Urban Design Toolkit
Third Edition
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The Urban Design Toolkit would not have been possible without the collaborative efforts of a large number of people. The project began in May 2004 with a focus group workshop with representatives from central and local government, the development sector, surveyors, resource management lawyers and planners, engineers, landscape architects, architects and urban designers. The workshop set the direction of the Toolkit towards a detailed record of urban design methods and techniques. These techniques would inform people on the processes to help achieve quality urban design outcomes and add value to urban design initiatives. The first edition of the Urban Design Toolkit was published in February 2006. The second edition was published in April 2007.

Since then, several additions to the tools and examples have been requested. The Ministry for the Environment would like to thank people for their feedback, because it is through this that the Toolkit has been enhanced and developed further.

We would also like to thank urban design professionals and education providers who have used the Toolkit as a resource in their work. This has increased the base of Toolkit users throughout the country.

The Urban Design Toolkit is a living, web-based resource. We look forward to ongoing feedback and contributions of additional tools, references and examples, to help with the development of further editions.

This edition has been project-managed by Erica Sefton, with input from Yvonne Weeber in the Ministry for the Environment’s Liaison and Review Team.

Disclaimer

The tools within this Toolkit can be used to facilitate high-quality urban design. The linked websites provide references to examples and publications that describe the tools. The Ministry for the Environment is not responsible for the content or reliability of the linked websites, and does not necessarily endorse the views expressed within them.
Introduction

About the Urban Design Toolkit

The *Urban Design Toolkit* is a compendium of tools that can be used to facilitate high-quality urban design. For some, the Toolkit will provide an important resource, assisting them in the application of quality urban design projects. For others, the Toolkit may provide increased insight into the breadth and depth of urban design and a starting point in identifying how to achieve quality design. The Toolkit includes a wide range of tools that are typically used by a number of different professions, both in New Zealand and overseas. The bringing together of these elements into one resource will enable a broader understanding of potential tools and provide a wider knowledge base to different professions, *New Zealand Urban Design Protocol* signatories and sector organisations.

What’s New in the Third Edition?

This third edition of the *Urban Design Toolkit* contains 10 new tools and well over 100 new examples and references from New Zealand and overseas.

Three new research and analysis tools have been added to section 1:
- assessment of environmental effects
- social impact assessment
- transport impact assessment.

Seven new planning and design tools have been added to section 4:
- asset management plan
- growth strategy
- heritage strategy
- transport strategy
- travel plans
- urban design action plan
- walking and cycling strategy.

A variety of new examples and references have been added throughout to existing tools. Section 4 contains most of the new examples. These are largely New Zealand based and include community plans, non-statutory design guides, growth strategies, urban design frameworks and urban design strategies. Section 5 also includes new examples of implementation tools, for example, for seed funding and urban development corporations.

Information from an appendix has been shifted to section 3 under the tool ‘Urban design websites’. This covers general websites that promote and provide information on urban design.
The Urban Design Toolkit and the New Zealand Urban Design Protocol

This Urban Design Toolkit supports the implementation of the New Zealand Urban Design Protocol. The Protocol, launched in 2005, is a voluntary commitment by central and local government, property developers and investors, design professionals, educational institutes and other groups to create quality urban design through undertaking specific urban design actions. The collective actions that individual signatories take will, together, make a significant difference to the quality and success of urban design in our towns and cities.

The Urban Design Toolkit is one of several supporting resources available to help signatories to the Protocol, and others involved in urban design, to create high-quality urban design outcomes. Other resources supporting the New Zealand Urban Design Protocol include the Urban Design Action Pack, Urban Design Case Studies and The Value of Urban Design.

What are Urban Design Tools?

Urban design tools are specific techniques that can be applied at appropriate stages in the design or project planning process to facilitate quality outcomes. These tools can help in understanding the urban context, encouraging community involvement, increasing the understanding of urban design issues, describing intended design outcomes, establishing design processes, and organising people and resources. They can be used either individually or collectively in achieving quality urban design outcomes.

Urban design is a collaborative and multi-disciplinary process. It generally involves a large number of people, from the initial concept phase through to implementation and ongoing management. Several legislative tools, including the Resource Management Act 1991, the Local Government Act 2002, and the Land Transport Management Act 2003, influence urban design. The urban design tools can help produce statutory and non-statutory plans and strategies under these statutes.

This Urban Design Toolkit has been designed to help those involved in every stage of the process to work together more effectively, by describing a wide variety of tools used commonly in urban design, and by providing a common vocabulary for talking about urban design issues. Judicious selection and skilled application of appropriate tools and techniques will help achieve high-quality urban design in our towns and cities. However, no tool, process or programme can substitute for professional experience and the commitment of the people involved in generating creative, high-quality urban design solutions.

How to Use the Urban Design Toolkit

Although you may read this Toolkit in one go, you are more likely to dip in and out of it looking for a specific tool or suite of tools that can help you with an urban design project. To enable this, the Toolkit has been arranged into discrete sections.

The tools have been grouped into five sections reflecting the life-cycle stages of most urban design projects. These are:

- *research and analysis tools* for understanding the urban context
- *community participation tools* for encouraging community involvement and informing initiatives
• *raising awareness tools* for increasing understanding of urban design
• *planning and design tools* for describing intended design outcomes
• *implementation tools* for establishing processes and organising people and resources.

For each tool, there is a detailed explanation on what it is, what it’s useful for and how it’s done. References and examples are provided where the actual tool has been applied in a project. These include references to websites, articles and publications that describe the tool, the theory behind it, and examples related to its application. New Zealand references or examples are provided wherever possible.

It should be noted that it was not possible to include every tool related to urban design in this Toolkit. For example, we have not included specialised planning, public participation, project management tools and specialist professional tools. Nor have we included tools relating to visual assessment, project management, or financial modelling.

The underlined words throughout the document are links to tools that are available in the Toolkit.

Words in quotation marks are alternative names for, or particular components of, the tools.
Section 1: Research and Analysis Tools

Understanding the Urban Context and Character

Research and analysis tools are essential for understanding the context and character of the urban environment. These tools should be used in the first steps of an urban design project. They identify the qualities that make a place special, and enlighten design development and decision-making. The wide scope of urban design research encompasses, amongst other things, the history, physical form and characteristics of towns and cities, and the behaviour of the people who inhabit them. Common topics for urban design research include the analysis and aspects of activity, accessibility and liveability.

These tools can be used in various ways to inform successful design and management actions. They are often used in a variety of combinations. For example, an urban design audit or character appraisal of a site or neighbourhood may involve analytical techniques, such as a walk-through, studies of urban morphology and building typology, mapping techniques, and archive research.

This section describes:

- Accessibility Assessment
  - Accessibility audit
  - Accessibility option appraisal
  - Accessibility action plan
- Archive Research
- Assessment of Environmental Effects
- Behaviour Observation
  - Behaviour mapping
  - Activity mapping
  - Physical trace observation
- Building Age Profile
- Character Appraisal
- Crime Prevention through Environmental Design Safety Audit
- Crime Prevention through Environmental Design Safety Site Assessment
- Health Impact Assessment – Urban Design and Health/Well-being
- Legibility Analysis
  - Cognitive mapping
  - Mental mapping
- Mapping
  - Overlay mapping
  - GIS mapping
  - Aerial photographs
  - Digital elevation model
  - Digital terrain model
- Ped-shed Analysis
- Social Impact Assessment
- Space Syntax Analysis
- Surveys
  - Public satisfaction surveys
  - 3+, 3− surveys
  - Three questions surveys
  - Visual preference survey
  - Placecheck
Accessibility Assessment

What it is:
A measurement of how easy it is for people to reach a desired activity, including places of work, health care facilities, education facilities, food shops and other destinations that are important for participating fully in society.

What it’s useful for:
To identify barriers to accessibility and the resources available to address those barriers. The base data and evidence guide decision-making and inform the development of an accessibility action plan.

How it’s done:
An ‘accessibility audit’ identifies barriers to accessibility, drawing as much as possible on information already held by local authorities and other bodies. The audit could be carried out through GIS-based mapping of socio-demographic information, data on deprivation and car availability in relation to public transport routes and the location of services; complemented by consultation with local communities and liaison with frontline professionals and providers of services.

An ‘accessibility option appraisal’ identifies the resources, including financial and existing services and facilities, and a set of locally appropriate solutions that provide the greatest benefits for tackling accessibility barriers. This includes considering whether better use could be made of existing services and facilities through co-location of services, changes in opening times or partnership agreements.

References/examples

- Accessibility planning: http://www.dft.gov.uk/pgr/regional/ltp/accessibility/. Provides a variety of information on accessibility planning and analysis, including background reports, accessibility processes, case studies and planning initiatives in the United Kingdom.

you to produce a contour map for a particular location showing commuting time by public transport. Can also be combined with house prices so you can work out where you can afford to live within your specified commute time (in the United Kingdom). It can also map locations that indicate where it is quicker to drive a car or cycle, than to take public transport to a specific location.

- The New Zealand Transport Agency (formerly Land Transport New Zealand) provides information on neighbourhood accessibility planning: http://www.ltsa.govt.nz/road-user-safety/walking-and-cycling/neighbourhood-accessibility-planning.html. Neighbourhood accessibility planning is designed to help councils improve walking and cycling access and safety. The process involves community consultation to identify the main issues for pedestrians and cyclists then specifying actions to address these, such as engineering, education or policy initiatives. Includes various templates for councils.

- Ministry for Social Development, Family and Community Services Group – local services mapping: http://www.familyservices.govt.nz/our-work/community-development/local-services-mapping/. The Family and Services Group (part of the Ministry for Social Development) facilitates each territorial authority through the local services mapping process. Central and local government, iwi and community-based agencies collaborate to identify social priorities and highlight areas for action.


- Walkscore: http://walkscore.com. This website allows you to calculate how walkable your neighbourhood is. Walkscore rates the relative distance to, and density of, everyday businesses like grocery stores and coffee shops. Most major US cities are rated and ranked but the tool can also be used for New Zealand cities and neighbourhoods.

Archive Research

What it is:
Collecting and analysing a wide range of historical data contained in, for example, institutional, corporate or public records. Archive research provides historical information about the past environment, activities and structures.

What it’s useful for:
Archive research provides invaluable primary and secondary source material where it is not possible to observe, interview or survey the past community. It allows the analysis of the past
heritage, character and context for projects where maintaining an authentic sense of place is important.

**How it’s done:**

Collections of maps, drawings and photographs are particularly useful for urban design and heritage-related research. Collections of archival material can be found in the New Zealand Archives, the Alexander Turnbull Library (a collection in the National Library of New Zealand), museums, most universities, as well as local council libraries and archives.

**References**


- **Architectural Archives, Macmillan Brown Library, University of Canterbury**: [http://library.canterbury.ac.nz/mb/](http://library.canterbury.ac.nz/mb/). Consists of around 20,000 items from the 1870s through to the 1980s. It holds drawings from most of Christchurch’s leading architectural practices.

- **Archives New Zealand Te Rua Mahara o te Kāwanatanga**: [http://www.archives.govt.nz/](http://www.archives.govt.nz/). Works to ensure there is an authentic and reliable record of government by advising government agencies on how to create and maintain records. It preserves and provides access to those records that need to be kept permanently, and is responsible for millions of such items, including the Treaty of Waitangi, immigration and legal records, films and photographs.


- **National Library of New Zealand Te Puna Mātauranga o Aotearoa**: [http://www.natlib.govt.nz/](http://www.natlib.govt.nz/). Has a unique role to collect and maintain literature and information resources that relate to New Zealand and the Pacific, to make this information readily available and preserve New Zealand’s documentary heritage for generations to come. The National Library holds rich and varied collections of research material, and includes the Alexander Turnbull Library – a storehouse of words, pictures and sounds that tell us about the activities of people in New Zealand and the Pacific.


- **The Architecture Archive, University of Auckland Library**: [http://www.architecture-archive.auckland.ac.nz/](http://www.architecture-archive.auckland.ac.nz/). Dates from 1975 and has drawings, perspectives, photos, specifications and other articles allied to architectural and construction processes. The archive is the repository of the New Zealand Institute of Architecture Annual Awards from 1927 to the present.

- **The Hocken Collections, University of Otago Library**: [http://www.library.otago.ac.nz/hocken/index.html](http://www.library.otago.ac.nz/hocken/index.html). Includes material from Otago and Southland, including material from architectural practices.

- Also contact your local museums, historical societies and libraries.
Assessment of Environmental Effects

What it is:
An Assessment of Environmental Effects (AEE) is the common term used in New Zealand because of its use within the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA). It is a process of identifying and evaluating the potential positive and negative impacts that a proposal may have on the environment. The purpose of this assessment is to ensure that decision-makers consider environmental impacts before deciding whether or not to proceed with a particular project. See also health impact assessment, social impact assessment and transport impact assessment.

What it's useful for:
All applications for resource consent under the RMA require an AEE (see section 88 and Schedule 4 of the Act). An AEE identifies the effects of a proposal, provides information on how measures can be incorporated to reduce or mitigate adverse effects and helps to identify whom to consult. For councils, an AEE forms the basis of its decision-making including whether or not to approve the application and/or impose conditions.

The kind of effects that could be included in an AEE include:
- those on the neighbourhood and wider community, including socio-economic and cultural effects
- physical, including landscape and visual effects
- ecosystem, including effects on plants or animals and the physical disturbance of habitats in the vicinity
- those on natural and physical resources having aesthetic, recreational, scientific, historical, spiritual, cultural or other special value for present or future generations
- any discharge into the environment, including any unreasonable emission of noise and options for the treatment and disposal of contaminants
- any risk to the neighbourhood, wider community or environment through natural hazards or the use of hazardous substances or hazardous installations.

How it’s done:
An AEE should include a detailed description of the proposed project. All the environmental effects need to be identified (see above for examples of what should be considered). This should include positive and negative, and temporary or permanent effects. Often, a council’s plan includes information on the kind of effects that should be included when an application is required for a resource consent.

After all effects are identified an assessment of their magnitude should be carried out. This would detail no effect, a minor effect, a major or significant effect, or a critical effect. At this point consideration should be given as to how the proposal could be modified if necessary to reduce the impact of those effects. Alternatives should also be considered and included.
References

- The International Association for Impact Assessment (IAIA): http://www.iaia.org/modx/ Provides a useful overview of international best practice in the field of impact assessment. Covers environmental as well as social and health impact assessments. See also the New Zealand Association of Impact Assessment: http://www.nzaia.org.nz/index.htm which is an affiliate organisation.


- Quality Planning: http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/consents/assess-enviro-effects.php (68.9 KB). Has detailed information for council officers on how to audit an AEE that has been provided with a resource consent application. Includes relevant sections of the RMA and case law.


Examples

Many councils provide information about how to prepare an assessment of environmental effects, either generally or for specific types of applications or projects. Examples include:


Behaviour Observation

What it is:
Observations that track and record on maps and diagrams the movements, use and interaction of people with urban spaces and the built environment.

What it’s useful for:
Understanding how the physicality of the built environment affects activities and social behaviour, through recording the use of urban spaces by people. These observations and understandings can help direct design development and changes to urban spaces and places.

How it’s done:
Systematic observation and recording of patterns of human behaviour through notes and diagrams, mapping, or categorisation and counting of activities. Photographs, including time-lapse photography, can also be used. ‘Behaviour mapping’, also called ‘activity mapping’, involves recording on a plan or map the patterns of movement of people and use in a particular space or place, and may include getting users themselves to plot how they use spaces.

Behaviour observation may include ‘physical trace observation’, a systematic inspection of a place in the absence of its users to identify traces of activity. These traces may include worn areas or paths, evidence of users adapting or personalising a place, or messages such as notices or graffiti. Observations are recorded by counting, photographing, mapping, or a combination of these techniques. This is best used in combination with other methods (such as interviews and observation of users) to check hypotheses on the reasons for the observed traces.

Examples
Building Age Profile

What it is:
Mapping the age of buildings to show the age distribution and concentrations of buildings and periods of urban development.

What it’s useful for:
A building age profile can identify the patterns of urban development through the age of the building stock. For example, how much of the housing stock was built before a certain age. It can inform and help delineate ‘heritage precincts’ or ‘character areas’ through providing evidence of historical urban development patterns and growth.

How it’s done:
Buildings of similar age are identified and their locations are plotted on a map or series of maps, each covering a defined time period (for example, 10 or 20 years). This gives a spatial picture as well as providing analytical correlations of the building age with a particular building type or style. Conversion of this data into histograms allows a simple graphic comparison of building ages with other places. This type of information is best gained from existing council files or databases.

Reference/example
Character Appraisal

What it is:
An identification of typical development patterns that illustrate established urban neighbourhoods.

What it’s useful for:
Identifying older neighbourhoods that have retained a high degree of authenticity of form and character. It also allows for the measurement of the value and significance of the neighbourhood to the town or city. This tool is a precursor to the application of character and heritage management techniques such as a precinct plan, design guide and streetscape strategy listed in the section ‘Planning and design tools’.

How it’s done:
A full assessment of a number of character features, including: building assessment (age, type, scale, height and style); site coverage; lot size; building setbacks on all boundaries; block size; street assessment (pattern, design, width); landscape features (fence/wall details, tree species, paving and street furniture); and other visual characteristics. This is followed by a character analysis using criteria to determine the importance of that character, key elements in the study area and their relative significance.

Examples

Crime Prevention through Environmental Design Safety Audit

What it is:
A ‘Crime Prevention through Environmental Design’ (CPTED) safety audit identifies the safety issues and concerns of a community within a specific area.

What it’s useful for:
Assessing and proposing practical design changes to fix the actual and perceived safety issues of a group or organisation in an area. It promotes community ownership and responsibility of
safety issues, while involving groups or organisations in the planning and decision-making process. It also provides guidance and information to planners, designers and service providers on how to improve and maintain community safety.

**How it’s done:**

A local community group, local authority or the police can facilitate a CPTED safety audit. The CPTED safety audit involves asking community user groups about their feelings on safety when they are moving around a site, finding out what contributes to these feelings and asking what changes they would like to make to improve their safety in these places. This encourages a subjective interpretation of the environment from all users, including women, youth, elderly and people with disabilities. The key steps are making contact with all community users, conducting the CPTED safety audit, developing a summary of issues and recommendations and undertaking discussions with people, such as the local council, who can provide design guidance, advice and solutions.

**References**


**Examples**


**Crime Prevention through Environmental Design Safety Site Assessment**

**What it is:**

A process by which professionals and specialists trained in Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED) assess an existing site or proposed plans before construction to determine the factors that impact on its actual and perceived safety. The aim is to make recommendations for improving the safety of the site or, more importantly, to help prevent safety issues before construction.
What it’s useful for:
Identifying the safety factors that increase the actual and perceived vulnerability for users in a certain area. It also determines the measures and design applications required to enhance the safety of that area for users, and to deter potential offenders. Assessments are most effective when undertaken before the final planning and construction of a development.

How it’s done:
A wide range of data analysis, including an exploration of social, economic and environmental issues, is required. Several site visits may be necessary to assess and investigate various aspects of the area at different times of the day and week and to identify the different user groups. A CPTED safety site assessment may include a CPTED safety audit and stakeholder interviews. The police may help with on-site evaluation, supply of crime statistics and crime intelligence.

References

Health Impact Assessment – Urban Design and Health/Well-being

What it is:
A Health Impact Assessment (HIA) is a systematic approach that aims to predict the potential effects of policies, programmes and projects on community health, well-being and equity (particularly unintended impacts). It can make evidence-based recommendations to improve health-related policy planning and identify the potential impacts of future development proposals. A broad definition of health is used that relates to well-being. This includes physical, emotional, spiritual and family/community dimensions of population health and well-being. HIA has a strong focus on reducing inequalities.

What it’s useful for:
HIAs have been used successfully in New Zealand on:
• local government urban growth, regeneration and infrastructure plans
• regional government land transport strategies
• local government infrastructure projects
• local government open space/recreation planning projects
• local and central government policy options
• local government urban design strategies
• central government funding options.

