Compact spatial planning and transit-oriented development for climate change mitigation

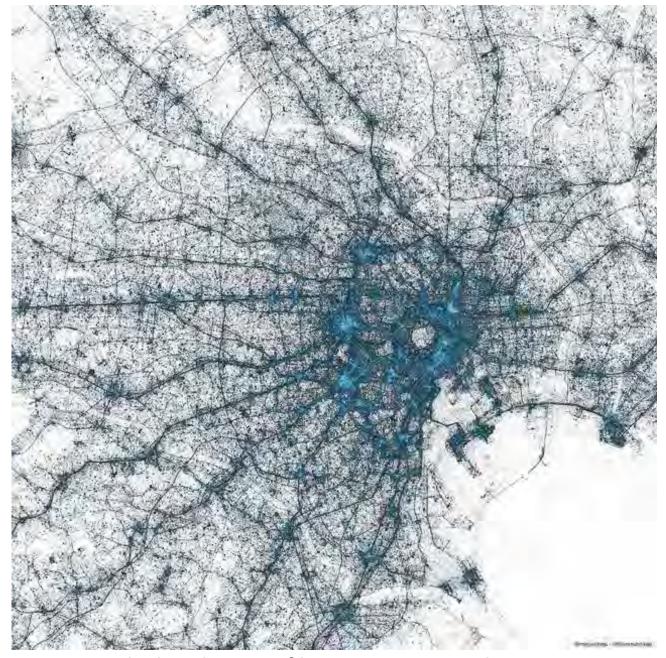
Serge SALAT



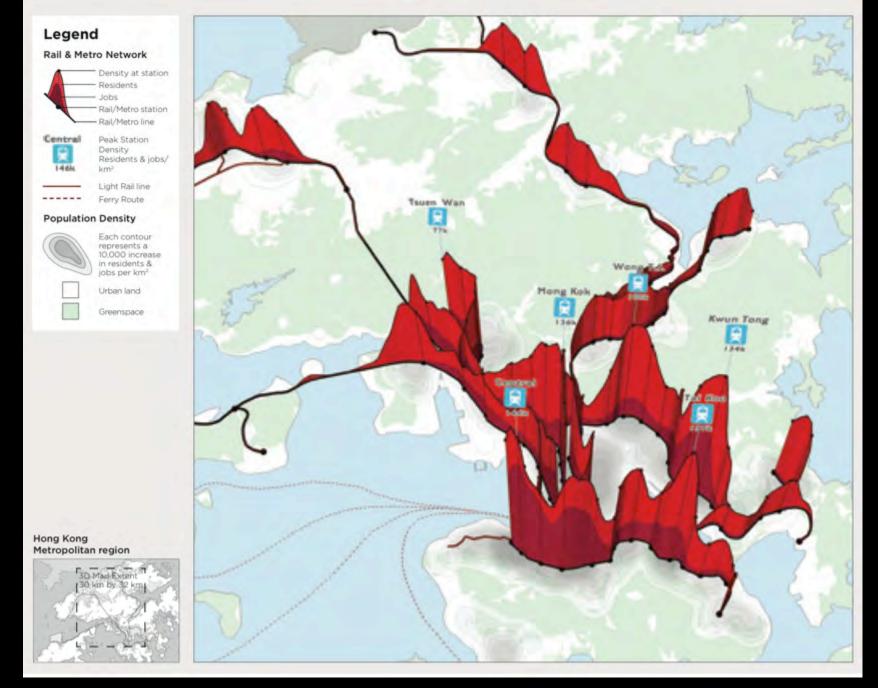
Compact spatial planning and transit-oriented development are policies to manage urban growth and shape urban densities (population and jobs) in an efficient way for delivering economic growth and social inclusiveness while mitigating climate change.

They rest on an integration of spatial and transportation planning and on concentrating densities along transit lines and around major transit nodes.

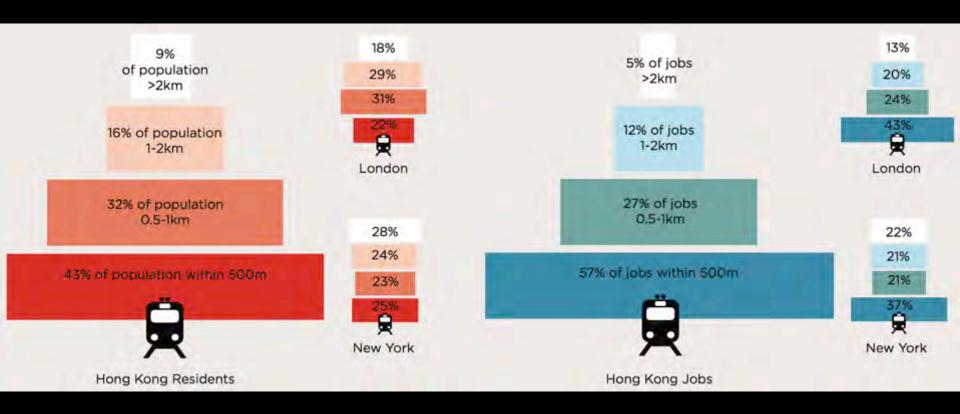
1. Which spatial development patterns best contribute to GHG emissions reductions, climate change mitigation, and economic growth?



Tokyo tweets map reveals that density of human activity and interaction is structured by transit lines and nodes

