1.1 [LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE AS THE THIRD PLACE]

This thesis investigates the concept of Third Place. Ray Oldenburg once said:

“What suburbia cries for are the means for people to gather easily, inexpensively, regularly and pleasurably – a place on the corner, real life alternatives to television, easy escapes from the cabin fever of marriage and family life that does not necessitate getting in an automobile”

– (Oldenburg: 2001: Pg 6).

What Oldenburg refers to here is the need for what he deems the Third Place.

The Third Place refers to an informal public gathering place apart from the home (the first place) and the work or school (the second place). Oldenburg identifies these places as ‘havens of sociability’ shops, bars and general stores that promote social equality by levelling the status of guests, provide a setting for grassroots’ politics, creating habitats of public association and offering psychological support to individuals and community (Oldenburg: 2001). Oldenburg identifies how these places are essential to local democracy and community vitality and together increase the potential for a locality to be more socially inclusive and therefore to have an enhanced level of social wellness and more desirable places (Oldenburg: 2001). Oldenburg also identifies how these Third Places are in decline throughout the suburbs due to modern planning (Jones and Williamson: 2009: Pg 59) and that many urban places that do exist have been criticised for failing to serve the needs of residents (Hester: 1984). These urban places witness non-use rather than overuse as the key problem (Gold:1978).

These Third Places are not merely places to escape the ‘cabin fever of family life and marriage’ they are neighbourhood gathering spaces where people routinely hang out and socialise. They are private spaces that offer informal public interaction and tend to have minimal restrictions on access and can accommodate a variety of different types of people who can share equally and form strong social ties. From the “well off and struggling to the old and young” (Jones and Williamson: 2009: Pg 59). Jones and Williamson use the popular comedy series ‘Cheers’ to illustrate the Third Place, here the characters - psychiatrists, postmen, young and old -meet in a pub to drink, relax, chat and have fun. The most important aspect of these third spaces is they are places for friendship, love, entertainment and connections (Fig 1-1).

This concept of Third Places, how they provide for the community and improve quality of life within the suburbs, is not a new concept. Many theorists have alluded to similar concepts in their writings, although not directly utilising the term Third Places their understanding is similar. These other theories will be discussed later in this thesis in Chapter 4. Despite its applicability and relevance, a key constraint on Oldenburg’s theory is it does not place emphasis on, or consider to any degree how landscape can add to this dimension of the Third Place. Much of Oldenburg’s writing is focused on architectural elements of the Third Places - coffee shops, restaurants and corner shops. He places little emphasis on public places in terms of landscape and how in particular landscape interventions can provide this much needed Third Place for the community. Examples of these landscapes as Third Places consist of plazas, pocket parks, places for seating, lounging and streetscapes with their
temporary landscapes (Fig 1-2). These can vary through a variety of scales and design and will be elaborated on later in this chapter.

Another criticism is that the vast majority of Oldenburg’s research is based in the white middle class suburbs of California. His research therefore contrasts markedly to landscape in countries whose cultural roots differ with that of white middle class America (Fig 1-3). It can be argued that the third space is more than ‘escaping marriage’ or having a venue in which to live life but it is a reference to how different concepts of society and community are reflected in the landscape. Many countries throughout the world be they Malaysia, Fiji, Mexico, Italy, and of particular interest New Zealand, will all have different concepts, needs and understanding of this Third Place philosophy. An example of this is in northern territories of Australia (in cities such as Derby and Darwin), large intergenerational groups of Aborigine sit under trees all over town, this therefore acts a third space (Fig 1-4). Within New Zealand and the Maori culture it can be argued that the Marae, through the use of the meeting areas, the landscape, the functionality and the purpose it serves in the greater community is an example of a Third Places (Fig 1-5). However these norms are very different from the Christchurch norms, and may be different from any other part of the world. This indicates the need to ensure any findings are adapted and applied to the local context.
SO WHAT DOES THIS MEAN FOR LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE?