HIA also has the ability to help inform the next generation of long term council community plans through providing information on the possible impacts of decisions that influence, or are influenced by, urban form.

It can add value to the urban policy development process by helping to identify:
• the positive impacts on well-being and how they can be enhanced
• the negative impacts on well-being and how the can be reduced or mitigated
• whether health inequalities may be reduced or widened
• unintended consequences of a policy on well-being and health
• ways to integrate capital expenditure programming across departments and agencies
• ways to work across sectors and benefit stakeholders.

How it’s done:
HIAs use flexible methodologies to ensure that the approach best fits with the project. International methodologies have been modified to the New Zealand context. HIAs are typically integrated into the policy development process and can use information that is already available to help inform the assessment, and deliver information, when needed, to match the policy development process. It is important to incorporate a multi-disciplinary approach in HIA work, whether it be policy or regulatory in nature, which includes key agencies, the populations/areas affected, and public health expertise.

References
• Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) 2006. Physical Activity and the Built Environment: http://www.cabe.org.uk/publications/physical-activity-and-the-built-environment (262.87 KB). This briefing paper highlights how the design and management of the built environment in the United Kingdom plays a pivotal role in promoting and sustaining health and the need for health and built environment professionals to work together.
• HIA database: http://hiadatabase.nl/content/. This provides links to international reports, tools and guidelines, background papers and other websites about HIA.
Examples – New Zealand


- Greater Christchurch Urban Development Strategy 2006. *Health Impact Assessment: Greater Christchurch Urban Development Strategy Options 2006*: http://www.greaterchristchurch.org.nz/Background/RelatedInfo/HIAREport.pdf (1.54 MB). The aim of this HIA was to identify the potential impacts on health and well-being of two growth models for Greater Christchurch. There was a particular focus on air and water quality, social connectedness, housing and transport. A separate workstream focused on developing an engagement process with local Māori around the urban development strategy.

- Manukau City Council and Auckland Regional Public Health Service 2006. *Mangere Growth Centre Plan Health Impact Assessment*: http://www.moh.govt.nz/moh.nsf/pagesmh/6772/$File/mangere-diabetes-hia.pdf (876 KB). The aim of this HIA was to highlight aspects of urban design that might contribute to a reduction of obesity levels in the Manukau district. There was a particular focus on the link between urban design, physical activity and nutrition, along with five other determinants of health.

- Wellington Regional Public Health 2008. *Health Impact Assessment of the Regional Policy Statement Regional Form and Energy Draft Provisions*: http://www.huttvalleydhb.org.nz/Resource.aspx?ID=13086. This HIA was conducted by Regional Public Health in partnership with the Greater Wellington Regional Council. By assessing the health impacts of these draft provisions of the regional policy statement, the HIA aims to improve the health of the community and reduce inequalities throughout the greater Wellington region.

Examples – Overseas


- National Health Services London Healthy Urban Development Unit 2007. *London Health and Urban Planning Toolkit*: http://www.healthyurbandevelopment.nhs.uk/pages/key_docs/key_documents_hudu.html. This toolkit is a synthesis of the lessons learnt from three engagement projects (2005–06) that examined how primary care trusts and local planning authorities engage with one another and how collaboration may be improved.
Legibility Analysis

What it is:
Recording on a map the mental images that individuals or the community have of the environment as either edges, nodes, paths, landmarks or districts.

What it’s useful for:
Legibility and identity studies of the urban environment where the community’s perceptions of features, places, neighbourhoods, towns or cities are required. This type of study provides information on how memorable positive features can be emphasised and celebrated or negative design features can be mitigated. Legibility analysis can also illustrate the degree to which urban form enhances or inhibits local and regional way-finding, a community’s sense of identity and its contribution or role within a city.

How it’s done:
The analysis combines a series of sketch maps drawn by users with interviews to build up a collective view of a neighbourhood, town or city. The five elements – edges (for example, beaches, rivers, railway lines, motorways); nodes (neighbourhoods, town centres); landmarks (historic buildings, natural features); paths (key roads, pathways); or districts (land use, building types, geographical location) – are typically identified and used to describe a collective view of the town, neighbourhood or city. Legibility analysis was first used by Kevin Lynch in his book *The Image of the City*. It is sometimes known as ‘cognitive mapping’ or ‘mental mapping’.

Reference

Example
Mapping

What it is:
A graphic technique for recording and analysing the physical features and structural patterns of a geographical area.

What it’s useful for:
Providing base information for all types of projects and initiatives. The application of mapping is virtually unlimited. It includes, for example, assessment of spatial enclosures, street edge conditions, distribution of open space and street types, public–private space assessments, and distribution of landscape elements. Mapping to scale allows quantitative analysis of physical features, and is a base for showing planned design interventions in context. Mapping enables comparative assessment or monitoring of quantitative and qualitative design conditions and elements over time.

How it’s done:
Mapping techniques range from simple paper records to complex digital systems. General mapping techniques include:

- ‘Overlay mapping’ using different mapping layers or montages of tracing paper, or within a computer, to add or remove layers of information to reveal patterns and relationships that would not otherwise be obvious.
- ‘GIS mapping’ is a computer system designed to allow users to collect, manage and analyse large volumes of spatially referenced information and associated attribute data. It is an efficient means of sourcing and presenting comprehensive graphic information on entire neighbourhoods, towns and cities, as well as elements within them. GIS techniques enable analysis of complex multiple map overlays. A number of local councils have simplified GIS maps available on the web.
- ‘Aerial photographs’ are photos taken from an elevation and are generally available from local councils and private agencies for most urban areas in New Zealand. They provide insight into patterns of building and urban landscape development, including views into areas and details of development that otherwise cannot be seen from ground-level observation. Aerial photographs can also be overlaid with other map-related information, such as topographic contours, rivers, streams, soil structure, buildings and land uses.
‘Digital elevation model’ (DEM) or ‘digital terrain model’ (DTM) where aerial photos are draped over a three-dimensional contoured model creating an image that contains both topographic and real-life visual information that are to scale and can be used for perspective views and fly-through observations.

References

- Contact your local council for aerial photos, plans and GIS information.
- A number of local councils have aerial photos, plans and GIS information on their websites. A full list of council websites can be found on the Quality Planning website: http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/contacts/index.php or Local Government New Zealand website: http://www.lgnz.co.nz/lg-sector/maps/.

Examples

- Dunedin City Council. WebMap: http://www.cityofdunedin.com/city/?page=searchtools_gis. WebMap is a GIS mapping tool developed by Dunedin City Council. It offers aerial photographs, a street map and other views of Dunedin City and provides information on rates, resource consent applications, and land tenure.
- Green Map System (GMS), New York: http://www.greenmap.com/GMS. A worldwide network that identifies, promotes and links ecological and cultural resources. It allows design teams to illuminate the connections between natural and human environments by mapping their local urban or rural community.

References

- Contact your local council for aerial photos, plans and GIS information.
- A number of local councils have aerial photos, plans and GIS information on their websites. A full list of council websites can be found on the Quality Planning website: http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/contacts/index.php or Local Government New Zealand website: http://www.lgnz.co.nz/lg-sector/maps/.
Ped-shed Analysis

What it is:
A mapping technique that calculates the population catchment within a five or 10 minute walk from an activity, transport stop or node.

What it’s useful for:
Providing ‘walkability analysis’ of important destinations (for example, town centres or transport nodes) within neighbourhoods, and how evenly these destinations are distributed and dispersed through a town or city. When planning new developments, it can be used to identify optimum locations for new facilities and indicate where residential density may be increased.

How it’s used:
A fixed-diameter circle is overlaid on a map with the centre placed on the destination point. Circle radii are usually based on an average person walking 400 metres in five minutes. A second radius of 800 metres indicates a 10 minute walk. The population density within this radius can then be calculated to determine the number of people within easy walking distance of the destination. A ped-shed analysis can be refined further by mapping linkages and obstacles that may decrease or increase travel distance or time to give a more accurate population figure.

Examples
Social Impact Assessment

What it is:
Social impact assessment (SIA) is the process of identifying and analysing the potential impacts of a proposed development on people, both individuals and communities. The assessment includes looking for ways to mitigate adverse effects, enhance positive effects and manage any consequential social change. SIA is often carried out as part of, or in addition to, an Assessment of Environmental Effects.

What it’s useful for:
SIA is useful for promoting improved development outcomes, rather than just identifying and reducing or mitigating undesirable social effects. The goal of SIA is to bring about a socially, culturally, sustainable outcome with reference to the environmental and economic effects on people. There is often a focus on promoting community development, building capacity and enhancing social capital.

SIA can take place within a regulatory framework, or, as is done in New Zealand, independent of any legal requirement. Although in New Zealand it may form part of an assessment of costs and benefits as required by section 32 of the RMA. SIA is useful for identifying interested and affected parties and, in fact, relies upon local knowledge and participatory processes.

How it’s done:
SIA is a multi-disciplinary process, and involvement of the community is essential. There is no single approach to SIA – an element of flexibility is necessary, depending on the nature and scale of the development project under consideration. The scope of SIA is broad but might include consideration of the following kinds of social impacts as changes to:

- how people live, work, play and interact with each other on a daily basis
- culture
- community services and facilities, community character
- ability to participate in decision-making
- personal and property rights
- perceptions about safety or future aspirations for the community.

SIA may also consider environmental and health impacts, depending on whether or not a separate assessment of these impacts is also carried out. See assessment of environmental effects and health impact assessment.

References


Examples


Space Syntax Analysis

What it is:
Space syntax is a set of theories and techniques that analyse how street networks are connected through mapping the spatial configurations and accessibility of open spaces and street patterns.

What it’s useful for:
Explaining why certain streets and spaces are more heavily used than others, because connected street patterns are efficient in terms of fuel consumption and community integration. Space syntax maps the relative accessibility of parts of a site, neighbourhood or city and identifies the areas where improvements in access can be made.
How it’s done:

The technique determines the degree of integration or segregation of streets and other spaces within a neighbourhood, town or city, by studying the ‘axial lines’ and ‘convex spaces’. ‘Axial lines’ indicate primary movement routes, while ‘convex spaces’ indicate gathering points and places where concentrations of axial lines come together. Analysis can be based on drawings produced manually, or by using proprietary computer software available from Space Syntax, London.

References

- Space Syntax Laboratory, University College London: http://www.spacesyntax.org/. Gives an introduction to space syntax and provides a publication list, software and database information.
- Space Syntax: http://www.spacesyntax.com/. Research consultancy arm of the Space Syntax Laboratory, University College London.

Surveys

What it is:

A systematic way of determining the views and opinions of a large number of people on a particular topic through the use of interviews with structured questions or a standardised questionnaire.

What it’s useful for:

Surveys can be used to gather large amounts of comparable and easily quantifiable data, and to provide an objective basis for planning and future action. Surveys can provide both qualitative and quantitative data. A structured interview will uncover qualitative data on people’s values and perceptions that can be quantitatively tabulated. A professionally produced survey is a useful means of accurately and objectively assessing community opinion on high-profile and controversial community projects.

How it’s done:

Survey types used most commonly in urban design projects include ‘public satisfaction surveys’ and ‘3+, 3– surveys’, also known as ‘three questions surveys’. ‘Three questions surveys’ are common in open space and neighbourhood improvement projects. They ask people to identify three things they like and three things they dislike about the current environment, and note their suggestions for changes. A ‘visual preference survey’ obtains community responses to a range of images and is used to develop an understanding of, and consensus on, the character of a place or future development.

‘Placecheck’ (http://www.placecheck.info/) is a specific urban design questionnaire for the community, developed by the UK Urban Design Alliance, that reveals where improvements are needed and focuses on how to achieve them. It is based on questions and answers in three sections: people (“how can the people whose influence and actions shape the place work together more effectively?”); places (“how can the physical form of buildings and spaces help to
make the place work better?”); and movement (“how can the network of streets, routes and public transport help bring the place to life?”).

A further survey method is the ‘post-occupancy evaluation’, a systematic survey and study of how occupants respond to a new or existing building or environment once it is operational. It is used to fine-tune the design and management of a building or place, and to inform the design brief for similar developments in the future. A refinement on this is the ‘design quality indicators’ (http://www.dqi.org.uk/), a tool to assess design quality of proposed and constructed buildings. This evaluation of performance or amenity can also be called ‘benchmarking’.

References – New Zealand


References – Overseas

- Design Quality Indicator (DQI): http://www.dqi.org.uk/. The website provides an overview of the process, and links into the DQI tool.


- Placecheck: http://www.placecheck.info/. Developed by the UK Urban Design Alliance, http://www.udal.org.uk/. This website provides information on how to undertake your own placecheck with timelines, checklists, a set of detailed questions, and a specific placecheck for streets, country, planning, urban design, highways and parks.

- Walkinginfo Pedestrian and Bicycle Information Centre, United States: http://www.walkinginfo.org/library/details.cfm?id=12. Walkability checklist questions to help you evaluate your neighbourhood’s walkability. This checklist provides both immediate answers and long term solutions to your neighbourhood’s potential problems. A bikeability checklist is also available at this site.

Examples – New Zealand

- Quality of Life Survey: http://www.bigcities.govt.nz/survey.htm. The Quality of Life Survey is a partnership between the 12 largest cities and districts in New Zealand and the Ministry of Social Development. The Quality of Life Survey has been conducted in 2003, 2004 and 2006, and measures the perceptions of over 7500 people. Topics covered include quality of life, health and well-being, crime and safety, community, culture and social networks, council processes, built environment, public transport and lifestyle (work and study).

• Wellington Waterfront General Users Survey 2008: http://www.wellingtonwaterfront.co.nz/docs/waterfront_users_survey_2008.pdf (1.07 MB). Telephone survey of 750 Wellington residents asking about their usage of the waterfront, including questions about reasons for visiting the waterfront, what services are used, and awareness and satisfaction with recent developments.

Example – Overseas


Tissue Analysis

What it is:
A technique that overlays a known and understood scale plan or aerial photograph of existing buildings, lots, blocks and street patterns onto a vacant site as a rapid means of generating design options. These plans, aerial photographs or maps are often referred to as an ‘urban tissue’.

What it’s useful for:
Rapid generation of initial design options for sites and neighbourhoods that promote informed design discussion. Because the density, activity and physical characteristics are known, measurable, and can even be visited, there is a degree of certainty about the feasibility and effects of different configurations of development.

How it’s done:
Aerial photographs or plans of existing, known and understood buildings, lots, blocks and street patterns are manipulated and modified to achieve a best fit or a series of different options on a vacant site or neighbourhood. All the urban tissues used should have a clear purpose and be familiar to the designers or participants in the design exercise. This is a first step in providing
design variation, and helps generate ideas and options for the transformation of an urban site. Ideally, urban tissue case studies should be developed that analyse in detail the design of a variety of different urban tissues.

Reference

Transport Impact Assessment

What it is:
A transport impact assessment is an appraisal of the impact of land-use proposals on transport infrastructure and services. At the broadest level, a transport impact assessment examines how a proposed development will function in terms of accessibility by all modes of transport. Alternative, or similar, processes include: ‘transport assessment’, ‘transportation assessment’, ‘traffic impact assessment’, ‘traffic impact study’ and ‘traffic report’, although some of these may be less comprehensive in nature.

What it’s useful for:
A transport impact assessment can support and add to an assessment of environmental effects for policy development, plan changes or resource consent. Assessments are usually carried out for significant or large-scale developments but are increasingly sought for small-scale developments.

A transport impact assessment can identify how a development will interact with the existing transport networks, where traffic capacity may occur, where passenger transport services are sufficient or may need upgrading, and the level of accessibility for walking and cycling. A transport impact assessment examines patterns of travel and the suitability of proposed transport arrangements.

How it’s done:
A transport impact assessment includes a full assessment of all transport opportunities and constraints. Typical areas covered include the planning and policy framework, land-use characteristics, travel characteristics, measures to influence travel, appraisal of impacts and mitigation of impacts.

A variety of tools and techniques may be used in a transport assessment including transportation and traffic modelling, traffic demand assessment, trip generation data, local trip effects, intersection impacts, safety assessment, travel plans, public transport and mode share.
References


Examples


- Auckland Regional Council 2008: http://www.arc.govt.nz/albany/fms/main/Documents/Plans/Regional%20Policy%20and%20Plans/Operative%20ARP%20Coastal/Wynyard%20Quarter/Appendix%20D%20Flow%20transport%20report%20part%203%20Te%20Wero%20bridge.pdf (4 MB). Transport assessment for Te Wero Bridge, a pedestrian, cycle and bus bridge that is part of the Wynyard Quarter plan change in Auckland’s central business district. See also


Transportation and Traffic Modelling

What it is:
A specialised tool used by traffic engineers and transportation planners to plan, predict, monitor and manage road and transport systems across a range of modes and spatial scales.

What it’s useful for:
Predicting traffic flows, patterns, vehicle emissions and all transport modes (including walking and cycling) in an existing urban area, and for predicting the impact of changes to the traffic patterns as a result of adjustments to the distribution and intensity of urban land uses.

How it’s done:
‘Multi-modal transport modelling’ uses computer simulation to predict transport mode use and shifts in car, bus, train, walking, cycling transportation and the origin–destination of trips. This provides important quantitative information on the predicted use of a city or region’s transport systems, and can provide vehicle information for traffic flow models.

‘Traffic flow modelling’ uses computer simulation to predict the traffic flow capacity and travel time implications of changed street configurations or uses within a complex street network. This provides important quantitative information on the predicted use of streets when major urban changes are proposed.

References/examples


- Maryland, United States. Comprehensive Transportation Review (CTR): http://www.rockvillemd.gov/residents/traffic/ctr.htm. The CTR contains principles and methodologies to guide the US City of Rockville, Maryland in evaluating the transportation impacts of development applications on site access and circulation, non-auto multimodal facilities and automobile traffic.

- SmartGrowth Toolkit, British Columbia. Transportation demand management: http://66.51.172.116/Portals/0/Downloads/J1_ToolKitPart_II.pdf (363 KB). Page 50 highlights strategies and policy tools to fight the costs, frustrations and inefficiencies of too much traffic. These tools can be integrated into regional and community planning policies, including development standards, urban design guidelines and zoning bylaws.

- Transport Canada. Transportation demand management database (TDM): http://www.tc.gc.ca/programs/environment/utsp/tdm.htm. This database contains profiles and results from over 90 worldwide transportation projects. These projects foster energy efficiency, sustainable development, accessibility and increased productivity by influencing urban travel patterns and behaviours.

- Transport Canada. Urban Transportation Emissions calculator: http://www.tc.gc.ca/programs/environment/UTEC/default.aspx. This is a tool that estimates annual greenhouse gas and criteria air containment emissions from passenger, commercial and urban transit vehicles.
Urban Design Audit

What it is:
A systematic and comprehensive analysis of an existing neighbourhood, town or city that leads to the development of a design brief, strategy or code and the implementation of design projects. An urban design audit will involve use of a range of urban design research and analysis tools.

What it’s useful for:
Providing extensive primary urban data through detailed assessments and analysis of existing urban environment qualities, features and characteristics. An urban design audit can be used to inform future design and policy initiatives.

How it’s done:
Development of a clear research brief and the use of appropriate urban design tools to survey, check and analyse an urban neighbourhood, town or city. An urban design audit will involve quantitative and qualitative research and analysis.

The quantitative research and analysis may include all, or combinations, of the following elements:
- pedestrian access and circulation
- building elevations, heights and footprints
- the street network and traffic volumes during peak and non-peak periods
- the existing and projected demographic profile of an area
- natural features, such as vegetation, soils, water bodies and significant ecological systems, micro-climate impacts (sun, wind, temperature patterns)
- significant buildings and features of heritage and cultural value.

Qualitative urban design research and analysis typically provides insight into how key urban design elements, or combinations of elements, are likely to be perceived by users, influence the identity and character of built and natural form, address the needs of future users, and protect any values, aspirations and symbols of the past.