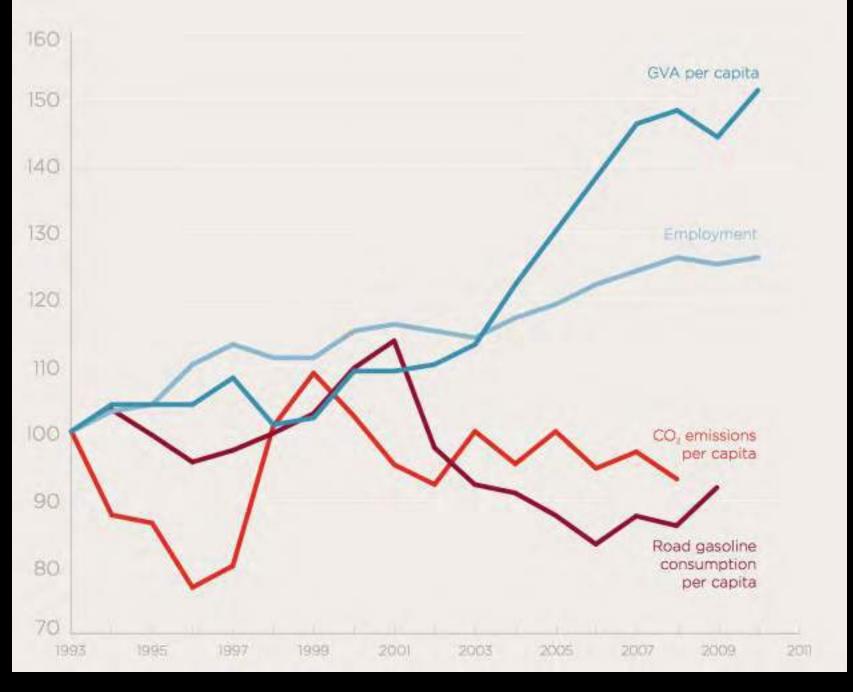


Hong Kong jobs and population densities are aligned with transit lines. Source: LSE Cities



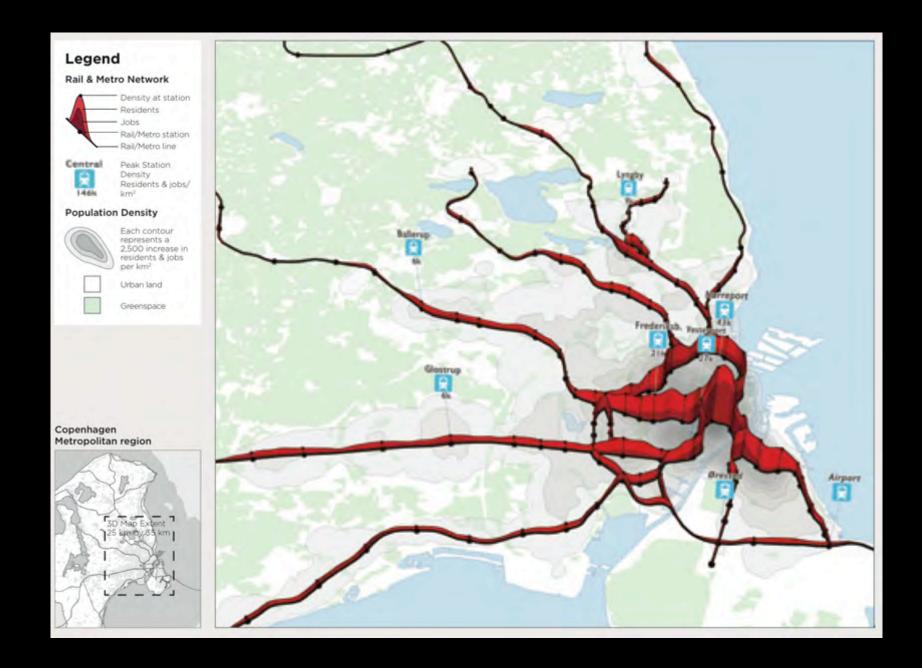
Pedestrian accessibility to rail and metro stations in Hong Kong. Source: LSE Cities

- As a result of Hong Kong's approach to integrating transport and land-use planning, 43% of the population (3 million people) live within 500m of an MTR station and 75% live within 1 km of a station. Public transport is used for 90% of all motorized journeys and the car ownership rate (56 per 1000 people) is lower than any other city of similar wealth (as a comparison, the average rate in OECD countries is 404 per 1000 people).
- The city's exceptionally high levels of residential density averaging 21,900 people per km2 within the built-up area, 6,300 people per km2 across the entire territory and peaking at 123,300 people per km2 at North Point – has also created one of the most walkable cities in the world. 45% of trips are undertaken by foot.
- These transport patterns have resulted in very low transport-related energy use and carbon emissions. It is estimated that annual carbon emissions from passenger transport are 378 kg per person, compared with around 1000 kg in European cities and over 5,000 kg in Houston, USA.

