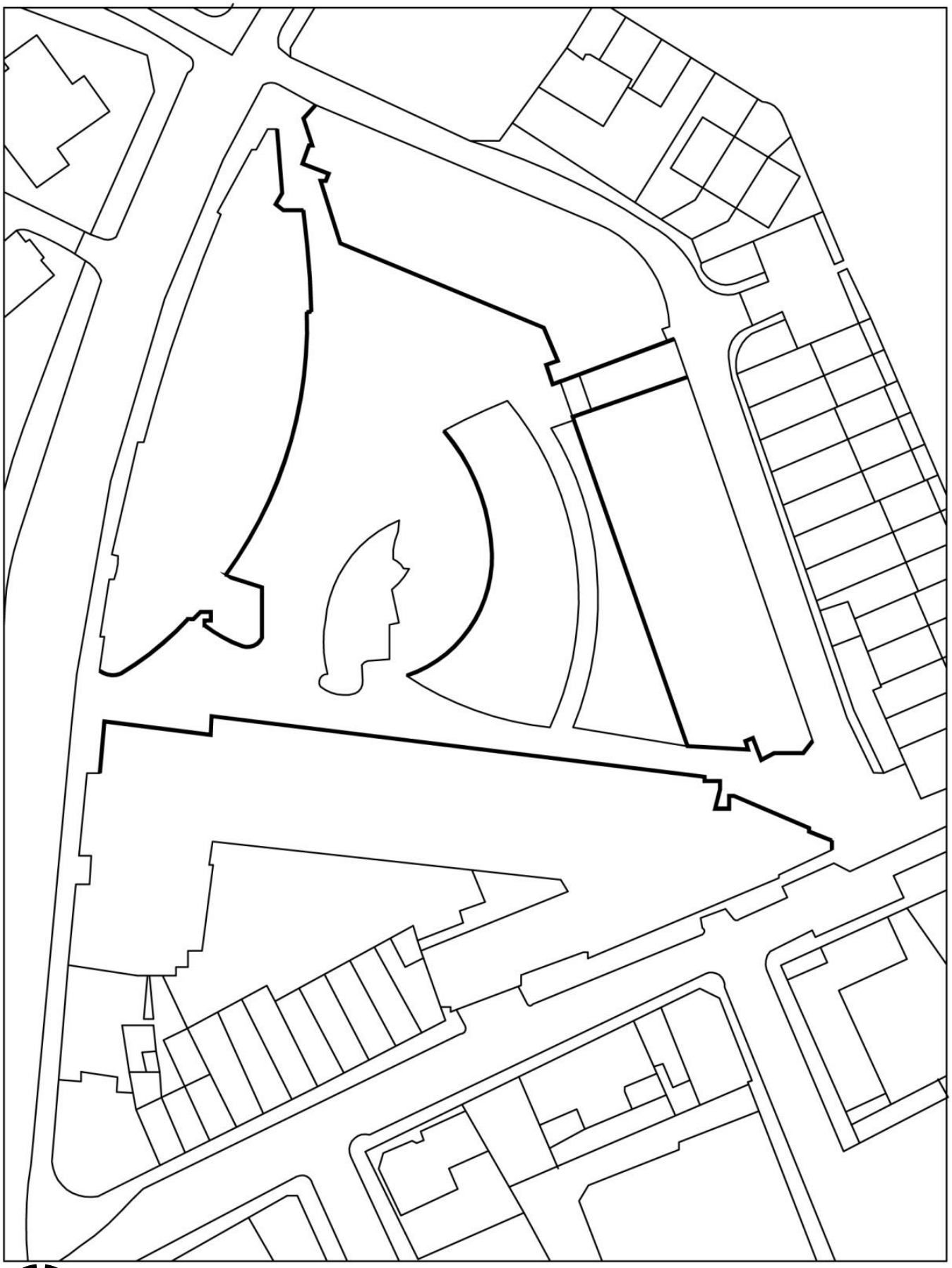


Gathering & meeting

Standing

Seating

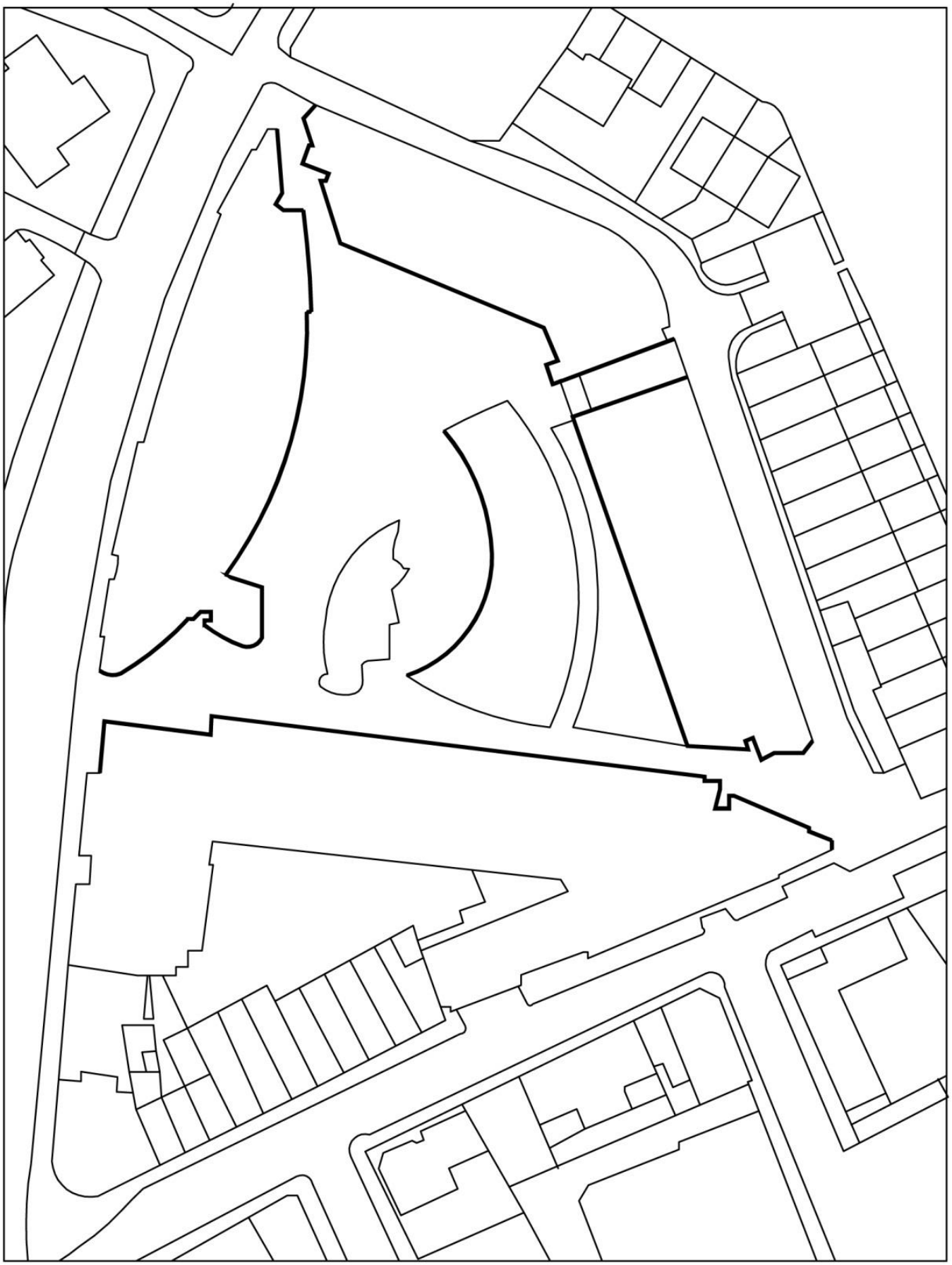
A.6 Nodes and Spatial Qualities



Primary node

Secondary node

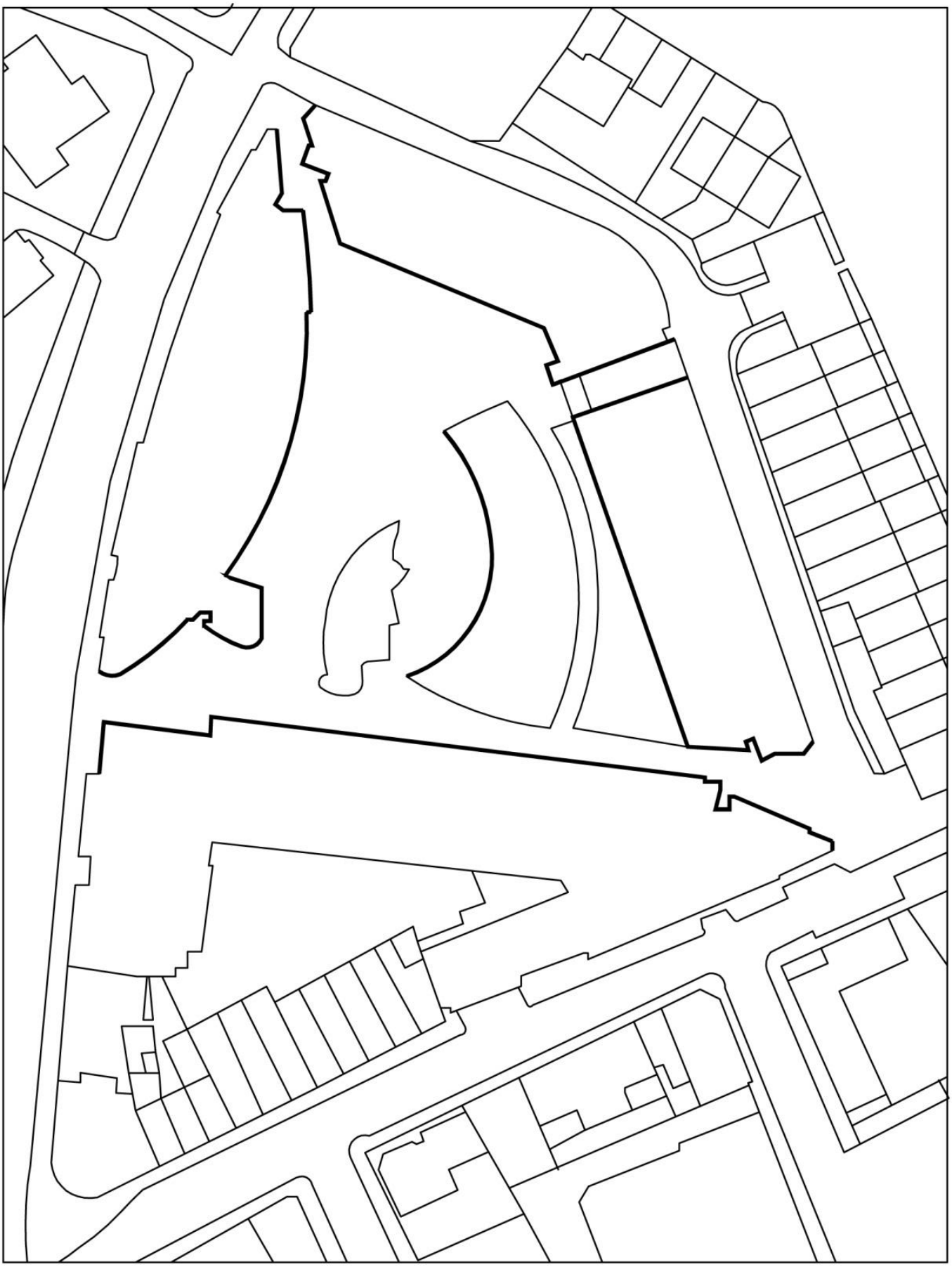
A.7 Interactions & Movement



Most interactive area

Least interactive areas

A.8 Façade Interactive Points & Arrival Points



Interactive façade

Non- interactive façade

Arrival points

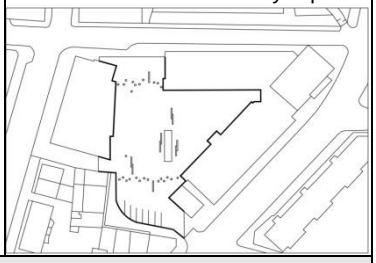
Appendix 2: Questionnaires

The Social Value of Urban Design in Mixed Use Developments in London

The University of Nottingham

My name is Abdulaziz Alzahrani, a Ph.D. researcher at the Department of Architecture and Built Environment, University of Nottingham. The main aim of