Urban morphology techniques are often used in urban design audits involving older urban areas at a neighbourhood, town centre or sub-regional scale.

Example
- Living Streets Community Street Audits, United Kingdom: http://www.livingstreets.org.uk/what_living_streets_do/cs_community_street_audits.php. Facilitators train members of the community to analyse ways to encourage walking, through observation of their street environment.
Urban Morphology

What it is:
Analysis techniques used to study the present and past historical patterns of urban structure, form, land use and patterns. Provides an understanding of the existing physical form and structure of the urban environment at different scales, from individual buildings, lots, street patterns and blocks. It is typically differentiated from urban design audits by its focus on the past and present spatial patterns of a given urban area.

What it’s useful for:
Defining urban patterns and characteristics that create a unique sense of place. It helps in the appraisal of successful and unsuccessful urban form, and can examine the processes that shaped past change, or features that persist in the present urban fabric. It can define urban boundaries, inform development controls, and form the basis for design guidelines for character and heritage areas.

How it’s done:
Characteristics of an urban area, such as its buildings, lots, blocks, street patterns, open space, land-use activities and building details, are recorded, measured, mapped and analysed using existing and/or historical information.

At its simplest, the mapping of buildings and open space patterns or ‘figure-ground mapping’ is where the building footprint is blacked out, with open space left blank on a plan. With this technique, the open space and other character features of the site can be analysed.

A ‘typological analysis’ classifies buildings, lots, streets, blocks or open space into typical or atypical types. Type is defined by a combination of plan, dimension and use characteristics. This information can be used in character studies, design development and urban design policy.

A ‘materials and components analysis’ is a detailed urban morphology study recording building and material details. This can define the character of an urban area, and inform design selection of future colours, materials and components for the elements within an area.
References/examples


Walk-through Analysis

What it is:
An assessment of urban qualities and design issues done by walking through an area and recording observations and impressions along the way. It uses mainly graphic methods for recording observations.

What it’s useful for:
A walk-through gives an overview of the design issues, and is often the first stage of a more intensive appraisal that involves both qualitative and quantitative methods. This technique helps establish the extent of the design issues and identifies further work required.

How it’s done:
Observational analysis of place that records the main features, both successful and unsuccessful, in a preliminary urban design assessment. Key findings are often recorded by graphic means, such as photographs or annotated sketches and plans. Checklists are typically used to ensure consistency when appraising a number of buildings, streets or areas.
Section 2: Community Participation Tools

Encouraging Community Involvement and Informing Initiatives

Community participation tools are fundamental in developing appropriate and effective urban design solutions. The community and users of our towns and cities are the ultimate clients and beneficiaries of quality urban design. Quality urban design is founded on a sound understanding of local knowledge, values and needs. True community participation enables people to influence, and be part of, urban design decision-making processes. This involvement strengthens their ownership of the places they have had a hand in designing.

These tools are a means of identifying community concerns and issues, providing useful information on user needs, values and expectations, creating opportunities for community involvement in the design process and incorporating community concerns in decision-making. Promoters of urban design projects who use these tools will benefit by being better informed and having the community involved in the design and approval process in a constructive way. Ultimately, a well-constructed community participation process contributes to a quality design outcome and a smoother design process.

This section describes:

- Community Meeting
  - *Hui*
- Design Workshop
  - *Charette*
  - Community planning forum
  - Enquiry by design
  - Planning weekend
  - Ideas workshop
  - Action planning
  - Urban design assistance team
- Focus Group
- Interactive Display
  - *Elevation montage*
- Interactive Model
  - *Box city*
  - Planning for real
  - Urban modelling
  - Adaptable model
- Participatory Appraisal
  - Interactive display
  - Speak out
- Planning and Briefing Workshops
  - Community planning forum
  - Process planning workshop
  - Future search conference
- Reference Group
  - Community advisory group
  - Stakeholder reference group
Community Meeting

What it is:
A chaired meeting held in a community place and used to present design proposals to a community.

What it’s useful for:
Useful for distributing information and undertaking consultation, but offer limited opportunity to involve people in one-on-one dialogue and participation. Community meetings are a means for presenting and explaining proposals to a group of residents, stakeholders or iwi and hapu and an opportunity for the community to ask questions and get immediate answers.

How it’s done:
Community meetings are most usefully held in a local neighbourhood venue where they can be open to all members of the community. Meetings can be combined with interactive displays or other forms of community participation tools. These meetings should be thoroughly advertised through community information networks, such as in local papers or council newsletters, on the radio, or event notice boards.

Alternatively, a ‘hui’ held at a local marae or hall may be an appropriate way to involve residents, stakeholders and, in particular, local iwi and hapu in the design process. A hui should be organised and led by local iwi, and direction for its content and structure will need to be decided upon in consultation with that iwi. Other forms of community meeting that use different cultural protocols should be considered when working with diverse cultural groups.

References

- International Association for Public Participation: http://www.iap2.org/. Provides practitioner tools, including public participation spectrum, and a toolbox of techniques to share information.
Design Workshop

What it is:
A workshop that involves professional designers, the community and other key stakeholders that is focused on generating design ideas for development. It usually runs for a defined period of time, from several hours to a week, depending on the size, complexity of the project and the number of people involved.

What it’s useful for:
Any design project that involves a large number of stakeholders and where there is a likelihood of constructive participation. Typically, these are major community projects in a context that requires both high-level professional expertise and community participation as a catalyst for beginning the design process. The technique is best used to generate conceptual design options and to gain a consensus on a general direction. At a smaller scale, design workshops with in-house staff can form an important exercise in collaboration of different design disciplines.

How it’s done:
A design workshop requires a collaborative design process. The organisers and designers provide technical expertise, facilitation and creative design skills, and work with a range of stakeholders who provide information on their expectations and values, and offer critical feedback on initial design options. In these workshops, design solutions are not usually tested for technical viability because of the short timeframes. Benefits include quick response to design options, and enhanced community/stakeholder awareness and ownership of the project.

A design workshop is also known as a design ‘charette’ and may be part of a ‘community planning forum’.

Particular types of design workshops include ‘enquiry by design’, ‘planning weekend’ and ‘ideas workshop’. ‘Action planning’ is a design workshop where a team of design specialists, known as an ‘urban design assistance team’ (UDAT), collaborates with community and user groups to produce a proposal for action.
References


- The Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/. Provides principles, methods, scenarios, formats, checklists and a range of publications on community planning.


Examples


Focus Group

What it is:
A structured, small group meeting made up of stakeholders sharing common demographics (for example, young people) or stakeholder interests, who discuss a specific topic. Often used to test differences, degrees of consensus and deliberating opinions between groups.

What it’s useful for:
Used as an efficient means of obtaining the opinions of experts, informed members of the community or a party on a defined topic, and deliberating on those opinions.

How it’s done:
A focus group generally meets for around half a day, is facilitated, and is usually limited to around 10–12 people to allow full participation. A detailed record of the session is required so that this information can be used in future design work.
References


Interactive Display

**What it is:**
A display on urban issues or on a project that allows the community to make its views on the issue known by voting, putting post-it notes on the display, or physically altering the display. Best used as part of a forum, design workshop, exhibition or other event.

**What it’s useful for:**
Allows people to engage and debate urban issues in a fun way by making additions or alterations to a prepared display. It generates ideas, creates interaction and records feedback from a wide range of participants. It can be used in exhibitions, street stalls, design workshops or public meetings.

**How it’s done:**
The display material, made up of plans, photos or models, needs to be simple and clear. People record their likes, dislikes, comments, areas in need of improvement and other issues on the display material using post-it notes, dots or handwritten notes, or computer-aided interactive polling techniques undertaken in especially equipped and designed rooms. People’s responses are recorded in such a way that they can be used afterwards.

Another interactive display tool is an ‘elevation montage’. Photographs of elevations of either buildings lining a street or other open spaces are used to generate community discussion, and record comments and suggestions for improvement.
References

- Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/. Provides further information, tips on interactive displays and elevation montages in the methods section of this website.


- The power of the post-it – getting down to community planning with the experts: Some recollections of a participatory planning event: http://www.rudi.net/papers/16954. This Resource for Urban Design Information (RUDI) article outlines a 2005 seminar given by John Thompson and Partners in the United Kingdom on participatory planning and interactive displays.

Examples


Interactive Model

What it is:

A model-building technique that uses a kit of simple blocks of various sizes and shapes representing typical urban building elements. The blocks are used to construct configurations of built urban form to scale as a way of exploring different three-dimensional options for a site.

What it’s useful for:

Useful for rapidly investigating and visualising options for site planning, urban spaces, and building bulk and form. Helpful in community design workshops, and in urban design education, for example, ‘Box City’ an urban design game that children can play.

How it’s done:

Timber block or paper cut-out modules are frequently used, based on common building types and components. The components should be able to be arranged into the widest variety of configurations, and easily reconfigured into new scenarios. The scenarios created should be recorded as they emerge. An interactive model encourages participation, and enables members of the community and other non-designers to get involved in the design process and to understand the implications of decisions on three-dimensional form and space.

Interactive modelling is sometimes known as ‘planning for real’, or ‘urban modelling’, using an ‘adaptable model’. It may be used to investigate city and regional planning issues, such as growth, using simulation software. See also scenario building.
References/examples

- Box City: http://www.cubekc.org/architivities/boxcity35.html. A US teaching resource that shows how cities are planned (or unplanned), what makes a quality city and how children can participate in the improvement of the built environment.


- The Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/. Provides tips, sample format and additional information on ‘planning for real’.

- Box City Glen Innes, Auckland 2000: http://www.aucklandcity.govt.nz/council/documents/gleninnes/strategyconsult.asp. Five hundred primary school students from four local schools were involved in constructing their future city of Glen Innes using recycled materials and boxes.

Participatory Appraisal

What it is:

A participation approach to gain a rapid, in-depth understanding of a community, or certain aspects of a community, using visual techniques, models, ranking, discussions, mapping or community inventory.

What it’s useful for:

Allowing people to share and record aspects of their own situation, conditions of life, knowledge, perceptions, aspirations and preferences. From this, plans can be developed for action. This tool is not restricted to urban design issues.

How it’s done:

There are many visual and verbal techniques, methods and approaches used in participatory appraisal. Qualified trainers and facilitators can help select the right mix of creative and targeted techniques.

Visual displays can be used that encourage wide participation and interaction between participants as they respond to the views of others, while adding their own ideas to a display. An ‘interactive display’ can be used as part of participatory appraisal.

Verbal techniques include face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and ‘speak out’ sessions where members of the public speak and officials listen and ask questions.
References/examples


• GreenSTAT, United Kingdom: http://www.greenstat.org.uk/. GreenSTAT is a system that gives local residents the opportunity to comment on the quality of their open spaces and how well they feel they are being managed and maintained.


• Smart Growth scorecards, United States: http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/scorecards/. Scorecards are basic assessment tools that allow communities to rate and analyse policies and regulations that determine their development patterns. This site provides information on three types of scorecards: municipal, project-specific and component scorecards.

• The Architecture Foundation toolkit for participatory urban design: http://www.creativecommunities.org.uk/essays/66.html. Provides inspiration, ideas and support for creative community involvement in urban design.

Planning and Briefing Workshops

What it is:
A workshop held before beginning any design work. Its intention is to gather information on stakeholder needs and expectations, foster constructive community involvement, and to help develop the brief for a project.

What it’s useful for:
Providing a forum for information-gathering and allowing stakeholders and users a chance to put forward ideas and have a say in an interactive setting early on in the project’s development. Useful in community projects where a participatory process can help clarify expectations, identify common ground and give direction to expected outcomes. Used to enhance understanding and develop ideas, and can be a catalyst for further action.

How it’s done:
Workshops may be open to the community, or limited to invited participants from key community interest groups and stakeholders representing a wide range of views. Small-scale projects may require only one workshop, but large, complex or controversial community projects often justify a series of workshops. Competing perspectives need to be heard, and participation managed so all attendees can be fully and productively involved.

When used to develop a community plan or a brief for the design of a neighbourhood, a planning workshop may be known as a ‘community planning forum’. Where the aim is to determine the community participation process for a project and gain community approval and
‘ownership’ of the process, it may be known as a ‘process planning workshop’. A ‘future search conference’ is a workshop in conference format where, over a period of two-to-three days, participants identify objectives, initiatives and actions, and establish a common vision for the future.

Reference

Examples
- Project for Public Spaces, New York. Place Game Workshops: http://www.pps.org/info/services/work. These educational community workshops provide a process for the public and private sectors to work together cooperatively to create public space implementation programmes.
- The Built Environment Trust, United Kingdom. Consulting your Community: http://www.shape-east.org.uk/news/consultyourcommunityFV.pdf (3022 KB). This is a toolkit for preparing and delivering community consultation workshops about the built environment.

Reference Group

What it is:
A group of interested and affected parties that can be made up of informed community representatives known as a ‘community advisory group’, or key stakeholders known as a ‘stakeholder reference group’, brought together by designers or policy-makers. A reference group acts as a forum and an ongoing point of reference for consultation throughout the life of a project.

What it’s useful for:
Typically used on large community or private projects that are of community interest or affect a range of private or institutional stakeholders. A reference group allows expectations, issues of concern, and possibilities for their resolution, to be identified before the formal policy-making or consent processes begin.

How it’s done:
A reference group is formed at the pre-design stages of a project, and may continue to meet throughout a project for as long as there are issues to resolve. Meetings provide a forum for identification of issues and discussion of both shared and contradicting views.

A ‘community advisory group’ is generally established by a local authority that seeks to act on the group’s recommendations as much as possible. The local authority provides the technical and administrative support. Members of a community advisory group usually represent key stakeholder groups, but may include expert advisors and individuals from the general community.
Scenario Building

What it is:
A means of developing ideas and systematically exploring design, growth or planning options for a town or city under a range of potential economic, social and development scenarios. Often uses computer simulation software both to describe and analyse scenarios.

What it’s useful for:
Providing a range of scenarios at any level, from individual development sites to city regions. It is useful for identifying and assessing the effects, feasibility and implications of likely or possible scenarios. It is particularly appropriate where a number of future scenarios are possible, and the implications of each require investigation.

How it’s done:
Scenarios may relate to any combination of variables, for example, building heights, intensity of development, town boundary conditions, or regional population growth. Scenario building is used to show the possible directions that could be taken in comparative assessments and risk management. Scenario building informs debate and decision-making and is also known as ‘participatory land-use mapping’. (See also interactive model.)

‘Scenario planning’ is related to the use of these scenarios, usually in strategic planning.

Reference
- Local Government Commission, United States. Participatory Land Use Mapping: http://www.lgc.org/freepub/community_design/participation_tools/landuse_mapping.html. Provides information on participatory land-use mapping, with advice on how to involve members of the public in exploring local and regional land-use planning issues and organising a mapping exercise in your area.

Example
- Envision Utah (Regional Modelling): http://www.envisionutah.org/. Website sponsored by the coalition for Utah’s future, with information for keeping Utah beautiful, prosperous and neighbourly for future generations.

Urban Design Games

What it is:
A highly visual way of allowing people to explore physical design options for a site through acting, design puzzles, jigsaws, board games or other interactive gaming methods.

What it’s useful for:
Helping people have fun, understanding the urban design process and increasing awareness through playing the games.
How it’s done:

Urban design games are mostly played in groups, usually with either clear instructions from someone who has already played the games or a facilitator. Game types include ‘board games’ that stimulate planning and design scenarios, ‘picture analysis’ to see what different people see in a photo or picture and comparing notes, ‘role play’ activities that allow people to act in someone else’s shoes, ‘storytelling’ and ‘theatre performance’. See interactive model for further refinement of this tool.

Reference

- Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/. Provides a description on gaming, with information on game types, a list of methods to implement them, tips and links to other urban design gaming methods.

Examples

- Lincoln Institute of Land Policy, United States. Building Blocks – A density game: http://www.lincolninst.edu/subcenters/visualizing_density/blockgame/index.aspx. An interactive game that allows you to create your own neighbourhood by arranging houses, streets, yards and parks. You can choose from pre-set low-, medium- or high-density scenarios, or create your own situation.

- My Sust House: http://mysusthouse.org/. This is an interactive game, aimed at 8–14 year olds, that explores what sustainability means and how it relates to the environment. The game looks at ways to create a sustainable environment, including the importance of building location and the creation of a sustainable house.
Section 3: Raising Awareness Tools

Increasing Understanding

This section contains tools for raising awareness and promoting quality urban design processes and projects. Knowledge of design possibilities and an understanding of processes will help people participate in the future of their town or city in constructive ways. As people become aware of what is possible, their expectations will encourage investors, developers and local and central government to provide high-quality urban environments. Knowledge encourages people to take responsibility for local issues and, ultimately, gain ownership over ‘their’ place. At the same time, an informed community is more likely to support and insist on high-quality design initiatives.

Raising awareness tools support collaboration, information sharing and leadership in urban design within either a selected or wider audience. These tools can increase the understanding of quality urban design for everyone, including the community and signatories of the Urban Design Protocol.

This section describes:

- Case Studies
  - *Exemplar urban design projects*
- Demonstration Project
  - *Pilot project*
  - *Flagship project*
- Design Centre
  - *Community design centre*
  - *Architecture and built environment centre*
  - *Neighbourhood planning office*
  - *Planning aid*
- Display Model
- Interpretive Trail
  - *Heritage trails*
  - *Town trails*
  - *Walking tour*
- Media Techniques
  - *Blog*
  - *Media column*
  - *Newsletter*
  - *Press release*
- Public Display
  - *Street stall*
  - *Roadshow*
- Research Reports
- School Resource Kits
- Urban Design Awards
- Urban Design Champion
  - *The Mayors’ Institute on City Design*
- Urban Design Event
  - *Public lecture*
  - *Exhibition*
  - *Open house*
- Urban Design Network
- Urban Design Website
- Visual Simulation
Case Studies

What it is:
A selection of written up ‘exemplar urban design projects’, either posted on the web or published, that demonstrate the practical application of urban design principals, or a particular research technique in creating quality urban design.

What it’s useful for:
A valuable way of sharing project information and research methods on complex urban design issues. Case studies are also useful for encouraging discussion about urban design best practice and strategies to solve complex urban design problems.

How it’s done:
Collecting and writing up a set of exemplar urban design projects or research techniques. It is helpful to have these written in a standard format so a comparison of similar projects can be made.

Examples
- Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE): http://www.cabe.org.uk/casestudies.aspx. Showcases a range of completed projects from across the United Kingdom, including transport infrastructure, civic buildings and public space redevelopments. Describes and evaluates design processes and outcomes for each project. Includes a photo gallery.
- Congress for the New Urbanism Project Database: http://www.cnu.org/search/projects. This database features nearly 200 examples of new urbanist developments from the United States and other countries.

• Ministry for the Environment 2008. Urban Design Case Studies Local Government: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/urban-design-case-studies-may08/index.html. This second volume of nine case studies provides examples of ways local government can incorporate urban design into strategies, plans and guidelines. It also includes best practice development projects.

• Resource for Urban Design Information (RUDI): http://www.rudi.net/information_zone/case_studies_good_practice. Compilation of case studies from around the world, illustrating ‘points of interest’ in urban design. Non-member access restricted to summaries of selected case studies. Free, two-week membership available, enabling access to a comprehensive list of case studies. Project overviews, including plans, images and data also available for some developments.

• Smart Growth, United States: http://www.smartgrowth.org/. Provides several resources, including case studies of Smart Growth projects in the United States.

• Urban Land Institute: http://casestudies.uli.org. Provides a searchable database of case studies from around the world. Non-member access restricted to summaries and features of case studies. Membership allows access to plans, in-depth information about design, building and post-construction process, as well as a list of participants.

• Your Development, Australia: http://yourdevelopment.org/casestudy/all/. Includes a growing number of Australian case studies focusing on creating sustainable neighbourhoods.

