

A NEW METHOD  
IN THE PROCESS OF  
CREATING URBAN FORM:  
URBAN CODING

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September, 1999



**A New Method in the Process of Creating Urban Form:  
Urban Coding**

**By**

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**İZMİR YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ ENSTİTÜSÜ  
REKTÖRLÜĞÜ  
Kütüphane ve Dokümantasyon Daire Bşk.**



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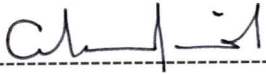


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## ABSTRACT

This study aims; to introduce the theoretical and pragmatic features of the 'New Urbanism' and the 'Urban Coding Method', which is known as the last planning approach in an historical framework; to show that most of this approach's design principles and the life style that it determines have something in common, and, convenient with the traditional Turkish values that we are about to lost; to prove that concerning local features, it would be adapted and take the place of 'conventional planning approach'.

In order to demonstrate it, a physical comparative design study was accomplished in a case study area, Karşıyaka Şemikler District, which is one of the most important and also problematic site within the Izmir Metropolitan Area. This study indicated that, New Urbanist principles can generate more desirable consequences as compared to conventional principles in the process of creating urban form provided that people approve to change their short sight and approve to be receptive.

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## Öz

Bu çalışma; en son planlama yaklaşımı olarak bilinen 'New Urbanism' ve 'Urban Coding' yönteminin kuramsal ve pragmatik özelliklerinin tarihsel çerçevede tanıtılması; yaklaşımın tasarım prensiplerinin ve belirlediği yaşam biçiminin kaybetmek üzere olduğumuz geleneksel Türk değerleriyle ortak yönlerinin olduğunun ortaya çıkarılması; yöntemin, yerel özellikler düşünülerek uyarlanabileceğinin ve günümüz planlama yaklaşımının yerini alabileceğinin gösterilmesini amaçlamaktadır.

Bunu ortaya çıkarmak için, İzmir Metropolitan alan sınırları içerisinde ki en önemli ve en problemlili sayılabilecek alanlardan biri olan Karşıyaka Şemikler Bölgesinde karşılaştırmalı bir fiziki tasarım çalışması yapılmıştır. Bu çalışma göstermiştir ki, insanlar dar görüşlülükten kurtulup yeniliklere açık olduğu sürece, bu yöntem, günümüz yöntemleriyle karşılaştırıldığında, kentsel formun elde edilme sürecinde daha arzu edilen sonuçlar ortaya koyabilecektir.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Methodology	4
Chapter 2. THE EMERGENCE OF MODERN TOWN PLANNING	6
2.1 The 19 <sup>th</sup> Century Reformists	6
2.2 The Garden City Movement	9
2.3 The Linear City	13
2.4 The Neighbourhood Unit and the American Experience	17
2.5 New Towns and Suburban Sprawl	20
Chapter 3. THE NEOTRADITIONALISM (New Urbanism)	26
3.1 Description of the New Urbanism	26
3.2 Design Principles of the New Urbanism in Regional Context	29
3.3 Design Principles of the New Urbanism in Community Context	31
3.3.1. The Neighbourhood	31
3.3.2. The District	38
3.3.3. The Corridor	39
3.4 Brief Summary of Principles and Problems of the New Urbanism	40
Chapter 4. URBAN CODING METHOD (TOD, TND and DPZ codes)	43
4.1 Transit Oriented Development (TOD)	44
4.2 Traditional Neighbourhood Development (TND)	47
4.2.1. Physical Conventions of IND	49
4.3 The Forming Elements of the Urban Coding Method	52
4.3.1. The Street	52
4.3.2. The Block	56
4.3.3. The Building	61
4.3.4. Coding	65
4.4 The DPZ (Duany and Plater – Zyberk) Codes	65
4.4.1. The Regulating Plan	67
4.4.2. The Urban Regulations	70
4.4.3. The Architectural Regulations	70

4.4.4. The Street Types -----	74
4.4.5. The Landscape Regulations -----	74
4.5 Prominent Samples Which Were Built Using Urban Coding	
Method-----	78
4.5.1. Seaside -----	78
4.5.2. Kentlands -----	82
4.5.3. Wellington-----	83
4.5.4. Playa Vista -----	85
4.5.5. Capital City Renaissance -----	89
4.5.6. Cité Internationale -----	92
Chapter 5. EVALUATION OF THE URBAN CODING METHOD AS A RECIPE FOR TODAY'S ILL DEVELOPMENT -----	98
5.1 Zoning Regulations -----	98
5.2 Drawbacks in the Realm of Creating Urban Form in Turkey-----	99
5.3 The Traditional Mahalle Concept-----	106
5.4 Positive Aspects of the New Urbanist Principles versus Conventional Planning Approach-----	112
Chapter 6. CASE STUDY -----	116
6.1 Location and Site Selection-----	116
6.2 Characteristics of the Case Study Area-----	117
6.2.1. Physical Properties of the Site -----	118
6.2.2. Social, Economic and Demographic Structure of the Site ----	118
6.2.3. Land Ownership -----	119
6.2.4. Existing Land-Use and Implementation Plan Land-Use -----	120
6.3 Problems and Potentials of the Site-----	122
6.4 The Goals, Strategies and the Design Process of the Site -----	124
Chapter 7. CONCLUSION -----	133
REFERENCES -----	136



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 : Victoria-----	7
Figure 2.2 : Bournville in 1898 -----	8
Figure 2.3 : The Garden City in a rural setting-----	9
Figure 2.4 : Howard's the Three Magnets-----	10
Figure 2.5 : Parker and Unwin's plan for Letchworth, 1907 -----	11
Figure 2.6 : Hampstead Garden Suburb Plan-----	12
Figure 2.7 : Plan of the Falkenberg Garden Suburb, 1913 -----	12
Figure 2.8 : Arturo Soria Y Mata's Linear City-----	13
Figure 2.9 : Le Corbusier's City of Tomorrow-----	14
Figure 2.10 : Le Corbusier's Ville Radieuse, 1933-----	15
Figure 2.11 : An Outline of Le Corbusier's Master Plan for Chandigarh-----	16
Figure 2.12 : The Radburn Plan, 1928 -----	18
Figure 2.13 : The Plan of the Radburn lanes and cul-de-sacs -----	19
Figure 2.14 : The Original Plan of Crawley New Town-----	21
Figure 2.15 : Diagram of the Community Structure at Runcorn-----	22
Figure 3.1 : Mission Bay-----	28
Figure 3.2 : The Aerial View of Davie, Florida-----	30
Figure 3.3 : Traditional Neighbourhood scheme-----	32
Figure 3.4 : Peter Calthorpe's proposed walkable mixed-use neighbourhoods -----	32
Figure 3.5 : Kentland's Town Centre and its surrounding-----	33
Figure 3.6 : Architect Duany and Plater-Zyberk's TND model-----	34
Figure 3.7 : A Full Range of Housing options are provided within the New Village, Florida -----	35
Figure 3.8 : In Kentlands the street grid is organised in to several neighbourhoods-----	36
Figure 3.9 : Conventional open gridiron-----	36
Figure 3.10 :A view of Playa Vista's public space and its buildings-----	37
Figure 3.11 : Centre square of New Village-----	38
Figure 3.12 : St. Louis Union district, USA-----	39
Figure 4.1 : Calthorpe Associate's TOD concept-----	44
Figure 4.2 : Schematic view of Transit-Oriented Development-----	45
Figure 4.3 : Detail plan for proposed Transit-Oriented Communities-----	46

Figure 4.21 : The Town of Wellington Regulating Plan -----	69
Figure 4.22 : The Town of Wellington Urban Regulations I-----	71
Figure 4.23 : The Town of Wellington Urban Regulations II-----	72
Figure 4.24 : The Town of Avalon Architectural Regulations -----	73
Figure 4.25 : The Town of Avalon Street Types -----	75
Figure 4.26: Nance Canyon Solar Standards-----	76
Figure 4.27 : The Town of Avalon Landscape Regulations -----	77
Figure 4.28 : The Seaside Plan ✓-----	78
Figure 4.29 : A view From Seaside -----	79
Figure 4.30 : Seaside Urban Codes-----	80
Figure 4.31 : Sections of Seaside’s Street Types -----	81
Figure 4.32 : The community plan of Kentlands include four neighbourhoods and a large retail centre-----	82
Figure 4.33 : The proposed Town of Wellington Plan -----	83
Figure 4.34 : The Master plan for Playa Vista -----	85
Figure 4.35 : Low-and mid-rise office building define the perimeter of blocks in the Playa Vista -----	86
Figure 4.36 : Regional open-space areas of Playa Vista include 260 acts -----	87
Figure 4.37 : The grid pattern of local streets and blocks plays a key role in shaping Playa Vista’s urban character -----	87
Figure 4.38 : Playa Vista’s marina district combines public boath berthing facilities with residential, hotel and commercial uses -----	88
Figure 4.39 : The Capital City Renaissance Plan-----	89
Figure 4.40 : A drawing of the existing and reestablishment of the street network of the Capital City Renaissance-----	90
Figure 4.41 : The Capital City Renaissance Urban Codes-----	91
Figure 4.42 : The proposed master plan of Cité Internationale -----	92
Figure 4.43 : The Cité Internationale plan incorporates adjacent streets, squares and landmarks into a larger network of civic spaces-----	93
Figure 4.44 : Axonometric view of Cité Internationale -----	94
Figure 4.45 : The Section of Place Montreal-----	95
Figure 4.46 : Design Strategies of the Cité Internationale-----	96
Figure 4.47 : The Cité Internationale Detailed Preferred Development Example -----	97



Figure 5.1 : The townhouse of the Western Countries -----	102
Figure 5.2 : The 3m.side-yard setback for 2 storeys houses -----	103
Figure 5.3 : The 3m.side-yard setback was the gift of German city planners -----	104
Figure 5.4 : Mushroom Villas in the Bosphorous. Istanbul -----	105
Figure 5.5 : Mahalles around the Kulliyes in Bursa-----	107
Figure 5.6 : The Centre of the Kemer Country Project -----	110
Figure 5.7 : The Site Plan of Istanbul Kemer Country-----	111
Figure 5.7 : The Location of the Case Study Area -----	116
Figure 6. 2 : Alber Bodmer Implementation Plan for Şemikler District -----	117
Figure 6. 3 : Regulating Plan of Şemikler Yalı District -----	125
Figure 6. 4 : Urban Regulations of Şemikler Yalı District -----	127
Figure 6. 5 : Architectural Regulations of Şemikler Yalı District -----	128
Figure 6. 6 : Landscape Regulations of Şemikler Yalı District -----	129
Figure 6. 7 : Street Regulations of Şemikler Yalı District -----	131
Figure 6. 8 : The Design Process of the Case Study Area-----	132

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 6.1 : Land Ownership Distribution in the Case Study Area -----	120
Table 6.2 : Existing Land Use of the Case Study Area-----	121
Table 6.3 : Implementation Plan Land Use-----	122



## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

In developed countries, the period shortly after 1950 marked something of a watershed in people's life as numerous people became suburbanites for the first time in history. Statistically, "between 1950 and 1955, for instance, the proportion of suburban development in the United States pushed past fifty five percent, continuing to rise to about sixty - five percent by the last census count in 1980" (Duany and Zyberk 1992 p:7).

Transportation, particularly high - speed interregional highways, opened up the countryside for metropolitan development, continuing the dispersal of urban functions. The consequence of this growth and development has been a wholesale transformation of metropolitan life of countries, in which traditional concepts of community, civic place and neighbourhood have been severely threatened. In the history of town planning, there have been various significant attempts which had tried to reach the concepts of community, civic place and neighbourhood. However, modern metropolitan development endangered all those successful attributes.

On the other hand, in the 1990, the world's urban population stood at 2,4 billion. In 2025, it is expected to reach 5,5 billion, a trend accelerating in developing countries. Not surprisingly, except Tokyo and New York the biggest metropolises all over the world are located in developing countries. This excessive growth and development in developing countries has yielded some undesirable conditions for urban dwellers such as: rising land values, overcrowding, unhealthy and insufficient living environments, lack of urban facilities and amenities, traffic congestion.

Thus, for a few decades, though there have been some policies which have tried to prevent this kind of a development, decentralisation policies and the rural - versus - urban development model have been launched by the governments. However, most of them have not been worked successfully as people wanted to go where the jobs are and jobs are seen to exist in cities.

Segregated, isolated, automobile oriented places have been served people as living environments. But, now, people sense that something is wrong with the places where they live, work and go about their daily lives. We hear this unhappiness expressed

in phrase like 'no sense of place' and 'the loss of community'. Our predicament is this: we admire one kind of place but we consistently built something very different (Kunstler 1996).

Conventional planning tools contributed to segmented, decentralised growth while making it impossible to incorporate urban qualities which we associate with our traditional towns. Almost none of the conventional planning tools permit or deals with the concepts of the concentration of uses, the multiplicity of scales, the redundancy of streets, and the hierarchical fabric of public spaces which characterise the towns of our memory.

Despite these fundamental changes, little serious attention has been paid to the contemporary suburban - metropolitan phenomenon within either the design professions or the academic setting of design schools. Another point is that, as we nearly come to the end of the century in which suburban and ex-urban life became an important experience for most people, designers have little new to offer and a greatly reduced role in the process of settlement - making. On the one hand, "planners seem mired in the bureaucratic realm of policy formulation and resource management. On the other hand, architects are consumed with detail and image; aesthetic guidelines, for example, or worse, motifs for simulating various architectural periods. Consequently, we continue to build - and live in - vast tracts of undifferentiated development that form neither neighbourhoods, towns or cities" (Duany and Zyberk 1992 p:9).

In 1970s, as a reaction to many ills of these current sprawl development, a new approach, "Neotraditional Planning" which is also known as "the New Urbanism" or "Traditional Neighbourhood Development" emerged as the latest urban planning fad. Generally, New Urbanists are seeking to redefine the nature of the metropolises by reintroducing the traditional notions of neighbourhood design and fitting those ideas into a variety of urban and suburban setting (Fulton 1996). The most significant proponents of the movement were Andres Duany, Elisabeth Plater - Zyberk and Peter Calthorpe. Fortunately, their works are noticeable exceptions to our development pattern. In an urban and suburban world whose characteristics had been diminished by the both 'theories of Modernism' and the 'dull bureaucrats who created the planning ordinances', Duany and Zyberk learned how to reverse the destructive theory by rewriting that



insufficient codes. This was certainly the key. Duany and Zyberk perceived that the codes were the answer (Scully 1988).

Although labelled neotraditionalists as they were inspired by the ancient planning principles and describe classical images of town design, they have actually been peering into the future. "Their mission is to alert us to the results of pursuing this future by emphasising the cost at which conveniences such as easy mobility and a preference for privacy over sociability have been purchased" (Krieger 1992 p:10).

There is no shortage of criticism about the modern development pattern. Alternatives, however, are in short supply. Needless to say no single method, approach or ideology should dominate as a paradigm for today's design and planning strategies. Instead, as Elisabeth A.T. Smith cited in her essay, "lessons can be learned from considering a wide variety of ideas and solutions brought to bear on the particulars of specific sites and problems in terms of both the degree of innovation and the appropriateness that they manifest" (Smith 1996 p:4).

Towards this end, Duany and Plater - Zyberk have pursued a threefold mission. 1) They advocate designing suburban subdivisions in the manner of towns. 2) They challenge conventional planning and write 'codes' that favour traditional patterns of placemaking. 3) They work directly with those who produce the modern suburban development pattern, the real estate developers, with the aim of persuading them of alternatives (Krieger 1992).

Although it has been served as a certain remedy, the New Urbanism is only one alternative to the creating of both urban and suburban form. It will probably function most successfully in a broader planning context. At the same time, the power of the New Urbanism as an idea should be appreciated. Perhaps, one of the most important aspect of the movement is that it promotes a positive image of "town life" which includes the public as well as the private realm. In our world where "a lack of community" is often blamed for many social ills, this is not a small achievement.

On the other hand, in today's changing world there are numerous methods, approaches or efforts most of which we are unaware. The concepts of 'creating urban form' or 'urbanisation' are occurred as coincidental phenomenon in our country. Instead of paying more attention and trying to assimilate our own culture's essence features

sensitively, we have done something wrong by imposing prohibitionist bureaucratic approach to our cities.

The strong similarities and the compatibility of the context, design principles and notions of the New Urbanist approach with our traditional values and life styles made the New Urbanism is the subject of this study. The intention in the study is not to replicate a newly established method, instead, to display similarities of certain design criteria of the approach related with our own culture which we have lost for years. In order to show that this new method is more convenient in the process of creating urban form for our country, a comparative case study between our classical planning approach and the New Urbanist approach is done in Izmir, Karsiyaka, Yali district.

As the movement has its roots in the 1970s, very little information on New Urbanism and the Urban Coding Method and its practices has been available until just recently. A trickle of publications began to appear, starting with Doug Kelbaugh's academic *Pedestrian Pocket Book: A New Design Strategy* (New York: Princeton Architectural Press, 1989). In addition, Except Kemer country in Istanbul and some student works tried in Samsun, there is not any practical and theoretical knowledge about the New Urbanism in our country. Therefore, this type of a study is not as straightforward as it seems. It was sometimes very difficult to acquire pertaining knowledge about the subject as the New Urbanism is the newly introduced, or may be the last planning fad.

## 1.1. Methodology

The theoretical framework of this dissertation was tried to include detailed literature survey about the history of modern town planning, definitions and descriptions of newly introduced concepts of 'the New Urbanism' and 'Urban Coding Method', and scrutiny of prominent implementations throughout the world.

After the literature survey, in the first phase of the study, the theoretical background of the New Urbanist approach, initiating from the 19<sup>th</sup> century was tried to explain so as to understand different systems, and approaches in the realm of creating urban form.

In the second phase, comprehensive descriptions and definitions of newly introduced concepts such as: the New Urbanism, Urban Coding Method, Transit Oriented Development etc., their principles, contexts and notions were tried to described.

After those descriptions and definitions, evaluation of the New Urbanist approach as a recipe for today's ill development pattern was made displaying deficiency of current development pattern by means of comparing current planning tendencies with the New Urbanist principles.

Finally, in order to improve that Urban Coding Method would be adapted and replaced successfully for our classical planning pattern, a physical comparative design was accomplished as a case study in Izmir, Karsiyaka, Yali district where is one of the most important sites within the confines of Izmir Metropolitan region because of its location, surrounding enterprises, built environment around the site and transportation opportunities.



## Chapter 2

### THE EMERGENCE OF MODERN TOWN PLANNING

From earliest times, man has striven to reach a perfect physical environment. The Egyptians expressed themselves monumentally; the Greeks created a varied dynamic urban style which the Romans standardised in their functional manner. The Middleage achieved an harmonious urban form, the Renaissance contributed unrivalled beauty of magnificence, the Baroque made a great effort to attain a planned achievement as opposed to the ideal plan and the age of Enlightenment gained a conscience as well as a concept (Ratcliffe 1991).

The emergence of Modern Town Planning has its roots particularly in 19<sup>th</sup> century philanthropic ideas. Thus, it would be beneficial to examine the process initiating from the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

#### 2.1. The 19<sup>th</sup> Century Reformists

The 19<sup>th</sup> century witnessed the climax of industrial revolution and consequently the worst of its oddity. The process of urbanisation had become uncontrollable phenomenon as the rural poor had been flooding towns in search of employment. The growth of both population and towns during the 19<sup>th</sup> century reached dramatically an alarming rate. For example, between 1801 and 1901 the population of England grew from 8,9 million to 32,5 million. (Bell 1969).

The resultant conditions of this process were appalling. People had to live in filthy, insanitary, verminous and overcrowded living environments. On the other hand, "this despoliation of the town and exploitation of the industrial labour force did not go entirely unheeded. The century was distinguished by a number urban socialists" (Ratcliffe 1991 p:36). Utopians; Fourier, Owen, Cabet, Cadbury and others "thought of remedies they believed that the present irrational forms of settlements would have to be replaced by the other completely different ones" (Benevole 1989 p:148). They had all in common an impulse to treat social ills with large doses of lights, air and greenery (Cohen 1995).

The utopian movements of the 19<sup>th</sup> century were a moral reaction to the bad effects of the industrialisation. These reformers concentrated on the development of

separate new communities outside urban areas, and there emerged a succession of plans based on a variety of political, social and philosophical ideas.

Perhaps, one of the most foremost of these reformists was Robert Owen (1771-1858) who first proposed the creation of agricultural villages of between 800-1200 people catering for all social, educational and employment needs of the community (Morris 1979). Owen's influence can be seen especially in the writings of James Silk Buckingham (1786-1855), who proposed a specially planned development, socially integrated community which he called 'Victoria' (Figure 2.1) in deference to the Queen. This scheme contained strong moral and religious impacts and it was never carried out (Aldridge 1979).

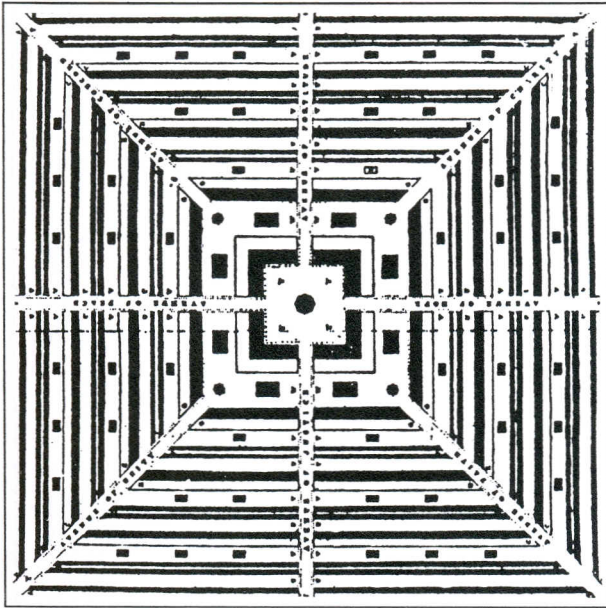


Figure 2.1. : Victoria (Source: Ratcliffe 1991).

The concept of attempting to improve the working - class environments continued to flourish throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In 1853, Sir Titus Salt in Britain moved his factory and workers away from the grimy and congestion conditions of 'Bradford' to a green field side outside the town where he constructed what was considered to be a model of industrial community (Ratcliffe1991).

In 1879, George Cadbury, faced with the need to provide new area for expansion, built the more suburban town of 'Bournville' (Figure 2.2 ) outside

Birmingham which was open to all workers irrespective of their place of employment (Ractliffe 1991).

All these efforts were not only simple industrial housing schemes, they were also planned and organised alternative societies. Their effects on modern town planning cannot be underestimated.

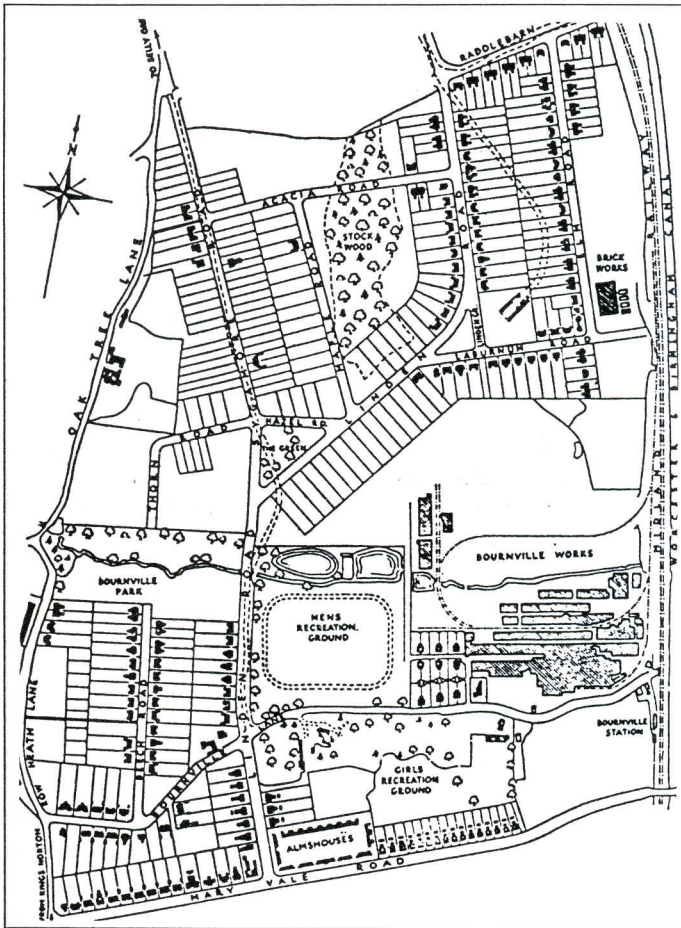


Figure 2.2. : Bournville in 1898 (Source: Bell 1969).

By far the most influential of these proposals was Ebenezer Howard's Garden City philosophy which will be mentioned in the following part.





the attraction of three magnets - the city-country - for modern society, Howard imagined it to be composed (like a complex biological cell) of many discrete settlements occupying a regional garden. Its ambition was to dissect swollen industrial city into many self-sufficient, spatially identifiable, railroad-linked, finite, communally-owned, cooperatively administered towns (Krieger 1992).

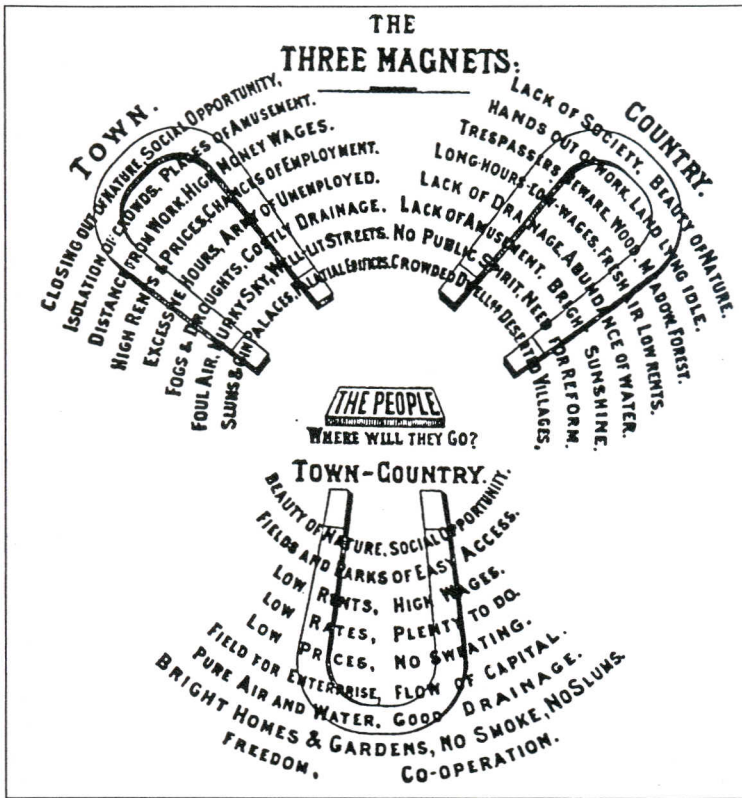


Figure 2.4 : Howard’s “The Three Magnets”. (Source: Ractliffe 1991).

Ebenezer Howard’s idea provided the theoretical framework of social integration with the physical well-being of society. As a social reformer, Howard advocated a new economic and social order, a new society : “Town and country must be married, and out of this joyous union will spring a new hope, a new life, a new civilisation” (Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996 p:44).

His ideas became a starting point for various architects and planners of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Unwin and Parker in England, Stein and Wright in the United States, Stubben and Goecke in Germany became the forerunners of the Garden City manifesto. (Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996 ). And the first Garden City was designed in



'Letchworth' by the architects Unwin and Parker in 1904 (Figure 2.5 ). In 1906 Unwin and Parker designed 'Hampstead Garden Suburb' (Figure 2.6) emphasising the integration of different classes by providing many different unit types and sizes.

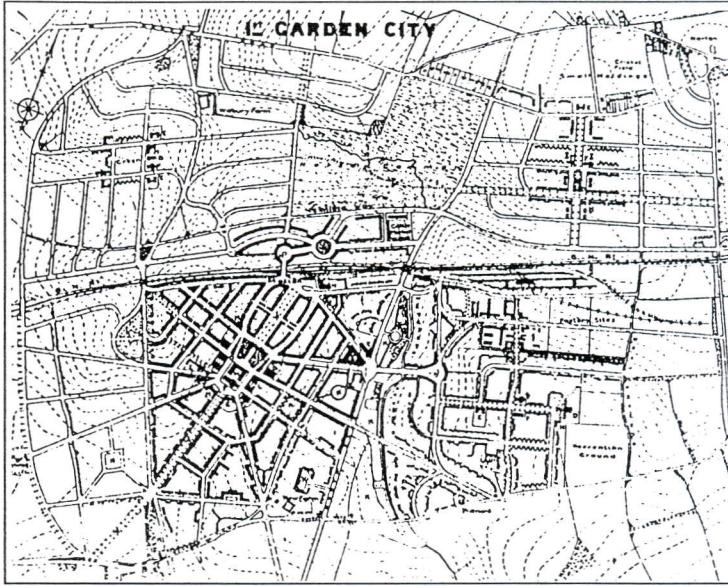


Figure 2.5 : Parker and Unwin's plan for Letchworth, 1907 (Source: Velibeyoglu, 1998).

Letchworth and Hampstead are regarded as the prominent examples in which Howard's ideas were successfully accomplished. They are the cornerstones of planning history as both of them include directional notions for many approaches for years. The design of Hampstead and Letchworth are considered major prototypes for residential planning.

On the other hand, in the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the most important new ideologies concerning the urban environment in Germany was the Garden City Movement or 'Quasi Romantics'. Quasi Romantics, for example Goecke, Behrendt and Jansen, dealt with open green space, healthy living environments and many aspects of urban planning such as: land-use plans, building at different heights. According to their convictions all these concepts would be combined with some romantic ideas of the past (Hass-Klau 1990).

The first German garden city was built in 'Hellerau, Dresden in 1909. Another garden suburb, 'Falkenberg' designed by Bruno Taut in Berlin in 1913 (Figure 2.7).



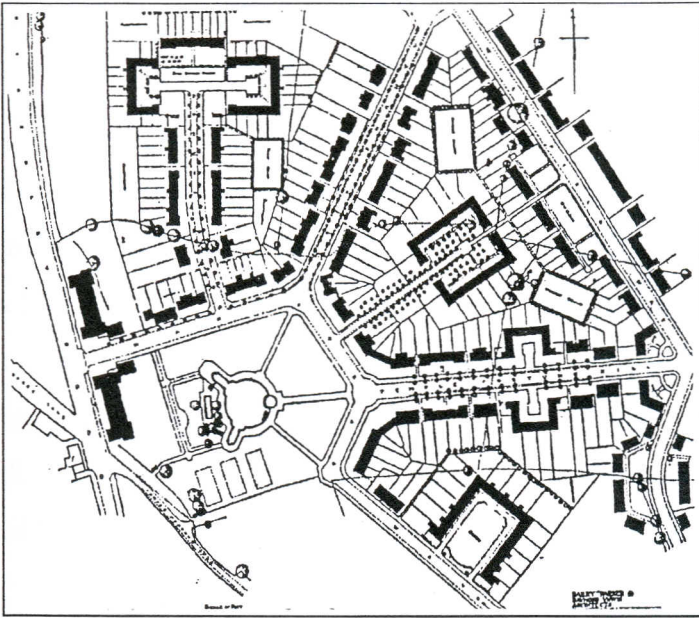


Figure : 2.6 Hampstead Garden Suburb plan (Source: Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996).

As in Britain, in Germany, new designs were developed by the supporters of the Garden City society and the Quasi Romantics. Both in Germany and England the first decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century were the most creative period in terms of residential design.

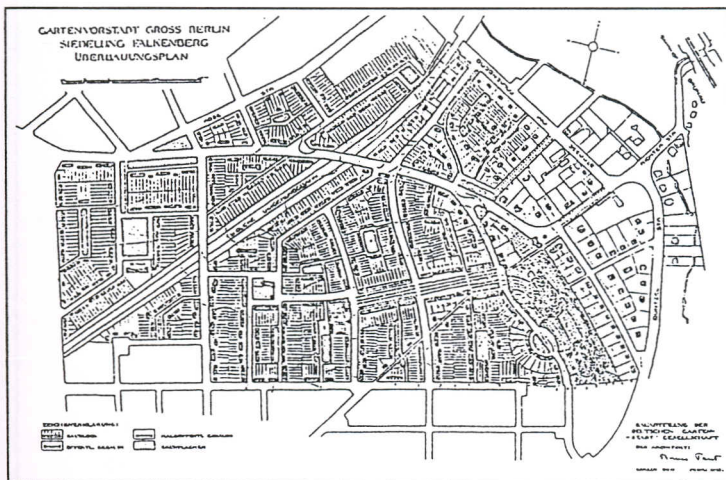


Figure: 2.7 Plan of the Falkenberg Garden Suburb, Berlin, 1913. (Source: Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996)

### 2.3. The Linear City

In the late 18<sup>th</sup> century, James Craig propounded the proposal for a linear new town inspiring from the medieval linear village with development on either side of a single road. Craig's proposal found expression in the highway engineer Arturo Soria Y Mata's linear suburb, 'Ciudad Lineal' which was put forward in 1882 around Madrid (Figure 2.8). This was based on the idea of open ordered linear growth on a new active interrelationships between settlement and nature (Ractliffe 1991, Moughtin 1996). According to Arturo Soria Y Mata "the medieval idea of walled city ought to be replaced by the idea of open and rural city" (Norberg-Shulz 1993 p:170).

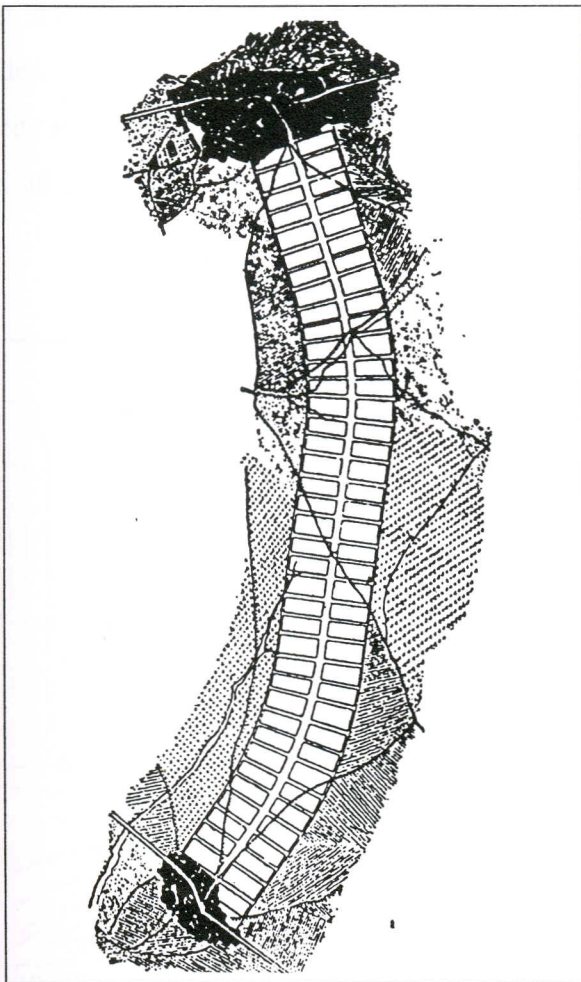


Figure 2.8 : Arturo Soria Y Mata's Linear City, Madrid (Source: Ractliffe 1991).

He proposed a town for 30,000 people based on the principal transport route with a 500 metres wide and infinite length main street. All services would be channelled along the street and other facilities would be grouped at regular intervals. The residential area would be limited to 200 metres either side. Soria y Mata designed these urban chains linking existing cities with a cobweb of development (Ractliffe 1991).

Shortly after this, in 1901, Tony Garnier, a French architect published plans for his Industrial City which possessed a definite centre with a linear structure and placing great emphasis on zoning and separation of urban functions (Kostof 1990).

In 1922, Le Corbusier proposed the 'City of Tomorrow' (Figure 2.9) based on a linear system, trying to ease congestion by the use of skyscrapers and elevated roads. In his City of Tomorrow, designed for 3 million people, there would be subways for servicing, a co-ordinated transport system, a high rise business and entertainment centre surrounded by five - to seven-storey residential blocks, and then detached dormitory garden city suburbs. In many ways, this project was the polar opposite of Unwin's ideal town as all traditional concepts were rejected by Corbusier (Ractliffe 1991, Kostof 1992).

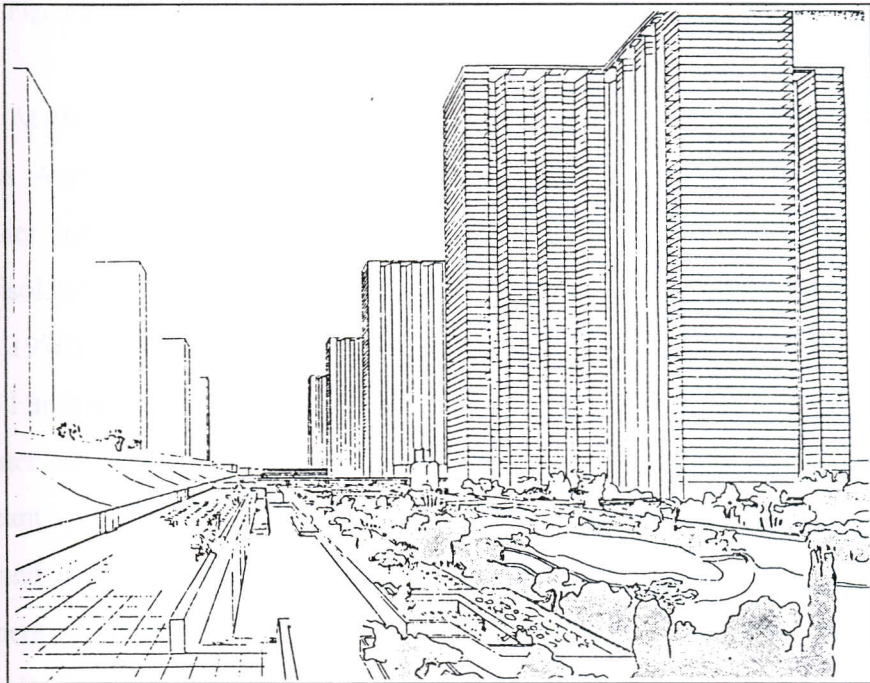


Figure 2.9 : Le Corbusier's City of Tomorrow for 3 million inhabitants (Source: Trancik 1996).