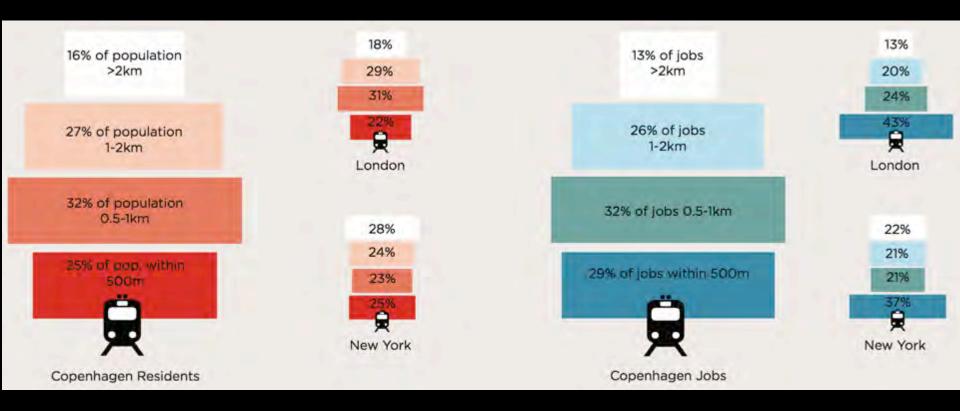


Green growth in Hong Kong. Source LSE Cities

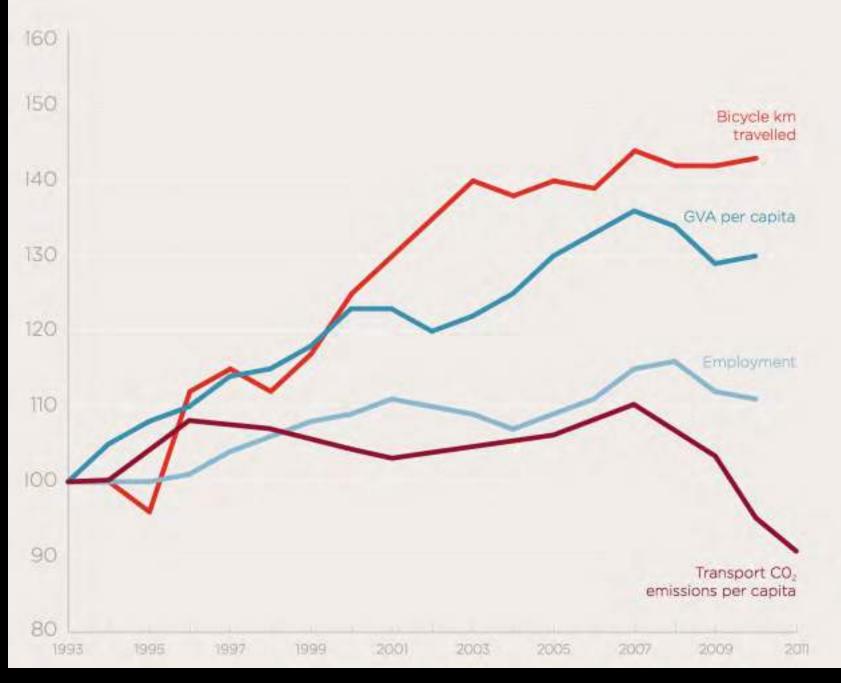
- Hong Kong's efficient transport network creates various economic benefits for the city, including agglomeration, competitiveness, and cost-saving benefits. Thanks to its well-used and efficient public transport network, Hong Kong spends around 5% of GDP on motorized travel, compared with 12-14% in motorized cities such as Melbourne and Houston.
- The city's dense urban form and efficient transport system supports agglomeration economies, including access for firms to a large pool of skilled labor within easy commuting distance, and a high density of firms in the inner-city which improves networking opportunities and face-to-face interaction. The latter is known to be particularly important for service-sector industries, and assists Hong Kong in the goal of securing its position as a global financial hub.
- Hong Kong's integrated 'Rail plus Property' model allows the MTRC to operate as a profitable enterprise, resulting in cost savings for taxpayers from an unsubsidized public transport system. Despite receiving no subsidies, passenger fares are low by international standards and fare increases have been below inflation during the past five years. The MTRC calculates that direct financial benefits to the Hong Kong government resulting from the 'Rail plus Property' have totaled HK\$210bn (US \$27bn) since the establishment of the company in the 1970s. While the government provided initial investment funds for the first MTR lines, the value of the company (publicly listed in 2000) has since grown considerably and payments from developers for the land value premium resulting from the building of rail infrastructure have totaled almost HK\$100bn (US\$12.9bn).



Copenhagen jobs and population densities are aligned with transit lines. Source: LSE Cities



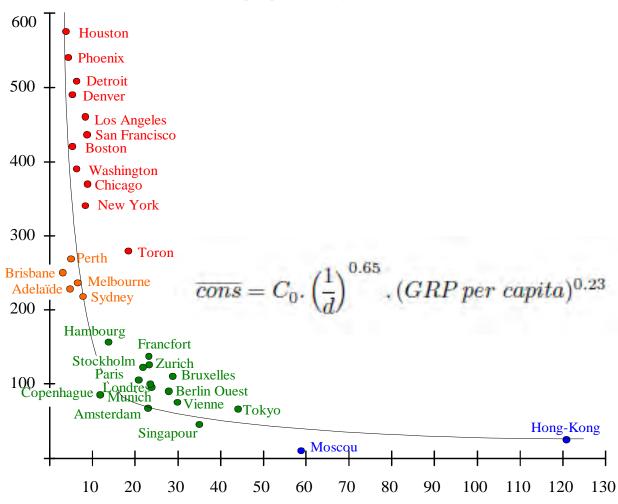
Pedestrian accessibility to rail and metro stations in Copenhagen. Source: LSE Cities



Green growth in Copenhagen. Source LSE Cities



Consommation annuelle de carburant par personne (gallons, 1980)



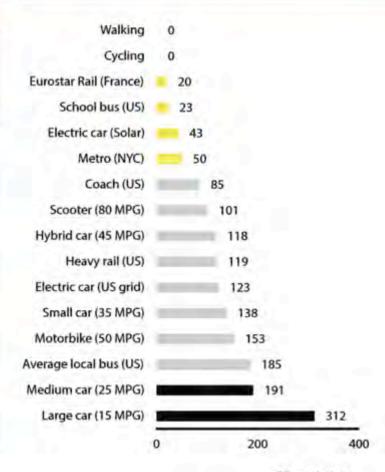
Données : Newmann et Kenworthy, 1989

Densité urbaine (nb de personnes par acre)

Share of green transport modes and carbon emissions per capitacities

Cities	Share (%) of public transport, walking and cycling	CO ₂ emissions (kg per capita per year)
Hong Kong	89%	378kg
Tokyo	68%	818kg
Berlin	61%	774kg
Paris	54%	950kg
London	50%	1,050kg
Madrid	49%	1,050kg
Montreal	26%	1,930kg
Houston	5%	5,690kg

Emissions per passenger km by urban transport mode

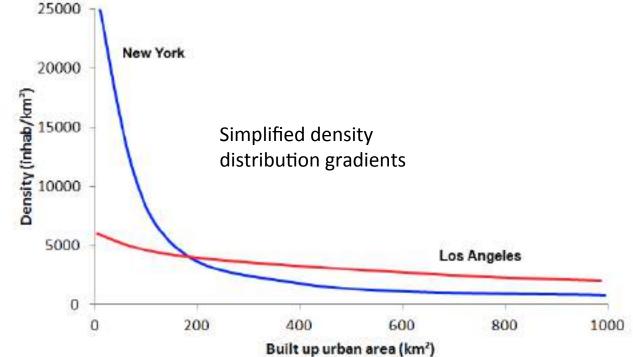


CO₂ emission (grams per passenger km)