this study is to explore the social value that can be provided by the urban design through the public spaces within new mixed-use developments at the level of relationships between local residents in the surrounding areas and these accessible public spaces.

Bermondsey Square



Section A: about you

A.1 Which of the following categories best describes your age? (Please tick one)

18-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-74 ☐ 75 or over ☐

A.2 Gender (Please tick one) Female ☐ Male ☐

A.3 Do you have a disability that affects your use of this open space? (Please tick one)

Yes ☐ No ☐ Rather not to answer ☐

A.4 Which of the following best describes your ethnic group? (Please tick one only)

White ☐ Mixed ☐ Asian ☐ Black ☐ Chinese ☐ other (please write) ☐

A.5 Where do you live?

- ☐ I live here
- ☐ Within ¼ mile away from here
- ☐ ¼ to ½ mile away from here
- ☐ ½ to 1 mile away from here
- ☐ 1 to 2 mile away from here
- ☐ 2+ miles away from here
- ☐ Other (please write in)

Section B: about your visit

B.1 How often do you visit this open space?

- ☐ Rarely
- ☐ Once a month
- ☐ Once every two weeks
- ☐ Once or twice a week
- ☐ Most days
- ☐ Every day
- ☐ Other (please write in)

B.2 What do you normally do when you visit this open space?

- ☐ To relax
- ☐ To meet friends
- ☐ To walk through
- ☐ For a walk
- ☐ Enjoy the surroundings
- ☐ Take a short cut
- ☐ Other (please write in)

B.3 How long do you usually stay at this open space?