'La Ville Radieuse' which was also designed based on the linear system by Le Corbusier published in 1933. (Figure 2.10) There would be extremely high densities with skyscrapers on the periphery of the city as well as in the centre, and, it was designed for 1,5 million people (Moughtin 1992).



Figure 2.10 : Le Corbusier's Ville Radieuse, 1933 (Source: Trancik 1986).

At the same year, in the third congress of CIAM (International Congress for Modern Architecture), the garden city and suburban ideal were rejected by both Corbusier and CIAM members. They dictated that garden city had contributed to the sterile isolation of individual and demolition of the collective will (Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996).

Fundamental alterations in the realm of urban pattern had been done by Le Corbusier who was one of the creators of functionalist design program. There were three significant principles behind Corbusier's influence on modern urban space: "First, the linear and nodal buildings as a large scale element; second, the vertical separation of movement systems and the third was the opening up of urban space to allow for free-flowing landscape, sun and light" (Trancik 1986 p: 27).

In addition to these example, Le Corbusier's 'Chandigarh' plan designed in 1950's is another plan that reflects more the 'linear city concept' (Figure 2.11).

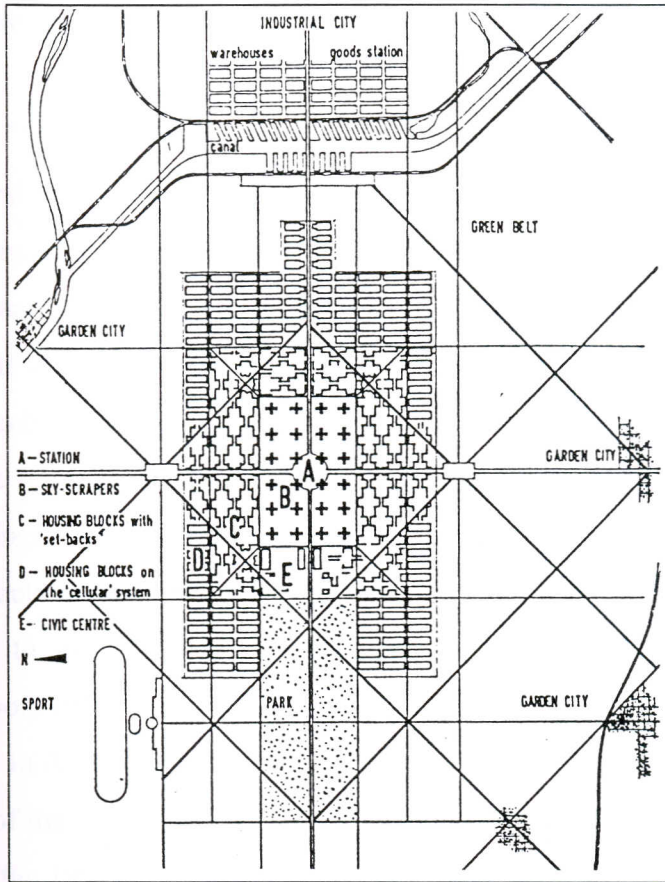


Figure 2.11 : An outline of Le Corbusier's master plan for Chandigarh (Source: Gibberd 1970)

Supporters of the 'linear city concept' advocates its advantages as:

- a) "a simple economical form of traffic segregation
- b) a pattern of movement and location comprehensible to the average citizen
- c) the town centres grows in proportion to the demands of residential and industrial expansion
- d) subsequent possibility of expansion to absorb a larger population" (Hillman 1965 p:49).

On the other hand, the defects of the linear city concept are apparent, for example;

- a) accessibility to the central area is impaired
- b) separation of arterial and local traffic is difficult to achieve
- c) services should be provided to longer distances and thus, they become more expensive.



## 2.4. The Neighbourhood Unit and the American Experience

The social revolution of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the physical repercussions on urban form and the reaction of reformers contributed to the creation of model communities to accommodate the working class. Some of these efforts were dispersal the city to satellite towns and others were establishment of urban villages. A common theme in all those attempts was to formulate standards for residential areas and for town design. That was the search for the ideal size of population which relates to both the provision of services and the retention of identity. Robert Owen considered 800 to 1200 people, James Silk Buckingham thought 10,000, in France, Fourier designed 'Phalansteries' for about 1800 inhabitants and Ebenezer Howard divided his garden cities into units of 5000 people, aiming to provide social services, integration of classes and a sense of community (Benevole 1989).

In America, two architects, Henry Wright and Clarence Stein, having studied the work of the English garden city movement, developed the idea of 'neighbourhood unit' (Ractliffe 1991). A group of planners and architect set up the 'Regional Planning Association of America' (RPPA) in 1923. The founders of this association were Lewis Mumford, Clarence Stein, Henry Wright, Catherine Baure and Alexander Bing. The RPPA believed in the garden city concept and, in a regional context, the principles of garden city were regarded as the main settlement forms of America (Hass-Klau 1990). The RPPA was strongly anti-urban development versus gigantic metropolises. Metropolises, as Stein suggested had failed in the most important planning issues of human society such as housing, recreation, street system etc. And it would be said that the ideology of the RPPA had similar motives with the Unwin's decentralisation idea (Velibeyoglu from Southworth and Joseph 1996). One of the first practical achievement of the RPPA was the establishment of 'City Housing Corporation' in 1924. In addition, the opportunity to taste the garden city model came with the establishment of this corporation (Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996). Their first attempt was at Sunnyside, New York. Clarence Stein was particularly impressed by Raymond Unwine and Barry Parker's low density cul-de-sac layout, and in 1928 he prepared the plan for the ill-fated town of 'Radburn' (Figure 2.12).



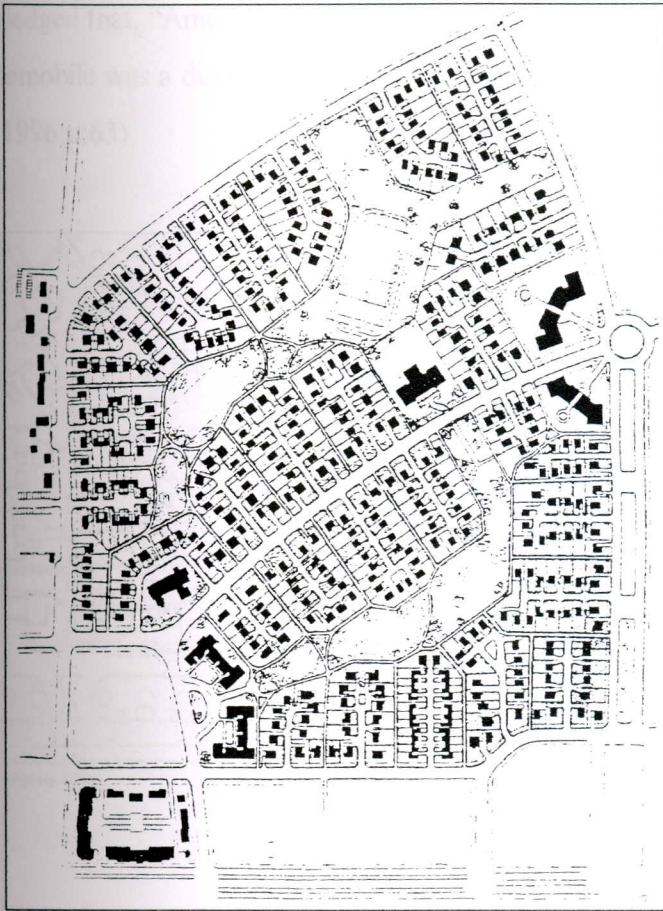


Figure 2.12 : Radburn plan, 1928. (Source: Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996).

Superblocks with green garden core had been used by Unwin and Parker in Letchworth and Hampstead. The cul-de-sac was another adaptation from Hampstead garden suburb (Figure 2.13).

The projected population of Radburn was to be 25.000 and it was divided into 3 neighbourhoods of around 8.000 each. Its prime objectives were;

- a) to take the garden city concept and adapt it to the requirements of the motor age,
- b) segregating the pedestrian from the vehicle by means of footpaths, underpasses and bridges, providing rear access for cars and grouping residential blocks around a continuous park-land (Ractliffe 1991).

Although the English garden city model was the inspiration for their design, Stein and Wright realised their project had to respond to American living conditions and the growing use of automobile (Ractliffe 1991, Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996). Stein

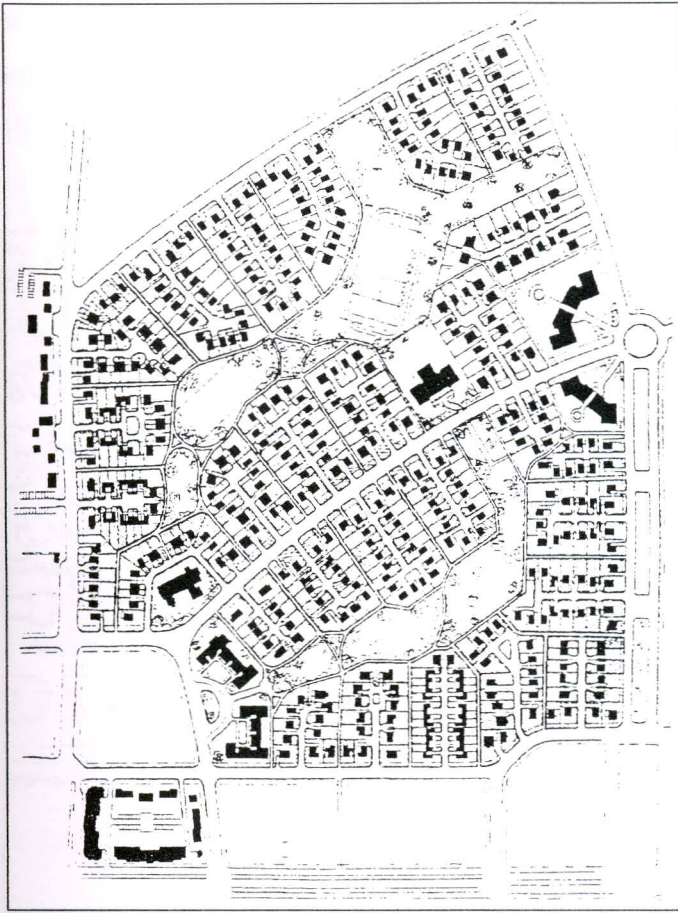


Figure 2.12 : Radburn plan, 1928. (Source: Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996).

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acknowledged that, “American cities were certainly not places of security in the twenties. The automobile was a disturbing menace to city life in the U.S.A” (Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996 p:63).

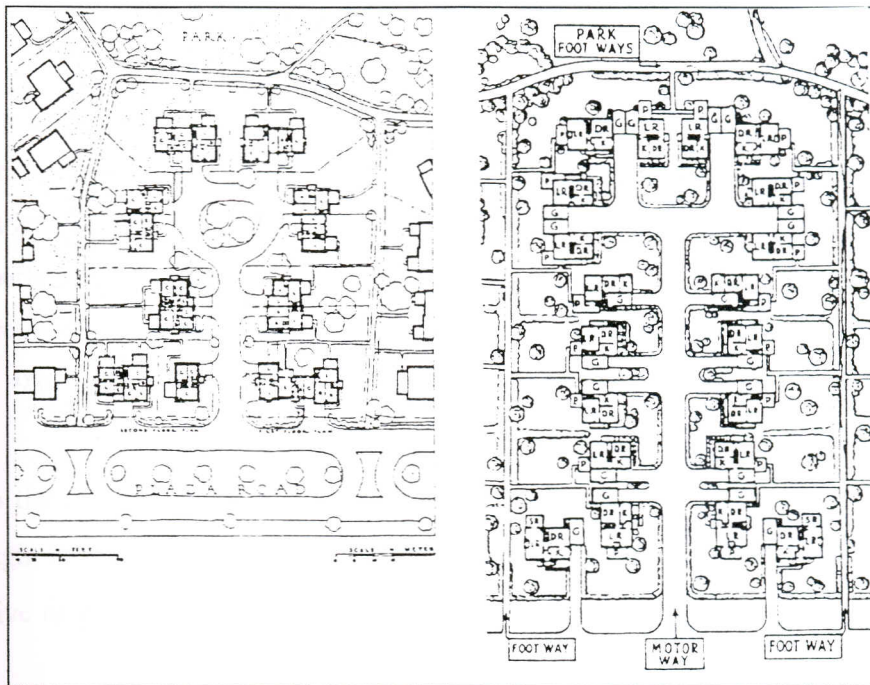


Figure 2. 13: The plan of the Radburn lanes and cul-de-sacs (Source: Southworth and Ben Joseph 1996).

Wright and Stein considered their design to be universally applicable but their experiment was criticised on the grounds that;

- a) having developed too close to existing built-up areas they had extended suburbia,
- b) worsened commuting problems, ignored entertainment requirements of young people,
- c) neglected to provide local employment opportunities (Ractliffe 1991).

Many of the ideas incorporated in the Radburn plan were put forward in 1910 by C. Perry's publication "*The Wider Use of the School Plant*". It was he who first coined the term 'neighbourhood unit'. (Ractliffe 1991). Perry described Radburn plan as 'a scheme of arrangement for the family life community', he saw the neighbourhood units as ensuring that all residents were "within convenient access to an elementary school, adequate common play spaces and retail shopping facilities" (Perry 1939 p:28).



Perry, in his book, laid down 6 principles on which the design of neighbourhoods should be based:

- 1) "The size should be related to the catchment area of an elementary school.
  - 2) The residential area should be bounded on all sides by arterial streets; there should be no through traffic.
  - 3) There should be plentiful provision of small parks and play areas.
  - 4) There should be a central point to the neighbourhood containing the school and other services.
  - 5) District shops should be located on the periphery, thus serving approximately four neighbourhoods.
  - 6) There should be a hierarchy of streets facilitating access but discouraging through traffic"
- (Perry 1939 p:32).

Due to the impacts of 1929 economic crisis, Radburn plan project was not completed. Although it has not been built completely, Radburn, today is a very liveable and attractive neighbourhood unit which encompasses the principles cited above (Hass-Klau 1990).

## **2.5. New Towns and Suburban Sprawl**

Firstly, 'New Town Movement' was launched by the British governments during the 1930's drawing on the experience of garden city movement and prompted by the 'Town and Country Planning Association'. After Howard and the other 19<sup>th</sup> century reformers, this idea gained momentum with the reports of 'the Committee on Unhealthy Areas' (1900), 'the Committee on Garden Cities and Satellite Towns' (1935), and, the most important of all, 'the Barlow report'(1940) (Morris 1979). On the other hand, no action was taken until after the Second World War. In 1945, the New Towns Committee was set up to consider "the promotion of new towns in furtherance of a policy of planned decentralisation for congested urban areas" (Ractliffe 1991 p:53). And, its recommendations were embodied in 'the New Town Act' of 1946. Since then, 28 new towns have been designed in Britain in order to offer the middle and working classes a

sense of salutary, village-like living environments at some distance from the urban centre (Smith 1996).

The first new towns in Britain were described as the ‘first-generation new towns’. Unlike their garden city predecessors, they aimed to achieve a social balance in both the individual neighbourhood units and the community as a whole. For example, ‘Crawley’ strove to reflect the class characteristics and social balance which existed throughout the country (Figure 2.14) (Ractiffe 1991).

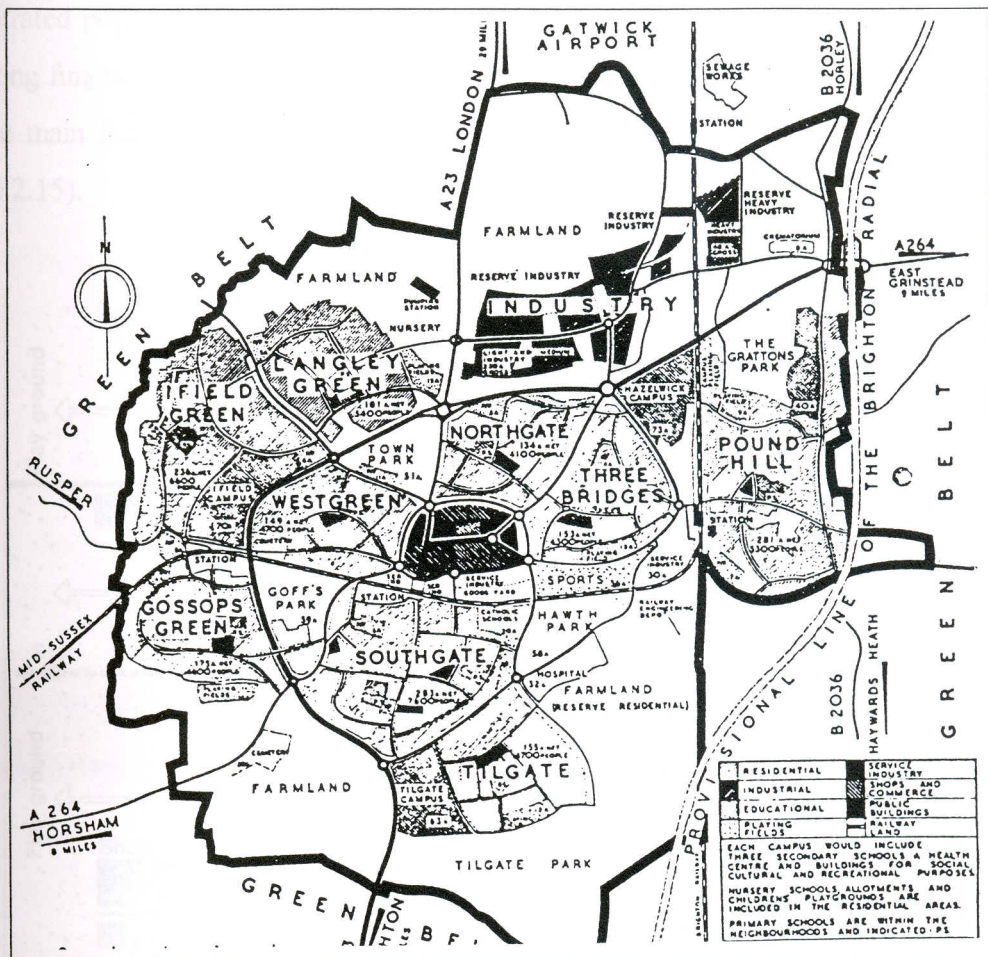


Figure 2. 14: The original plan of Crawley New Town showing the physical separation and separate identity of neighbourhoods (Source: Ractliffe 1991).

In practice, it was difficult to achieve as people tended to segregate themselves at the local level. The very concept of neighbourhood unit was held in great esteem.



Between 1951 and 1961 there was a temporary halt in new town construction as the 1952 'Town Development Act' preferred the expansion of existing towns instead of new towns. Only one new town was designed between 1952 and 1959 in 'Cumbernauld' which was the first of a new generation of new towns (generation 2). "It represented the movement away from seeking social balance by complete integration, and its community structure was far less physically determined than the first generation of new towns" (Ractliffe 1991 p:57). There was less adherence to the idea of neighbourhood unit, and, this type of new towns allowed for a higher density, more concentrated population group around a hill-top town centre. In addition, the notion of separating functions such as employment, shopping, education, recreation and residence was the main feature of these new towns as it could be seen in the 'Runcorn' plan (Figure 2.15).

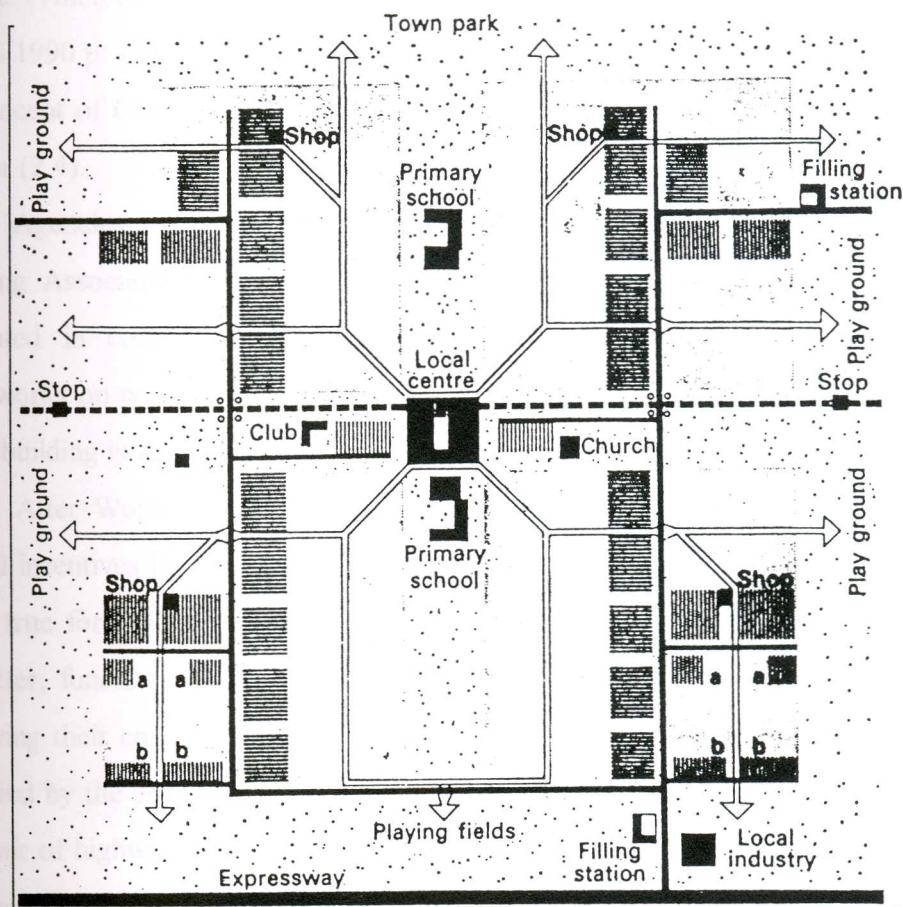


Figure 2. 15: Diagram of the community structure at Runcorn, comprising 8000 people divided into four neighbourhoods of 2000 people each (Source: Ractliffe 1991).



“The creation of a fine-integrated socially balanced community has traditionally been a prime objective in the establishment of British new towns. Studies have shown that in British new towns, higher income groups tended to leave and a distinctive segregation between neighbourhood within a town occurred” (Morris 1979 p:48).

In America, before the 1920s, most suburbs grew in tandem with the extension of railroad lines. Those were the compact clusters. After World War I, suburban growth was shaped by automobiles. Automobiles provided great level of mobility freeing people to determine their own travel patterns and it opened vast amount of land for development (Trancik 1986). The most ambitious planners in America, inspired by the Garden City projects, looked for commissions for the design of entirely new towns. “

“They found inspiration in the architecture and planning of historic European towns, documented in books such as: Camillo Sitte’s *Town Planning According to Artistic Principles* and Werner Hegemann and Elbert Peet’s *The American Vitruvius* (Bressi 1990 p: 12). The attempts related with the new towns in America were based on the concept of Clarence Perry’s “neighbourhood unit” which was cited in the previous chapter (2.4).

Agencies in America such as ‘U.S. Commerce Department’ and ‘Regional Planning Association’ promulgated model subdivisions and zoning laws which were replicated in countless communities. They found it easy to establish regulatory frameworks on new designs. This standardisation was complemented by changes in the home-building industry, which learned mass production techniques (Tregoning 1998).

After World War II, increasing incomes, expanded automobile ownership and federal incentives for new housing construction combined to make the suburban dream come true for millions of families. Therefore, suburbs have taken on a more diverse character; functions which were located in the city centres began to move outwards following their customers and labour force. On the one hand, industrial activities were attracted by the ability to spread out on large pieces of land and the easy access to the network of highways. On the other hand, regional shopping centres began to flourish in the new suburbs in the early 1950s. (Trancik 1986, Paumier 1988).

At the same time in 1950s and 1960s ‘Urban Renewal Programs’ provided federal funds and legal tools for injecting these suburban approaches into cities by the erection of large high-rise multi-family housing complexes based on the ideas of Le

Corbusier. Urban renewal buildings disdained traditional urban forms and stood as isolated objects surrounded by plazas, park-like spaces (Katz 1994).

At the turn of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and during the great depression, the theory of new towns evolved in several directions. Ebenezer Howard defined small towns built for workers, surrounded by a greenbelt, combining the best of city and country. In the same period, Tony Garnier developed the first modernist approach to town planning, segregating industry, isolating different uses and freeing buildings from the street. During the 1930s, Le Corbusier and Frank Lyod Wright expanded this vision in the urban, suburban context while retaining fundamental modernist principles, such as; segregating of uses, love of the auto and dominance of private over public space (Bressi 1990, Katz 1994).

In fact, the purpose of these efforts was to liberate many people from crowded, unhealthy living conditions. They established a social, economic and regulatory frameworks in order to control the enormous amount of metropolitan development. But the land-use and transportation pattern which they imposed created such problems even worse that of industrial towns.

In Europe, with some notable exceptions, new towns are mainly sterile and suburban in character. In America, they are sterile, suburban and even worse economic failures (Smith 1996). As early as 1958, William H. Whyte voiced alarm at the phenomenon of urban sprawl which threatened to disfigure the American landscape. Pointing to the “vast, smog-filled deserts that are neither city, suburb, or country” (Whyte 1958 p:102).

Sprawled, low-density suburban development, which was the result of these processes, has effected the quality of life in such ways:

- a) “More and more time is being spent on commuting (Congestion, mismatched housing and job locations force people to commute two or more hours each day).
- b) Reliance on cars has a devastating impact on people who cannot drive or afford them (For example; children, teenagers, elderly people).
- d) While suburbs might have once offered a healthy antidote to grimy industrial cities, cars are now generating tremendous air pollution” (Scully 1988 p:27).

In addition to this explanation, the most problematic effect of the 'suburban dispersal' and 'urban renewal' was related with the 'civic life'. Current metropolitan settlement patterns have clearly exacerbated social, class and racial segregation and diminished the importance of common ground on where people of different backgrounds might encounter. They have increased urban social, economic decline and created urban stress. By isolating people in houses and cars, the late 20<sup>th</sup> century suburban metropolis and new towns have done little to replace the urban vitality in increasingly diverse society (Bressi 1994, Hall 1988).



## Chapter 3

### THE NEOTRADITIONALISM (New Urbanism)

In the previous chapter (Chapter 2), the history of modern town planning was tried to describe briefly in order to understand the theoretical base of the concept of 'the New Urbanism'. Because, 'the New Urbanism', which is also known as 'Neotraditional planning', or 'Traditional Neighbourhood Development' emerged as the latest urban planning fad as a reaction to many of the ills of the current sprawl development and also acquired some notions of the past experience

When we examine the human history, we would find out that, people have banded together for mutual security or to be close to critical resources such as; water, food and, more recently, ports, rail hubs and employment centres. The advent of the automobile and other factors have provided an opportunity to disperse. The crowding, crime and disease which troubled city centres in the past offered reasons enough to leave. Therefore, in the post-war era, suburbia became the lifestyle of choice for most people in developed countries (Katz 1994, O'Toole 1997).

Although this kind of a way of living could be thought that it has many advantages, it has also fragmented the societies. "It has separated people from friends and relatives, broken down the bonds of community that had served nations so well in earlier times" (Bookout 1992 p: 12).

Despite the increasing sophistication of our physical and electronic networks (highways, telephones, television, Internet etc.), we remain today in a fragmented society. Networks, are no substitute for true community (Katz 1994).

#### 3.1. Description of the New Urbanism

In the 1980s, a new approach to the creation and revitalisation of communities began to emerge in North America based on the development patterns used prior to World War II. Although the movement has its roots in the 1970s., very little information on New Urbanism and its practices has been available until just recently (Kaliski 1996).

The concept of the New Urbanism refers to a shared body of work and ideas about scale, mixed-use and pedestrian orientation in urban context and it was developed

by Peter Calthorpe, Andres Duany, Elisabeth Plater-Zyberk, Elisabeth Moule, Stefanos Polyzoides and others (Berke 1994).

The New Urbanism began as a reaction to conventional planning which has been practised since 1940s. “New Urbanists regard the decentralised, auto-oriented suburbs as a disaster. They blame these suburbs for ever increasing congestion on arterial roads, a lack of meaningful civic life, the loss of open space, limited opportunities for children, and a general discontent among suburbanites” (Fulton 1996 p: 6).

According to Peter Katz, “the New Urbanism is a movement that will be of great relevance to future planning efforts as it addresses many of the sprawl development pattern while returning to a cherished American icon: that of a compact, close-knit community” (Katz 1994 p: ix). It is truly a fact that, the New Urbanism seeks to reintegrate the components of modern life (housing, workplace, shopping and recreation) into compact, pedestrian friendly, mixed-use neighbourhoods linked by transit.

The New Urbanism owes much of its characteristics to ‘Garden City’ movement, ‘City Beautiful’ movement and Leon Krier’s ‘Urban Space’ concept and thus, it would be said that the New Urbanism represents a discovery of planning and architectural traditions which have shaped some of the most liveable memorable communities and traditional small towns where life centres around a square, common plaza, train station or main street (Bressi 1990, Duany and Zyberk 1991). In that respect, for planners and architects who embrace the New Urbanism, places like these should provide both inspiration and countless practical lessons for the design of new communities.

As it was cited in the previous chapter, modern suburbia does not bring any significant benefit, on the contrary, it does bring both environmental and social problems such as; air pollution, congestion and automobile accidents, ugliness of places, parking lots, the loss of farmland and open space. Charles Siegel pointed out this consequence as “we have reached a point where the costs of urban growth outweigh its benefits” (Siegel 1997).

To sum up, New Urbanism is seeking something to redefine the nature of the modern metropolis by reintroducing traditional notions of neighbourhood design and fitting those ideas into a variety of urban and suburban settings. However, this is not a



romantic movement; it reflects a deeper agenda. The planning and design approaches of the movement revive principles about communities such as:

- a) "Public spaces, like streets, squares and parks should be settings for the conduct of daily life,
- b) A neighbourhood should accommodate diverse types of people and activities,
- c) It should be possible to get to work, accomplish everyday tasks and travel to surrounding communities without using a car" (Calthorpe 1993 p: 86) (Figure3.1)

In addition all of these, the New Urbanism also represents a new chapter in the history of city planning. For about a century, the reformist profession in western countries has been guiding both urban redevelopment and suburban expansion with the goals of eradicating the crowding, poverty, disease and congestion that threatened to overwhelm industrial city and with the goals of creating a rational, efficient framework for growth that all but rejected traditional patterns of city and town development (Bressi 1990).

Although the movement has been considered as an alternative to suburban sprawl, the principles of New Urbanism can also be applied successfully both to infill and redevelopment sites within existing urbanised areas (Figure 3.1) In fact, the leading proponents of New Urbanism believe that infill development should be given priority over new development in order to revitalise city centres and limit sprawl (Berke 1994).

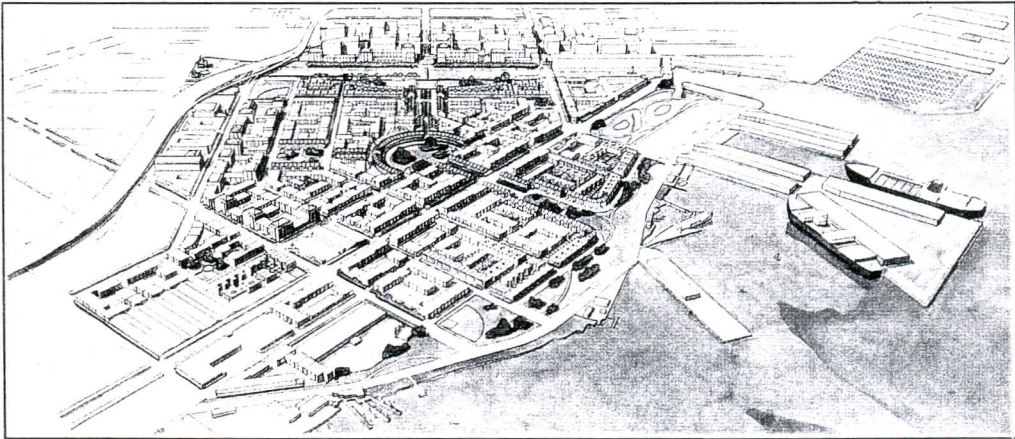


Figure 3.1: Mission Bay, a New Urbanist proposal for redeveloping a large industrial site in San Francisco (Source: Katz 1994).



### 3.2. Design Principles of the New Urbanism in Regional Context

The New Urbanism is concerned with both the pieces and the whole. It applies principles of urban design to the region in two ways:

- 1) "Urbanism should be applied throughout a metropolitan region regardless of location (in suburbs, and new growth areas as well as within the city).
- 2) The entire region should be designed in accordance with the same principles (It should, like a neighbourhood, be structured by public space, its circulation system should support the pedestrian, it should be diverse and hierarchical and it should have discernible edges" (Calthorpe and Mack 1987 p: 92).

The first application of the movement is simple but one of the most important contribution of it. Urbanism is now well understood in the city but rarely applied in the suburb. "Although there have been many transgressions over the post war period, the principle of urbanism have clearly re-emerged since Jane Jacobs, Vincent Scully, Aldo Rossi, Leon Krier and many others have articulated the tradition" (Katz 1994 p: xi).

Perhaps some principles of the movement is not new, the new thing is the application of them to suburbia and beyond.

"The Latin roots for the Medieval English '*suburbium*' refer to a place *beyond* or *outside* of the city. On the other hand, the Greek word for suburb, '*proasteion*', originally referred to something *before* the city" (Jackson 1987 p:48). This etymological distinction is essential as the common wisdom assumes the suburb to be separate from the city. Like the Ancient Greek, Duany and Zyberk prefer to think of the modern suburb as a basic form of habitations, something which precedes the city and thus in need of civilising (Jackson 1987).

Too often designers think of the aesthetic, spatial and programmatic principles in terms of density and inner-city context but the New Urbanism demonstrates how such ideas can be implemented in the contemporary suburban condition at any density (Figure 3.1) (Katz 1994).



Figure 3.2: The aerial view of Davie, Florida designed in accordance with the New Urbanist principles with a great density (Source: Katz 1994).

The New Urbanism shows that;

- a) "The relationship between architecture and public space can be 'urban' regardless of building height or mass,
  - b) The spatial hierarchy and connectedness can be provided regardless of land-use intensity,
  - c) Pedestrian life can exist in single-family neighbourhoods as well as on tenement streets"
- (Calthorpe and Mack 1987 p: 77).

Applying these principles in areas is one important contribution of the New Urbanism.

Secondly, the New Urbanism claims that the city, its suburbs and their natural environment should be treated as a whole (socially, economically and ecologically). Treating them separately is the main root of the problems now most countries have faced. New Urbanists advocate that, seen as a whole, a metropolis should be designed as if we design a neighbourhood unit: There should be defined edges, the circulation system should function for the pedestrian, public space should be formative rather than



residual, civic and private lands should form a complementary hierarchy and population and use should be diverse (Davis 1998).

They believe that developing such a region would create the context for a healthy urbanism in neighbourhoods, districts and at the city centre. The two form of urbanism work together.

### **3.3. Design Principles of the New Urbanism in Community Context**

The community principles define a community where housing and all the things (the things that meet the daily needs of residents) are located within walking distance of one another. They call for housing which provides places to live for a variety of people within a single neighbourhood instead of separating them in terms of their income level, age or family situation. They also call for returning to historic population densities around transit stops to provide critical mass of people and activities in these areas needed to make transit economically viable ( Corbett 1991).

In community context, there are three organising elements of the New Urbanism; the neighbourhood, the district and the corridor. “Neighbourhoods are urbanised areas with a balanced mix of human activity; districts are areas dominated by a single activity; corridors are connectors and separators of neighbourhoods and districts” (Katz 1994 p: xvii).

#### **3.3.1. The Neighbourhood**

From Clarence Perry’s definition of ‘neighbourhood unit’ (Figure 3.3) to ‘traditional neighbourhood development’ (Figure 3.4) there is a general agreement regarding the physical composition of the neighbourhood. All definitions about the subject share similar attributes as all of them are limited in area and structured around a defined centre. While the population density may vary, each model offers a balanced mix of dwellings, workplaces, shops, civic buildings and parks (Duany and Zyberk 1992).



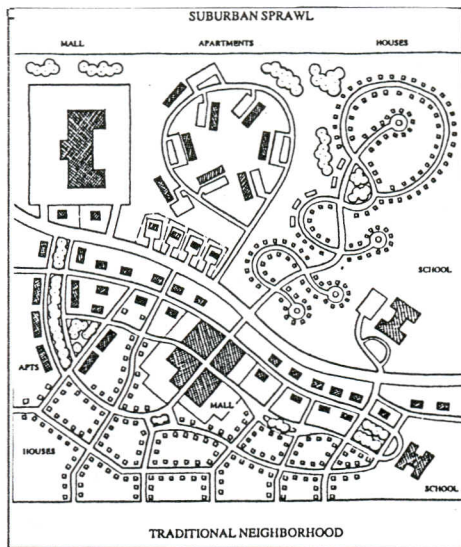


Figure 3.3: Traditional Neighbourhood Development (Source: Katz 1994).

