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Exploring temporary use possibilities for vacant urban land :

A study of community-based planning practices

in Christchurch, Vancouver, and Montréal

Abstract

The aim of this Supervised Research Project is to explore the effectiveness of temporary uses as a tool for putting into use vacant, and underutilized space in cities. Three cities implementing these types of projects were studied: Vancouver (Canada), Montréal (Canada) and Christchurch (New Zealand). Vancouver has high land values and quality public realm, Montréal has an active citizenry and values culture, and Christchurch is literally being rebuilt post-earthquake. Temporary uses in these cities do not often fit within the regulatory framework of conventional planning, though they can help to make city-building incremental, and more adaptable to citizen-action, and desires. Specific questions were asked around the differences between top-down (state-led) and emergent (bottom-up) projects, as well as, what planners and organisations can do to get past barriers and encourage positive temporary uses, while dissuading negative and unconstructive ones.

The methods used were: reviewing the literature, precedent studies, and policy documents; and undertaking contextual analysis, and conducting thirteen interviews with planners, non-profits and artists. Four to six state-led and bottom-up projects are presented from each city, to demonstrate a range of temporary uses and contexts.

In all three cases, temporary uses have arisen to affect physical change, but also to foster social connections. There are similar concerns experienced by state-led and bottom-up actors in implementing temporary projects; namely, achieving financial sustainability, and working within existing regulatory frameworks.

Résumé

Le but de ce travail dirigé est d'explorer l'efficacité d'utilisations temporaires en tant qu'outil afin d'utiliser des espaces vacants et sous-utilisés dans les villes. Trois villes mettant en place ce type de projet ont été étudiées : Vancouver (Canada), Montréal (Canada) and Christchurch (Nouvelle-Zélande). La valeur des terrains à Vancouver est élevée et la ville possède un domaine public de qualité. Montréal a des citoyens actifs et valorise la culture. Christchurch est en train de se faire littéralement reconstruire suite à un tremblement de terre. Les utilisations temporaires dans ces villes ne cadrent pas nécessairement dans la réglementation conventionnelle d'aménagement, mais elles peuvent permettre de rendre le développement de la ville incrémental, et l'adapté aux actions et aux désirs des citoyens. Des questions spécifiques sur la différence entre les projets ayant une approche descendante (mené par l'État) et émergente (ascendante), ainsi que sur les actions possibles que peuvent prendre les urbanistes et organisations afin de passer outre ces barrières et encourager les utilisations temporaires positives tout en dissuadant les négatives ou non-constructives.

Les méthodes utilisées ont été : survoler la littérature, les études précédentes et les documents réglementaires et de politiques; conduire une analyse contextuelle et treize entrevues avec des urbanistes, des organisations sans but lucratif et des artistes. De quatre à six projets descendants et ascendants sont présentés pour chaque ville afin de démontrer le spectre d'utilisation temporaire et leur contexte.

Dans les trois cas, les utilisations temporaires sont apparus afin de modifier des éléments physiques, mais également afin de favoriser les connections sociales. Des soucis similaires de mise en place affectent les projets menés par l'État et les projets émergents : atteindre une stabilité financière, et travailler à l'intérieur du cadre réglementaire.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

x

List of Case Studies

Vancouver, Canada

Christchurch, New Zealand

Montréal, Canada

List of Acronyms

BIA – Business Improvement Association

DIY – Do-it-yourself

LIVS – Life in Vacant Spaces

RAD – Recycle A Dunger. "Dunger" is slang for an old car in New Zealand.

SHAC – Sustainable Habitat Challenge

TOADS – Temporary, Obsolete, Abandoned, and Derelict sites. A term coined by Greenberg, Popper, and West (1990) for describing vacant land.

VPSN – Vancouver Public Space Network

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Many post-industrial cities are grappling with economic decline in urban areas, and consequently both professionals and academics have turned their focus to the causes and conditions of the resulting vacant land, and are investigating how to best respond. While city planning in the Anglo-American context is primarily a formal, top-down process, there has been a shift to more community and participatory planning; and citizens taking it upon themselves to implement temporary, experimental, and flexible projects that offer interesting possibilities for the urban environment (Bishop & Williams, 2012). Projects such as pop-up stores, pop-up parks, street murals, markets, community gardens, parklets, street festivals, and temporary plazas are increasingly appearing in cities around the world. These projects can affect not only the physical environment, but also how people socialize in the city. They raise important questions of policy, in terms of how regulations and policies relate to the everyday use of urban space.

Changing economic and social conditions in cities can cause deindustrialization and suburbanization, and result in vacant land. Cities struck by natural disasters must also deal with vacant land on a much larger scale. Consequently, policymakers must grapple with decisions concerning the resulting vacant land. It is often perceived as signs of decay, neglect, and down-turned economies; but can also be spaces for opportunity, and experimental planning (Berger, 2007; Trancik, 1986). Increasingly, people are creating and implementing small-scale interventions on vacant land, with different intentions, and legal rights to occupy the space (Andres, 2013; Arlt, 2006). Some of these include: street murals on neighbourhood streets, pop-up parks for natural habitat and public space, movable community gardens, parklets extending onto the road from the sidewalk, and street closures to open up streets to pedestrians. Temporary uses come in a variety of forms, which can be loosely categorized in terms of legality, and scale; both temporal and physical.

Literature and how-to guides about temporary use and vacant space focus on the positive benefits, and implementation of specific types of uses (Lyndon, Bartman, Garcia, Preston, & Woudstra, 2012). The authors suggest broad implementation strategies, yet overlook the contextual aspects of these projects; such as: historical patterns of development, cultural practices, incentives, barriers, and the longer-term affects. Instead of blindly replicating projects, good city-building entails considering the unique qualities of particular places, and examining what people are already doing. Planners and policymakers can use this study and the three case studies presented, to observe strategies that Cities are using regarding temporary use. Similarly, community organisations can find inspiration from the projects, and realize planners also face constraints even when they want to support innovative community-based projects.

This Supervised Research Project presents research on vacant and underutilized land, temporary use, and current practices in three cities – Vancouver (Canada), Montréal (Canada), and Christchurch (New Zealand). These three cities have similar planning regimes and processes; yet contrast in terms of the nature, causes, and affects of temporary uses. The three cities differ in respect to context, and reasons for having temporary interventions; Vancouver as a city with high land values and quality public realm, Montréal as a city where culture is highly valued, and Christchurch as a city literally being rebuilt post-earthquake. A similarity in all three cities is that temporary uses have not only arisen to affect physical change, but to foster social connections.

The general aim of this study is to investigate how contemporary trends in temporary use offer viable options for dealing with vacant land in cities. The key questions are: what patterns of temporary use are observed in contemporary Anglo-American cities? Are there differences between emergent (bottom-up) and state-led (top-down) projects? What are the benefits of these projects? What are the operational barriers to implementation? Do these projects have generative potential? Further, what can planners do to encourage positive uses, while dissuading potentially unconstructive ones? What can non-government organisations do to complement the work of the state?

The research presented here involves several components. Chapter 2 presents the state of the debate around temporary use, vacant land, public space, and contemporary planning practice. Temporary use definitions vary with scale, legality, and temporality; therefore, a range of current trends was examined. Vacant and underutilized space can be considered an asset, with temporary use a viable way to address vacant land in urban areas. The literature and movements that inspire actors involved in temporary projects was also examined. The third and fourth chapters present three case studies (Vancouver, Montréal, and Christchurch), where the context, policies related to temporary use, and implementers and actors involved were studied. Within each case study, four to seven specific projects or movements are detailed, considering: implementation, relationships between actors, and planning practice. Chapter 5 offers a discussion of key themes that emerge in the case studies and in the literature. The themes structure the complex analysis of what is happening in these cities with regards to vacant land and temporary use. The discussion speaks to the operational considerations, including the regulatory barriers, and the generative potential of these projects in city-building. Finally, action-oriented strategies are discussed for what city planners can do to encourage positive temporary uses, while dissuading potentially unconstructive ones; and what non-government organisations can do to complement the work of the state.

2.0 STATE OF THE DEBATE

Historically, planners and academics viewed vacant land from deindustrialisation and shrinking cities as problems that must be "fixed," but that thinking has changed; there is now increased interest in considering vacant land as resources for social and cultural expression. This change in perspective considers vacancy a temporary condition, although timeframes are often undefined, it is a natural condition until new uses emerge. Temporary and interim uses are ways that vacant land is being addressed, and this has received much attention over the last decade, with debates about greater democracy, the "right to the city," and participatory planning.

2.1   Vacancy

There are several key concerns when discussing vacant land: defining it in planning and policy, the causes, and perceptions and opposing perspectives. Many terms are used to describe situations where cities have large and small tracts of vacant land: 'derelict landscapes' (Jakle & Wilson, 1992), 'landscapes of transgression' (Doron, 2000), 'waste landscapes' (Savard, Clergeau, & Mennechez, 2000), 'terra incognita' (Bowman & Pagano, 2004), 'urban wildscapes' (Gobster, 2012), 'ambivalent landscapes' (Jorgensen & Tylecote, 2007), 'urban voids' (Careri, Piccolo, & Hammond, 2004), 'lost landscapes' (Trancik, 1986), 'found space' (Franck & Stevens, 2007), 'terrain vagues' (Sola-Morales, 1995), and 'wastelands' (Berger, 2007). Not only are there many terms used, there lacks a clear and consistent definition of vacant land.

Within policy and planning, vacant land is associated with neglect and failing economies. The United States Environmental Protection Agency (2014) describes a 'vacant lot' as a "neglected parcel of property that has no buildings on it." The EPA cautions that vacant land is a concern because: it attracts illegal dumping, it is contaminated with hazardous waste, and it is an unsightly blight on the urban landscape. The UK National Land Use Database (2006), instead, uses the terms 'vacant land' and 'derelict land.' 'Vacant land' refers to "land which is now vacant and could be redeveloped without treatment" and "buildings that are structurally sound and in a reasonable state of repair…where re-letting for their former use is not expected or that have been declared redundant." The term 'derelict land' refers to "land so damaged by previous industrial or other development that it is incapable of beneficial use without treatment, where treatment includes any of the following: demolition, clearing of fixed structures or foundations and leveling." As well, sometimes tax policies support speculation and property holding by developers, and actually encourage abandonment as an alternative to underperformance, meaning the abandonment keeps land inexpensive for eventual

3

redevelopment. For the government, this results in the unintended loss of tax revenue from these vacant properties (Németh & Langhorst, 2014).

Urban vacant land was surveyed in the United States during a study by Bowman and Pagano (2004). The definition of vacant land focused on the physical characteristics of the land, and the discontinuation of a previous use, where vacant land is "not only unused or abandoned land or land that once had structures on it, but also the land that supports structures that have been abandoned, derelict, boarded up, partially destroyed, or razed" (p. 195). Doron (2007) analysed the literature on vacant space, and found it defined as empty lots or dilapidated structures, in the spaces in between the downtown and the suburbs, with bare and dull aesthetics, and no formal programming.

Trancik's (1986) concept of 'lost space' is more optimistic, and views vacant space as undesirable urban areas that do not contribute to the surrounding areas or to users; however, thought these gaps need to be identified and filled with interconnected open space in order to generate new investment. Trancik argues that 'lost spaces' provide an exceptional opportunity for urban redevelopment and creative infill.

Similarly, Berger's (2007) concept of 'drosscape' proposes that vacant land plays an important function in urban areas. He suggests that cities "breath," and have cyclical existences of production, growth, waste, and shrinkage; as a product of deindustrialization, sprawl, and rapid urbanization. The fact that 'dross' exists within cities signals these cyclical dynamics exist. Berger views vacant sites as places for action and regeneration, and further, challenges designers and planners to incorporate new uses into 'drosscapes.' A similar concept, 'terrain vague,' as discussed by Sola-Morales (1995), describes vacant lands as, "forgotten oversights and leftovers" which have remained outside the urban dynamic, or spaces between natural economic cycles. The forgotten spaces are areas that are uninhabited, unsafe, and unproductive; and places that are "foreign to the urban system, mentally exterior in the physical interior of the city, its negative image as much in the sense of criticism as in that of possible alternative" (p. 26). By this definition, emphasis is placed on the perceptions that people hold about vacancy, while also considering vacant lands are a natural part of economic cycles.

The negative connotation of vacant space is quite prevalent in the literature; suggesting loss, weakness, failure, and hardship. Several authors contend it represents opportunities for planning and design, and possibilities for reimagining cities by citizens; which may have benefits for social interaction, cultural expression, ecological habitat, and other related economic benefits.

2.1.1 Causes of Vacant Land

In the mid-twentieth century, shifts in North American politics and economics led to deindustrialization and decentralization in many urban areas. This rapid horizontal sprawl, and movement of economic production from the centre to the urban periphery, caused a great deal of vacant land to emerge (Berger, 2007; Bowman & Pagano, 2004). Vacant land may also occur for reasons related to the physical state of a site, economic shifts, and long-term planning processes.

Northam's (1971) classification of five types of vacant land based on cause, is a good starting point to explore the reasons vacant land occurs in cities:

1. Remnant parcels – small-sized parcels left over from adjacent development that has not been developed in the past, and size prevents development in the future.
2. Parcels with physical limitations – unbuildable land due to physical constraints such as steep slopes or flooding hazard.
3. Corporate reserve parcels – land held by corporations for future expansion.
4. Parcels held for speculation – land owned by corporations, estates, or single parties in anticipation of a better market in the future.
5. Institutional reserve lands – land set aside for public entities for future development, given needs and funding.

Of these five types of vacancy, only the ones with physical limitations imply permanent vacancy, with the rest being temporary states. Further, Northam calculates the amount of vacant land within American cities, the amount that is developable, and the potential market value of the vacant land. His argument is that vacant land holds economic potential within the city, a common focus in academic literature.

Northam's typology does not, however, include one category of vacant land: 'derelict land' (as it is referred to in the United Kingdom) or 'brownfields' (as it is referred to in North America). 'Brownfields' are lands so damaged by previous industrial or other uses, that it is deemed unsuitable for development without treatment because it is hazardous. Brownfields can be soil heaps, excavations, pits, derelict rail lands, military bases, and mining or industrial areas (Handley, 1996). An important consideration is that sometimes brownfields are perceived as more heavily contaminated than it actually is; which could hinder redevelopment, and cause sites to remain vacant for more extended periods than necessary.

Another descriptive acronym for vacant land is 'TOADS,' a term coined by Greenberg, Popper, and West (1990) in reference to "temporary, obsolete, abandoned, or derelict sites." The authors explored deserted industrial and housing projects through interviews with planning departments and health authorities in fourteen large cities in the United States. The authors describe three varieties of TOADs: formerly productive and valued sites that were

abandoned by the owners (i.e. automobile factories, furniture plants, and warehouses), formerly productive but unwanted sites that housed undesirable activities (i.e. slaughterhouses, leather tanneries, and pulp mills), and unused parcels of overgrown land that for various reasons have not been developed. An important distinction is that vacant land is not necessarily damaged; rather, it could just be neglected and unused, causing social problems such as makeshift housing for homeless people, drug havens, fire-safety hazards, and toxic waste sites. Greenberg et al. notes that planners and developers often neglect these lands because they are not beneficial in an economic sense, yet, hold potential for future utility. Greenberg's ideas have been brought back into the literature particularly in recent years in relation to urban redevelopment, government administration, and housing policy.

Berger (2007) also developed a typology of 'drosscape' to look at vacant land in the post-industrial landscape:

1. Waste landscapes of dwelling (LODs) - voids of land intentionally designed into housing developments with a singular programmatic intention (i.e. golf course, buffer zone, preservation area, or trail system).
2. Waste landscapes of transition (LOTs) - voids that are a product of capital investment and real estate speculation (i.e. storage yards, parking, and transfer stations).
3. Waste landscapes of infrastructure (LINs) - vacant areas associated with infrastructure systems (i.e. highway corridors, electricity lines, oil and gas pipelines, and railways).
4. Waste landscapes of obsolescence (LOOs) - sites designed to accommodate consumer waste (i.e. municipal solid waste landfills and wastewater-treatment facilities).
5. Waste landscapes of exchange (LEXs) – abandoned or vacant shopping malls or retail centres.
6. Waste landscapes of contamination (LOCOs) - public installations such as airports, military bases, ammunition depots and sites used for mining, petroleum and chemical operations.

Berger suggests 'drosscapes' offer urban planners and architects creative ways to envision spaces and landscape designs in cities — ones that embrace sprawl and vacant spaces as natural parts of cities. His ideas are still cited in literature today related to suburbanization, contaminated land, and post-industrial landscapes.

From these typologies, several reasons emerge why vacant spaces come out of use, and why they continue to be vacant. One reason is changing economic cycles; as economies change from industrial to post-industrial, the city functions differently, and some types of land use are no longer needed in the form they were previously. Other reasons are contamination

from former uses, where land requires decontamination and further investment to be reused; while, other lands have physical limitations, and are likely to remain undeveloped in the future. The physical characteristics of vacant land play an important part in the continued vacancy; however, just as important is how citizens, planners, and developers, perceive it.

2.1.2   Perceptions of Vacant Land

The perception of vacant land is an important factor vis-à-vis the future use of a piece of land. Vacant land is generally perceived as a problem, a sign of abandonment, decay, emptiness, danger, or an 'economic waste,' particularly when it is not esthetically pleasing (Bowman & Pagano, 2004). The term 'vacant' implies a negative overtone and it was intentionally left to decay; when in fact, these spaces can be considered assets.

The negative perception of vacant land can be demonstrated by its decreased market value, which affects the property values of surrounding lands. One Philadelphia study found that vacant sites cause an eighteen percent decrease in property values for nearby parcels of privately-owned land (Wachter, 2004). Bowman and Pagano (2004) refer to this as the 'contagion effect,' where a vacant lot negatively affects the values of adjacent lots and the surrounding blocks. As economic viability of an area falters, even more vacancies occur, spreading further as if by contagion.

Jane Jacobs (1961) proposes a similar term in *Death and Life of Great American Cities*. She described 'border vacuums' as vacant lands along the perimeters of large, single-use territories or corridors, which appear in the post-industrial landscape as new developments are built. This leaves large tracts of unused space, which fragments cities physically and socially. 'Border vacuums' are along transportation corridors (i.e. railroads, highways, and arterial roads), or single-use territories (i.e. universities and hospital campuses, office parks, housing projects, superblocks, strip malls, and sports and convention facilities). Jacobs encourages planners to reconnect these fragments by giving purpose to these spaces.

Greenberg et al. (1990) studied vacant land in American cities and found that some of the most common concerns among the planners interviewed were the economic issues related to blight, lost revenue, maintenance costs, and social issues (i.e. fire hazard, toxicity, drug use and homelessness). They found that debate focuses on the economic issues, rather than social concerns and perceptions.

While literature and policy emphasises the economic value (or potential economic value) of vacant land, it is also important ecologically when left in a 'natural state.' Many vacant lands hold value for flora and fauna; and rather than being considered vacant land in a negative

sense, should actually be termed 'greenspace' or 'natural space.' The Petite Ceinture[1] railway encircling Paris has been rendered physically, socially, and ecologically invisible to many people in the city; however, these lands are not uninhabited, and actually provide species with otherwise unavailable habitat in urban areas. The railway provides connectivity and mostly undisturbed habitat for many species; such as bats, and mid-sized mammals. The redevelopment of the Petite Ceinture railway was contested by many people who hold value in preserving this habitat (Foster, 2013). Vacant land is also important as an infrastructural asset, and can assist in water drainage and runoff, particularly in urban areas with much impervious surfaces.

Vacant land also holds social benefits when citizens consider it to be informal and unprogrammed space in increasingly privatized cities. Citizens use these spaces for various types of activities, possibly making connections and socializing with others. It also provides unprogrammed places where creative uses can occur; such as gardening, art exhibitions, and social and cultural gatherings.

The term 'vacant land' is broad, imprecise, and covers many different types of non-utilized and underutilized land. It can also refer to physical, occupational, and temporal non-use. The primary concern of vacant space is economic; however, the ecological and social importance cannot be overlooked. For the purposes of this paper, the definition is based on the work of Bowman and Pagano (2004): "vacant land includes not only publicly-owned and privately-owned unused or abandoned land or land that once had structures on it, but also the land that supports structures that have been abandoned, derelict, boarded up, partially destroyed, or razed" (p. 195). Many actors are starting to occupy vacant spaces in creative ways, legally or illegally; and Cities are starting to pay attention, and use this emerging trend in operations and planning. Now the discussion will turn to temporary uses, current practices, and the possibilities for vacant space.

2.2   Temporary Use

Temporary use is one way to address vacant land; but 'temporary' is a misleading term since all land uses can be technically considered temporary, with some just occurring longer than others. Bishop and Williams (2012) contend that temporary use:

> Cannot be based on the nature of the use, or whether rent is paid, or whether a
> use is formal or informal, or even on the scale, longevity or endurance of a

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[1] "Petite ceinture" is French for "little belt."

temporary use, but rather the intention of the user, developer or planners that the use should be temporary (p. 5).

A temporary phase can: be short or long, accidental or planned, and legal or illegal; but the difference from it being permanent is the assumption that it is a stand-in for a preferred permanent option.

2.2.1 Proliferation and Complexity of Temporary Use

There has been an upsurge of writing on temporary uses that are occurring. Many of these have been occurring for a long time, while others are simply a contemporary spin on temporary use; such as urban gardens, outdoor pool tables, cooperative bike shops, alleyway block parties, dance floors, outdoor theatres, artist studio spaces, skate parks, urban beaches, climbing walls, night clubs, living arrangements, start-up-businesses, pop-up stores, markets, street sales, and theatres (Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4). Many of these are citizen-led initiatives termed: 'tactical urbanism' (Reynolds, 2011), 'guerrilla urbanism' (Hou, 2010), 'temporary urbanism,' 'insurgent urbanism' (Hou, 2010) , 'pop-up urbanism,' 'micro-spatial urban practices' (Iveson, 2013), and 'urban space interventions' (Douglas, 2013), among many other labels. Often, these initiatives are limited scope and impact, and are more exceptions in city planning and policy than standard practice. Many do not fit into planning processes until recently; with many City administrations working on fostering this movement, and following in suit with state-led temporary projects.

The search for appropriate language to describe these practices is challenging due to the diversity and intent; it is difficult to find what connects them, if anything does. The variation is endless and range from: architectural to artistic, urban periphery to urban centre, public land to private land, authored to anonymous, collective to individual, legal to illegal, sanctioned to unsanctioned, old to new, and part of the economy to outside of mainstream economy.

The proliferation of temporary uses is wide-ranging, particularly in the last decade in Europe and North America. Through the last few decades, Berlin has experienced a period of division, unification, and redevelopment, resulting in many vacant sites and buildings. Citizens have been appropriating vacant spaces in creative ways to remake the city. Urban Catalyst is a research team exploring unplanned temporary uses in five European metropolises, and wrote a book of the same name (Oswalt, Overmeyer, & Misselwitz, 2011). They bring 'temporary use' and 'tactical urbanism' into public discourse, and examine ways in which city planners can learn from temporary users, and incorporate informal practices into

planning.[2] One of the founding members, Overmeyer (2007) also catalogued dozens of diverse temporary projects in *Urban Pioneers: Temporary Use and Urban Development in Berlin*.

Figure 1: Strandbar Beach, Berlin, Germany

Source: Norwegian Airlines. (2014). "Europe's Best Urban Beaches." Accessed at http://www.norwegian.com/magazine/features/2013/06/europes-best-urban-beaches

Figure 2: Hastings North Temporary Community Garden, Vancouver, Canada

Source: Shifting Growth. (2014). "Hastings North Temporary Community Garden." Accessed at http://www.shiftinggrowth.com/garden/hastings-north/

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[2] Urban Catalyst was funded by the European Union 5th Framework Program, "Energy, Environment and Sustainable Development." The five European metropolises were Helsinki, Amsterdam, Berlin, Vienna, and Naples.

Figure 3: Pallet Pavilion, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Gap Filler. "The Pallet Pavilion." Accessed at
http://www.gapfiller.org.nz/summer-pallet-pavilion/

Figure 4: Food Trucks, Portland, Oregon, United States

Source: Food Carts Portland. (2013). "Great Food Truck Race." Accessed at
http://www.foodcartsportland.com/

Haydn and Tamel (2006) similarly analysed North American and European projects in an edited collection, *Temporary Urban Spaces: Concepts for the Use of City Spaces,* where renowned planners on the subject wrote about how unplanned temporary uses are gaining legitimacy in urban planning. More recently, a handbook of popular tactics was written for a wider audience in *Tactical Urbanism Volume 2: Short Term Action, Long Term Change* (2012). Tactics such as "Build a Better Block," pop-up cafes and stores, and "PARK(ing) Day" were examined, along with a detailed toolkit for conceiving, planning, and implementing projects. Many other practitioners and academics are paying attention to these temporary movements in recent years as a possible way to address vacant land that occurs in every city.