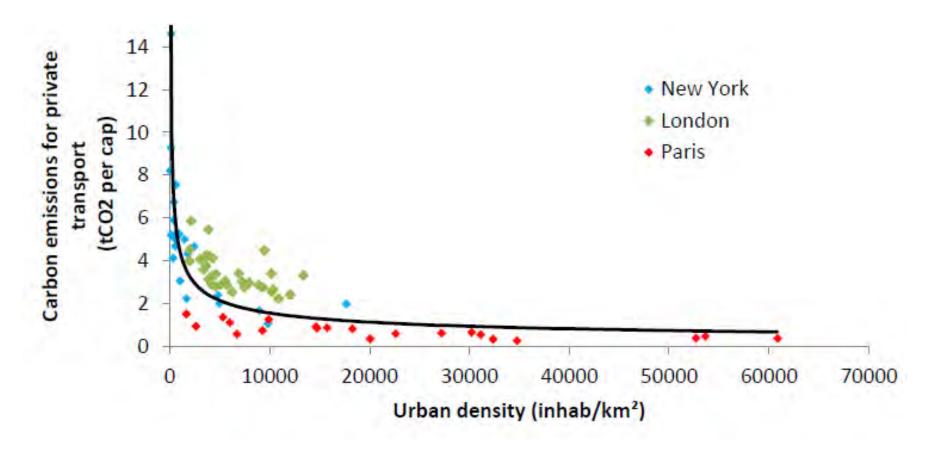
Source: LSE Cities 2014 based on STF 2014

Average densities are not sufficient to explain energy intensities Density distribution patterns matter

CITY	Population density (inhab/km²)	Private transport energy use (GJ/ cap/yr)	Total GHG (tCO2e/cap)
Los Angeles	2400	55	13
New York	1900	46	10.5

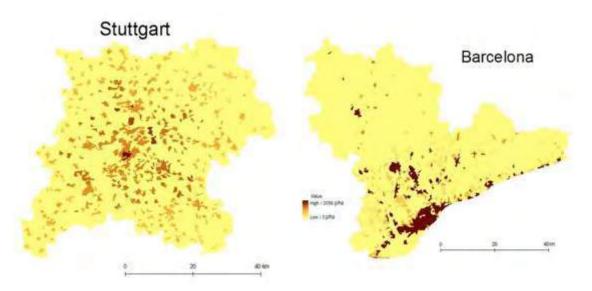


Intra urban emissions and densities are unevenly distributed within urban space



GHG Emissions and density in Paris (by IRIS) in NYC (by county) and in London (by borough) Source: Loeiz Bourdic, Urban Morphology Institute

Entropy versus hierarchy



Stuttgart is an example of high entropy urban spatial structure: density is scattered homogeneously over the entire urban area.

Barcelona is an example of an urban area with a high hierarchy of density distribution.

Entropy and hierarchy are calculated using a grid of N 200x200m cells, each with a density Pi. Resting upon this grid, entropy and hierarchy (alpha parameter) are calculated using the following formulas:

Entropy =
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p_i}{P_N} \log \left(\frac{p_i}{P_N} \right)}{\log N}$$
 Hierarchy $p_k = P_0 k^{-\alpha}$

What is the impact of density distribution of transport energy consumptions?

 $Energie = C_0 PIB^{0.35} dens^{-0.14} hier^{-0.52} entrop^{0.86}$

Multivariate analysis resting upon 34 European cities (Data partially extracted from Le Néchet 2011)

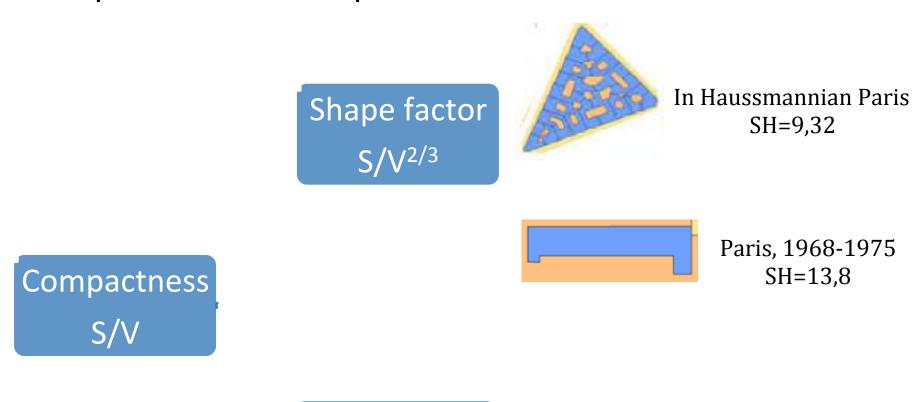
4 factors impact on per capita transportation energy consumption:

- **GDP per capita** (elasticity 0,35)
- Average density (elasticity -0,14)
- **The entropy of the density distribution** (elasticity 0.86): The more homogenous the density distribution, the higher the energy consumption for transportation per capita.
- The hierarchy of the density distribution elasticity -0.52): The higher the hierarchy of the density distribution, the more efficient the urban structure, and the lower the energy consumption for transportation per capita.

$$Entropie = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p_i}{P_N} \log \left(\frac{p_i}{P_N}\right)}{\log N}$$

$$p_k = P_0 k^{-\alpha}$$

Impact of urban morphology on heating energy Compactness and shape factor



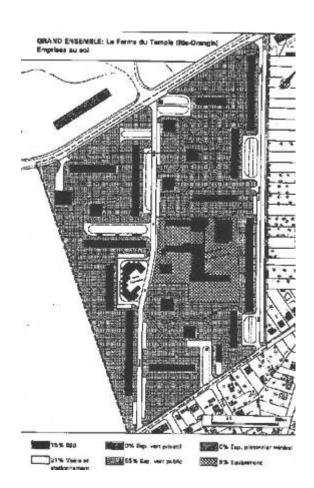
Size factor 1/V^{1/3}

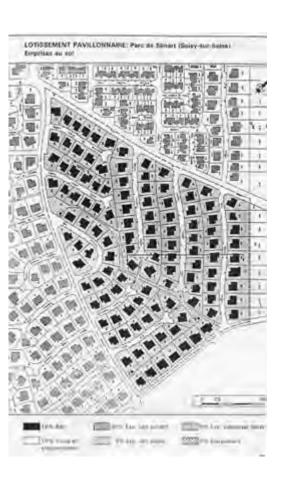
Compactness and passive volume ratio Climate variations: courtyard fabrics

Type of urban fabric	1 Block	Linear Buildings	9 blocks	1-level courtyard	2-levels courtyards	3-levels courtyards
S/V	0.08	0.12	0.13	0.10	0.12	0.19
Passive volume ratio	17 %	58 %	46 %	33 %	60%	100 %