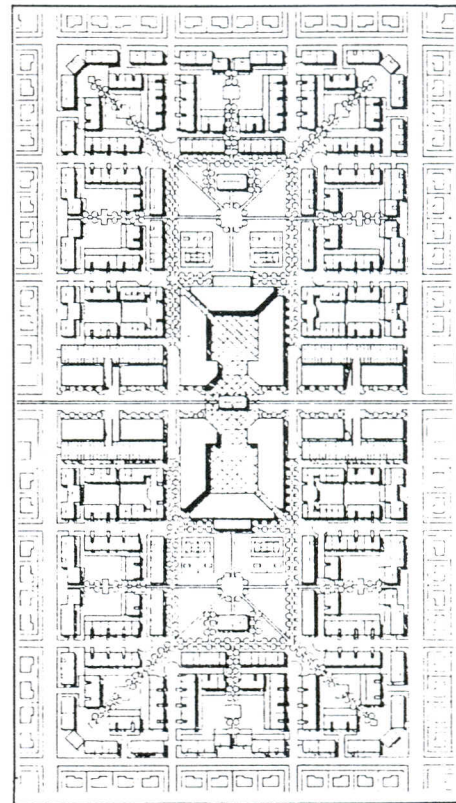


Figure 3.4: Peter Calthorpe's proposed walkable mixed-use neighbourhoods which he calls "Pedestrian Pockets" (Source: Calthorpe 1993).

Andres Duany and Elisabeth Plater-Zyberk defined principles of an ideal neighbourhood design all of which also constitute the design principles of the 'Urban Coding Method';

1) The neighbourhood has a centre and a definite boundary : A unique centre and defined boundaries of a neighbourhood contribute to the social identity of the community. The centre is a necessity for a neighbourhood, the edge not always so. The centre of the neighbourhood should always be a public space, which may be a square, a green or an important street intersections (Figure 3.5) (Duany and Zyberk 1994).

The centre is the locus of the neighbourhood's public buildings, for instance, a post office, a meeting hall, a day-care centre and sometimes a religious or cultural institutions. Shops and workplaces are usually associated with the centre (Duany and Zyberk 1994).



Figure 3.5: This model view illustrates the fine-grained mix of uses and buildings in Kentland's town centre and its surrounding (Source: Katz 1994 p: 36).

On the other hand, they may vary in character; they can be natural, such as forest, or manmade, such as infrastructure. In villages, the edge is usually defined by farmland, woodland. In high-density urban areas, the neighbourhood edge is defined by infrastructure, such as rail lines and high traffic roads (Punter 1996).

2) The optimal size of a neighbourhood is quarter mile from centre to edge: This distance (quarter mile) refers to a five-minute walk at an easy pace (Figure 3.6). The limited area gathers the population of the neighbourhood within walking distance of many of their daily needs, such as; convenience store, post office, community police post, automatic bank teller, school and transit stop (Duany and Zyberk 1994).



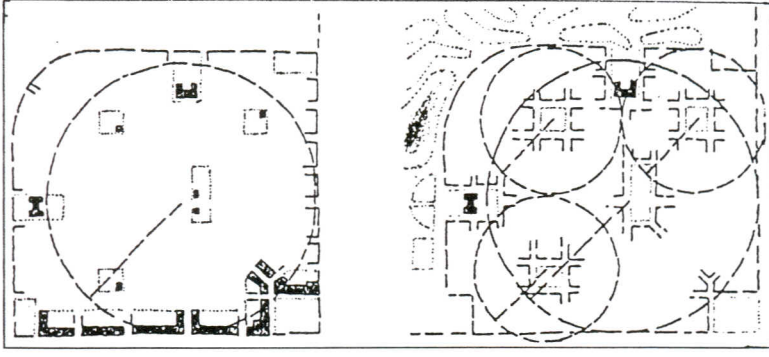


Figure 3.6: Architects Duany and Plater-Zyberk's TND model proposes a five-minute walk for one's daily needs and a three-minute walk to neighbourhood parks (Source: Bressi 1994).

When an automobile trip is necessary to arrive at a transit stop, most potential users will simply continue to driving their way by their cars. However, if the transit stop is within the walking distance, then the transit is believed to be viable (Crane 1996). Pedestrian-friendly, transit-oriented neighbourhood permit region of cities to be accessible without singular reliance on cars. It was acknowledged that such a system also provides access to major cultural, social institutions, shopping units. This contribute to that settlements to acquire more economic benefit and to become a vital place by the larger population (Calthorpe and Mack 1987).

3) The neighbourhood has a balanced mix of activities: Mix of activities such as: dwelling, shopping, working, schooling, worshipping and recreating is particularly important for people who are unable to drive and thus depend on others for mobility (children, teenagers or elderly people). The proximity of daily destinations and the convenience of transit reduces the number and length of trips. It also minimise the private stress in traffic (Duany and Zyberk 1994). Moreover, mix of activities as Jonathan Cohen pointed out "is a return to a historical form of urbanism like the *Agora* and *Galeria*. Different functions in an area have a synergistic effect on each other" (Cohen 1995 p: 6, 7). It means that one activity economically support other and thus, total revenue within that area would be greater.

Another point is that, the neighbourhood's fine-grained mix of activities includes a range of housing types for different income levelled people. A neighbourhood offers a variety of affordable housing choices: a) garage apartments with single-family house, b)



apartment above shops, c) apartment buildings adjacent to shopping and workplaces, d) row houses, e) detached houses etc. (Figure 3.7) (Katz 1994).

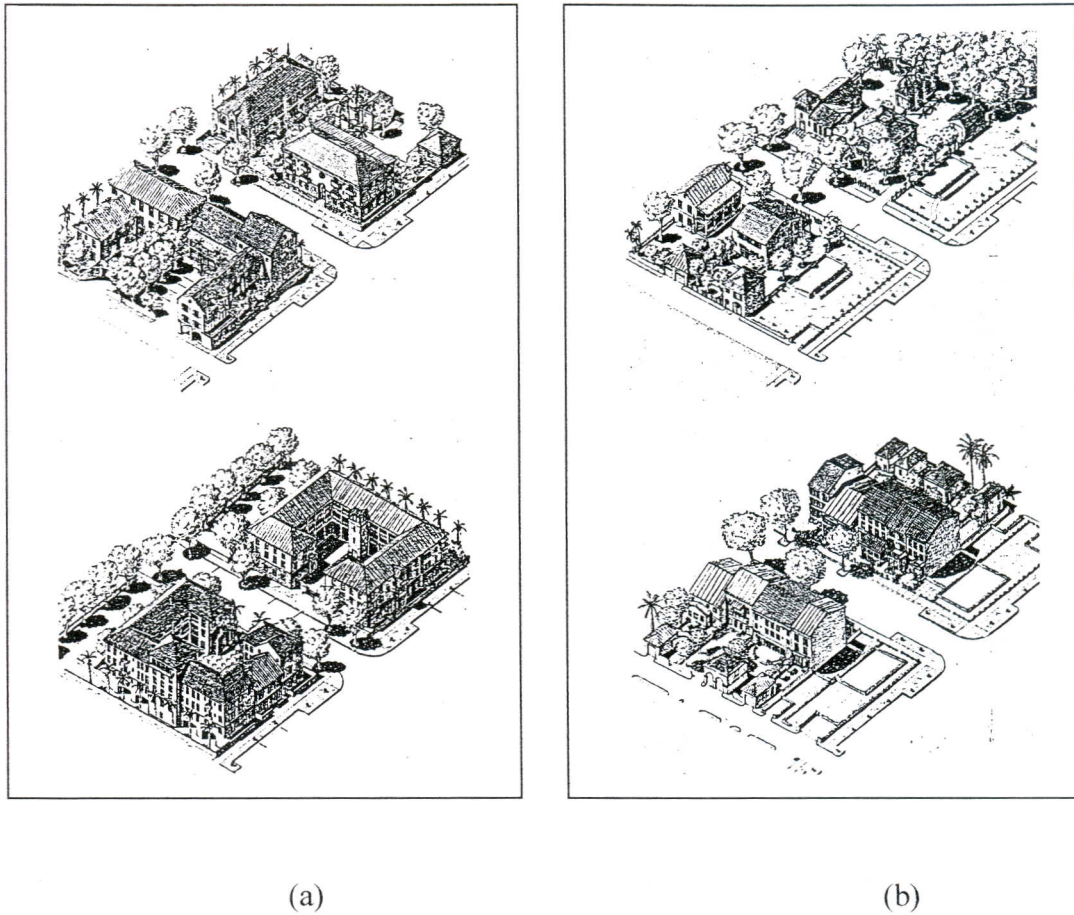


Figure 3.7: A full range of housing options are provided within the New Village, Florida. Included among these are garden and courtyard apartments (a), detached and rowhouses (b) (Source: Katz 1994).

4) The neighbourhood structures building site and traffic on a fine network of interconnecting streets: Neighbourhood streets are designed to create blocks of convenient building sites and to shorten pedestrian routes. An interconnecting patterns of streets provides multiple routes that diffuse traffic congestion (Figure 3.8) (Duany and Zyberk 1994).

Neighbourhood streets of varying types are detailed to provide equitably for pedestrian comfort and for automobile movement. Slowing the automobile and

increasing pedestrian activity encourages the casual meetings that form the bonds of community (Figure 3.9) (Siegel 1997).



Figure 3.8: In Kentlands the street is organised into several neighbourhoods, each with its own character. The pedestrian network is fine-grained and explorable (Source: Southworth 1996).

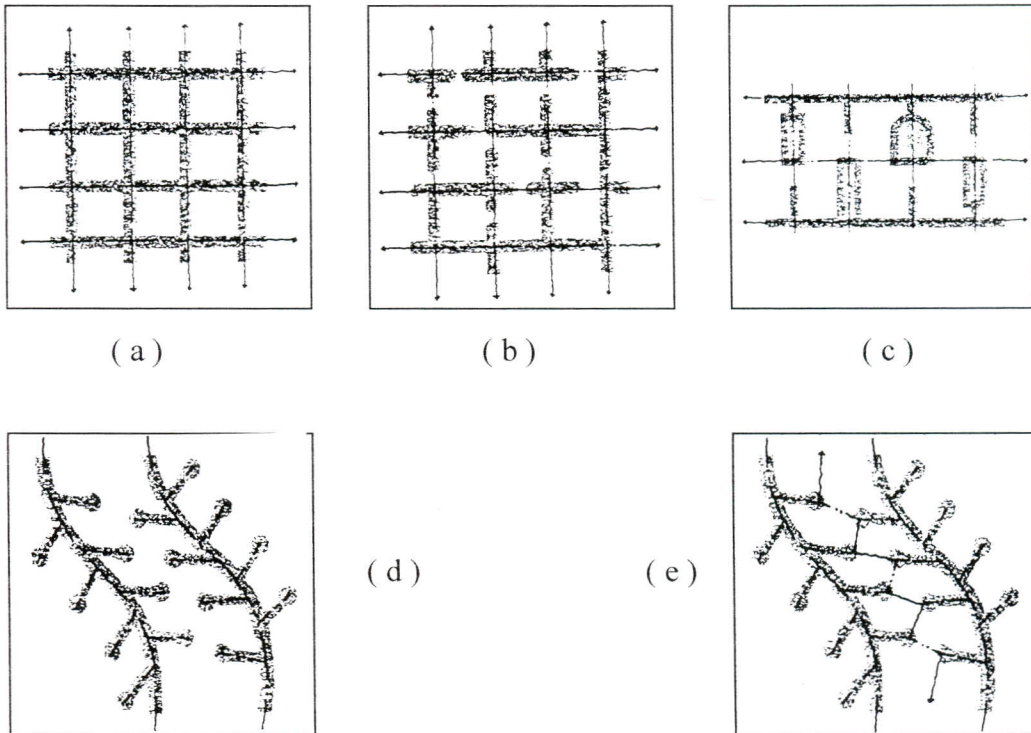


Figure 3.9: Conventional open gridiron (a), Gridiron with pedestrian connectedness and vehicular disconnectedness (b), Connected cul-de-sacs and courts with public spaces (c), Conventional cul-de-sac pattern (d), Pedestrian cul-de-sacs (e) (Source: Southworth 1996).



New Urbanists believe that it would be possible to reach the concepts of 'interconnected pedestrian network' and 'limited access vehicular system' by connecting cul-de-sacs and loops with each other and thus, a walkable neighbourhood can be created (Southworth 1996).

5) The neighbourhood gives priority to public space and to the appropriate location of civic buildings: In terms of community identity, public places have significant importance for a community. A neighbourhood's streets and blocks are designed to create a hierarchy of public places and buildings (Figure 3.10).

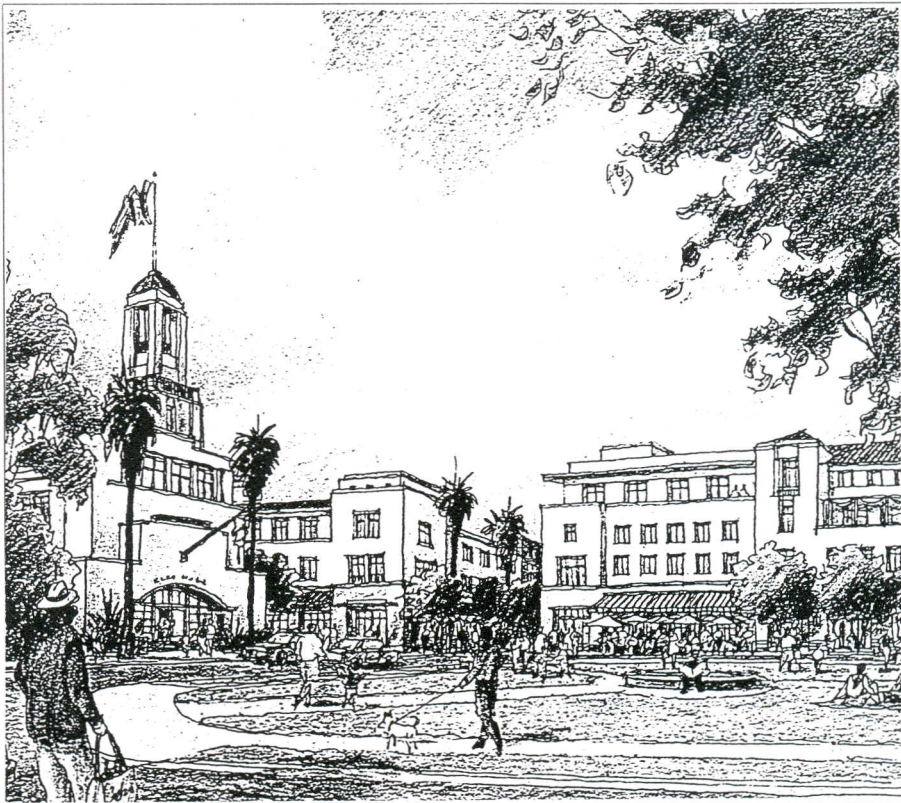


Figure 3.10: A view of Playa Vista's public space and its buildings (Source Katz 1994).

The size, geometry and the location of these spaces are important in order to create special places. Public buildings should occupy important sites, overlooking a square or terminating a street vista (Figure 3.11) (Duany and Zyberk 1994).



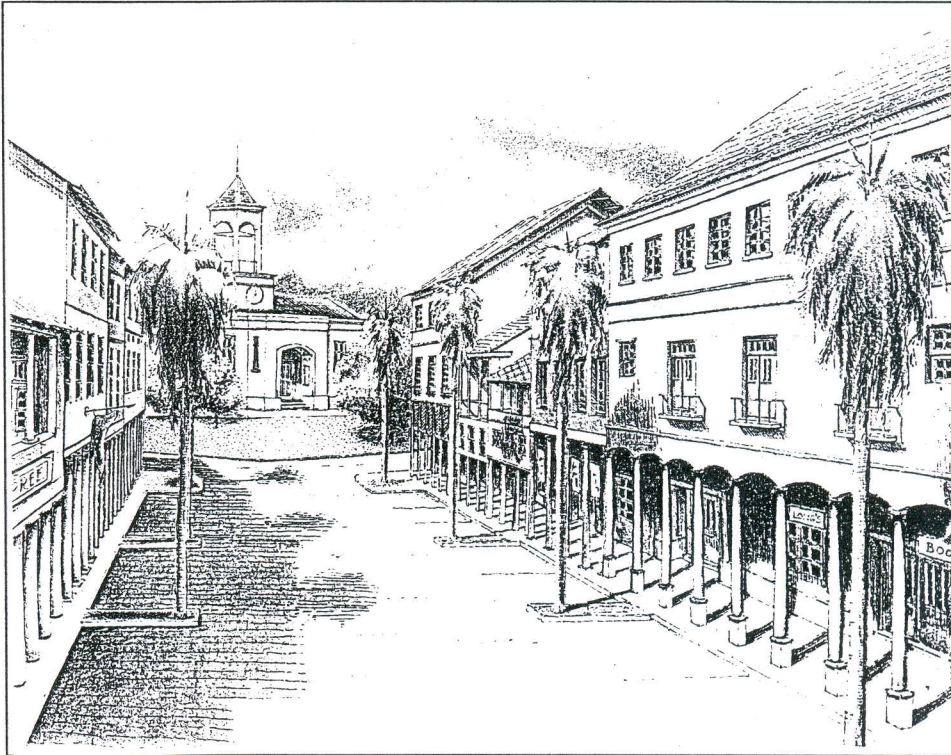


Figure 3.11: Centre square of New Village combines civic, commercial and residential buildings (Source: Katz 1994).

### 3.3.2. The District

“The district is an urbanised area that is functionally specialised” (Duany and Zyberk 1994 p: xix). Districts consist of full range of activities, they are not single activity zones. In other words, the specialisation of a district allows multiple activities to support its primary identity. Typical are theatre districts, conference streets which have restaurants, bars and offices to support and intensify their life and tourist districts which concentrate hotels, retail activity and entertainment (Figure 3.12) (Duany and Zyberk 1994).

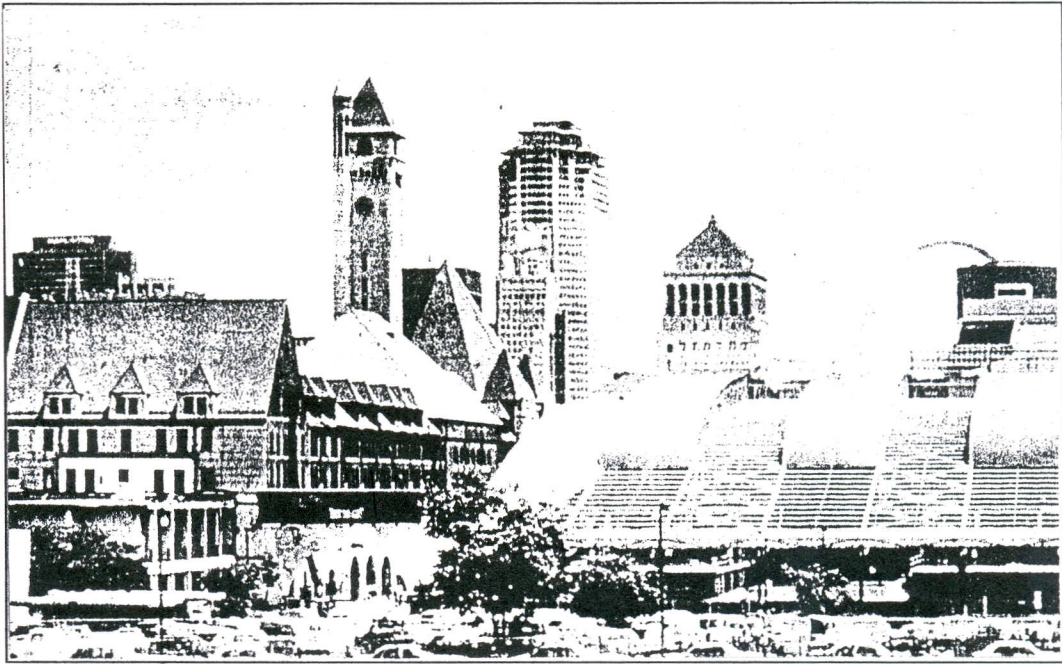


Figure 3.12: St. Louis Union district, USA, developed as a multiple -use development including retail, offices and hotel.

The organisational structure of the district, as in the case of neighbourhoods, depend on its relationship with transportation. Interconnected circulation supports the pedestrian and enhances the transit viability. And, like the neighbourhood, consideration to the character of the public spaces creates a sense of place for its users, even if their home is elsewhere (Paumier 1988).

### 3.3.3. The Corridor

“The corridor is at once the connector and the separator of neighbourhoods and districts. The corridor is not haphazardly residual space, rather, it is an urban element characterised by its visible continuity” (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p: xx). The location and the type of the corridors are varied in terms of its intensity and density. For instance; heavy rail corridors are tangent to towns and related with the industrial part of cities. Light rail may occur within a boulevard of the neighbourhood edge. As such, they are detailed for pedestrian use. Bus corridors can pass through neighbourhood centres on conventional streets and all of these should be landscaped to reinforce their



continuity. In low-density areas the corridor might be the continuous green between neighbourhoods (Duany and Zyberk 1991).

“The corridor is a significant element of the New Urbanism because of its inherently civic nature, the most universally used public spaces are the corridors that serve connection and mobility” (Duany and Zyberk 1994 p: xx).

Of the three elements (The neighbourhood, the district and the corridor), the latter is the most difficult to implement as it requires regional co-ordination (Duany and Zyberk 1994).

### **3.4. Brief Summary of Principles and Problems of the New Urbanism**

To sum up, the major principles of the New Urbanism can be summarised as;

- All development should be in the form of compact, walkable neighbourhoods and/or districts. Such places should have clearly defined centres and edges. The centre should include a public space - such as a square, green or an important street intersection - and public buildings - such a library, religious or community centre, a transit stop and retail businesses.
- Neighbourhoods and districts should be compact ( no more than one quarter mile centre to edge) and detailed to encourage pedestrian activity without keeping out automobiles altogether. Streets should be laid out as an interconnected network ( usually in grid or modified grid pattern), forming coherent blocks where building entrances front the street rather than parking lots. Public transit should connect neighbourhoods to each other, and the surrounding region.
- A diverse mix of activities ( residences, shops, schools, workplaces and recreations etc.) should occur in close proximity. Also, a wide spectrum of housing types should enable people of a broad range of incomes, ages and family types to live within a single neighbourhood or district. Large developments featuring a single use or serving a single market should be avoided.
- Civic buildings, such as government offices, religious centres and libraries, should be located in prominent locations. Open spaces, such as parks, playgrounds, squares and greenbelts should be provided in convenient locations throughout a neighbourhood.

Developers, planners, local governments and citizens have all shown great interest in New Urbanism design approaches in Europe and America. Many see the New Urbanism as a successful approach which enables to community's growth to be channelled into a physical form that is more compatible with the scale of existing neighbourhoods, that discourage auto use, that is less costly to service and that is less consumptive of land and natural resources (CNU 1999).

Despite its benefits, the New Urbanism is still in its infancy, and there are a great deal of doubt what its proponents seek to achieve. Many critics believe that, though this movement contains many attractive ideas, it may have difficulty dealing with a wide range of contemporary issues (Fulton 1996). For example; the traditional neighbourhoods that the New Urbanism hope to achieve are characterised by compactness, small scale and diversity of building types. But, increasingly the economic and life style demands facilities on a massive scale, such as big box retailers and their industrial equivalent. Many New Urbanists accept that large scale operations will inevitably be auto oriented, but they still claim their ideas can work for smaller scale retailers.

Secondly, assertions such as reduced dependence on the automobile, increased transit use, shorter trips, and a more flexible hierarchy of streets make common sense, but they are not yet backed up by much empirical evidence. The assumption that people would rather not drive is simply not supported by the facts. No matter how cities are designed, there will always be places that people will want to go which they cannot easily reach on foot or mass transit. Even places that can be reached by mass transit can rarely be reached as quickly as by automobile. It would be difficult to change the travel habits of people as they are greatly dependent on the automobile.

On the other hand, New Urbanists have worked successfully with urban codes against conventional planning tools in order to permit unconventional projects to proceed. But, physical design standards and implementation practices are not fully compatible with the regulatory framework of many country's planning laws.

Many previous reform movements in urban planning have failed because their ideas did not enjoy wide spread acceptance in the marketplace (Sorkin 1998). New Urbanism is now facing a similar challenge. The real estate industry is highly segmented by land – use category (Such as single- family housing, multi- family housing, retail, office and warehouse). Thus, it requires a highly sophisticated effort to



bring all the components 'on line' in the right sequence. New Urbanist projects proceeded with little market research because the developers simply believed that the idea would sell itself. But they should see that selling New Urbanism requires at least as much marketing effort as selling a conventional subdivision.

The New Urbanism is the latest planning fad and it is still in its infancy. Thus, the precise consequences of the process has not been emerged so far. However, it would be said that, the contribution of it will be universal as it promotes a positive image of 'town life' that includes the public as well as the private realm. It will surely take time to replace such an approach with conventional ones, but, the concepts which the New Urbanism define would be a remedy to many problematic issue in a broader planning context that modern world challenges.

Despite such barriers, public opposition to conventional development is creating a great demand for alternative forms of growth, such as New Urbanism. In order to address this need, a coalition of architects, urban designers, developers, government officials and others formed the 'Congress for the New Urbanism (CNU) in 1993 to advance the principles of New Urbanism and promote their broad application (CNU 1999).

## Chapter 4

### URBAN CODING METHOD (TOD / TND - DPZ Codes)

Urban Coding Method, which was developed by Andres Duany, Elisabeth Plater-Zyberk and Peter Calthorpe, emerged from the New Urbanist Movement. It can be describe as a more flexible, more democratic building code that is also more three dimensional alternative to the conventional planning approach. It provides a broad range of view in the creating process of urban form.

In practice, after the urban lands have been produced, the applications and implementations are made by land surveyors and controlled by conventional building regulations. This, uncreative, inelastic process has caused urban environments to become worse and it has never permitted designers to design using their fertile imagination. Elisabet Plater - Zyberk said that “most zoning codes are *proscriptive* - they just try to prevent things happening. In contrast, neo-traditional zoning is *prescriptive*” (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p:23).

Duany and Zyberk have looked for a solution to this problem in their studies. Their ideas about the relationship between planning and architecture reach back to the City Beautiful and Garden City Movement, which in turn reach back to the Renaissance and Classical cities. Their starting point was the concept of “urban space” introduced by Krier brothers (Sorkin 1998).

According to Todd Bressi, Urban Coding method is based on one simple principle: “Community planning and design must assert the importance of public over private values” (Bressi 1994, p: xxx). It would be said that, this simple principle serves as a reference for making decisions involved in creating communities.

The planning and design approaches of the Urban Coding method can be applied to a) new communities on the suburban edge, b) exurban towns, c) inner - city infill sites. The physical characteristics of both TOD (Transit Oriented Development) and TND (Traditional Neighbourhood Development) are the essence of this method.



## 4.1. Transit Oriented Development (TOD)

Peter Calthorpe's basic model is the "transit - oriented development" or TOD which channels growth into discrete nodes along light - rail and bus net - works. A TOD exploits a basic relationship between transportation and land - use. It puts more origin and destination points within an easy walk of transit stops and, thus, more people will use transit (Figure 4.1) (Bressi 1994).

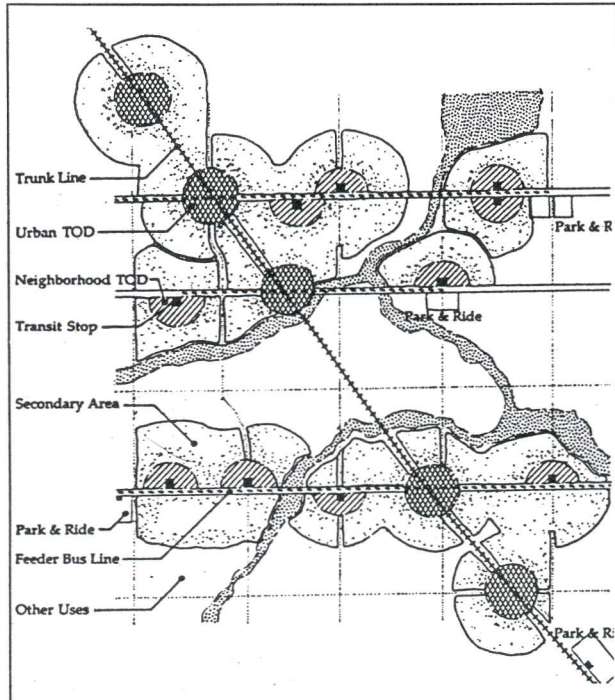


Figure 4.1: Calthorpe Associate's TOD concept combines regional transportation and land-use strategies with detailed plans (Source: Bressi 1994)

Each TOD would be a dense, tightly community which mixes stores, housing and offices in a compact walkable area surrounding a transit station. (Figure 4.2) Calthorpe has written that in theory 2000 homes, a million square feet of commercial space, parks, schools and day care facilities could fit within a ten minute walk of the station in 120 acres (approximately 48 ha.) (Calthorpe 1994).

Closest to the station would be space for retail and service business, professional offices, restaurants, health clubs, cultural facilities and public uses - making jobs, goods,

entertainment and services easily accessible to TOD residents and transit riders without requiring auto usage (Bressi 1994).

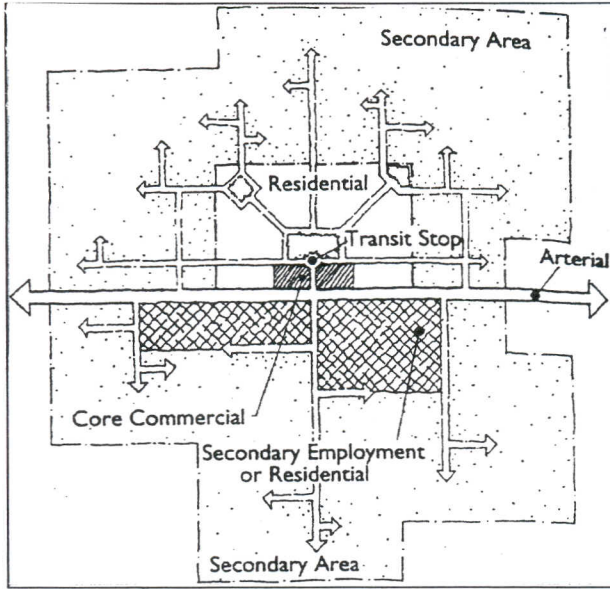


Figure 4.2: Schematic view of Transit - Oriented Development (Source: Calthorpe 1989).

Near the centre, there could be large floorplates to accommodate back-office and back retail uses. They could rise several stories, including a mix of commercial, office and even residential uses. And they could require less parking as they are near transit. .

Near the commercial area there would be a mix of small-lot single-family houses, duplexes, townhouses and apartments (suitable and affordable for socially different types of people). Housing would be clustered around courtyards or parks that would link with public spaces and recreation facilities.

The final ring of development would consist of single family detached homes or larger- scale commercial enterprises (Figure 4.3) (Bressi 1994).

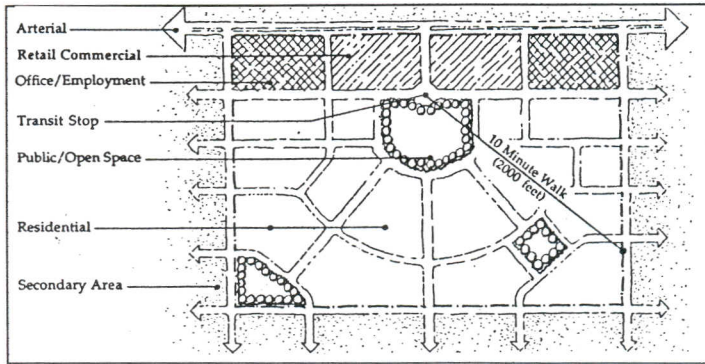
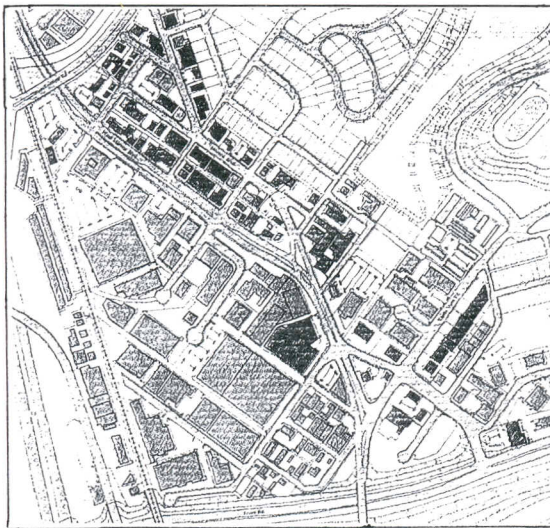
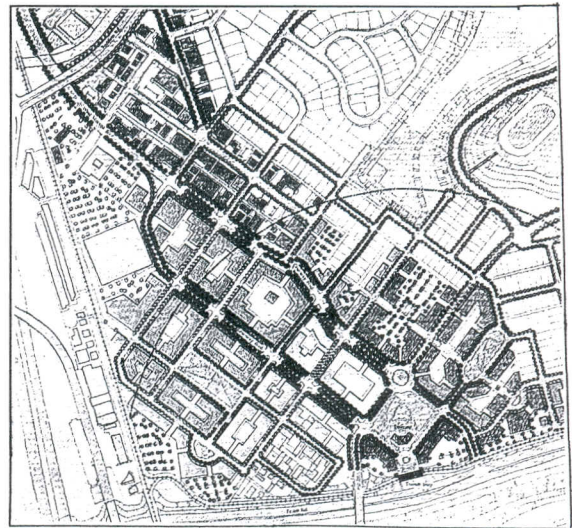


Figure 4.3: Detail plan for proposed transit - oriented communities (Source: Calthorpe Associates)

TODs could be located not only in new growth areas but also in infill or redevelopment sites, which could evolve from auto - oriented to pedestrian oriented places (Figure 4.4)



( a )



( b )

Figure 4.4: Comparative plans contrast conventional development (a) with TOD proposal (b) near Tecolote Road, San Diego, parking areas, arterials and cul-de-sacs were replaced with a fine-grained street network that converges on a transit stop and adjacent park (Katz 1994).



## 4.2. Traditional Neighbourhood Development (TND)

In addition to Calthorpe's proposal, the "traditional neighbourhood development" (TND) approach, that is the essence of the Urban Coding Method, conceived by Andres Duany and Elisabeth Plater-Zyberk (their firm is known as DPZ). It includes more fine-grained regulation and various more in response to local conditions than Calthorpe's TOD approach (Bressi 1994).

"TND have been successfully applied from resort communities (Seaside and Windsor in Florida) to redeveloping shopping centres (Mashpee, Massachusetts) to mobile home parks (Rosa Vista, in Mesa, Arizona) to traditional suburban settings (Kentlands, in Gaithersburg, Maryland)" (Kaliski 1997 p: 75).

The major design notions of both TOD and TND approach are the same with that of the New Urbanism. The essence of the DPZ's community plans is the neighbourhood, which is sized from 15ha to 80ha, and most of its homes are within a three-minute walk of neighbourhood parks and five-minute walk of a central square or common. Each neighbourhood could include a variety of housing types convenient for different household types and income groups (Figure 4.5) (Krieger 1998, Bressi 1994).

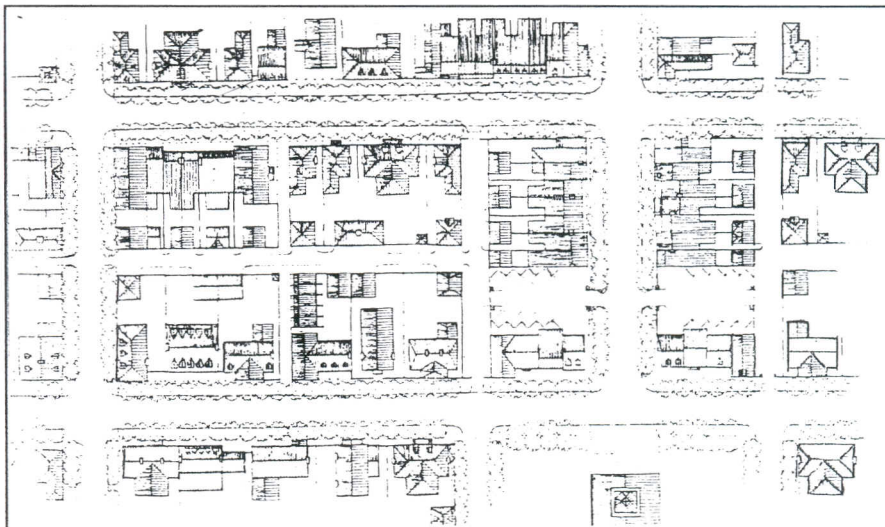


Figure 4.5: A drawing of Haymount neighbourhood, showing a variety of building types in combination and the flexible lot arrangement that encourages variety (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).



In most DPZ (TND) projects, neighbourhood are nested into larger unit called villages or towns. Groups of neighbourhood are generally separated from each other by greenbelts but connected by major streets. On the other hand, each neighbourhood has a unique characteristic. Avalon Park, in Orlando (Figure 4.6) includes several towns which are specialised according to the regional services they provide. One contains a university campus and cultural facilities; another features a large office space; others incorporate the retail activity associated with a regional mall (Bressi 1994).