There are many terms to describe current temporary interventions in urban areas. A particular use is considered temporary if it is outside of conventional land uses, and has some known or unknown end. For the purpose of this paper, 'temporary use' will be defined as: a use that has some end date, known or unknown, generally citizen- or state-led, and legal or tolerated (Haydn & Tamel, 2006).

2.2.2   Differentiating Public and Private Temporary Use

Temporary uses vary between the public and private realm. Firstly, a public space is an area that is open and accessible to all members of the public in a society, in principle though not necessarily in practice (Orum & Neal, 2010). The contextual nuances of legitimacy, economic, social, and political perspectives tend to complicate matters further.

A public temporary use is one whose intention is to be publicly accessible; whether or not this happens is something that could be further questioned. A public temporary use could be on a public piece of land; for example on a roadway, there may be food carts, or a seating installation that is publicly accessible. Further, not all public-owned land is accessible; for example a temporary farm or storage yards, where the use is not intended to be for public use.

2.2.3   Differences of Scale

Two dimensions of temporary uses must be considered: temporal and physical. Lehtovuori and Ruoppila (2012) found that temporary uses were a combination of the two, and could be: *transient* (i.e. once for a limited time), *recurrent* (i.e. repeating annually), or *migrant* (i.e. changing from one location to another depending on development). Urban Catalyst created a

typology of 'tactics' of temporary use, and how they affect and interact with the physical site and the surrounding areas over time, as well as, relationships with other actors (Figure 5).[4]

In contrast, Haydn and Tamel (2006) defined temporality as the main dimension. They define temporary use as those that are planned from the outset to be impermanent, and derive qualities from the idea of a limited temporal scale. They compare this with lasting uses, not only because they use few resources, but also because they prepare the location for something that will last longer.

In physical scale, temporary uses range from small-scale, micro-interventions, to ones that are more architecture- and design-oriented. The micro-interventions tend to be initiated by citizens, whereas the architectural- and design-oriented tend to be initiated by authorities, developers and businesses with more capital.

A related concept to temporary use is 'interim use.' A key difference here is that while temporary uses are limited in time, interim use is more functionality based, taking advantage of a "gap in the cycle of utilization." The term 'Zwischennutzung' was coined in Germany, and refers to uses that are "planned from the outset to be impermanent," and "seek to derive unique qualities from the idea of temporality" (Haydn & Tamel, 2006). For Urban Catalyst (2003), temporary uses were interpreted as 'interim,' the use between the prior use and subsequent future use, and there is a greater fluidity between. While temporary uses are supply-oriented, interim uses are demand-oriented, which are limited by planning goals and the economy (Haydn & Tamel, 2006).

2.2.4   Differences of Legitimacy

Much of the appeal of temporary urbanism is the "guerrilla" aspect of these interventions; yet, all projects fall on a legal spectrum from: guerrilla gardening without permissions to public- funded street festivals where all proper insurance and permissions are attained. In order to study this range of approaches, one must first consider the motivations and goals behind the projects, and the issue of legitimacy.

Tactical urbanism is a term used by Lyndon et al. (2012) to describe small-scale, low-cost interventions with in intention of improving local neighborhoods (Figure 6). The differing features between 'tactical urbanism' and 'temporary urbanism' are not completely clear; however, tactical urbanism's intention is not to create a longer-term physical change, but to provide some social or political commentary (Lyndon et al., 2012).

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[4] While they acknowledged that users vary depending on context, they generally work with little capital, are flexible and active, and can adapt to different circumstances. It must be noted that the Urban Catalyst study was in the European context, and in North America, there is sometimes more significant capital behind temporary uses such as urban agriculture enterprises.

Figure 5: Urban Catalyst's Typology of Temporary Users Based on Location and Time

a) **Stand in:** Temporary uses do not have any lasting effect on the location, but only use th vacant space for the time available

b) **Impulse:** Temporary use gives an impulse for the future development of the site by establishing new programs/ new programs cluster at a certain location. Example: Berlin Club WMF followed by London Media Company, Squatting of Kokos Factory in Helsinki

c) **Consolidation:** Temporary use establishes itself at a location and is transformed to a permanent use. Example: Berlin Club Tresor, Arena as a concert hall/ event location. The consolidation can also take place at a different location (e.g. Berlin-Tempodrom, Kunstwerke, Cable Factory Helsinki)

d) **Coexistence:** Temporary use continues to exist (in a smaller size) even after establishment of a formal permanent site at the location. Example: Flee market and Yaam Club at Arena Berlin. Also the aim of the planning authorities in Helsinki

e) **Parasite:** Temporary use is developed in dependence of existing permanent uses and takes advantage of existing potentials and availability of space. Example: Market at Berlin Ostbahnhof

f) **Subversion:** Temporary use is interrupting an existing permanent use (institution) by squatting as a political action. Even so this occupation is normally of a very limited time period, it effects the squatted institution and results in change of the institution. In the situation of the squatting different uses than normal are established at the location, e.g. housing in an university or factory. Example: Squatting of Factory Alactel in Berlin-Neukölln, Squatting of Universities

g) **Pioneer:** The temporary use is the first 'urban' use of the site, establishing a way of settlement, which might become permanent. Examples: Building of World Expo's which have intended to be temporary but became permanent

h) **Displacement:** A permanent institution is displaced for a limited period of time and during this time established in an improvised way as a temporary use. Example: Displacement of railway-station at Berlin Ostbahnhof in year 2000

Source: Urban Catalyst. (2003). Strategies for Temporary Uses – Potential for Development of Urban Residual Areas in European Metropolises *Studio Urban Catalyst, Berlin*.

Figure 6: Lyndon's Tactical Urbanism Spectrum

Source: Lyndon, Mike, Dan Bartman, Tony Garcia, Russ Preston, & Ronald Woodstra. (2012). *Tactical Urbanism 2: Short Term Action, Long Term Change*. New York: Street Plans Collaborative.

Squatting, for example, is a temporary use with more internalized goals, and often, political ambitions. Squatting is when people live on land or occupy buildings that are abandoned, without owning, renting, or having lawful permission to do so. The Occupy movement, for example, uses strategies such as disruption (i.e. marching and camping in unpermitted places), and physically occupying particular spaces of symbolic significance (i.e. financial districts) to achieve their goals. The Occupy Movement also re-ignited the 'right to the city' discourse (Pickerill & Krinsky, 2012).

Some unsanctioned projects are less politically driven, with goals of raising awareness about social issues through illegal changes to the urban environment. "Guerrilla gardening," a term first used in the 1970's by Liz Christy and her Green Guerrilla group in New York, is typically the act of gardening on public or private lands without permission, with the purpose of raising awareness of social issues; such as local food systems, improving neighborhood, and short-term, collaborative action.[5]

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[5] In New York City, the first lot started by Green Guerrillas is still so popular that volunteers and the New York City Parks Department now maintain it. The 'guerrilla' is usually motivated to fight some cause or problem, less radical now than in the 1970s, and are not driven by money but by putting ideas into practice (Arlt, 2006).

Some 'do-it-yourself' urbanists do interventions to improve a city's infrastructure without relying on the state; for example, people painting bicycle paths or pedestrian crossings on roads without seeking permission in Toronto (Figure 7). Often, they follow plans that Cities have already set out, and have not yet implemented (Douglas, 2013; Finn, 2014; Iveson, 2013). It is technically considered illegal, but the goal is to open discussion about what the city needs, with the hopes of changing the public and City's views. Many of these acts are not politically motivated, but they may have unintended impacts on public safety, equitable distribution of resources, participatory planning processes, and fiscal budgetary decisions made by the government (Finn (2014).

Figure 7: DIY Bike Lane on Bloor Street, Toronto, Canada

Source: Urban Repair Squad. (2013). "Bike Lanes On Bloor-Danforth," Accessed at http://urbanrepairs.blogspot.ca/2013/09/bike-lanes-on-bloor-danforth.html

There are also temporary uses that are completely sanctioned and legal, and go through the proper channels for approvals; such as many community gardens, urban farms, terraces, and street festivals. PARK(ing) day is an example of legal interventions where on-street parking spaces are transformed into public spaces, by adding furniture and other activities (Figure 8). The event's purpose is not to permanently reclaim parking spaces for public use, but "to

promote creativity, civic engagement, critical thinking, unscripted social interactions, generosity and play" (PARK(ing) Day, 2013). For the considered legal, because organizers are within the parking regulations, and may even pay for meter parking, which allows them to occupy the space. The tactic of making it an annual event, and stating its intentions, gains the interventions legitimacy from authorities and the public.

Figure 8: PARK(ing) Day, Montréal, Canada

Source: Association du Design Urbain du Québec (ADUQ). (2013). "Le PARK(ing) Day: When We Are All Urban Planners." Accessed at: www.aduq.ca/2012/08/le-parking-day-when-were-all-urban-planners/

Other temporary uses, such as neighbourhood library boxes, or gardening on City-owned boulevards, may not have necessary approvals, but are often tolerated. Generally speaking, temporary projects that are smaller — with the intent of improving space without causing public nuisance—tend not to be cause for legal concern.

Some temporary projects require permissions from multiple municipal departments, and may require considerable public consultation. Until these processes are formalized in a simplified manner, it may be perceived as not worth the effort or money required, or a project may be executed illegally.

2.2.5   Synthesis

From the literature, a proliferation of temporary use can be observed with varying degrees of scale, intent, land ownership, legitimacy, and toleration. The definition used in this research

project is that of Haydn and Tamel (2006): a use that has some end date, known or unknown, and is generally citizen-led (though not always), and legal or tolerated.

In summary, the scale of the temporary use can range temporally and physically. Temporally, it can range from being short to more extended periods. Physically, it can range from micro-interventions with only small physical changes, to ones that are more architectural. Architectural and design-related temporary uses usually require more involvement with authorities for approvals and ensuring public safety. Figure 9 presents a summary of these aspects.

Figure 9: Temporary Use Spectrum
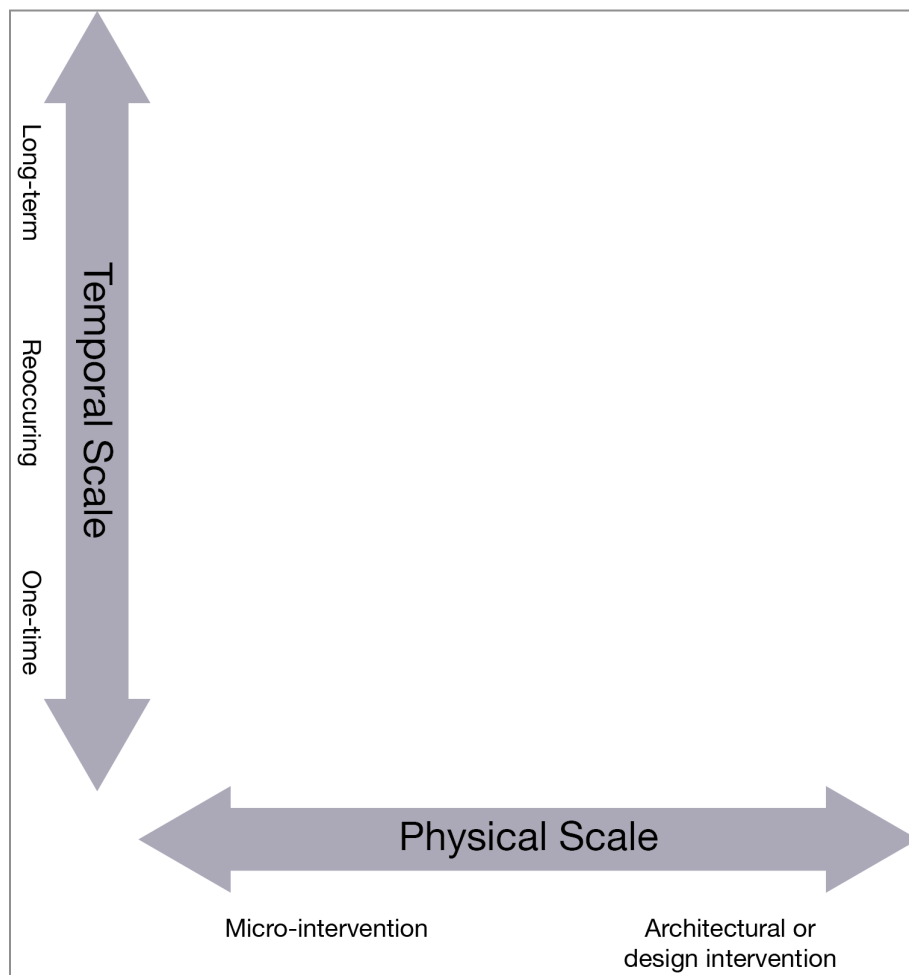
Source: Author

2.3   Public Space

Many academics and actors of temporary space interventions are inspired by a number of movements and works: Right to the City, Open City, Situationist International Movement, and Everyday Urbanism. These authors and movements have drawn some criticism in their claims for a more legitimate democracy. Actors today draw on the social benefits of temporary spaces in creating a more democratic and open city, but it must be remembered that these movements are not new, and are actually part of a much longer history of urban change.

One of the most well known philosophers linked to temporary interventions is Henri Lefebvre, who conceives the concept of a "right to the city" in his 1968 work by the same name, which is later revived by geographer and social theorist David Harvey (Lefebvre, 1968). Lefebvre calls for "a radical restructuring of social, political, and economic relations, both in the city and beyond" (Purcell, 2002). His idea is to change how decisions are made in cities by reorienting decision-making away from the state (the right to participation), and towards the production of urban space (the right to appropriation). He believes not only that democratic deliberation extend to state decisions, but also in all decisions contributing to the production of urban space, giving more control to citizens. His conception of space is both conceived space (mental constructions of space), perceived space (concrete space people encounter in their environment) and lived space (complex combination of the two); therefore, "social relations and lived space are inescapably hinged together in everyday life" (Purcell, 2002).

The 'right to the city' is a social movement and mantra for many activists working on urban issues (Stickells, 2011). Harvey (2012) expands on Lefebvre's ideas, that "right" is not just the kind of city citizens envision, but how citizens want to be as people; what type of social relations they want, what aesthetic values they hold, and how they want to change the city to suit the collective.

Many academics and actors quickly make a link between Lefebvre and Harvey, and their power to construct an urban democracy; however, there has been criticism drawn that the concept of the 'right to the city' is "more radical, more problematic, and more indeterminate than the current literature makes it seem" (Purcell, 2002). Further, it is more extreme than 'tactical urbanists' perceive themselves (Finn, 2014).

Jane Jacobs (1961), in *Death and Life of Great American Cities*, advocates to stop the massive urban renewal projects that were happening in North America, destroying whole neighbourhoods, and replaced by towers and freeways. She critiques institutionalized planning and planners for operating in a rigid, top-down manner, that destroys the social life of streets. She talks about the use of sidewalks in building community, and livable neighbourhoods. She eloquently describes the "street ballet," a daily pattern of

comprehensible human movement in public space, where people go about their everyday in predictable and complex ways. Jacobs calls for readers to go against top-down planning, and seek out and create the conditions possible for social connections in cities.

In the late 1950s to early 1970s in France, a largely anonymous group of political, intellectual, and artistic members, led the Situationist International Movement. Their ideas primarily derive from Marxism, anti-authoritarianism, and the avant-garde art movement of the time. They recognize that Marx's writings on capitalist production were fundamental, but expand on his theory of alienation. They observe capitalism spreading to other aspects of life and culture, causing decay in everyday life, and social dysfunction. To counter this, Situationists create "situations" through artistic expression, for the purpose of reawakening and pursuing authentic desires, experiencing the feeling of life and adventure, and the liberation of everyday life. These situations counter the dominant bourgeois culture at the time, ruled by "the spectacle," and experiment with a new way of city life (Debord, 1957).

Kevin Lynch puts into practice the power of observation in urban environments, and the conceptual basis for good urban design. His work, *The Image of the City* (1960), is the result of a five-year study in Boston, Jersey City, and Los Angeles, on how observers take in information from the city. He finds that people act in consistent and predictable ways, forming mental maps with five elements: paths, edges, districts, nodes, and landmarks.

Soon after, William Whyte pioneers the study of human behavior in urban settings in the 1960s and 1970s. He designs a method of in-depth observational study of pedestrian behavior, which involves observations, interviews, and film analysis of plazas, urban streets, parks, and open spaces, in order to bring that knowledge back into creating livable cities. From these observations, he writes *The Social Life of Small Urban Spaces* (1980), along with a companion film of the same title. He advocates for bottom-up, not top-down planning, of public space, where design starts with understanding how people use space, and why people use some space and not others. For Whyte, small urban spaces are "priceless," and "the river of life…where we come together." He contends that social life in public space contributes to individuals' quality of life, and society in general; planners have a moral responsibility to create physical places that enable social interaction and engagement.

In the early 1970s, Jan Gehl expands on the ideas of previous thinkers in a more comprehensive approach to public space, in *Life Between Buildings* (1987), which becomes his major focus of study and work.[6] He thinks that in public life, and the areas in which it takes place, building design is a means to an end, rather than an end in itself. It is between

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[6] *Life Between Buildings* was written in 1971, but was translated from Danish to English in 1987.

the buildings that life occurs, with social interaction and perception, urban recreation, and sensory experience. He observes three types of behaviour in public space: necessary, optional, and social. Necessary activities happen no matter what; such as going to school, work, or shopping. Optional activities are taking a walk, standing, sitting, or sunbathing. Where outdoor areas are of poor quality, only necessary activities will occur. Social activities are all activities that depend on the presence of others; when people find no reason to linger outside, they will not be able to engage in social activities. It is therefore important to create public space of good quality, providing a reason for people to linger, and potentially socialize.

Responsive Environments (Bentley, McGlynn, Smith, Alcock, & Murrain, 1985) is the work of a multi-disciplinary team that expands on the work of previous thinkers; namely, Jane Jacobs, Kevin Lynch, and Jan Gehl. It is a how-to guide for designers to create good public space, thinking about: permeability, variety, legibility, robustness, visual appropriateness, richness, and personalization.

Another multi-disciplinary team wrote *Public Space* (Carr, Francis, Rivlin, & Stone, 1992) on integrating public space and public life. They provide three critical human dimensions to guide design of public space: the users' essential needs, their spatial rights, and the meanings they seek. When a public space is successful, it will increase opportunities to participate in communal activity. This fellowship in the open nurtures the growth of public life, which is stunted by the social isolation of ghettos and suburbs. In the parks, plazas, markets, waterfronts, and natural areas of our cities, people from different cultural groups come together in mutual enjoyment. As these experiences are repeated, public space becomes a place that carries positive communal meanings (Carr et al., 1992).

Everyday Urbanism is an urban planning and design movement inspired by the works of Michel de Certeau, Henri Levebre, and Guy Debord of the Situationist movement, and their analysis and reaction to the everyday aspects of the lived experience. Everyday Urbanism discusses spaces experienced everyday, and responds to the patterns and interactions that emerge. It is a call to rethink design, and reconnect design to human, social, and political concerns. Expanding on the work of Lefebvre, there is a belief that in the process of defining the city, the "lived experience should be more important than physical form" (p.14), and that design should reflect what is already taking place (Chase, Crawford, & Kaliski, 1999). It is a mixture of top-down planning and bottom-up expression done by developers and city governments, to expand on what already exists, and to reconsider the purpose of space, and how it can be used.

In Gehl's book, *Cities for People* (2010), he advocates for human-scaled cities, and using an incremental approach to improve the urban form. His approach is to use systematic

documentation of urban spaces while making gradual incremental improvements, then documenting them again, in a cycle of refining, measuring, and testing. This pilot approach to planning has been applied to public space improvements in many cities around the world; including New York, Copenhagen, Christchurch, and Adelaide.

People have been inspired and justified to take back the city, and create public space. Karl Linn in Philadelphia, and Green Guerrilla founder Liz Christy in New York City, promoted interventions such as guerrilla gardening and squatting on vacant land. Skateboarders, BMX bikers, BASE jumpers, and other extreme sports enthusiasts, have adopted parts of the urban landscape for their purposes (Ferrell, 2001). Burnside Banks in Portland, Oregon, took a mythical status among skateboarders, and starts a trend of pouring concrete for skateboard parks without receiving permissions from public agencies (Vivoni, 2009). Though not a true movement until the early twenty-first century in North America, these ideas were observed in cities with elements of art, urban activism, and urban life. It was also around this time that there was a shift toward city-building where there was more of a role for citizens in urban planning and policymaking.

2.4   Temporary Uses in Planning Practice

The goals of temporary use range from: artistic and cultural, to making a statement, to experimenting with urban space. Temporary uses often take low-risk, phased approaches to transforming urban environments, which is in contrast to conventional urban development in the Anglo-American context. Planning literature examines the potential for temporary use within development and planning cycles, as between-uses, where there is no better use at a particular time. Temporary use can also play a role in more flexible, comprehensive planning processes, ones that use incremental approaches to urban change, rather than drastic measures.

Prior to the 1950s, city planning was seldom considered its own profession; instead, done by architects, surveyors, and engineers, using a rational, top-down approach. These professionals create ideal visions in the form of coherent blueprints for whole cities or areas. Ebenezer Howard of the Garden City movement, and Robert Geddes, father of regional planning, were influential in this movement of blueprint planning, which "seems to have been that of the planner as the omniscient ruler, who should create new settlement forms… without interference or question" (Hall, 1983, p. 53). In other words, the blueprint planning process is concerned with generating a fixed end-state, and the art and science of the planner is to pursue those ends.

In the late 1950s and 1960s, systems or synoptic planning takes over blueprint planning, which emphasized goals and targets, quantitative analysis, identification and evaluation of policy, and evaluation of means against ends (Hall, 1983). There are many criticisms of this approach for its scientific simplicity, and the idea of one homogenous public interest; however, it still manifests in urban planning today (Lane, 2005). Another criticism from Lindblom (1959) argued that this rational approach was too time and resource intensive to be comprehensive, and argued for an incremental approach to decision-making, where policies changed incrementally, rather than abruptly.

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, a growing number of diverse community organisations and citizens emerge, with concerns of how cities are planned in a top-down manner. Jane Jacobs (1961) criticizes early post-war planning for its approach towards urban renewal, and advocates for the role of citizen experts in creating neighbourhoods. From this growing momentum of dissatisfaction with the planning profession, Paul Davidoff (1965) counters with an advocacy planning approach in his paper *Advocacy and Pluralism in Planning*. Advocacy planning draws attention to the political nature of planning, encouraging planners to realize their actions are not value-neutral, and encourages minority and underrepresented opinions to become part of planning decisions. These factors all help lead to a shift in Anglo-American planning processes, which depart from top-down rational planning, to ones that are more bottom-up, citizen-led, and have open public participation.

Since the 1970s, citizen participation and bottom-up planning in North America has been increasingly part of planning processes, and is demanded from citizens. Lane (2005) traces the history of planning practices, and finds "whereas participation was previously considered a decision-making adjunct, all schools of the contemporary [planning] era view participation as a fundamental element of planning and decision-making." There is also a recognition of multiple publics, and a diversity of views, even within a single decision-making agency, and a balance of all these must be achieved (Lane, 2005).

Temporary uses can be accommodated within current planning structures; including various approaches to fit them within conventional frameworks of comprehensive planning, land-use control, and vision-making. The degree to which citizens actually help shape the built environment depends on the administration, bureaucratic structures, and planning practices in each context, which may be why some people turn to tactical means in the first place. The issues impeding the redevelopment of vacant land varies from weak property markets, high decontamination costs, or disagreements between stakeholders on comprehensive plans and land-use modifications. It is during this in-between time when developers are at a standstill, and it is easiest for temporary users to appropriate vacant space, because the

"boundaries between legal/formal and illegal/informal activities are blurred as are the distribution of powers between the different stakeholders" (Andres, 2013).

Bishop and Williams (2012) argue that in times where there are few public resources and weak economic prospects, comprehensive planning should shift towards "a loosely defined end vision, rather than a fixed state" (p. 179). They claim that planning should be not only three, but four-dimensional, taking into account planning the temporal, as well as, physical dimensions.