Whilst the term the Third Place in not commonly used amongst landscape architects, the design of these Third Places is central to a profession whose ethical principles are aimed at seeking to create a quality environment for people. This concept is noted through various ethical guidelines and principles attached to the profession: ‘to conserve or enhance the quality of all human values, to advocate values that support human health and to recognise and protect the cultural and historical context of the landscape’ (IFLA: 2012, NZILA: 2012). Therefore as landscape architects we strive to design Third Places in the landscape. But not just any Third Places: we strive to design ‘successful’ Third Places.

These successful Third Places are the great places in cities and suburban centres. Landscape Architecture as a practice also provides us with the opportunities through the redesign process to deal with problem landscapes such as non-use of some spaces. This redesign is driven by process of design critique, here we can obtain a chance to redesign failing places, to pick them apart and look at both the positive and negative aspects of the design thus making them appeal to a range of users through innovative programmed space that attracts larger numbers and broader categories of people (Sommer: 1989).

1.2 [RESEARCH AIMS]

The aim of this research is to analyse the concept of the designed landscape as the Third Place and to ascertain common elements and criteria that are found in these Third Places. With an emphasis on the Christchurch suburb of Riccarton, the goal is to expand on the types of landscape designs that goes into these as Third Place.

The key question is what is the ideal form for the Third Places of Riccarton? In order to establish these key design elements of the Third Place, this thesis will analyse past and current thinking about the design of Third Places, and also analyse designs from the places that “work well” around the world. This research will include analysis of Third Places both in the central city and suburban areas in an attempt to draw a set of distinctive criteria that will enhance landscape architecture’s understanding and design of Third Place. These elements will be refined and then applied as clear criteria to the suburb of Riccarton, in Christchurch, New Zealand.

Whether a Third Place works well or not is often a point of contention. Many of the great Third Places around the world have attracted both positive and negative critique.

It is evident through observation that a small majority of these Third Places work well, this can be seen through constant and lively use or positive critiques of their design. However, this is not the case for ALL Third Places. In some cities and suburbs there are Third Places that are never populated; they are desolate places with no social activities or use of any kind.

Therefore this raises the question: Moving around a city how can we ascertain what are the great, good Third Places? What are these Third Places? What do they look like? Why do they work? Is it as simple as a populated place with many people means a place works well (Whyte: 1960) or is there more to this? Can a Third Place still serve its purpose and work well if there is only one person populating it and making use of it? Once we have found these places this raises the question - what is it about the good places that makes them good?

Within this research I have adopted the term of Third Places to refer to social space in the landscape. Research over time has been dedicated to the design of the “great good places” and social spaces (Oldenburg: 2001). However Oldenburg is not alone with this concept, with a wealth of information from objective to subjective findings, identifying the need to design these successful places of landscape architecture.

In 1961 Jane Jacobs, a Canadian urban theorist, influenced the spirit of the times with her book ‘The Life and Death of Great American Cities’. This book provided a powerful critique of the urban renewal policies that existed in
America. She explained how modern planning destroyed communities and created isolated and unnatural urban spaces and emphasised the need to design places for people (Fig 1-6). Her work was supported by others such as William H Whyte (1968) ‘Public life of urban spaces’ (Fig 1-7), Jan Gehl (1987), David Engwhict (1993) and Clare Cooper Marcus (1998) and more recently works through the formation of organisations such as Projects for Public Spaces (PPS). Many of these theorists have written articles, books, completed projects, conducted lengthy research and one, PPS, have even trained over 10,000 people into helping to create positive places and sustain places that build stronger communities (PPS: 2011). Each of these theorists has focused on different areas of design, have concluded the need for different design elements, and have placed different emphasis on certain factors in the built environment. However all have a similar aim in their research in that design, whatever form it comes in, must be for the people.