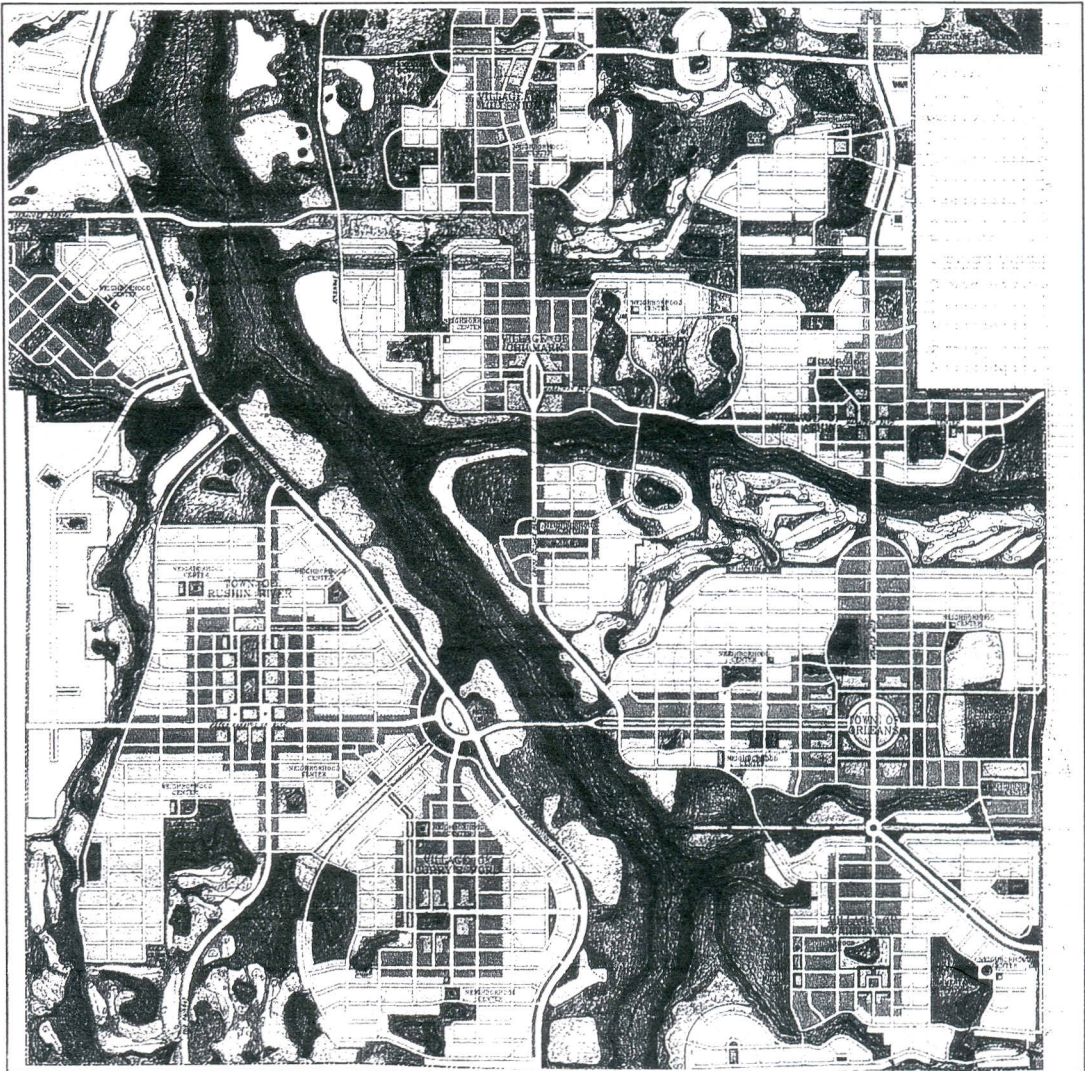


Figure 4.6: Plan of the Avalon Park, Orlando, designed using TND principles (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).



The New Urbanists are both involved in the pieces and the whole. Their starting point is a 'single lot', and their final concern is 'town'. This system include one lot at a time, a half block, a ward, a neighbourhood and finally a town (Figure 4.7)



Figure 4.7: This series of drawings shows that New Urbanist proposals can be parcelled to independent builders, the options include one lot at a time, a half block, a ward and a neighbourhood (Source: Katz 1994).

#### 4.2.1. Physical Conventions of TND

“The congested, fragmented, unsatisfying suburbs and the disintegrating urban centres of today are not merely products of laissez-faire nor the inevitable results of mindless greed” (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p: 102). They are completely planned to be as they are; the direct result of zoning and subdivision ordinances eagerly administered by planning departments.

Particularly in America, after World War II, these ordinances dictated three criteria for urbanism: the free and rapid flow of traffic, parking in quantity, and the cruel separation of uses. As a consequence, car traffic and social isolation have become the central, unavoidable experience of the public realm. This process now is expected to come into existence in developing countries as well ( Duany and Zyberk 1992).



The traditional pattern of walkable, mixed-use neighbourhoods has been unknowingly proscribed by these ordinances. Therefore, designers found themselves in the ironic situation of being forbidden from building in the manner of admired historic places (Duany and Zyberk 1991).

The Traditional Neighbourhood Development (TND) Ordinance prescribed physical conventions in the realm of creating new development (Figure 4.8 ).

1. "The neighbourhood area is limited in size, with clear edges and a focused centre.
2. Shops, workplace, schools and residences for all income groups are located in close proximity.
3. Streets are sized and detailed to serve equitably the needs of the automobile and the pedestrian.
4. Building size and character is regulated to spatially define streets and squares.
5. Squares and parks are distributed and designed as specialised places for social activity and recreation.
6. Well-placed civic buildings act as symbols of the community identity and provide places for purposeful assembly" (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p: 102).

These physical conventions pursue certain social objectives;

1. "The compact organisation reduces the requirements for infrastructure, automobile use, and pollution, and facilitates public transit.
2. The full range of housing types and workplaces helps to integrate all age groups and economic classes.
3. The provision of comfortable public places allow residents to come to know each other and watch over their collective security.
4. The provision of most of the necessities of daily life within walking distance allows the elderly and the young to gain independence of movement.
5. Suitable civic buildings are intended to encourage democratic initiatives and the balanced evolution of society" (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p: 102).

### **4.3. The Forming Elements of the Urban Coding Method**

The form of the 'Urban Coding Method' is realised by the deliberate assembly of streets, blocks and buildings.

Recently, there have been a tendency all over the world that, the concept of 'public realm' has been handled with little concern. Increasingly, architecture has become the tool of excessive self-expression. Individual buildings are often conceived as private, self-referential objects incapable of generating the public realm (Calthorpe 1993).

Urban Coding Method, which is based on the principles of the New Urbanist Movement, seeks a fresh paradigm to ensure and to order the public realm through individual buildings.

"Buildings, blocks and streets are interdependent objects, and each one contains to some degree the ingredients of all the others" (Moule and Polyzoides 1994 p: 21). Blocks of specific character determine streets and buildings; buildings of particular qualities dominate the blocks that contain them and the streets that surround them.

#### **4.3.1. The Street**

Streets are not dividing lines within the city, they are communal rooms and passages.

Pattern: Any single street should be a part of street network, continuity of movement within such a network will support the mixing of uses in the city. A variety of alternative paths will minimise the traffic load on any one street (Figure 4.9)

Hierarchy: There should be variety of streets based on their pedestrian and vehicular loads. According to Urban Coding Method, under no circumstances will any street be abandoned purely to vehicular use. Conversely, allocating streets purely to pedestrian use will reduce its vitality (Figure 4.10)





Figure 4.9: The street network of Belmont is a distorted grid pattern, street connections to adjacent developments link the town to the regional circulation network (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).

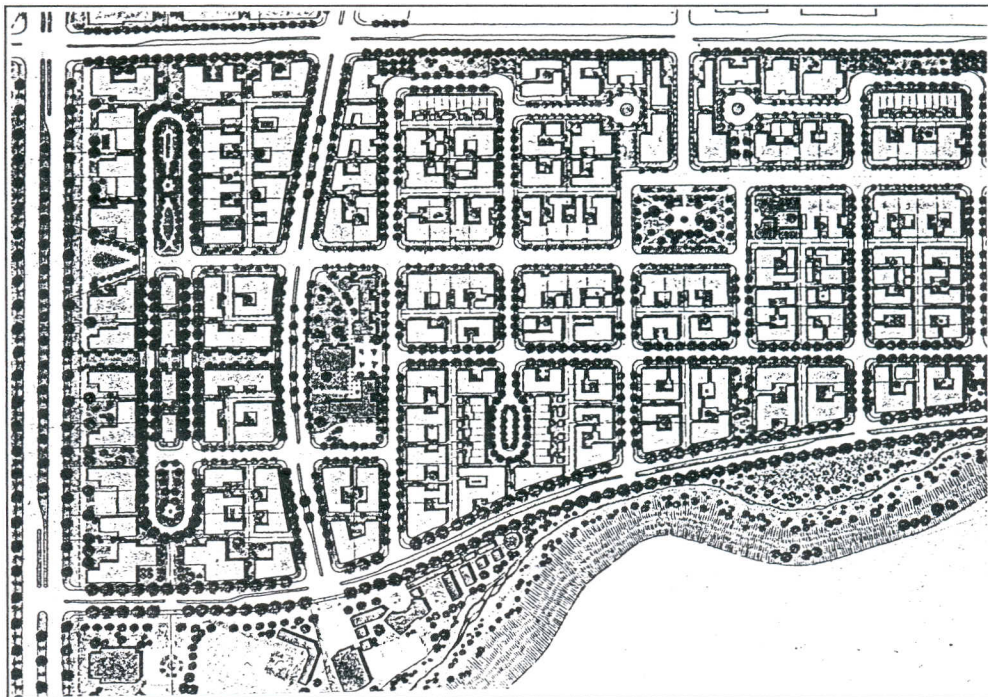
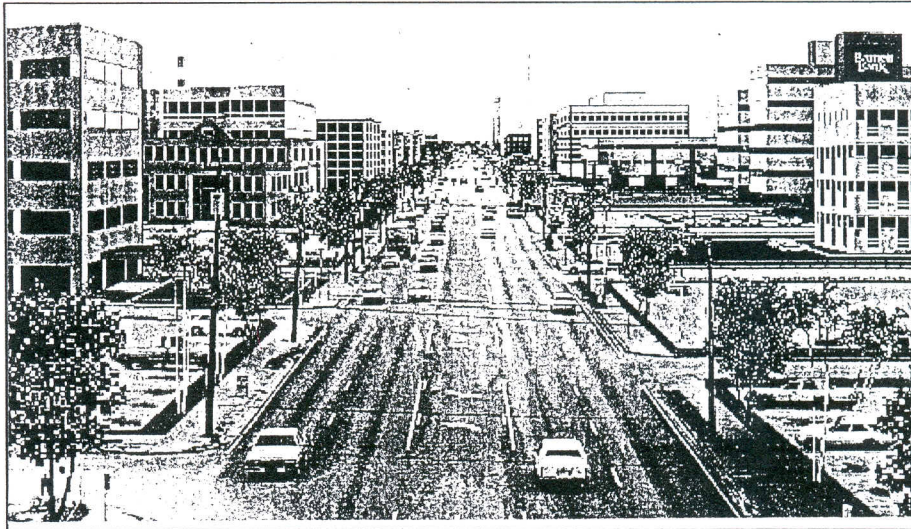


Figure 4.10: Plan of Playa Vista shows variety of street types (Source: Katz 1994).



Figure: The architectural character of the streets should be based on their configuration plan and section. Building heights should be proportionally related with the widths of the road. Any shifts in scale within the street sections should be done by the landscape design, building edges and other vertical streetscape elements (Figure 4.11).



( a )



( b )

Figure 4.11: Broadway Street's increased width had caused the decline of business ( a ), The simulation which was made by New Urbanists enabled citizens to compare that more convenient result could be achieved by following the new master plan and codes ( b )



Detail: The design of streets will affect its use by pedestrians. For example; minimised block radii to slow cars at intersections, providing easy crossing by pedestrians, two-way streets that improve pedestrian crossing safety (Figure 4.12). In addition, street parking protects pedestrian from the actual and perceived danger of moving traffic (Moule and Polyzoides 1994, Duany and Zyberk 1992).

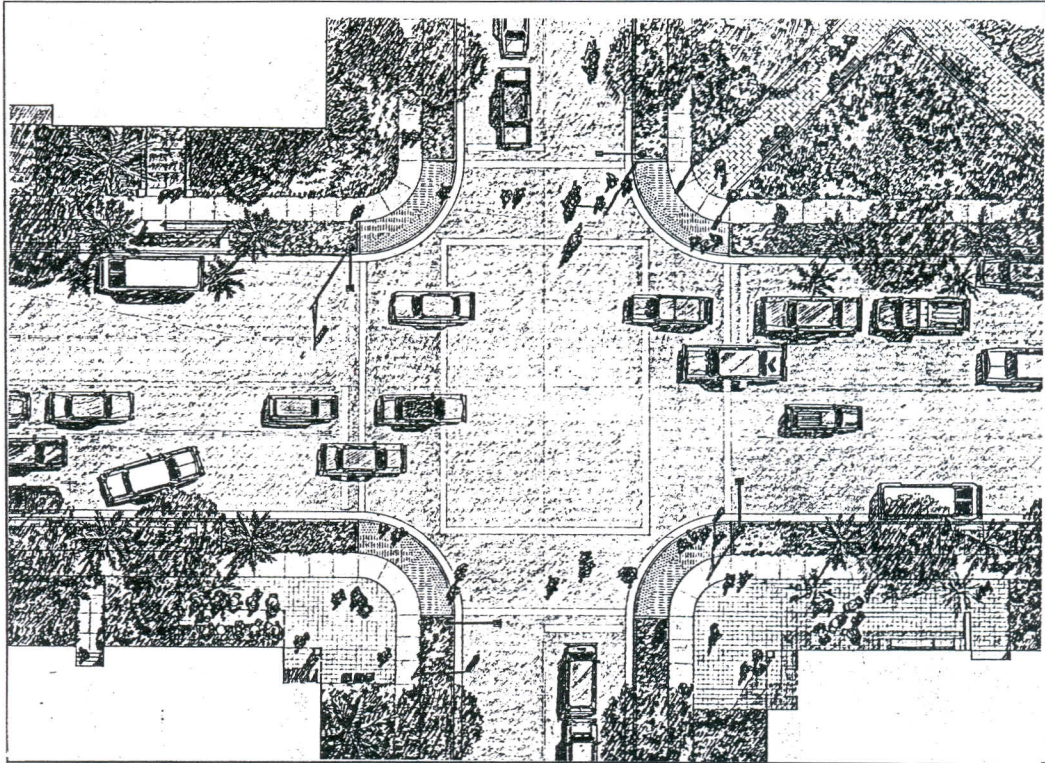


Figure 4.12: Street design standards for sidewalks, roadways, curbs, lighting and planting are shown in this typically intersection plan of Playa Vista (Source: Katz 1994).

### 4.3.2. The Block

Blocks are the objects that open or express the building fabric and the public realm of the city. Traditional blocks used to allow a beneficial relationship between people and vehicles in urban spaces.

Size: Blocks are square, rectangular or irregular in their shape. According to Rob Krier their best historical dimensions vary between 250 and 600 feet ( 7,5m and 18m). This dimensional range allows single buildings to reach the edges of blocks at all densities. It also forces parking to be located away from the sidewalk, either underground, in the middle of the block or in the street (Figure 4. 13).

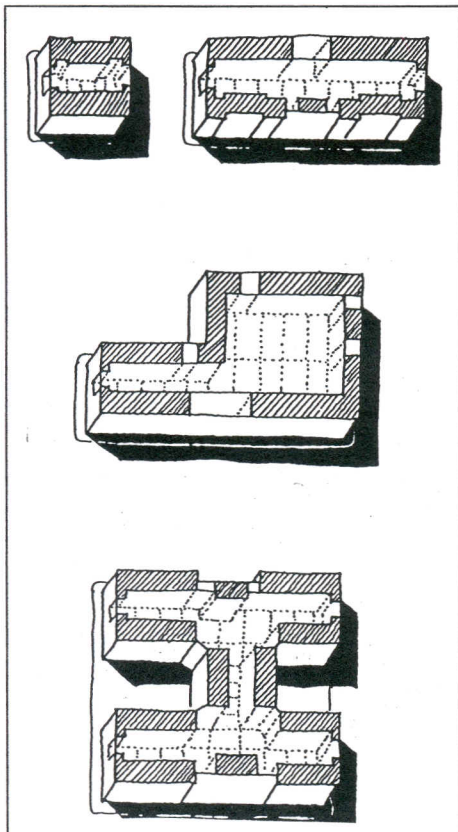
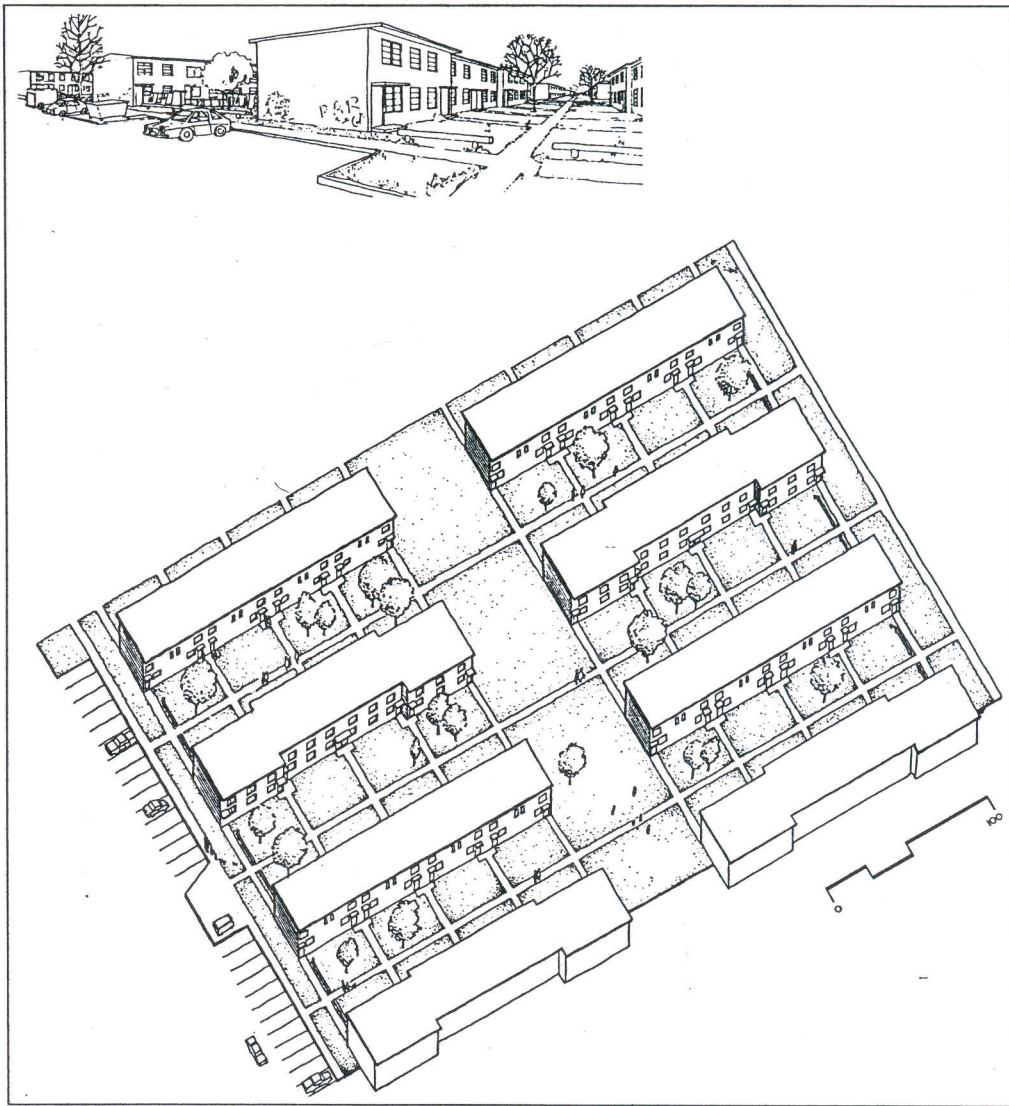


Figure 4. 13: Four block types of Lake West project, they were named short block, long block, "L" block and "H" block (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).

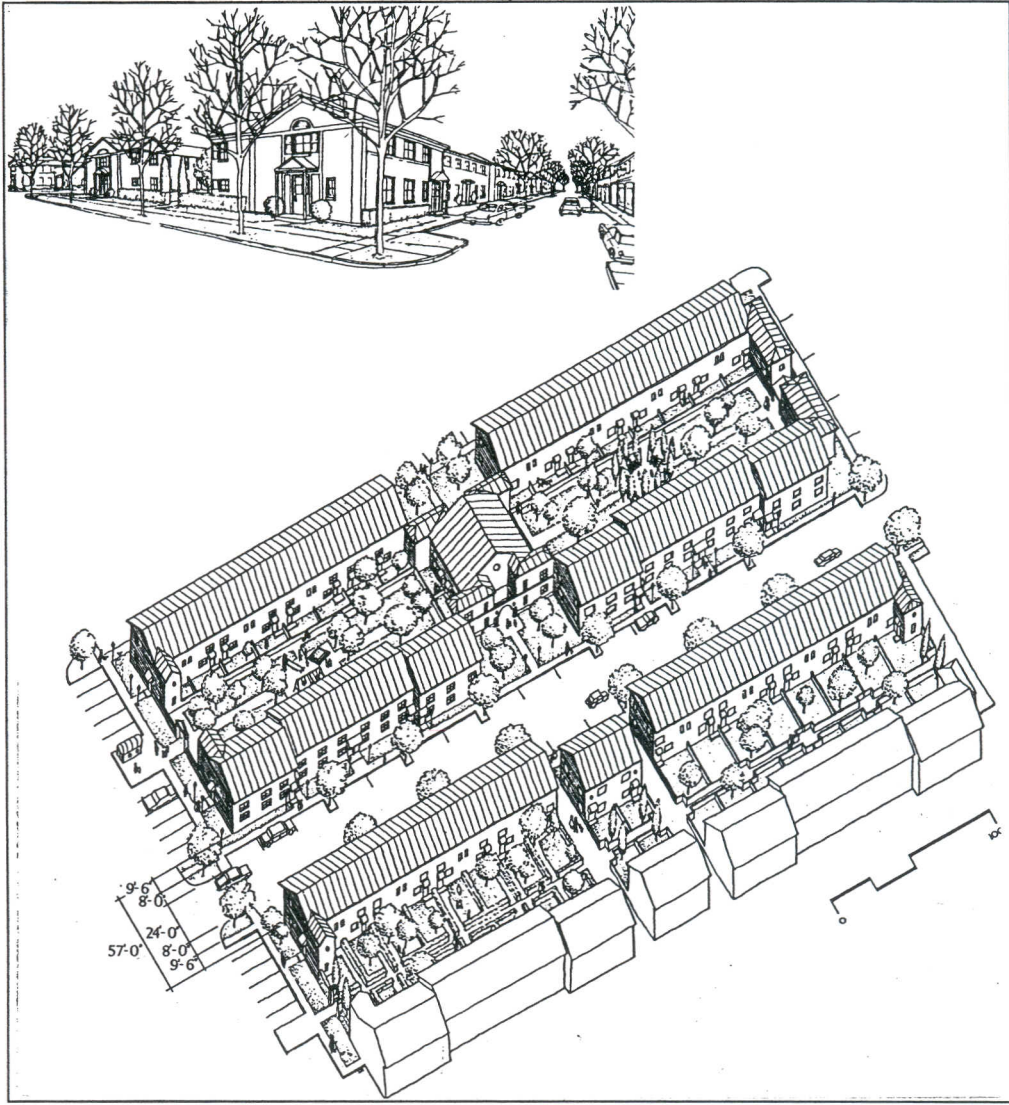


Configuration: City blocks should be divided into lots so that all of their sides can define public space. Their width and depths determine the building types, and building types will eventually establish intended urban fabric. In addition, alleys will absorb parking and servicing therefore, outer faces of blocks would become more intensely pedestrian. New Urbanist proposals about the configuration of the blocks are thought as alternatives to that of slum clearance projects (Figure 4. 14).



( a )

Figure 4.14 ( a ): Blank windowless ends of building blocks front the street and parking areas, residents must walk a full block to reach their units because of the weak visual connection between buildings and streets, auto theft are major features of the slum clearance projects



( b )

Figure 4. 14 ( b ): The reconfigured rowhouse blocks for the same area provide a more defined street connection, new streets are located between pairs of houses, rear yards fill the blocks' centre proposed by the New Urbanists (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).

**Streetground:** Each block could be divided into parkway, sidewalk and setbacks. Within each block, lobbies, major ground floor interior spaces and public gardens of all kinds and sizes should be understood as extensions of the public space of the city.

**Parking:** The presence of cars within the public realm threatens the vitality of cities. Accommodating the pedestrian is the first order of priority for parking. Cars are best located in the middle of the blocks or underground. Parking garages are acceptable as



long as their ground floors at the side walk are occupied by pedestrian - related uses (Figure 4. 15)

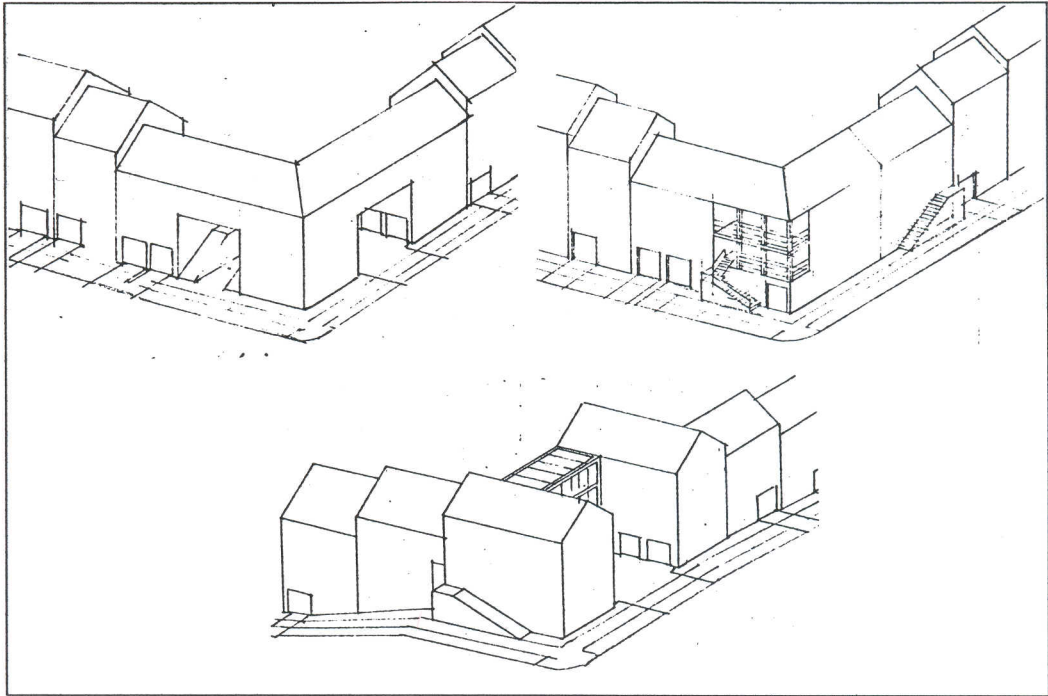
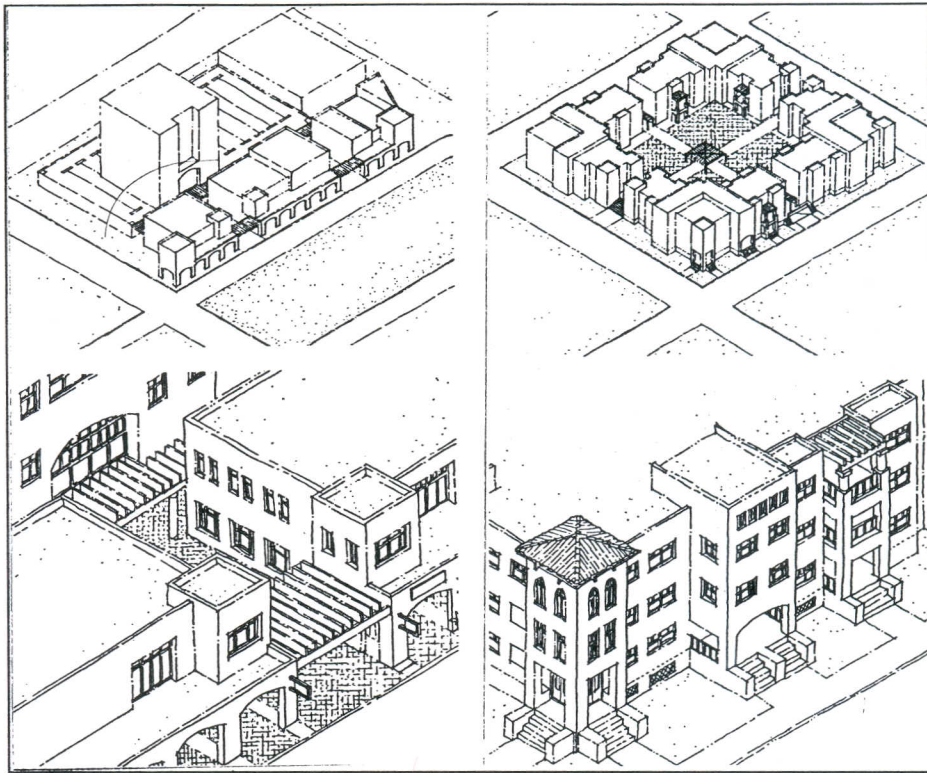
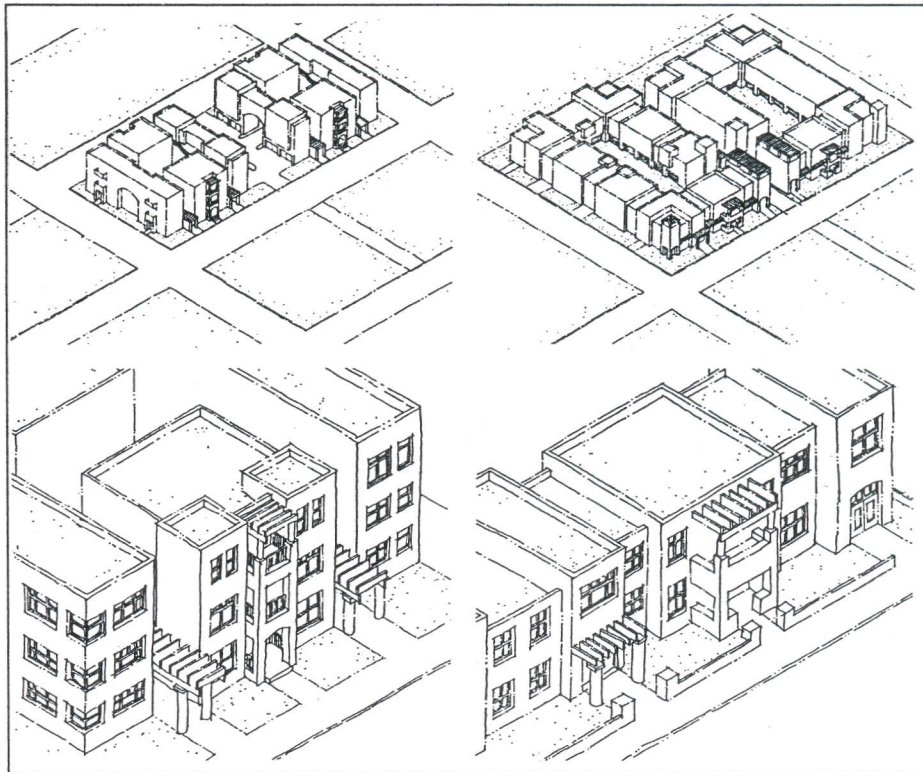


Figure 4. 15: These three corner blocks combines direct off-street parking with a “walk-in-drive” which also provides primary public access to mid-block gardens (Source: Katz 1994)

Streetwalls: Predominant visual characteristics of all building and their height, setbacks define the enclosure of the street. Setback lines and the percentage build-to at their edges create a fundamental rhythm between open space and built form on each block. Threshold elements at the setback line, for example; arcades, porches, stairs, balconies, doors and windows determine the life of the street (Figure 4. 16)



(a)



(b)

Figure 4.16: Architectural elements; porches, porticoes, bay windows and separate entries provide an active street edge (a) and (b) (Source: Calthorpe 1993).



Landscape: Regularly planted trees along blocks will establish the scale of the street and the sidewalk as well. The choice of particular types of trees and the pattern of their placement will affect light and shadow, colour views etc. In other words it affects all important aspects of the place. Public open - space types, (civic parks, neighbourhood parks etc.) should be designed to be inhabited, not only viewed. Semi - public open spaces (quads, courtyards, patios) are to give life and internal character to urban block ( Krier 1979, Moule and Polyzoides 1994, Duany and Zyberk 1992).

### **4.3.3. The Building**

Buildings are the smallest part of growth in the city. Their proper configuration and placement relative to each other determine the character of the settlement.

Use: The resultant conditions of Modernist Movement have resulted in exclusive zoning and the fragmentation of parts of the city from each other. Therefore, buildings should be designed by reference to their type, not solely their function. Buildings are to be organised by reference to dwelling, employment or institutional first uses and their definition is based on their common architectural ingredients (Figure 4. 17) (Moule and Polyzoides 1994).

Form: According to New Urbanists, there are two kinds of buildings: 'fabric' and 'monumental'. Fabric buildings should conform to all street and block-related rules and they should also be consistent with other buildings. On the other hand, monumental buildings should be free from all formal constraints. They should be unique as they are the expression of social meaning in the city (Moule and Polyzoides 1994).

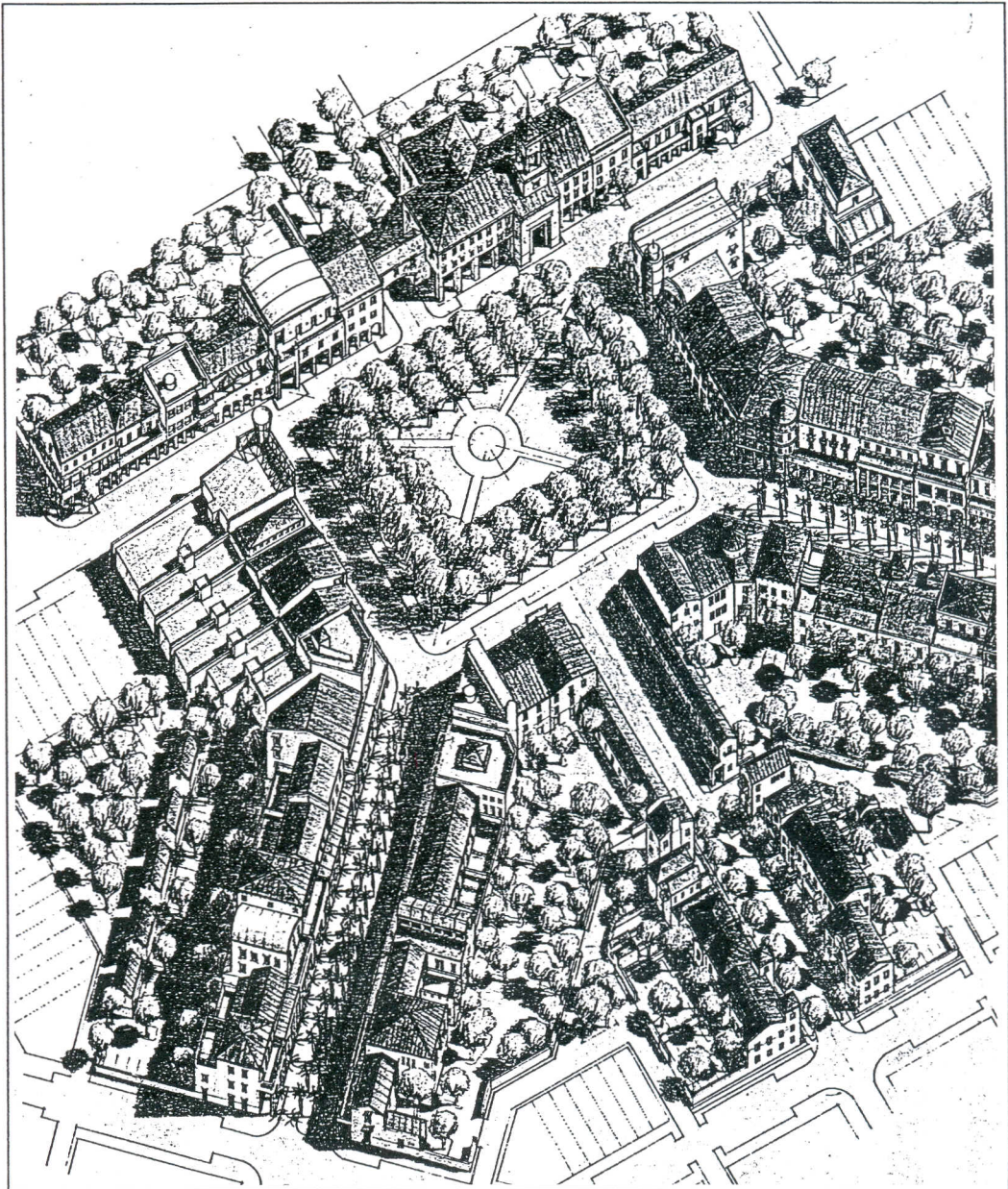
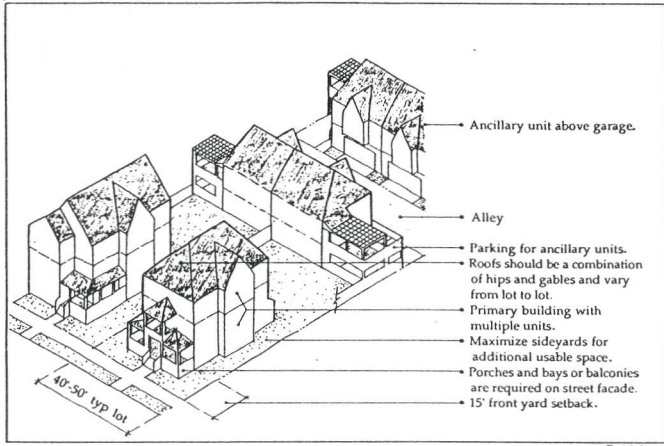


Figure 4. 17: A full range of building options are provided, defining more clear public realm with diversity of architectural expressions by the New Urbanists in New Village ( Katz 1994).