Lehtovuori and Ruoppila (2012) identifies four approaches that cities take in incorporating temporary uses in planning: consistent, project-based, centralized-idealistic, and best practice. The first and fourth are more bottom-up, where there is adjustment of processes and plans, depending on the success of a project, and the developing needs of citizens. The second and third are more resource-oriented, and based on a long-term vision for sites. They argue that policymakers have the choice of either supporting temporary uses, with or without intervention, where intervening could stifle freedom to express and experiment with place-specific and user-centric development activity.

Cities are also implementing temporary spaces to test out planning solutions, or to take immediate steps towards a project that might not be immediately feasible; such as a temporary plaza, or bike lane, using non-permanent infrastructure. These temporary spaces have value in testing designs, and gives people an opportunity to voice concerns as the interventions are incrementally implemented. Bishop and Williams (2012) argue these interventions form powerful new uses, which planners should take notice of, because they might hold great potential. They write:

> Urban planners need to recognize that this enthusiasm is not incidental but represents an appreciation of experimentation and a willingness to 'see what happens' that is perhaps the spirit of our time. When planners and policy makers start to experiment as well, this could represent a powerful mechanism to retune our cities for whatever lies ahead (p. 35).

Planning processes differ in every context, depending on local economic, political, and societal norms and values. In the Anglo-American context, comprehensive planning is still generally employed, usually with some form of citizen engagement (although the extent and meaningfulness of public participation varies widely), and relatively strict regulations and guidelines to achieve visions.

2.5   Summary

This chapter presents an overview of current discussions concerning vacant land, temporary use, public space, and planning practices in the Anglo-American context. Vacant land is a natural phenomenon that occurs during urban development; and although it was in the past perceived as a planning dilemma to be "fixed," perceptions have shifted towards instead seeing vacant lands as opportunities. Is this happening in the North American context? How are cities dealing with vast amounts of vacant space post-disaster?

The literature on temporary uses and planning practice now stresses that citizens are often the best source of knowledge about their own built environment, and temporary uses can help bring to light those potential ideas. What is happening with regards to temporary use? Is there a difference between initiatives emerging from citizen-led (bottom-up) and state-led (top-down)? What positive benefits are being found in regards to city-building?

Planning in the Anglo-American context is regulated to achieve a long-term vision, which may stifle creative temporary uses; however, authorities are increasingly opening up the planning regime to allow incremental change and experimentation. If this is so, what are the regulatory barriers? How can cities encourage the 'good' emergent temporary uses, or utilize these tactics themselves? How can non-government organisations complement the work of the state?

3.0 METHODOLOGY

After examining the state of the debate around vacant and underutilized land, temporary use, and planning practice, three cities were chosen for further in-depth study to compare what is stated in the literature with what is happening in practice. Case studies were conducted in Vancouver, Christchurch, and Montréal, with the goal of gaining a broad overview of how these cities are implementing temporary uses, the intentions, what policies support it, who is involved, and other considerations from social, environmental, economic, and political standpoints.

The case studies were selected for several reasons, to: investigate different economic and cultural contexts, utilize personal experience of these cities, and highlight that citizen-led and state-led temporary uses are prevalent in these cities. A contextual comparison is shown in Figure 10.

Figure 10: Contextual Comparison of Case Studies

	Montréal	Vancouver	Christchurch
Population (Metro Area)	3,824,221	2,313,328	379,100
Territory (km^2)	4,258.31	2882.55	1,426
Population Density (person/km^2)	898.1	802.5	265.8
Population Growth	5.2%[7]	9.3%[8]	0.8 %[9]

Source: Statistics Canada. (2011).
Statistics New Zealand. (2013).

Information was gathered primarily through interviews with municipal government staff, artists, advocacy groups, academics, and community organisations. These interviews were semi-structured to allow for the natural flow of conversation, with particular focus on projects, context, planning and policy, and other considerations. Participants were provided the questions before the interview to help them prepare (Appendix C). Sequential interviews were used to increasingly focus and clarify certain points. Further information was collected through secondary sources; such as: policy documents, journal articles, research papers, reports, websites, and news articles.

Target interviews were conducted with civic employees, elected officials, and representatives of community groups. A total of 13 interviews were conducted, with four in Christchurch, six in Vancouver (eight individuals), and three in Montréal. Christchurch interviews were

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[7] This was growth from 2006 to 2011.
[8] This was growth from 2006 to 2011.
[9] Following 2 years of population decline (-2.4% in 2011 and -1.3% in 2012).

conducted via video conferencing with representatives of community organisations, and academics. Vancouver interviews were conducted in face-to-face meetings with city planners, community organisations, and non-profits. Montréal interviews were conducted face-to-face with representatives of community organisations, and artists. In Vancouver, many of the interviews were City staff and two non-profits; while in Christchurch, interviewees were mainly charities and academics; and in Montréal interviewees were community organisations. The differences in professional capacity of the interviewees, and the diversity of projects makes it difficult to compare the case studies directly, but it does give a general overview of what is happening in each city.

Initial interviewees were found through personal contacts via email, and as interviews were conducted, interviewees would put me in touch with other people. Some targeted interviewees were receptive to first contact emails, but many required follow-up emails, and phone calls. The greatest success was when I interviewed someone, and they suggested other people to contact, and put me in direct contact with those people. The interview recruitment script that was sent via email can be found in Appendix A.

The representation of informants differed across the case studies. In Christchurch, organisations were willing to be interviewed, while government officials were not receptive. In Vancouver, City staff and community organisations were receptive, with most found through personal contacts. Non-profit urban farms on private lands were not receptive, however, it might have been due to the season (spring in the northern hemisphere), since they would be setting up their farms and gardens. Further, finding informant interviews in Montréal was particularly difficult, especially in the government sector. This could be due to administrative constraints, or to language differences. Interviews conducted in Montréal were a small number of community organisations found through personal contacts.

The questions that I aimed to answer with the interviews were: what is happening? Why do things happen the way they do? Who are the major players? What are the major benefits to public space? What are the contextual considerations? And do these projects have potential to affect the longer term planning of a city?

4.0 CASE STUDIES

4.1 Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada

Population (metropolitan area) : 2,313,328 (Statistics Canada, 2011b)
Gross Population Density : 802.5/km^2 (Statistics Canada, 2011a)
Population Growth : +9.3%% from 2006 to 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2011a)
Size : 2882.55 km^2 (Statistics Canada, 2011b)

4.1.1 Background

Vancouver is located on the southwest coast of mainland British Columbia, Canada (Figure 11). Located on the western half of the Burrard Peninsula, Vancouver is bordered to the north by the Burrard Inlet, and to the south by the Fraser River. The municipality of Vancouver is bordered by Burnaby, Richmond, and Surrey. It is also part of the Greater Vancouver Regional District made up of 21 municipalities, one electoral area, and one treaty First Nation. The population of the municipality of Vancouver is 603,502, while the regional population is 2.3 million (Statistics Canada, 2011b). Vancouver is one of the densest municipalities in Canada, with a land area of 2,882.55 square kilometres, and a population density of 802.5 per square kilometre.

Figure 11: Location of Vancouver, Canada
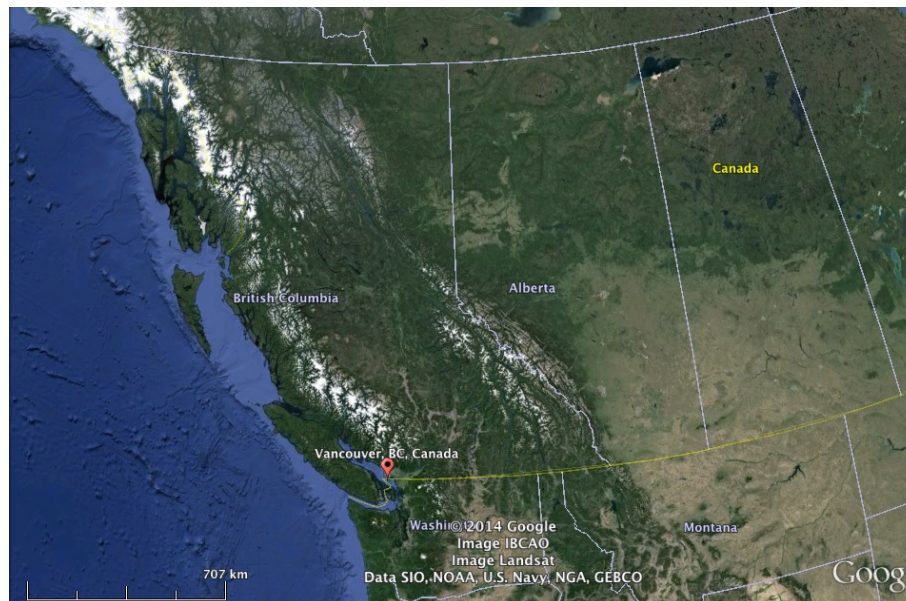
Source: Google Earth. (2014).

Vancouver's temporary activities have generally been associated with large cultural or athletic events; such as Expo '86, 2010 Winter Olympic Games, Vancouver International Jazz Festival, Car Free Days, Greek Days, and Italian Days. These activities usually last for less than a week, after which time the city returns to normal. The Winter Olympics in 2010 influenced the way that Vancouverites and visitors experienced the city and downtown. During the Games, five blocks of Granville Street, a major commercial corridor, was closed to traffic, and opened to pedestrians and cyclists in unprecedented ways with stages, events, screens, and other cultural activities. Krisztina Kassay, a planner with the City of Vancouver says,

> The Vancouver Olympics were a complete game changer… we will never look like the Olympics again, but there is a lot of learning, education and experience that can be made from that time.

The Olympics caused a shift in the City of Vancouver's public space programming, so there is more regular street closures downtown. The City of Vancouver department, VIVA Vancouver, heads this public space programming.

A Vancouver Foundation report, Connections and Engagement (2012), found that people do not know their neighbours because they often do not see, or interact with them; further, they retreat from community activities because they feel they have little to offer. The degrading condition and commercialization of public space, and the increasing number of people living in high-rise apartments, has contributed to this. Several City of Vancouver interviewees mentioned this report, and use it to validate its public space interventions. VIVA Vancouver further developed a set of indicators to monitor the effectiveness of its interventions in producing high quality public space. The top indicators are those based on social connections, comfort, and diversity of users, among a few others. Kassay says of temporary interventions, "overall the public is ahead of us, people are hungry for these experiences, and it has exploded over the last few years."

Vancouver's population is quickly growing, along with a high real estate market that is continuing to rise. The horizontal growth of the city is limited by physical geography, making it especially important to have careful consideration made in urban planning, public realm improvements, and infill of vacant lands.

In Vancouver, lands may sit vacant for several reasons, contamination and speculation among the most common. There has been a significant decrease in the number of gas stations in Vancouver over the last several decades, resulting in a significant number of urban vacant sites. Today there are 84 service stations, 244 fewer than in 1970 (David Godsall, 2012). These sites typically sit vacant for a longer duration because contaminated land requires landowners to clean up the site, and gain a certificate of compliance from Ministry of

Environment before development can occur. Once a certificate is gained, it may also have to wait for a community planning process, rezoning application approval, and development permit approval, before any other steps can be taken. This can all cause vacant sites to sit unused for years, or even decades.

Another reason that lands sit vacant is speculation. Landowners are content having land sit empty while the market, and in turn their investment, increases. Many areas of Vancouver are also being rezoned, meaning that landowners are waiting for their properties to be rezoned, with the goal of benefiting from the attendant increases in land values.

There is a highly active real estate market in Vancouver and limited space to grow; meaning there is a focus on public space, careful redevelopment of limited physical space, and a capitalization of underutilized space in the city; such as streets, back lanes, and backyards. Just as backyards of single-family homes are being used for laneway housing, helping to increase density and make housing more affordable; underutilized backlanes are also being used for public space and green lanes, and streets are being taken over for street festivals and plazas.

Vancouver's economic, political, and social contexts need to be considered when examining temporary use of vacant space. Some temporary uses are event-based, intended for the appropriation of public space, and some are driven by economic benefits to landowners.

4.1.2   Planning and Policies

There are many policies in Vancouver related to temporary use; some directly, and others indirectly related to temporary interventions. Andrew Pask, Director of the Vancouver Public Space Network (VPSN) and Planner at the City of Vancouver, says that, "placemaking activities can be tied to many policy objectives; for example active transportation and the environment." By far, one of the most influential policies is the City of Vancouver's *Greenest City 2020 Action Plan* (2009), which aims to address the city's environmental challenges through a set of measurable targets, with the goal of making it the greenest city in the world by 2020. Even though community gardens are in high demand right now, it was occurring informally long before the policy was created; the policy just makes extra financing available for creating community gardens, and other urban farm initiatives to achieve the goals outlined in the *Greenest City Plan*. The *Transportation 2040 Plan* (City of Vancouver, 2012) supports creative use of public space in temporary ways; namely, the Green Streets Program. The *Transportation Plan* promotes gardening on boulevards and roundabouts, which in turn encourages people to choose walking and cycling, over driving a car. Additionally, many

neighbourhood plans call for local placemaking activities, community projects, and neighbourhood street events.

Unique to Canada, there is a provincial tax incentive for landowners having community amenities on their vacant lands. By having a temporary community garden, the Provincial land class can change from Class-6 (which is classified as a business), to Class-8 land (which is classified as a community benefit). This reduces the tax on vacant land, and incentivizes landowners to allow temporary gardens on their land. These policies and tax structures encourage temporary uses and justify existing temporary uses in Vancouver.

4.1.3   Instigators

There are many different initiators doing temporary interventions in Vancouver, some more formal, and others more community-driven.

The City of Vancouver is responsible for much of the public realm in the form of sidewalks, road space, and City-owned property. It is a major financial contributor to some community-based temporary projects through grants for arts and cultural activities; such as the Neighborhood Matching Fund, Sustainable Food Systems grants and Greenest City grants (City of Vancouver, 2014d). It also has a public space program, VIVA Vancouver, which activates underutilized space with temporary events, and installations, specializing in "turning road spaces into people places" (City of Vancouver, 2014e).[10] Another department directly involved in these projects is the Street Activities branch of the Engineering departments, which manages the citizen appropriation of traffic circles, corner bulges, and boulevards. Under their Green Streets Program, citizens can apply to care for a garden on City-owned spaces if they agree to the guidelines set around utilities, safety, plants, and aesthetics.

The City of Vancouver's Culture Services department administers the Community and Neighborhood Arts Development Grant Program for festivals and parades. They also administer the Great Beginnings Project, an inter-departmental undertaking dedicated to the downtown eastside. It gives start-up funding to nonprofit groups doing improvements to streets, buildings, and public space; and organizing cultural celebrations, and street festivals.[11]

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[10]   VIVA Vancouver organizes Granville Street closures that occur every weekend during summer for music, performances and street markets. They also implement seating installation called Robson Redux, and administer the Parklet Pilot Program and many other street related public space initiatives.

[11] The funding is for projects in Gastown, Chinatown, Japantown, and Strathcona.

A unique feature in Vancouver's political-administrative context is the separately administered Vancouver Park Board. It manages over 1000-acres of downtown land forming Stanley Park, and over 230 parks, beaches, and gardens.[12] The Park Board runs recreational and educational programs, social and cultural activities, and special events. Some programming activities also fall into the category of temporary use; for example, gardens, markets, and art installations.

CityStudio Vancouver directly involves students, professors, and universities in the implementation of the City of Vancouver's *Greenest City 2020* goals. Select students from various Vancouver universities work on studio projects related to Vancouver's public realm. Its projects often involve temporary interventions, such as: organizing the Bute Plaza community engagement strategy; implementing Keys to the Street, a project to bring free, playable pianos into the public realm; and creating a 'how-to' guide for street murals (CityStudio Vancouver, 2014).

There are many other non-government organisations that advocate, and bring awareness to the importance of public space. The Vancouver Public Space Network (VPSN) is a non-profit organisation that started in 2006, and advocates for good public space in increasingly privatized cities. The purpose of the group is to advocate, research, organize events, and implement projects; and they also often present to City Council, and weigh-in on decisions affecting public space.

Village Vancouver Transition Society is a grass-roots organisation working on creating sustainable and resilient communities, by encouraging individuals and groups to unite and collaborate in support of common goals and actions. The projects vary greatly, such as: mural painting, markets, and food growing.[13]

The Environmental Youth Alliance is a non-profit organisation that started in 1991, and work on projects to bring youth awareness of issues related to the city, food, environment, and social justice. It works directly with youth in operating community gardens; and offers workshops, internships, training and employment opportunities.

Livable Laneways is a non-profit organisation that was founded in 2010, and transforms laneways and alleys into pedestrian-friendly urban spaces. It aims to create urban alleys, and turn ignored spaces into pedestrian-friendly areas, with markets, events, seating, greening measures, and artwork.

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[12] Vancouver is one of the only municipalities in Canada that have separately elected parks board.
[13] Recently, they have organised a 9-month course on community placemaking, where they are teaching members to re-appropriate public spaces in the neighborhoods through small, and inexpensive interventions (Yvonne Zacharias, 2014).

Other organisations work directly with private landowners on interim uses. Sole Food is an urban farm enterprise that operates four urban farms of various sizes in Vancouver. It leases land from private landowners, and sells its produce directly to restaurants, at farmers markets, and in retail stores. Shifting Growth is a non-profit that leases land from private landowners to temporarily set up community gardens that it manages, or other partnering organisations manage.

Some of Vancouver's business improvement associations (BIAs) have been instrumental in both financially, and symbolically, supporting temporary use of vacant lots, and street space. The Downtown Vancouver BIA financially supports VIVA Vancouver's Granville Summer Series, a summer temporary street closure to pedestrianise a number of streets downtown.

Other important initiators are individuals, people that appropriate and make low-cost changes in neighborhoods, and may not be associated with a particular group. Pask of VPSN says "key organisations can harness interest in a collective way, but there will always be individuals [who implement projects]."

4.1.4 Projects

4.1.4.1 Name : Robson Redux
Goals : Temporarily transform the 800 block of Robson Street downtown Vancouver
into a summer pedestrian plaza
Initiators : City of Vancouver
Time : Annually since 2012 throughout the summer months
Space : One block of street

The City of Vancouver's public space program, VIVA Vancouver, "specializes in turning road spaces into people places" (City of Vancouver, 2014e). This program works with community partners and businesses, with the aim of repurposing road spaces for temporary, or semi-permanent public spaces. VIVA Vancouver administers a multitude of projects; namely, Robson Redux, Granville Street weekend closure, and the Parklet Pilot Program. Kassay recognizes this is a shift from the temporary events and interventions that typically occur, stating, "a lot of people say 'if it doesn't generate a crowd, why are you doing an event?' But we try to educate people that *you* are the event, *you* hanging out in the street is an event."

VIVA Vancouver transpired out of a program called Summer Spaces, which was a pilot to temporarily close a few major commercial streets downtown every Sunday during summer in 2009. The main goal of Summer Spaces was to temporarily transform streets into public

spaces, and raise the profile of active forms of transportation.[14] After a successful year, and much support from the Downtown Vancouver BIA, the City of Vancouver decided to rebrand the initiative as VIVA Vancouver in 2011.

The centre of Summer Series activities was a temporary exhibit called Robson Redux, located on Robson Street between Howe and Hornby Streets, bordered by the Vancouver Art Gallery to the north, and the Provincial Law Courts to the south. Since 2010, this block has been transformed from street to pedestrian, with large seating installations encouraging people to slow down, pause, and connect with each other in an inviting urban setting (Figure 12, Figure 13, Figure 14, Figure 15).[15]

The Downtown Vancouver BIA and Vancouver Art Gallery have been huge supporters of the Summer Series, giving $40,000 every year to the event to support Robson Redux. The Vancouver Art Gallery, adjacent to the temporary plaza is also a big supporter and has co-organized an evening event for the Redux launch.

The Robson Redux installations and street closures are well used by the public, prompting the City to explore the potential for a larger Robson Square. In 2011, after the first plaza launched, VPSN started a petition to prompt the City to keep Robson closed permanently to traffic, and reconnect Robson Square. This motivated the City to start a public engagement process about the idea in 2012. The engagement found that over 70 percent of the 2,800 participants involved supported a permanent public square (Vancouver Public Space Network, 2012). The support for a pedestrian-only block of Robson Street, among other reasons, were important factors in the decision to begin the process of a Downtown Bus Service Review in 2013 (Vancouver Public Space Network, 2014). The review is now in its second phase of consultation, and has found that while there is support for the closure, there are also concerns about elderly West End residents accessing other destinations downtown (City of Vancouver, 2014a).[16]

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[14] The City of Vancouver waives the road closure costs and provides small funding to community groups wanting to run activities, as a way to encourage activating the space.

[15] The first of the annual pedestrian plazas was in 2011 through a VIVA initiated request for proposal. The winning proposal was called Picnurbia, produced by Loose Affiliates. The next summer featured Pop Rocks (2012), a three-week installation of large bean-bag type seating designed by AFJD Studio and Matthew Soules Architecture made from recycled materials, including sail material from Canada Place, a nearby landmark convention centre, hotel, and cruise ship terminal. Corduroy Road was installed in 2013, which had large, modular and colourful outdoor patio furniture and a deck designed by Hapa Architecture Collaborative. The 2014 installation, Urban Reef, is currently being finished, and was created by Kaz Bemner, Jeremiah Deutscher, Michael Siy and Kenneth Navarra – a team of local architects, designers and carpenters.

[16] The final report is anticipated to be complete in late 2014.

Figure 12: Picnurbia for Robson Redux (summer 2011), Vancouver, Canada

Source: Krista Jahnke. (2014). "Picnurbia." Retrieved from: www.kristajahnke.com

Figure 13: Pop Rocks for Robson Redux (summer 2012), Vancouver, Canada

Source: Krista Jahnke. (2014). "Pop Rocks." Retrieved from www.kristajahnke.com

Figure 14: Corduroy Road for Robson Redux, Vancouver, Canada

Source: Paul Krueger. (2014). Retrieved from Flickr.

Figure 15: Urban Reef for Robson Redux, Vancouver, Canada

Source: Yolanda Cole. (2014). "VIVA Vancouver Brings Urban Reef to Robson Street," *Georgia Straight*. Retrieved from www.straight.com/news/674796/viva-vancouver-program-brings-urban-reef-robson-street

4.1.4.2   Name : Parklet Pilot Program
           Goals : Transform on-street parking into public space
           Initiators : Businesses primarily
           Time: Semi-permanent
           Space : Various locations on-street parking spaces

In 2009, the City of Vancouver piloted Summer Spaces in four Vancouver neighbourhoods: Commercial Drive, Joyce-Collingwood, Gastown, and Mount Pleasant. These events encouraged having community-organized events in the streets, and to bring people together. After the success of Robson Redux and the Summer Series, and three pilot parklets in 2011-2012, it decided to launch a Parklet Pilot Program in 2014 (Corey, 2014). This pilot project began in the summer of 2014, and is piloting a program for interested sponsors, mostly businesses, to build mini plazas or parklets on the street. This is following the City's *Transportation 2040 Plan* calling for a simple permit or application-based approach to encourage more parklets at low cost to taxpayers (City of Vancouver, 2013b).

Parklets usually consist of semi-permanent platforms extending from the sidewalk over on-street parking spaces (Figure 16). The platforms may have benches, tables, chairs, landscaping, and sometimes bike parking. The parklets are adjacent to a business sponsor who build and take care of the everyday maintenance, and ensure that the parklets remain free and open to be used by the public. These public spaces are often sponsored by restaurants and cafés, and therefore provide benefits to the business, although not technically an extension of it.

The City of Vancouver created a *2013 Parklet Pilot Program Guide* (2013b) to explain the application process, fees, applicant responsibilities, design guidelines, and other technical requirements. The whole program is designed to not rely on taxpayer money, so it has a sponsorship model where the costs associated with the construction and city processes are the responsibility of the sponsor or applicant. The sponsors may be BIAs, non-profits, community organisations, schools, property owners, storefront business owners or anyone else approved on a case-by-case basis. The City has been upfront about the costs associated with building a parklet, which range from $10,000 to $20,000 for construction, fees for submitting a preliminary application, approval (program cost recovery, site inspection, removal of paring meters), and annual renewal.

VIVA Vancouver's goal is to transform streets into vibrant public spaces, and the Parklet Pilot Program is an opportunity to move towards citizen and City collaborations when changing public spaces temporarily. It is an interesting example of financing temporary public space, and creating a process to regulate temporary projects.