Demonstration Project

What it is:
A prototype of part of a development site used to show how the development will look, or the first stage of a much larger project that is constructed in its entirety to demonstrate how the rest of the development will proceed.

What it’s useful for:
Demonstrating the benefits of a particular design to give confidence that an innovative approach will be successful before starting construction, or to act as a catalyst for the development or rejuvenation of a particular area. A demonstration project can help persuade others to follow the precedent by providing tangible evidence of a proposal and demonstrating the success of its design innovation.

How it’s done:
Creating community or private projects to a high quality or exemplar standard that can be transferred to similar projects.

May also be known as a ‘pilot project’ or ‘flagship project’.
References

- Building for Life, United Kingdom: http://www.buildingforlife.org/. Bringing together the best designers and creative thinkers to champion quality design for new homes.


Examples


- Hamilton City Council SMART subdivision: http://hamilton.co.nz/news/pageid/2145832770. This is a demonstration project initiated by the Council. The aim is to pursue a sustainable approach to development in a high growth area and show the development industry and community the benefits of good design. See also how this project relates to Hamilton City’s urban design strategy in Ministry for the Environment 2008. *Urban Design Case Studies: City Urban Design Strategy – Hamilton City Council*: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/urban-design-case-studies-may08/html/page7.html.


Design Centre

What it is:

A physical place or building that houses design services and associated events, including public lectures, exhibitions, community education and information aimed at promoting quality design within the community.

What it’s useful for:

Advocating and raising the profile of quality urban design outcomes within a town, city or region through discussion, exhibitions and education. Design centres may also provide the community with access to free or low-cost design expertise that they would otherwise be unable to afford or unlikely to use.
How it’s done:
By establishing a design centre in a highly visible location in the city or neighbourhood centre, staffed with committed design professionals. Close association of a design centre with a design or planning school can benefit both the community, professionals and students.

It may be known as a ‘community design centre’ or an ‘architecture and built environment centre’. Where the focus of activity is planning oriented, it may be known as a ‘neighbourhood planning office’, where ‘planning aid’ is offered.

Examples
- Architectural Centre Inc, Wellington: [http://architecture.org.nz/](http://architecture.org.nz/). This is a multi-disciplinary, independent, voluntary organisation of people with an interest in architecture, the arts, the built environment and Wellington City.
- Association for Community Design, United States: [http://www.communitydesign.org/](http://www.communitydesign.org/). Is a network of individuals, organisations and institutions committed to increasing the capacity of planning and design professions to better serve communities.
- Urban Design Centre of Western Australia: [http://www.udcwa.org/](http://www.udcwa.org/). A non-profit organisation dedicated to improving the quality of urban places in Western Australia.

Display Model

What it is:
A three-dimensional model (real or digital) of a site development or city district that shows the proposed configuration of buildings and spaces.

What it’s useful for:
Whenever it is important that the community and other observers (who may not be familiar with interpreting design drawings such as plans) are able to understand a project. Display models can be valuable in circumstances where a project is contentious, or involves significant expenditure of funds. However, if comparisons are being made between different models in a competition situation, the same model maker should be used to allow for a true evaluation of projects.

How it’s done:
For maximum effectiveness, the model should extend to show the area around a development site and show existing buildings and spaces so viewers have a known point of reference for comparison. A display model makes a project real, lets people examine the proposal from a range of viewpoints, and permits investigation of options. Representative models with a high
degree of realism are generally most effective in informing and engaging with the community. Simpler, cheaper models can represent scale and form of a proposed development.

Reference/example

- Creative Spaces, United Kingdom. *A toolkit for participatory urban design*: http://www.creativespaces.org.uk/. Provides information on creative community involvement in urban design.

Interpretive Trail

**What it is:**
A programmed, self-guided walk with interpretative material supplied in the form of plaques, signs, and written and audio guides.

**What it’s useful for:**
Raising community awareness of local history and culture, and the connection between people and place.

**How it’s done:**
Examples include ‘heritage trails’ and ‘town trails’, which usually extend over an area that can be comfortably walked in an hour or two. May also be known as a ‘walking tour’.

Reference/example

  Provides a comprehensive step-by-step guide to help you develop a heritage trail, signage manual, brochure specifications and links to New Zealand’s heritage trails.

Media Techniques

**What it is:**
A selection of techniques used in communicating urban design information to a wide audience.

**What it’s useful for:**
Useful in all projects where communication of a message to a wide audience is required.

**How it’s done:**
There are various techniques including a:

- ‘Blog’ – a contraction of the term ‘web log’. Refers to a website with many regular entries, such as commentary, descriptions of events, graphics, video, includes links to related sites. Readers can normally leave comments.
• ‘Media column’ – a regular feature in national or local media that informs people of upcoming proposals or keeps them informed of changes to current or ongoing urban design issues.

• ‘Newsletter’ – a regular publication, either in hard copy or electronic form, that provides updates on a project’s progress.

• ‘Press release’ – a written announcement issued to the news media and other targeted publications for the purpose of informing the public of company developments.

Reference


Examples – Blogs

• City Comforts – the Blog: http://citycomfortsblog.typepad.com/. By the author of City Comforts: How to build an urban village. Discusses the ‘small details of urban life’.


Examples – Newsletters


• New Urban News, United States: http://www.newurbannnews.com/. Is a US professional newsletter for planners, developers, architects, builders, public officials and others who are interested in the creation of human-scale communities.
Public Display

What it is:
A display of a design proposal in a high-profile location, or in association with a community event.

What it’s useful for:
Providing information, increasing awareness and knowledge about a project and obtaining public feedback. Useful for local neighbourhood community projects because it establishes a profile for the project in the local community. This can be a low-cost, high-profile way of informing and obtaining feedback from local people.

How it’s done:
Public displays require a high-profile space that is easily accessible. Project information that is easy to read is displayed and supplemented with hand-outs supplied to members of the public who visit the display. Ongoing supervision is also required to answer questions about the project and record community feedback.

A public display or ‘street stall’ may be based in a caravan or other vehicle that can be moved as a ‘roadshow’ to various parts of a neighbourhood or town.

Reference
- The Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net. Provides information, tips and inspirational messages on street stalls.

Research Reports

What it is:
Written and graphic material that communicates either a collection of information or the active and systematic process of inquiry in urban design. Research reports are used to discover, interpret or revise urban design facts, behaviours and theories.
What it’s useful for:

Providing concrete qualitative and quantitative evidence-based research on urban design in an easily read format that can stimulate policy debate and project implementation theories, practices and methods.

How it’s done:

A research question or hypothesis is put forward to be tested. The research proposal method uses ethical processes and primary and/or secondary research material, the collection of information, field work and other activities. It is advisable to have a peer review undertaken before publishing the research findings. The research report should be written and published in a format that will reach its widest possible audience.

References – New Zealand

- Centre for Housing Research, Aotearoa New Zealand – Kainga Tipu (CHRANZ): www.hnzc.co.nz/chr/index.html. Is committed to investing in and promoting housing research that provides an evidence base for policies and practices that meet New Zealand’s housing needs.
- Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (FRST). Building Sustainable Cities and Settlements: http://myfrst.first.govt.nz/Public/ResearchReports/. FRST invests in the Building Sustainable Cities and Settlements Programme, which supports integrated approaches to management of cities and settlements that are conducive to positive environmental, social, cultural and economic outcomes. This site provides a link to a searchable database of research abstracts and reports.
- Ministry for the Environment 2004. Urban Design Research in New Zealand: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/urban-design-research-sep05/index.html. The Ministry for the Environment and BRANZ Ltd have undertaken a survey to identify the individuals and/or organisations in New Zealand that are conducting urban design research, or research that has urban design implications (either directly or indirectly).

References – Overseas

- Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute (AHURI): http://www.ahuri.edu.au/. Is a national Australian research organisation, specialising in housing and urban research and policy.
- Institute of Ecosystem Studies, New York. Urban Ecology: The Baltimore Ecosystem Study: http://www.ecostudies.org/IES_urban_ecology.html. The Institute of Ecosystem Studies (IES) has been researching the ecology of metropolitan Baltimore and the way urban dwellers interact with their environment.

Example

School Resource Kits

What it is:
A set of resources for either pre-school, primary, secondary or university level studies in urban design.

What it’s useful for:
Providing easily accessible urban design resources for teachers in everyday teaching activities.

How it’s done:
Collaboration between teaching and urban design professionals to provide an appropriate format, topics and material for the school resource kit.

Examples – New Zealand

- Christchurch City Council Resource Catalogue for Schools: http://www.ccc.govt.nz/publications/ResourceCatalogueForSchools/. This catalogue of resources is designed specifically for schools and includes transport-related issues.

- eClassroom – Online Continuing Education: http://www.eclassroom.com.au/index.cfm. eClassroom is a New Zealand and Australian service that provides online learning and distance education to architects, landscape architects, designers and planners. Courses are available across the core areas of design, documentation, project management, practice management and planning.

- Education for Sustainability: http://www.e4s.org.nz/efs/. A website where sustainability education practice and research is showcased, posted, shared and commented upon by teachers, researchers and sustainability educators.

- Education Kit Resources: http://www.waitakere.govt.nz/abtcit/ei/urbanstudies.asp. A joint project between Waitakere City Council and Waitakere City secondary schools. This website includes sections on local area studies, urban studies, special places and the natural environment.

- Enviroschools: http://www.enviroschools.org.nz/. The Enviroschools Foundation is a charitable trust that provides support and strategic direction for a nationwide environmental education programme.

- Ministry of Education. Te Kete Ipurangi: http://www.tki.org.nz/e/community/. This is a bilingual online resource. For urban design related information look under Education for Sustainability, Social Sciences, and Science for relevant lesson plans and resources.

- Ministry for the Environment Year of the Built Environment Youth Activity Pack: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/#activity. These activity sheets introduce students to the built environment and the contribution it makes to their quality of life.

- New Zealand Historic Places Trust. Heritage as an education resource for teachers: http://www.historic.org.nz/Education/teacher-resources.html. The seven lessons appearing on this site are suitable for Years 5–8, and are set at levels 2–4.
Examples – Overseas


- **Architecture Crew, United Kingdom: [http://www.architecturecrew.org](http://www.architecturecrew.org).** This is a UK website for young people aged from 13–19 who have an interest in architecture and the built environment. Children can join the ‘crew’ and become involved in projects, influence decision-makers, enter competitions, play games and meet other children in the United Kingdom.

- **Canadian Institute of Planners. A Kid’s Guide to Building Great Communities – A Manual for Planners and Educators:** [http://www.ontarioplanners.on.ca/pdf/kids_guide.pdf](http://www.ontarioplanners.on.ca/pdf/kids_guide.pdf). This guide is a useful resource for teaching youth about urban planning and community development. It contains ready-made exercises and materials which teach planning concepts.


- **CABE. Which Places Work:** [http://www.whichplaceswork.org.uk/default.aspx](http://www.whichplaceswork.org.uk/default.aspx). A UK teaching resource that introduces students to the principles of design quality indicators. Includes a student questionnaire, a teacher resource and the charter school explorer.

- **CABE. Where will I live:** [http://www.geography.org.uk/projects/wherewillilive](http://www.geography.org.uk/projects/wherewillilive). Developed in association with the Geographical Association in the United Kingdom. This is a teachers’ guide for exploring the concept of place. Includes resources on issues such as children as citizens and what makes a well-designed, sustainable community.

- **UrbanPlan, Urban Land Institute, United States: [http://www.urbanplan.org/UP_Home/UP_Home_fst.html](http://www.urbanplan.org/UP_Home/UP_Home_fst.html).** A resource for high school students to learn about the roles, issues, trade-offs and economics involved in urban development. It provides hands-on experience in developing realistic land-use solutions to vexing urban growth challenges.
Urban Design Awards

What it is:
An awards programme recognising quality urban design.

What it’s useful for:
Promotion of quality urban design projects by professional, community and sector groups. Awards can lead to substantial promotion of projects with targeted media coverage and encourage greater emphasis on quality design.

How it’s done:
The organisation arranging the awards develops a set of design criteria for judging, asks for submissions of projects (built, unbuilt, reports and so on) by a set date, appoints judges to assess the submissions, and holds an awards ceremony to present the awards. Designers usually submit their own work for awards, but clients and community groups may also be encouraged to submit projects for recognition.

Examples – New Zealand

• Auckland City Council. People’s Choice Mayoral Urban Design Awards: http://www.aucklandcity.govt.nz/council/services/urbanawards/default.asp. These awards give Aucklanders the chance to nominate buildings, spaces and places on the Auckland isthmus that they feel illustrate good urban design principles. Nominations are assessed by a panel of experts.

• Environment Canterbury. Canterbury Resource Management Awards: http://www.ecan.govt.nz/About+Us/Awards/RMAward.htm. These awards promote the sustainable management of natural and man-made resources in the Canterbury region through recognising and rewarding activities that maintain resources for future generations.

• Ministry for the Environment. Green Ribbon Awards: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/withyou/awards/green-ribbon.html. Run each year by the Ministry for the Environment, these awards recognise outstanding contributions by individuals, organisations and businesses to protecting and improving the quality of our environment.

• New Zealand Institute of Architects annual awards: http://www.nzia.co.nz/.

• New Zealand Institute of Landscape Architects biennial awards: http://www.nzila.co.nz/.

• Property Council of New Zealand: http://www.propertynz.co.nz/index.asp?pageID=2145860494. The Property Council awards include an urban design category.

Examples – Overseas

• American Society of Landscape Architects. Professional and Student Awards Programme: http://www.asla.org/awards/2007/rules_entries/. The annual awards have eight categories, including two student categories, which recognise the best landscape architecture from around the globe. A professional awards jury is convened to review the submissions.
• Environmental Protection Agency, United States. National Award for Smart Growth Achievement: http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/awards.htm. These awards recognise outstanding approaches to development that have successfully used the principles of smart growth to benefit the economy, the community, public health and the environment.

• Green Flag Award: http://www.greenflagaward.org.uk/. These awards recognise the best green spaces in England and Wales. They are helping create a benchmark of excellence in recreational green areas.


• Sustainable Transport Awards: http://www.tc.gc.ca/programs/environment/UTSP/awards.htm. The Canadian Urban Transportation Showcase Program supports two award programmes – sustainable community awards and sustainable urban transportation. Nominees must demonstrate innovation and excellence in one of the award categories, which include buildings, energy/renewable energy, residential development, sustainable community planning and sustainable transportation. Projects that take a holistic, integrated approach to a sustainable community development issue are encouraged.


Urban Design Champion

What it is:
A senior, influential person who provides urban design leadership, promotes and ensures that quality urban design issues are considered in all relevant decisions throughout their organisation.

What it’s useful for:
Keeping urban design on an organisation’s agenda and ensuring urban design objectives are integrated into all relevant parts of the organisation through clear communication to relevant staff.
How it’s done:

An urban design champion is likely to be most successful if they are a visionary and inspirational person with leadership skills, and are either a key decision-maker or have easy access to decision-makers within their organisation.

Training for design champions is essential. In the United States, ‘The Mayors’ Institute on City Design’ provides urban design education for mayors, and brings together design professionals and mayors for an intensive three-day design workshop. The underlying rationale is that the mayor is often the chief urban design champion of a city.

References

  CABE produces two publications:
- CABE 2006. Design Champions: http://www.cabe.org.uk/publications/design-champions (30.67 KB). Explains why design champions are important, and how they can operate within a company.
- The Mayors’ Institute on City Design: http://www.micd.org/. The Mayors’ Institute on City Design is a programme dedicated to improving the design and liveability of America’s cities through the efforts of their chief elected leaders, their mayors.
Urban Design Event

What it is:
A defined event, day, week or year that focuses on urban design promotion and education.

What it’s useful for:
Promoting urban design, increasing community awareness and expectations, enhancing professional development, networking and generating debate. These events can also help support marketing of private sector projects.

How it’s done:
An urban design event can include a ‘public lecture’, urban design ‘exhibition’ or ‘open house’. An urban design day, week or year is generally coordinated across a region or nationally. It may include exhibitions, visits to designers’ offices, guided field tours, public lectures and other events that raise the profile of urban design.

Examples
- Architecture Week, United Kingdom: [http://www.architectureweek.org.uk/](http://www.architectureweek.org.uk/). Provides information on urban design-related events throughout the United Kingdom.
- Heritage Week Christchurch, New Zealand: [http://www.heritageweek.co.nz/](http://www.heritageweek.co.nz/). This annual celebration takes pride in Christchurch’s rich past by celebrating the city’s built, social and environmental heritage.
- New Zealand’s Year of the Built Environment 2005 (YBE 2005): YBE 2005 provided an opportunity to explore and celebrate our built environment – the buildings, spaces and structures in which we live, work and play. Throughout the year a collaborative series of events focused on, and challenged people to, recognise the role the built environment plays in our lives.
- Urban Design Group, United Kingdom: [http://www.urbanintell.com/udgevents.htm](http://www.urbanintell.com/udgevents.htm). This links to a website that has a series of video stream lectures from past Urban Design Group conferences.
Urban Design Network

What it is:
A coalition of leading urban design organisations, professionals or professional bodies promoting quality urban design.

What it’s useful for:
Outcomes of urban design are not the exclusive province of any one profession or group. Only through collaboration and joint activity can quality urban design be achieved. An urban design network can promote quality design, support continuing professional development events and bring together different urban design professions and professionals.

How it’s done:
Through a formal association or liaison of professionals or institutes with a clear commitment, mission or set of criteria that joins the members of the group together to support and promote quality urban design.

Examples

• Urban Design Alliance, Queensland: http://www.udal.org.au/. Is an organisation representing the design professions and other related groups that are committed to improving the quality of urban life throughout Queensland, Australia.

• Urban Design Alliance (UDAL), United Kingdom: http://www.udal.org.uk/. Is a network of key professional and campaigning organisations formed in 1997 to promote the value of good urban design in the United Kingdom. They organise the Urban Design Week and are partners in the development of Placecheck.


• Urban Design Forum, New Zealand: http://www.urbandesignforum.org.nz/. The Urban Design Forum NZ (UDF) has worked to promote good urban design in New Zealand since 2000. Modelled loosely on similar groups in Australia and England, UDF is supported by the New Zealand Planning, Landscape, Architecture, Engineering and Surveying institutes. Membership is open to anyone interested in urban design.

• Urban Design Group, United Kingdom: http://www.udg.org.uk/. Is a campaigning membership organisation that was founded in 1978. The Urban Design Group produces the Urban Design Journal and the Urban Design Source Book, and organises events seminars, conferences and overseas study tours.
Urban Design Website

What it is:
A website that can be used to promote urban design issues, share information and encourage debate.

What it’s useful for:
Sharing information and promoting issues for projects where communication of a message to a wide audience is required.

How it’s done:
A website is developed and hosted by an organisation with a focus on urban design.

Examples – New Zealand

• Living Streets Aotearoa. WalkIT – The Walking Resources Database: http://www.walkit.info/. An online database that provides resources for the promotion of walking in New Zealand. Its objective is to promote walking for personal health and transport.

• Ministry for the Environment: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/. Provides information on urban issues and up-to-date news on the Urban Design Protocol, other urban work programmes and copies of publications.

• Quality Planning: http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/. This website promotes and provides guidance on best practice in the development of regional and district plans under the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA) and resource consent processing. It also contains a database of RMA publications and articles, discussion forums and contact details for councils and practitioners throughout New Zealand.

Examples – Overseas

• Architecture and Design Scotland (A+DS): http://www.ads-ludo.org/. Is Scotland’s national champion for good architecture, design and planning in the built environment. The website has a new resource – LUDO – the Library of Urban Design Online, which is a library of weblinks related to a broad scope of urban design issues divided by scale and theme.

• Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE), United Kingdom: http://www.cabe.org.uk/. This comprehensive website outlines CABE’s aims, activities and publications. The site aims at well-designed homes, streets, parks, work places, schools and hospitals as a fundamental right of everyone.