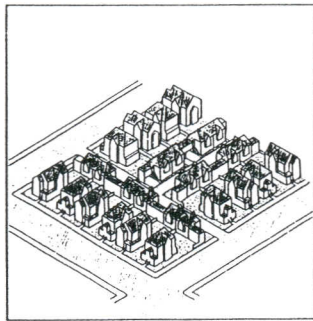
Density: “Floor Area Ratio (FAR) zoning regulations are totally abstract and favour the design of buildings as singular objects. They should be replaced with ‘building envelope guidelines’ that link entitlements with predictable physical and architectural definitions of the public realm” (Figure 4.18) ( Moule and Polyzoïdes 1994 p: xxxiii).



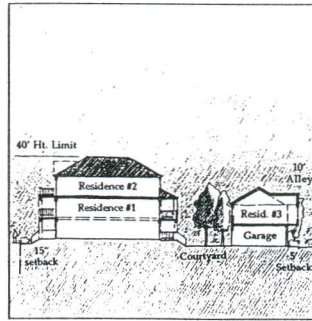


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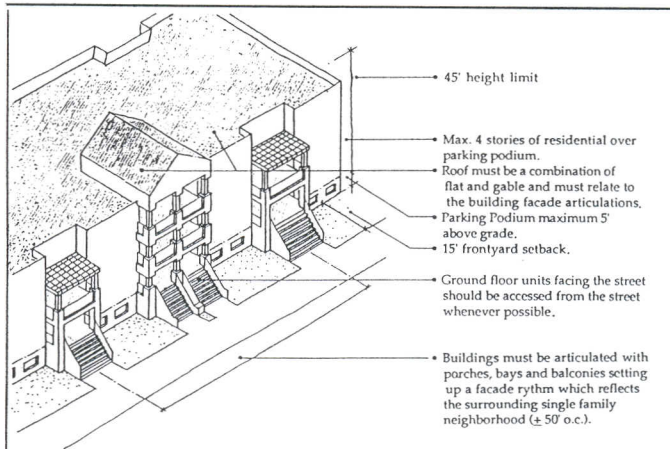
( a )



Typical Block Axonometric

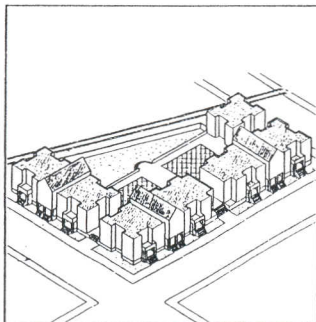


Typical Section

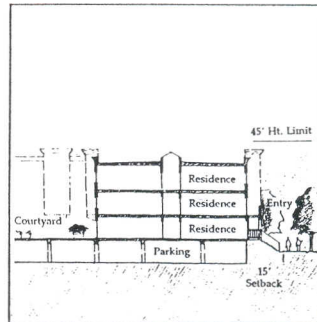


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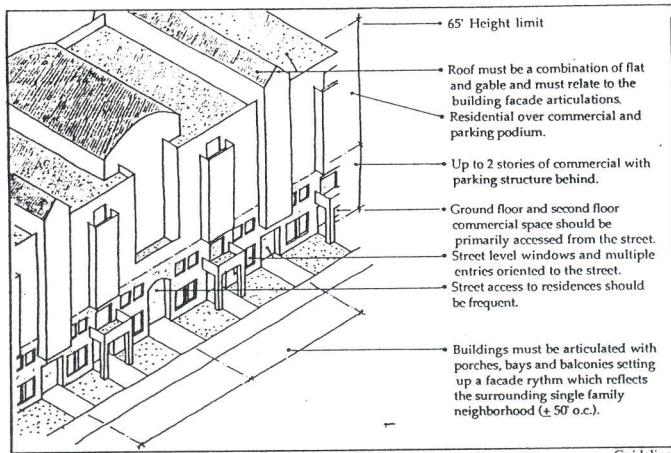
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Typical Block Axonometric

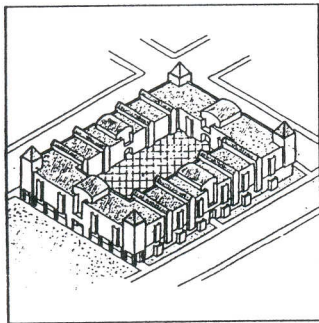


Typical Section

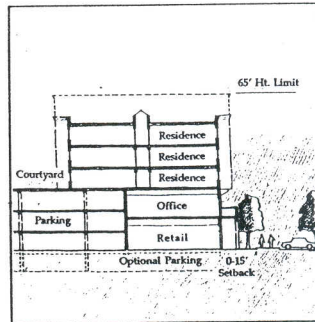


Guidelines

( c )



Typical Block Axonometric



Typical Section.

Figure 4. 18: Three different types of blocks have been proposed within the Jackson-Taylor master plan, figure ( a ) shows the building envelope of the community's mixed-use blocks, figures ( b ) and ( c ) shows the building envelope of the residential blocks (Duany and Zyberk 1991).

Architecture is deeply bound within the culture of each region of the country. Building types, not their styles, are to be the source of historical continuity in our cities. Further design attempts should be based on research that establishes the viability of historic, regional types and also suggest newly created or imported types which may have possible local applications ( Hall 1998).

The social content of buildings establishes their character and their scale. Buildings can be used for a variety of social ends: a) forming the public realm, b) expressing the importance of our public shared institutions, and, c) improving the daily working and life of people (Rossi 1996).



“Buildings are instruments for constructing time and place, not items to be consumed and discarded. For all practical and symbolic purposes, they are permanent fixtures in the landscape and in the city” (Moule and Polyzoides 1994 p: xxiv) Therefore, they should be designed with enough material and technical quality which allow their reuse and renovation.

#### 4.3.4. Coding

Any street, block and building design rules for public or private developments are designed and presented in the form of a code in Urban Coding Method. The codes are simply written and illustrated and they will be brief and intensely physical in their prescriptions.

The sensible application of codes should yield a diverse, beautiful and predictable fabric of buildings, open space and landscape that can structure villages, towns and cities. Architecture and urbanism can not be thought as separate phenomenon. Formal, social, economic, technical/functional issues should not be considered in isolation (Scully 1994).

The process of coding aims to guard the concept of traditional public realm allowing freedom for designers. It is in the balancing of public and private interests and concerns the future quality of life (Moule and Polyzoides 1994 ).

#### 4.4 The DPZ (Duany and Plater - Zyberk) Codes

“For a city to be well built, the exterior of buildings cannot be left to the wishes of private citizens. Everything in a street must be approved by public authorities and abide by general rules established for the design of streets. It is necessary to establish by law the sites on which buildings can be erected, but also the manner in which this should be done” (Laugier 1991 p: 95).

It is truly a fact that comprehensive building envelope guidelines and related frameworks are essential in order to reach a well-built physical environments. For that purpose, in their work, Duany and Zyberk realised that existing zoning ordinances and conventional planning attempts were impediments and insufficient techniques to

achieving more urbane communities. Conventional zoning frequently segregate the urban elements and activities, as a reaction to this pattern, they set out to reform zoning to the opposite - to connect, to aggregate, and to unify (Figure 4.19) (Kaliski 1997)

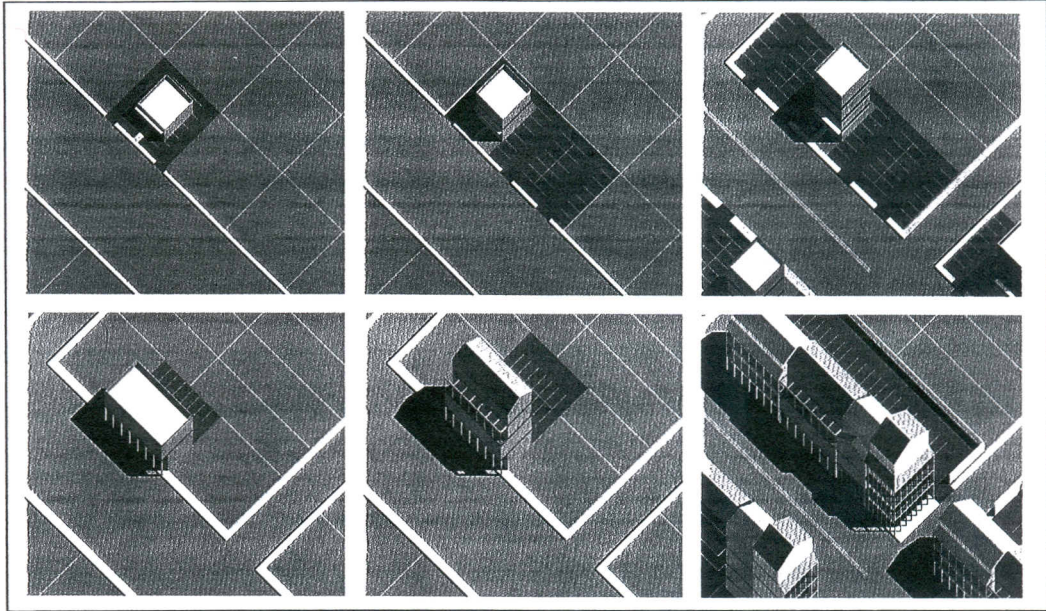


Figure 4.19: Sequential diagrams, illustrating the consequences of Riviera Beach's present and proposed codes show how both of the future scenarios would be realised. Excessive setbacks and parking requirements force buildings back from the street and away from each other as they increase in size ( top series), the resultant condition is large distances between buildings, sea of parking and a hostile pedestrian environment. By contrast ( bottom series ) urban coding aligns buildings with the street edge, relocates parking to the rear of each lot and creates arcades above the sidewalk (Source: Katz 1994).

In an urban and suburban world whose characteristics had been diminished by both 'the theories of Modernism' and 'the dull bureaucrats who write the planning ordinances', Duany and Zyberk displayed how to reverse the destructive theory by rewriting the idiot codes (Scully 1998).

The work of Duany and Zyberk began with the recognition that design affects behaviour. Also recognising that healthy communities are complex organic systems, Duany and Zyberk developed a methodology of town planning which respects and replicates this inherent complexity. They have gathered a basic set of design guidelines, based on the New Urbanist approach, which they have applied through planning process (Lennertz 1991).



It is, on the other hand, not a policy planning; it is just a “design”. It is about the definition of style, particularly revivalist style. In addition, it is not also a diminishing design freedom, instead, it is a method of design rooted historical precedent. It is an attitude of expression that values the cultural variety inherent in climatic, social, economic and technical difference. This method is also a professional ethic that stresses the integration of all architectural, engineering and design disciplines, the active collaboration of them and participation of the public in the design process. Above all, it is about ensuring that there is a public realm (Moule and Polyzoides 1994 ).

Socially and physically accessible and truly shared places can be provided through the principal of this method. Simply, these principles prefer the human scale over that of the auto, balance private interests with public interests and employ simple and physically determined principles over those that are complicated and purely legal-minded (Katz 1994).

The codes, as they have come to be standardised, consist of five documents: 1) Regulating Plan, 2) Urban Regulations, 3) Architectural Regulations, 4) Street Sections, and 5) Landscape Regulations. Occasionally, a summary of standard building types and a plan for a composite block are included to illustrate the Urban Regulations (Lennertz 1991).

#### **4.4.1. The Regulating Plan:**

This drawing fixes, with technical precision, the information which is more loosely supplied in the Master Plan (the master plan is the composite drawing which incorporates all critical information on the town plan)

The Regulating Plan identifies the street types which are shown in the Street Sections, and shows the public tracts reserved for squares, parks, and civic buildings. It also shows the platting of the private building lots and assigns their compatible building types (Figure 4. 20) (Figure 4. 21).

#### **4.4.2. The Urban Regulations:**

This matrix regulates the aspects of the private building types which pertain to and help form the public realm. It has different features from conventional zoning codes not only in format, but also, rather than being proscriptive, it is specifically prescriptive. For example, all buildings must place a specified percentage of their street facades on a frontage line, and parking is allocated to the rear of the lots to avoid discontinuity in the street frontage. Social issues are also different from the conventional approach; for example, buildings with rental apartments on single family lots are encouraged to provide a range of ages and income levels in all housing districts. On the other hand, the Urban Regulations encourage the provision of certain building elements which influence social behaviour such as stoops, porches and garden walls (Lennertz 1991).

#### **4.4.3. The Architectural Regulations:**

This matrix regulates configurations, materials and techniques of construction. The configuration controls are intended to create harmony between buildings. The control of materials and methods encourage new buildings to get relations with the history, geography and climate of the place. It is because urban quality could be enhanced by architectural coherence (Lennertz 1991).

Only private buildings are subject to the provision of the Urban and Architectural Regulations, as private buildings are the material used to define public spaces. Public buildings, on the other hand, are monuments, and should be different from this basic material (Punter 1996).



#### **4.4.3. The Street Types**

This drawing describe the character of the public spaces. The intention here is to make pedestrian feel safe and comfortable, as well as to provide for sufficient automobile movement. The proportion of building height to street width is clearly specified, together with the width of travel and parking lanes, the location of trees and the sidewalk width (Lennertz 1991).

A full range of streets may include highway, avenues, and boulevards to carry regional traffic, streets for high density residential and commercial traffic, roads and lanes for low density residential areas, and service alleys (Figure 4. 25) On the other hand solar standards of any site are considered and some definitions about the issue are developed by Urban Coding Method (Figure 4. 26) (Davis 1998).

#### **4.4.4. The Landscape Regulations**

These specify the planting for streets, squares and parks to support the character of each place “With few exceptions, native species are preferred, and planting on private lots is limited to species selected for drought-tolerance and suitability as habitats for local fauna” (Lennertz 1991 p: 96). The choices are limited, and directed toward the goal of achieving a naturalistic reforestation of the town (Figure 4. 27).

## 4.5. Prominent Samples Which were Built Using Urban Coding Method

From the emergence of the New Urbanist approach and the Urban Coding Method (1980s), several implementations have been made in order to take the media attention and, to prove the advantages of the method as well.

### 4.5.1. Seaside

Type of Project: Coastal Resort Community in the Suburb.

Project Location: Walton County, Florida, 1981.

Project Area: 80 acres (32ha), projected population 2000 (Figure 4. 28 ).

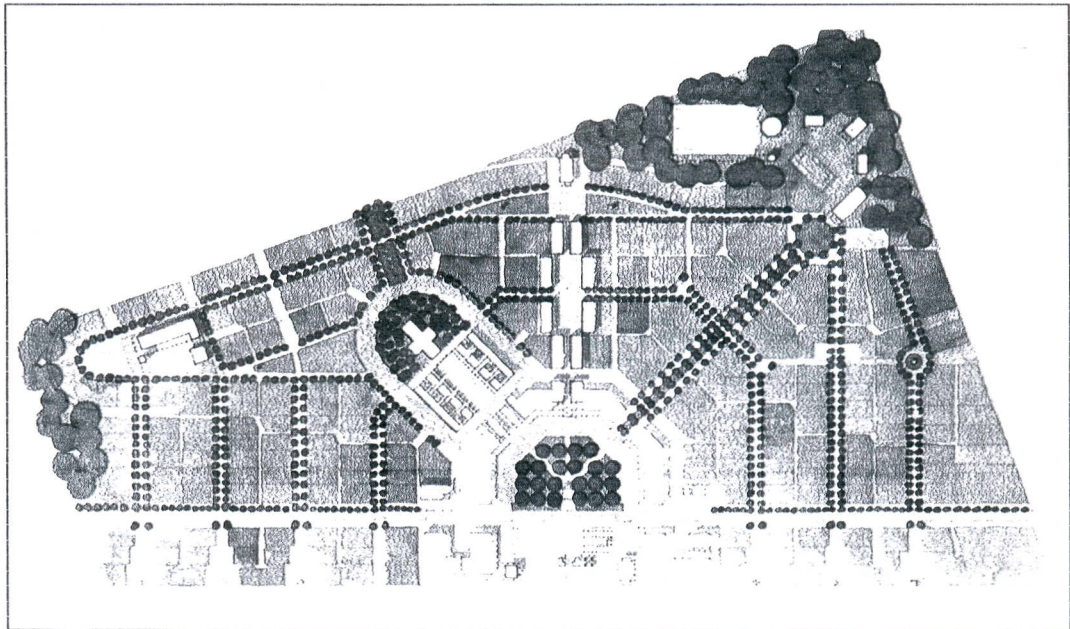


Figure 4. 28: The Seaside plan was designed to optimise waterfront access and views for all of the town's residents, not just those with beachfront homesites (Source: Katz 1994).

The project of Seaside has a great importance in both the New Urbanist approach and also American planning history. Since its founding, a great media attention has been focused on this distinctive project. For example, in 1990, in 'Time magazine', Seaside has been handled with great attention. In addition, numerous television networks have



featured the town, as did Prince Charles in his 'BBC Television', show and subsequent book on architecture (Katz 1994).

The city of Seaside is, in a sense, an experiment in New Urbanism. The plan of the town was devised by Andres Duany and Elisabeth Plater-Zyberk and was developed by Robert Davis.

The town itself embodies many of New Urbanist movement's fundamental ideas, such as walkability and a sense of space. Seaside's high visibility and innovative planning concepts have already helped to spark a broad rethinking of the design of America's new communities. More than its outward appearance, Seaside also represents a departure in terms of the urban principles and working methods that led to it (Figure 4. 29 ) (Hall 1998).

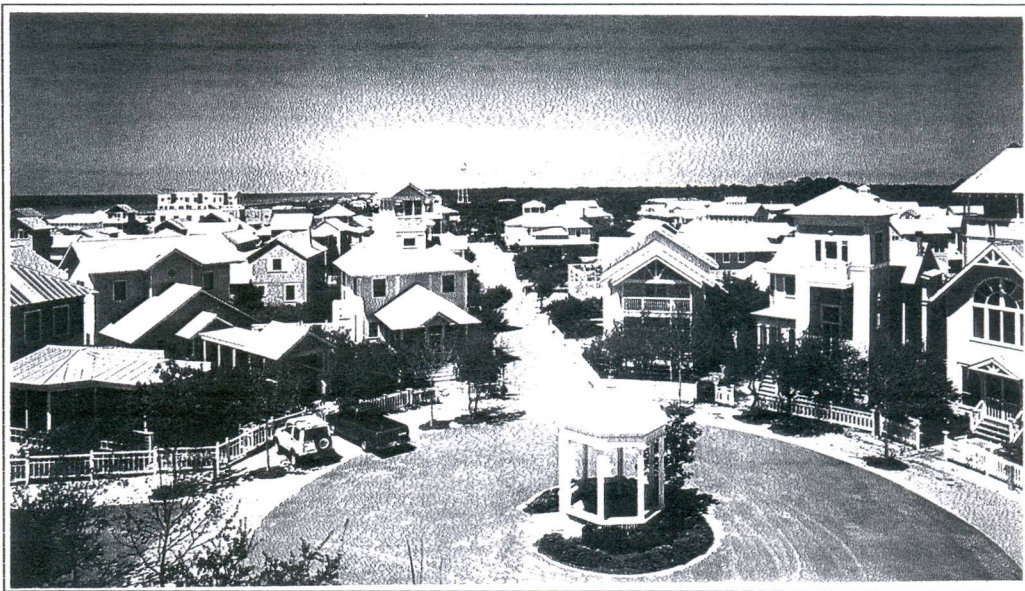


Figure 4. 29: A view from the Seaside (Source: Katz 1994).

Seaside attempts to provide a place for people to live that foster a positive relationship between the individual and the community, the environment. To achieve this aspiration, Seaside employs a strict building code as well as creative uses of streets and other public areas (Figure 4. 30) (Duany and Zyberk 1991).

Seaside's housing code entitled the Seaside Urban Code and Construction Regulations, is regulated by the Seaside Architectural Review Committee and seeks to propagate diversity in structures while maintaining the city's goal.

Private buildings are allowed to fill in around the public spaces, bringing great definition to the plan, the porches and the small front yards accommodate neighbourly interaction by allowing for a spacious sitting area that is close enough to the sidewalk and street to allow conversation. Several of the ideas first developed in the Seaside code were the basis for the Traditional Neighbourhood Development (TND) Guidelines.

Seaside's public spaces are not only parks or squares but also the streets, boulevards, walks and natural features of the site (beach, dunes etc.). Not unlike other New Urbanist cities, the streets are narrow, encourage parking, straight, and lined with homes as well as commercial development. (Figure 4. 31).

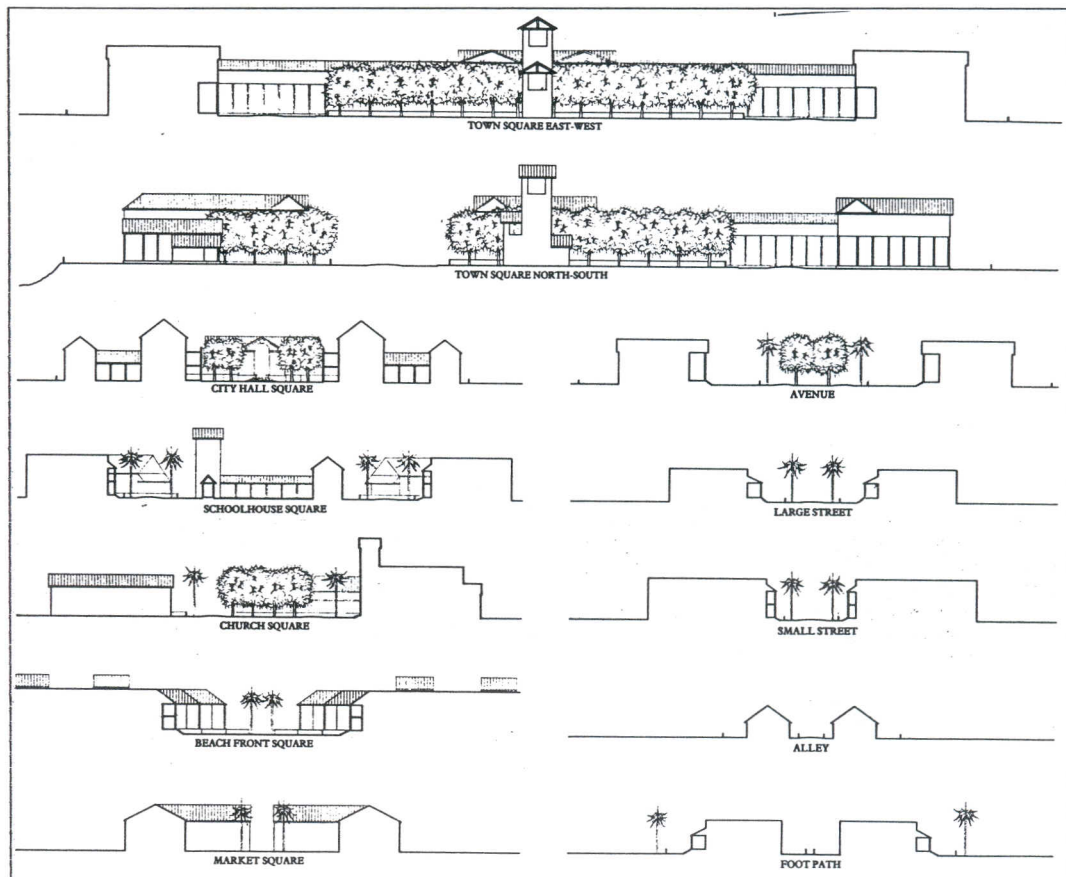


Figure 4. 31: Sections of Seaside's street types (Source: Katz 1994).



The public facilities of the town include a school, a town hall, an open air market, a tennis club, a tented amphitheatre and a post office. Shops and offices are also part of the plan.

#### 4.5.2. Kentlands

Type of Project: Incorporating a Shopping Centre into a Traditional Suburban Setting

Project Location: Gaithersburg, Maryland, 1988.

Project Area: 356 acres (143 ha. ), projected population 5000 residents, 1600 dwelling units (Figure 4. 32).



Figure 4. 32: The community plan of Kentlands include four neighbourhoods and a large retail centre. This version of retail centre (right in plan) has three main streets, each terminated by an anchor department store (Source: University of NY. Environmental Science and Forestry 1998).

The town of Kentlands is the first application of the (TND) principles to real, year-round, working community. “Unlike Seaside, which some critics dismiss as an isolated resort town and, therefore, not a true test of the TND Concept, this community lies squarely in the path of a suburban growth surrounded by housing subdivisions, shopping centres and office campuses” (Katz 1994 p:31).

In order to incorporate a regional shopping centre into the town, a series of designs were made by several architects and the final scheme was attached to the street grid of the Kentlands neighbourhoods in such a way that residents will easily walk into the centre of town from the neighbourhoods.

The town includes 4 neighbourhoods, (Midtown, Old Farm, the Hill District, the School District), each containing elements of residential, office (1 million sf. ), civic, commercial (1,2 million sf. ), cultural and retail usage (Duany and Zyberk 1991).

#### 4.5.3. Wellington

Type of Project: Integration of Multiple Neighbourhoods in a Lakefront Town.

Project Location: Palm Beach Country, Florida, 1989.

Project Area: 1500 acres (600 ha. ), 4400 Dwelling Units (Figure 4. 33).

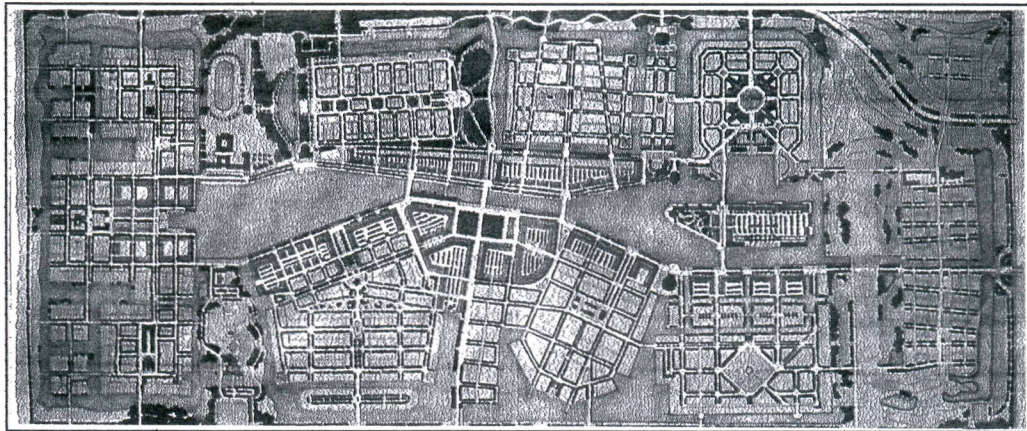


Figure 4. 33: The Proposed Town of Wellington Plan. It provides water views and access to the lake front from many points, the enhanced public realm create a tangible benefit for the entire community ( Source: Katz 1994).



Wellington is a new town of ten neighbourhoods. The new town of Wellington, at the western edge of the existing Wellington, aims to ease the area's congestion by creating a community with a large workplace element to balance an abundance of housing in the adjacent town (Duany and Zyberk 1991).

At Wellington, a lake serves as the focus for the assemblage of the neighbourhoods, and canals serve as surrogate greenbelts separating them.

A master plan, and a series of shared technical requirements unify the neighbourhoods, each of which was designed by a different designer.

The central lake is lined by a continuous boulevards which links the commercial buildings of each neighbourhood. A secondary inland boulevard connects the civic squares of each neighbourhood, providing a simple bus route, which is within a five-minute walk of all residents (Katz 1994).

Although the neighbourhoods are characterised differently by different canal and street arrangements, each one has a full range of uses. Workplace, shopping and apartments are near the lake front boulevard. A wide range of housing options (apartments, single-family homes, courtyard apartments, side-yard houses, rear yard accessory units) are offered in proximity to the community's jobs. Housing affordability was a key concern of the town's planning team. Rental units above stores, and in the backyards of principal residents (rarely seen in the suburbs) are included among the community's mix of residential types (Calthorpe 1993).

The civic squares at the centre of each neighbourhood has a child care facility, a corner grocery store and a meeting hall. One neighbourhood is specialised to receive a university campus.

"Wellington building types, as coded by the Urban and Architectural Regulations, represent a virtual catalogue of current suburban types, adapted to behave in an urbanistically responsible manner" (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p: 64).

If innovative towns like this could proceed, it would enable to be tested its basic premise: that problems of existing poorly planned areas can be fixed by the buildings of new places designed to compensate for old ills" (Katz 1994 p:105).

#### 4.5.4. Playa Vista

Type of Project: Urban Renewal Project.

Project Location: Los Angeles, California, 1989.

Project Area: 900 acres (360 ha) (Figure 4. 35).

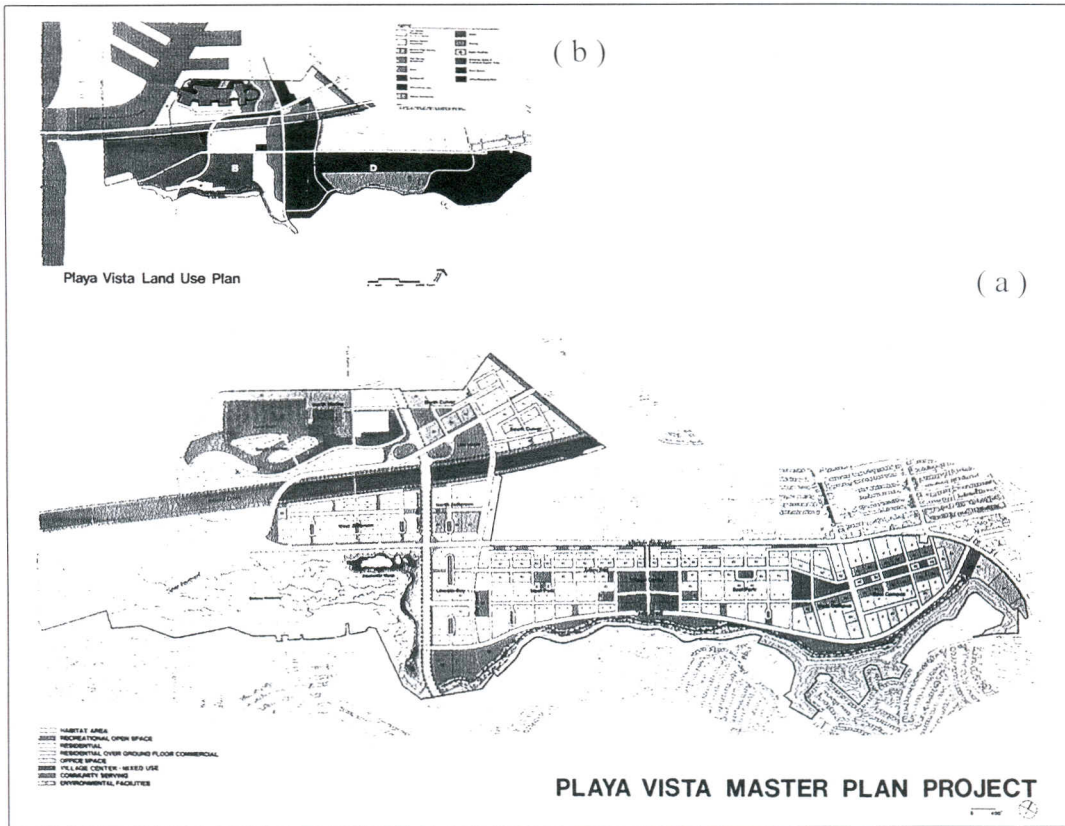


Figure 4.34: The Master Plan for Playa Vista (a) organizes a sequence of neighbourhoods within a system of streets, open spaces and parks. The plan's fine-grained mix of uses contrasts with an earlier land-use plan (b) that is more typical of conventional suburban development (Source: Katz 1994).

Playa Vista renewing project is regarded as one of the most ambitious efforts towards reversing today's prevalent and destructive pattern of auto-oriented sprawl. The proposed community incorporates a broad range of planning and environmental initiatives. Unlike several earlier development schemes, the current master plan sets a



varied mix of land uses. The design process has also more responsive to regional growth issues and local concerns than were the previous efforts (Katz 1994).

“The Playa Vista master plan defines a balanced community of low-to mid-rise buildings with a strong emphasis on the provision of a generous public realm” (Figure 4. 35) (Katz 1994 p:180).

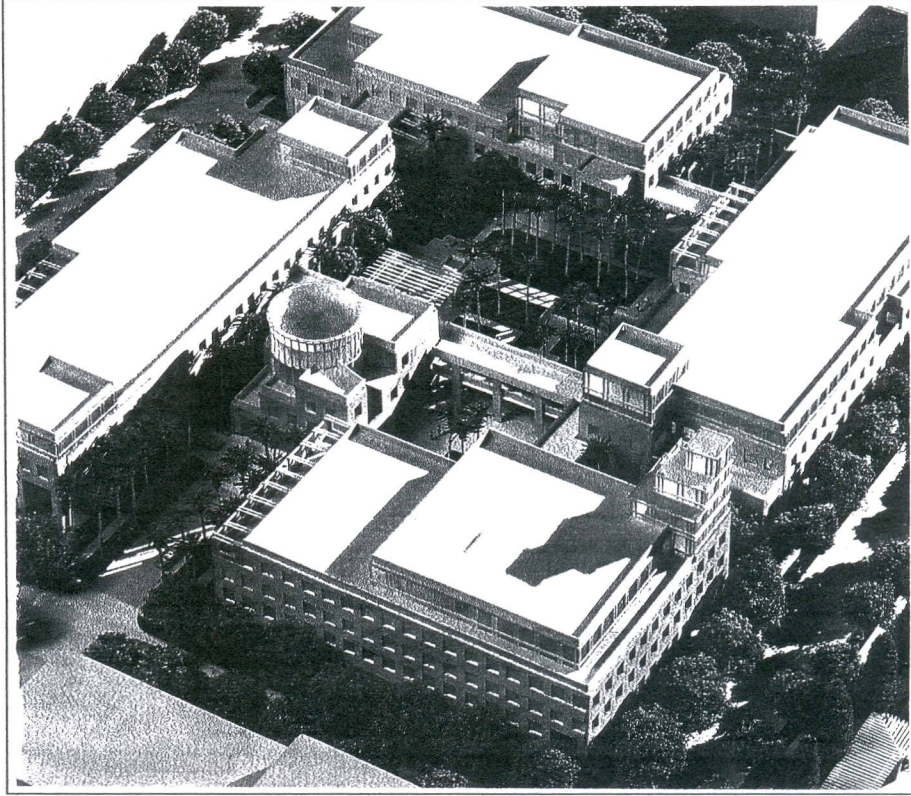


Figure 4. 35: Low- and mid- rise office buildings define the perimeter of blocks in the district. This configuration creates a courtyard within each block’s centre (Source: Katz 1994).

Over half of Playa Vista’s site has been set aside for various forms of open space. This include major parks, playing fields, small neighbourhood parks and squares (Figure 4. 36).

Besides its hierarchical open space types, the street pattern of Playa Vista seek to balance the needs of both pedestrian and automobile (Figure 4. 37)

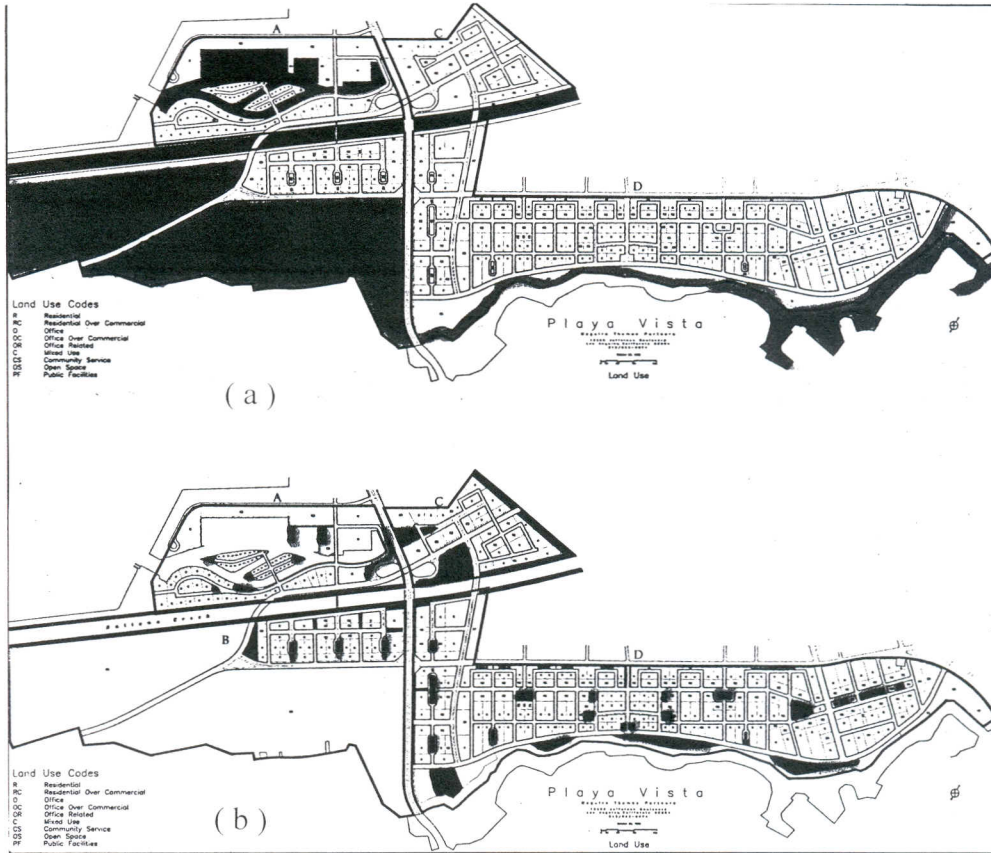


Figure 4. 36: Regional open – space areas include the 260 acre (a), more than 40 small neighbourhood parks are within or adjacent to the community’s grid of streets and blocks (b) (Katz 1994).