Figure 16: French Quarter Parklet, Vancouver, Canada

Source: Steve Chou. (2014). Retrieved from Flickr.

4.1.4.3   Name : Bute Street Plaza
          Goals : A quick solution to enhance the public realm, a need identified in the
                  neighbourhood planning process
          Initiators : City of Vancouver
          Time : Since 2013
          Space : Plaza created by closing a block of street

In August of 2013, in conjunction with the 35th anniversary of the Vancouver Pride Parade, VIVA Vancouver and the West End BIA launched a pilot project where it painted rainbow crosswalks at the intersection of Davie Street and Bute Street to mark the historical and cultural importance of Davie Village (City of Vancouver, 2013a).[17] In addition to the crosswalk, it opened a temporary public plaza on Bute Street between Davie Street and the lane south (Figure 17). The plaza includes colourful picnic tables, landscaping, and decorative lighting and provides a space for recreation and play, gathering and socializing, programming and events.

The Bute Street Plaza, or "Heart of Davie Village," was launched after public consultations for the West End Community Plan revealed that there was a demand for public space improvements reflecting the neighborhood identity. The City of Vancouver has been using the strategy of 'action-while-planning' in the community planning programs, which blends

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[17] The eight-colour rainbow palette reflects the original Pride flag colours from 1978, symbolizing diversity and inclusivity, characteristics that help define the neighbourhood.

process and action — undertaking planning work at the same time as facilitating action on pressing issues, or having short-term improvements implemented to inform the future design. A planner at the City of Vancouver says these actions signal to the residents that the City acknowledges the neighbourhood identity and pressing concern for better public space. The plaza has for the most part received a positive response; however, there have been concerns that the plaza blocks traffic and affect local commercial businesses.

Figure 17: Davie Village Rainbow Crosswalk, Vancouver, Canada

Source: Miranda Post. (2014). Retrieved from
http://thiscitylife.tumblr.com/post/57432558143/summer-spaces

In November of 2013, Council made the Bute Street Plaza permanent by approving the West End Community Plan. The City is now working with City Studios — which is a class of select students from various Vancouver university design programs — to gather ideas from the residents, and plan and implement the future design of the plaza.

The Bute Street Plaza was an experiment done by the City of Vancouver when a need was expressed during the community planning process. It utilized quick, action-while-planning solutions to temporarily create a temporary plaza, which was quickly accepted, and is now part of the official community plan.

4.1.4.4   Name : Urban Farms and Community Gardens on Private Land
Goals : Local food growing, education and employment
Initiators : Landowners, non-profits, community organisations
Time : Varies
Space : Multiple locations and movable to different locations

In Vancouver, the local food movement has been growing over the past decade, with more community garden plots, farmers markets and urban farms than ever before. Much of this growth has taken place on private land, as land developers respond to the demand by offering community gardens as amenities in new developments, and before development occurs with interim gardens and farms.

One of the main reasons that landowners are doing this is the existence of a property tax incentive for landowners. This is achieved through a BC Assessment land-use reclassification, depending on the location, and zoning and municipal policies. The landowner is also providing a community amenity rather than having the land sit vacant, which helps with maintenance, safety and in some cases liability.

Land may be vacant for many reasons, most commonly for: land speculation, being contaminated, and waiting for the development process. Many vacant corner lots are former service stations, with land that needs to be decontaminated in order to get a certificate obtained from the Ministry of Environment. There is also a limited amount of industrial land, particularly in the False Creek Flats that is vacant until it is financially feasible to redevelop in years to come. Development speculation is also common, and the landowner might be waiting for a rezoning to occur or land values to increase before redeveloping.

One such farming operation on private land is Sole Food, who transform vacant urban lots into farms, selling the produce at farmers markets, local food restaurants, retail stores, and giving about ten percent to agencies working in the downtown Eastside (Figure 18).[18] It employs over 25 individuals dealing with drug addiction and mental illness, and also provides employees with opportunities for education, and skill training. It currently operate in four locations just outside of downtown Vancouver, with the largest being over two-acres, and having over 3000 food growing boxes (Sole Food, 2014). Sole Food has developed short-term land leases with owners to guarantee that the farm can be moved on short notice. The landowners often benefit from tax incentives as well.

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[18] Sole Food is a not-for-profit social enterprise, supported by Vancouver's City Council, its business community, financial institutions and philanthropists. They have been able to secure major grants from the City, Vanity and other philanthropic organisations for the development and running of the farms. Concord Pacific, the developer of the large plot of land north of False Creek, has leased the site to Sole Food for three years, at no charge, in exchange for the benefit of having reduced property tax (Kimmett, 2012).

Figure 18: Sole Food's False Creek Urban Farm
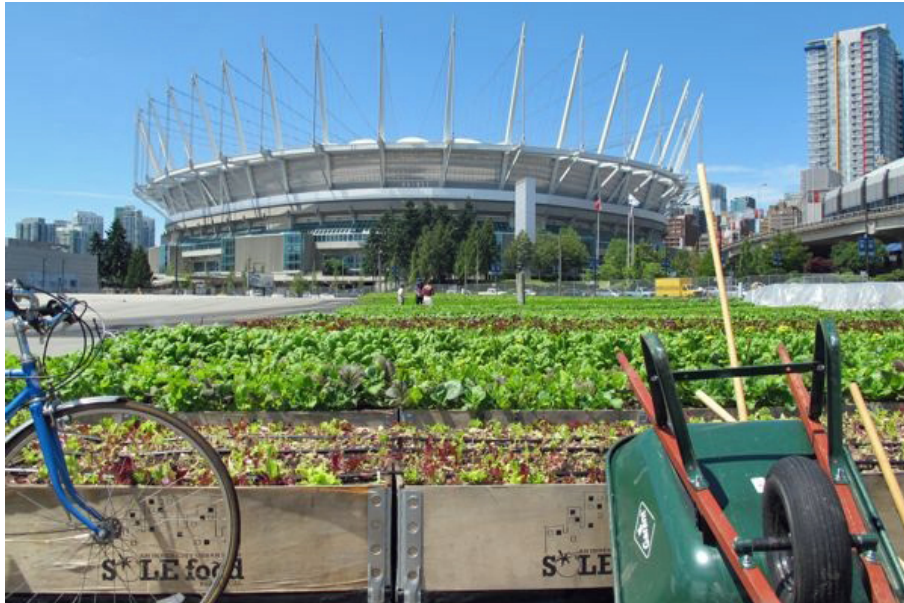
Source: Colleen Kimmett. (2012). "Big Step for Big City Farming," *The Tyee*.
Retrieved from http://thetyee.ca/News/2012/07/09/Solefood-Rising/

There are also other non-profits working directly with landowners to facilitate community gardens on private vacant lots. Shifting Growth, established in 2011, works directly with landowners to coordinate and manage community garden projects, essentially becoming property managers that transform vacant lots into temporary community gardens (Figure 19). It set up one to five year land-use agreements with landowners, with 30-day removal clauses for both parties.

As the garden is being planned, Shifting Growth tries to work with already existing community groups interested in managing the garden and hand over the management once it is built.[20] Chris Reid, Co-founder of Shifting Growth, says of the community building aspect, "you need to have a bit of support from the beginning. In terms of the management, it depends on who is already involved. Our goal at Shifting Growth is to align with what the community wants." There are multi-year waitlists for community garden space in Vancouver, and he says,

> Vancouver has a huge demand for community gardens right now; people want
> to grow food. Our model builds on good timing. As well, a lot of people are
> living in spaces that do not have growing space and developers are realizing

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[20] Shifting Growth manages two of the seven large gardens because of scale of the sites, but ideally, community groups will manage the garden and membership.

the value of community gardens and amenities, and are trying to see where it fits in to their amenity provisions.

Figure 19: Hastings North Community Garden, Vancouver, Canada

Source: Shifting Growth. (2014). From Shifting Growth Flickr.

4.1.4.5   Name : Community Gardens on Public Land
Goals : Local food security and education
Initiators : Community organisations
Time : Varies
Space : Over 90 community gardens

Vancouver has a history of embracing community gardens, and the demand for garden space is continuing to grow. There are over 90 community gardens and orchards on City of Vancouver, Vancouver Park Board, and other non-city owned properties (churches, schools, hospitals, co-op) (City of Vancouver, 2014b).[22,23]

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[22] The City of Vancouver and Vancouver Parks Board hold land in separate control, and therefore administer community gardens separately. The City has over 26 community gardens or orchards, while the Park Board has approximately 19.
[23] Gardens on City-owned lands are usually issued a 5-year license agreements between the community garden organisation and the landowner, with a clause that says the contract could end on 90 days of written notice and after a full growing season is complete. There is also a clause to allow for emergency access to the site for infrastructure repair if needed.

City-owned land may be vacant for different reasons: until it is financially beneficial to sell or develop it; or it may be designated for a road or sewer right-of-way, school, or social housing. Park Board land is designated 'park' permanently, and therefore offers greater security for community gardens to persist longer-term.

Over the last decade, the City of Vancouver has become more supportive of community gardens. Hartley Rosen, Director of the Environmental Youth Alliance says, "we used to have to fight tooth and nail for everything, and now they [the City of Vancouver] are open, and incredibly supportive [of community gardens]." The process has become more streamlined when a group or individual approaches the City to use its land. The City evaluates the land for its potential future use over the next five to 10 years, and allows access if it is in a suitable condition.[24] It also asks the group to provide evidence of financial sustainability, and ability to secure funding from other sources. The City then sets up contracts and licenses agreements; and offers land clearance and grading, compost for the first year, and water access. It also provides staff time to assist in designing the garden, and ensuring design plans are within the *Operational Guidelines for Community* Gardens (City of Vancouver, 2014c).

Cottonwood Community Garden is one of Vancouver's oldest community gardens, which started in 1985 as an unsanctioned, but tolerated, project by local residents of Strathcona on an informal dumpsite (Figure 20). In 2005, in recognition of the gardens role in community stewardship, the Park Board signed a 25-year lease with the Strathcona Community Gardeners Society. The Environmental Youth Alliance (EYA) has been involved in the garden since 1993, which now has over 200 plots, a greenhouse and storage shed, a bee shed and hive, espalier area, orchard, herb garden, children's play area; and an eco-pavilion that provides space for training, workshops and meetings. The garden is potentially under threat sitting on a road right-of-way; where the expansion of Malkin Avenue could cause part of the garden to be demolished. Even with a license agreement or lease, the City has the right to use the land as a right-of-way.

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[24] In the decision to allow a community garden, the City Real Estate Department would determine the potential for development is over the near future. They generally do not set up a garden if its going to be developed or has the potential to be over the next 5 to 10 years, because of the costs associated and consideration for the temporary users. Ultimately, the City's goal is to generate money from these properties, so they need to consider those options first.

Figure 20: Cottonwood Community Garden, Vancouver, Canada

Source: The Mainlander. (2012). "Condos vs. Cottonwood Garden." Retrieved from http://themainlander.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/7566103822_6007fd9f3e_b.jpeg

4.1.5   Assessment

By examining the context of Vancouver, the processes through which the projects came to fruition because of different initiators, and the relationships that exist, a few patterns arise.

Community gardens are especially common in Vancouver because of the demand, and the tax incentive by reclassifying land. Property managers such as Shifting Growth have a business model based on the receiving the incentive. The City of Vancouver has been very supportive of the community gardens on private land, and has policies to support it, including the *Greenest City 2020 Action Plan*.

Temporary public spaces help to animate space and foster interaction in Vancouver. Some temporary uses benefit public space, and parklets offer the benefit of being places for people to socialize, rest, and improve the public realm in a non-commercial way. Kassay says that parklets can also help to relieve some of the space constraints on sidewalks. A parklet on Robson Street, in front of a popular eatery, has helped relieve some of the pedestrian congestion caused by a narrow sidewalk and a lineup at the take-out window, which makes it a lot easier, and safer, for pedestrians to pass.

Robson Redux is a good example of temporary uses working towards incremental change; how to test City processes, effects on other stakeholders, and evaluating longer-term

impacts of projects. Robson Redux is a temporary plaza that could potentially become permanent after the downtown bus review. Another example of this is Bute Street Plaza, where a temporary plaza was built during the neighbourhood planning process, and became permanent after City Council approved the community plan.

The City has taken the role of supporting citizen-initiated projects, as long as it is within the safety guidelines and requirements. The City has clear processes for street closures, green streets, and community gardens; the challenge arises when there are interventions that do not fit into existing programs. When a project comes up that does not fit existing regulations, different departments must get involved to ensure the safety and security of residents. When someone tries to initiate a project using the correct process, it can be time consuming and expensive. This may cause people to implement a project without permission or not pursue the project at all; which could stifle interest to generate new and creative projects. The prevalence of guerrilla gardens in Vancouver has diminished with the shift to more programmatic support for community gardens at a City level, including guidelines and process. Rosen says,

> Guerrilla projects don't really happen anymore because there is no need. If a piece (of land) is available, the City is usually open to a community garden project as long as there are standards and you are meeting the guidelines, they are okay with handing it over. There is no cache in starting a guerrilla project because the city is like, 'great!' They have taken away that fun, mysterious part of guerrilla gardens.

On the other hand, the City of Vancouver sometimes allows unsanctioned interventions to take place after calculating actual risk. The City will always try to get in contact with the individuals responsible for the guerilla gardens in order to legitimize it. Legitimizing the gardens is important because the city is ultimately responsible for the safety of the space; and having a legitimate garden also allows the managers to access funding or compost from the City.

The City is trying to work towards simplifying processes by expanding on the experience of previous years by changing the format of applications, funding, communications, and time period for the installation. Kassay says for the City's public space program, it uses a model of 'innovate,' 'experiment,' 'incubate' and 'integrate.' The 'innovate' stage is when an idea is identified and is in a trial period; the 'experiment' stage is when an idea is observed in other places and is tried out; and the 'incubate stage' is when complexities are worked out to ensure long-term sustainability. The final stage, 'integrate,' is when it becomes a program within the City, or is passed to an existing community organisation. This is the hardest stage to reach because it means finding sustained resources and staff to support the program,

which are already at capacity. Kassay says there are many great ideas that reach the 'innovation' stage, but 'incubation' slows down excitement, and 'integration' can be challenging because the City is working through the difficult part of making something normalized through a process, and the idea is not "new and flashy."

When creating programs and requirements, working with other departments is essential to ensure safety, technical requirements for City operations, and liability is covered. The *Community Garden Guidelines* and *Parklet Pilot Project Guidelines* lay out in detail the technical specifications to ensure public safety and accessibility to utilities. It takes more time to ensure everything is covered, but it is nevertheless important, particularly for projects with heavier infrastructure, such as parklets and urban farms.

Sustained funding and resources is a concern for both the City and community groups in implementing temporary projects. When VIVA Vancouver, for example, experienced funding cuts in 2012, it became even more important to work with and get support from the Downtown Business Improvement Association, which now gives $40,000 per year to help fund the street closures. For the City, it is often not that it does not want to have more programs, but it has to be strategic with financial resources and staff time. For the Parklet Program, cost-sharing occurs between the City and businesses, so the City retains ownership of the parklets, while the businesses pay for applications, parking meter removal, inspections, cost recovery, building, and maintenance.[25] Further, one of the pilot parklets came to fruition after a crowdfunding campaign on Kickstarter raised over $5,000 for wall art and building a bike bar, showing the potential for other kinds of funding opportunities (Barker, 2014).

The City has developed Public Space Performance Indicators to measure the performance of temporary public spaces, with social connections, diversity of users, and diversity of use as some of the key objectives. The monitoring is done through a survey counting method with a set of criteria for each objective. This helps to measure the affects of temporary uses, and public space.

One consideration about the location of temporary uses in Vancouver is that gardens are usually located in areas that have a higher population density, which often coincides with areas where the land is most valuable. These areas often have plans for development in the next five to 10 years, which is one of the criteria considered in the decision to have a garden.

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[25] Costs breakdown: $200 review fee upon submitting preliminary application, $1,000 program cost recovery fee, $200 for site inspection before and after installation, $125 to remove each parking meter, $500 annual renewal fee and estimated cost of design, materials, and installation are $10,000 to $20,000, depending on design factors, size, and material choice (City of Vancouver, 2013b).

This can be a challenge, especially because the areas with a demand for a garden do not often coincide with areas where land is available.

On private land, the main concern for the landowners and other organisations involved is the long-term financial viability of the projects. This includes, securing the financing, making it profitable or at least break even. The Sole Food and Shifting Growth examples are two of many models of community gardens and urban agriculture occurring on private vacant land. The incentive for landowners is often through tax measures and the desire to have the land used for a community benefit while waiting for it to be financially feasible to redevelop.

There has been a shift in consciousness in terms of community engagement for some of the more common temporary projects, such as community gardens, people now generally know what to expect. Shifting Growth has found that people are not really interested in the consultation process when a new garden is being created, and there is very little turnout at public meetings. Reid says that citizens know what they are getting into now with community gardens, so consultation is no longer necessary. People tend to care less about design, than the fact that they will get a plot in which to garden. Of course, there are also citizens not in favour of community gardens, for reason related to aesthetics, parking spaces being lost, and concerns about wildlife and pests. Generally, neighbourhood residents accept community gardens, though there are often concerns that organizers need to address.

Vancouver's context is one where actors are taking cautious steps towards creating temporary spaces. Issues of liability and safety often stifle or prevent creative temporary uses. Certain programs have been established for many years, such as community gardens and greenways; while others are just beginning, such as parklets and plazas. Vancouver is open to having more community-driven projects not only to help create city spaces, but also to encourage people to interact, and become stewards of their neighbourhoods.

4.2   Christchurch, New Zealand

Population (metropolitan area) : 379,100 (Statistics New Zealand, 2013)

Gross Population Density : 265.8/km^2 (Statistics New Zealand, 2013)[26]

Population Growth : 0.8% in 2013, after two years of decline (Statistics New Zealand, 2013)

Size : 1,426 km^2

4.2.1   Background

Christchurch is the third-largest urban area in New Zealand, and the largest on the South Island, with a metropolitan population of 379,100 (Figure 21).[27] Christchurch was impacted by a series of devastating earthquakes in 2010 and 2011, causing the major destruction of infrastructure, businesses, homes, and the well-being of many people. There has been a considerable effort made by organisations, individuals, and all levels of government, to plan for Christchurch's rebuilding, and making it more livable in the meantime.

The largest earthquake in 2010 was on September 4th, which caused serious damage to many homes, and other buildings. Another earthquake hit on February 22nd the following year, which was less strong, yet far more damaging.[28] In the aftermath, as much as 70 percent of the buildings in the central business district were designated for demolition, and whole residential suburbs Red-Zoned[29]; this left huge gaps in the physical fabric of the city, and left many people without homes. The aftermath of the quakes caused a population exodus from the city, with over 13,600 people permanently moving away from the area in 2011 and 2012, and many residents finding themselves physically displaced (Christchurch City Council, 2012). Officials have estimated that cost of rebuilding Greater Christchurch are between $30 billion to $40 billion, the equivalent of almost 20 percent of New Zealand's annual GDP (Government of New Zealand, 2013).

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[26] Where "gross density" is a units-per-square kilometre density calculation that includes land occupied by public rights-of-way, recreational, civic, commercial and other non-residential uses.

27 The population within Christchurch's administrative boundary was 366,000 in June 2013, and is the second largest in New Zealand, behind Auckland.

28 The September 2010 earthquake was during the night and had a magnitude of 7.1, and while it damaged buildings, it did not claim any lives. The February 2011 earthquake, while lower magnitude at 6.3, claimed 185 lives because it occurred mid-day while people were in the city or outside of their homes, and its fault line was shallow and near the city centre. The quakes left some areas of Christchurch prone to liquefaction, meaning further damage occurred after the quake to many buildings, roads and utilities systems, leaving much of the central business district and parts of the Eastern suburbs virtually uninhabitable.

29 Residential red zone definition: when the land has been so badly damaged by the earthquakes it is unlikely it can be rebuilt on for a prolonged period. The criteria for defining areas as residential red zone are: there is significant and extensive area wide land damage; the success of engineering solutions may be uncertain in terms of design, its success and possible commencement, given the ongoing seismic activity; and any repair would be disruptive and protracted for landowners (Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority, 2014).

Figure 21: Location of Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Google. (2014).

Damage to the physical landscape of Christchurch was not the only thing harmed by the quakes, social networks were also disrupted. According to the New Zealand Well-Being Survey, 57 percent of Christchurch respondents reported their quality of life had decreased since the 2010 and 2011 earthquakes (Quality of Life Project, 2012). The survey found that the most prevalent negative impacts of the earthquake were issues of insurance, anxiety of aftershocks, and the lack of recreational and cultural activities. On a more positive note, the survey also found that people had a renewed zeal for life, pride in their own abilities to withstand disaster, increased family resilience, and a stronger sense of community. Therefore, it has been important for the people of Christchurch to rebuild the city, and to recreate their social networks.

The extent of the devastation is much more than economic and physical; it also occupies the identities, experiences, culture, and memories of Christchurch's citizens and visitors. When a building is demolished, the physical anchor is also removed from the mental memory.

Bennett, Biodi, and Boles (2013) write of Christchurch's post-earthquake landscape in *Christchurch: The Transitional City Part IV*:

> You may recognise the street names and intersections, but the places are completely changed. You stand there, staring, struggling desperately to remember, struggling to articulate meaning out of the uncanny familiarity (p. 4).

The impacts on the physical and mental landscapes of citizens post-disaster is unavoidable, and deserves much more attention than can be given here.

In the aftermath of the earthquakes, several key organisations quickly formed to bring life and hope back to the city through changing these vacant lands into temporary public spaces. These key organisations – Gap Filler, Greening the Rubble and Life In Vacant Spaces (LIVS), among many others – have been instrumental in Christchurch's recovery. These organisations have been transforming spaces left empty from the earthquakes and recovery using relatively fast and inexpensive projects to construct temporary sites for public use.

Christchurch's temporary projects have been highlighted in the national and international media for its importance in the recovery effort. Bennett explains that it is much more interesting to write about more visual projects than about blueprints and planning documents, which is one of the reasons why temporary projects have been focused on. The New York Times (Bergman, 2014) article *After Earthquakes, a Creative Rebirth in Christchurch* highlighted Christchurch's temporary activities and the "many entrepreneurs, artists, designers and other hardy residents who have chosen to stay in the city … determined to see Christchurch rebound — and become a better city than it was before" (p. 4). Bennett admits the danger in this narrative as it might be ignoring the complexity of the issues,

> Temporary uses may distract from the real going-ons in the city. Rather than talk about environmental standards in buildings, long-term problems, they are talking about cool little projects and vibrant community.

Although it is important in the short- and medium-term to report on how Christchurch residents are creative and strong during rebuilding, there are larger issues that people are distracted from.

There are many lessons to be learned from Christchurch's effort to recreate the city in a non-conventional form through transitional and temporary spaces. These spaces have helped to re-animate the largely vacant downtown, and have provided many additional benefits to citizens, the environment and the economy.

4.2.2 Planning and Policies

The Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority (CERA) was established by the Government of New Zealand after the earthquakes, and is responsible for the management of the regional rebuilding process, including demolition and planning. In 2011, just three months after the earthquakes, Christchurch City Council asked citizens to 'Share an Idea' about the central city recovery; more than 100,600 ideas came in through workshops and online, along with

advice from professional institutes, interest groups, and community organisations.[32] The City then drafted a Plan, and from there, the Christchurch Central Development Unit (CCDU), mandated by CERA, wrote a *Christchurch Central Recovery Plan* which included a spatial framework called, the Blueprint Plan (Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority, 2012). The Plan imagines a compact central business district, with low-rise buildings, and a "green frame" around the CBD that would connect with the parkland along the Avon River. It also emphasises active transportation, including a new light rail network, pedestrian boardwalks, and bicycle lanes.

The Christchurch City Council has been vital in the recovery effort, and in supporting temporary projects through a transitional city strategy. It supports the citizen-led temporary efforts by giving core funding to Gap Filler, Greening the Rubble, and LIVS, and other individuals and groups doing temporary projects through the Transitional City Projects Fund.

Policies to support temporary uses in Christchurch have been made at all levels of government. On a regional level, the Canterbury Development Corporation developed a strategy document for Christchurch City Council, and a plan for economic recovery through a number of measures. Gap Filler's site activation projects are also listed as part of key actions supporting innovation in Christchurch, and these temporary site activations have been officially endorsed by Christchurch's policymakers as a vital part of the recovery process (Canterbury Development Corporation, 2014).