• Community Tool Box, United States National Park Service (Northeast Region Philadelphia Office): http://www.nps.gov/phso/rctatoolbox/. This toolbox describes new ways to help communities work together to improve their special places. The toolbox provides a checklist and description of community participation and collecting information tools. These tools are equally valid and useful in the urban environment.

• Creative Spaces, United Kingdom: http://www.creativespaces.org.uk/. This is a toolkit of methods and stories from the Architecture Foundation Roadshow (1998 and 2000), which brought together residents and designers to think creatively about the future of local sites.
  http://www.urbandesigncompendium.co.uk/. Provides urban design principles, practical
guidelines and case studies from the United Kingdom.

• Higher Density Toolkit, East Thames, United Kingdom: http://www.east-
thames.co.uk/highdensity/. This toolkit draws together a range of resources to deliver best
practice in higher density housing. Includes a checklist to obtain an overall feel of the
quality of scheme proposals and provides links to UK publications, reports and useful
websites.

• Resource for Urban Design Education (RUDI), United Kingdom: http://www.rudi.net/.
  Based at Oxford Brookes University, Oxford. Commissions, researches and creates
  materials, and also re-publishes significant documents contributed by professional and
government bodies, practitioners, academics and community organisations.

• Smart Growth, United States: http://www.smartgrowth.org/. This website is a subset of
  http://www.sustainable.org/, developed and maintained by the Sustainable Communities
  Network (SCN), and supported with funding from the US Environmental Protection
  Agency.

  This toolkit introduces Smart Growth and provides an overview of numerous Smart Growth
  and Citizen Involvement tools. Links to additional references and resources are also
  included.

• The Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/.
  This website provides best practice information to residents, local government and
  professionals involved in community planning. The content of this site is taken largely from

• The Glass-House, United Kingdom: http://www.theglasshouse.org.uk/. The Glass-House is
  a UK design service offering design courses, advice and support to tenants, residents and
  professionals working in neighbourhoods undergoing change and renewal. The Glass-
  House is jointly managed by The Architecture Foundation:
  http://www.architecturefoundation.org.uk/ and Trafford Hall: http://traffordhall.com/, home
  of the National Tenants Resource Centre in the United Kingdom.

• Urban Land Institute: http://www.uli.org/. The Urban Land Institute is a worldwide, non-
  profit research and education organisation that provides leadership in the responsible use of
  land and in creating sustainable communities. This website provides links to publications,
case studies, research and worldwide networks.

• Your Development, Australia: http://yourdevelopment.org/. An online resource providing
  practical information on how to create sustainable urban residential developments. Includes
  fact sheets and case studies.
Visual Simulation

What it is:
Physically generated images (elevation, photograph or video), normally by computer, that model the appearance of a proposed development or urban design initiative in its context. This technique is also used to illustrate pedestrian and vehicular flows, and sun/shade impacts associated with a given development or area.

What it’s useful for:
Used to assess the appearance of projects on sensitive sites, provide tangible evidence of expected visual effects, and to increase certainty of a visual assessment before implementing a project.

How it’s done:
Visual simulations include three-dimensional animated representations that can be ‘walked through’ or ‘flown-through’ on screen. Photo montage techniques are also common. These are still images of an existing site, with an accurate rendering of the proposed development digitally inserted into the image to show the proposed development in its context.

References
- EcoSmart: [http://www.ecosmart.gov/](http://www.ecosmart.gov/). Is a web-based visual simulation software programme designed to evaluate the economic trade-offs between different landscape practices on residential parcels in relationship to energy and water use and fire prevention. Users work in a computer-simulation environment to test various landscape and hydrologic alternatives to arrive at environmentally and economically sound solutions.
- Local Government Commission, United States. Computer Simulation as a Community Participation Tool: [http://www.lgc.org/freepub/community_design/participation_tools/computer_simulation.html](http://www.lgc.org/freepub/community_design/participation_tools/computer_simulation.html). Provides information on computer simulation and use, with examples of this as a participation tool.
Section 4: Planning and Design Tools

Describing Intended Design Outcomes

Planning and design tools create a vision and set a framework for integrated development. These tools vary in scale depending on the boundaries of the design framework. They set out comprehensive design strategies that provide the means to describe, coordinate and apply quality design intentions in complex urban situations.

These tools guide and promote confidence by creating a clear vision, highlighting issues, coordinating development, and responding to change. Planning and design tools manage change through the promotion of quality urban design, focusing on the opportunities, and contributing to the design process through the provision of a sound policy context. An integrated urban development strategy that uses a combination of these tools can help implement urban projects over variable timeframes.

This section describes:
- Planning and Design Tools Working Together
- Accessibility Action Plan
- Asset Management Plan
- Community Plan
- Concept Plan
- Conservation Plan
- Covenant
- Design Brief
- Design Code
- Design Guide
- Growth Strategy
- Heritage Strategy
- Low Impact Design
- Masterplan
- Pattern Book
- Precinct Plan
- Priority Infrastructure Plans
- Public Art Strategy
- Streetscape Plan
- Streetscape Strategy

- Accessibility monitoring
- Activity management plans
- Long term council community plan
- Statutory design guides
- Non-statutory design guides
- Spatial masterplan
- Development plan
- Enterprise zone
- Character areas
- Conservation areas
- Urban quarters
- Centre plans
- Public facility plans
- Main street programme
- Open space plan
- Structure Plan
  - Regional structure plan
  - Public open space structure plan
- Subdivision Code of Practice
- Technical Guidance Note
- Transport Energy Specification
- Transport Strategy
  - Integrated transport strategy
- Travel Plan
- Urban Design Action Plan
- Urban Design Framework
  - Development brief
- Urban Design Strategy
- Walking and Cycling Strategy

### Planning and Design Tools Working Together

Many of the planning and design tools work together by providing vision and guidance at different scales, from the city through to the site. The diagram below illustrates how these urban design tools can be applied at all the different scales and levels of complexity. It is, therefore, very important to remember that the decisions taken at each level will impact on the levels both above and below.

#### Town or City

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Urban Design Strategy</strong></th>
<th><strong>Urban Design Framework</strong></th>
<th><strong>Design Guide</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall vision statement establishing general direction for a town or city. Identifies areas or precincts requiring special consideration.</td>
<td>Plan and policies that identify the key urban design features of, and future development for, a neighbourhood or larger complex site.</td>
<td>Policy and principles setting out criteria and ways of achieving quality urban design.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Neighbourhood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Structure Plan</strong></th>
<th><strong>Precinct Plan</strong></th>
<th><strong>Streetscape Strategy</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall plan for the structure of streets and public spaces with reference to land use.</td>
<td>A plan that defines a particular character area or quarter within a town or city and provides guidance for potential development.</td>
<td>Establishes design direction and general criteria to apply to design of the public space network. Streetscape plan: specific design improvements for the streets identified by the streetscape strategy and structure plan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Masterplan</strong></th>
<th><strong>Design Code</strong></th>
<th><strong>Design Brief</strong></th>
<th><strong>Covenant</strong></th>
<th><strong>Technical Guidance Note</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The final expected physical plan of buildings and open spaces of a large development.</td>
<td>Template and rules of placement and design detail for lot, building and open space design.</td>
<td>Description of design outcomes and assessment criteria for an urban design project.</td>
<td>Legal restriction or agreement on design recorded on a title of a property to improve the quality of the built environment.</td>
<td>Details (eg, street furniture, kerbs, paving and planting) used in the design, layout, technical specifications and maintenance of public open space – streets, plazas, parks and waterways.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Accessibility Action Plan

What it is:
An accessibility action plan is created to promote movement to people from disadvantaged groups or areas to essential employment and services. An accessibility action plan considers improved transport options and the location, design and delivery of other services and people’s perceptions of personal safety.

What it’s useful for:
Accessibility planning encourages local authorities and other agencies to assess systematically whether people can get to places of work, health care facilities, education facilities, food shops, and other destinations that are important to local residents.

How it’s done:
Through a process of an accessibility assessment using an accessibility audit and accessibility option appraisal, which leads to an accessibility action plan and further accessibility monitoring.

An accessibility action plan flows out of the accessibility assessment and option appraisal steps of the process and comprises outputs of these steps. This information enables identification of a detailed set of prioritised actions to address each of the problems identified during the accessibility assessment.

Actions could include, for example, initiatives to improve travel advice and information, safer streets and stations, reducing the need to travel and making travel more affordable.

‘Accessibility monitoring’ uses a set of core national and regional accessibility indicators to evaluate the contribution made by the proposed actions towards delivery of accessibility objectives.

Reference/example
- Accessibility Planning, Department for Transport, United Kingdom: http://www.dft.gov.uk/pgr/REGIONAL/LTP/accessibility/. Provides a variety of information on accessibility planning, including background reports, accessibility processes, case studies and planning initiatives in the United Kingdom.

Asset Management Plan

What it is:
An asset management plan demonstrates how a local authority will manage its infrastructure and community assets. Sometimes referred to as an ‘activity management plan’.

Plans may be prepared for assets such as solid waste, wastewater networks, wastewater treatment plants, stormwater, water supply, parks and reserves, council-owned property and buildings, land transport or roading, and river catchment schemes.
What it’s useful for:
Local authorities manage significant infrastructure and community assets that deliver most of the critical quality-of-life services to communities. Asset management plans are useful for identifying and quantifying assets, gathering information on their age and condition, defining the level of service a community wants those assets to provide and forecasting both operational and renewal costs. Activities can be implemented to reduce the use and ongoing maintenance of the assets and prolong their life.

Asset management plans are also useful for examining how growth will impact on future demand for use of the assets. The plans can assess how the capacity of current infrastructure can meet future growth and/or the capital expenditure required to maintain current levels of service and where there will be constraints.

How it’s done:
Schedule 10 of the Local Government Act 2002 requires local authorities to define levels of service for all assets and how those levels of service will be provided. The levels of service are linked to community outcomes specified in long term council community plans.

There is no statutory requirement, however, to follow any particular framework when preparing an asset management plan. The plans contain a description of the assets, details of service levels, including how growth will be dealt with, planning assumptions and confidence levels, improvement programmes, financial forecasts and how the plan will be implemented. Recommended best practice is for asset management plans to deal with risk management, optimised decision-making and integration issues.

References – New Zealand
- National Asset Management Steering Group (NAMS): http://www.nams.org.nz/Home (118 KB). NAMS is a non-profit industry organisation that promotes best practice in asset management in New Zealand. The website includes essential manuals and guidelines such as The International Infrastructure Management Manual, Optimised Decision Making Guidelines and Developing Levels of Service and Performance Measures Guidelines. It also includes details of asset management related training.

References – Overseas
- Department for Communities and Local Government, United Kingdom: http://www.local.communities.gov.uk/finance/capital/assetmanagement.htm (13.8 KB). Various online resources for UK local government asset management.


**Examples – New Zealand**

Many councils prepare asset management plans for various assets. Examples include:


Community Plan

What it is:
Getting the community involved in shaping their local surroundings, through planning and management of their environment.

What it’s useful for:
Bringing local people and resources together, making better decisions and achieving more appropriate results, building a sense of community, and creating opportunities for speedier development.

How it’s done:
There are many ways of undertaking community plans, and the approach will be different for each community initiative or reason for the plan. Community plans can be undertaken for the development of community facilities, urban renewal projects, neighbourhood or town centre upgrades, housing development projects, reuse of derelict sites, heritage conservation projects or even disaster management plans. An excellent UK website, with a number of general principles, methods and scenarios for inspiration on community plans is Community Planning: http://www.communityplanning.net/.

Under the Local Government Act 2002, local authorities are required to develop a ‘long term council community plan’ (LTCCP). The Act sets out a formal process for preparing an LTCCP. These plans are central to the new local government planning framework and are intended to inform the other planning functions undertaken by local authorities (for example, asset management plans, district plans, and waste management plans). Their main purpose is to identify the community outcomes for the district or region and the local authority’s activities that contribute to these outcomes.

References
- Community Planning, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/. Provides a broad range of principles, methods and scenarios on community planning.
- SmartGrowth Toolkit, British Columbia. Official Community Plans: http://66.51.172.116/Portals/0/Downloads/J1_ToolKitPart_II.pdf (363 KB). Page 15 of this strategic document helps determine where specific types of developments, such as multi-family dwellings and mixed-use town centres, could be located.
- Sustainable Communities for All Ages: A Viable Futures Toolkit: http://viablefuturestoolkit.org/index.htm. A comprehensive US resource that provides guidance to planners, policymakers and service providers on how to create solutions that meet the needs of an ageing population and younger generations.
Examples – Community plans

- Christchurch City Council 2005. Christchurch Neighbourhood Plans: http://www.ccc.govt.nz/environment/urbanrenewalprogramme/neighbourhoodplans.asp. Provides information on current neighbourhood plans, which draw together projects, potential community initiatives and strategic goals into living documents that can evolve as the community expectations change and additional renewal opportunities arise.


- Western Bay of Plenty District Council Community Plans. This council has produced community plans for Katikati, Maketu, Te Puna and Waihi Beach. Go to http://www.wbopdc.govt.nz/Publications/ and scroll down to ‘comprehensive development plans’.

- Whakatane Town Vision Concept Plan 2008: http://www.whakatanetownvision.co.nz/index.html. The plan provides a framework by which the Council, developers and community can collectively protect the special features of the town centre.


Examples – Long term council community plans

All councils have long term council community plans. Listed below are those that have an urban design emphasis. Links to all council websites are available at: http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/contacts/index.php.

- Auckland City’s Long Term Plan 2006–2016: http://www.aucklandcity.govt.nz/council/documents/focus/default.asp. This plan is based on 21 community outcomes, which are organised into five categories – cultural, economic, environmental, social and city leadership.

- Kapiti Coast: Choosing Futures – Community Plan 2006: http://www.kapiticoast.govt.nz/Home/CommunityPlan2006/. This plan is based on seven community outcomes, which are linked with a number of cross outcome themes. These include quality design elements, such as best practice subdivision design and acknowledging the economic benefits of good design and good quality urban environments.


Concept Plan

What it is:
A conceptual plan of how a site can be developed, which is less detailed than a masterplan. Often related to landscape plans for street and open space development projects. Concept plans can also be used to illustrate proposals at the city-wide, sub-regional or regional scale.

What it’s useful for:
Showing the potential development of a site before the masterplan and for drawing up detailed project plans. Concept plans are particularly useful at the beginning of a project and during community consultation.

How it’s done:
Development of a design concept in a plan format, often accompanied by sketch plans and/or a rough model of the project.

Examples
- Auckland City Council. Lumsden Green Development: http://www.aucklandcity.govt.nz/council/projects/lumsden/plan.asp. Sets out the proposed design for the Lumsden Green Reserve. The long term vision for Lumsden Green is for it to become a gateway to Newmarket and a park where many people like to relax and spend time.
- Auckland Regional Council. Cornwallis Concept Plan: http://www.arc.govt.nz/albany/main/parks/parks-projects-and-plans/parks-concept-plans.cfm. A progressive concept plan that identifies a staged approach to the Cornwallis peninsula and the Cornwallis wharf area development over the next 20 years. Includes visitor facilities and enhancement of recreational opportunities, while maintaining natural and cultural heritage.
- Christchurch City Council. The Groynes Concept Plan: http://www.ccc.govt.nz/Parks/Publications/mp_groynes.asp. The Groynes Concept Plan examines the current context of the park, taking into account past and intended changes and the neighbourhood. The overall concept, as a long term vision for The Groynes, is for a regional park that provides linked recreational opportunities in the countryside.
Conservation Plan

What it is:
A conservation plan is a document that identifies why a place is important and how it should be conserved in the future.

What it’s useful for:
Informing major design-related decisions affecting historic places. It does this through increasing people’s understanding of the characteristics that contribute to making a place important and by providing direction to guide the conservation, use and development of historic places, particularly where their future use is unknown, or undecided or where major development work is proposed.

How it’s done:
Conservation plan preparation generally comprises a two-stage process as follows:

• Stage 1 – understanding the place through gathering and analysing documentary and physical evidence and then assessing and stating heritage significance.

• Stage 2 – conservation policy and implementation through gathering information to help develop a conservation policy (for example, physical condition, external requirements such as legal and stakeholder views, requirements for the retention of significance, and feasible uses). Followed by developing a conservation policy and identifying strategies for its implementation.

The undertaking of the process in two discrete stages helps increase the plan’s integrity because the significance of a place can be assessed in isolation of the practical requirements that will inform subsequent policy.
References


Examples

A number of councils and professional institutes have prepared conservation plans, however, not all of these are available on the web. Contact your local council for further information on conservation plans. A full list of council websites can be found on the Quality Planning website: [http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/contacts/index.php](http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/contacts/index.php) or Local Government New Zealand website: [http://www.lgnz.co.nz/lg-sector/maps/](http://www.lgnz.co.nz/lg-sector/maps/).


Covenant

**What it is:**

A legal restriction or agreement recorded on the title of a property that is a matter of private contract.

**What it’s useful for:**

Covenants relate generally to the relationship between vendor and purchaser or lescer and lessee and are not a public regulatory tool. For example, a covenant may be used to implement private design controls on a site, which may cover the range of building materials used, the height and
placement of buildings, planting and tree protection, and the extent and type of site work. Private individuals decide what is going into the covenant.

**How it’s done:**

Applied to a variety of matters, including aspects of design not covered by a district plan’s rules or guidelines, but can also be applied to protect and conserve places of ecological or historic heritage value. Covenants can be used by private developers to uphold the specific style or design quality of their development over time. Design expertise will be needed to implement design-related covenants if they require skilled qualitative assessment. Covenants are unlikely to achieve high-quality results unless they are technically robust, applied with appropriate skill and have a means of enforcement after the developer is no longer involved.

**Examples**


- New Zealand Historic Places Trust Heritage Covenants: [http://www.historic.org.nz/heritage/heritage_covenants.html](http://www.historic.org.nz/heritage/heritage_covenants.html). Heritage covenants are attached to the land title and place conditions or restriction on its use. There are over 60 heritage covenants at present.

- QEII National Trust: [http://www.nationaltrust.org.nz/](http://www.nationaltrust.org.nz/). A QEII open space covenant is a legally binding protection agreement. It is registered on the title of the land. There are over 2000 QEII covenants that can apply to the whole property or just part of it. They are generally in perpetuity.

Design Brief

What it is:
A coherent description by the client to the design team that sets out the desired physical design criteria and outcomes for an urban design project.

What it’s useful for:
Used by all developers, including local authorities, to outline their vision and desired design outcomes.

How it’s done:
A brief will define a site and context, and outline the vision and expectations for site development, including the important outcomes and conditions. Often developed in conjunction with a masterplan or precinct plan and after higher-level vision documents, such as an urban design strategy, have been completed. Every brief should set out: the mission; objectives; performance requirements and measures; priorities; management decisions and responsibilities; timeframe; and who is expected to respond. A design brief may also describe required qualities in addition to desired physical outcomes. Urban design briefs often provide a graphic indication of key alignments, dimensions or relationships to be established with existing buildings, streets or open spaces.

Reference
- Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE). *The Design Brief*: http://www.cabe.org.uk/publications/acp-design-brief (414.01 KB). This document provides information on the purpose, who should contribute and what is needed in a design brief.

Examples
Design Code

What it is:
A precise description of parameters for designing buildings and open space within a development, which may also include specification on material and design detail. This is three-dimensional, performance-based zoning.

What it’s useful for:
Used by local councils and private sector developers to control the site planning and design quality of buildings and open space within a development.

How it’s done:
A design code usually comprises a masterplan and written information. The masterplan is three-dimensional and illustrates the development area and intended arrangement of spaces, buildings and design details. The written information explains the plan, and details issues such as landscape, materials and mix of uses. The more detailed design codes will probably provide a pattern book.