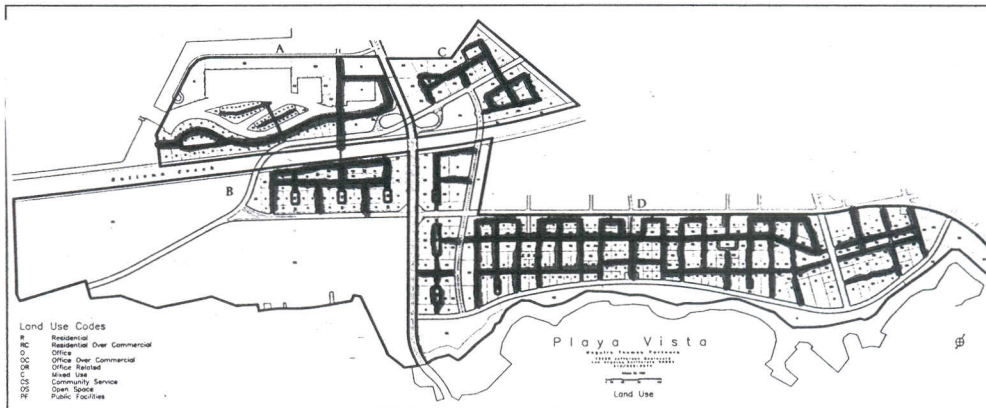


Figure 4. 37: The grid pattern of local streets and blocks plays a key role in shaping Playa Vista’s urban character (Source: Katz 1994).



Each neighbourhood was designed to provide an array of such uses within a comfortable walking distance. The plan also includes several special districts such as an office campus, village centre and marina (Katz 1994) (Figure 4. 38).

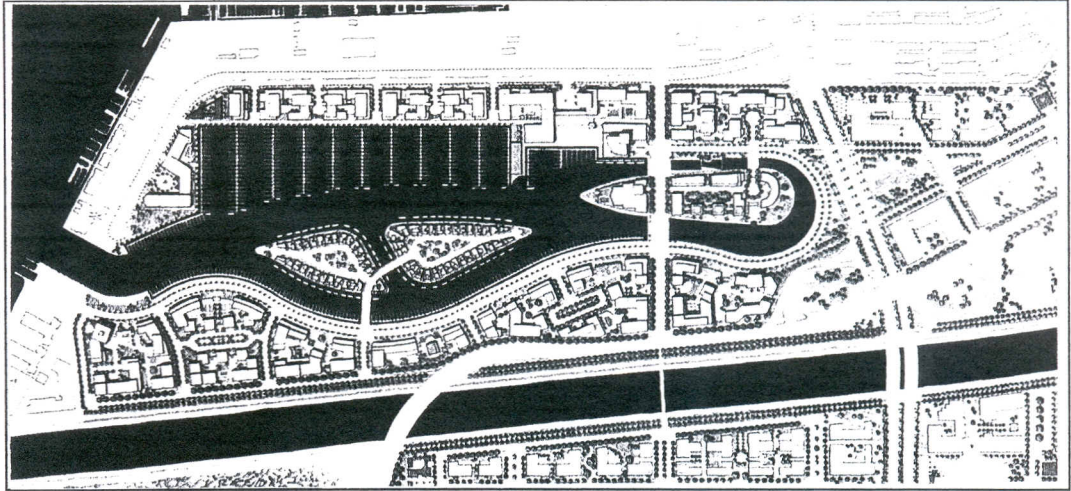


Figure 4. 38: Playa Vista's marina district combines public boat berthing facilities with residential, hotel and commercial uses (Source: Katz 1994).

Playa Vista seeks to reintroduce a new standard of density into Los Angeles's urban framework. The project's scale, orientation to a complete regional infrastructure and incorporation of measures responsive to community demands (affordable housing, recycling of waste water, restoration of neighbourhood wetlands) go far beyond the historic and vernacular impulses which New Urbanism urge to create (Kaliski 1997).

By emphasising pedestrian orientation, hierarchy of streets, spatial types, the height and massing of buildings takes its features from neo- traditional principles.

This project has been cited by the Southern California Association of Governments for its "potential for making a significant contribution to the implementation of regional policy"(Katz 1994 p:181).

#### 4.5.5. Capital City Renaissance

Type of Project: An Inner City Redevelopment Plan.

Project Location: Trenton, New Jersey, 1989.

Project Area: 600 acres (240 ha.) (Figure 4. 39).

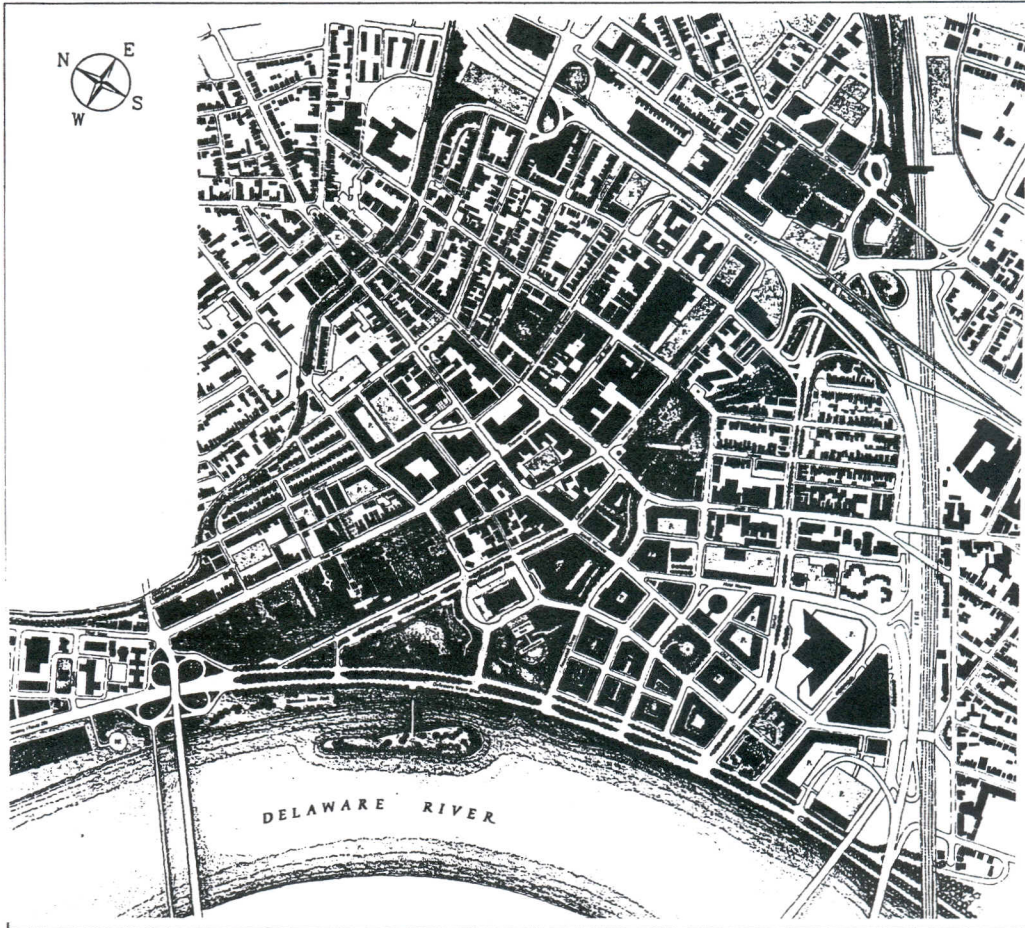


Figure 4. 39: The Capital City Renaissance Plan (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).



This revitalisation plan for the Capital District of Trenton, New Jersey is the result of a joint venture between the Liebman – Melting Partnership and Duany and Plater Zyberk. The plan was developed publicly in two sequential design charrettes which consider the history of city, the needs of its citizens, and the possibilities for its future growth (Calthorpe 1993).

The Capital City Plan proposes several major interventions. It re-constructs a street network in areas which were demolished for car parking during the 1960s. It creates a continuous sidewalk – based pedestrian network with primary retail streets and secondary service streets (Figure 4. 40).

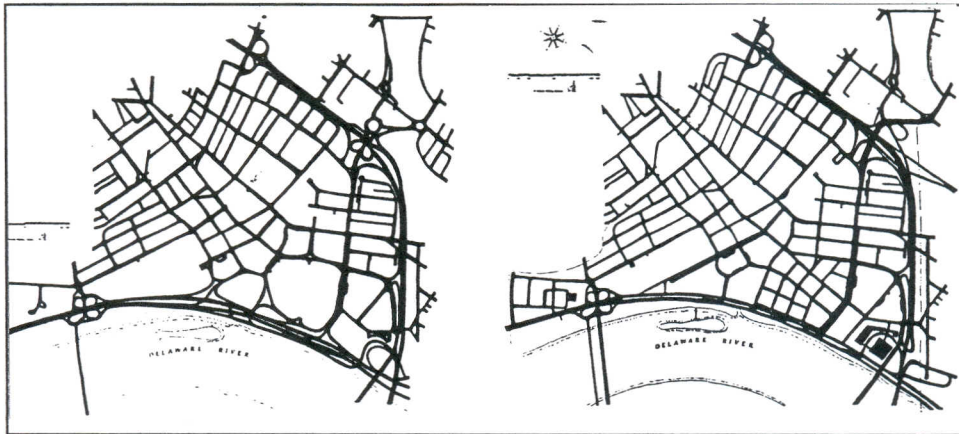


Figure 4. 40: A drawing of the existing street network showing large areas of discontinuity (left picture), a drawing showing the reestablishment of the street network (right picture) (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).

It limits building volume to distribute density and land value equitably and predictably. (Duany and Zyberk 1991). “It also reclaims the Delaware River embankment as an integral part of the city’s public realm, replacing the unnecessary expressway with a drive and riverfront park” (Duany and Zyberk 1991 p: 70).

Capital City Plan is one example which shows how urban coding method can be successfully applied to higher density areas. A one – page code regulates urban space and building type by prescribing height, setback, and ground floor use, as well as basic architectural standards such as the proportioning of wall surfaces. Today, the plan and code are guiding new building in the Capital District (Figure 4. 41).

#### 4.5.6. Cité Internationale

Type of Project: Converting leftover parcels into more defined urban spaces.

Project Location: Montreal, Canada, 1990.

Project Area: 100 acres (40 ha.) (Figure 4. 42).

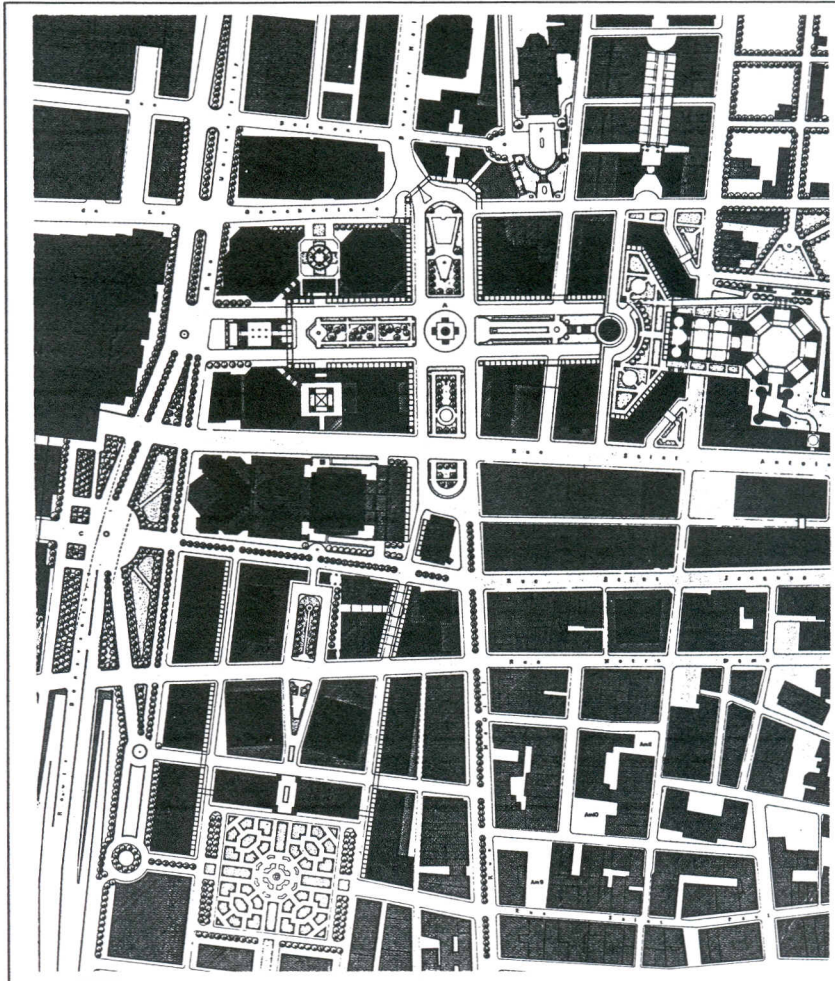


Figure 4. 42: The proposed master plan of Cité Internationale, connects the old city and central business district by converting numerous underutilized leftover parcels within the existing plan into more defined urban spaces (Source: Katz 1994).

The proposed Cité Internationale Plan focuses on a part of Montreal referred to by locals as ‘the hole’. A gap in the city’s urban fabric was created by the underground roadway in the mid- 1960s. Much of the surrounding area has remained undeveloped



with parking lots, block – long cuts which have inhibited pedestrian activity in the area (Figure 4. 43).

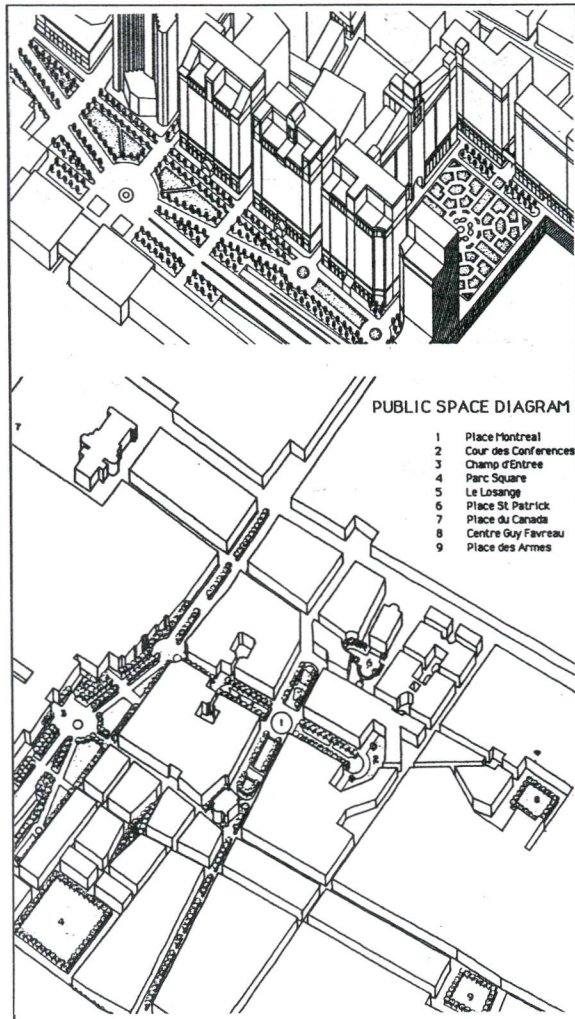


Figure 4. 43: The Cité Internationale plan incorporates adjacent streets, squares and landmarks into a larger network of civic spaces, each with its own defined physical form and symbolic character (Source: Katz 1994).

Architects Peterson and Littenberg's plan for Montreal's old city and its financial district was chosen over 93 other traces in a competition. Their scheme, based on the New Urbanist principles seeks to restore and enhance the urban fabric in an area scarred by the insertion of 2 expressways in the 1960s. (Figure 4. 44) (Duany and Zyberk 1991). The major public rooms a) Place Montreal (Figure 4.45 ) , b) Park Square, c) Champs d' Entrée give a new structure to the place.

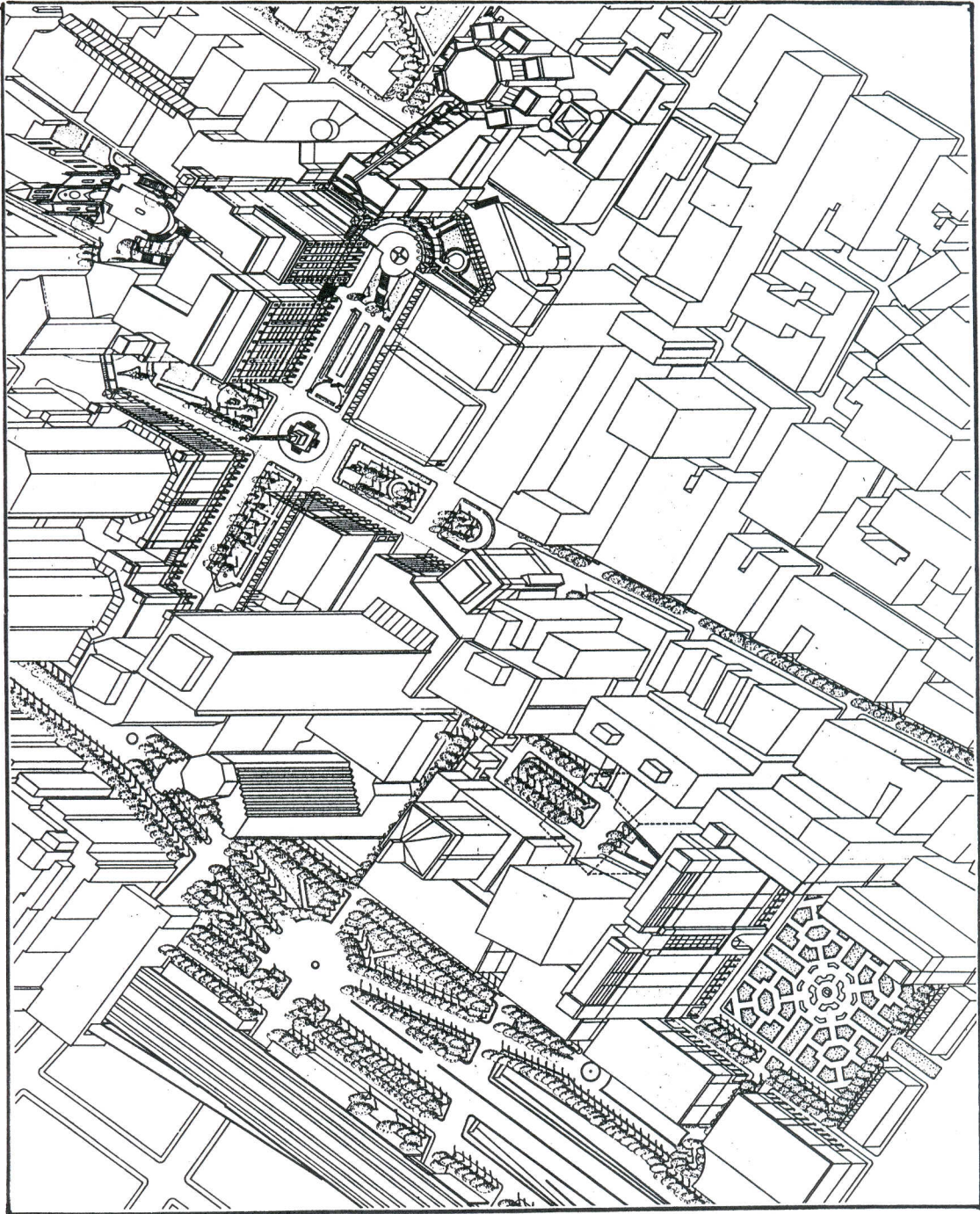


Figure 4. 44: The Cité Internationale Axonometric View (Katz 1994).



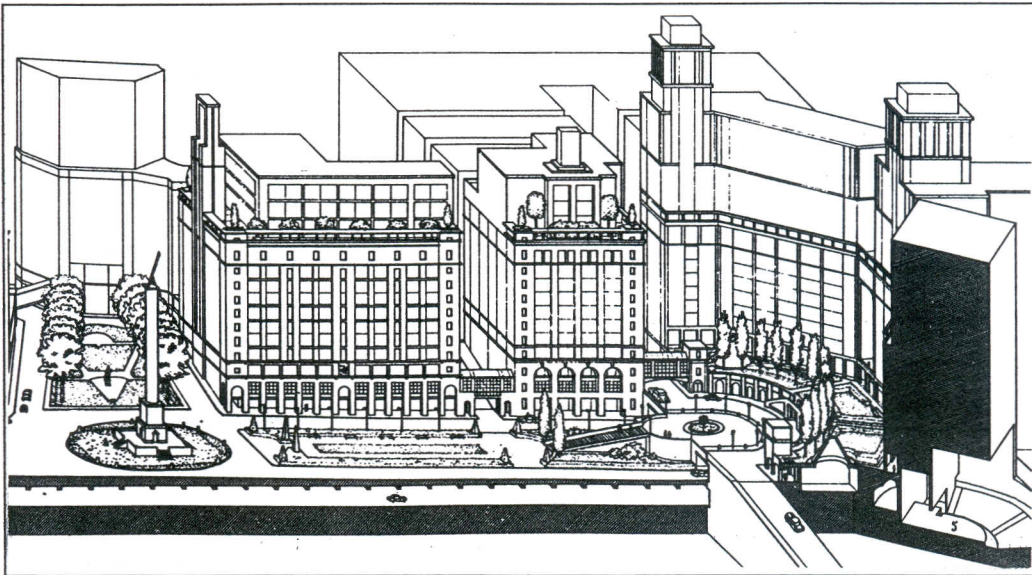


Figure 4. 45: The Section of Place Montreal. While this design accommodates the functional needs of automobile access, it also contributes to the making of a prominent civic space within the district (Source: Katz 1994).

Combining new large floorplate buildings with other historic ones, the scheme's innovative lot assembly and setback guidelines enable its new civic spaces to be created without any public purchase of private land. And, this plan will retain or in any cases increase the buildable potential of each owner's property (Katz 1994).

"The summary of typological elements can be thought of as a 'kit of parts' for the design of the Cité Internationale. These design elements are relatively few in number and simple. They are used to resolve problems of both function and composition and create a sense of place within the plan" (Figure 4. 46) (Katz 1994 p:123).

On the other hand, implementation of the Cité Internationale plan is described in a set of detailed guidelines that illustrate specific lot assembly and urban design strategies for each block and parcel in the district (Figure 4. 47).

## **Chapter 5**

# **EVALUATION OF THE URBAN CODING METHOD AS A RECIPE FOR TODAY'S ILL DEVELOPMENT**

Recently, in today's world, people gradually sense that something is wrong with the places where they live, work and go about their daily lives. We hear this unhappiness expressed in phrases like 'no sense of place' and 'the loss of community'.

Urbanisation, on the other hand, is not a coincidental phenomenon. There is a strong interaction between the structure of the society and the urbanisation process itself. Most countries throughout the world have been in the process of searching new methods and ways in order to establish a healthy interaction between 'urbanisation' and the 'structure of the society' to regain the concepts of 'sense of place' and 'public realm'. But, unfortunately, we have not achieved to provide a healthy interaction and failed to connect elements in a coherent way. As a result, our cities have come out as ill – planned, ill – defined, unhealthy and ugly places because of political, legal and technical reasons.

The everyday environments of our time, the places where we live and work are composed of 'dead patterns'. The patterns fail to invite us to participate in the connectivity of the world, they frustrate our biological and psychological needs. There are of course some reasons that contributed to this consequences.

### **5.1. Zoning Regulations**

When industry had reached an enormous scale; noise, dirt and smell of factories affected city life. Civic authorities decided that they had to be separated from everything else, particularly residential neighbourhoods. Authority regarded 'single- use zoning' as a reasonable response against industrialisation (Sorkin 1998).

Gradually, zoning itself, began to overshadow all the historic elements of civic art and civic life. For instance; because, the democratic masses of people used their cars to shop, and masses of cars required parking lots, shopping was declared an unpleasant



industrial activity around which people should not be allowed to live. This tended to destroy age- old physical relationships between shopping and living (Kunstler 1996).

What zoning produces in all over the world is suburban sprawl. Its chief characteristics are the strict separation of human activities, a compulsory driving to get from one activity to another. After all, the basic idea of zoning is that every activity demands a separate zone of its own. For people to live around shopping are thought harmful and indecent. Even people are not allowed to be walking distance with them (Kunstler 1996).

Zoning put all workplaces in separate office ‘parks’ or industrial ‘parks’ and make sure nobody can walk to them either. As for public places such as; squares, parks, etc. Zoning never cares about them. Authority thinks that they cannot afford them as all funds have been spent for huge highways and collector roads (Smith 1994).

The model of human habitat dictated by zoning is a formless, soul – less, centerless, demoralising mess. It disables whole classes of decent, normal citizens. It ruins the air we breathe, it corrupts and deadens our spirit.

On the other hand, the construction industry likes it because it requires great amount of equipment and personnel. Car dealers love it, politicians used to love it because it produced big short- term profits and short- term revenue gains, but they are all mixed up about it as the voters do not want more of the same built around them. They are, on the other hand, against ‘growth’. People sense that new construction is only going to make the place where they live worse. So people become NIMBYs (not in my back yard) and BANANAs (build absolutely nothing anywhere near anything) (Kunstler 1996).

Surely, this kinds of a way of thinking were created by the development pattern of zoning.

## **5.2. Drawbacks in the Realm of Creating Urban Form in Turkey**

From the foundation of the Turkish Republic, we have constantly built and spoiled our cities.

In our country, the rate of population increase is about three- percent Per year (3%). Even if the migration from the rural areas to the urban areas is underestimated, since 1950,

every year production of 400.000 new dwelling units are necessary for our country. And, it means that, 10 storeys, 10.000 new apartment blocks with 4 houses on each floor are required. (Altiner and Akay 1994). Therefore, it is so obvious that one of the most significant problem in Turkey is to produce dwelling units. However, from the foundation of Turkish Republic, only the quantital side of the problem has been considered; others, such as the quality of housing, environmental quality of them, and in what ways they would affect the other parts of the city have been neglected.

Rapid urbanisation has created unliveable cities in Turkey. And, the main reason of this was 'loss of control' and 'plan – less cities'.

We have not exactly understood the meaning and importance of planning. We have assumed it as dividing land into plots. It would be said that, today's classical planning approach is a ridiculous, insufficient method as it declares unclear restrictions and deals with unnecessary details without a consistent implementation program.

Planners, have a tendency of considering built environments as 'roofs' on the maps. Architects, on the other hand, regarded buildings as isolated objects not as a part of the built environment.

In Urban Coding Method, as it was cited in the fourth chapter, there are 3 forming elements; the street, the block and the building. Urban Coding methods systematically determine these 3 forming elements in a detailed way. For instance; streets are handled and determined considering a) pattern, b) hierarchy, c) figure and d) detail of them. Urban blocks are determined considering a) size, b) configuration, c) streetground, d) parking, e) streetwalls, f) landscape of them, and, buildings are determined considering a) use, b) form, c) density of them. Therefore, this method concerns every detail related with built environment. The concepts of 3 dimensional way of thinking, street usage, human scale, public realm which we have lost are achieved by means of such a coherent, detailed method.

Lack of education, lack of assuming responsibility, lack of creativity and courage of designers, their surrendering manner towards existing rules and policies has yielded dramatic physical consequences in our country.

In fact, the main reason which has spawned to undesirable urban areas for years is the 'prohibitionist bureaucratic approach'. Our conventional planning manner is



‘proscriptive’, on the other hand, Urban Coding method is ‘prescriptive’, it sets down rules and states what should and should not happen in certain circumstances.

There are numerous insufficient additions and drawbacks in our conventional zoning regulations, here, it would be beneficial to express some of them. For example;

In our country, too often the designer’s and planners contribution becomes an after-the- fact cosmetic treatment of spaces that are ill- shaped and ill- planned for public use.

Decisions about growth patterns are made from 2 dimensional land- use plans without considering the 3 dimensional relationships between the buildings and spaces and without a real understanding of human behaviours. In this common process, urban space is seldom even thought of as an exterior volume with properties of shape, scale and with connections to other spaces.

Landscape regulations, the importance of detailed street design, local vernacular inputs about the site and architectural values are usually neglected in the design process.

On the other hand, we have not achieved to create places where working and living activities are at the same area. As a result of conventional zoning, living and working activities have been severely separated. The concept of ‘employee basis’ has never been considered and this has resulted in great problems now we face such as; traffic congestion between downtown and those dormitory urban areas, the loss of identity and ineffective urban life (Altiner and Akay 1994).

In addition to these, there are some unclear restrictions which we had to abide by for years;

According to our ‘building code’, cellar floor and the attic of the houses cannot be inhabited. It is so amazing that the ‘townhouse’ of the Western countries which the New Urbanism proposed, is being used successfully in that countries (Figure 5.1).

This type of settlement is not allowed to inhabit according to our ‘by – law’ as the cellar and the attic of the houses are regarded as unhealthy for human beings. Fifty years ago these areas (attic and cellar) might have been harmful, but now, this restriction is a nonsense.

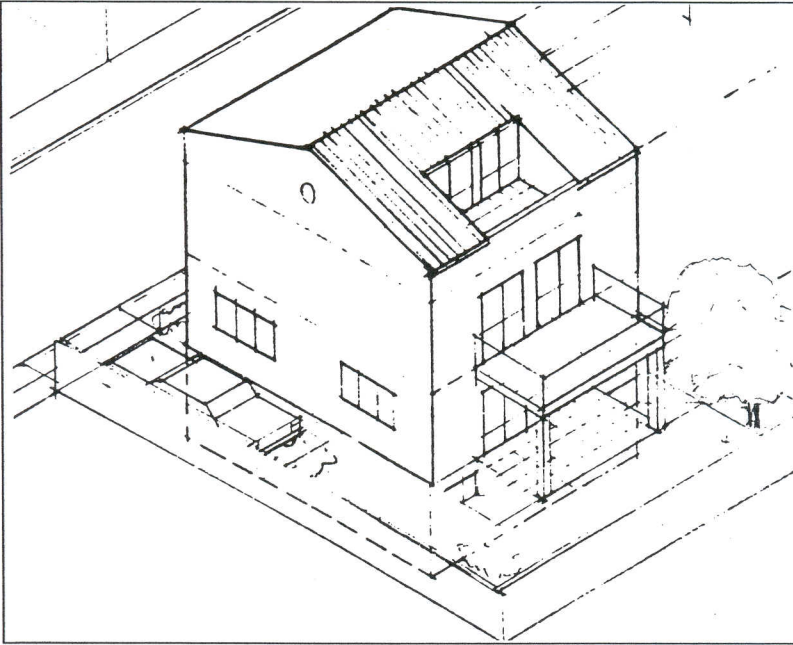


Figure 5.1: The townhouse of the Western countries is not allowed to build in our country (Source: Altiner and Akay 1994).

Another striking example is that, at the initial years of the Turkish Republic, German city planners were nominated for the planning action of Ankara. They brought the '3m. side- yard' setback rule for 2 storeys houses and imposed it to Ankara (Figure 5. 2).

6m. distance between 2 storeys buildings provides effective sunlight for both floors. In addition, German planners allocated 5m. 'front – yard' setback for car parking (Altiner and Akay 1994).

However, the validity of this rule for our life style and our climatic conditions were controversial, because in our country, the beam of sun is much vertical than other cold European countries. Therefore, direct sunlight is not a desirable feature for our country in every circumstances.



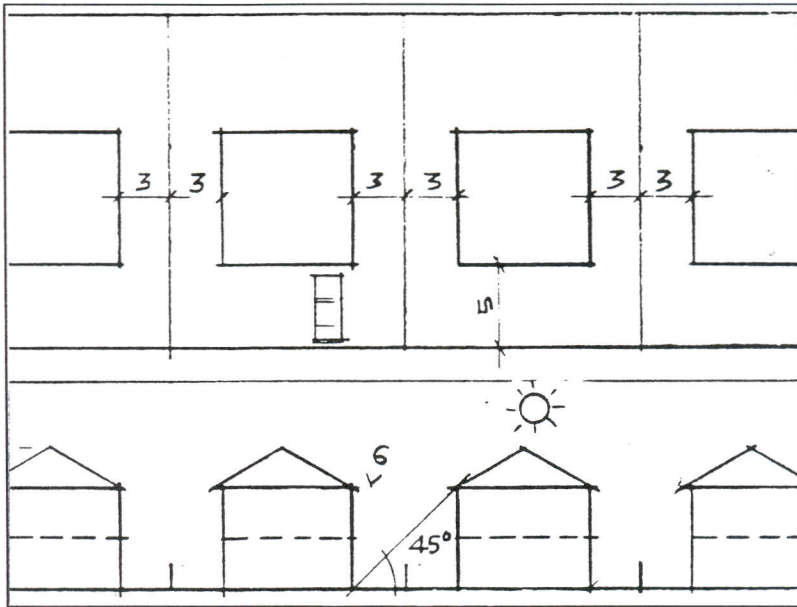


Figure 5.2: The 3m. side- yard setback for 2 storeys houses, FAR: 0,50 (Source: Altiner and Akay 1994).

As being a society, we are more accustomed to open and semi – open spaces, dwellings with courtyards. This 3m. side- yard and 5m. front- yard setbacks were dramatically adapted to our country’s existing conditions. 2 storeys were gradually replaced by 5 storeys, and, with balconies attached to the side- facade, that 6m. distance between 2 buildings reduced to 4m., front garden and the pavement turned to car parking areas (Figure 5.3).

At first, the back- yards of the buildings were vast, usable places but after the h/2 back- yard setback, these areas have not been used as car parking areas.

On the other hand, the balconies and the decks are one of the most important part of a dwelling unit. Traditionally, decks and balconies play a significant role in our society’s way of life (Altiner and Akay 1994). But in our country, it is forbidden to build open overhangs more than 1m. width. That 1m. width cannot be used for people and usually they are closed by the owners of the houses. If these overhangs were at least 2m. in depth, they would be used for family actions as in the case of ‘loggia’ type balconies in Western countries.

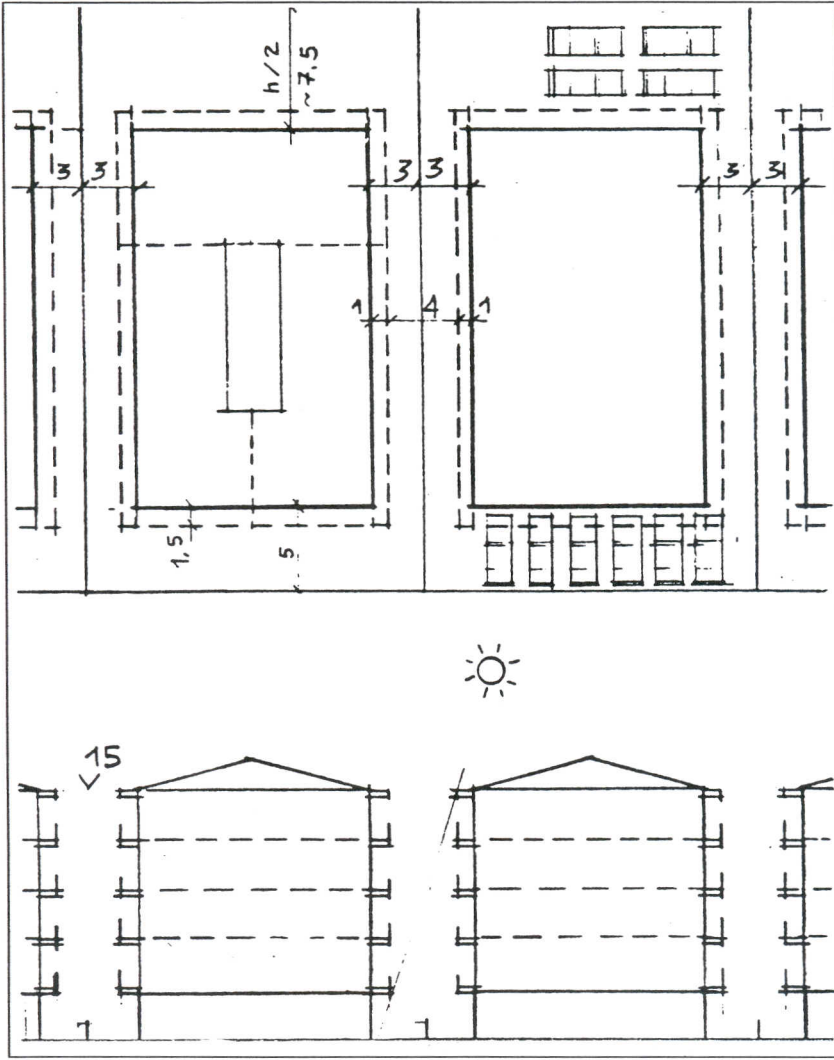


Figure 5.3: The 3m. side-yard setback was the ‘gift’ of German city planners, now it was adapted to our country’s conditions FAR: 2,5 (Source: Altiner and Akay 1994).

The density of the built environment is a delicate issue which cannot be easily controlled. A more detailed, sensitive restrictions are required which take into account the slop feature of the land, location of the buildings, urban silhouette, climatic conditions, financial and technical issues.

Besides its aesthetic and artistic characteristics, urban planning is a technical affair that needs specialisation and arithmetic knowledge. Arithmetic knowledge offers 2 key tools in the realm of calculating urban density in our country; (FAR) Floor Area Ratio and



(PAR) Plot Area Ratio. The difference between these two methods is that, FAR puts forward more precise and obvious restrictions than PAR.

FAR and PAR zoning regulations are totally abstract and favour the design of buildings as singular objects. They should be replaced with 'building envelope guidelines' that link entitlements with predictable physical and architectural definitions of the public realm.

Applications in our country, there is not a consistency between the interventions of different scales. Each scale has a tendency of forcing restrictions related with other scales. For example, in 1/1000 implementation plans, number of storeys are determined together with PAR. This kind of a restriction should be stated in an urban design scale not in implementation plans. In addition, the FAR cannot be determined accurately in master plans. Because, dealing with the number of people Per hectare in the making decision process of density, most urban planners are not competent about which density would create what sort of physical environments.