At present it appears, when it comes to the design of the Third Places of landscape architecture, specific design elements are merely alluded to rather than clearly articulated into a cohesive list or in clear criteria, thus raising the question: **Is it as simple as a clear set of design criteria that when implemented on sites create these great good places? As landscape architects can we determine a pre-prescribed list of design elements that when implemented on a site will create these successful Third Places? If not - what more is needed?**

Ascertaining the design elements of successful Third Places will enable us to formulate criteria for successful design. These criteria can then be applied to the suburb of Riccarton, Christchurch. This will raise the question of design translation through scales and around different areas of the city. **Can concepts that work well in the inner cities, and sometimes from cities from around the world, be applied successfully to the New Zealand suburb of Riccarton?**
In all research you need to be able to address ‘what is the question your research attempts to answer?’ Therefore the researcher has to be able to shape the strategy, method of enquiry and motives behind this question. For this thesis the research method is expanded upon in Chapter 2. Using Deming and Swaffield (2011) checklist for framing research questions the above information can be cut down for this thesis:

**Checklist from Deming and Swaffield (2011)**

**TOPIC:** I am investigating the Third Place of landscape architecture. What are the characteristics of ‘successful’ Third Places and how can they be applied to the localised context of Riccarton.

**QUESTION:** Because I want to find out how we measure if a place is successful or not and why some Third Places work well and why others are abject failures.

**STRATEGY:** I am using a projective design strategy. The projective design strategy involves a design driven approach to research. Using a combination of traditional research methods such as observation, literature review, testing and case study analysis combined with the untraditional approaches of design and critique. Future concepts for Riccarton and its Third Places are explored.

**MOTIVE:** In order to understand if designing the Third Place is as simple as a set of pre-prescribed design criteria or if it involves other factors.

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**1.3 RAY OLDENBURG & LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE AS THE THIRD PLACE:**

*What is this Third Place of Landscape Architecture?*

As Oldenburg indicates, the Third Place is essential to local democracy and community vitality. He sees it as where people come together outside the home and work to meet and form bonds. However in Oldenburg’s theory the majority of focus is on architecture and built forms to provide these Third Places; pubs, cafes and coffee shops. He does not place emphasis on the significance of open space, built landscapes and how landscape interventions can also provide this much needed Third Place for the community.

As the Third Places are interpreted as social places in the community, it is clear that many places fall into the category of Third Places. If home is the first place, work and school is the second, then it could be argued that every other building and place in the environment could be considered as Third Places. This therefore opens out a vast area of research, with difficulties defining and focusing on a specific area and with elements that overlap and coincide with one another. For the purpose of this research, the focus will be on landscape elements of the Third Place. This does not exclude the role architecture plays, but highlights how the landscape can provide Third Places.
CHAPTER 1       Introduction

RICCARTON      The art of the Third Place

What are the Third Places of Landscape Architecture?

The Third Place does not have to be limited to a local corner shop, bar or café. Plazas, grassed areas, a lookout, a shady area, a point of interest, places for seating, and lounging and temporary landscapes all provide informal meeting points and therefore increased levels of community cohesion (Fig 1-8 to Fig 1-11).

An analysis of the theory, design factors, role of the architecture, role of the urban design elements, and elements of thought and perception will contribute to a typology of landscape architecture as the Third Place to be developed in this research.
1.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF THESE THIRD PLACES

Third Places hinge on community and create places for social interaction. They can help to establish a sense of community and ‘civic’ pride in an area by creating ‘iconic’ spaces and identity.

This social element of outdoor space is beneficial in that public life today, with the introduction of new technology, we are becoming an increasingly privatised society. People can be friends with those who live thousands of miles away yet not know their neighbours. Public spaces provide the much needed ‘heart’ of an area and an anchor for public life and interaction. This interaction is also beneficial in a cultural sense as Third Places encourage social interaction between different communities and different social groups, thus fostering a sense of understanding.

However there are also other reasons why, as landscape architects, we should seek to successfully design the Third Place.