Along with direct financial and political support of temporary activities, the *Christchurch City Council's District Plan* (Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority, 2012) has called for a provision to enable the establishment of temporary buildings on vacant sites until April 2016 as permitted activity. This widens the range of temporary activities while construction and decommissioning of buildings occurs, and means that temporary public artwork and recreational facilities are now permitted, and public artwork is no longer subject to a number of the standards normally laid out in the Blueprint. Jane Gregg, director of LIVS, believes the opening up of these regulations validates temporary activities taking place in Christchurch, and makes it easier to go through the typical bureaucratic processes and approvals.

Temporary projects have been part of the rebuilding process in Christchurch, and have been supported by various levels of government. Whether that support will continue in the future is questionable as more formal development mechanisms happen and the City Blueprint starts to come into implementation phase. Some temporary projects risk not continuing while

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[32] This community consultation was design by Christchurch City Council in partnership with Gehl Architects.

others could potentially stay more permanently. Another consideration is vacant lots occurred long before the earthquakes, so the temporary uses occurring during this transition period could be a good examples of what could occur in the future.

4.2.3   Instigators

Christchurch's community-led temporary projects have been primarily organized by a small number of key organisations that formed following the earthquakes. Some started quickly after, while others developed after needs were discovered, and niches found going through the uncharted process of project implementation.

Gap Filler is an organisation that activates vacant sites with cultural and artistic projects. Gap Filler was established by individuals who had already thought about activating existing vacant sites with temporary uses, so when the September 2010 earthquake hit, they found it was the ideal time to begin. Richard Sewell, Project Coordinator with Gap Filler explained that "it was not really gap filling, but we were doing these little interventions. It was the idea of grass roots urban activation and community engagement." Gap Filler has implemented interventions across the city, including: mini golf courses, bike shops, book fridges, and entertainment venues.[33]

Greening the Rubble reactivate sites through the creation of temporary public parks and community gardens, using movable structures designed for relocation. The group formed just four weeks after the September 2010 earthquake when it saw a need to bring life back into the central business district.[34]

Gap Filler and Greening the Rubble work closely with LIVS to gain access to sites, and often share sites. LIVS began in 2012, after organizers at Gap Filler saw a functional need to coordinate between the people with temporary project ideas and landowners of vacant sites. LIVS essentially work as property managers of privately owned land, finding short- and medium-term uses for vacant sites and buildings. It handles the paperwork and project management related to liability insurance, license agreements, basic property maintenance, and decommissioning the project.[35] It essentially "cut through red tape and unlock[ed] permissions, making vacant space available to creative uses in Christchurch, and enabling hundreds of temporary activations" (Life in Vacant Spaces, 2014). Richard Sewell, Project Coordinator with Gap Filler, says it is "pretty lucky to have a group like that [LIVS] (because)

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[33] Gap Filler has six staff (at 3.5 full time equivalent), a seven-person board of trustees and a small group of regular volunteers.
[34] Greening the Rubble is mostly made up of volunteers, five trustees and two paid staff. They receive core funding from the Christchurch City Council, modest financial support from site owners and small sponsorships for construction materials.
[35] LIVS currently has 2.3 paid staff members, and are given core funding through City Council, some community trust funding and private sponsorship. Since they began in 2012, they have helped to implement over 110 projects, placing them well above their original target of 100 projects by 2016.

there is one point of contact between the landowners and the temporary users." By acting as property managers, LIVS can organize reusing sites for different projects once projects are complete, and organize complementary temporary uses on one site.

Since the earthquake, there has also been an increase in temporary architectural structures in Christchurch, such as the Re:Start Shopping Centre and the Cardboard Cathedral. These have been important as quick projects to fill voids made by the earthquake.

4.2.4   Projects

4.2.4.1   Name : Green Roofs at Cranmer Square
        Goals : Test green roof technologies and educate the public
        Initiators : Greening the Rubble, Sustainable Habitat Challenge
        Time : Since April 2013
        Space : Vacant lot on lease

Green Roofs at Cranmer Square is a Greening the Rubble project that experiments with an alternative type of city greenspace, by filling vacant lots with simple, removable garden and green roof infrastructure. The project began late April 2013, with collaboration between Greening the Rubble and the Sustainable Habitat Challenge (SHAC). The vacant space now has green roof covered garden sheds, and small, table-height structures configured as a conventional garden (Figure 22). The project aims to raise awareness on green roofs for future redevelopment by allowing users to observe at ground level, the types of planting material, construction materials, and plantings that are used on green roofs.

The private landowner of the vacant site agreed to share its land through a license given to LIVS with Greening the Rubble using the space for a few years before rebuilding. The green roof construction was initially delayed as a result of public works that took over a year to complete, but started towards the end of April of 2013.

The project received extensive support from volunteers, local businesses, and students to: clear weeds, prune overgrown shrubs, and remove debris. It received professional assistance for the landscape design and received materials and garden sheds from supporters. It also received two green roof structures from the Christchurch Botanic Garden, and another from the SHAC through the Transitional City Grant. Green Roofs at Cranmer Square was also a part of the FESTA event in October 2013.

Figure 22: Greenroofs at Cranmer Square, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Greening the Rubble. (2014). "Green Roofs at Cranmer Square." Retrieved from http://greeningtherubble.org.nz/wp/?p=1111

4.2.4.2 Name : Soundgarden

Goals : Musical instruments intended to contrast the demolition noisescape of current Christchurch

Initiators : Gap Filler and individuals

Time : Since October 2013

Space : Vacant lot

Soundgarden is a musical project created in a collaboration between Gap Filler and Greening the Rubble, where an urban vacant site on Colombo Street is populated with a variety of musical instruments designed and built by local musicians and artists (Figure 23).[37] Originally opened as part of FESTA in October of 2013, the main goal of the project is to invite the public to create spontaneous music from improvised instruments and to contrast Christchurch's current demolition noisescape. The instruments are made from recovered and recycled materials; for example, drums made from giant pipes, a xylophone of tubes, and a three-metre long rain stick.

The site is now home to several other temporary projects creating a dynamic and multi-programmed public space; such as a mobile City Library van, and a Gap Golf hole. The government-owned site was secured with the help of LIVS and is the future site of the central

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[37] The artists and musicians were Gaby Montejo, Jason Ware, Tim McGurk and Trent Hiles.

library. The site is on a road that has been enhanced for pedestrians by the City Council, with road surfaces painted in shades of green with flower petals, and a platform built to support seats covered in artificial turf.

Figure 23: Soundgarden, New Zealand

Source: Gap Filler. (2014). "Soundgarden." Retrieved from
http://www.gapfiller.org.nz/sound-garden/

4.2.4.3   Name : Agropolis
Goals : Empowering community to address food security through sustainable food production and distribution
Initiators : Steering committee of representatives from the Soil & Health Canterbury, Festival of Transitional Architecture, Garden City 2.0, AECOM
Time : Since October 2013
Space : Vacant lot

Agropolis is a temporary urban farm within Christchurch's inner city, which brings together many different actors, and experiments with the City's sustainable food systems' future. Agropolis volunteers compost organic waste from nearby restaurants, and are responsible for preparing the soil, sowing and planting, harvesting, cooking, and distributing produce (Figure 24). Jane Gregg from LIVS, who worked with the landowners to gain site access, described it as a "symbiotic relationship" between Agropolis, and nearby cafes and restaurants – it grows food for the hospitality businesses nearby, and uses the compost from the businesses to grow more food.

Figure 24: Agropolis, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Agropolis. (2013). "Agropolis Urban Farm." Retrieved from Agropolis Facebook page.

LIVS acquired the land from a private landowner, who may eventually sell to the City as the land is located with an area designated in the Blueprint Plan as the 'Innovation Precinct'; meaning, there is a risk that the land could be expropriated by the state. With this in mind, the garden beds are raised, and are relatively easy to move if the owner decides to not renew the lease. City Council has been supportive of this relatively new concept for Christchurch, so there is hope that that Agropolis will become a more permanent urban farm in some form or location. In this way, it is testing the model for more sustainable food systems, which may continue into the future.

Gregg believes that this is the ideal location for a food project like Agropolis. Prior to the earthquakes, the area was known as Poplar Lane, a main entertainment district. By reactivating the area with cafes, restaurants, and urban agriculture, it allows all parties to receive more visibility, and form a symbiotic relationship within local food systems. There have been concerns from some vocal citizens about the loss of parking spaces, a common concern for many of the vacant space projects in Christchurch.

Agropolis holds regular workshops on composting, seed raising, the future of food, urban design, community-supported agriculture, and sustainable building techniques. It also holds regular work parties every two weeks to help with the maintenance of the site. In the future, Agropolis organizers envision the site being a "garden to plate" experience with a mobile

kitchen, and having educational opportunities for members of the community, schools, and beyond (Festival of Transitional Architecture, 2014).

Transitional projects in Christchurch provide a way to activate the central city creatively and immediately. Agropolis experiments with different models of urban food growing, that may actually help inform future planning decisions. It gives people an opportunity to be directly involved in growing their own food, and help advance sustainability in Christchurch.

4.2.4.4   Name : The Commons
             Goals : Desire for new ways to add movable infrastructure to empty sites for public
                events
             Initiators : LIVS, Gap Filler and many others
             Time : Since early 2012
             Space : Vacant lot

The Commons is a site that has evolved since 2012 as a hub for transitional projects, and organisations. This site was the grounds of the former Crown Plaza Hotel, and is now owned by City Council with a license given to LIVS to use the site. The first project on the site was the Pallet Pavilion, initiated by Gap Filler in 2012 (Figure 25). This was a large entertainment structure built from over 3,000 wooden pallets for live music, outdoor cinema, and other events. Most of the materials were donated, and volunteers and some professionals provided the labour.

The Pallet Pavilion, and the entire Commons site, is run as a public space complete with amenities such as: security, power, site maintenance, audiovisual equipment, food and drink, toilets, and waste collection. Richard Sewell with Gap Filler, says there is a sense of community that emerged around the Pallet Pavilion, which "involved hundreds of volunteers and thousands of hours to build, design, [and] landscape it, then activate it."

The Pallet Pavilion began the summer of 2012, and was planned to be a six-month project, but this timeframe was extended to eighteen-months when public outcry lead to a crowdfunding campaign that raised over NZ$80,000 for it to continue. Sewell explains the importance of this project, and why people were so emotional when it was deconstructed in May of 2014:

> It's interesting with perception... a lot of people come to the city depressed
> and upset, and… like the idea that we were doing stuff. Our audience
> participates, and people feel a part of it. It's hard to measure the impact you're
> having in real terms.

Figure 25: The Common, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Maja Moritz. (2013). "Pallet Pavilion." Retrieved from
http://palletpavilion.com/about/

One of the major hurdles overcome before building the Pallet Pavilion was getting fire regulation approval, which is part of the building consent required by City Council. The structure was made primarily of wood, so it required 24 hour per day surveillance, which was done by volunteers, staff, and overnight security guards. Aside from the incredible expense of time and money this required, it was positive for the site, because it meant that someone was on-site to answer questions, give directions, and reduce potential vandalism.

The Pallet Pavilion had to be disassembled in May of 2014 due to nature of its materials, the financial and human resources required, and the maintenance costs. Sewell states the interesting aspect of temporary projects is the nature of being designed to be temporary mean that ideas are continually "new and fresh." The Pallet Pavilion was successful as an experiment with how people use community-led public space. There was a huge support system around the Pallet Pavilion, and many people were upset about the fact that it had to be discontinued. This made it important for Gap Filler to communicate the intentional ephemeral quality of the project, so people understood that it was temporary.

The Commons remains a hub of activity, and is home to LIVS' and Gap Filler's shared offices, along with a rotating group of food trucks, a cob pizza oven, and a food collective. The site is also home to the Arcades, which is a series of ten laminated timber archways, developed shortly after the Pallet Pavilion was completed in late 2012. The 6.3 metre high arches are

configured diagonally across the site, and are designed to be reconfigurable and re-locatable for at least 25 years (Figure 26). Originally created for FESTA by Gap Filler in 2012, this series of structural arches highlight the previous road to the hotel, which is now a walking and cycling path.

Figure 26: The Arcades, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Gap Filler. (2014). "The Commons." Retrieved from
http://www.gapfiller.org.nz/the-commons/

This project was made possible with the support and collaboration of volunteers, national and local government, and generous sponsorships. It demonstrates how temporary uses have the potential to influence the planning of sites. This site is now represented in Blueprints as a public space with pedestrian and cycling routes, so it will be interesting to watch in the next couple of years what the area will become.

4.2.4.5   Name : RAD (Recycle A Dunger) Bikes
           Goals : Help people do their own bike repairs and perform their own maintenance
           Initiators : Gap Filler and ICECycles with the help of LIVS for site access
           Time : Since October 2013
           Space : Vacant lot

Small-scale temporary projects allow individuals to try new ideas, and experiment with form and function without having to spend a lot of time or money. RAD (Recycle A Dunger) Bikes

is a movable bike shed created by Gap Filler in collaboration with ICECycles (Inner City East Cycles). The shop has fostered the emergence of a community of people, through educating and assisting people in fixing their own bikes (Figure 27).

Figure 27: RAD Bikes, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: RAD Bikes. (2014). Retrieved from http://www.radbikes.co.nz/

RAD Bikes' current location in the inner city, and was intended to run for a trial period of six months, beginning in October 2013. The goal is to have a self-sustaining bike shop, with volunteers eventually taking it over from Gap Filler. The site also attracts other temporary uses, and has now become a hub of activity, with food trucks, and a market. RAD Bikes runs an after-school program in the eastern suburbs, where kids can each build a bike from recycled parts with the help of volunteers. Richard Sewell, Project Coordinator with Gap Filler says this project "was chaos but really fun."

As Gap Filler creates more projects, it learns what is permissible, and how to get projects off the ground as quickly as possible. Sewell explains that RAD Bikes shed was built from mostly recycled and donated materials, and was purposely built to avoid having to deal with building restrictions. It is designed it to be movable by car transport trailer, so that it is possible to set up for a short period of time on any site.

One concern Gap Filler has with this project is finding a way to be financially sustainable. It is completely volunteer-run, but there are also tools and lights required, so it occasionally has

to sell refurbished bikes in order to make those purchases. Another concern is the need for electricity and light when the days begin to get shorter, and evenings darker over winter; organizers are thinking about what power source to use, or whether temporary projects should have electricity at all. It brings into question if temporary projects in the city should actually be off-grid, and means experimenting with what is possible for temporary projects.

4.2.4.6   Name : Re:Start
   Goals : To encourage people to continue to shop in the area while redevelopment
      takes place
   Initiators : Various retailers and developers
   Time : Since October 2011
   Space : Shopping district on Cashel Street, incrementally moving to different
      location

Re:Start is a temporary architectural project using shipping containers to quickly rebuild the central shopping area in Christchurch, Cashel Street Mall (Figure 28). Largely initiated by a group of retailers that anchored development around the department store, Ballentynes, it was a quick way to draw people back to the central business district, which was largely destroyed in the earthquake and aftermath.

Figure 28: Re:Start Container Mall, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: Re:Start. (2014).

Re:Start began as 27 businesses in October of 2011, but grew to over 50 in just three years. Construction materials are repurposed shipping containers stacked in various configurations, painted in bright colours, and sides cut out for windows and folding doors. Buchan Group,

the lead design team and architects say the containers provided a solution to the problem of building a temporary shopping area in an earthquake zone; being strong, modular, ubiquitous and most importantly, exuding a sense of safety in a city fraught with architectural danger (Strongman, 2012). One of the biggest constraints for the project was the quick construction of building the shops within an eight-week timeframe; and having to restore power, drainage, and essential services that were damaged in the earthquakes.

The public realm of Re:Start became just as important as the retail shops themselves. There were a large group of citizen volunteers that were essential in creating the public space, including growing plants, and landscaping. When the area was reopened to the public, it was a symbolic reclamation of the city by its residents. Now, the area is bustling with people sitting, chatting, drinking coffee, and listening to music, and as one author put it "in effect, the mall itself is a tiny purpose-built city in the middle of a vast wasteland" (Strongman, 2012).

Re:Start is so popular, that despite the fact that the area is being redeveloped with new construction, the shipping container stores are being shifted slowly to the southern end of the mall as construction begins on the more permanent redevelopments on the north end (Re:Start, 2014). Chairperson John Suckling sees the replacement of the temporary shipping containers with more permanent buildings as progress, and that the goal to have people continue to come to the downtown was achieved, "the whole idea was to keep people trading until the new buildings arrived, so we are very happy in that sense to be shifting, because it means there's some progress going on" (Palmer, 2014).

4.2.4.7   Name : Festival of Transitional Architecture (FESTA)
        Goals : Showcase urban regeneration with transitional projects and interventions
        Initiators : Christchurch Transitional Architecture Trust
        Time : One weekend annually since 2012
        Space : Vacant lots, streets, in buildings

Festival of Transitional Architecture (FESTA) is a yearly festival that began in 2012, to showcase Christchurch's temporary and transitional movement. This public event invites people to explore urban regeneration through creative projects, and interventions in vacant spaces within the city's four central avenues (Figure 29). Barnaby Bennett, one of the FESTA organizers, realized the importance of the first festival in 2012, when over 30,000 people came into the city after over a year of not being permitted because the downtown was Red Zoned with limited public access. He says, "this was the first time there was public access to

the city; the first time that people who had run for their lives just a few years before were able to come back in and experience the city."

Figure 29: FESTA Project KLOUD, Christchurch, New Zealand

Source: FESTA Facebook page. (2014).

The festival is animated with performances, events, and projects to explore ways in which the city can be rebuilt. FESTA gives people a way to have:

> A rediscovery of the inner city… and invites a variety of collective investigations
> into the nature of civic life and opens it up to the community's desire to
> participate in the remaking of their city (Festival of Transitional Architecture,
> 2014).

George Parker, a professor of Theatre and Film Studies at the University of Canterbury, and participant at FESTA says in an article in Press New Zealand:

> The reality is that a city is always 'in transition,' a work-in-progress that is
> always changing – in many ways, there is only a 'transitional city.' But this
> principle needs to be embraced if we are to excite the community, developers,
> and investors about the future of Christchurch. There is every possibility that
> Christchurch can become known as a creative and intellectual capital of the
> transitional. It could even become a permanent way of operating (Parker, 2012).

The festival is not only a way to showcase transitional architecture, but also a way to experiment with the form of festivals in general, by being an ever-evolving event. The first

festival in 2012, LUXCITY was showcased fourteen different installations animated by performers and curators. During the 2013 festival, Canterbury Tales, the installations were curated by a procession led by a performance art group through the central city. The 2014 festival format expand on the successes and lesson learned in previous years.

Bennett believes FESTA introduces different values to the citizens of Christchurch, with a vision that is much larger in scale:

> FESTA provides focus, momentum and greater urban scale to this transitional movement and invites a cohesive exploration into the potential of urban life. By curating local, national and international responses to the unique situation in Christchurch, FESTA offers expressions of the city which have a wider relevance - they present pragmatic and flexible ways to engage with the global challenges that we are facing (Festival of Transitional Architecture, 2014).

Many of the transitional projects done by community organisations (LIVS, Gap Filler, and others), plan to launch for FESTA. The event is possible through volunteer hours with core funding from the Canterbury Community Trust, Christchurch City Council, and the Todd Foundation.[38]

The transitional movement in Christchurch has been important for people to come back into the city, and create spaces temporarily. FESTA is a celebration of those temporary spaces, and more importantly fosters social connections.

4.2.5   Assessment

Since the earthquakes in 2010, Christchurch has been in a state of transition, with the future rebuilding of the city undetermined. Temporary projects have played an important role in this stage of recovery; not just physically, but emotionally and socially, for city residents and visitors. From the interviews and literature, several observations and considerations about temporary use emerge.

Temporary uses helped to keep the central areas of Christchurch activated, so that people will continue to shop downtown, and frequent shopping districts that remain intact. In doing this, it will ensure that the central area businesses do not shift to the suburbs, leaving the central city not redeveloped. Temporary uses also give businesses an appeal to relocate around them, and become part of the hub of activity. Temporary shops and sites provide a

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[38] The Todd Foundation is a private family philanthropy trust based in Wellington, New Zealand. They provide funding to New Zealand organisations that contribute towards a vision of 'inclusive communities where all families, children and young people can thrive and contribute.'

small number of people with a living, and can be a way to experiment with start-up businesses with less risk and expense.

Some projects are focused on creating habitat, and on the ecological aspects of urban space. Greening the Rubble tries to increase greenspace and habitat, and experiment with new forms of greenspace. Christchurch traditionally had an English-garden style aesthetic, whereas, Greening the Rubble's projects challenge societal norms with the use of brick gabions, and modern industrial design elements. Montgomery, one of the Trustees, says public and local authority perceptions and expectations about underused sites often revolve around tidiness; but nature is often messy at first glance, and managing the more wild designs will be a challenge for Greening the Rubble. This also brings into question differing opinions of aesthetics, and the fact that there are many publics when it comes to public space. There is minimal public consultation when creating these parks, with the organisation and designers making most of the decisions. A strategy that Greening the Rubble may try in the future to respond to concerns about aesthetics, is to have a standard design developed; one that balances the desire for design professionalism, and community spontaneity (Montgomery, 2012).

Creating social connections is the goal of many temporary projects; however, this is hindered when there are not enough people available, or willing to assist in the projects. Gap Filler has found that projects work most successfully when a group of volunteers develop around them during all stages, from: idea generation, preparation, installation, and maintenance. Greening the Rubble has found that because many of the sites are in the mostly vacant central business district, finding a group of people to take care of the site has been difficult, so contractors are hired to do some of the maintenance work on the sites. Ideally, once a project is off the ground, a group of volunteers will take ownership and start to manage it.

Funding for these projects can be a barrier to creation, or continuation. Some projects can be created with one-time setup costs; but many projects require funding on an ongoing basis, which can be challenging. The eventual need to discontinue the Pallet Pavilion brings to light the sustained financial and human resources needed for large-scale projects. Through the use of a crowdfunding online platform, Pledge Me, the project was able to continue for another year; however, the question remains whether this is a sustainable model for financing community-led projects. If City Council and citizens want to support transitional projects in vacant spaces, awareness needs to be raised about the risk of relying on funding solely from organisations.

Another issue highlighted was the difference between using private or public land. When the landowner is the government, as in much of the downtown, there is more process oriented

"red-tape" to go through because of the Blueprint Plan. Gregg from LIVS says that a single project on government-owned land requires 21 signatures from officials in different government departments. On private land, projects tend to be implemented more quickly because there is less paperwork required; finding willing landowners is a challenge because they are often unknown to public. Ryan Reynolds, one of the co-founders of Gap Filler and founder of LIVS, says finding landowners of vacant sites, and convincing them to offer land can be extremely difficult (Syben, 2012). Gregg echoed that much of her time is calling, and following up with known landowners, to try to work with them and make it easier for them to have these projects. Many of the organisations are on good terms and have good reputations in the city, which helps to legitimize projects, and gain trust from landowners. There has been a willingness on the part of landowners to lend vacant land because Christchurch is going through so much change, and there is an obvious need to reactivate the city.

There is potential for some temporary projects to become more permanent, so in a way, temporary uses are an approach that allows experimentation of new uses and public space. The Commons is a temporary site that has the potential to become a park space in the long-term. Agropolis is another example of a temporary project changing an area, and potentially becoming permanent through the Blueprint Plan.

One reason there has been a variety of temporary uses in Christchurch is because of the opening up of regulations for temporary projects on vacant land until 2016. Once the economic conditions get better and redevelopment occurs, it is questionable whether these temporary projects will be allowed to continue in an open way. There is also the question of whether focusing on temporary projects post-disaster is taking attention away from the larger city-building forces that are in process; for example, the Blueprint Plan, and major redevelopment. Vacant lands existed prior to the earthquake, as in almost every post-industrial city, so temporary uses do provide a flexible, and creative way to use these lands.

Christchurch is a case where the temporary movement in the city is to deal with the almost entirely vacant landscape. Temporary projects have come about through a network of organisations and individuals experimenting with what is possible, both physically and socially.