(PAR) Plot Area Ratio sometimes produces dramatic consequences. For example, in Bosphorous, Istanbul 6% PAR gradually reached at 15% with 1,5m. closed overhangs. Thus, one of the most attractive natural beauty of Bosphorous invaded by those 'mushroom villas' (Figure 5. 4) (Altiner and Akay 1994).

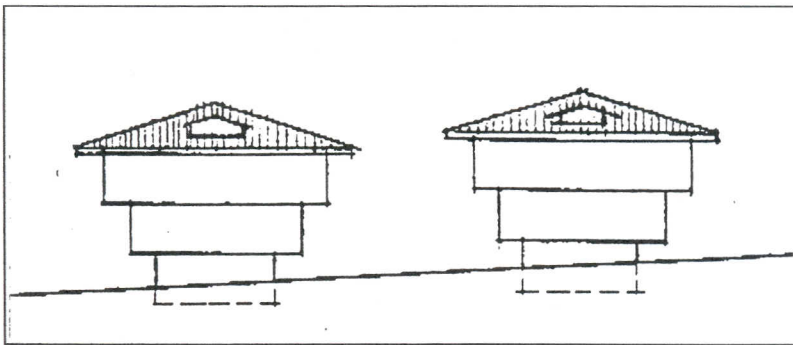


Figure 5.4: Mushroom villas in the Bosphorous, Istanbul (Source: Altiner and Akay 1994).

To sum up, we would say that, more democratic, flexible, detailed approach is necessary and prohibitionist bureaucratic way of thinking and classical planning approach should be revised. In fact, we do not have to come up with tools and techniques never seen before instead, the principles can be found in our culture. What we have to do is to pay more attention and try to assimilate our own culture's essence features sensitively.

In this respect, when we examine the inhabiting policy of the Ottoman Empire, we can see that there were no need to use restrictive regulations, instead of this, traditional values and understanding the way of life of people were sufficient (Cansever 1997). Traditional 'mahalles' were the prominent units in where there were sense of identity, sense of belongings and the concept neighbourhood.

### **5.3. The Traditional Mahalle Concept**

The concept of mahalle (residential quarter) first emerged in Anatolian Seljuq Empire in the 13<sup>th</sup> century. Mahalle was a place in where the smallest part of societies (families) used to live together and share their daily lives. It was the mosaic of different ethnical and social groups and a political unit as well.

Historician Carel Bertram, having studied on Amasya, explained the 'mahalle' concept as; "all ethnical groups which constitute the society are located in a defined place with an harmonious integration" (Altiner and Akay 1994 p: 32).

Various systems of welfare, sanitation, social and municipal services had been successfully sustained in both Seljuq and Ottoman Empire. In the Ottoman period, the term 'imaret' referred to all kinds of buildings constructed to serve public welfare and had the following interrelated components;

- Mosque
- Religious school
- Library
- Observatory
- Public bath
- Hospital
- Public kitchen



- Workshop
- Fair, bazaar and open market place
- Residential accommodation
- Caravanserai
- Coffee house

Sometimes several of these components were built as a single complex of buildings called 'kulliye'. The traditional Turkish mahalles (residential quarter) first emerged around the kulliye complexes. In almost all cases a mosque or a kulliye became the nucleus, centre of a residential quarter both in Seljuq and in Ottoman periods. For example, the urban growth of Bursa, the first capital city of the Ottoman Empire, was realised by establishing five kulliyes between the mid – 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> centuries (Figure 5.5) (Akture 1991).

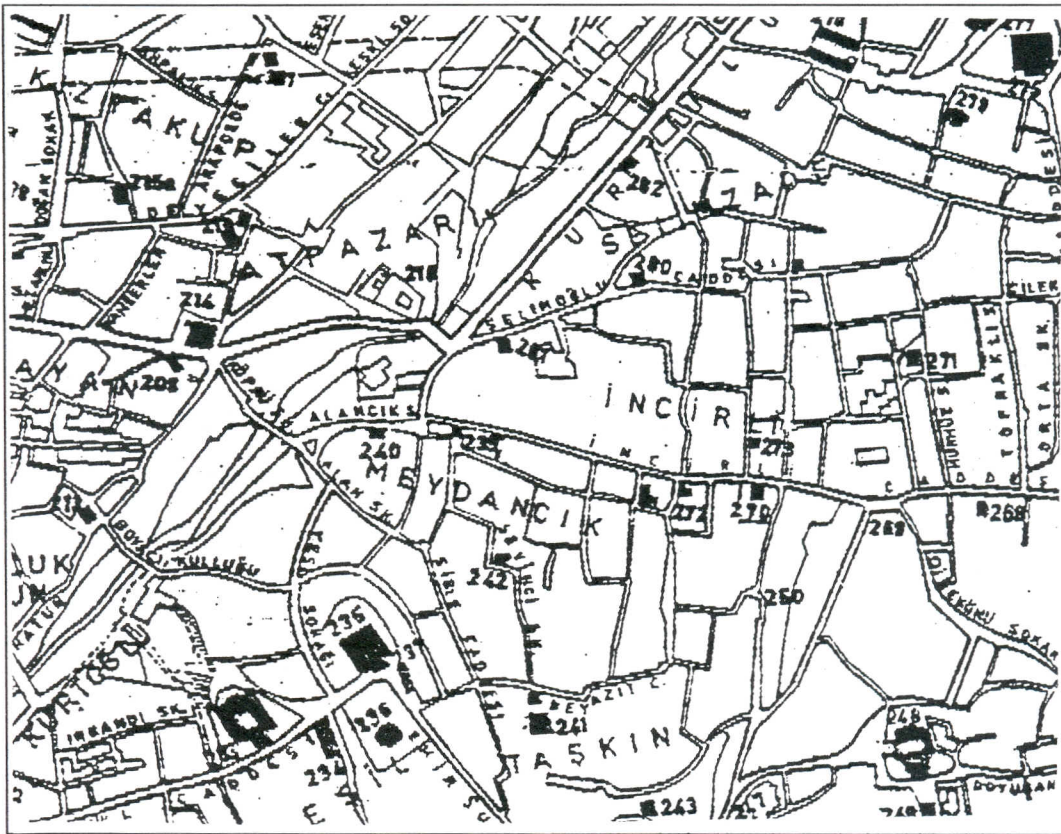


Figure 5.5: Mahalles around the kulliyes in Bursa (Source: Akture 1991).

Traditional mahalles were self – sufficient spatial and political units and the most critical features of them was both social and commercial activities were within 5 – 10 minute walking distance. Integration of people and activities at the same places created ‘messy vitality’ that is the basis of urban life.

On the other hand, the ‘imaret’ system was not a state organisation, while it dependent mainly on individual donations the imaret was also supported by official institutions called ‘Vakif’. Thus, the key economic and administrative institution underlying the vitality and effectiveness of the Anatolian city was the ‘vakif’ (Karaaslan 1996).

The best part of the vakif system was that all municipal services were accomplished by individuals without giving any trouble to the state, and that citizens could benefit from these without paying. Another important function of the vakif system was to build shops, commercial centres and markets in the vacant areas of the cities and towns (Akture 1991).

Both in building scale and in the kulliye complex, the social welfare facilities were on human scale. Every buildings had its own identity, and they were in a harmony with the surrounding area. From an environmental point of view, the matching of scale, site and material was the basic feature, as in the three- dimensional expression of civil facilities provided within the Vakif system in the urban environment.

The organic fabric of the traditional residential environments, in other words mahalles, was the outcome of decisions made by individuals and groups of residents and not by the central authority. The guiding principles were open to interpretation, which activated dialogues between the inhabitants of a mahalle (Cansever 1997).

It is so amazing that the proposals of the New Urbanism for the healthy environments of the 21<sup>st</sup> century has a lot of notions in common with the traditional Turkish mahalle concept. The New Urbanism and the Urban Coding Method can be described as rediscovery of the cosmopolite Turkish mahalles which we have lost for the sake of modernisation.

It would be useful to point out the certain similarities of the New Urbanist proposal and traditional mahalle concept. The neighbourhood unit of the New Urbanism resembles Turkish mahalles in such ways;



- Both of them are limited in physical size with well- defined edges and a focused centre.
- The size of both a New Urbanist neighbourhood and a mahalle are defined in terms of a 5 minute walking distance from the edge to the centre
- In addition, human scale is the standard for proportions in buildings and their accessories.
- Both a neighbourhood and a mahalle are emphatically mixed- use and provide housing for people for different incomes.
- Their concerns about the street usage have something in common. The street is understood to be the most important form of public space, and the buildings that define it are expected to honor and embellish it.
- Civic buildings of the New Urbanism and the traditional Turkish mahalles serve as landmarks and has symbolic importance in the life of the society.

On the other hand, human scale, sense of identity, consistent urban fabric, 3 dimension are common concerns of both system. The guiding principles were open to interpretation and flexible in both system as all of them emerged from the local culture of the society.

But, unfortunately without realising those values, we are in the process of experiencing something to find out more convenient systems that often generates ridiculous results. For example; in ‘Portakal Çiçeği’ and in ‘Dikmen Valley’ Projects, while we are trying skyscrapers, at the same time, in another site, we are using 2, 5 and, 15 storeys blocks as if we are saying “we do not know what we are doing”. On the other hand, while we are dealing with the outmoded ‘mass housing’ project 2 American designers Andres Duany and Elisabeth Plater- Zyberk were designing the ‘Kemer country Project’ in Istanbul impressing by the traditional ‘Safranbolu mahalles’ (Figure 5. 6).

Their attempts in Istanbul can be described rediscovery of the traditional Turkish mahalles and adapt it to contemporary world.

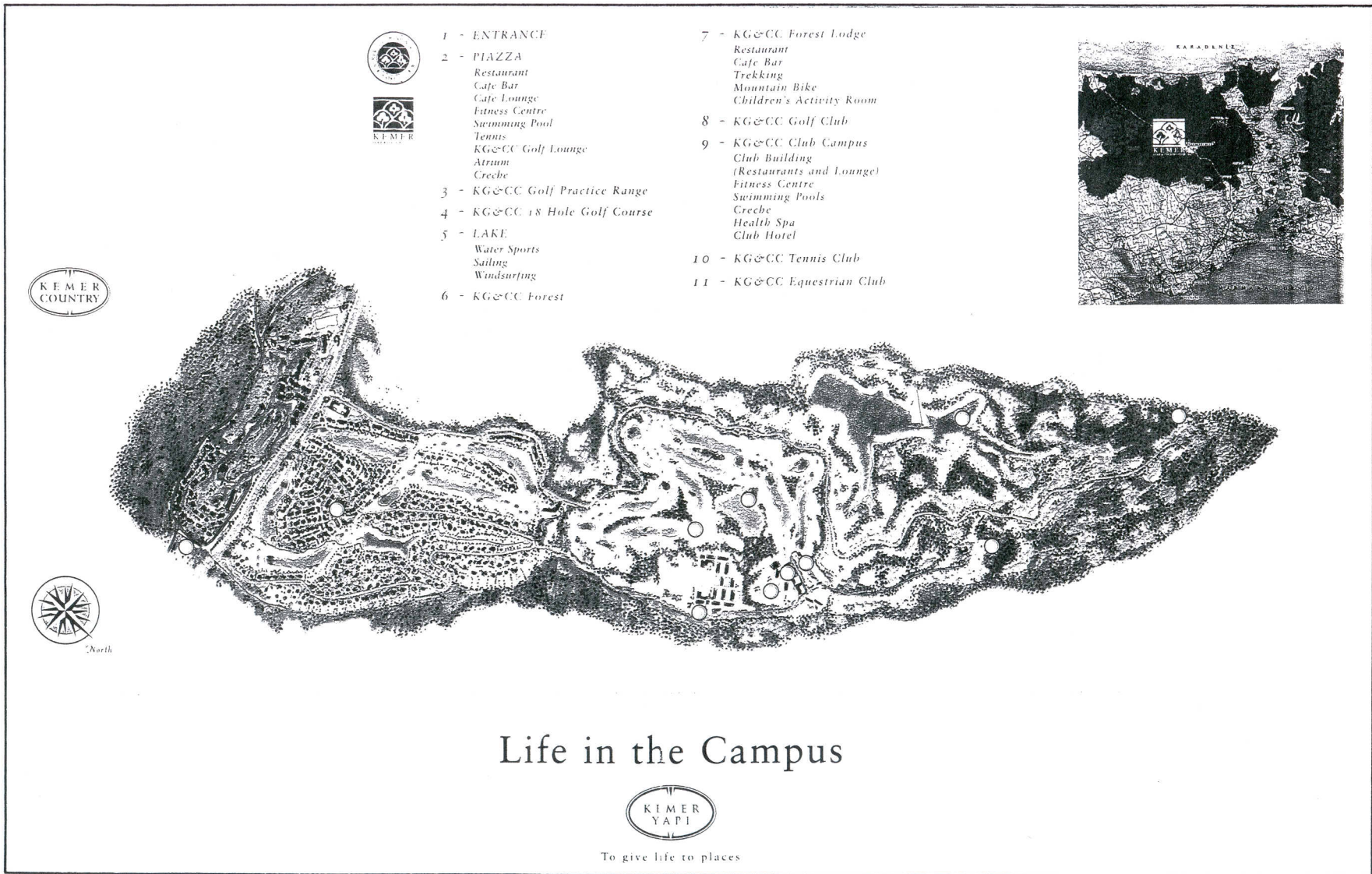


Figure 5. 6: The Centre of the Kemer Country Project, built by Duany and Zyberk in Istanbul  
(Source: [http:// www. kemercountry. com/](http://www.kemercountry.com/)).

Duany and Zyberk proved that their method is universal and could be adapted locally. Re- analysing and assimilating it we could reach some desirable results. Understanding our traditional values, cultural essence would generate unique solutions that could bring back the sense of identity, and, enhance the quality of life in our urban environments.

Istanbul Kemer Country Project is the first and unique implementation which were built using New Urbanist design principles (Figure 5. 7).





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Figure 5.7: The Site Plan of Istanbul Kemer Country (Source: [http:// www.kemercountry.com/](http://www.kemercountry.com/)).

#### 5.4. Positive Aspects of the New Urbanist Principles versus Conventional Planning Approach

- The practice of maximising car movement by means of upgrading existing roads and creating new ones was applied ambitiously assuming that all these efforts would have solved some urban problems. However it has not bring any remedy, on the contrary, it has created many problems now we face as the meaning of the street has never been understood.

The crude street pattern of zoning actually promotes congestion, because every trip from every single use must be made by car onto the collector street.

In the New Urbanist proposal, the importance and the meaning of the street as the essential fabric of the public realm is restored. The street is understood to function as an outdoor room, and building facades are understood to be street walls (Kunstler 1996).

Residential streets can be narrower than current specifications permit. Higher speeds can be reserved for boulevards or parkways, which occupy corridors within the neighbourhood of the New Urbanism. The major intent is to calm and tame vehicular traffic. This is achieved by the use of corners with sharp turning radii, partly textured pavements, and T intersections. The result of these practices is a more civilised street (Kunstler 1996).

- “Zoning regulation required the artificial creation of ‘affordable housing’ because the rules of zoning prohibited the housing available to all income groups and integrated it into the civic fabric” (Punter 1996 p: 112).

The best way to make housing affordable is to build or restore compact, mixed- use, traditional neighbourhoods. The way to retain property values is to notice that a house is part of a community, not an segregated object and to make sure that the community maintains high standards of civic amenity in the form of walkable streets and easy access to shops, recreation, culture and public facilities (Jacobs 1969). Such a development maintain its value and bring people of different ages and occupations into informal contacts.

- “Congestion’ was the scare word of the past, as ‘growth’ is the scare word of our time. Urban congestion was exacerbated by the revolutionary effects of the elevator, the



office skyscraper and the widespread introduction of the automobile. Those innovations drastically changed the scale of the city life” (Kunstler 1996 p: 10).

There is tremendous confusion about density and congestion. After 1960s. Decentralisation policies, (result of which were satellite towns such as Yenimahalle in Ankara, Yesilkoy in Istanbul) were held in great esteem. But most of them suffer from density deficits because the concept of ‘employee basis’ has not been supplied sufficiently. The New Urbanism, on the other hand, proposes a restoration of synergistic density within reasonable limits. And, these limits are controlled by building size. It calls for higher density than zoning does (more houses Per acre, mixed- use, closer together) (O’ Toole 1997).

- Houses may be free-standing in the New Urbanism, but their lots are designed small. Streets of connected row houses are also deemed desirable. Useless front lawns (often seen in our country) are generally eliminated. The New Urbanism compensates for this loss by providing squares, parks, greens and civic amenities. Back yards provide plenty of privacy, and houses can be spacious on their lots.

- In order for a street to achieve the intimate and welcoming quality of an outdoor room, the buildings along it must compose a suitable street wall. Similarly, buildings must be sized in proportion to the width of the street. Low buildings, in this respect, poorly define street and if the road is too wide than the cars go too fast.

In most cases in our country, the buildings do a poor job defining space, the front lawns and the streets are too wide. Sidewalks and orderly rows of trees are absent. The space between the houses is an incomprehensible gap.

The New Urbanism offers specific solutions for these ills. Commerce is removed from the highway strip and reassembled in a town or a neighbourhood centre. The buildings that house commerce are required to be at least two storeys high, and this has the additional benefit of establishing apartments and offices above the shops to bring vitality, along with extra rents, to the centre.

- The ‘build- to- line’ in the Urban Coding Method determines how close buildings will stand on the streets and promotes regular alignment. The zoning’s setback line intended to keep buildings far away from the street. In the New Urbanism, the ‘build- to- line’, ensure the positive definition of space by pulling buildings forward to the street. If

parking lots are necessary, they should be behind the buildings, in the middle of the block, where they will not disrupt civic life (Kunstler 1996).

- Additional rules of the Urban Coding Method govern building heights, recess lines according to which upper stories may be set back, transition lines, which denote a distinction between ground floors for retail use and upper floors for offices and apartments. This kind of a comprehensive, detailed rules are not seen in conventional methods.
- The New Urbanism recognises of transition between the public realm of the street and the semi- private realm of the shop or the house. In the conventional methods this refinement is non-existent. Successful transitions are achieved by regulating devices such as; the arcade, the storefront, the dooryard, the porch and fence (Corbett and Velasquez 1991). These devices of transition soften the visual and physical hard edges of the environment. The arcade, for instance, affords shelter along the side walk on a street of shops. It is particularly desirable in southern climates where harsh sunlight occur as in the case of our country.
- “In theory a good urban code alone can create the conditions that make civic life possible, by holding to a standard of excellence in a town’s basic design framework” (Kunstler 1996 p: 12). Architectural codes, in addition, establish a standard for individual buildings, particularly the surface details. Architectural codes should be viewed as a supplement to an urban code and they are not intended to impose a particular style on a neighbourhood. The style is not the point, the point is to achieve a successful standard in the design process for the benefit of the community as a whole
- On the other hand, a democratic process of the New Urbanism which is called the ‘charette’ is a week – long professional design workshop held for the purpose of planning land development or redevelopment. It includes public meetings that bring all participants together in a room (developers, architects, citizens, government officials, traffic engineers, environmentalists and so on). These meetings are meant to get all issues on the table and settle as many as possible. The object of the charette is to produce results on paper in the form drawings and plans. This is a democratic and ethical process as well as practical. It elevates the quality of the public discussion about development (Krieger 1998).



It is so obvious that in so many aspects, there are distinctive characteristics of the New Urbanist proposal against our conventional planning approach and with a consistent policies it would be a remedy for so many ill – development patterns in our urban areas.

İZMİR YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ ENSTİTÜSÜ  
REKTÖRLÜĞÜ  
Kütüphane ve Dokümantasyon Daire Bşk.





## 6.2. Characteristics of the Case Study Area

At first, the Yalı District was unused, empty area, but in 1945 and 1950 by the beginning of migration the area has been changed into a settlement. In 1965, the speed of migration was in peak point and thus, unplanned and illegal construction increased in that years. From that years to our days, the district of Şemikler has taken great amount of migration particularly from East and Middle Anatolia and Aegean Region because of unemployment (I. I. T 1998).

In terms of the planning history of Izmir the case study area has a great importance because, in 1959, Swiss urban planners Alber Bodmer, having studied on Izmir, proposed some detailed projects in Buca, Bornova and Şemikler Districts of the Izmir (Figure 6. 2). It would be said that these were very comprehensive, detailed urban design projects concerning that regions of the Izmir.

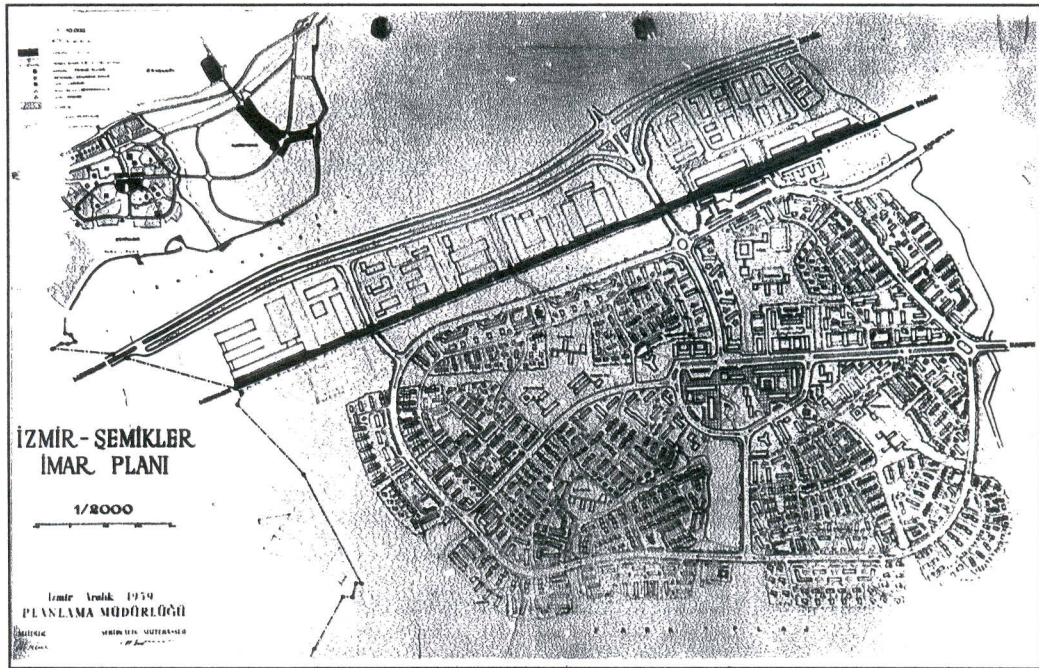


Figure 6.2: Alber Bodmer implementation plan for Şemikler District (Source: Special Archive of Dr. Yıldırım Oral).

### **6.2.1. Physical Properties of the Site**

At the north side of the area, there are planned residential sites in which the buildings close to each other. The tendency of constructing an extra floor makes the area as a construction site.

The slope of the topography is 0,5 % in average, and, when we examine the quality of the built environment it is certainly a disaster. According to the researches; there are 225 units in fair quality (45 %), 224 units in bad quality (44 %), and, only 57 units (11 %) in well quality. The bad quality buildings are generally located at the west and the well quality ones at the east. Row housing type provided with a garden scatter to the whole area. Great amount of vast, empty areas are used as play grounds and garbage dumps.

### **6.2.2. Social, Economic and Demographic Structure of the Site**

According to the survey analysis made by Izmir Institute of Technology Department of City Planning Master students, The rate of migration was very high between 1935 – 1945. It was decreased at the following two decades, between 1945 – 1965. At the end of this process, the population was risen to 2880 people between the years 1965 – 1997. The main reason that this area had been taking great amount of migration was its close proximity to the Cigli organised industrial area and its accessibility to the city centre.

83, 7% of the population was from different parts of Turkey and, 16, 4 % of the total migration local members of the area. It demonstrates that the social and ethnical mixture of the population was extremely complex and forms diversity.

According to the age groups distribution, the number of young people is much more than other age groups. Average household member's number is 3,9 in the area.

When we examine the 'economically active population rates', 7,6% of the population is working in manufacture sector, 7,1% administrative and economical services, 5,3% in technical services.

The education level of the population is; 43,1% of them graduated from the primary school, 15, 4% secondary school, 13,5% high school, 7,2% literate and 16,4% non – educated. Only 4,3% of the population graduated from the university. Because of



this low level educational feature, most of people are working as physical workers. The unemployment problem is increasing dramatically in the area as most of immigrants have no special skill resulting in a 17% unemployment rate within the area.

In terms of the legal status of the buildings, 54% of them are 'squatter house' (gecekondü). The immigrants sold their plots in their village and used that capital for the construction of their new dwelling unit in the city. The rate of owning another plot in Izmir is 7,4%, in another city 5,8% and in their village 2,1%. 84,7% of them have no plot in anywhere.

According to comparison of house ownership and new environment data, the owner of the houses would prefer to see construction of high rise buildings in their new environment; 48% of them want to live in high rise buildings, 21% of them do not want to live such an environment but they would stay as there is no other chance. 28% of them do not want to stay and move in another environment with low rise buildings. On the other hand, 50% of the tenants want to stay in high rise buildings, 33% of them do not want to stay, 16% of them stay in such an environment because of economic bottlenecks they face.

In addition, 32% of the owners and 39% of the tenants would prefer to live in a planned environment. These rates shows that the inhabitants in the district are uncomfortable because of illegal housing and gecekondu's, and, they would prefer to live in a planned environment.

### **6.2.3. Land Ownership**

The rapid migration to the are has drastically altered the land ownership pattern of the area. The house demands of the people with the rapid increase in population has resulted in that consequence.

Therefore, plots have been divided into many parts by the estate laws, and each married couple demanded another dwelling. This process contributed to an increase in the private ownership pattern of the area. Land sale with independent title deeds was transformed to share title deeds by this process.

On the other hand, that increasing dwelling demand of the people has contributed to illegal housing process the result of which is a complex ownership pattern. The ownership with independent title deeds and shared title deeds reached an

enormous rate in the area (83, 02%). In addition to this, there are treasury, municipality and Emlak Bank ownership's that forms the 16,98% of the property of the area. Besides, there are shared properties like treasury- private (1, 19%), municipality-private (8, 14%), treasury- municipality- private (1,29%) (Table 6.1). The municipality ownership of the area belongs to Karşıyaka Municipality.

Table 6.1: The Land Ownership Distribution in the Case Study Area

Landownership	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	%
Private	108857	83,02
Treasury-Private	1545	1,19
Treasury-Private-Municipality	1682	1,29
Municipality	3080	2,35
Municipality-Private	10666	8,14
Co-operation	5304	4,01
TOTAL	131134	100

#### 6.2.4. Existing Land Use and Implementation Plan Land Use in the Case Study Area

In addition to the residential areas, there are commercial units, storage's, a playground and vegetable grounds in the area. The commercial units are generally small groceries. The buildings, disorderly placed in the area, has been decentralised to the north side.

On the other hand, social and cultural amenities such as; schools, active green areas and cultural institutions are not sufficient in the site. There is also lack of health, administrative, regional institutions in the case study area (Table 6.2).



Table 6.2: Existing Land Use

Land Use	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	%
Residential	167550	73
Play ground	1920	1
Vegetable area	2960	1
Vehicular circulation	56573	25
TOTAL	224663	100

The number of dwelling in the area is 506. In terms of their number of storeys, there are 296 units one storied (59%), 154 two storied units (30%), 40 three storied units (8%), 9 four storied units (2%), and 7 five or more storied dwelling units (1%).

Totally, 800 units are situated in the area. 734 (91%) of these are dwelling units, 16 (2%) of them are vacant dwelling units. There are, in addition, 48 (6%) commercial units, 12 (2%) storage units are located.

The existing population of the area is 2715, the average net density is 162 Per/ha, and the average gross density is 121 Per/ha. Plot area Ratio (PAR) is 0,25 and Floor Area Ratio is 0,37 in the case study area.

The first implementation plan in the settlement was made in 1984. Illegal houses in the area which were built until 1985 was utilised from the exempted developments in that years. In this process, with the 'building right' of the exempted development, all shared lands were divided into plots by the technical private offices. In other words, a plan cadastral was made. This plan was approved as improvement plan in 1985. It would be said that, the first implementation plan which was made in 1984 was rearranged and in 1986, revision implementation plan was dictated, but, cadastral plan was valid for ownership. The revision plan of 1986 now is being force. In the implementation plan Floor Area Ratio (FAR) :2 and Plot Area Ratio (PAR): 0,7 has given. In addition, detached dwelling units and contiguous buildings were proposed.

The total area of the implementation plan 16,61 ha. residential area, 0,55 ha. car parking, 0,29 ha. recreation area, 0,19 ha. commercial and 9,75 ha. vehicular circulation areas were allocated. The goal population of the implementation plan is 9328, and according to this population, gross density of the area is 416 Per/ha. and net density is 804 Per/ha. According to social infrastructure standards in the act numbered 3194

development, population of 9328 require 6 ha. education, 6,5 ha, green areas, 0.9 ha. health institutions, 0,28 ha. social- cultural facilities, 2 ha. administrative and 1ha. commercial areas (Table 6.3)

Boundaries of revision implementation plan are not certain and it does not meet the needs of the people living here. Lack of certain social and cultural amenities would result undesirable consequences for the environment.

Table 6.3: Implementation Plan Land Use

Land Use	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	%
Residential	116610	53
Park	5580	2
Recreational	2920	1
Commercial	1970	1
Vehicular circulation	97583	43
TOTAL	224663	100

### 6.3. Problems and Potentials of the Site

According to site survey and individual studies, the major potentials and the problems of the site can be classified in order to make the design process more convenient;

#### Problems:

- Private person lands were invaded more than public lands in the migration process, and, then, invaders that utilised from 'exempted development' obtained 'dwelling right'. Therefore, problems were started between the 'gecekondu' owners and land owners for 'law property right' of building site.

- Another great problem of the case study area, which includes illegal development and 'squatter houses' is that because of different developments around it, it has not been integrated with its surrounding. Such a built environment does not suit with its surrounding in terms of physical, social and economic issues.

- Green areas, social and cultural institutions, bazaar and educational facilities are insufficient in the area. There are some civic facilities around the site for example in Mavisehir and Atakoy residential areas, but they are not convenient for those people



living in the case study area because of social, economic and cultural differences between people.

- Infrastructure, on the other hand, is absent and particularly water problem in the area is widespread. Water requirements of the people is being supplied from fountains and there is not a drainage system. The risk of being liable to the flood would be reckoned easily.

- The case study area as it was cited, has been taking great amount of migration from different parts of our country. Thus, this has contributed to a cosmopolite structure in the area that does not generally constitute a healthy social contact between people.

- Physical conditions of both dwelling units and the site as a whole spoiled the urban fabric of the district. Poor quality, damp and useless parts of the site cannot create a consistent urban form in the district.

On the other hand, besides those problems, interestingly there are tremendous amount of investments near the area.

#### Potentials:

- Recently, both with external and interval investments are located in the near environment of the site. Thus, gradually this area will be one of the most attractive part of the city.

- Large scale commercial stores (Kipa, EGS Park, Carrefour, Migros, Tansas), well quality residential areas (Mavisehir, Atakent) are now changing the development pattern of the district.

- Sports Facilities, Marina, Fair and Recreation areas in the south and south- west part of the case study area are another potentials for the future development of the site.

- In the master plans of Izmir Metropolitan Region, this district has been chosen the west growth axis of the city.

- Transportation facilities of the district are good enough and the accessibility to the Karsiyaka sub- centre is quite convenient.

## 6.4. The Goals, Strategies and the Design Process of the Case Study Area

In the previous sub – chapter, the classifications of both problems and potentials of the site were tried to describe. Because, the concepts of problem definition and definition of potentials are quintessential part of any design process.

The essence of the problems now we face in our cities is that we have not been able to describe or to define them accurately.

The overall purpose of this study, within the context of this thesis, is to prove that the Urban Coding Method, which was developed by Andres Duany and Elisabeth Plater – Zyberk, could be used as an alternative in the process of creating urban form. In this respect, it provides urban planning with a new, more comprehensive point of view.

In the case study, besides any attempts which try to remedy different problems (which were cited in the previous sub – chapter) such notions have been paid great attention;

- Regaining sense of identity
- Providing the concept of ‘urban space’,
- Providing volumetric continuity regarding human scale,
- Creating public spaces that can be used by different people at different intervals,
- Providing a mix of activities both vertically and horizontally,
- Creating a healthy pedestrian and vehicular circulation

In this process, having applied the 18<sup>th</sup> item of the existing by – law, the order of new lots were defined in accordance with the New Urbanist principles. Apart from classical implementations, this study deals with five documents;

### A) Regulating Plan:

This document of the case study area shows the different type and size of lots, plot lines, pedestrian and vehicular entrances, semi public and public places. It also shows what sort of building types will locate on these lots (Figure 6.3).

On the other hand, existing implementation plan of Şemikler – Yalı district supplies its separated two dimensional land – use distribution with peculiar, unnecessary restrictions such as PAR, FAR, rigid setbacks, maximum height and number of storeys.



## B) Urban Regulations:

Urban Regulation matrix of Şemikler – Yalı District project shows building heights, building placement and type, permitted encroachment and probable car parking areas on each lots (Figure 6.4).

Such a detailed, vertical and horizontal matrix is impossible to be seen in classical applications as they only divide lands into separated activities and consider unnecessary details without a real understanding the requirements pertaining the site.

## C) Architectural Regulations:

This document offers a variety of probable volumetric form regarding local values and climatic conditions of the site

The facades of the building with their porches, verandas, arcades and frontal elements are one of the defining parts of urban spaces (Figure 6.5).

In most places in our country, after lots of unnecessary restrictions, the defining elements of urban spaces, in other words the architectural elements are left to the preference of land owners and designers. There is not any consistent control mechanism in practice. The taste, choice and preference of both land owners and the architect are allowed to generate urban spaces without a consideration of climatic, local and cultural values.

## D) Landscape Regulations:

Planting and landscape is one of the most critical issues that are never cared about in implementation plans. Symbolic, haphazardly situated landscape elements refer to parks or 7m. pedestrian road in our 1/ 1000 plans.

Planting and landscape elements in the urban areas can enhance the quality of urban aesthetic, can provide a desirable micro climate considering solar standards. In addition, they can serve as landmarks, focal points and also define urban spaces.

Their consistent design can also enhance the usage potentials of public spaces and streets (Figure 6.6).

In Şemikler – Yalı district, the landscape elements are tried to assigned regarding both the harsh climatic conditions of the site and the circulation pattern of pedestrians. It also points out the public spaces.

#### E) Street Regulations:

In the New Urbanism, the meaning of the street as the essential fabric of the public realm is restored. Thus, the space created is understood to function as an outdoor room, and building facades are understood to be street walls.

In classical implementation the practice of maximising car movements shape the pattern of any street types. The pedestrian and vehicular movements at the same place are seldom thought as a design criteria.

In the case study area, the street regulation matrix describe the character of any street types. The intention is to make pedestrian feel safe and comfortable, as well as to provide for sufficient automobile movement. The proportion of building height to street width is clearly specified, together with the width of travel and parking lanes, the location of trees and the sidewalk width (Figure 6.7).

Needles to say, such a comprehensive, detailed approach require a new organisational framework. Accomplishment of this system is based on a revised organisational structure. In this respect, the role of the local government (Karşıyaka Municipality) has a great importance and the main task of it to establish a co – operation between the ‘private firms’ and ‘individuals’. In other words, local government should work as a ‘developer’.

For as to private firms, their main role in the process is to establish a compromise between land owners and carry out construction affairs. Another point is that, a new commission ( urban design commission) should be constituted within the local government. This commission will control the applications whether they are appropriate or not to ‘urban code’ (Figure 6.8).



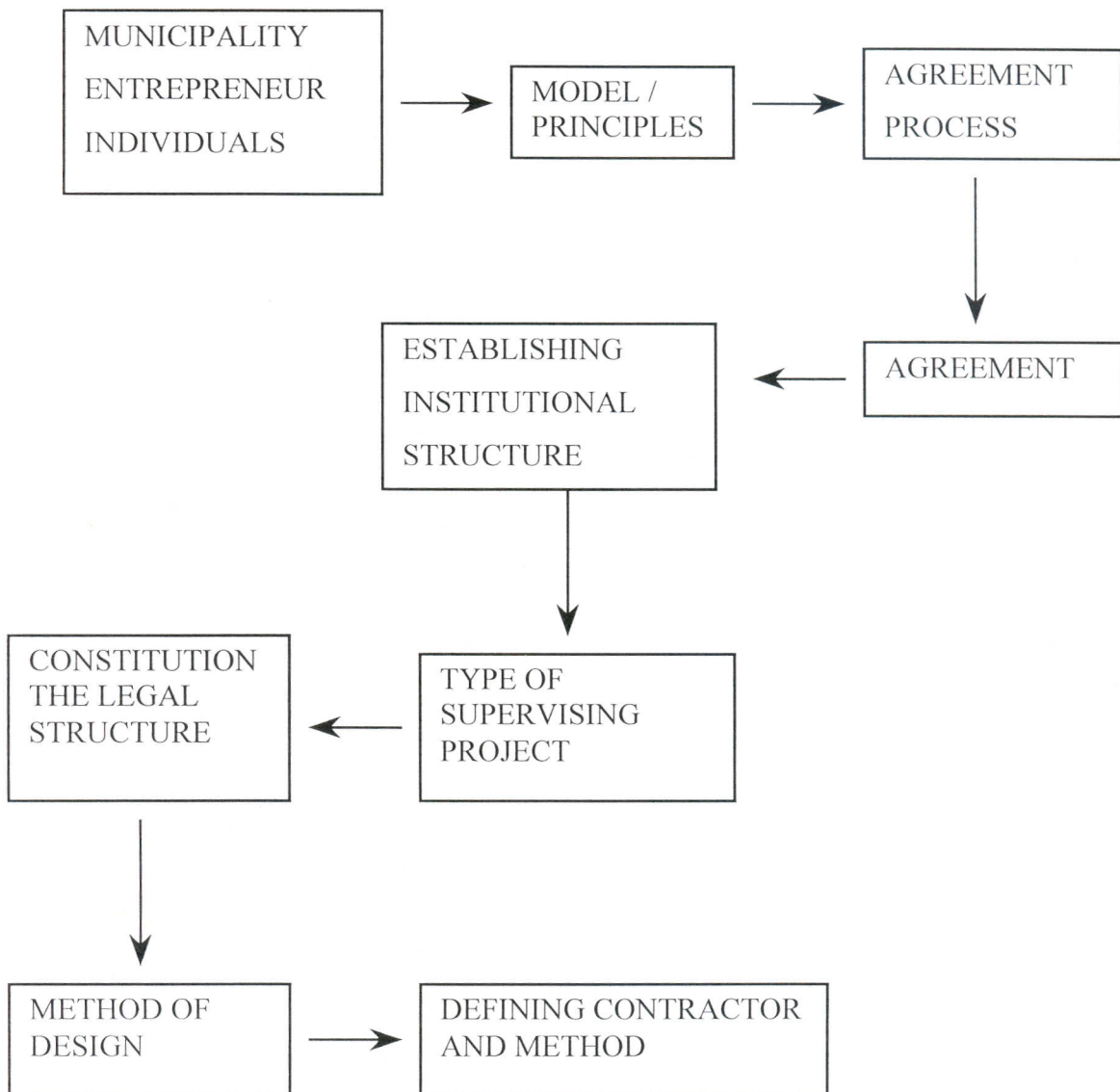


Figure 6.8: The Design Process of the Case Study.