The provision of Third Places in a community also provides many health and psychological benefits (CABE: 2009). Due to increased stress in peoples day to day lives an increased appetite for public space has developed as it provides a relaxing environment. This is also emphasised by Telford (2007) who suggests the need for open space and outdoor activities is a basic human need. Telford’s work is based on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Human Needs (1954) who suggested a human will work to fulfil a series of basic needs to reach a level of fulfilment in their lives.

Third Places can be green places, parks, public gardens, temporary installations, native patches, and therefore contribute towards enhancing the ecological diversity of an area and having a subsequent positive effect on the environment. With this ecology role, and the ability for these places to be moulded to suit various activities, Third Places can provide a strong educational component, acting as an outdoor classroom.

Third Places also provide a strong economic advantage to an area. Well designed and maintained Third Places in a neighbourhood can have a positive impact on neighbourhood renewal. Third Places can also be seen as Value Generators (Thoerig: 2011). For example, good quality open spaces, not only increase the attractiveness of a place, they increase the value of real estate in the immediate area. They benefit local businesses often helping with the attraction and retention of employees, furthermore they can provide strong links with movement and transport routes throughout the city. Providing desirable Third Places that link and enhance transport nodes and make the system work as a cohesive whole.

Another important role of landscape Third Places is their ability to enhance the resilience of a community by providing a ‘place’ during and post disasters. This was emphasised during the Christchurch earthquakes, when
Third Places acted as emergency evacuation points, and meeting points. They were a place that the community began to congregate in and use as an essential ‘base’, where information and essential resources were held. These Third Places often appeared on key intersections of streets or key nodes, and iconic places in the community. They were spontaneous and informal which again reinforces the way in which Third Places develop.

A particular focus in this research are the Third Places in a ‘first suburb’ (The concept of a ‘first suburb’ is explored later in this chapter, Pg.18). These places will have a different orientation, scale and use to those of Inner City centres and those in a suburban context.

1.5 [THE CBD TO THE BURBS AND EVERYWHERE IN-BETWEEN]

A (very brief) History of the City, City formation and where do my suburbs lie?

In order to understand the importance of urban spaces [Third Places] and how they may influence the design of cities it is important to understand how the city formed in relation to Third Places.

Were there Third Places in the rural idyll?

The introduction of the automobile in the 1920’s and its increasing affordability had a major influence on city form. New ways of living developed, with people travelling from where they lived to where they worked, and the numbers moving to the suburbs slowly increased. By the 1950’s and 1960’s the city was characterised by spreading masses of suburbs as people began to experience the “romantic suburb” concept. Here they saw that “family lifestyle could be constructed in surroundings that offered the prospect of beautification while shutting out the ills of the city” (Cookson & Dunstall: 2000: Pg 77) (Muller: 1968) (Fig 1-12). These suburbs made it possible for ordinary people to enjoy “the privacy, space, leisure time and choice that was once only available for the richest of the rich” (Dicarlo: 2008: Pg 54). This suburban sprawl created not only new environmental problems – such as traffic congestion and the consumption of good agricultural land (Cookson & Dunstall: 2000: Pg 75), but also social problems. The heightened social problems were through the risk of becoming a nightmare of sameness, with many inhabitants suffering from neurosis, and withdrawal from city life. Many people would drive to and from their houses and their work. There appeared to be no need for the Third Places in these areas. People owned their own gardens as private spaces drove to the shops and work. There was barely the need for any footpaths or meeting places outside of the home environment.

As more people migrated to the suburbs the suburban growth changed inner residents’ relationship with the city (Thorn and Schrader: 2010). What once was the social
heart shifted from downtown to suburban areas and people began to spend more time at home. With this shift went the retail and this therefore formed the creation of big box retail, strip malls and self contained shopping malls. Business and industry parks soon followed, forming the edge of the outer urban areas (Brown et al: 2009).