- ☐ Do not visit
- ☐ Less than 30 minutes
- ☐ 30 minutes - 1 hour
- ☐ 1 - 2 hours
- ☐ More than 2 hours
- ☐ Other (please write in)

B.4 Where do you usually travel from when you come to this open space?

- ☐ Home
- ☐ Work
- ☐ Hotel
- ☐ School
- ☐ College
- ☐ Shops
- ☐ Other (please write in)

B.5 How do you normally travel to this open space?

☐ On foot	☐ Taxi
☐ Bicycle	☐ Bus
☐ Motorbike	☐ Metro
☐ Car	☐ Train
	☐ Other (please write in)

B.6 How long does your usual journey take to get to this public space?

☐ Less than 5 minutes	☐ 16 to 20 minutes
☐ 5 to 10 minutes	☐ 21 to 30 minutes
☐ 11 to 15 minutes	☐ More than 30 minutes

B.7 Do you usually visit this open space alone or with others?

☐ Alone
☐ In a group
☐ Both

B.8 When you visit as part of a group, who visit(s) this open space with you normally?

☐ Partner	☐ Children
☐ Colleagues	☐ Other family
☐ Friends	☐ School group
	☐ Other (please write in)

B.9 How many people, including yourself, would be with you when you visit this open space as a part of a group?

	Children (0-12)	Teenagers (13-17)	Adults (18-60)	Senior citizens (60+)
Male				
Female				

Section C: about the open space

C.1 Do you use this open space regularly?

☐ Yes (If 'Yes', please go to C.3)

☐ No (If 'No' please go to C.2)

C.2 Why do not you use this open space more often?

☐ It is not easy to get here	☐ Space is overcrowded
☐ Lack of facilities	☐ The space is not clean
☐ Not convenient	☐ There are other open spaces nearby my home
☐ The space is too small	☐ Other (please write in)

C.3 What are your impressions of this space? (Please tick more than one option)

☐ Empty	☐ Not too bad
☐ Crowded	☐ Good
☐ Cold	☐ Very good
☐ Spacious	☐ Other (please write in)

C.4 In this open space, what would you like to change to make it better?

☐ Be more open	☐ Add more green area
☐ Add more seating	☐ Nothing
☐ Add more biking parking	☐ Other (please write in)

C.5 In terms of qualities, what do you like in this open space?

☐ Accessibility	☐ Sociable place
☐ Enclosure/Openness	☐ Cleanliness
☐ Engaged in activities	☐ No traffic
☐ Comfortable place to stay	☐ Other (please write in)

C.6 What gives this open space a unique character?

☐ Social interaction and activities	☐ Reflecting the local culture
☐ Safe and welcoming all users	☐ Multiple uses of a space
☐ Interesting design	☐ Good maintenance
	☐ Other (please write in)

C.7 In your opinion, who do you think would not feel welcome in this open space?

☐ Non-residents	☐ Teenagers
☐ Homeless people	☐ I do not know
☐ No one	☐ Other (please write in)

C.8 How much do you agree with the following statements? (Please tick one only option for each statement)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
This open space is attractive					
This open space is accessible and well connected with the surrounding areas					
This open space contributes to the identity of the local context					
This open space contributes to civic pride (sense of community) attached to the local context					
This open space is considered to be active and lively during different times of the day					
The design plays effective role in welcoming all people in this place					
The design of this open space has affected the vitality of the place in a positive way					
This open space has influence on my feeling while I am here (well-being)					
This open space has improved the connectivity of this development with the local context					
This open space contributes to the improvement of the supply and quality of amenities in the local context					
This open space encourages the community to use the space in their free time					
This open space generates strong community relations (social cohesion)					

Please use this space if needed

Question No.	Your answer

Appendix 3: Semi-structured Interview Questions

The Social Value of Urban Design in Mixed Use Developments in London	The University of Nottingham
My name is Abdulaziz Alzahrani, a Ph.D. researcher at the Department of Architecture and Built Environment, University of Nottingham. The main aim of this study is to explore the social value that can be provided by the urban design through the public spaces within new mixed-use developments at the level of relationships between local residents in the surrounding areas and these accessible public spaces.	

Section A: about you

A.1 Age: **A.2** Gender:

A.3 Time: **A.4** Weather condition:

Section B: questions

B.1 What is your impression of the square and its use? Place impression

B.2 what is the most important area in the square? Moreover, what does it mean to you? Place attachment

B.3 Do you think this is a sociable place? If so why? Place attachment

B.4 What do you think of the liveliness of the square in this condition? Place vitality

B.5 Do you feel safe and welcome at this square? How does the square help to generate social interactions with other? Social impact

B.6 Does this square help to generate a sense of community? If so how? Social cohesion