## Chapter 7

### CONCLUSION

Cities everywhere are facing similar problems – increasing traffic congestion worsening air pollution, the continuing loss open space, the need for costly improvements to road and public services, the inequitable distribution of economic resources, and the loss of a sense of community.

The problems seem overwhelming and we suffer from their consequences every day. City character is blurred until every place becomes like every other place and all adding up to 'No Place'. Now, it is known that Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar's '5 cities' turned to 'a city'.

According to Christopher Alexander's point of view, a city should grow as a flower in a garden without any intervention of monopoly powers. Growth of a city including variety in a whole is a result of a process and the main problem is to describe and to design this process. Today's individualist design ideologies are believed not able to create successful urban environments, and, it is also believed that creativity is not located in the design process of single buildings, instead, it is located within the production of the 'system' and the 'process'.

In today's world there have been a lot of way of thinking and approaches most of which we are unaware. On the contrary, increasing interest in a number of concepts in the world bring back us to a more traditional style of development and a style of planning that would be more in tune with nature including, 'neotraditional planning', 'sustainable development', 'transit oriented development', the 'new urbanism' and the concept of 'liveable communities'.

In America, two architects, Andres Duany and Elisabet Plater- Zyberk, based on the principles of Krier's 'urban space' and Camillo Sitte's urban principles, developed their universal method. The work of Duany and Zyberk began with the recognition that design affects behaviours. Also recognising that healthy communities are complex organic, systems, Duany and Zyberk developed a methodology of town planning with respects and replicates this inherent complexity. They have gathered a basic set of guidelines, based on the New Urbanist principles, which they have applied through planning process. It is on the other hand, not a policy planing; it is just a 'design'. It is an attitude of expression that values the cultural variety inherent in climatic, social,



economic and technical difference. Their method is also a professional ethic that stresses the integration of all architectural ,engineering and design disciplines, the active collaboration of them and participation of the public in the design process .

To sum up, it can be described as a more flexible, democratic building code that is also more three dimensional alternative to conventional planning approach. It provides a broad range of view in the process of creating urban form.

On the other hand, it is so significant that, the principles of the New Urbanist proposal for the healthy environment of the 21<sup>st</sup> century has a lot of notions in common with the Traditional Turkish Mahalle concept. The New Urbanist way of thinking can be described as rediscovery of the cosmopolitan Turkish mahalles, thus, re- analysing or assimilating it, we could reach some desirable consequences which would generate unique solutions that could bring back the sense of identity, and enhance the quality of life in urban environments.

Accomplishment of this system, is based on a revised organisational structure. In this respect, the role of the local government has a great importance and the main task of it to establish a co- operation between ‘private firms’ and ‘individuals’. In other words, local government should work as a developer.

For as to private firms, their main role in the process is to establish a reconciliation between land owners and to carry out construction affairs. On the other hand, a new commission (urban design commission) should be constituted within the context of local governments including authorities from different disciplines such as; architects, urban designers, city planners, landscape architectures, engineers, lawyers etc.

What is missing is now, a more widespread consensus – cultural agreement – in favour of the new model and the will to go forward with it. Large numbers of ordinary citizens have not heard the news. They are stuck in old habits and stuck in the psychology of not to be receptive. NIMBYism is one of the results, a form of hysterical cultural paralysis. Do not build anything!, Do not change anything!. The consensus that exists, therefore, is a consensus of fear, and that is obviously not good enough. We need a consensus of hope.

In the absence of a widespread consensus about how to build a better everyday environment, we will have to replace the old set of rules with an explicit new set – or, to put it a slightly different way, replace conventional zoning laws with principles of civic

art. It will surely take time for these principles to become second nature again, to become common sense.

Finally, human settlements are like living organisms. They must grow, and they will change. But we can decide on the nature of that growth – on the quality and the character of it – and where it ought to go. We do not have to scatter the building blocks of our civic life all over the countryside, destroying our cities and ruining farmland. We can put the shopping and the offices and the movie theatres and the library all within walking distance of one another. And we can live within walking distance of all these things. We can build our schools close to where the children live, and the school buildings do not have to look like fertiliser plants. We can insist that commercial buildings be more than one story high, and allow people to live in decent apartments over the stores. It is within our power to create places that are worthy of our affection.



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# SEMİKLER-YALI DISTRICT URBAN DESIGN PROJECT REGULATING PLAN

## LEGEND

- APARTMENT WITH BACKYARD
- ATTACHED HOUSE
- MIXED USE APARTMENT (Shop, Office, Dwelling, Factory)
- SHOPFRONT APART WITH SIDE YARD
- SHOPFRONT APART WITH BACKYARD
- ATTACHED HOUSE WITH BACKYARD (Townhouse)
- SPECIAL SETBACK REQUIRED
- MANDATORY PASSAGE WAY
- MANDATORY ARCADE
- MANDATORY GARDEN WALL
- COURTYARDS
- EXISTING BUILDINGS

## INSTRUCTIONS

THE SEMİKLER YALI DISTRICT CODE CONSISTS OF THE REGULATING PLAN, CODE REGULATIONS, ARCHITECTURAL REGULATIONS AND LANDMARK REGULATIONS.

THREE FIVE REGULATIONS SHALL BE USED IN CONNECTION FOR THE DESIGN OF ALL PRIVATE BUILDINGS AT YALI DISTRICT. THE REGULATIONS SHALL NOT BE SUBJECT TO THEIR REGULATIONS.

WHEN IN CONFLICT WITH EXISTING CODES, LAWS OR REGULATIONS THE PROVISIONS OF THE SEMİKLER YALI URBAN DESIGN COMMITTEE SHALL GOVERN.

PRIVATE BUILDINGS SHALL BE SUBMITTED TO THE SEMİKLER YALI URBAN DESIGN COMMITTEE IN THE MANNER SPECIFIED IN THE DESIGN APPROVAL PROCESS DOCUMENT.

VARIANCES TO THE CODE SHALL BE GRANTED BY THE CODE COMMITTEE ON THE BASIS OF MERIT OR ARCHITECTURAL MERIT.

THE CODE COMMITTEE RESERVED THE RIGHT TO ADJUST THE PROVISIONS OF THE CODE AT THEIR DISCRETION.

E. ERTUĞ GONCAGÜL

25.08.2009 11:03

İZMİR YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ ENSTİTÜSÜ  
MÜHÜR  
Mühür  
Mühür



Figure 6.4: Urban Regulations of Semikler Yalı District.

ŞEMİKLER - YALI DISTRICT URBAN DESIGN PROJECT URBAN REGULATIONS			
BUILDING USE	TYPE 5 (SHOPFRONT APART, WITH BACKYARD)	TYPE 2 (ATTACHED HOUSE)	TYPE 3 (MIXED USE APARTMENT)
BUILDING PLACEMENT			
PERMITTED ENCROACHMENT PARKING			
BUILDING HEIGHT			
BUILDING USE	TYPE 4 (SHOPFRONT APART, WITH SIDE YARD)	TYPE 6 (ATTACHED HOUSE WITH BACKYARD)	TYPE 1 (APARTMENT WITH BACKYARD)
BUILDING PLACEMENT			
PERMITTED ENCROACHMENT PARKING			
BUILDING HEIGHT			

25.08.2009 11:03

Figure 6.5: Architectural Regulations of Şemikler Yalı District.

# ŞEMIKLER - YALI DISTRICT URBAN DESIGN PROJECT ARCHITECTURAL REGULATIONS

BUILDING ELEMENTS	MATERIALS	CONFIGURATION	TECHNIQUES
BUILDING ELEMENTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-COLUMNS, POSTS, BALCONIES SHALL BE MADE OF CONCRETE</li> <li>-STOORS MAY BE MADE OF BRICK, STUCCO, GAS CONCRETE OR PRESSURE TREATED WOOD</li> <li>-SIGNS SHALL BE MADE OF WOOD, STEEL OR ALUMINIUM</li> <li>-ARCHES SHALL BE MADE OF WOOD OR BRICK</li> <li>-SPINDLES AND BALUSTRADES ON BALCONIES, PORCHES AND STAIRS SHALL BE MADE OF WOOD OR STEEL</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-BALCONIES SHALL NOT EXCEED 1,5M IN DEPTH</li> <li>-PORCH AND LOGGIA OPENINGS SHALL BE VERTICAL IN PROPORTION</li> <li>-SIGNS MAY BE NO BIGGER THAN 1M. IN VERTICAL DIMENSION</li> <li>-BAY WINDOWS SHALL BE HABITABLE SPACES CARRIED TO THE GROUND</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-BRICK AND STUCCO ARCHES SHALL BE NO LESS THAN 3M. IN DEPTH</li> <li>-WOOD SIGNS MAY BE LIT, STEEL OR ALUMINIUM SIGNS MAY BE INTERNALLY LIT</li> </ul>
BUILDING WALLS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-BUILDING WALLS MAY BE MADE OF BRICK, FACED OR UNFACED CONCRETE OR CAST STONE</li> <li>-BUILDING WALLS MAY BE FINISHED IN SMOOTH STUCCO</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-TWO OR MORE WALL MATERIALS MAY BE COMBINED ON ONE FACADE ONLY HORIZONTALLY</li> <li>-EXTERIOR CHIMNEYS SHALL BE FINISHED IN STUCCO</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-CONCRETE BLOCK SHALL BE SPLIT-FACED UNLESS IT CONCRETE</li> <li>-STUCCO SHALL BE SMOOTH SAND FINISH</li> </ul>
WINDOWS / DOORS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-WINDOWS AND DOORS SHALL BE MADE OF WOOD OR WYTEL - CLAD WOOD</li> <li>-WINDOWS AND DOORS SHALL BE GLAZED IN CLEAR GLASS WITH NO MORE THAN A 1/10 DAYLIGHT REDUCTION</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-WINDOWS MAY BE VERTICAL OR HORIZONTAL</li> <li>-CIRCULAR OR POLYGONAL WINDOWS AND DOORS ARE NOT PERMITTED</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-THE TOTAL GLAZING AREA ON THE FACADE SHALL NOT EXCEED 30% OF THE FACADE SURFACE</li> <li>-ALL DOORS MUST BE HINGED</li> </ul>
ROOFS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-ROOFS MAY BE CLAD WITH CONCRETE TILE OR GALVANIZED STEEL</li> <li>-GUTTERS SHALL BE MADE OF GALVANIZED STEEL, COPPER OR PAINTED ALUMINIUM</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-FLAT ROOFS SHALL BE ENCLOSED BY PARAPETS NO LESS THAN 1M. HIGH</li> <li>-GUTTERS SHALL BE HALF - ROUND AT OVERHANGING EDGES</li> </ul>	
GLAZING WALLS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-GLAZING WALLS MAY BE FINISHED IN BRICK, STUCCO OR CONCRETE BLOCK MATCHING THE BUILDING</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-WALLS AT STREET FRONTS SHALL BE BETWEEN 1,5M. IN HEIGHT</li> </ul>	

25.08.2009 11:04



Figure 6.6: Landscape Regulations of Semikler Yali District.

# SEMİKLER - YALI DISTRICT URBAN DESIGN PROJECT LANDSCAPE REGULATIONS

## PLANTING ON PUBLIC TRACTS

- ALL TREES IN PUBLIC TRACT SHALL BE NURSERY GROWN. NO COLLECTED MATERIAL WILL BE ACCEPTED. ALL TREES SHOULD HAVE A MINIMUM OF 4 OR 5M. ONE TREE TYPE SHALL BE SELECTED PER TRAFFICWAY
- PLANTING OF PRIVATE LOTS
- A- THERE SHOULD BE AT LEAST ONE TREE OF THE SPECIES LISTED BELOW, PLANTED IN A FRONT OR REAR YARD
  - B- THE USE OF FRUIT, BERRY AND NUT TREES IS ENCOURAGED
  - C- ALL SHRUBS SHOULD BE PLANTED IN GROUPS OF AT LEAST TEN (OF LIKE SPECIES) RATHER THAN AS INDIVIDUALS OF THE ARCHITECTURAL WALLS). WHEREAS PLANTINGS TOWARDS THE BACKS OF YARDS, COULD TAKE ON MORE IRREGULAR AND NATURALIZED CONFIGURATION AND SPACINGS
  - E- PLANTINGS TOWARDS THE STREET SHOULD RESPECT THE INTEGRITY OF THE STREET. PLANTINGS SHOULD NOT OBSCURE THE BUILDINGS AND SHOULD RESPECT VIEWS TO AND FROM STREETS, PORCHES, WALKS AND PUBLIC PARKS

## PROCEDURES

## PLANTING ON PUBLIC TRACTS

### MAIN SQUARE & PARKS :

PRIMARY TREES SHOULD BE QUERCUS ROBUR (LIVE OAK), AND PHOENIX TREES ON THE GROUNDS OF CIVIC BUILDINGS. INCLUDE/CONSIDER :

- JULIUS CARPINIFOLIA (DRAKE ELM)
- PHOENIX
- IN PARKS ALSO INCLUDE/CONSIDER:
- ACER RUBRUM (MAPLE)
- TAXODIUM DISTICHURM
- PINUS ELLIOTTI (SLASH PINE DENSA)
- QUERCUS ALBA (LOBLOLLY PINE)
- PINUS CLAUDIA (SAND PINE)
- MAGNOLIA GRANDIFLORA (MAGNOLIA)
- IN PARKS ALSO INCLUDE/CONSIDER:
- JULIUS CARPINIFOLIA (DRAKE ELM)
- QUERCUS ROBUR (LIVE OAK)

### TYPE & ROADS

IN PARKS ALSO INCLUDE/CONSIDER:

- JULIUS CARPINIFOLIA (DRAKE ELM)
- QUERCUS ROBUR (LIVE OAK)
- IN PARKS ALSO INCLUDE/CONSIDER:
- JULIUS CARPINIFOLIA (DRAKE ELM)
- ACER RUBRUM (MAPLE)

### TYPE & PARKS

- ACER RUBRUM (MAPLE)
- JULIUS CARPINIFOLIA (DRAKE ELM)

### TYPE & ROADS

IN PARKS ALSO INCLUDE/CONSIDER:

- CUPRESSUS SEMPERVIRENS (CYPRUS)
- LAGERSTROEMIA INDICA (GRAPE MYRTLE)
- CARDBARRINGS
- ACER PSEUDOPLATANUS (MAPLE)

### PLANTING ON PRIVATE LOTS

CANOPY TREES

- PLATANUS OCCIDENTALIS (WYOMING)
- TAXODIUM DISTICHURM (BALD CYPRUS)

### FRUIT AND NUT TREES

- CITRUS SPP (ORANGE, GRAPEFRUIT, LEMON)
- PRINUS AMYGDALUS (ALMOND TREE)
- PRINUS DOMESTICA (PLUM TREE)

### EVERGREEN TREES

- PINUS ELLIOTTI (SLASH PINE)
- PRINUS PARVIFLORA (LONGLEAF PINE)
- PRINUS CLAUDIA (SAND PINE)

### VIKES

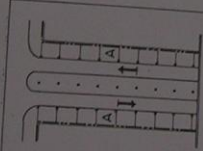
- MYRTICA CORYMBOSA (MYRTLE)
- WESTERIA SINCUS (WESTERIA)
- TRACHELOSPERMA JASMINOIDES (LAMBARK)
- POULI REPENS (POULI)

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# ŞEMİKLER - YALI DISTRICT URBAN DESIGN PROJECT STREET REGULATIONS

PLAN

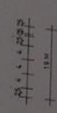
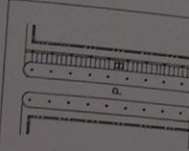
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**SPECIFICATIONS**  
DESIGN SPEED  
SUPERELEVATION  
MIN. CENTERLINE RADIUS  
PAVEMENT WIDTH  
ROW WIDTH  
CURB RADIUS  
PEDESTRIAN CROSSING TIME  
ORANGE CROSSING TIME  
AVERAGE DAILY TRAFFIC

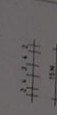
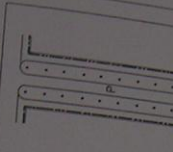
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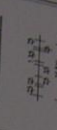
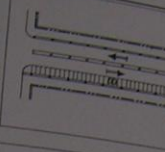
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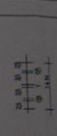
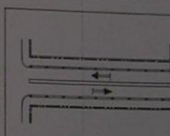
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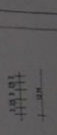
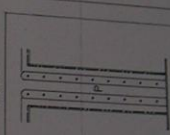
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TYPE 4



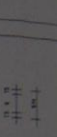
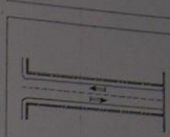
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TYPE 5



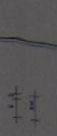
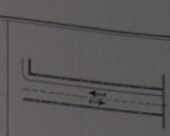
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TYPE 6



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TYPE 7



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Figure 4.8 Traditional Neighbourhood Development Ordinance, Palm Beach County, Florida, USA. (Source: Dunny and Zyberk 1992)

# T.N.D. ORDINANCE

## INTENT

- A. PURPOSES** of the Ordinance are to:
1. Establish a system of zoning which will provide for the orderly development of the County and its various communities.
  2. Provide for the health, safety and general welfare of the County.
  3. Provide for the efficient use of the land.
  4. Provide for the preservation of the natural resources of the County.
  5. Provide for the preservation of the historic resources of the County.
  6. Provide for the preservation of the scenic resources of the County.
  7. Provide for the preservation of the cultural resources of the County.
  8. Provide for the preservation of the architectural resources of the County.
  9. Provide for the preservation of the engineering resources of the County.
  10. Provide for the preservation of the scientific resources of the County.
  11. Provide for the preservation of the artistic resources of the County.
  12. Provide for the preservation of the literary resources of the County.
  13. Provide for the preservation of the musical resources of the County.
  14. Provide for the preservation of the dramatic resources of the County.
  15. Provide for the preservation of the historical resources of the County.
  16. Provide for the preservation of the archaeological resources of the County.
  17. Provide for the preservation of the paleontological resources of the County.
  18. Provide for the preservation of the geological resources of the County.
  19. Provide for the preservation of the biological resources of the County.
  20. Provide for the preservation of the environmental resources of the County.

## CONDITIONS

- A. PURPOSES** of the Ordinance are to:
1. Establish a system of zoning which will provide for the orderly development of the County and its various communities.
  2. Provide for the health, safety and general welfare of the County.
  3. Provide for the efficient use of the land.
  4. Provide for the preservation of the natural resources of the County.
  5. Provide for the preservation of the historic resources of the County.
  6. Provide for the preservation of the scenic resources of the County.
  7. Provide for the preservation of the cultural resources of the County.
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  16. Provide for the preservation of the archaeological resources of the County.
  17. Provide for the preservation of the paleontological resources of the County.
  18. Provide for the preservation of the geological resources of the County.
  19. Provide for the preservation of the biological resources of the County.
  20. Provide for the preservation of the environmental resources of the County.

## DEFINITIONS

**A. SPECIAL PURPOSES** include:

1. **Accessory Use:** A use which is customarily incident to and dependent upon the principal use of the premises.
2. **Adult Entertainment:** A use which involves the sale, lease, or rental of premises for the purpose of the performance of a theatrical production, a musical performance, or a similar entertainment.
3. **Adult Motion Picture:** A motion picture which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
4. **Adult Theater:** A theater which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
5. **Adult Video:** A video which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
6. **Adult Book:** A book which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
7. **Adult Magazine:** A magazine which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
8. **Adult Newspaper:** A newspaper which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
9. **Adult Journal:** A journal which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
10. **Adult Pamphlet:** A pamphlet which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
11. **Adult Brochure:** A brochure which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
12. **Adult Leaflet:** A leaflet which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
13. **Adult Card:** A card which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
14. **Adult Sign:** A sign which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
15. **Adult Advertisement:** An advertisement which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
16. **Adult Display:** A display which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
17. **Adult Sale:** A sale which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
18. **Adult Exhibition:** An exhibition which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
19. **Adult Performance:** A performance which is classified as "X" or "XXX" by the Motion Picture Association of America.
20. **Adult Entertainment:** A use which involves the sale, lease, or rental of premises for the purpose of the performance of a theatrical production, a musical performance, or a similar entertainment.

# TRADITIONAL NEIGHBORHOOD DEVELOPMENT ORDINANCE PALM BEACH COUNTY, FLORIDA

	F. LAND USE		G. LAND ALLOCATION		H. LOTS AND BUILDINGS		I. STREETS AND ALLEYS		J. PARKING	
<b>GENERAL</b>	1. General Land Use	2. Public Land Allocation	3. Public Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation
<b>PUBLIC USE</b>	1. Public Land Use	2. Public Land Allocation	3. Public Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation
<b>CITIC USE</b>	1. Civic Land Use	2. Civic Land Allocation	3. Civic Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation
<b>COMMERCIAL</b>	1. Commercial Land Use	2. Commercial Land Allocation	3. Commercial Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation
<b>LOW DENSITY RESIDENTIAL</b>	1. Low Density Residential Land Use	2. Low Density Residential Land Allocation	3. Low Density Residential Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation
<b>MEDIUM DENSITY RESIDENTIAL</b>	1. Medium Density Residential Land Use	2. Medium Density Residential Land Allocation	3. Medium Density Residential Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation
<b>WORKHOOP</b>	1. Workhoop Land Use	2. Workhoop Land Allocation	3. Workhoop Land Allocation	4. General Land Allocation	5. General Land Allocation	6. General Land Allocation	7. General Land Allocation	8. General Land Allocation	9. General Land Allocation	10. General Land Allocation

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Figure 4.20 The Poundbury Regulating Plan (Source: Doany and Zsbert, 1991)



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Figure 4. 21: The Town of Wellington Regulating Plan (Source: Katz 1994).





Figure 4.22: The Town of Wellington Urban Regulations I (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).

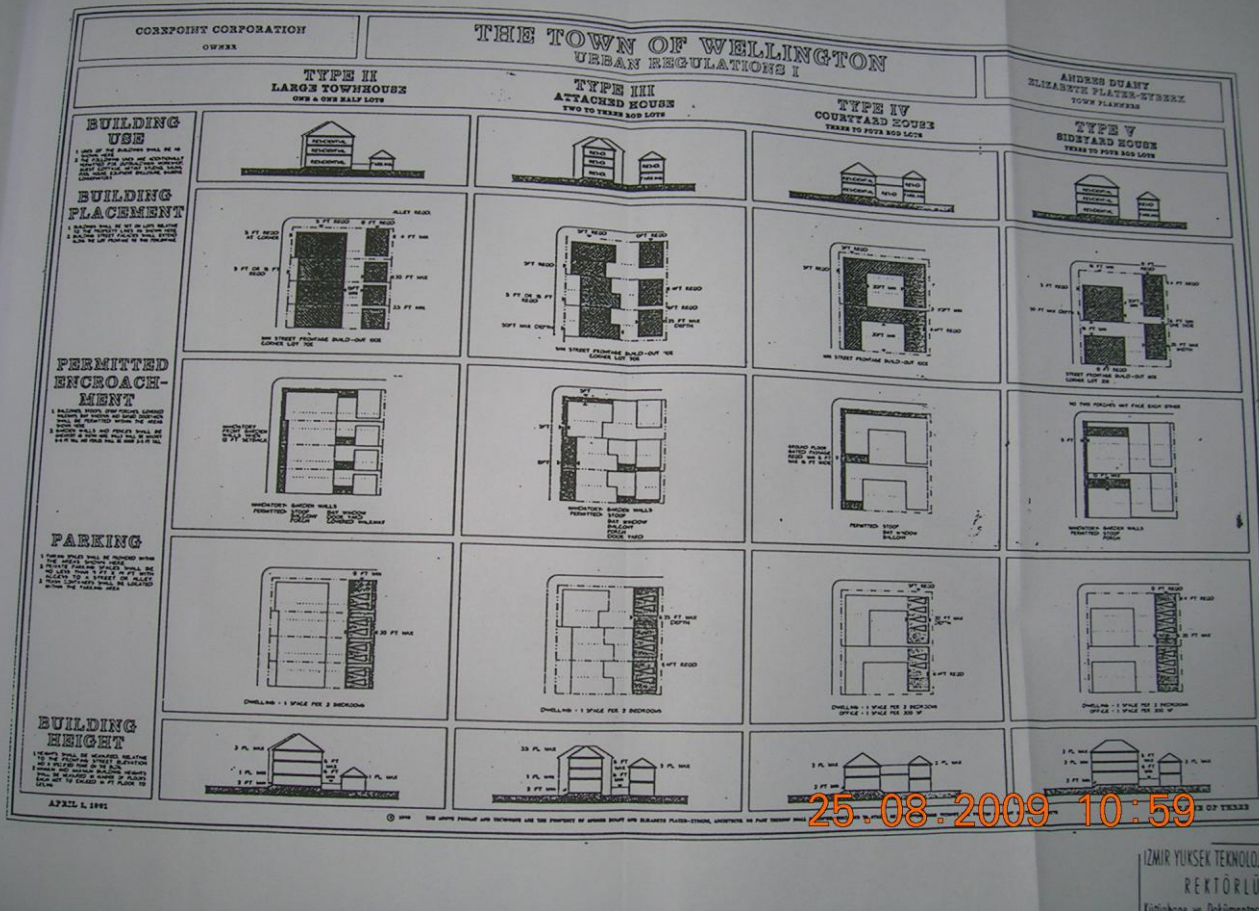


Figure 4.23: The Town of Wellington Urban Regulations II (Source: Duany and Zyberk 1991).

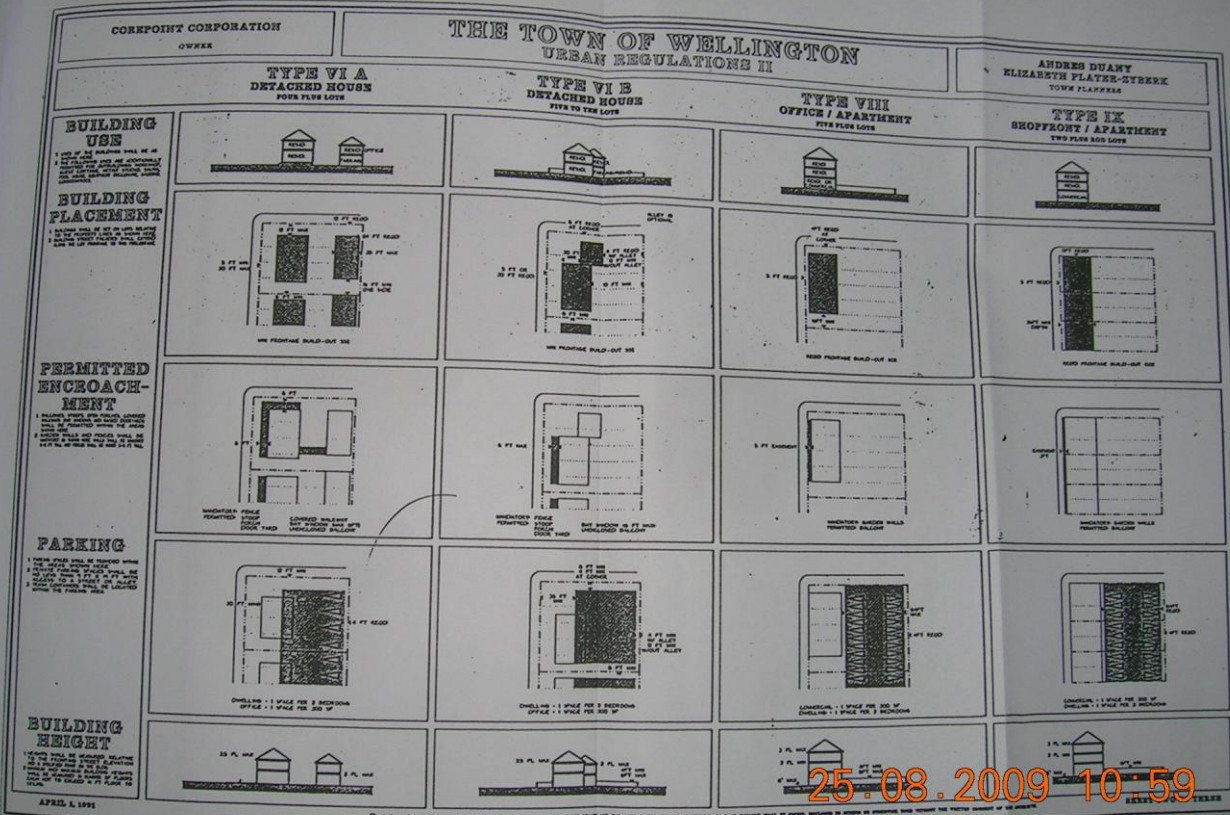


Figure 4.24 The Town of Avalon Architectural Regulations (Source: Katz 1984)

FLAG DEVELOPMENT COMPANY		THE AVALON CODE ARCHITECTURAL REGULATIONS			ADDRESS DUART ELIZABETH PLAZA STREET TOWN PLANNING	
	BUILDING WALLS	BUILDING ELEMENTS	ROOFS	WINDOWS & DOORS	GARDEN WALLS	
<b>MATERIALS</b>	<p>Building walls may be clad by wood clapboard, wood shingle, wood board and batten or weathered pressure treated siding.</p> <p>Building walls may be finished in brick selected from the Town Architect's List.</p> <p>Building walls may be finished in smooth stucco.</p> <p>Building walls may be made of split-faced block, precast concrete or cast stone.</p>	<p>Columns, posts, balustrades, porches and bay windows shall be made of wood.</p> <p>Columns, posts and arches may be made of brick or stone.</p> <p>Stoops may be made of brick, stone, cast concrete or precast treated wood.</p> <p>Fences and railings may be made of steel or chain-link sections.</p> <p>Signs shall be made of concrete or wood.</p>	<p>Roofs may be clad with red cedar shingles, brown cedar shingles, or a government seal.</p> <p>Chimneys shall be made of galvanized steel, copper or painted aluminum.</p>	<p>Windows and doors shall be made of aluminum, wood or vinyl-clad wood.</p> <p>Windows and doors shall be placed to allow clear view to more than a 10% through view.</p>	<p>Building walls may be finished in brick, stone or cast stone according to previous building.</p> <p>Fences shall be made of wood, stone, brick or metal.</p>	
<b>CONFIGURATION</b>	<p>Two or more wall materials may be combined on one facade only horizontally.</p> <p>Exterior chimneys shall be finished in brick or stone.</p> <p>Columns, except as upon balustrade, are not permitted.</p>	<p>Columns, if permitted, shall be of the Types as listed within with proportions and moldings according to The Architect's Manual.</p> <p>Splines and balustrades on balconies, porches and decks shall not exceed 3" on center.</p> <p>Fence and legible openings shall be square or vertical in proportion.</p> <p>Balconies shall not exceed 7' in depth.</p> <p>Bay windows shall be habitable spaces excited to the ground.</p> <p>Steel railings shall not exceed 4" on center.</p> <p>Signs may be no bigger than 36" in vertical dimension.</p>	<p>Principal building walls shall be symmetrical gables or hips, pitched between 4:11 and 8:11.</p> <p>Steel (concrete) roofs shall be attached to the highest point of the principal building. The pitch of a steel roof shall be no less than 1:11.</p> <p>Flat roofs shall be finished by parapets no less than 4" high.</p> <p>Chimneys shall be placed a minimum of 36" from side building walls.</p> <p>Chimneys shall be finished with a symmetrical gable or hip.</p> <p>Chimneys shall be half round at overhanging corners and right at right corners.</p>	<p>Windows may be square or vertical in proportion. Additionally, windows may be circular or hexagonal.</p> <p>Group doors shall be a minimum width of 6'.</p> <p>The following are prohibited construction:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>wood doors used in such openings</li> <li>curved openings (except circular porches)</li> </ul>	<p>Brick or stone walls shall be no less than 4" with and height.</p> <p>Stucco shall be made with no more than 2" gaps between panels.</p> <p>Stucco and walls in stone shall be finished to and of its height.</p> <p>The underside of decks shall be finished by wood.</p>	
<b>TECHNIQUE</b>	<p>Clapboard shall be 3.5" to 6" to the weather. Depending shall not exceed 10" to the weather. Board and batten shall not exceed 10" and 2" rousing alternately.</p> <p>Board over at corners and around openings shall not exceed 4" to the weather except at the front door surround which may be any size at quarter garrison. Board over shall be flush with the wall surface.</p> <p>Brick shall be laid in a true bonding pattern (no such as running "bond").</p> <p>Brick mortar joints shall be struck and no more than 1/2" wide.</p> <p>Stucco shall be smooth sand finish.</p> <p>Concrete block shall be split faced precast concrete.</p>	<p>Brick and stone arches shall be no less than 12" in depth. Piers shall be no less than 12" x 12".</p> <p>Wood posts shall be no less than 3" x 3" and chamfered at the corners.</p> <p>Curved signs may be internally lit. Wood signs may be externally lit.</p>	<p>Over-hanging eaves shall expose rafters.</p> <p>Tripart eaves shall be finished by a molding.</p> <p>Wood posts shall be no less than 3" x 3" and chamfered at the corners.</p> <p>Curved signs may be internally lit. Wood signs may be externally lit.</p>	<p>Rectangular windows shall be largest common, single or double hung.</p> <p>Double windows may be hinged adjacent to top.</p> <p>Circular and hexagonal windows may be fixed or pivot.</p> <p>All doors must be hinged except garage doors.</p> <p>Hiding doors are permitted at back yard facilities only.</p> <p>The total glazing area on the facade shall not exceed 30% of the facade surface.</p>	<p>Wood fences shall be painted white.</p>	

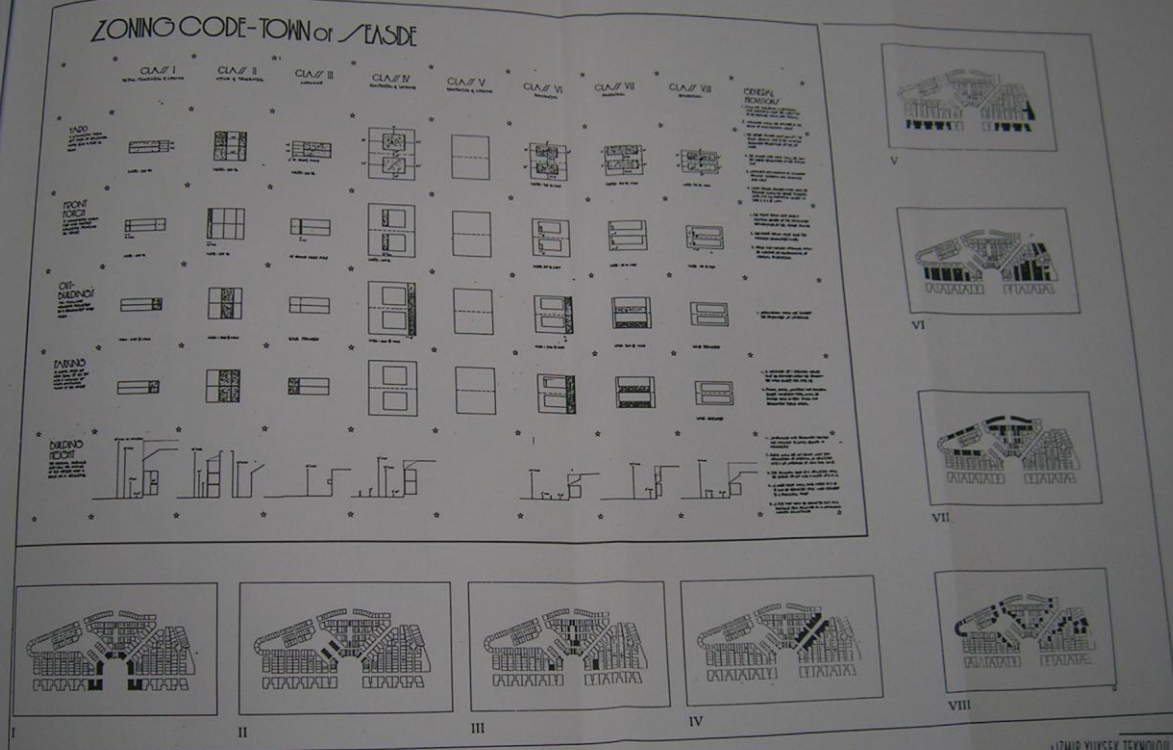
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Figure 4.30: Seaside Community Urban Code (Source: Diary and Zyberk 1991).



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İZMİR YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ ENSTİTÜSÜ  
Kentsel ve Sıkılaşma Bölümü