However this suburban living was not meant to remain a constant with the formation of the city beginning to follow a centralised / decentralisation process. As High tech and worldwide businesses soon moved back to the central city and with them employees moved, many of them into the formally abandoned neighbourhoods. This is seen in the development of new business parks alongside the traditional neighbourhood shopping areas (See Fig 1-14). This influx of people, improvement of transport services and money into the area had an effect on the economy of these inner suburbs (Fig 1-13).
1.6 THE FORMATION OF CHRISTCHURCH & THE IMPORTANCE OF THE THIRD PLACE
CHAPTER 1  ■  Introduction

[THE IMPORTANCE OF THE LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE THIRD PLACE TO THIS CITY FORMATION]:

History of Christchurch Planning: (localising and focus on Riccarton)

Christchurch, New Zealand, followed a very similar formation to many of the large western cities around the world outlined in the previous section.

(Fig 1-16) Originally designed in the United Kingdom by the Canterbury Association, Christchurch was formed as a city based on rural and processing industries. The city was laid out in a grid pattern bounded by the four avenues and was typical of contemporary approaches to urban design for new towns (Christchurch City Council: 2005). The design entailed structure around open spaces with the designation of land set aside for market places, cemetery reserves, and a major area of public open space, Hagley Park. The site which was chosen for the placement of Christchurch City was unlike that of any other cities around New Zealand in that it was flat without any natural elements that defined or enclosed it (Christchurch City Council: 2005).

Over time Christchurch grew concentrically across the plain, maintaining the grid pattern (Thorn & Schrader: 2010). Similar to many cities around the world the desire for individual space, an ample supply of land and the introduction of the automobile as a commodity every person could afford set the suburban pattern. First the suburbs formed along key transport routes with people purchasing larger rural sections on the boundaries of the town belt (Christchurch City Council: 2005).

By 1870 in Christchurch there were almost as many people living in the suburbs as resided in the inner city (Rice: 2004: Pg 41). By 1878 40% of the population of New Zealand was living in the boroughs (urban areas) (Thorn and Schrader: 2010) and in 1911 New Zealand officially moved from being a rural to a urban society with just over 50% of people living in either boroughs or one four major cities (ibid), of which Christchurch was one. Suburban parks where well provided for, with the city being described as ‘well-endowed with suburban parks’ (Christchurch City Council: 2005: Pg 99). However this was not always the case for all suburbs with the older inner suburbs generally less generously supplied with parks than the more recent suburbs (Christchurch City Council: 2005: Pg 102).

In 1940 new suburban areas formed within Christchurch such as Upper Riccarton, Sydenham and Addington. However these did not come into existence fully formed and were usually very bare with large amounts of space. Formed along the west road from Christchurch was ‘Riccarton Road’ being best described as a wilderness in which ‘the only vertical element was power poles’ (Cookson and Dunstall: Pg 77) (Fig 1-15). Riccarton itself formed firstly at upper Riccarton which grew at the point where the main road west and south of the city divide. This was then eventually swallowed up as the city expanded along Riccarton Road towards what is now known as Riccarton (Christchurch City Council: 2005).

Christchurch as the suburban city onwards...

After the 1960s motorcars proliferated, spawning motels, carparking buildings, overbridges and the one way system in Christchurch (Ibid: Pg 131). By the 1970s registered motor vehicles outnumbered the people in Christchurch (Ibid: Pg...
Shopping centres where placed at strategic intervals, and supermarkets saw a massive growth, often sounding in the deathnell for corner stores and dairies (Ibid: Pg 132).

Many of these new suburbs where focused along main transport routes. In Christchurch, these consisted of the main arterial routes to and from the city and strong links with the growing tramways. The city had no defined boundaries and continued to grow with the population.

Sprawl resulted in the loss of productive land, traffic congestion and spiralling infrastructure costs. It is a classic example of design that is more focused on aesthetic reasons and less on consideration of the people that use the spaces. This sprawl and disconnection has resulted in a reduction in the very social eco-communities that fostered diversity, mutualism and connectivity. (Bookchin: 1992).

The trend for developments in Christchurch has been towards dispersed urban growth beyond the fringe of the City. At the same time there has been a strong shift in retail activity and employment from the concentration in the city to a dispersed pattern with more activity occurring in suburban centres.