COURTYARDS/SLABS/DETACHED HOUSES



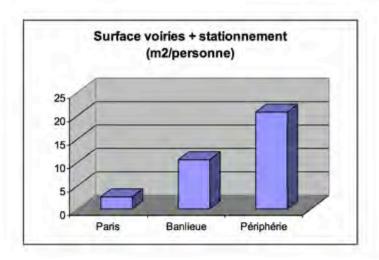


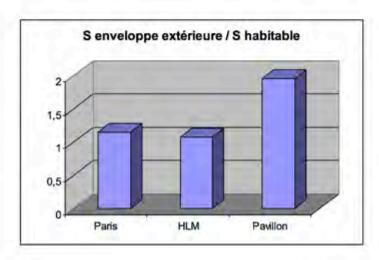


COS:4,5 COS:1,25 COS: 0.5

Source: JP Traisnel

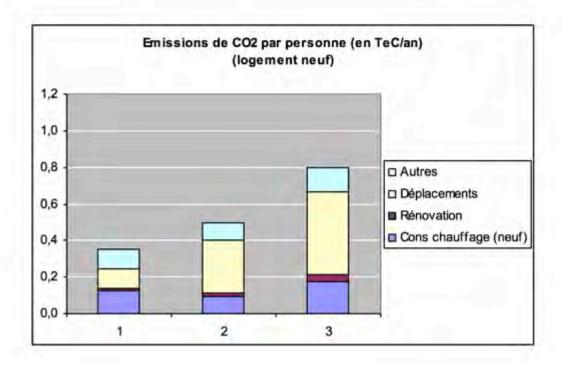
COURTYARDS/SLABS/DETACHED HOUSES The transportation energy /heating energy impact





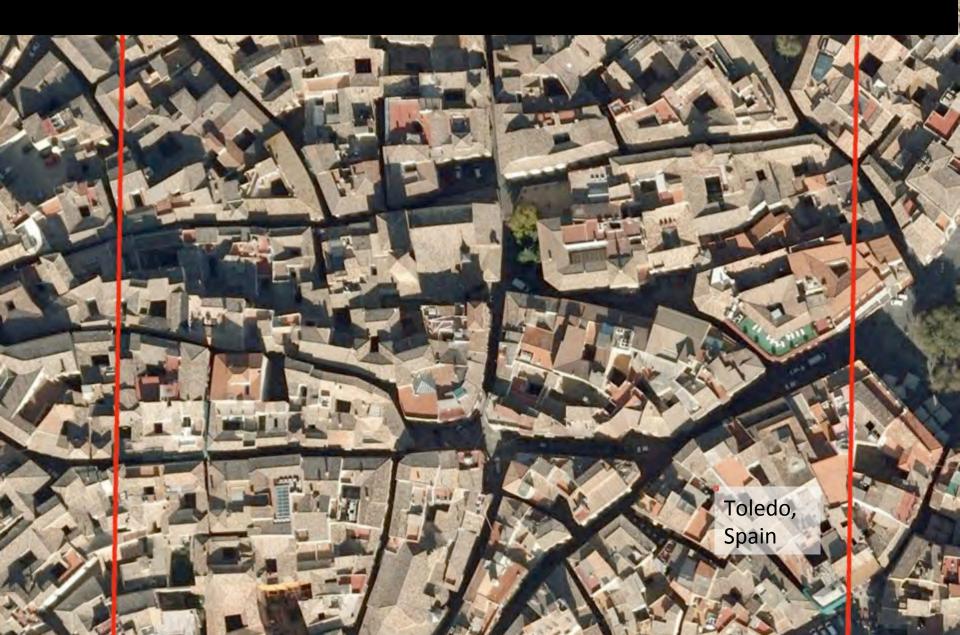
Région IdF:

- Paris (immeuble urbain)
- Banlièue (grand ensemble) Périphérie (pavillonnaire)



Source: JP Traisnel

Traditional urban forms



Traditional urban forms

- A high urban built density,
- A good shape factor,
- A high cyclomatic number and low distance between intersections.
- Heating needs around 100 kWh/m²/yr

	FAR	Shape factor	Cyclomatic number 800 x 800m	Average distance between intersections (m)	Heating needs (kWh/m²/yr)
Barcelona (Barrio Gotico)	4,94	9,31	123	50	136,97
Toledo	2,98	8,44	121	40	91,18
Turin (quadrilatero Romano)	4,63	8,8	75	70	127,99



XIXth century urban forms

Density, compacity and connectivity are high. These urban forms are the natural evolution of the previous forms. The heating needs slightly increase (from approx. 100 to 125 Kwh/m²/yr).

	FAR	Shape factor	Cyclomatic number 800 x 800 m	Average distance between intersections (m)	Heating needs (kWh/m²/yr)
New York (Manhattan)	4,77	8,76	27	150	113
Paris (Haussmann)	4,49	9,32	77	150	129,13
Turin (collective medium size buildings)	2,95	9,87	77	80	121,69



The upheaval of Modernism



The upheaval of modernism

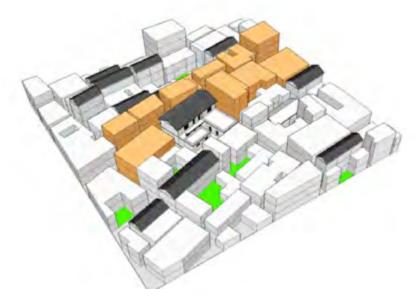
In the last 60 years, modernist urbanism has produced two different types of urban forms:

- High rise, out of scale developments
- Low rise suburban neighborhood

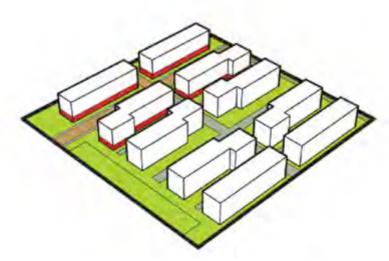
Both of them are not sustainable: they have poor connectivity, poor compactness and poor density. Heating needs increase tremendously: from approx. 125 to 200/300 kWh/m²/yr