4.3   Montréal, Québec, Canada

Population (metropolitan area) : 3,824,221 (Statistics Canada, 2011a)

Gross Population Density : 898.1/km^2 (Statistics Canada, 2011a)

Population Growth : 5.2% from 2006 to 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2011a)

Size : 4,258.31 km^2 (Statistics Canada, 2011a)

4.3.1   Background

Montréal is located in the southwest of the province of Québec, Canada and is the largest city in the province and second largest in the county (Figure 30). The city covers most of the Island of Montréal, at the confluence of the Saint Lawrence and Ottawa Rivers. The City of Montréal (Ville de Montréal) is made up of 19 boroughs, representing 1,649,519 inhabitants and a land area of 365 square kilometres (Statistics Canada, 2011a). Montréal is at the centre of the Montréal census metropolitan area (CMA), with a population of 3,824,221 within an area of 4,259 square kilometres.

Figure 30: Location of Montréal, Canada
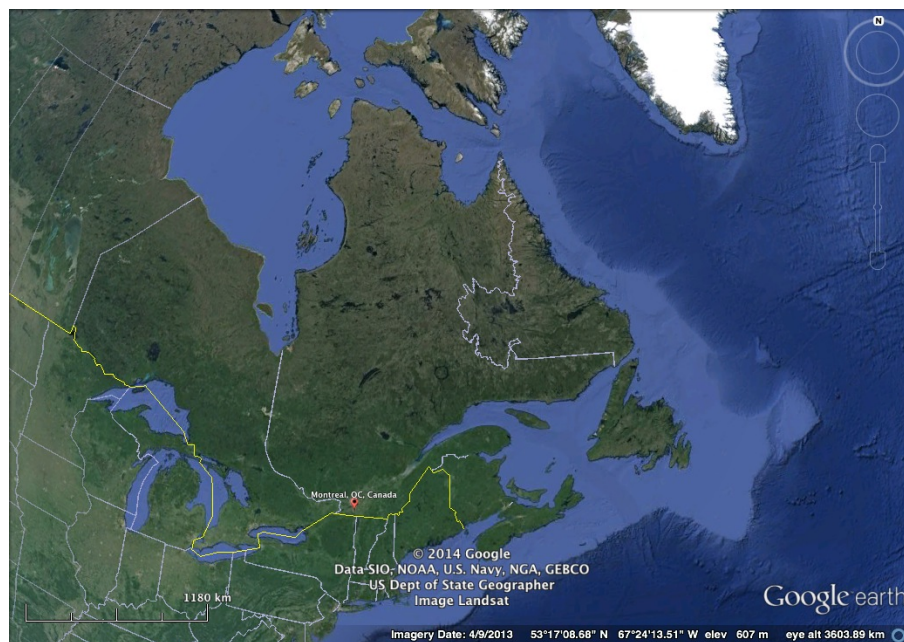
Source: Google. (2014).

Montréal has a strong history of festivals and cultural events, many of which take place in streets; such as Montréal Jazz Festival, Igloofest, Fête des neiges, Festival Montréal en Lumière, Fringe Festival, Les FrancoFolies, Festival Mural, and Montréal Folk Fest on the

Canal. These festivals are internationally known, often have hundreds of thousands of visitors, and require the closing off of large parts of the downtown core to vehicles for many days. There is a history of terrace culture in Montréal, with terraces often found on the sidewalk or street in front of restaurants. These are of course available for patrons, and not truly public space. There has also been a recent trend of public parklets emerging in a few boroughs, such as the Plateau-Mont-Royal, and Rosemont-La-Petite-Patrie.

Montréal's real estate market is stable, though there are large tracks of land that are vacant along major transportation routes (rail and highways), and in former industrial areas. Vacant space along the Lachine Canal is a major focus of redevelopment in the *Montréal Master Plan* (2004). The area currently lacks accessibility for pedestrians and cyclists, yet holds potential for active transportation and tourism. The Plan calls for "interventions to reinforce the coherence of its urban landscape and architecture while respecting the diversity of the adjacent areas. Work is needed to improve views of and access to the water." Numerous lots and buildings near the canal remain vacant and underused, particularly the East Lachine, which have major potential for mixed uses including housing, offices and retail stores.

There are vast amounts of vacant land and buildings along the CP rail corridor running east-west across the island. This land is slowly being converted to residential and commercial use as industrial use declines. There is great potential for these spaces to be reused; however, substantial rehabilitation efforts may be required due to contamination, for which the support of the federal and Québec governments will be essential. While these sites wait for redevelopment, there is great potential for temporary uses such as gardens, parks, skate parks, sculpture gardens, and preservation of ecological habitat.

Montréal has rich history in design, architecture and planning, and people are interested and highly educated in these disciplines, which may make them more empowered to do urban interventions. In 2004, UNESCO attributed the title of UNESCO City of Design to Montréal, acknowledging the "potential of designers to contribute to the city's future, as well as the commitment and determination of the Ville de Montréal, other levels of government and civil society to build on that strength for the purpose of enhancing Montréalers' quality of life" (Ville de Montréal, 2014).

There is a strong history of counter-institutions and community organisations to represent and empower civil-society in Montréal. Blanchet-Cohen (2014) researched the pivotal role of organisations in community development, specifically creating a healthy urban built environment. They found organisations activate citizen participation in four ways: (i) mobilizing to create awareness and interest; (ii) giving voice to problems and solutions; (iii) pooling citizens' and professionals' knowledge and (iv) maintaining participation and

influence in implementation. When planning decisions are made with citizens involved in the process, they are more likely to reflect community realities because they hold knowledge that is different from that of urban planners, and are playing a pro-active role rather than reactive to state-led plans. Several organisations have emerged in Montréal related to the built environment, such as the Montréal Urban Ecology Centre and RuePublique.

Montréal has a relatively young, educated, multicultural university and student population. This means that people bring new ideas and events to Montréal constantly, so there is a renewed excitement for temporary projects and public spaces.

4.3.2 Planning and Policies

Montréal is made up of 19 boroughs, each with separate administrative units and councils. Some boroughs are particularly interested in the public realm in recent years, and therefore are more open to implementing and experimenting with different temporary uses, and empowering citizens to do so. Also some boroughs are more financially able and have significant local population backing to allow for it to happen. Councilor support for these projects can make the process for permits and permission much quicker and easier.

There are a number of policies that support the temporary use of underutilized space in Montréal. The *Cultural Development Policy for Ville de Montréal: Montréal, Cultural Metropolis* lays out 38 commitments for Montréal related to three major elements: the accessibility to and support of arts and culture, and culture's impact on the living environment. It has specific commitments concerning public art, creating public spaces, and enabling community participation.

There are also regulations and processes in place for many temporary uses of space, including bylaws governing terraces, and street closures for events. Other well established policies include Green Alley (Ruelle Vert) conversions, which are joint projects with the Eco-quartiers and residents, who convert back lanes to green alleys.

Having 19 separate boroughs in Montréal poses many challenges and opportunities for temporary use. Having separate boroughs and councilors gives the opportunity for more locally focused temporary uses, and the ability to experiment on a more local and neighbourhood level. As well, community organisations may have more personal relationships with council members.

4.3.3 Instigators

Montréal has many instigators of temporary uses in vacant and underutilized spaces; many of them are organisations, non-profits, businesses, and individuals.

Individuals undertake projects such as sculpture gardens, and artistic projects to ones that are more politically driven. The interventions for 100 in 1 Day, for example, are made up of many small, citizen-led projects, to reimagine the streets and to encourage people to do it at all times of the year.

There are many community organisations that have developed, which are too many to be named. Many of these organisations are to raise awareness around citizenry and urban issues, and encouraging citizens to take matters into their own hands in their own neighbourhoods; such as RuePublique, Mile End Citizens Committee, and Les Amis du Champ des Possibles. The Montréal Urban Ecology Centre offers grants through Transform Your City (Transforme ta ville), where it asks citizens to carry out interventions on underutilized public space to improve the city's quality of life, demonstrate the potential of public spaces, appropriate the city, and to encourage politicians to make these changes permanently.

4.3.4 Projects

4.3.4.1 Name : 100 in 1 Day
       Goals : Encourage people to take action in shaping their city
       Initiators : Organisations and individuals
       Time : Twice for one day each since 2013
       Space : Various outdoor spaces

For the second time since 2013, Montréal has held an event called 100 in 1 Day, where organizers ask citizens to enliven and reveal the city's potential through small interventions.[39] The day consists of creating a minimum of 100 citizen-led interventions across the city, connecting people around their dreams for a better city and enabling demonstration projects to happen on a single day (Figure 31).

The interventions are anything from: transforming a vacant space to public space; to exchanging a piece of cake for a personal story; to a silent disco where people dance through the streets listening to their own music on headphones. Each intervention has a leader responsible for creating the intervention, then clarifying the time, place and details which is posted on the 100 in 1 Day website.

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[39] 100 in 1 Day started in Bogota, Columbia in 2012, and has since become a global movement. In 2013, the festival extended to: Cape Town, South Africa; San José, Costa Rica; Copenhagen, Denmark; Montréal, Canada; Santiago, Chile, El Salvador; Managua, Nicaragua; Malmö, Sweden and Kaluga, Russia. In 2014 this celebration also included: Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, Tijuana, Mexico, Halifax, Toronto, and Vancouver, Canada.

Figure 31: 100 in 1 Day Interventions, Montréal, Canada

Source: Alex Tran. (2014). "100in1day." Retrieved from
http://www.alextranphotography.com/100in1day-montreal-part-2-the-big-day/

Cédric Jamet, one of the organizers of 100 in 1 Day in Montréal, says the main goal is,

> To give a taste of what it would be like if each of us could live our citizenship
> actively all the time. This is done through urban interventions where people
> want to make a difference. We all pass through places that think could be
> better. The goal is to reverse that narrative for at least one day, and take action
> and show people what it would look like if it were different.

The organizers hold workshops to assist leaders in planning projects, and encouraged them
to organize their own workshop in neighbourhoods, further strengthening the relationships
between the citizens. These workshops build a citizen network that keep in contact, help
each other with projects at other times of the year, and make changes in their
neighbourhood. The organizers also followed up with individual intervention leaders on their
experience and what they receive from it, to document the process, and learn how people
changed individually and collectively. Jamet says, "we are committed to harvesting what
happened, cultivate it, celebrate it and see what happens in the next." This helps to keep
building and changing the event - a way of co-creating an event and the city.

Some interventions are physical alterations of space to test what spaces could potentially be.
One intervention by RuePublique, for example, was a woonerf on rue Jeanne-Mance.[40] The
organisation temporarily installed traffic-calming markers at the corner of rue Jeanne-Mance
and avenue Fairmont to emphasize the public aspect of the street, where safety and quality
of life might be enhanced with simple changes. At this location, the group gathered opinions
from people passing by, distributing a questionnaire, and introducing the concept of a
woonerf. A website questionnaire was also launched to refine the concept.

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[40] A "woonerf" is the Dutch street design approach intended to improve livability, where pedestrians and cyclists have legal
priority over motorists. Techniques include shared space, traffic calming, and low speed limits. In the United Kingdom, it is
termed "home zone" (Biddulph, 2010).

The idea of 100 in 1 Day is to test ideas for a better city, build connections between people and encourage an active citizenry. Jamet says,

> A City Government should adapt to the citizens creativity. Citizens have good ideas, and they are experts of their own territory, because they pass by (a certain location) thousands of times a year. Not every idea is going to stick, but why not take the good ones.

4.3.4.2   Name : Twilight Sculpture Garden
          Goals : Display public art
          Initiators : Glen LeMesurier, artist
          Time : Since 2000
          Space : Vacant lot

The Mile End neighbourhood in Montréal is home to many artists and creators from around the world. Artist Glen LeMesurier exemplifies the creative character of the neighbourhood in the Twilight Sculpture Garden. LeMesurier has appropriated land located at avenue Van Horne and rue Saint-Urbain for almost 15 years through the placement of large sculptures made of mostly recycled objects and salvaged materials (Figure 32). He says, "I believe that through using recycled material in unexpected ways the survival of these materials becomes heroic and their transformation from object into Art becomes part of a mythological process" (Van Horne Terminal Iron Works, 2014).

The vacant lot is owned by the City of Montréal, and is located at an odd corner along the Van Horne Viaduct, with an adjacent underpass to the east, and CP rail line to the north. The lot could potentially be redeveloped, and is zoned commercial or mixed-use (Sector 11-T3) of 2 to 6-stories (Ville de Montréal, 2004). LeMesurier believes that because the lot has an awkward shape, development is unlikely.

Prior to the placement of the sculptures, the lot was littered with garbage and refuse, remnants of it being a vehicle lot related to the coal yards along the railway tracks. The artist has become a steward and caretaker of the site, which benefits the City by not having to maintain the site. The sculpture garden is technically unsanctioned but tolerated by the City, and has received support from community members and City Councilors. Of course there are liability issues that the City takes on in allowing this informal sculpture garden, but it seems to tolerate that risk.

Figure 32: Twilight Sculpture Garden, Montréal, Canada

Source: Martin New. (2014). "Twilight Sculpture Garden." Retrieved from
http://montrealinpictures.com/?s=sculpture

The artist lives and works in the Mile End neighbourhood, so he has a very close relationship to the piece of land. He has been cleaning up debris on the site for the last 15 years, and is bringing back natural habitat through the planting of native trees and bushes. He says, "the ecosystem has changed completely. By August this area's grass will be six-feet high with wildflowers [because] the bees pollinate that lot. It gets really wild with flowers, so I just cut the weeds around the sculptures a bit." It is an informal, often wild space that is enjoyed by people and visitors from around the world.[41] LeMesurier has not pursued designation of a 'park' because he believes that there is currently no speculation or threat of development. LeMesurier is aware that by designating it, the City might formalize it in some way, with benches or infrastructure, which would mean losing the character and intention of the sculpture garden design.

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[41] LeMesurier's work is found in galleries, public parks in Montréal, and in private gardens. He was recently asked to create a sculpture garden in Hochelega, at Faubourg Park, where he placed 24 pieces in a tarot formation depicting old factory parts, including carts, wheels, wrenches, and I-beams, reflecting the factories of the past.

4.3.4.3   Name : Champ des Possibles

   Goals : To retain the wild landscape and have it publicly accessible

   Initiators : Les Amis du Champ des Possibles, RuePublique, citizens, Borough of
       Plateau-Mont-Royal

   Time : Formalized in 2010

   Space : Vacant former rail yard

The Champ des Possibles (Field of Possibilities) is a former rail yard that was owned by Canadian Pacific (CP) Railway until 2009, and has been appropriated by citizens over the years as an informal space to protect habitat biodiversity (Figure 33). The City of Montréal bought the land in 2009, and intended to use it as a public works yard; however, citizens' efforts to protect it as natural space were successful in stopping this plan, with the borough recognizing the vacant lot as a park in the borough plan, and the signing of a co-management partnership agreement with the organisation, Les Amis du Champ des Possibles (Friends of the Field of Possibilities).

Figure 33: Champ des Possibles, Montréal, Canada

Source: Roger Latour. (2010). Retrieved from
http://floraurbana.blogspot.ca/2010_06_01_archive.html

The Champ des Possibles is a 14-hectare space located in the Mile End neighbourhood in the Plateau-Mont-Royal borough. The space sits just south of the CP railway between avenue Henri-Julien and avenue de Gaspe, and is bordered by industrial buildings, textile studios, and artist workshops (L'arrondissement du Plateau-Mont-Royal, 2013). The area has been an unplanned greenspace for many years, and is often a pedestrian route for people walking from the Rosemont Metro to the Mile End neighbourhood. In 2006, the City of

Montréal announced a revitalization plan for Mile End east sector, which included transforming the space into a city truck yard and storage space for infrastructure. Area residents and members of the Mile End Citizens Committee mobilized to protect the open field and oppose the City's development plans. The City acquired the land in 2009, and soon after a subcommittee of Mile End Citizens Committee formed a group called Les Amis du Champ des Possibles. In 2010, with the help of council members keen on supporting the protection of the space, an agreement was made between the borough and the Ami des Champ des Possibles to co-manage the site, which was designated greenspace in zoning documents. This designation was an important step in circumventing real estate pressures, and symbolized the importance of conserving greenspace and habitat. Co-management is an interesting experiment in practices relating to conservation of natural character, and recognizing and sanctioning the temporary activities that citizens have been doing for decades.

After much citizen-led consultation, Les Amis du Champ des Possibles have the goal of preserving space for biodiversity, heritage, artistic intervention, recreation, education, and scientific activity. Apart from Les Amis du Champ des Possibles, there is a small group of organisations that have formed around this space, informally using it, preserving it, cleaning it, and activating it; including the organisations RuePublique, Mile End Citizens Committee, and L'école des Possibles. Jamet, of RuePublique says, "there is an ecosystem of interested organisations that work together informally. Sometimes they have clashing visions, but they openly communicate, though recognizing it is a work in progress."

RuePublique uses the space for environmental and community projects, as well as, supports other organisations' projects. Since 2013, it has made a Forest of Possibilities (Forêt des Possibles) every January, a temporary forest created from giving a second life to discarded and donated Christmas trees (Figure 34). Volunteers also created benches from recycled pallets, so that people can feel welcome to take time to sit and enjoy the area, and develop a common and inclusive use for the space. Jamet says, "these types of projects can have their challenges, such as finding people to come to the field and help set everything up."

The Champ des Possibles shows the potential for temporary projects, and appropriation of space by citizens with the ability to change city planning, especially if there is support from council members. As more management and attention is being paid to the Champ de Possibles, the challenge will be to manage the space in a way that preserves the reasons people loved it in the first place - for its wildness and biodiversity.

Figure 34: Forest of Possibilities, Montréal, Canada

Source: RuePublique. (2014).

4.3.4.4   Name: St-Viateur Street Festival

Goals : Open up the street to people
Initiators : RuePublique
Time : 10 times over the last four years
Space : Street

RuePublique has organized the St-Viateur street closures several times a year since 2010. The goal is to bring neighbours together by "opening" up the street to pedestrians, providing an opportunity for people to reclaim public space, and the street itself (Figure 35). Jamet, project manager for RuePublique, says the term, "opening" up of the street is deliberate because it is "opening the street to other possibilities, not just closing it to certain users. It allows people to express their creativity in places where that is usually not seen." The street closure occurs on rue St-Viateur between rue Jeanne-Mance and rue Saint-Urbain, a stretch of street with a mix of commercial and residential, and is considered the heart of the Mile End.

The Mile End is one of the most densely populated neighbourhoods in Montréal, with three-storey walk-ups and turn-of-the-century worker housing, creating a compact urban form that contributes to an increase in the level of activity on the streets. The area has also received successive waves of immigrants over the decades; including Italian, Ukrainian, Greek, and

Jewish families, some of which still have local businesses. The Mile End has now become home to a burgeoning arts and culture scene, with high densities of artists (Lance, Veres, Cohen, & Luka, 2011).

Figure 35: St-Viateur Street Festival, Montréal, Canada

Source: Imagine le Mile End. "Journe de Bons Voisins." Retrieved from
http://imaginemileend.com/post/825743040/journee-de-bons-voisins-part-1

The St-Viateur street opening is informally programmed with activities vary from using the street: a playground, a park, yoga classes, playing music, bike repairs, creating art, enjoying conversation, and hanging out. The most important part of the day Jamet contends is, "people coming together and meeting and talking to their neighbours. People rediscovering the space and a community."

The festival has evolved over time, from a focus on opening up the street and observing what happens, to experimenting with the potential for the space by installing urban furniture and small interventions, or "urban acupuncture," as RuePublique refers to it.

While the businesses along St-Viateur have not directly been involved in organizing the street opening, several have been supportive of the event. Organizers found that because there is no business improvement association on the street, it is often hard to communicate and work with each individual business owner, as they often have their own agendas. There are certain businesses that encourage community connections; for example, cafes and restaurants, and

they have been supportive of the festival, and set up activities on the street. While there are obvious benefits to businesses in the area, the goal is not business oriented, rather to open up the street to people in order to foster connections.

4.3.5 Assessment

Several considerations emerge when researching Montréal's temporary use of space and citizens taking matters into their own hands with interventions.

Many of the projects were organised by citizens and organisations with the intention to improve the city and foster social connections. The 100 in 1 Day proposes that citizens make implement changes on things that are important to them. Jamet says,

> It helps to identify what is really important to us, and chances are if it is important to you it will important to someone else. It's a way to foster community and a way of envisioning the future – a city where people connect and co-create the city together.

The day is just an excuse to make a change they envision, "we hope it will foster a feeling of being a citizen and it changes you. You tend to not see people in the same way, and you begin to see little opportunities. A small change to everyday has a bit of magic."

Some vacant and underutilized spaces are important for ecological habitat, such as along rail lines, where the vacant spaces have become areas of biodiversity. Citizens have appropriated these spaces with the intention of protecting biodiversity, such as the Champ des Possibles, and Twilight Sculpture Garden. Both sites serve as a habitat for small animals and birds as well as tree and grass species not in many other parts of Montréal.

Many of the interventions studied were unsanctioned physical alterations that were tolerated by the City. For 100 in 1 Day, people generally did not get permission from the City, with the spirit of respect and wanting to create beauty through small projects. Jamet says,

> In other cities where this happened its different, but we live in a city where government works quite well. It is perceived to be complicated to do alterations of public space in Montréal because there is a lot of bureaucracy. So the way dealt with it is don't ask for permission. Our policy was to do it, then apologize, if needed. It is out of respect, and in a way of creating beauty, and you're not promoting vandalism, or hate, then chances are it will be okay.

On the other hand, the support of borough administration and specific councilors has been important to many of the projects. There are certain political parties that are more supportive of these activities, and organisations found that when a borough or City Councilor is supportive, it has more success for implementing or continuing a project. The Champ des

Possibles, for instance, had the support of a progressive borough councilor who was able to advocate for Les Amis du Champ des Possibles and have the 1.4-hectare preserved indefinitely by having it re-zoned to 'natural space' and granting co-management status.

Montréal has a distributed power structure because of the presence of the borough in the political system, which creates opportunities for more local decision-making. This means that boroughs can more quickly implement projects, give approvals and make programmes for temporary uses. Money can be spent in a more distributed way at a neighbourhood scale, and focus can be on local projects which citizen find intriguing, building off local excitement. This borough separation can cause an unequal distribution of money to do public space interventions, depending on how each decides to budget.

Many of the organisations felt it was important to gain the trust of City administration and City Council. While this can help them achieve certain goals, it also binds them by making them stick to projects that are sanctioned; therefore possibly changing the effect, and mystery of unsanctioned projects or interventions.

Community groups have also found it is important to receive support from other citizens on temporary projects. RuePublique in its events on rue St-Viateur did extensive surveys to find out how people used the street and public spaces in order to better the events and better plan public space. For the interventions for 100 in 1 Day, organizers follow up with the leaders of the interventions to ask about their experiences, and encourage people to continue in the future to make personal connections and change public space. It is a way of measuring the impact of these interventions, and engaging with the public about how it is working.

Montréal is a creative city, where people appropriate space for creative purposes. The City administration is fairly tolerant of these activities, and often groups will implement projects without permission. Many of the groups feel though this may cause issues, the administrative processes are so cumbersome and restrictive, that it may prohibit a certain use that could be beneficial. If the intervention is done respectfully and with intentions of positively changing the city, it is tolerated.

5.0 DISCUSSION

The approach to this project has been to gain an understanding of temporary interventions happening in three different cities – Vancouver, Christchurch, and Montréal. The intent was to first gain an understanding of the key themes from the state of the debate, then conduct interviews with various initiators of temporary uses in each city to learn about specific projects or movements in order to identify considerations, benefits, barriers to implementation, and relevance to planning practice. Invaluable information and insight were given about each project; each city had its own distinct cultural and social practices, economic situations, and governance, making it difficult to compile all considerations. In this discussion, several questions are addressed from general patterns that emerged from the literature and the interviews. It is divided into three sets of questioning:

- Preoccupations: those related to the causes and concerns of vacancy in each city. Next, what projects and who is involved in temporary use, and how it differs when implemented top-down or bottom-up. There is also a discussion of benefits and issues around temporary uses, and how it can be a generative force.
- Operational Considerations: those dealing with what roles are played by the state and planners, in temporary projects. There is also discussion around the regulatory barriers identified, specifically in terms of funding and fiscal viability.
- Putting it all into Action: those related to how planners can ensure that temporary uses, and more "guerrilla" interventions, take place in generative ways. Finally, there is a discussion of how non-government organisations can support the work of the state.

5.1   Preoccupations

What are the causes of vacant land in these cities? What concerns do state institutions and other stakeholders raise?