Recent planning policy saw Christchurch developing as a polycentric city with development of suburbs as key activity points (Christchurch Urban Development Strategy: 2009). Due to each suburb effectively competing with one another it highlighted the need to make each activity centre the most desirable it could be to attract the most business and to make it the most prosperous with a clear need to finance the future of communities, to harness local assets and build on them.

Current planning in Christchurch, according to the Greater Urban Development Strategy, attempts to arrest this decentralisation through revitalisation of the central city. This has been part of a long term effort that has been driven by mayors Vicky Buck, Garry Moore and now Bob Parker. However, post earthquake, this revitalisation has now been questioned; what is the next stage for Christchurch and its relationships with the inner city post earthquake?
The skyline is slowly shrinking in the rear-view mirror. You have just passed the Tri-State Mall. Keep a watchful eye for the exit signs and try to remember the direction: Take a left, go under the highway, go right at the third traffic light, go two miles and turn in at the stone gate, just past the school (if you see the silos on the left, you’re gone too far), take the loop road to the right, look for the signs to the “estates” we’re number 36, the blue one with the window boxes. Just come around the back – we’ll be there. You all know the place: you’ve been there many times before. One hundred million of us live here and millions more aspire to residence. We are in the suburbs.

(Girling & Helphand: 1994: Pg 7)

1.7 RICCARTON - WHERE DOES IT FIT?

The quote on the left raises a point of interest for the focus area of this research. Research has tended to focus on sprawl and suburban living or the central business district of cities, (e.g. Whyte (1968) Gehl (2010). The point of interest raised by Girling & Helphand (1994) is the Tri-State Mall. What is this liminal space surrounding the mall? What are the places behind it the people living there? What is it like?

As highlighted previously, the shift of people away from the centre of the cities into the suburbs saw a shift in the way people lived in the city. They lived in one area and worked in another. What was left was this liminal space, an area between the two that remains not quite suburban and not quite inner city. Riccarton fits into this liminal typology, formed along one of the main transport routes from the city. It is not by any means no man’s land, providing various opportunities for shopping and recreation and a mix of both housing and business. However it rests on the outskirts of the inner city separated only by the 165ha Hagley Park and still not quite far enough away from the Central Business District to be deemed outer suburbs. (Fig 1 - 17).
Chapter 1       Introduction

Riccarton, Christchurch - and where does it fit?
It has been identified that there is a general lack of appreciation of the differences between inner and outer suburbs and that many descriptions of cities, city structures and city planning fail to recognise their diversity, their variable assets and the different challenges they face (Puentes & Warren: 2006: Pg 2). It is evident that whilst sharing some similarities with each of these, inner suburbs have their own unique character.

Puentes & Warren (2006) define these inner suburbs as ‘first’ suburbs. They claim that these first suburbs have a distinct demographic profile in that they grow at a faster rate than the city core, but at a slower rate than peripheral suburbs. This demographic also features growing racial diversity. First suburbs are home to the traditional family household, but at the same time they have a growing and ageing population. This population is wealthy and highly educated with a high percentage of white collar jobs, but contradicting this, Puentes and Warren (2006) also indicate that despite this wealth, first suburbs are growing in overall poverty.

This thesis is grounded in the suburbs of Riccarton, west of Christchurch’s inner city. Riccarton fits well into the demographic profile of a first suburb, as growth rate is high and has only been further exacerbated by the earthquake (Fig 1-18).
The population in Riccarton also matches the first suburb profile. There is a high percentage of racial diversity amongst the people of Riccarton, including 32.4% of the population who are Asian. This compares to the neighbouring suburb of Fendalton where only 6.5% of the population are Asian. Riccarton also has higher levels of Maori, Pacific peoples and Middle Eastern residents compared to other Christchurch suburbs (Statistics New Zealand: 2006). This is also apparent through the types of shops and amenities provided in Riccarton. The population of Riccarton varies in different ways and each area has a different occupation, housing, age, family structure, incomes and levels of education. The most distinguishable and important groups that support this first suburb demographic profile are: (See also figure 3:7, Page 50)

- **Young adults in rented flats:**
  Tended to move on to other areas. Impermanent, full time study, or employment. Found in most parts of Riccarton, particularly in Inner Riccarton near the mall in North and North West areas adjacent to the university.