	FAR	Shape factor	Cyclomatic number 800 x 800 m	Average distance between intersections (m)	Heating needs (kWh/m²/yr)
Brasilia	0,34	15,49	26	400	-
New York (sprawl)	0,4	11,35	19	200	350
Le Corbusier	3,57	19,66	4	400	140,88
Washington (sprawl)	0,41	11,98	4	300	203,34

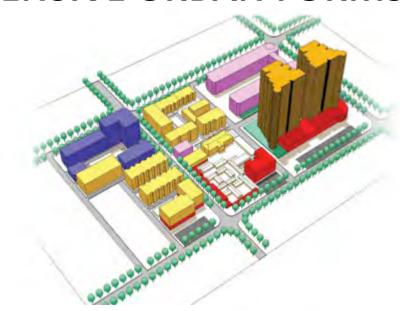
SUPERBLOCKS: ENERGY INTENSIVE URBAN FORMS

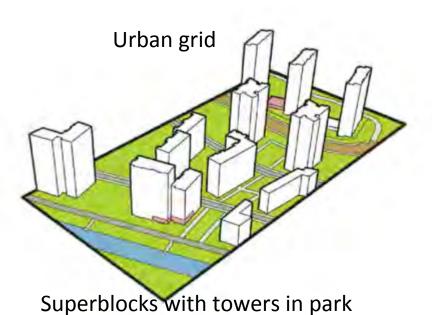


Traditional settlement



Enclave of low rise slabs



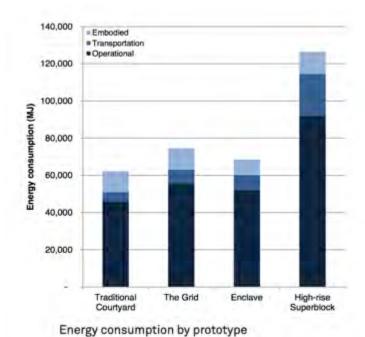


4 urban forms in Jinan

Source: MIT



Source: MIT



11

27

35

55

Traditional

300

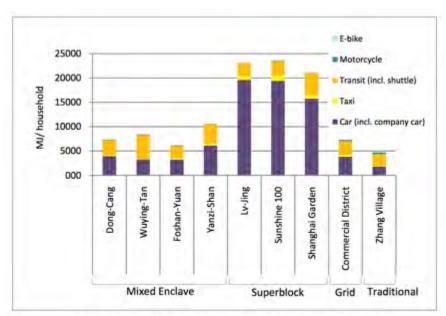
250

200

150

100

50



Average household weekly Travel Distance (km) across the four Neighborhood Typologies

20

74

20

Grid

20

21

17

85

24

Enclave

walk.

bike

ebike

bus

taxi

■ car

motorcycle

24

88

111

Superblock

Average household annual transportation energy consumption by development type.

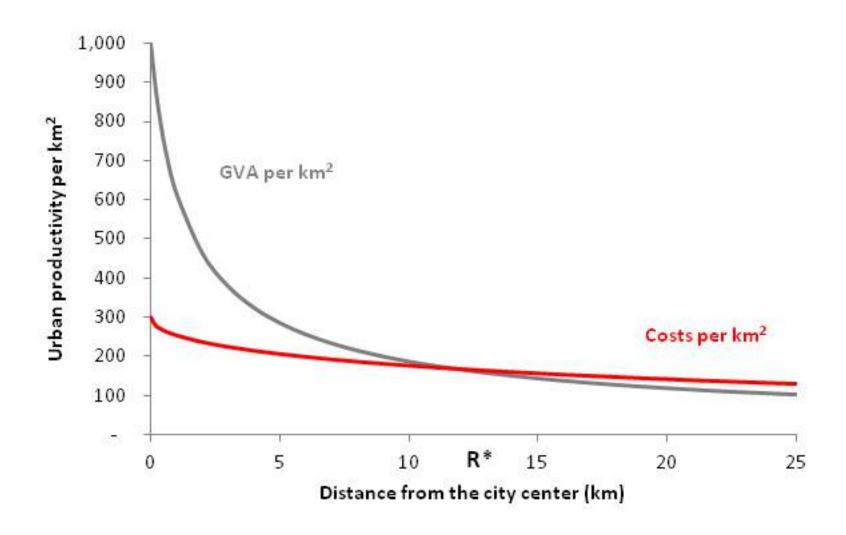
Source: MIT (top) and Energy Foundation (below)



GDP/km² decreases with spatial expansion

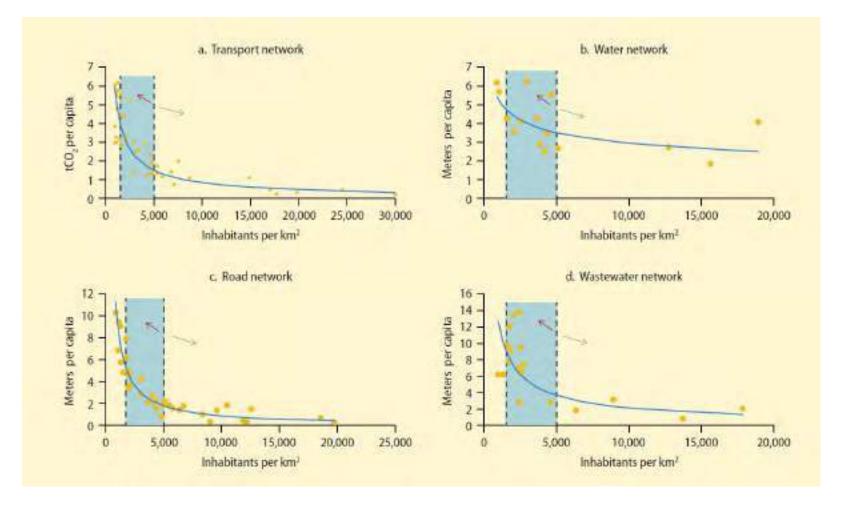
Infrastructure costs/km² and emissions increase with spatial expansion

The city costs more than it produces value at a threshold of about 500 km² (600 km² size of Tokyo 23 wards and Seoul Special City with populations between 9 and 10 million)



Source: Bourdic 2015, Urban Morphology Institute.