References/examples
- Communities and Local Government, U.K. 2006. Preparing Design Codes: A Practice Manual: http://www.communities.gov.uk/documents/citiesandregions/pdf/152675.pdf (2.2 MB). This UK guide shows how design codes can deliver good-quality places, and explains how design codes can be integrated into the planning, design and development processes that shape the built environment.
- Department of Planning, New South Wales. Residential Flat Design Code: http://www.planning.nsw.gov.au/programservices/dcode.asp. This New South Wales resource is designed to enable practitioners to improve residential flat design. It sets broad parameters for good residential flat design by illustrating the use of development controls and consistent guidelines.
- Office of Deputy Prime Minister, United Kingdom 2006. Design Coding in Practice: An Evaluation: http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/citiesandregions/designcoding2. This report presents the findings of research that sought to test the impact of design coding on a number of outcomes. The research concluded that design codes are valuable tools for delivering a range of benefits.
Design Guide

What it is:
A guideline that describes in words and illustrations the principles for achieving quality urban design. Design guides can either be non-statutory or given statutory effect through incorporation into (or referenced through) a Resource Management Act plan rule.

What it’s useful for:
Guiding decision-making and providing a consistent approach on urban design projects. A statutory design guide makes design criteria explicit, provides consistency for the developer and community, and allows for a robust assessment and decision-making process. Design guides may be applied to specific areas, such as character areas, town and city centres, development types (for example, multi-unit housing), or to design issues (for example, design for streetscape quality or safety).

How it’s done:
The development of a design guide may start with the examination and debate of all urban design issues. When a draft design guide is developed it can be subject to consultation before being adopted.

Design guides generally come in two forms:

- ‘Statutory design guides’, often called ‘design criteria’, have legal status in a district plan and provide explicit criteria for assessing the quality of design outcomes. For example, by forming part of a plan rule or policy. They provide developers and designers with information on critical issues before starting the design process, and ensure that the method of assessing design quality is systematic, consistent and transparent. The statutory design guide’s legal status gives the necessary leverage to ensure that it is followed. Design expertise is therefore required to implement statutory design guides, because they inevitably require skilled qualitative assessment. These guides should contain explanations and/or illustrations to demonstrate the context and rationale for design principles. They should also include design objectives to clarify the intent of the guidelines and allow for flexibility in the design approach.

- ‘Non-statutory design guides’ are used for education and advocacy and, when combined with promotion, can be an effective means of distributing information on quality design. Because there is no compulsion for a developer or designer to consider a non-statutory design guide, it will be most effective when the majority of users are persuaded that it is in their interests to follow the guide. It should be attractively presented, use accessible language and graphics, and be supported by ongoing promotion.

Site- or area-specific design guides are also used by private developers and can take the form of a design code, pattern book or covenant where they are implemented by means of a legal agreement or covenant.

References


• Opus International Consultants Limited 2007. *Tools for Sustainable Management of Settlement Form in New Zealand*: http://www.learningsustainability.org.nz/. This report presents an introduction to some of the methods and tools that have been used in New Zealand and overseas to manage sustainable settlement form and design. Design guides are discussed on page 60 of the report.

**Examples – Statutory design guidelines**


**Examples – Non-statutory design guidelines – New Zealand**


• Christchurch City Council 2005: http://www.ccc.govt.nz/environment/urbandesign/guides/. A variety of non-statutory design guides. Includes central city design opportunities, new housing guides and guidelines for special amenity areas.


• North Shore City: http://www.northshorecity.govt.nz/?src=/your_neighbourhood/urban-design/overview.htm. Has produced a variety of non-statutory advisory design guides that are available on its website.


• Queenstown Lakes District Council. *Arrowtown Design Guidelines*: http://www.qldc.govt.nz/Default.aspx?tabid=478 (224 KB). The purpose of these guidelines is to identify and protect the special qualities and historic character of Arrowtown. The guidelines provide assistance to the community, landowners, developers, designers, planners, the Council and decision-makers when restoration, alterations, development or redevelopment is proposed in Arrowtown.

• Queenstown Lakes District Council 2007. *Queenstown Town Centre Character Guidelines*: http://www.qldc.govt.nz/portals/qldc/Planning%20and%20Growth/urban%20design/Queenstown%20Town%20Centre%20Character%20Guidelines.pdf (3.32 MB). The purpose of the guidelines is to articulate the character attributes of the Queenstown Town Centre and provide guidance to the community, landowners, developers, professionals and council decision-makers (including the Urban Design Panel) on how development should capture and be sympathetic to these character attributes.


**Examples – Non-statutory design guidelines – Overseas**


• Prince’s Foundation, United Kingdom 2006. *HRH The Prince of Wales’s Affordable Rural Housing Initiative – Creating a Sense of Place: A Design Guide*: http://www.princes-foundation.org/files/affordableruralhousing.pdf (3 MB). This guide focuses on the appearance, construction and layout of affordable housing designed for villages and small towns. Case studies are used throughout to demonstrate the principles of good design in practice.

**Growth Strategy**

**What it is:**

A long-term strategy that provides a comprehensive spatial framework for managing the growth of an area. These strategies have regard to the functions of an urban community that are influenced by spatially focused policies, activities and services, and seek to integrate these in a sustainable manner. For example, the location and density of housing, transportation and other
infrastructure networks, protection of the natural environment, spatially led social planning, and the location, intensity and employment opportunities associated with existing and future business centres. The growth strategy will often incorporate other high-level urban design tools, such as a regional or city-wide urban design strategy.

A growth strategy can operate at a regional, sub-regional or city level.

**What it’s useful for:**

Helps provide a clear, spatial framework and strategic direction(s) for anticipated future growth in an area. Enables integrated multi-disciplinary planning to occur at the regional, sub-regional or metropolitan level in a manner that guides, directs and influences local decisions to ensure growth is addressed across all scales and disciplines. For example, the best locations for future growth nodes and transport hubs.

Growth strategies also help inform documents such as regional policy statements, regional land transport strategies, district plans and long term council community plans.

**How it’s done:**

Technical analysis and research is undertaken, alongside political input and consultation with numerous people and organisations. A draft strategy is released for consultation and submissions are made on the draft content before the final strategy is implemented. A cross-section of people is involved, including politicians, developers, planners, architects, infrastructure operators, iwi, environmental experts and business people.

**References**


Examples – Regional growth strategies

- Auckland Regional Council 1999. Auckland Regional Growth Strategy: http://www.arc.govt.nz/albany/main/auckland/aucklands-growth/regional-strategies_home.cfm. This strategy sets a vision for how the region’s growth can be sustainably managed over the next 50 years. Key issues covered include: urban form, housing, transport, business and economy, employment location and the environment.

- Nelson/Richmond Intensification Study: http://www.nelsoncitycouncil.co.nz/environment/plans/NUGS/intensification-study.htm. This joint project between Nelson City Council and Tasman District Council helps address the need to accommodate 9000 new houses across the region by 2026.

- Wellington Regional Strategy: http://www.wrs.govt.nz. A sustainable economic growth strategy developed over two years by the region’s nine local authorities. It contains a range of initiatives, including transport, housing, urban design and open spaces, aimed at getting the Wellington region to realise its economic potential and to enhance regional form.

Examples – Sub-regional growth strategies


- Northern and Western Sectors Agreement 2001: http://www.waitakere.govt.nz/AbtCnl/pp/pdf/sectoragrmntoct2001.pdf (1.70 MB). An agreement under the Auckland Regional Growth Strategy between the following councils: North Shore City, Waitakere City, Rodney District and Auckland Regional. The strategy allocates future population growth capacities by sub-regional and territorial areas, based on analysis of population projections and application of the key principles outlined in the strategy. The Northern and Western Sectors Agreement sets out how the allocated growth capacities for these two sectors can be accommodated in appropriate locations, form and sequencing over the next 20 years. It also identifies and sets in place agreed principles and methods/actions to address the key issues associated with managing this growth.

- Western Bay of Plenty, SmartGrowth Strategy: http://www.smartgrowthbop.org.nz/. This 50-year strategy was developed by SmartGrowth and implemented in May 2004. It provides a context for considering the sub-region’s growth-management decisions and how they may affect the welfare of future generations. A range of initiatives is covered by this strategy, including the location of housing and employment and their impact on transportation networks, and the need to protect versatile land resources that provide a strong base for the region’s economy.
Examples – Town and city growth strategies

- Franklin District Council. *Franklin District Growth Strategy*: 

  http://www.gdc.govt.nz/NR/rdonlyres/85D16656-C6C8-4EC2-99F1-A571254349FB/64201/DOCS_n93671_v1_UDS_Draft_Strategy_with_Changes_fro.pdf. This strategy is a guiding document for sustainable and physical planning. It sets the main direction of growth and development within the urban area of Gisborne.


- Waitakere City Council 2006. *Growth management strategy for Waitakere City*: 
  http://www.waitakere.govt.nz/abtcnl/pp/pdf/gms/gmsexecutivesummary.doc (321 KB). Examines the background and drivers for growth in Waitakere City and where, when and in what form growth will occur. Also provides detailed area profiles for significant growth areas.

  http://www.wellington.govt.nz/plans/policies/northerngrowth/pdfs/northerngrowth.pdf (1.64 MB). This strategy for the future development of the northern part of Wellington City provides communities, landowners, developers and the Council with a set of goals and an agreed process for planning urban expansion.

  http://www.wellington.govt.nz/plans/strategies/pdfs/urbandev.pdf (197 KB). Aims to ensure that future growth and change reinforces the physical and spatial characteristics that make Wellington distinctive. Includes a 50-year growth concept and three-year growth priorities.

Heritage Strategy

What it is:

A heritage strategy documents how a local authority intends to manage heritage in its area and sets out the range of, and balance between, regulatory and non-regulatory heritage management techniques.

What it’s useful for:

A heritage strategy can guide planning, promote integrated management across council functions and provide a basis for making financial decisions. It can also be a useful political tool because it allows community aspirations to be identified, recorded and then prioritised for
action by the local authority. A heritage strategy can promote coordination and cooperation between the many different parties that have an interest in historic heritage.

**How it’s done:**

There is no statutory requirement to prepare a heritage strategy. The process of developing a heritage strategy is as inclusive as possible so as to canvass views from all interested parties, not just ‘experts’. Community input is essential because it enables the local authority to develop a long-term vision for heritage management. At the beginning of the process it is important to be clear on the purpose for the strategy and to have political support for developing and implementing it.

A heritage strategy should explore all options for heritage management (regulatory and non-regulatory) and evaluate their suitability in that particular area. The implementation section needs to be flexible because this is the area most likely to change over time. The strategy should also include details of how it will be monitored and reviewed.

**References**


**Examples**


Many councils have prepared heritage strategies. Examples include:


Low Impact Design

What it is:

Low impact design (LID) is a site design approach that protects and incorporates natural site features into erosion and sediment control and stormwater management plans. It uses catchments as the ecological basis for designing sites, and the principles can be applied from large-scale developments, through to individual lots. Key elements include working with natural systems by avoiding or minimising impervious surfaces, minimising earthworks and using vegetation to trap sediment and pollutants.

What it’s useful for:

It helps minimise sediment and pollutant run-off and reduces impervious areas. It also reduces energy, infrastructure, maintenance and site development costs.

How it’s done:

LID requires the minimisation of hydrologic impacts and the provision of controls to mitigate and restore the unavoidable disturbance to the hydrologic regime.

Note, LID is referred to in Australia as ‘Water Sensitive Urban Design’ (WSUD); in the United Kingdom as ‘Sustainable Urban Design Systems’ (SUDS); and in New Zealand as ‘Low Impact Urban Design and Development’ (LIUDD).
References

- Auckland Regional Council. *Breathing Space: Creating Memorable Places with Living Infrastructure*: http://www.arc.govt.nz/albany/fms/main/Documents/Auckland/Low%20impact/breathing%20space.pdf (2.8 MB). The Council has developed this simple presentation to illustrate how low impact design, as a stormwater management solution, can add value to urban design and provide a holistic approach to urban development.


- Manaaki Whenua, Landcare Research. Low Impact Urban Design and Development (LIUDD): http://www.landcareresearch.co.nz/research/built/liudd/. Provides information about the LIUDD research programme, which is funded by the Foundation of Research Science and Technology. Contains numerous links to New Zealand and international websites.

Examples – New Zealand

- Manaaki Whenua, Landcare Research. *Engaging Urban Communities: Six Case Studies of Auckland Community-Based Restoration Projects*: http://www.landcareresearch.co.nz/publications/researchpubs/kathryn_scott_paper.pdf. This joint initiative between the New Zealand Landcare Trust and Landcare Research aims to raise community awareness and stimulate behaviours that lead to the enhancement of water quality and biodiversity within urban areas.


- Urban Design and Development Case Study Portal: http://cs.synergine.com/. Includes case study examples from around New Zealand of low impact urban design and development projects.


Examples – Overseas

- Environmental Protection Agency, United States. Smart Growth and Water: Resources and Tools: http://www.epa.gov/watertrain/smartgrowth/resources/index.htm. This site is a portal to US resources on zoning and ordinances, case studies, low-impact development tools, and site planning techniques.

- The Low Impact Development Centre, United States: http://www.lowimpactdevelopment.org/home.htm. The Low Impact Development Centre is a US non-profit organisation dedicated to the advancement of low impact development technology. This website provides links to research, training and other resources.

- *The National Urban Water Governance Program*, United States: http://arts.monash.edu.au/ges/research/nuwgp/. This site includes information on a social research programme that
aims to provide a knowledge base that will inform and assist urban water managers build institutional capacity, improve water governance, and deliver sustainable forms of water management.

- Water Sensitive Urban Design, Sydney: [http://wsud.org](http://wsud.org). This site provides information on WSUD and initiatives in the Sydney region.

## Masterplan

### What it is:

A masterplan describes the final expected outcome of a large site and may be used to direct development on smaller sites. It describes the physical configuration and phasing of buildings, infrastructure and/or public spaces.

### What it’s useful for:

Outlining the expected final outcome of a development with the physical layout of buildings, public spaces, roading and possible land uses. Used to direct and coordinate further detailed development on the site. Masterplans are used in site development and open space projects by (public or private) developers to provide certainty about design and development intentions. Masterplans are valuable in creating opportunities for regeneration, and in providing a plan for either brownfield or greenfield development. Developers often use masterplans as sales and marketing tools to illustrate the final look or character of their development scheme.

### How it’s done:

Because of their complexity, masterplans typically require a multi-disciplinary team. In the creation of a masterplan, a variety of urban design tools will be used. Masterplans that are expected to be implemented over an extended time period can be restrictive if they are given regulatory status, unless the status allows for change. This approach is sometimes referred to as a ‘spatial masterplan’ or a ‘development plan’.

Masterplans are often produced with reference to a higher level urban design strategy that is applied to a neighbourhood, city, town or region.

### References/examples – Overseas

- Bristol International Airport Masterplan, United Kingdom: [http://www.bristolairport.co.uk/about_us/our_future/masterplan.aspx](http://www.bristolairport.co.uk/about_us/our_future/masterplan.aspx). This masterplan sets out the airport development proposals for the period up to 2015, with particular attention to transportation issues. Additionally, the plan looks forward to 2030, setting out how the airport may develop in the longer term to meet the projected growth demand in air travel.
together a varied number of masterplanning projects as case studies, describing what was proposed and CABE’s analysis of the designs.


- The Scottish Government. Planning Advice Note Masterplanning: http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/237745/0065300.pdf (2.9 MB). Defines what a masterplan is, why Scotland needs to use them, what an effective plan looks like, and when they are required.

### Examples – New Zealand


- Ministry for the Environment 2005. *Urban Design Case Studies: New Zealand Urban Design Protocol*: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/urban-design-case-studies-mar05/urban-design-case-studies-colour.pdf (1.8 MB). Auckland University of Technology (AUT), pp 7–12. The masterplan for AUT is a collaboration between the project partners AUT, JASMAX, Opus - and Auckland City Council that allowed the design of buildings and activities to address and enhance environmental characteristics.


• North Shore City Council. Devonport Draft Master Plan: http://www.northshorecity.govt.nz/?src=/your_neighbourhood/devonport-urban-design-competition/default.htm. This draft masterplan stems from the development of the Devonport Centre Plan and the Urban Design Competition. This is a summary of the developed competition winning scheme – now called the Devonport Draft Master Plan. The plan aims to retain and strengthen the existing town centre structure of Devonport, the street scale and footpaths and trees.

• Wellington City Council. Port Redevelopment Precinct Master Plan: http://www.wellington.govt.nz/plans/district/planchanges/pdfs/change48/change48-pcd-chap13app02.pdf (368 KB). This statutory masterplan is part of Plan Change 48 in the Central Area Review. It sets out the intended design outcomes of the Wellington Port redevelopment. It is anticipated that the masterplan will create a new precinct within the port area.

Pattern Book

What it is:
A ‘pattern book’ is based upon the vision of a masterplan or the character of an existing neighbourhood. It regulates the building bulk, architectural massing, building types, heights, facades, styles, materials, and details of a proposed character, or character that you may wish to retain.

What it’s useful for:
A pattern book establishes the basic design guidelines that will ensure that the architecture of the individual buildings within an urban area will all be in keeping with the overall masterplan vision. Pattern books can also describe guidelines for open space, streets, parking and service functions.

How it’s done:
Design details are specified that aim to produce a consistent scale and proportion appropriate to their context. A pattern book should raise the standards of design by providing options and issues for quality design of building.
Examples

- Norfolk City, United States: http://www.norfolk.gov/Planning/comehome/Norfolk_PATTERN_Book/residents.html. A pattern book website organised into four sections: The Overview, Neighbourhood Patterns, Architectural Patterns and Landscape Patterns. Each section is designed to provide key information to help in making design and site planning decisions for planned renovations or new house construction.


Precinct Plan

What it is:
A plan or set of policies and guidelines used to direct development within a defined area.

What it’s useful for:
Managing and directing change consistent with the conditions and characteristics of a defined neighbourhood or character area.

How it’s done:
The precinct is defined by its context, character and unique functions and mapped to a particular location in a town or city. Specific policies, guidelines or plans are put together to manage development within the precinct. Precincts may range in scale, from individual spaces within a campus environment, to streets and neighbourhoods within a city. Examples of precinct planning include designation of a business improvement district, an ‘enterprise zone’, special activity area, ‘character areas’, ‘conservation areas’ and ‘urban quarters’.

Town centre plans or ‘centre plans’ usually apply to suburban businesses, retail and mixed-use areas. A centre plan integrates planning, streetscape and public transport improvements. It is often closely related to a town centre programme or a main street programme that focuses on the management, physical enhancement, economic development and marketing of an area.

Examples

- Auckland City Council. Aotea Quarter Plan: http://www.aucklandcity.govt.nz/council/projects/cbdproject/aoteaquarter.asp. Is one of a number of place-based plans that are part of Auckland’s ‘CBD into the Future’.


Priority Infrastructure Plans

What it is:

Priority infrastructure plans (PIPs) are used to identify the existing and future infrastructure necessary to provide for estimated future population growth. They provide a clear and certain basis for the calculation of infrastructure charges applicable to new development. Generally, these plans include:

• stormwater infrastructure (drainage and water quality)
• transport infrastructure (roads, cycle and pedestrian paths)
• local community infrastructure (open space and land for local community purposes such as libraries, community halls and so on).

What it’s useful for:

PIPs are a key mechanism for assisting in planning and growth management. They help ensure water, sewerage, stormwater, public and private transport, recreational facilities, and land for community facilities are provided in an efficient and sustainable way, and new developments pay their fair share of the cost of providing infrastructure.

In New Zealand, PIPs can help inform structure plans by helping identify the location of essential infrastructure, such as roading.
How it's done:

PIPs establish an infrastructure planning benchmark for the planning scheme. They identify:

- where growth is expected to occur
- the nature and scale of this growth
- the plans and desired service standards for the infrastructure necessary to service the growth.

In Australia, PIPs are prepared in consultation with the state government and take into account local and state government policies, infrastructure efficiencies, expected population growth, and demand for serviced land and market expectations. They identify the areas within a locality that are, or are planned to be, serviced with development infrastructure.