- **Retired people in own homes:**
  Household consisting of retired people throughout Riccarton. Retired couple resident in house for more than 10 years with no intention of moving.

- **Family household with children:**
  Concentration based in area of north Riccarton – small areas of older housing adjacent to Hagley Park.

- **Transient Population:**
  Students who move to other areas frequently, tourists and people visiting to shop and work form other suburbs around Christchurch make up a large proportion of the population. (Source: Statistics New Zealand. NZ Census 2006)
1.9 RICCARTON - THE EARTHQUAKE, AS A FIRST SUBURB, AND WHY THE NEED FOR THESE THIRD PLACES?

The earthquakes of September 2010 and February 2011 have thrown all planning into the air with the future direction of the Christchurch rebuild to this day remaining somewhat unclear. New pressures, both positive and negative are being placed on the suburbs and activity points that would not have been envisaged a year ago. This brings both threats and opportunities. Threats are over population and poor planning of these suburbs with the increase in population numbers both transient and permanent. Opportunities include the chance to step up and approach how areas in Christchurch can be redesigned to improve the way these suburbs work.

The earthquakes themselves were unique in the level of damage they caused. The significant 2010 Canterbury earthquake (also known as the Christchurch earthquake or Darfield earthquake) was a 7.1 magnitude earthquake, which struck near Darfield, on 4 September 2010. This was followed by thousands of significant aftershocks the most destructive of which was an earthquake of magnitude 6.3 occurring on 22 February 2011, centred at Heathcote Valley, 7km from the Christchurch Central Business District (CBD). The February earthquake, even though it was of a lower magnitude, had a much more costly result than the first. The impact was felt across the city with many buildings collapsing or becoming significantly damaged in the quake. 185 people were killed, thousands were made homeless, and it is estimated that around 10,000 earthquake damaged homes will need to be demolished with the possibility that some parts of Christchurch will not be rebuilt (Simcox:2011). The hill suburbs were affected with deadly rock falls (Romanos:2011), land slips and liquefaction related land damage (Fig 1-19) occurred city wide with only a handful of western suburbs experiencing little to no damage (Table 1-1).

The destruction lead to the inevitable mass exodus of thousands of Cantabrians. However not all of them moved out the city. The result is that some suburbs have had significant changes in population with many people moving from the, highly damaged, Eastern suburbs (Figure 1-20) and the inner city to the western suburbs. Businesses have set up in many of the undamaged key ‘activity’ centres within these suburbs with a subsequent significant increase in both population and economic activity (Table of hazard caused by adjoining buildings or earthquake damage to that building. A Red sticker indicates a building is unsafe, do not enter. Yellow, restricted use with some parts only safe to enter and Green means the building has no restrictions on use or entry.

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<th>YELLOW</th>
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[Table 1-1] Building Assessment post Christchurch earthquake by City Ward. Adapted from Love (2011) Page 14.

A sticker system for the assessment of building safety was implemented during the civil defence state of emergency post earthquakes. This rapid visual assessment saw the distribution of red, yellow and green stickers. Each sticker represented the degree of hazard caused by adjoining buildings or earthquake damage to that building. A Red sticker indicates a building is unsafe, do not enter. Yellow, restricted use with some parts only safe to enter and Green means the building has no restrictions on use or entry.
1-3). Whilst the increased levels of social interaction and community spirit that is developing due to the increases in number and diversity of people within these centres needs to be acknowledged, there are however, also pressures and problems. These western suburbs have also begun to experience problems associated with the population influx. As the city centre remains shut, the infrastructure in Riccarton for one is being seriously over stretched. This has resulted in episodes of social disorder such as fighting on the streets and anti-social behaviour (Lynch: 2011). It is important that these pressures and problems are addressed as quickly as possible. There are opportunities to focus planning design and development in a way that responds to the new needs of these communities, to turn the current adversity into a challenge and to design in such a way, as to increase the levels of social wellness and social sustainability within a community and to prevent a return to “city decline”.