There is extensive literature stating that vacant land is a natural phenomenon caused by changing economics. Government policies tend to describe vacant land in economic terms related to usefulness and utilization. 'Derelict land' and 'vacant land' give the sense that it is land that is left behind, and is useless without being in productive economic use. There has been a shift in the idea that vacant land is actually an asset for future growth, and holds potential for more democratic city-making, where citizens can appropriate their urban environments.

For the case study cities, contamination from former uses was one of the main reasons for vacant land, particularly in Vancouver and Montréal. Natural disaster was one of the main

causes of the extensive damage and destruction of buildings in Christchurch, a cause not mentioned in any of the literature on vacant land.

Vacant land in Vancouver is in short supply and at a high cost; therefore, a cautious approach is taken to redevelopment. Vacant land for the most part is former industrial areas and gas station sites; and along transportation corridors, such as: rail lines, freeways, and water bodies that serve as ports. The major barrier for the re-use of these lands is contamination, or perceived contamination; and finding development opportunities profitable enough to justify further decontamination. Even on City-owned land, there is a cautious approach to allowing uses if development is expected to begin in the next five to 10 years.

The earthquakes affecting Christchurch in 2010 and 2011 caused huge areas of the city to be virtually unrecognizable. Seventy percent of the central city is predicted be demolished and rebuilt in the coming decades, leaving behind many vacant buildings and vacant tracks of land. The vastness of the vacancy affects the economics of the city and social connections, because people do not have a reason to go to these central areas for work or leisure. With more natural disasters affecting cities in recent years – including extreme weather and climate change and the fact that more people are living in danger zones – this could potentially become an important consideration for planners.

Montréal's vacant sites are often former land uses that are no longer pertinent, such as industrial areas along the Lachine Canal, and along the CP rail corridor dissecting the city. These areas are slowly being developed as economics permit, but it is often contaminated, and requires extensive remediation.

In the case studies, cities are also identifying and finding ways to use underutilized space, such as back lanes, and streets. These spaces are often not vacant from use entirely, but are considered underused and forgotten spaces that have potential for a more productive use.

What is being undertaken on vacant sites, why, and by whom? What differences, if any, are observed between initiatives that are mainly emergent ('bottom-up') and state-led ('top-down')?
The proliferation of temporary uses are huge and diverse in intention, scale, and legitimacy; and are well documented in North America, and Europe. In the case studies, temporary uses vary widely from: event venues, small do-it-yourself urban alterations, action-while-planning public plazas, parklets that claim street space for public space, to whole retail districts made of shipping containers. Not only can the uses vary vastly, the implementers have differing motivations. The three case studies have many similarities and differences to note, but

comparing cities is difficult because each has a different context socially, culturally, and economic.

In Vancouver, community groups, businesses, the City of Vancouver, and individuals are implementing temporary uses. There is an attempt by the government to regulate and create municipal programs for temporary uses, if resources are available. Temporary public space, such as parklets and street plazas are more architectural and are primarily on public land; therefore, the involvement of the City is essential to ensure public safety. Community gardens are in huge demand in Vancouver, which has been recognized by developers, landowners, and government. There is also the added tax incentive for creating community gardens through the provincial reclassification of land. Vancouver's temporary interventions tend to be in certain neighborhoods; for example, the West End, Mount Pleasant, Main Street, Commercial Drive, Marpole, and Strathcona. These areas have a greater acceptance of these interventions, a more active citizenry, higher population densities, and supportive BIAs. Many of the interventions are often associated with annual events, such as car-free days, and the Vancouver Jazz Festival.

In Christchurch, creative and artistic temporary projects of different scales bring interesting uses to a largely vacant downtown, ranging from: parks, event venues, retail centres, art installations, service shops, Churches, and transitional architecture festivals. Christchurch has numerous businesses, institutions and a close network of transitional organisations doing projects. The intentions of these projects are usually to re-activate the city centre, give people a stake in rebuilding the city, and provide opportunities for people to interact in public space. There is a spirit of celebration of temporary uses in Christchurch's rebuilding, locally with FESTA, and internationally in the media.

Montréal's public space interventions are experimental, often community-driven, or in partnership with institutions. A borough government structure allows for more local interventions and a spirit of experimentalism. There is also a strong presence of community organisations that implement projects and work with government on management. Appropriation of space is particularly prevalent, from demonstrations, artwork, festivals, to other gatherings.

As far as finding differences between temporary projects implemented in a top-down or emergent way, two dimensions become apparent: the intentions, and the outcomes. Temporary uses have two scales: temporal, and physical. Haydn and Tamel (2006) defined temporality as the main dimension, saying that temporary uses are those that are planned from the outset to be impermanent and derive qualities from the idea of a limited temporal scale. In the physical dimension, temporary uses range from small-scale, micro-interventions

initiated by citizens, to ones that are more architectural- and design-oriented and initiated by authorities, developers, and businesses with greater capital. Figure 36 shows where each temporary project in the case studies falls on the temporal and physical scale.

Figure 36: Case Studies on the Temporary Use Spectrum
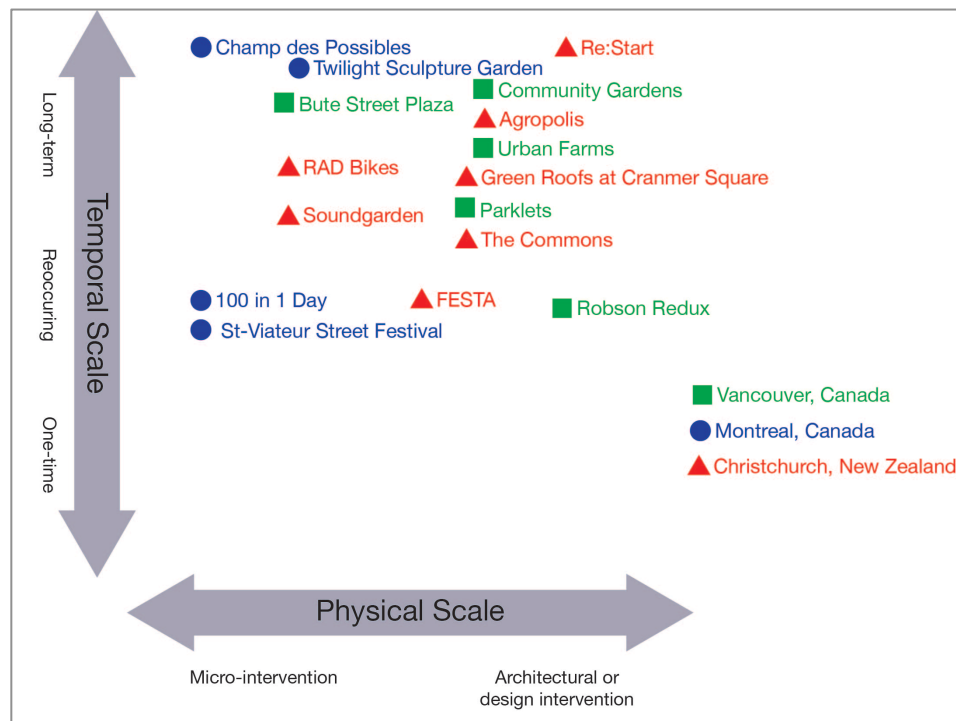
Source: Author

When a project is created top-down, the intention is usually: the creation of public space, a festival or street closure, to foster culture, or to test out a planning solution.

City's often implement temporary projects to test out ideas, and pilot interventions before making them permanent. This reflects Gehl's approach to public space design, which is to incrementally improve public space in a cycle of refine, measure, and test. Temporary projects are a good way to experiment with public space, or change design incrementally. The Bute Plaza in Vancouver is a temporary plaza to test the reaction to a quick, temporary solution to fulfilling a need articulated by residents during the community planning process – an action-while-planning solution.

The creation of public space is another goal that cities strive for in creating temporary uses. In Vancouver, for example, Robson Redux is an annual temporary plaza aimed at creating public space from road spaces.

Temporary uses that are implemented by businesses are usually highly regulated with guidelines, because it is often on publicly-owned land. Vancouver's parklet program, for example, aims to create public spaces with the adjacent commercial establishments designing and maintaining it, and benefiting from the outdoor space.

When a project is implemented top-down, considerable capital is usually required. A typical Parklet in Vancouver will typically cost between $15,000 and $20,000 to build, which is the responsibility of the business applying for a permit. The City itself often needs to use creative means to finance other temporary projects, using methods such as sponsorship from BIAs, and through cost-recovery in applications. There are also private-sector developers doing temporary projects, such as Re:Start shopping mall. This required considerable capital investment and effort, and has the intention of continuing to attract people to the commercial area while new, more permanent development takes place. This is highly regulated by the City, and demonstrates the more resource intensive end of the physical dimension scale of architectural temporary projects.

Landowners may also allow interim uses until the time is right for development of the 'highest and best' use in economic terms. Interim use is more functionality based, taking advantage of a 'gap in the cycle of utilization.' Interim uses tend to be more privately oriented, whereas temporary uses are usually more publicly-oriented. In the case studies, interim uses were observed in Vancouver, where urban farms are being set up on private land. These farms have short-term leases set up – from one to five, or more years – which protects both the users and landowners. These interim uses are intended to exist until a more economic beneficial use is profitable for the space.

Community groups usually have the intention with creating temporary projects of enhancing public space, exhibiting creativity, claiming the "right to the city," or filling an identified need. Often connected with community-led projects, Lefebvre's "right to the city" calls for the restructuring of social, political, and economic relations in the city, and beyond. He calls for a reorienting of decision-making away from the state (the right to participation) and towards the production of urban space (the right to appropriation), essentially giving more control to urban inhabitants. He recognizes the connection between lived and social space, and those being intrinsically linked together. In Montréal's, 100 in 1 Day, the intention is to have a one-day re-imagining of the city both physically and socially, where people can create a city they want, and make social connections through sharing physical space. It can be argued that

Lefebvre's ideas are more radical than most people in the case studies intended with their interventions; however, the creation of public space where people would interact is one of the main intentions of the community-led projects. As Jamet put it, "it is the idea of the accidental encounter that makes city life exciting, and interactions with people interesting."

The use of public space to exhibit creativity is another intention of many individuals. The Twilight Sculpture Garden is an appropriation of publically owned land to exhibit artwork and create a public sculpture garden.

What aspects identified by stakeholders are positive (value-added/benefits) and negative (problems/issues) in the case studies? How can temporary uses be understood as generative forces in city-building?

Stakeholders identified several benefits of temporary projects, including experimental qualities, enhancing quality of life, increasing social connections, chances to claim a "right to the city," or achieving more democratic city-building. It can also be a generative force for city-building, which lead to different ways of thinking about what is possible for public space, and restructuring of government processes.

Benefits

Projects organized by citizens bring people together towards a common goal, and fosters connections through the use of a shared accessible space, and an awakening of the "historic social bonds between individuals" that were once part of the social fabric of cities (Haydn & Tamel, 2006).

These temporary projects also have the advantage of 'place-making' which is the idea that a project is locally sourced, developed by locals in discussion with one another, and utilise local assets and people to see the project realized (Project for Public Spaces, 2014). This may empower some marginalized communities to participate in a creation of 'place,' as planning systems usually exclude them from participating in many forms of land use and occupation. It is often the citizens who know their city in a more intimate way, and may have solutions that work better than one that is implemented in a top-down manner.

Harvey (2012) expanded on Lefebvre's idea by saying that "right to the city" is not just the kind of city we envision, but how we want our social relations and aesthetic values. In Christchurch, temporary uses being implemented by non-profits such as Gap Filler and Greening the Rubble, challenge the "Garden City" aesthetic that is typical of the city. These organisations are given the freedom to explore through temporary projects what it envisions for the future and to fill the needs of citizens.

For community-led projects in the case studies, economic benefits were not usually mentioned explicitly, though acknowledged as secondary benefits. In Vancouver, parklets are intended to be public space, though it often benefits the adjacent businesses with outdoor seating. In Christchurch, temporary parks and gardens can attract people to the downtown businesses that are otherwise surrounded by vacant lots.

On private land, landowners benefits from activating an otherwise vacant site. In the case studies, if the use is reversible and creates little physical change to the site, landowners will be more likely to agree or allow different temporary uses. It also helps keep otherwise vacant land and buildings from slipping into decay when it is cared for by the new users (Ziehl, Obwald, Hasemann, & Schnier, 2012). Further, if there is a financial incentive, such as a tax incentive when allowing a temporary use, landowners may be more willing to allow temporary uses. Shifting Growth places easily movable garden beds on vacant lots, and its business model is only made possible because of the tax incentive that some landowners receive when reclassifying the land from commercial to community amenity.

Temporary uses may also create opportunities for small business that normally could not afford a more permanent lease (Urban Catalyst, 2003). In the case studies, LIVS only occupies land if it is offered at a no-cost lease. It often activates these sites with small businesses and community services that could not otherwise afford a market-rate lease.

Challenges
For both community groups and the state implementing temporary projects, there can be extra pressures and challenges that must be faced.

From the case studies, it became how apparent the importance of communicating to the public the intended scale for projects, both physical and temporal. The Pallet Pavilion was also meant to be a six-month project, but the community grew attached to it so much that they crowdfunded to raise money for it to continue. This challenged Gap Filler's human and financial resources because of the rising expectations of people who did not really know how much time and effort goes into these projects.

For Greening the Rubble, managing expectations around timeframes for projects can be challenging, because it is often asked that the intervention stay longer than initially planned; but a site may already be planned that reuses the limited materials it has (Montgomery, 2012).

Funding projects for community groups, and financing temporary use programs for Cities is also a major challenge, which will be discussed further.

Temporary uses as a generative force

Temporary uses can be generative forces for city-building: in physical ways for rethinking vacant and underutilized space, for changing values and unlocking otherwise undiscovered possibilities, and for shifting government processes.

Underutilized and vacant spaces are perceived as a sign of decay, or poor economic situations, but it can also be areas for opportunity. In Christchurch, the post-disaster situation made community organisations spring into action to activate vacant sites. In Vancouver and Montréal, streets and alleys are being used for greenspace and community activity because people see the value in making these spaces their own through physically changing the space.

Vacant land can provide many ecological benefits related to the vegetation that naturally exists on a site after it has become disused or has intentionally been left vacant; it can provide habitat, improve micro-climates, and hold storm water runoff. Millard (2004) argued for the importance of wild vegetation on vacant sites for the green structure of the city, and says that policymakers need to develop tools to integrate spontaneous vegetation in future urban development. Previously vacant sites, such as the Champ des Possibles, are being officially designated as greenspace, where the temporary users are now co-managing the site with the borough in order to conserve its wild landscape.

Temporary uses are also a way for citizens to change what is possible in terms of values expressed through the built environment. Agropolis puts forth a change in the cultural values to one of more local food systems, while Green roofs at Cranmer Square experiments with sustainable building practices. Through the use of private vacant lands, they are given the opportunity to explore more, while on public land they still have to abide by regulations set by the authorities.

Temporary uses often fill a need in the community, such as recreation and leisure space. Franck and Stevens (2007) describe the concept of "loose space" for the capacity of urban spaces to accommodate a range of uses and occupations, many of these temporary or informal in nature. The Champ des Possibles in Montréal is a perfect example of this concept, and is used for education, events, and festivals.

Temporary uses also challenge City processes and practices when there is a something that does not fit within the regulatory framework. In the case studies, there have been instances of changing processes, such as with the establishment of a co-management of the Champ des Possibles, which allows for some autonomy for the community organisation Les Amis du Champ des Possibles to protect the space from future development and the City to have some say in what happens in the space.

There are of course critics to these types of projects, such as the concern of gentrification occurring when temporary projects that are arts and culture based are used as instruments for urban revitalization (Colomb, 2012).[42] She describes that processes of "physical gentrification" often start with "symbolic gentrification" (i.e. marketing and media communications). Temporary uses contribute to the programmatic redefinition of sites, from industrial to post-industrial uses, which then spurs commercial redevelopment around those sites increasing land values and pushing out those that lived in the areas and created those spaces initially (Urban Catalyst, 2003; Ziehl et al., 2012). This could be a concern, particularly in the Mile End neighbourhood, which is considered a creative and artistic neighbourhood. This creativity has been marketed to developers and potential buyers, bringing more commercial development and pushing out those people who made it creative in the first place.

5.2   Operational Considerations

What specific roles are played by the state, and specifically by municipal planning?
In the case studies, the state played various roles, such as managing temporary uses, setting guidelines, and working with other actors. Increasingly, authorities lack the resources to implement projects, so it tries to find other ways of achieving envisioned ends.

Cities can take several approaches to incorporate temporary uses in development of a particular area. Lehtovuori and Ruoppila (2012) identified four types of approaches: consistent, project-based, centralised-idealistic and best-practices approach. All three cities in the case studies take a best-practices approach, which is an approach that evolves when a temporary project is taken as a model for broader policy-making and subsequent implementation; or when a temporary project is given permanent status in a particular location after it is considered as beneficial for the place. In other words, authorities in the three case study cities respond to the momentum that appears with temporary projects; if it is considered successful, the state will try to put it into a program or policy. The Parklet Pilot Program grew out of PARK(ing) day, where people temporarily use the street as a public space. The Champ des Possibles is an example of the borough (state) working with citizens' desires to appropriate a vacant piece of land for habitat conservation, recreation, and education use. This desire made the vacant piece of land become park space co-managed by the borough, and a community group.

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[42] Colomb found that following emergence of temporary uses in old industrial sites in Berlin, the users, media and government marketed the area as creative, therefore bringing on gentrification.

Implementers

The state can also be implementers of temporary projects, which have an experimental quality and reversibility, and enables an incremental and flexible approach to land-use planning. This is typically not done in the conventional planning systems, which rely on stable investment and economic conditions. It also means there is faster implementation, and less financial investment required, which could be more gratifying for local stakeholder groups. Temporary interventions can also be easily reversed if it does not work as intended or there is a change in the demand (Németh & Langhorst, 2014). It may also be better for managing risk as it allows for evaluation and public acceptance at a smaller scale before putting in larger investment. One example of this is the Bute Street Plaza in Vancouver, an action-while-planning solution that uses an incremental approach to creating a plaza. It started as a simple street closure with low-cost street furniture, such as picnic tables; eventually it will become permanent, and designed with considerable community consultation.

Funders

Cities can fund projects if the financial resources are available either through direct funding or grant programs. In Christchurch, the City Council has a Transitional City Projects Fund to fund transitional projects. The City of Vancouver gives material resources to community gardens on City-owned property. Indirectly, Cities also provide incentives in British Columbia for vacant lots that are used for a community amenity, where the landowner saves about two-thirds on property tax. There are concerns that large property owners are benefiting too much with the tax incentive, so there is reduced tax revenue for the City to put towards community services.

Regulators

Cities have the role of regulating land-use, zoning, and bylaws within its power. When individuals or community groups propose new kinds of interventions, often the City administration does not know how to fit it into the regulations it has set out for acceptable uses. Sometimes a City will know about a guerrilla project, accept it, and sanction it; as in the cases of the Cottonwood Community Garden in Vancouver, or the Twilight Sculpture Garden in Montréal. Other times, cities will find out about an intervention and stop it, such a sculpture mentioned by an interviewee that was removed from City property in Vancouver. In Montréal, the interventions for 100 in 1 Day are good examples of projects that are not necessarily legal, but are tolerated because of the openness and smaller scale. It really depends on a City's perception of risk, permanent change, and safety of the public it is ultimately responsible to.

Cities are ultimately responsible for ensuring public safety, so it is required to undertake considerable analysis, safety checks, risk assessment, and consultation of temporary

interventions. This can take considerable time and energy for municipal staff, which are often short on resources. Vancouver created guidelines for some temporary projects to exist, while ensuring safety of the public, and the needs of the City are met, such as access to infrastructures. The *Parklet Pilot Program Guidelines* and *Community Garden Guidelines* have been created to ensure that the City's needs are met, where an ideal process is drawn out, and communicated to ensure public safety. In Christchurch regulations have been relaxed on acceptable uses on vacant sites until 2016, allowing for temporary buildings to be built with little red-tape, and this allows for more experimentation of uses to happen.

The question remains if these temporary uses will lose anything based on formal programming; for example, if these projects lose some specialness and freedom of unrestricted inspiration, when sanctioned and controlled. Conventional planning processes based around regulation are not always that adaptive and resilient when addressing the constantly changing social and economic conditions in cities. People want to think about their cities differently, and desire more ability to change, and the state can help to do this by eliminating the barriers for people to improve their neighbourhoods, without overburdening them with regulation.

Communicators

A specific role that planners played in the case studies were communicating between stakeholders, including: City staff in other departments, non-profits, other organisations, and individuals implementing the projects. Many of the planners mentioned that they spend a considerable amount of time speaking to stakeholders, and maintaining relationships. In Christchurch, the City has set up an Activating Vacant Spaces working group, which is held monthly to help communicate what is going on between the different transitional organisations, and the City.

What sorts of regulatory barriers to interesting temporary uses did stakeholders identify?

Modern urban planning in the North American is based around regulatory systems, which lacks the flexibility that temporary uses often demand. Temporary uses have many positive benefits; however, inflexible planning tools, and the lack of government resource capacity to deal with one-off interventions, are a hindrance to formal approval.

The internal complexity of government administrations may hinder or speed up acceptance of temporary uses. City departments often have differing needs, requirements, and capacities; and organisations expressed that approaching City administration for permissions and permits cumbersome. Implementers often found that asking for permission would open

up a slew of questions and processes from different departments, taking extensive amounts of time. Seeking approvals is often a time-sensitive issue, and key decisions are on the schedule of City timeframes, who have many other priorities to manage. In Christchurch, it is noted during one of the interviews that one potential Greening the Rubble project on CERA-owned land required 21 signatures from various levels of government.

Projects may also be denied approval for various reasons, from technical regulations and safety concerns, to simple ideological differences. Broadly speaking, the smaller in scale and more temporary the project, the easier it is to avoid legal repercussions. Many of the 100 in 1 Day interventions did not require approvals, and the reasoning was that the intentions were not to permanently alter public space, but to re-imagine it for one day.[43] For a small organisation seeking permissions, it can also be costly in financial terms. On top of the up front costs of creating the project, it may be a struggle to find the funds to cover application costs, council consents, and public liability insurance.

Another major hindrance to implementing a temporary use is the concern of risk management and liability. Many times, Cities and private landowners are not willing to take on the risk associated with allowing temporary uses to occupy its land, because of potential liability if someone is injured, or if there is resulting environmental damage. This has been addressed in Vancouver through Shifting Growth, and in Christchurch through Greening the Rubble, who act as property managers, and hold legal agreements regarding liability insurance, ensuring health and safety regulations, and security. Many landowners are cautious in allowing temporary uses, because there is also the risk for landowners that temporary uses will last a long period and become a successful neighbourhood asset. They fear that if they want to develop the site, it may result in resistance from the community, and put at risk any future development plans (Németh & Langhorst, 2014).

What questions arise in terms of funding and fiscal viability?
The issue of funding and fiscal viability was brought up in many of the interviews with City staff, and community organisations. Cities have to work within financial constraints and budgets, and are increasingly expected to do more with less. Community organisations have to work hard to find funding for project start up and sustaining the funding for the projects expected lifespan.

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[43] If the intervention large-scale, such as one that requires a street closure for a street festival, or concert in a park, they would have had to apply for a permit well in advance.

State-led Projects

The Cities in the case studies that were doing temporary projects used several mechanisms and strategies to fund its efforts. One such strategy is working with Business Improvement Associations on street closures. In Vancouver, the Downtown BIA is a major sponsor of the Summer Series, because of the benefits gained from pedestrian traffic during the closures.

Cities are also using a cost-recovery approach in its program development. Vancouver's Parklet Pilot Program does not rely on taxpayer monies; it uses a sponsorship model, where the costs associated with the construction and City processes are the responsibility of the sponsor or applicant (which has typically been adjacent businesses so far).[44] It is upfront about recovering the costs associated with the administration of each application; including site inspection, removal of parking meters, and other annual fees. A pilot program approach also helps City administrations work out the operational costs associated with having a full program in the future. By having a pilot program, the City can use capital budget until it has a better idea of operating costs.

Community-led Projects

For community groups, there are many costs associated with implementing temporary projects, so there is a reliance on sponsorships, funding through philanthropic organisations, government, donated material and volunteer labour. Some organisations might also try to fund projects through selling what it is producing; such as RAD Bikes shop selling rebuilt bikes in order to buy tools and bike parts. Some urban agriculture and urban farms also sell produce to fund the on-going needs of a garden.