In the United States, PIPs are often referred to as ‘public facility plans’ and are administered at both local and state levels, depending on the nature of the infrastructure. They are undertaken in a similar manner to PIPs and regulated according to the likely impacts.

References/examples – New Zealand

- Waitakere City Council 2007. *Social Infrastructure Planning Framework for Waitakere City*: [http://www.waitakere.govt.nz/abtcnl/pp/pdf/gms/social-infra-s1.pdf](http://www.waitakere.govt.nz/abtcnl/pp/pdf/gms/social-infra-s1.pdf) (1.22 MB). The framework sets outs a range of principles, processes and tools to help the Council (and other infrastructure providers) to plan for the social infrastructure needs of growth areas. The framework is focused on facilities (such as halls and meeting spaces) as well as community-based processes like networking and events.

References/examples – Overseas

Public Art Strategy

What it is:
A strategy that commits a council or organisation to supporting and encouraging art in its town and city. Aims can include: supporting the development of local artists; generating new art-related employment; expressing different cultures; developing opportunities in the urban fabric where arts can be expressed and people can participate; and improving the quality of the built environment.

What it's useful for:
Supporting the recognised key role that public art plays in a town or city’s social, cultural and economic development, and as an important vehicle for urban renewal and city marketing.

How it’s done:
Working with the art community to create a challenging and creative strategy with social outputs and local involvement that is fully integrated with wider planning, policy and design tools. The strategy may start small, with a number of local art-related events, and build up to a number of high-profile, national-interest events or artworks.

‘Public art’ is defined in the widest possible sense as artistic works created for, or located in, part of a public space or facility and accessible to members of the public. Public art includes works of a permanent or temporary nature located in the public domain.

Examples


Streetscape Plan

What it is:
A design plan that details development, improvements or regeneration proposals for a single street or open space.

What it’s useful for:
Guiding refurbishment of specific streets and spaces in the city, often as part of a wider public space enhancement strategy, and sometimes integrated with marketing and economic regeneration initiatives or a town centre programme or main street programme.

How it’s done:
An overall design vision is required to direct the construction and management proposals of a streetscape plan. A number of tools, including research and analysis, community participation and awareness raising, will be used in the development of a streetscape plan. It may also be known as a ‘open space plan’.

Examples
Streetscape Strategy

What it is:
A planning policy that describes at a high level the visual qualities and (sometimes) management and maintenance requirements that must be met by the design of open space and public areas.

What it’s useful for:
Providing coordinated guidance for the design of a street system and associated public spaces within a town or city.

How it’s done:
A streetscape strategy may cover a neighbourhood, or an entire town or city centre. Based on an understanding of local context, character and needs, the strategy will usually identify the intended hierarchy of open spaces and the general design approach at all levels of the hierarchy. It may also be known as a ‘open space enhancement strategy’ and will sometimes include detailed streetscape plans for identified streets and masterplans for key public spaces.

Structure Plan

What it is:
A high-level plan that shows the arrangement of land-use types, and identifies public infrastructure, such as streets, schools, rail, reservoirs and natural features. The integration of multiple transport modes and destinations can also be shown.

What it’s useful for:
Guiding the future development or redevelopment of a particular area by coordinating and defining land-use patterns, areas of open space, the location and distribution of infrastructure, including integration and accessibility of transportation with land use, and other key features that influence or manage the effects of development.

How it’s done:
A structure plan is typically prepared by local government to show how a given area and its supporting networks link it to other areas. When produced at the regional level, it describes arterial routes and is called a ‘regional structure plan’. When applied at the precinct or district-wide level in open space planning, it is often described as a ‘public open space structure plan’ and shows all open spaces and access connections.
References/examples


- Ministry for the Environment 2005. **Urban Design Case Studies: New Zealand Urban Design Protocol**: [http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/urban-design-case-studies-mar05/urban-design-case-studies-colour.pdf](http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/urban/urban-design-case-studies-mar05/urban-design-case-studies-colour.pdf) (1.8 MB). Botany Downs – Manukau City, pp 18–25, was part of the Te U Kaipo Structure Plan, which established the development pattern before land was released for urban development.

- Opus International Consultants Limited 2007. **Tools for Sustainable Management of Settlement Form in New Zealand**: [http://www.learningsustainability.org.nz/](http://www.learningsustainability.org.nz/). This report presents an introduction to methods and tools that have been used in New Zealand and overseas to manage sustainable settlement form and design. Structure plans are discussed on pages 58 and 59.


Subdivision Code of Practice

**What it is:**

A subdivision code of practice sets out requirements and conditions for the approval of earthworks, road layout and stormwater, and the design, construction and maintenance of land proposed for subdivision. It provides a means of complying with conditions imposed by resource consents, and subdivision rules and criteria within a district plan. It applies to urban and rural subdivision practices for residential, business and recreational purposes.

**What it’s useful for:**

Assisting territorial authorities in controlling the development and protection of land and associated natural and physical resources in a district. Many New Zealand councils are beginning to review their subdivision codes of practice to support better urban design.
How it’s done:

Subdivision codes of practice have, in the past, presented a traditional form of subdivision development. A number of councils are reviewing, and developing new, subdivision codes of practice that incorporate urban design principles and requirements. These new codes of practice guide developers to ensure compliance with design rules and performance criteria in the district plan. When a proposal is submitted to the Council for subdivision consent, planning staff assess the application to ensure it complies with the district plan. Preferably, pre-application meetings are held to ensure the proposal complies with good urban design principles. Some of the new codes of practice have alternative approaches that allow for variation in the ways that compliance with district plan requirements can be achieved.

Examples


- Quality Planning. Subdivision Guidance Note: http://www.qualityplanning.org.nz/plan-topics/subdivision.php. Outlines how subdivision provisions are a useful method in controlling the environmental effects of land use, and provides an overview of how subdivision can be managed in the district plan.

- Selwyn District Council 2005. *Towards a High Standard of Urban Design in New Subdivisions*: http://www.selwyn.govt.nz/uds/urban-design/I&OConsultation.pdf (198 KB). This report considers the various issues surrounding the design of residential subdivision and discusses potential implementation mechanisms, one of which is the subdivision code of practice.

Technical Guidance Note

What it is:

A detailed design description of key elements, such as street furniture, kerbs, paving and planting. Used in streets, plazas, parks and waterways. It sets out the design, layout, technical specifications and maintenance of these elements.

What it’s useful for:

Wherever consistency and quality urban design details are required for a large urban area over an extended time. For example, the technical guide in Melbourne has been part of an ongoing implementation strategy since 1985.
How it's done:
Proven design solutions consistent with the overall strategy for the design of a place are documented to allow them to be repeated without need for redesign. Technical notes provide guidance for people responsible for implementing design, and are often used to describe types of street furniture and urban landscape detail.

Examples
• New South Wales Government 2004. Water Sensitive Urban Design Technical Guidelines: http://www.wsud.org/tech.htm. These technical guidelines have been developed for use by councils in Western Sydney and explain how best to incorporate and design water sensitive urban design measures into urban developments. They provide guidance to councils, planners, developers and builders through provision of best management practice design specifications.
• Roads and Traffic Authority (RTA), New South Wales 1999. Beyond the Pavement: RTA Urban and Regional Design Practice Notes: http://www.rta.nsw.gov.au/constructionmaintenance/downloads/urbandesign/urban_design_practice_notes_2004.pdf (31.1 MB). These practice notes have been developed to assist road and traffic authority managers who are responsible for the design, building and upgrading of road and transit-way projects at all scales.

Transport Energy Specification

What it is:
Transport energy specification (TES) combines urban GIS data with transport service supply information to produce an indication of the transport energy efficiency of any urban form, transport infrastructure or transport service supply.

What it’s useful for:
Assisting developers and local governments in the creation of low energy dependent urban/suburban areas and helping enhance transport efficiency for residents and businesses.

How it’s done:
A TES includes data on energy use (energy type and quantity), carbon dioxide emissions and population density and distribution. In overseas examples, an energy regulation/limit can be set for the area by local government with advice from transport and research professionals. Future urban/suburban developments, or areas to be redeveloped, are then measured with the TES to quantify the energy dependency of the specific area. The measured energy dependence is then compared with the regulation/limit. If the proposal meets the regulation, development can proceed; otherwise infrastructure or land-use changes are required to reduce the transport energy dependence of the proposal.
Reference


Examples


- Karlsruhe, Germany Trial: http://www.engsg.com/Documents/CaseStudy_Karlsruhe_Germany_Urban_Planning_Transport.pdf (602 KB). This German case study was used as an international benchmark for sustainable transport. Karlsruhe is well known for its sustainable transport system and high levels of walking and cycling.

- Sao Carlos, Brazil Trial (Land Use Modifications): http://www.engsg.com/Documents/CaseStudy_Karlsruhe_Germany_Urban_Planning_Transport.pdf (634 KB). This trial was performed in Brazil to test the applicability of the TES to a country that uses large amounts of bio-fuel. The trial was also an important step forward for the TES because it was the first trial to simulate land use and transport infrastructure changes.

Transport Strategy

What it is:

A transport strategy is a high-level document that sets out the long-term direction for transport in a particular area. Can also be known as an ‘integrated transport strategy’. Regional councils are required to prepare a regional land transport strategy under the Land Transport Act 1998. The strategy is a statutory document that guides development of a region’s transportation system. It covers the movement of people by mode, for example, public transport, car, road, walking and cycling, and freight by road, rail, air and sea as appropriate to an area.

What it’s useful for:

Useful for defining the direction for transport-related issues in a particular area. It can recognise the links between transport and land use and urban form and set objectives and policies to address these linkages. It is useful where a council wishes to promote sustainable modes of transport and support a compact urban form.

It is mandatory for regional councils to prepare a regional land transport strategy with direct linkages between the strategy and government funding for transport projects. However, larger urban councils and sub-regions may also find it useful to prepare a non-statutory strategy where there is a significant investment in roading and public transport and/or strong linkages with changes in urban form.
How it’s done:

The New Zealand Transport Agency (formerly Land Transport New Zealand) recommends a six-step process for the review of regional land transport strategies. This is a generic process that could be followed for preparing any such documents. The six steps are:

1. identify and analyse issues and problems
2. specify outcomes
3. develop an assessment framework
4. identify strategic options
5. define a preferred strategy
6. monitoring the outcomes.

Reference


Examples – National


Examples – Regional


Examples – City and district

Travel Plan

What it is:
A travel plan is a package of practical steps individuals can take to promote sustainable modes of transport. Travel plans can cover journeys to, from and around work (workplace travel plans), school (school travel plans) or around the community (community travel plans).

What it’s useful for:
Useful for organisations that want to reduce the number of vehicles they have on the road and/or number of vehicle kilometres travelled. Travel plans can help reduce the impacts of traffic congestion and air pollution and promote the health benefits of active forms of transport, such as walking and cycling.

How it’s done:
Travel plans are developed in five basic steps:
1. set up – gain commitment and appoint a travel plan coordinator
2. research – data collection and analysis of how people are currently travelling, including a site and policy audit
3. planning – deciding on actions and approving the final travel plan
4. implementation
5. continuous improvement – monitoring and evaluation of how travel patterns have changed as a result of implementing the travel plan.

References
• Department for Transport, United Kingdom: http://www.dft.gov.uk/pgr/sustainable/travelplans/work/. Contains various resources and research relating to workplace travel plans.
(382 KB). A brochure outlining Greater Wellington’s role in providing guidance and assistance and the steps involved for workplaces wanting to set up a travel plan.

- Hutt City Council, Sustainability Trust, Greater Wellington Regional Council and Ministry for the Environment 2007. Getting Around – Household travel behaviour change project report: http://www.gw.govt.nz/story_images/4360_WGN_DOCS443292v1_s8633.pdf (218 KB). Reports on a Hutt City-based community travel behaviour change project. The aim was to reduce vehicle kilometres travelled across a community by creating individualised travel plans. It has used a community group participation approach.


Examples – School travel plans


Examples – Workplace travel plans


Urban Design Action Plan

What it is:
Signatories to the New Zealand Urban Design Protocol develop a set of actions specific to their organisations. These are set out in the organisation’s action plan and are intended to give effect to the Protocol.

What it’s useful for:
Urban design action plans are essential for the ongoing implementation of the Protocol. Becoming a signatory shows an organisation’s commitment to continuous improvement of its urban areas. The actions in the organisation’s urban design action plan will, over time, change the way towns and cities are managed, and ensure that quality urban design is integrated into the activities of that organisation.

How it’s done:
Signatories to the New Zealand Urban Design Protocol (Protocol) select their chosen actions and report them to the Ministry for the Environment within three months of becoming a signatory. The choice of actions is at the discretion of the signatory organisation, however, the actions are expected to be challenging and ambitious. There is only one mandatory action – appointing an urban design champion. The Ministry for the Environment holds a list of all signatories’ protocol actions. See Urban Design Action Plan Review listed in the references below.

The Action Pack is a supporting publication of the Protocol and provides examples of actions an organisation might take to implement the Protocol. Ideas are provided for different types of organisations and different aspects of an organisation’s activities.

Signatories monitor and report on their action plans to the Ministry for the Environment. The first round of monitoring took place in 2006 and is summarised in the 2007 Action Plan Progress Report.

References
Examples


Urban Design Framework

What it is:
A document that describes an overarching vision, and the intended outcome for an entire urban area, and gives direction to direct subsequent policies and site-specific initiatives within that area.

What it’s useful for:
Used in areas undergoing change or where growth or change needs to be promoted. Provides a vision and flexibility to guide large complex projects that are implemented over time. Usually applied to large or complex sites by both the private and public sectors to set design, management and delivery parameters.

How it’s done:
Often produced with reference to an urban design strategy, it is a ‘higher-level’ document than either a masterplan, design guide or design brief. It is used to coordinate these detailed site-
specific initiatives and usually covers the means of implementation and governance (in the case of a public project) as well as setting general design direction. Because it can address economic and activity criteria, management and project delivery as well as design, it is sometimes called a ‘development brief’.

Examples – New Zealand


- *Sea+City* 2007: http://www.seacity.co.nz/design_concept.htm. Provides a broad design framework for a 25 hectare project area within the Wynyard Quarter on Auckland’s waterfront.


- Tauranga City Council 2008. *Arataki Central Implementation Plan*: http://content.tauranga.govt.nz/strategies/smartliving/framework/AratakiDec2007.pdf (5.21 MB) and *Greerton Village Implementation Plan*: http://content.tauranga.govt.nz/strategies/smartliving/framework/G1.pdf (324 KB). These documents, referred to by the Council as Node Implementation Plans, provide the planning framework, urban design approach, actions and reasons for the way in which these two areas could be redeveloped over time. They promote the city’s Smart Living Places vision and principles for residential intensification.


Examples – Overseas

Urban Design Strategy

What it is:
A written policy document that describes in words and images a vision for developing a neighbourhood, town, city or region.

What it’s useful for:
Used to direct the physical development of a neighbourhood, city, town or region where an overarching vision is required to direct and coordinate different design initiatives.

How it’s done:
The focus is on general configuration and design direction, design qualities or principles and their means of implementation. An urban design strategy is based on an appraisal of the physical context, is informed by community and stakeholder participation, and provides a long term and high-level comprehensive vision that is the basis for shaping policies and implementing design initiatives. An urban design strategy may apply at a range of levels: to an entire city or settlement; to a part (for example, a central area design strategy); or to one aspect (for example, a streetscape or lighting strategy) of either all, or part of, a town or city. An urban design strategy may be implemented through a range of mechanisms, including urban design frameworks for parts of a town, city or region, district plan policies and rules, design guides, and open space development projects and capital works through long term council community plans.

References
- SmartGrowth Toolkit, British Columbia. Growth Management Strategies: http://66.51.172.116/Portals/0/Downloads/J1_ToolKitPart_II.pdf (363 KB). Page 10 describes the purpose of these strategies, which is to make choices about where, and in what way, urban development should take place. They involve: setting goals for regional and community development; stating social, environmental and economic objectives; evaluating and selecting policies; taking actions; monitoring and reporting.
Examples


**Walking and Cycling Strategy**

What it is:

A strategy that aims to promote walking and cycling as alternative modes of transport. The two forms of transport may be dealt with together in one combined strategy or, less commonly, separately.

What it’s useful for:

For councils that want to promote both walking and cycling for shorter journeys and the public health, fitness and environmental benefits of active transport. A strategy is useful if a local authority wants to develop and maintain a safe, direct, convenient and pleasant walking and cycling network. Projects need to be mentioned in a walking and cycling strategy before they can be eligible for central government funding.
How it’s done:

Prepared by a council (regional, district or city) in conjunction with other interested parties, such as other local authorities, the New Zealand Transport Agency (formerly Land Transport New Zealand), local walking and cycling advocacy groups, the community, employers and other road user groups. Sets out a vision for walking and cycling in a particular area and, from that, develops objectives, policies and targets (or indicators). May include monitoring and review provisions. Often includes an implementation or action plan.

References


Example – National


Examples – Local


• WalkIT website. Provides links to New Zealand walking strategies and other policy documents: http://walkit.info/index.php?option=com_content&task=section&id=6&Itemid=38&PHPSESSID=bb52b3b7d4e0f471148e20f070d366ff. WalkIT is an online database of information resources for the promotion of walking in New Zealand.
Section 5: Implementation Tools

Establishing Processes and Organising People and Resources

Implementation tools offer different mechanisms for the delivery of quality urban design outcomes, and are used by a range of professionals to manage, motivate and organise urban design projects. While disparate, the implementation tools focus on the means of building quality urban design projects. Implementation can therefore be considered through all stages of an urban design project.

A number of the tools focus on discussing and resolving design issues before the construction of a project. Implementation tools can help clear roadblocks in the design process, provide collaborative management structures, and develop creative design solutions.

This section describes:
- Business Improvement District
  - Town improvement zone
  - Main street programme
- Design Advisory Group
- Design Assessment
- Design Competition
  - Open design competition/ideas competition
  - Limited design competition
  - Two-stage design competition
- Design Review
  - Urban design panel
- Incentive Zoning
  - Transferable development rights
- Life-cycle Cost Analysis
- Multi-architect Project Design
  - Multi-designer project team
- Pre-application Meeting
- Project Control Group
  - Project steering group
- Public–Private Partnership
  - Public investment
  - Financial incentives
- Regional Forum
- Seed Funding
  - Community projects fund
  - Gap funding
- Special Activity Area
  - Urban priority areas
  - Enterprise zone
- Town Centre Programme
  - Main street programme
- Urban Development Corporation
Business Improvement District

What it is:
A defined area in a city or town where a partnership between public and private interests plans and manages events, marketing and the public environment in order to enhance local business. A ‘business improvement district’ or BID can be used to collect a special differential rating that is applied to specific projects within the zone.

What it’s useful for:
Any town, city centre or main street that has private and public interests willing to support joint management and regeneration projects.

How it’s done:
Support must be gained from both the local government and private business owners to form the zone. If a differential rate is set, agreement must be gained as to what projects or actions the money is to fund. This is the US equivalent of the UK ‘town improvement zone’. A business improvement district can provide funding for a town centre programme and ‘main street programme’. The development of a precinct plan or streetscape plan sets the development policies and guidelines for a business improvement district.

References

- National Trust for Historic Preservation, United States. Main Street Programs: http://www.mainstreet.org/content.aspx?page=3564&section=15. Throughout the United States, communities are using main street programmes to revitalise their commercial districts. This website provides links to main street programmes in the United States.
Design Advisory Group

What it is:
A group made up of design experts and/or informed decision-makers, brought together to provide high-level design strategy advice and direction. This type of group generally provides strategy and policy advice, in contrast to an urban design panel that offers design assessment and project-based critique.

What it’s useful for:
Useful where inclusiveness, wide ownership, independent/neutral advice, and local and expert knowledge are required to direct and lend authority to advice on an important urban design issue.

How it’s done:
Members of a design advisory group are usually selected for their experience and authority as practitioners in their disciplines.