The question therefore remains - *What happens when the form and use of an area changes?* – and *how do you apply case studies and research from mainly central city urban settings to a New Zealand suburb?*

Post-earthquake there has been a number of questions raised as to the form and function of many of the ‘first suburbs’ of Christchurch, and how their Third Places can be designed in order to best fulfil community interest and create these ‘great good Third Places’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WARD</th>
<th>ONE YEAR POPULATION CHANGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banks Peninsula Ward</td>
<td>-4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burwood - Pegasus Ward</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fendalton - Waimari Ward</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hagley - Ferrymead Ward</td>
<td>-3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riccarton-Wigram Ward</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shirley - Papanui Ward</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spreydon - Heathcote Ward</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christchurch Central</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Table 1-2] Population Projections for Riccarton based on projected Urban Development Strategy Figures - shows predicted population increase before Earthquakes. Source (UDS).
Attoe once said ‘Criticism is first and foremost about the critic, not about the object being criticised’ (Attoe: 1978: Pg 8) and that the design process itself appears to be subjective involving all the experience, knowledge, perspective and taste of the designers. As this process undertaken for this thesis is research by design - with my own work being the principle design focus - there is a need to situate this thesis within my personal context.

This thesis is focusing on the theory and design factors that influence people and their use of space. As designers we design for people, and in order to successfully do so we need to understand why people choose to do what they do. Psychology acts as a strong baseline for design in that ‘psychology is the scientific study of human behaviour with the objective of understanding why living beings behave in the way they do’ (Castro: 2006).

My interest in this area of strengthening the link between psychology and the production of criteria for landscape design stems from both my A level in Psychology and my BA Hons Degree in Criminology. In these I learnt about human behaviours and how the environment can impact positively or negatively on attitude and behaviour.

My recent studies in Landscape Architecture at Lincoln University have given me an insight into the latest design thinking, although in many instances this has focused on aesthetic reasons and less on the consideration of place and community. They have also been the cause of many questions around why we design in the way we do. I spent many late nights in front of a computer screen Photoshopping people into images, making the image come alive. Without these people the use and purpose of the design seemed to be lost in the illustrations. However, I began to wonder is this the main purpose to the design of spaces? With hoards of people smiling and seemingly ‘enjoying’ the space? Or is there more to this? What about the one person who doesn’t want to take part in life’s ‘happy’ environment, who doesn’t want to embrace the landscape ‘Prozac’ it appears to have become? And by simply filling my drawings with people does this automatically make a place successful?

This thesis was undertaken as part of a professional masters in Landscape Architecture. A relatively new process focusing on using design as a research tool within a ‘design thesis’, as compared to the Design Study, Major design, Dissertation route previously adopted. As a result there were few examples of Design thesis available, and a solid framework is still being established.

In undertaking the research through design process I felt that overall I was able to go into greater depth throughout the process compared to the standard design study, major design route. Focusing on a topic and then applying this to a site gave me more depth for analysis and research. Although the never ending process of design can often prove infuriating at times, I relished the chance to receive feedback on my major design project and the opportunity to redesign elements that perhaps in hindsight were not working. This feedback and subsequent landscape papers (taken in the autumn semester) have resulted in an endless string of ideas and possibilities and subsequently a choice of thesis topic that is relatively far reaching from my original Design Study. This far reaching element is one of the greatest challenges found in deciding and researching a thesis topic in that of keeping the endless, and sometimes ever-expanding topic, grounded and focused on the key question: what is the ideal form for the Third Places of Riccarton?