Low density increases infrastructure costs, resource intensity of infrastructures per capita, energy consumption and carbon emissions



From Paris or Manhattan (≈20,000 inhab/km²) to an average density of 5,000 inhab/km²

- Road network investment cost per capita is multiplied by 4
- Water network investment cost per capita increases + 40%
- Waste water network investment cost per capita is multiplied by 3
- Carbon emissions for transportation per capita are multiplied by 2.5 Source: Salat and Bourdic, World Bank 2014.

Capacity and Infrastructure costs of different transport systems

Transport Infrastructure	Capacity [pers/h/d]	Capital costs [US\$/km]	Capital Costs/Capacity
Dual-lane highway	2,000	10m - 20m	5,000 - 10,000
Urban street (car use only)	800	2m - 5m	2,500 - 7,000
Bike path (2m)	3,500	100,000	30
Pedestrian walkway / pavement (2m)	4,500	100,000	20
Commuter Rail	20,000 - 40,000	40m - 80m	2,000
Metro Rail	20,000 - 70,000	40m - 350m	2,000 - 5,000
Light Rail	10,000 - 30,000	10m - 25m	800 - 1,000
Bus Rapid Transit	5,000 - 40,000	1m - 10m	200 – 250
Bus Lane	10,000	1m – 5m	300 - 500

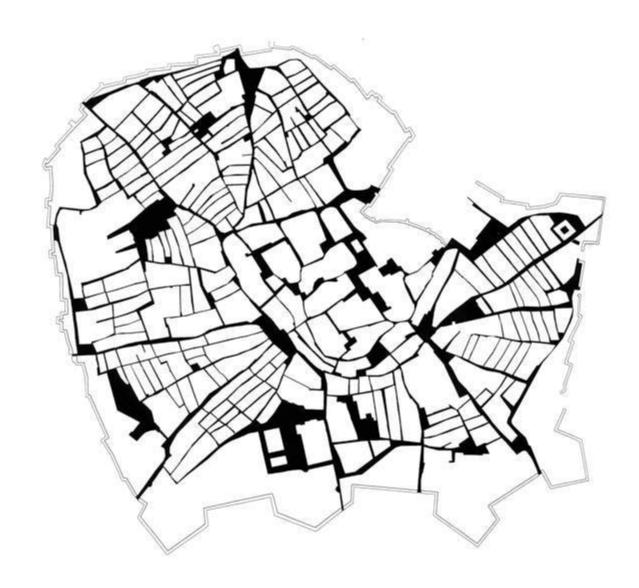
Source: Rode and Gipp 2001, Litman 2009, Wright 2002, Brilon 1994

4.How to articulate densities (FAR, residents and jobs) and how to shape transit networks in order to achieve compact development through scales?

4.1. Networks and Spikes

The urban world is Paretian both for network structures and for intra urban densities

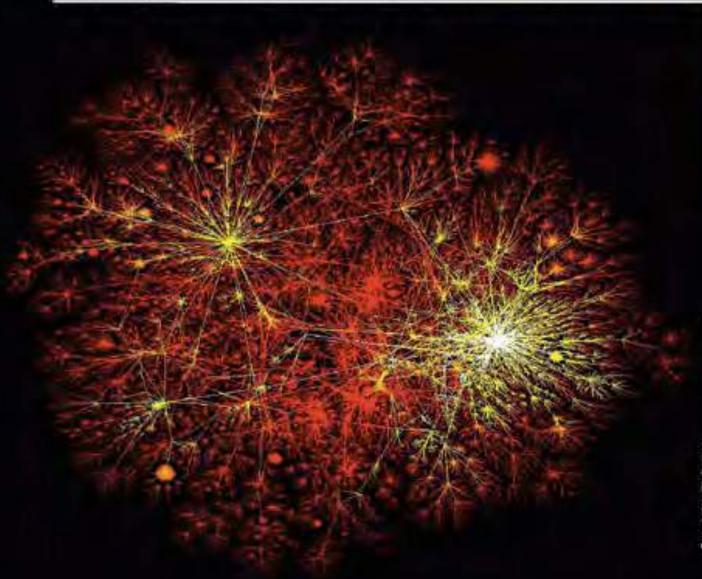
Traditional network street patterns were multi connected at all scales. This increased their structural resilience.





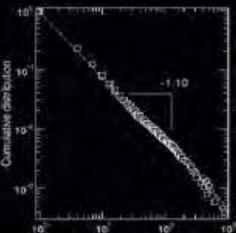


Complex networks are scale-free

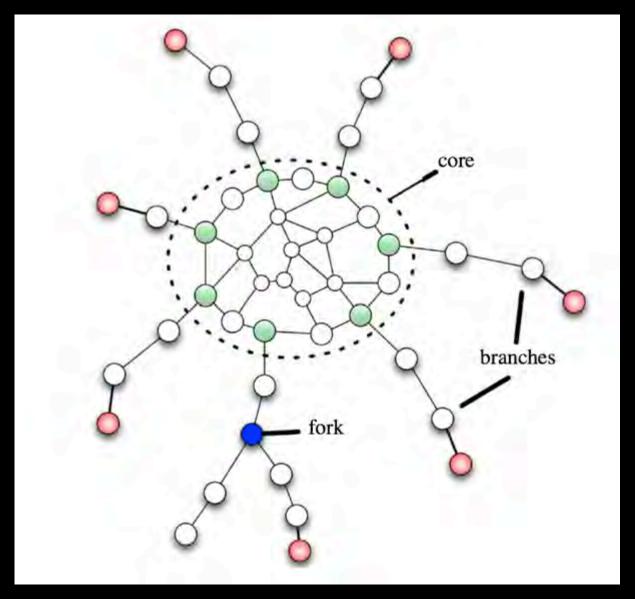




 $P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma} \phi(k/\xi)$

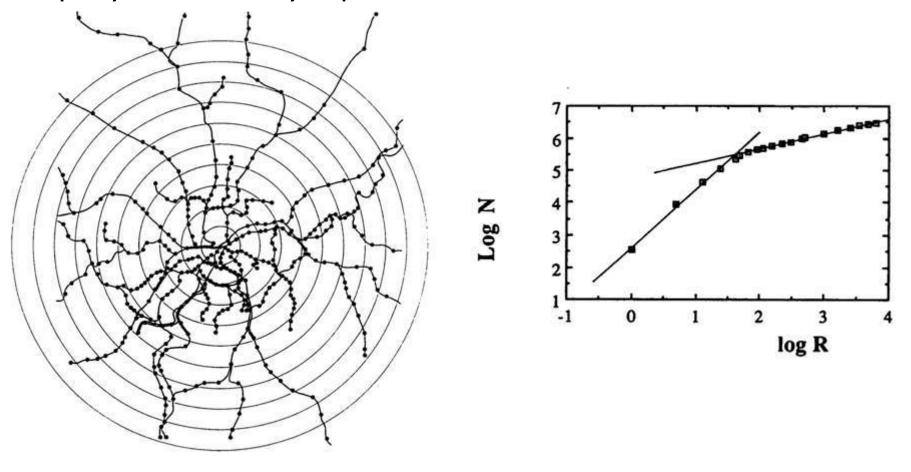


Subway networks converge towards a characteristic structure with a dense and interconnected core and with spokes