References/examples
- Urban Design Taskforce – The Community Planning Website, United Kingdom: http://www.communityplanning.net/methods/task_force.php. Outlines the role of an urban design taskforce and provides links to further information.
Design Assessment

What it is:
An assessment prepared by the designer on the rationale behind a design proposal for a project.

What it’s useful for:
Explaining how the project meets the design brief, design guides or other urban design criteria. Design assessment is essential in projects that involve a design review process. A design assessment is also helpful any time a project proposal is presented to an audience to help explain and clarify a particular design approach.

How it’s done:
The designer should write the assessment outlining how the design meets the design brief, guidelines or other criteria. When it is part of a resource consent application, a design assessment requires the designer to explain their design approach. This ensures the designer has considered all aspects of the design guidelines that may be evaluated under a design review.

Reference
- Scottish Executive Development Department. Planning Advice Note – Design Statements: [http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2003/08/18013/25389](http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2003/08/18013/25389). This Scottish publication explains what a design statement is, why it is a useful tool, when it is required, and how it should be prepared and presented.

Examples
Design Competition

What it is:
A process for selecting a design solution for a site or project where a variety of design proposals are submitted and judged according to a design brief provided by the competition organisers.

What it’s useful for:
Generating a number of creative design solutions from a wide range of designers. Often used as a way to select designers for large public-interest projects. Competitions can also be a useful means of community education and participation, depending on the type of competition.

How it’s done:
Entries are invited to respond to a competition brief that includes assessment criteria, and the process of evaluation. The evaluation is normally undertaken by an urban design panel. A robust, fair and open process is required so the competition avoids controversy and/or stagnation.

Typical variants are:
- An ‘open design competition’ – open to all members of various design professions and/or the community. It is usually used to generate ideas and stimulate interest, in which case it may be an ‘ideas competition’. Concepts are usually then incorporated into a brief for design development or the next stage of a multi-stage competition. Typically, entrants are not paid.
- A ‘limited design competition’ – open to a small number of participants, generally three to five people, who are invited on the basis of their creative ability and, in the situation where the competition winner will go on to deliver the project, their professional capability to deliver the entire project brief. Participants may be invited to compete in limited design competitions for public projects following review of credentials submitted in response to advertisements for registrations of interest. Typically, participants are paid a flat fee.
- A ‘two-stage design competition’ – has an initial ‘ideas’ stage to select a short-list of participants for a second stage that will produce a defined design proposal. Teams undertaking the second stage of such a project are usually required to have the capability both to design and deliver the final product. Participants are typically paid a flat fee if selected for the second stage.

References
Examples


- Housing New Zealand Design Competition. Housing New Zealanders 100 Years On: [http://www.hnzc.co.nz/hnzc/web/housing-improvements-&-development/property-improvement/design-competition.htm](http://www.hnzc.co.nz/hnzc/web/housing-improvements-&-development/property-improvement/design-competition.htm). This 2005 competition aimed to stimulate debate and encourage more designers and architects to be involved in designing social housing. Designs were invited that responded to New Zealand’s changing housing needs, greater cultural diversity, new building practices, materials and technologies. Entries were assessed by a panel of judges including national and international architectural and design experts.


Design Review

**What it is:**
A formal assessment of the merits of a project design proposal by an expert or an ‘urban design panel’ of experts.

**What it’s useful for:**
Used where there is a requirement to ensure implementation of high-quality design. Generally, design review is applied to types of development that are considered significant because of their potential effects on the public environment resulting from their size, frequency, intended activity, location, or a history of poor development. Private sector developers use design review where a high quality of design is required for buildings on individual lots in a subdivision, especially when there is a ‘covenant’ on the land. Design review is particularly effective when it is initiated early enough in a project to allow the developers and designers to modify their design approach easily.

**How it’s done:**
Design review should be guided by statutory or non-statutory design guides to ensure a consistency of approach by the developer and the surrounding community. Design review may be carried out by a single person who is skilled and experienced in design, with peer review, or by an ‘urban design panel’.

An urban design panel should comprise a range of independent and experienced design experts with the support of in-house design expertise. Panels usually give independent and professional advice on developments as part of a pre-application meeting process. Panels normally do not
have statutory decision-making powers, rather their recommendations may be included in a planning report on an application. Panels usually assess large or significant projects, or all projects within a specific area.

References/examples – Design review general


- Napier City Council. 2000. The Ahuriri area. Developers – West Quay Guide: http://www.ahuriri.co.nz/present-west-quay.asp. West Quay Design Team established, comprising expertise in planning, architecture, landscape architecture, art and engineering, together with experience in dealing with historical and cultural issues. The design team’s role was two-fold in assisting the Council with the streetscape design for West Quay and responding to resource consent applications with appropriate pre-consent advice to potential developers.


Examples – Urban design panels


Incentive Zoning

What it is:
A zoning mechanism that increases the permitted development rights for a particular site in exchange for the development providing a designated community benefit, for example, public open space, walkways, artwork or protection of a heritage building.

What it’s useful for:
In high-value development areas where there is a need for public facilities, but where these cannot be achieved without compensation to landowners and developers.

How it’s done:
Incentive zoning takes the form of increased development rights, usually measured as increased plot or floor area ratio, in exchange for a benefit, such as public plazas or access through a site, a high-quality public space on the site, or the retention and conservation of a place of historic or heritage value. Incentive zoning may also involve transfer of development rights between sites.

‘Transferable development rights’ are a form of incentive zoning where the developer can purchase the rights to an undeveloped piece of property in exchange for the right to increase the development proposal on their site.

In every incentive zoning situation, precise assessment criteria are required to ensure the public good delivered actually benefits the public.

Examples
Life-cycle Cost Analysis

What it is:

The calculation of expected future operating, maintenance and replacement costs of a development to help provide a realistic design and budget estimate. The analysis can be used to evaluate the cost of a full range of projects, from a complex site through to a specific building system component.

What it’s useful for:

Encouraging sustainable development and where a developer is required to take a long term interest in a project or initiative. Important in evaluating alternative design ideas at a conceptual stage of a project. Can be implemented at any level of the design process and is an effective tool for the evaluation of existing project upgrades.

How it’s done:

Life-cycle cost analysis considers both the initial cost of development and construction, and the cost of maintaining the development over its life. A standard process involves defining the scope of the project, detailing the cost model to be used, collecting historical data/cost relationships data, and defining a project schedule, developing a cost estimate, and analysing the results.

Examples

- GreenSave Calculator: http://www.greenroofs.org/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=626&Itemid=116. Lets you compare roofing alternatives (including green roof options) over a specific period to determine which has the lowest life-cycle cost. You can determine whether higher initial costs are justified by reducing future costs such as operating, maintenance, repair or replacement costs and/or producing additional benefits, such as energy savings. You can also see which roofs have lower initial costs but are expensive to maintain over time.
Multi-architect Project Design

What it is:
An approach to the design of large development projects where a number of architects or designers independently complete the design of separate buildings.

What it’s useful for:
Useful where visual diversity and ‘fine grain’ (small building footprints and blocks with a mixture of uses and an interconnected street network) are important, particularly on very large projects where the site comprises a number of independent buildings, lots or blocks that are to be developed separately.

How it’s done:
The design for each building is usually carried out in accordance with a design brief or masterplan, which ensures coordination between adjacent sites. Designers may be selected to design particular buildings within the overall development, for example, a library or retail complex, or to focus on particular types of buildings, for example, medium-density housing. The success of multi-architect project designs is often dependent on the quality and clarity of the design brief. The brief needs to provide enough guidance to ensure coherence within the development, and enough flexibility in its interpretation to ensure the result is sufficiently diverse and avoids negating the purpose of having more than one design team.

This process is distinct from ‘multi-designer project teams’ where a number of designers combine in a single team.

Reference

Pre-application Meeting

What it is:
A meeting held between the project designer and council officers to discuss design issues before developing initial design concepts or lodging a land use or subdivision resource consent application.

What it’s useful for:
Ensuring all major design issues have been identified and addressed before any resource consent application that will be subject to design review. Applicants and local authorities benefit from gaining a better understanding of the design issues before significant cost and time has been incurred by both parties. Local authorities benefit from receiving improved applications that have a higher degree of resolution of design issues before beginning the formal consent process.

How it’s done:
A meeting is organised between the applicant and the local authority at a stage in the design process where the majority of the design issues can be discussed. The local authority should provide the full range of professional advice at the meeting so all design issues can be canvassed with all officers present. This ensures all design issues are resolved together rather than in a piecemeal fashion with one design issue being resolved to the detriment of another. In addition, applicants need to be willing to change the design in response to constructive urban design comments.

References

Examples
Pre-application meetings have been successful in influencing the quality of proposed developments.

**Project Control Group**

**What it is:**
A group comprising representatives from all project participants, responsible for controlling and directing project delivery.

**What it’s useful for:**
A standard management technique used in both public and private sector projects. Project control groups provide direction to the designers, plan and monitor progress and make design decisions.

**How it’s done:**
A project control group includes client representatives, project management specialists, designers and cost management professionals. The group will meet regularly to plan, give direction and monitor progress. The type of project control group that focuses on overall direction, as opposed to the details of project delivery, is known as a ‘project steering group’.

**Public–Private Partnership**

**What it is:**
A formal collaboration between public and private sector interests to ensure delivery of a project where there is a clear public benefit or need for regeneration in an area.

**What it’s useful for:**
Producing a mutually beneficial result that neither the public or private sector could achieve alone.

**How it’s done:**
A public–private partnership may include assistance with funding, communication of information and advice, and coordinated management and planning. Main street programmes and town centre programmes are examples of public–private partnerships. ‘Public investment’ in this type of partnership may include purchase or development of strategic assets, or purchase of key sites to facilitate a specific type or scale of development. There may also be direct ‘financial incentives’ of grants, rates relief, waivers of development contributions and fees, land cost-write-downs, construction of project infrastructure, low-interest loans or loan guarantees.
Examples

- 4ps Local Government Project Delivery Specialist: http://www.4ps.gov.uk/. 4ps works in partnership with all local authorities in the United Kingdom to secure funding and enhance the development and implementation of public–private partnerships.

- Partnerships UK: http://www.partnershipsuk.org.uk. Supports and accelerates the delivery of infrastructure renewal, high-quality public services and efficient use of public assets through the public and private sectors. For example, the Partnerships for Health is a joint venture between the local Primary Care Trusts and a private sector partner, which is a new programme of investment in primary and community health care facilities.

- Partnerships UK Project Database: http://www.partnershipsuk.org.uk/projectsdatabase/projects-database.asp. Can be used to search for public–private partnership projects within the United Kingdom. It includes urban regeneration, transport, environmental and health services projects.

- Public-Private Partnerships for the Urban Environment (PPPUE): http://www.yale.edu/hixon/programs/ppue.html. This Yale/UNDP programme is a global, collaborative learning effort to collect, analyse and disseminate lessons learned on the use of public–private partnerships to improve the delivery of urban environmental services in developing countries.

- The Canadian Council for Public–Private Partnerships: http://www.pppcouncil.ca/index.asp. Fosters innovative forms of cooperation between the public sector and private sector. This website has links to project information within the transport, hospital and health care, and water and wastewater sectors.


Regional Forum

What it is:

A forum of local and central government and private sector decision-makers that is convened to coordinate planning and infrastructure initiatives across local authority boundaries.

What it’s useful for:

Assisting and informing common local initiatives (such as growth, regeneration, transportation and infrastructure strategies) that rely on a coordinated and consistent approach across a region to succeed. Regional forums can identify, resolve and coordinate growth strategies or regeneration strategies across a region.
How it’s done:
Involves setting up an informal or formal triennial agreement between local authorities in a region on how they will work together. This is normally done in the six months after a local authority election.

Examples

- Wellington Regional Strategy: http://www.wrs.govt.nz/about_us/. This strategy was developed by a committee from the nine local authorities and five representatives from the private and business sectors.
- Western Bay of Plenty. SmartGrowth Committees: http://www.smartgrowthbop.org.nz/smartgrowth-committees.htm. Five key groups are responsible for the implementation and management of the SmartGrowth Strategy. These include the implementation committee and the Strategic Partners Forum.

Seed Funding

What it is:
Funding made available to help start projects that are designed to benefit local communities or community groups.

What it’s useful for:
Used where there is community interest and public benefit in completing a project, but where the project is unlikely to proceed without some financial support to get it started.

How it’s done:
Seed funding is typically distributed as a grant following competitive application. Often directed at providing sufficient funding to make marginal public benefit projects viable, and to enable community groups to employ professionals to help start a project or to carry out specialist responsibilities. Grants from such a fund act as a catalyst to community groups or the private sector, that then commit their own resources to complete the project. Often administered as a ‘community projects fund’. It may also be known as ‘gap funding’.

Examples – Heritage funds


• Southland Regional Heritage Development Fund: http://www.icc.govt.nz/index.cfm?11382F48-ADCC-DE20-77F3-6B633BCD477E. Provides grants for projects and initiatives that preserve, communicate and promote Southland’s heritage and are of significance in a regional context.


Examples – General seed funding

• Christchurch City Council Small Projects Fund: http://www.ccc.govt.nz/Community/Funding/SmallProjectFund/. Provides small amounts of money for community-based groups.

• Funding Information Services (FIS): http://www.fis.org.nz/. This website provides access to a wide range of funding information. Includes ‘fundview’, which is a searchable database of funding sources for voluntary organisations. By subscription only.


• Ministry for the Environment. Sustainable Management Fund: http://www.mfe.govt.nz/withyou/funding/smf/index.html. Provides funding to support community groups, iwi, businesses and local government to take practical actions that produce long-term environmental benefits, and promote collaboration and community action.

• The Significant Community Based Projects Fund: http://www.dia.govt.nz/diawebsite.nsf/wpg_URL/Services-Community-Funding-Significant-Community-Based-Projects-Fund?OpenDocument. Now closed, this fund provided funding for projects that had significant community support but could not proceed without further money.
Special Activity Area

What it is:
A zone in, or part of, a town or city, selected on the basis of need and consistency with the wider strategic intentions of the town or city, where special public sector incentives or controls are established to encourage targeted activity types.

What it’s useful for:
Encouraging activity in areas that require private sector investment, development or regeneration. Particularly suitable for a special activity area of strategic benefit to the town or city. Can be worthwhile in areas that might not otherwise be developed in a way that is beneficial to the town or city. It may create a set of planning policies, regulations and approval criteria unique to that particular area to address a single, or series of, challenges that would otherwise remain unresolved. Special activity areas are used extensively in the United States to revitalise town centres, industrial brown field areas, and mass transit corridor nodes.

How it’s done:
Special activity areas are selected on the basis of need and consistency, with consideration given to the wider strategic intentions of a town or city. Incentives are specified to the area and may be financial in nature, or involve fast-track planning procedures that are tailored to promote the targeted special activity. A special activity area, designated for initiatives that target urban design, investment and development or regeneration, may also be known as a ‘urban priority area’. Where the primary focus is on fostering economic activity, an area may be known as an ‘enterprise zone’.

Town Centre Programme

What it is:
The planning and coordination by an authorised manager of a range of public and private initiatives that have impacts on a town or city centre.

What it’s useful for:
Any town or city centre that requires management and improvement for ongoing viability, and with a constituency that is willing to actively support this. Used to coordinate change and maximise the benefit of initiatives within a town or city centre.
How it’s done:

A town centre programme uses a four-point management approach that involves key stakeholders of the local authority or economic development agencies, businesses, building owners and local community. The four-point approach is based on: organisation and management; physical enhancement; economic development; and marketing and promotion.

A ‘main street programme’ is a similar management process, based on a traditional shopping street or small town centre. The process is instigated with a stakeholder board or committee, usually assisted and coordinated by a main street manager.

References/examples

- Association of Town Centre Management: http://www.atcm.org/. United Kingdom website with a network of interests and skills in town and city centres of over 10,000 leading businesses, government agencies and professions.
- Kapiti Coast District Council. Town Centres: http://www.kapiticoast.govt.nz/DistrictDevelopment/TownCentres/. Town centre redevelopment projects are currently underway in six areas on the Kapiti Coast.
- Ponsonby Road Promotions, Auckland City: http://www.ponsonby.org.nz/prp.asp. This main street programme aims to ensure Ponsonby remains competitive with other centres, and also plays an important role in the preservation and enhancement of historic buildings.
- Town Centres Association of New Zealand: http://www.towncentre.org.nz/. New Zealand’s national body that provides town and city centres throughout New Zealand with programmes and resource material.
- Waitakere City Council. Town Centre Strategic Partnership Programme: http://www.waitakere.govt.nz/AbtCit/cp/towncentres.asp. A partnership between Waitakere City Council and the community that aims to identify, reinforce and promote the identity of Waitakere’s town centres.

Urban Development Corporation

What it is:

A quasi-governmental authority established to develop designated areas within towns or cities.

What it’s useful for:

In situations where conflict of interest is likely if local or central government were to be directly responsible for development, and where significant funding and consolidating land ownership are required to revitalise an economically deprived area.
How it’s done:

Specific powers can be designated to facilitate the work of an urban development corporation. Powers given to an urban development corporation can include the acquisition of land by agreement or compulsory purchase, and the vesting of public land for development. Overseas corporations have also taken on planning and plan-making powers with the resources to provide new (or to refurbish existing) infrastructure.

Examples – Australia

- East Perth Redevelopment Authority: [http://www.epra.wa.gov.au/about](http://www.epra.wa.gov.au/about). An urban renewal authority in Western Australia, the role of which is to create cities that continue to flourish into the future based on good land-use principles, and attention to social, economic and environmental balance.

- Landcom: [http://www.landcom.com.au/default.aspx/](http://www.landcom.com.au/default.aspx/). Is a leader in innovative urban design and has developed residential, commercial and industrial properties for about 30 years in New South Wales, Australia. An example is Park Central, which is Campbelltown’s first masterplanned, medium-density estate, strategically located adjacent to a regional shopping centre.


- South Bank, Brisbane: [http://www.southbankcorporation.com.au/](http://www.southbankcorporation.com.au/). A 42 hectare, mixed use urban precinct and public space on the south bank of the Brisbane River. The area has evolved over 20 years, integrates with existing communities and is an iconic public space for Brisbane. It is based on sustainability principles.


- Sydney Harbour Foreshore Authority: [http://www.shfa.nsw.gov.au/](http://www.shfa.nsw.gov.au/). Is one of the biggest landholders in Sydney, Australia. It is responsible for Sydney’s most historically and culturally significant waterfront locations. For example, Ballast Point will be the largest green addition to Sydney’s harbour in a century. It will feature a range of open spaces and provide increased public access to and from the water.

- VicUrban: [http://www.vicurban.com/cs/Satellite?pagename=VicUrban](http://www.vicurban.com/cs/Satellite?pagename=VicUrban). Based in the State of Victoria, Australia, and is one of the land developers and facilitators of urban development in the state. It has an excellent track record in quality urban design, for example, the Melbourne docklands has attracted international interest for its modern architecture and design.

Examples – Rest of the world

- Catalyst Corby: [http://www.nndev.co.uk/](http://www.nndev.co.uk/). Is the urban regeneration company for Corby in Northamptonshire. Its aim is to “transform Corby into a vibrant, successful and sustainable community, providing homes, jobs and a good quality of life for a growing population”. Central projects include: creating high-quality public space, leisure and education facilities, town centre living, transformation of the shopping centre, creation of high-quality office accommodation.
Homes and Communities Agency: http://www.homesandcommunities.co.uk/. The Homes and Communities Agency role is to create opportunity for people to live in high quality, sustainable places. It provides funding for affordable housing, bring land back into productive use and improve quality of life by raising standards for the physical and social environment.


Feedback

The Urban Design Toolkit is a living, web-based resource and we encourage your comments on it. This includes feedback on additional references and examples, or debate on the tools themselves. Additional examples could be in the form of a new urban design case study, a link to an appropriate website, research or written publication. So please contact us by emailing: urban.design@mfe.govt.nz.

Please supply the following information if emailing:

Name:

Email address:

Comments:
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