If a project requires labour outside of an organisations limited staffing and volunteer base, additional funding might need to be found. The Pallet Pavilion was required to have someone on site at all times for fire regulations, so it had staff and volunteers during the day, and a hired security guard in the evening – which was its largest cost, according to organizers.

Non-profits are also starting to use innovative ways of funding through its supporters by using crowdfunding. This is the practice of funding a project or venture by raising monetary contributions from a large number of people, typically via the Internet. The Pallet Pavilion used the crowdfunding website, Pledge Me, to fund the extended timeframe from six-months to 18-months.

Community-led projects are often reliant on donated materials, and the support of discounted supplies. In Vancouver, new community gardens on City land are eligible to receive free compost, and sometimes start-up funding, depending on the budget. The Green

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[44] The City has been upfront about the costs associated with building a parklet: $10,000 to $20,000 for construction.

Roofs at Cranmer Square also received garden sheds and green roofs from various sources. The Montréal case study projects were almost entirely community- or artist-led; and while funding was a concern, it was not brought up in interviews, possibly because projects were smaller in scale and required minimal resources.

These projects are often done at a low-cost, with reused and donated materials, and with keen non-professional volunteer assistance. In Christchurch, Greening the Rubble feels when a project is on public land, the City has expectations of a certain aesthetic, which may not always be possible with available resources. This can lead to the perception by community organisations that it is being used as cheap labour for greater city-building processes.

For some non-profits, its only reason for existence is the provision of tax incentives. Shifting Growth's business model relies on the landowner it works with receiving a tax incentive. From this money, it is able to pay for the installation, and maintenance of the community garden.

The state, and other implementers, will always have concerns of financial sustainability for projects, which are sometimes the reason for project demise. It means coming up with innovative ways of achieving these goals through partnerships, sponsorships, cost-recovery, selling goods, and benefiting from tax incentives.

5.3   Putting it all into Action

How should planners and other decision-makers work to ensure that temporary uses can 'take place' in useful (generative) ways?

Conventional planning practice is based on the notion of fixing problems spatially, as if there is some ideal end state, however, cities are always evolving and changing. Even the planning process from development, planning, to implementation takes many years. Temporary uses have been shown in the case studies to have a bottom-up approach to changing space. There are many barriers and concerns with temporary uses, which must be taken into consideration, if there is to be a more systematic inclusion of temporary uses in vacant and underutilized spaces. Cities can use a number of strategies to ensure that temporary uses take place in a generative way for city-building.

Recognize and expand on momentum

The first step is to recognize temporary use as a generative model for city development. Many of the projects are bottom-up, and come from the citizenry, but Cities can also use temporary projects to test its own designs. Gehl's approach to public space design is to incrementally improve public space in a cycle of refining, measuring and testing – temporary projects are a good way to experiment with public space, or change design incrementally.

RuePublique experiments during 100 in 1 Day, changing a residential street to a woonerf. In Vancouver, Robson Redux experiments with the closure of a street, which is now being reviewed for viability in the Downtown Bus Review. In Christchurch, The Commons has the potential to be designated park in the CERA Blueprint Plans, where it was previously zoned commercial.

Cities are starting to work with the momentum created by citizen-led projects by changing policy and programs. Urban farming in Vancouver was once difficult to implement, with every application having to be fought for "tooth-and-nail." Now, the City of Vancouver is now very supportive, and has included urban agriculture as an essential piece of its *Greenest City 2020 Action Plan*.

Policies to support temporary uses in Christchurch have been developed at all levels of government. Regionally, the Canterbury Development Corporation developed a strategy document for Christchurch City Council for economic recovery through a number of measures. Gap Filler's site activation projects are listed as part of the key actions supporting innovation in Christchurch — which is to say, these temporary site activations have been officially endorsed by Christchurch's policymakers as a vital part of the recovery process (Canterbury Development Corporation, 2014).

Open up regulations
Cities have the power to change regulations through zoning and bylaws, even if it is in certain areas and locations. In Christchurch's City Council District Plan there has been an opening up of regulations to allow the provision of temporary buildings on vacant sites until April of 2016 as permitted activity. This widens the range of temporary activities while construction and decommissioning of buildings occur. This also means that temporary public artwork and recreational facilities are now permitted, and public artwork is no longer subject to a number of standards normally laid out in the City Plan.

Simplify processes
As mentioned earlier, there are many barriers directly caused by regulation, bureaucracy, and City processes when implementing temporary projects. Planners can work to streamline processes through the use of pilot programs, to incrementally check how processes work, and work through issues. For the Vancouver Parklet Pilot Program, the City of Vancouver incrementally worked out the process as it went along, so that the larger questions were worked out as they emerged. By creating pilot programs, the City is also able to adapt an idea to a specific context.

Other ways that cities are streamlining processes is by endorsing and funding property managers, who are working with organisations who want to do temporary projects. In

Christchurch, LIVS has helped to activate sites by gaining the lease of the land, and having it activated by temporary projects.

There are many political benefits to cities supporting temporary uses on vacant land, once the bureaucracy, liability concerns, and administrative processes are streamlined, temporary uses may be more widely accepted.

Provide funding and support
Cities can help fund organisations and projects; however, this can be difficult with limited budgets to do so. The Christchurch City Council is supporting temporary projects through the Transitional City Work Programme, where it works with businesses and other community groups on temporary projects that improve and activate public areas. It also has a Transitional City Projects Fund, where it funds projects that are working towards activating sites. It also endorses and gives core-funding to LIVS, Gap Filler, and Greening the Rubble.

Introducing tax incentives is another way to encourage private property owners to allow temporary uses that have a community benefit, as in British Columbia. There is a fine balance that must be reached though, and the tax incentive should not be so high that the tax revenue to the City suffers.

Monitoring impacts
Cities measure the success of temporary projects, and monitor that it is achieving generative aims. The early work of individuals of William Whyte and Jan Gehl in the 1970s pointed to the possibilities of bottom-up planning of public spaces, and believed planners were responsible for creating physical places that enable social engagement and interaction. It advocates for measuring how people use public space and why. This is echoed in VIVA Vancouver's Public Space Performance Indicators, where the performance of public space is assessed. In Montréal, the organizers of 100 in 1 Day ask individuals how they felt about the project, and its impacts. Christchurch's Pallet Pavilion made such an impact that people tried to elongate its life through crowdfunding, another way that efficacy of a project could be measured.

Measuring interventions can be difficult, especially finding combinations of indicators that are meaningful. Further, finding reasons why people do not use a space can be challenging, because those who do not use it will likely not be represented.

Planners and decision-makers must balance the need of citizen engagement and safety, and work with the momentum from citizen-led projects. In some cities, temporary uses are being integrated into planning through a more simplified permit process, allowing more flexibility in existing zoning codes, and using pilot projects to show potential, but even so, there needs to be a paradigm shift from permanent to flexible planning.

In terms of 'guerrilla' projects, what should municipal governments do to encourage and tolerate 'good' (i.e., useful) while preventing ones causing problems or nuisances?

Much of the appeal and excitement of temporary urbanism is the "guerrilla" aspect of these interventions, however, most projects fall somewhere on a legal spectrum from small projects without permissions, to funded projects where proper permissions are attained. The primary concern for the state is protecting citizens from dangers and covering liability issues. However, citizens who undertake "guerrilla" projects have the intention to take matters into their own hands to enhance the urban landscape, and provide cheap, incremental, low-cost solutions to planning problems (Lyndon et al., 2012).

From speaking with interviewees, for the most part larger scale "guerrilla" activities do not occur as much anymore, because the implementer often benefits from being legal and visible. Further, the state is more accepting if the intervention does not put at risk public safety and are of smaller scale. However, Cities can move towards allowing these uses in ways that do not hinder intriguing qualities.

Legitimate

Most of the projects in the case studies were legally permitted, either through permits, or a regulated use of the space, with a few exceptions. In Christchurch, most of the temporary uses are legal, at least within the current regulations. While some of the Trusts and non-profits wish to have more autonomy to support guerrilla interventions, doing so puts into question legal issues that would risk legitimacy, and ability to receive financial support from government and businesses.

Illegitimate (and tolerated?)

There are some temporary uses that are technically illegal, but tolerated or sanctioned for some reason after assessing the risk, or a political decision. Uses that are sanctioned have a better chance of being allowed and persisting, if that is the intention. The Twilight Sculpture Garden in Montréal was initially created in the early 1990s, and was tolerated by the City of Montréal, who owns the land. This is in comparison to Vancouver, where sculptures placed on public property will be removed almost immediately after discovery. In this way, different Cities have different ideas of public safety, aesthetics, and risk.

The intension of a project is also important. If it is a citizen-organized, relatively small intervention, such as those organized for 100 in 1 Day, it could technically be considered illegal. However, the intention is not to risk public safety, or permanently change urban space, so the interventions are often tolerated.

Cities can do a number of things to encourage 'good' temporary uses, while preventing 'nuisances,' including creating programs, guidelines and communicating with the people implementing the "guerrilla" interventions.

Formal programming

Some cities push to formalize interventions that may have started illegally, to ensure public safety, and regain control over its own assets and property. In Vancouver, the City does allow for citizens to appropriate greenway meridians and traffic circles rather freely; however, this is controlled somewhat by asking people to register to partake, and stay within restrictive guidelines. Another example is when a guerrilla garden is found; the City will often tolerate it, and include it into the Community Garden Program. By creating municipal programs, some interviewees mentioned it takes a bit of the "fun" and "mystery" out of a guerrilla project. Conversely, it protects the users efforts should the City need to repair infrastructure. The question remains whether the spontaneity is lost when a project gets formalized? Is there enough freedom for creativity and spontaneity in design guidelines?

What roles might be played by non-governmental organisations to complement the work of the state?

Non-government organisations may play several roles to complement the work of the state in planning. Fainstein (1999) believes counter-institutions can help create a normative vision of the city to reframe issues in broad terms, and mobilize people and financial resources to fight for their own goals. Organisations then provide an opportunity for more participatory action in planning and decision-making.

Property managers or brokers

One role that stood out as very successful, and indispensable, in these types of projects is the broker or property manager. These organisations work between the landowner (private or state), and the temporary users. It takes care of any permits, licenses, liability, and activating, and cleaning up the vacant space. These organisations also become a communication point between City administrations and temporary user, and navigate confusing bureaucratic processes. LIVS plays an important role during this time of rebuilding in Christchurch, and will likely continue to do so in the future. LIVS provides many benefits to those involved: landowners, the City, and creators. Landowners benefit from the property being maintained, liability issues reduced, having more people in the area, and helping reduce graffiti and crime. The temporary user gains free legal access to space, and are assisted in dealing with regulatory requirements and finding sponsors. The City benefits from having a point of contact for the temporary use, and having vacant sites in use. Shifting Growth in Vancouver plays a similar role; however, it is the one activating the sites with community gardens.

Funding and partnerships
The state is financially constrained by budgets, so there are ways to help the state implement temporary project. The Downtown Vancouver Business Improvement Association and Vancouver Art Gallery are major partners in the City's Summer Series and Robson Redux; and without the assistance of these partners, the project would probably not be an annual event.

Business owners, schools and community groups can sponsor some temporary spaces owned by the City. These relationships can be made by sharing the financial burdens, such as the Parklet Pilot Program in Vancouver, where the applicant, usually an adjacent business owner, will pay for the parklet and maintain it, but it remains on property owned by the City.

Another innovative model is the co-management of the Champ des Possibles between the Borough Plateau-Mont-Royal and Les Amis du Champ des Possibles. This directly involves the citizen group responsible for wanting to maintain its wild landscape in maintaining and developing the public space.

Work with the State
Non-government organisations can work with the state to create formal programs for emerging temporary uses. This can be done working with the City on pilot projects to provide feedback from citizens and act as an outside organisation navigating the regulatory requirements and processes. Non-government organisations can also advocate and educate the public and officials about the importance of public space, and imagine different possibilities outside of the conventional market driven city-building processes. The VPSN raises awareness about many public space issues, including the pushing for the permanent designation of a plaza on the 800 block of Robson Street. LIVS also presents in front of City Council on various issues, such as working strategically to influence government policy towards temporary use as a strategy for urban renewal.

Experiment
Non-government organisations can play the role of experimenting with space through street closures and other temporary interventions. RuePublique is experimenting through 100 in 1 Day the changing of a residential street to a woonerf. In Christchurch, The Commons has the potential to be designated park in the CERA Blueprint Plans, where it was previously zoned commercial.

6.0 CONCLUSION

The approach to this project has been to gain an understanding the processes, barriers, and considerations of temporary use of vacant and underutilized space as a generative city-building practice in three different cities – Vancouver, Christchurch, and Montréal. The methodology was to first get an understanding of the key themes from the state of the debate, which was presented in Chapter 2: vacant land definitions and perceptions, temporary use diversity, the importance of public space, and finally planning practice and where temporary use fits in. Chapter 4 then laid out case studies of different projects or movements, and background information. This was backed up by interviews with various initiators of temporary uses in each city. In the Discussion chapter (Chapter 5), I comment on three overarching themes: preoccupations, operational considerations, and action-oriented reflections for planners and non-government organisations to consider temporary use in city-building.

The case studies were in Vancouver, Christchurch, and Montréal, to show three very different contexts: Vancouver as a hot market with limited space to grow, Montréal as a creative city with more open regulations, and Christchurch as a city dealing with a post-disaster physical landscape affecting the well-being of its citizens. The interviews were rich with information, and from these emerged several themes.

Vacant space is a symptom and natural phenomenon of shifting economics, rapid urbanization, and urban sprawl. Many urban vacant lands are contaminated from former uses and require remediation, but often people perceive it to be more contaminated than it actually is. There has been a shift in the debate, to one where vacant land holds opportunities for economic growth, additional public space and amenities, space for creative expression, and habitat for species that would otherwise not be in urban areas. I define vacancy for this project as: "not only publicly-owned and privately-owned unused or abandoned land or land that once had structures on it, but also the land that supports structures that have been abandoned, derelict, boarded up, partially destroyed, or razed" (Bowman & Pagano, 2004).

In the case studies, contamination from former uses, and being situated along single-use corridors were the major reasons for vacant land, particularly in Vancouver and Montréal. Natural disaster is one of the main causes of the extensive damage and destruction of buildings in Christchurch, though the cities had similar causes for vacant land prior to the earthquakes. In practice, City staff also thought about underutilized spaces, such as streets and alleys; these spaces have a purpose, but could be utilized more diversely and efficiently.

The debate around temporary use in policy is centrally focused as it being a stand-in for some use that is longer-lasting as an end state, if there is such a thing. Citizens are often the

best source of knowledge about their own built environment, and temporary uses can help bring to light those potential ideas. For the purpose of this paper, I used Haydn and Roberts' definition of temporary use: a use that has some end date, known or unknown, and is generally citizen-led, and legal or tolerated. Planning in the Anglo-American context is regulated to work towards achieving a long-term vision, which may stifle creative temporary uses; however, authorities are increasingly opening up planning regulations towards ones allow incremental change and experimentation, and responding to the momentum witnessed from citizens and community groups.

All three cities had temporary projects implemented top-down and bottom-up, depending on the state political systems, and policy focus. In Vancouver, there is a heavily regulated public space; where limited space is used effectively and carefully, and pilot projects are employed to test more permanent planning solutions and programs. Community gardens and urban farms on private and public lands are very common, as are street closures and plazas. In Christchurch a huge range of temporary uses have been implemented because of the opening up of regulations until 2016, including some emergent uses that have the potential to shift Christchurch's Blueprint Plan. Some of the non-profits in Christchurch are uncertain how long the temporary uses will last as the economy begins to bounce back, and market forces become stronger. In Montréal, citizens are very active, and cultural activities are part of the very fabric of the city. A distributed borough power structure allows for tolerance, and different ways of urban space regulation at a more local level.

There are several roles that the state can play, including one of implementers, funders and supporters, regulators, and communicators. As implementers, it can use temporary projects to create public space as a way to foster socializing, or to incrementally experiment with planning solutions. It can also be a funder, if often strained financial resources will allow. And finally, it can have the role of a regulator, with the power to control what is happening on the streets and on property through land-use, zoning, and bylaws.

Many of the barriers identified by stakeholders involved the internal complexity of the regulatory systems and government administration. Often, these temporary interventions do not fit within the regulatory framework, and are difficult to deal with. Financial sustainability for the life of a project is a concern for all implementers — state- and citizen-led. Though temporary uses are "cheaper," there are still costs associated to permits, materials, building, and managing the project. City administrations struggle with the fact that these projects many times do not fit in an existing program; it either has to create one, or fit it into another.

Planners can work to ensure temporary uses take place in generative ways by having a shift to more experimental planning and decision-making, after assessing the actual risks, to make

use of the potential for vacant and underutilised space. This can be done by expanding and encouraging the momentum from citizen-led projects, and working with them to create programs flexible enough to allow for creativity. Planners can open up acceptable uses for vacant sites so that landowners will be more willing to let their land be used temporarily for low-impact activities. As well, planners can work on simplifying administrative processes and programs by using pilot programs to work out challenges. Further, planners can measure the impacts of interventions using monitoring tools and sets of indicators, with a careful understanding that this over-simplifies the complexity of the social and built environment.

Temporary uses have many benefits in the urban landscape, and may change how decisions are made, from a top-down professional standpoint to one that takes into consideration bottom-up ideas and citizen appropriation of space. Purcell's idea is to change how decisions are made in cities by reorienting decision-making away from the state (the right of participation) and towards the production of urban space (the right of appropriation). Temporary uses may be way for planners to think about cities in four-dimensions, instead of three, by taking into consideration temporal aspects, as well as, physical dimensions (Bishop & Williams, 2012). The goal should not be to achieve some end-state, but recognize that cities are living and changing, and emergent interventions can help achieve a more flexible way of development.

Locally sourced knowledge from citizens who actually live in an area, and walk the street every day can hold important knowledge that is invaluable to city-building. Temporary uses may empower some marginalized communities to participate in their neighbourhoods in ways that the planning systems usually exclude them. While with more guerrilla interventions are not always safe, or created in ways that are democratic; there are some emerging temporary uses that are good, and useful in city-building. Planners can play a proactive role in recognizing the momentum of citizen-led temporary projects, and work towards trying to change the regulatory barriers, and often prescriptive policies of urban development. In a way, this is adding another important group of decision-makers – individuals and non-government organisations - that reorients the way decisions are made to include not only the right to participation, but also appropriation of space.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A : Interview Recruitment Script

Good morning/afternoon Mr./Ms. [LAST NAME],

My name is Chelsea Medd and I am a student in the Master of Urban Planning program at McGill University. I am currently working a research project at the processes and context for temporary uses of urban vacant spaces.

The focus of my research is to understand the processes and policies used in implementing temporary uses in urban vacant and underutilized spaces, the context, how they affect communities, and the successes and challenges of these projects. I am focusing on three case study cities: Montréal (Canada), Vancouver (Canada) and Christchurch (New Zealand). I am speaking to planners and community groups involved in these projects in different capacities to come up with in-depth case studies of progressive city policies that encourage temporary uses and more flexible planning.

I am interested in interviewing you regarding [PROJECT NAME/ OFFICIAL CAPACITY]. Please note that all interviewees will be ensured confidentiality unless they indicate otherwise. I look forward to hearing from you.

If you have any questions or comments about this project you can contact me at [PHONE #], or the project supervisors; Professor Nik Luka at [PHONE #], or Professor Jane Glenn at [PHONE #].

Sincerely,

Chelsea Medd
Master of Urban Planning Candidate (2014)
School of Urban Planning, McGill University

Appendix B: Ethics Board Certificate

McGill

Research Ethics Board Office
James Administration Bldg.
845 Sherbrooke Street West. Rm 429
Montreal, QC H3A 0G4

Tel: (514) 398-6831
Fax: (514) 398-4644
Website: www.mcgill.ca/research/researchers/compliance/human/

Research Ethics Board I
Certificate of Ethical Acceptability of Research Involving Humans

REB File #: 377-0214

Project Title: Possibility in Vacancy: Experimental Planning through Temporary Use

Principal Investigator: Chelsea Medd

Department: Urban Planning

Status: Master's Student

Supervisor: Prof. N. Luka and J Glenn

Approval Period: <u>Mar. 28, 2014 – Mar. 27, 2015</u>

The REB-I reviewed and approved this project by delegated review in accordance with the requirements of the McGill University Policy on the Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Human Participants and the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct For Research Involving Humans.

Deanna Collin
Ethics Review Administrator, REB I & II

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* All research involving human participants requires review on an annual basis. A Request for Renewal form should be submitted 2-3 weeks before the above expiry date.
* When a project has been completed or terminated a Study Closure form must be submitted.
* Should any modification or other unanticipated development occur before the next required review, the REB must be informed and any modification can't be initiated until approval is received.

Appendix C: Interview Guide

<table>
<tr><td>**Interview Guide for Temporary Use of Vacant Space**</td></tr>
</table>

Working Research Question:

What is the current state of temporary uses in cities? What tools and strategies are cities using to allow for temporary use of vacant space? How do these projects get implemented and who are the actors involved? What are the impacts, successes and issues (environmental, social, cultural)? How can these strategies be used to have more adaptive planning practices?

Key topics:

- Background information
- City policy, strategies and processes that enable or prohibit temporary uses
- Project examples and insight (perceptions, processes, actors, benefits, impacts)

Questions for participants:

The interviews will have a flexible structure to allow for a natural flow of conversation. The interviews will vary slightly depending on the person being interviewed and position they hold.

Background

1. What was the project in which you were involved?
2. How many people were involved?
3. What was your title or role?
4. What was the goal or inspiration for the project or organization?

City Policy and Direction

5. Are there any city policies, directions or by-laws related for temporary use of vacant private lands?
6. What tactics have you seen to encourage this? Or discourage this? (tax incentives, pairing of users and landowners, grants)

Projects

7. Do you have examples of temporary projects in vacant space? (within a building, land)
8. Who were the key actors?
    a. What was the role of city officials? BIAs? Was it primarily community driven?
9. Why was the land vacant? (contamination, economics, disaster)
    a. Who owned the land? (City, Crown, private)
    b. How was the land obtained?
10. Are there any specific neighborhoods where this has taken place? Why?
11. What was the process involved in implementing the project?
    a. How did the project come about?
    b. How long was the process? When did the project begin?
12. Implications and long term impacts
    a. What was the public perception during and/or after?
    b. What are the community benefits?
    c. How does the project contribute to employment? Economics of the city?
    d. How does the project contribute to the social well-being of the community? Creativity?
    e. How does the project contribute to public space?
    f. How does the project contribute to the environment?
    g. What are the benefits to the property owners?
13. What were barriers or challenges in the process? (liability issues, community resistance)
14. Have there been any projects that began as temporary and have become permanent?

Chelsea Medd   McGill School of Urban Planning

Appendix D: List of Interviews

Vancouver

Durand, Doug D., Cultural Planner, City of Vancouver. Interviewed on May 8, 2014.

Henry, Karen, Public Art Planner, City of Vancouver. Interviewed on May 8, 2014.

Kassay, Krisztina, Planner, City of Vancouver. Interviewed on May 8, 2014.

Orchard, Sarah, Green Streets Coordinator, City of Vancouver. Interviewed on May 6, 2014.

Leung, Diana, Cultural Planner, City of Vancouver. Interviewed on May 8, 2014.

Pask, Andrew, Director, Vancouver Public Space Network and Planner, City of Vancouver. Interviewed on May 16, 2014.

Reid, Chris, Co-founder, Shifting Growth. Interviewed on May 13, 2014.

Rosen, Hartley, Executive Director, Environmental Youth Alliance (Vancouver). Interviewed on May 16, 2014.

Christchurch

Annan, Rachael, Coordinator, Greening the Rubble (Christchurch). Interviewed on May 2, 2014.

Bennett, Barnaby, Founder, Freerange Press and Joint Editor of *Christchurch: The Transitional City Pt IV*. Interviewed on May 26, 2014.

Gregg, Jane, Director, Life in Vacant Spaces (Christchurch). Interviewed on May 6, 2014.

Sewell, Richard, Project Coordinator, Gap Filler (Christchurch). Interviewed on April 17, 2014.

Montréal

Bougie, Tristan, Conseiller en aménagement Centre d'écologie urbaine de Montréal. Interviewed on June 17, 2014.

Jamet, Cédric, Chargé de projet, Centre d'écologie urbaine de Montréal and Administer, RuePublique and Organizer, 100 in 1 Day. Interviewed on June 20, 2014.

LeMesurier, Glen, Artist, Terminal Iron Works. Interviewed on April 30, 2014.