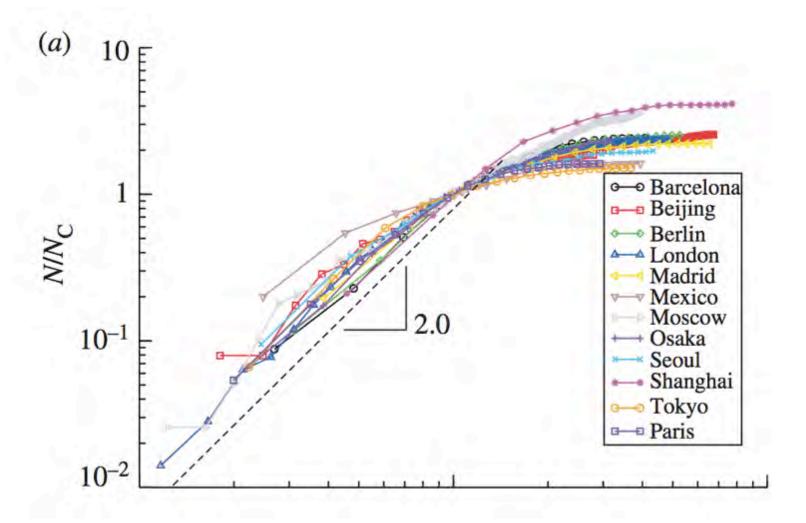
Source: QuantUrb, CASA

The core (R= 5.6 km in Paris) contains a constant density of stations while the density of stations outside the core decays rapidly with a decay exponent of minus 1.5 in Paris case



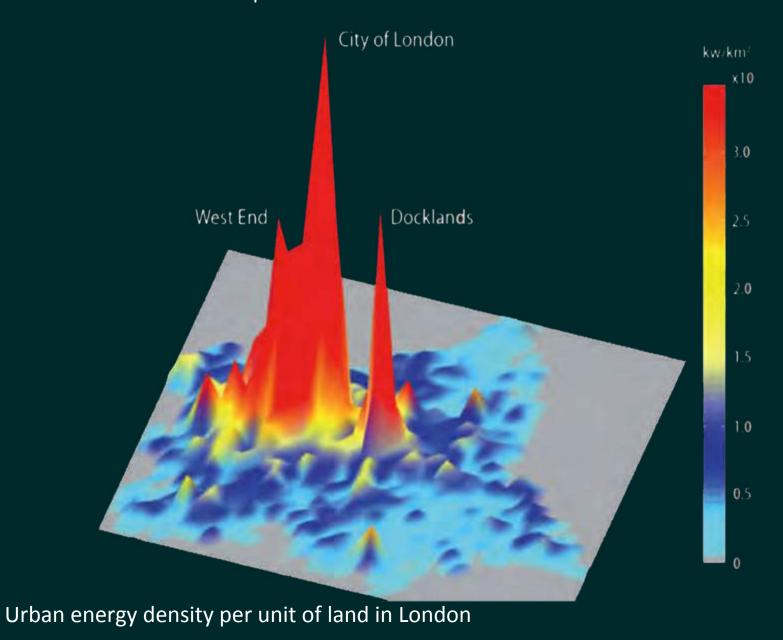
Source: Benguigui

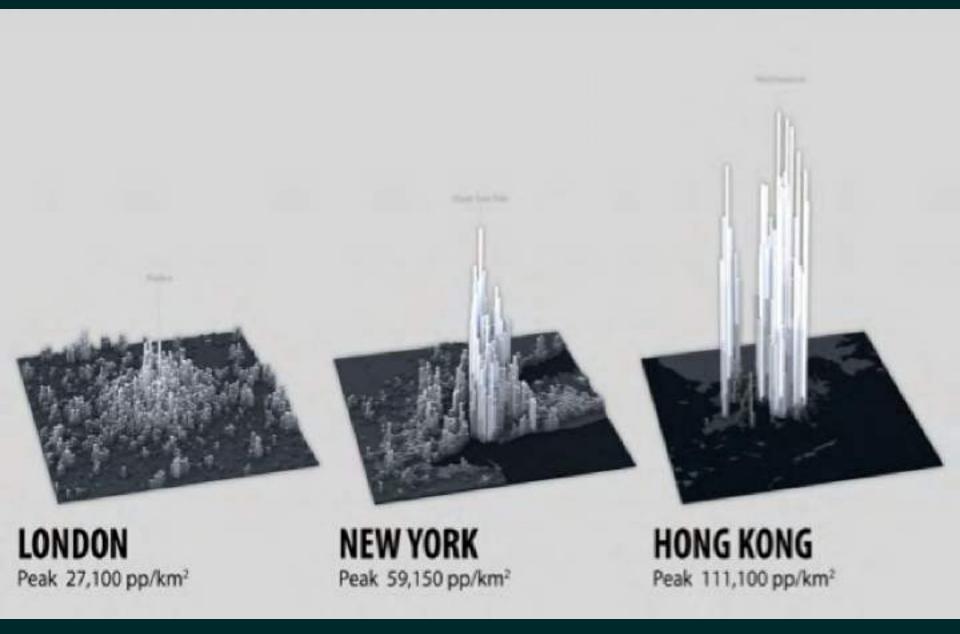
This structural change in the density of stations and thus in transit accessibility levels characterizes most subway networks.



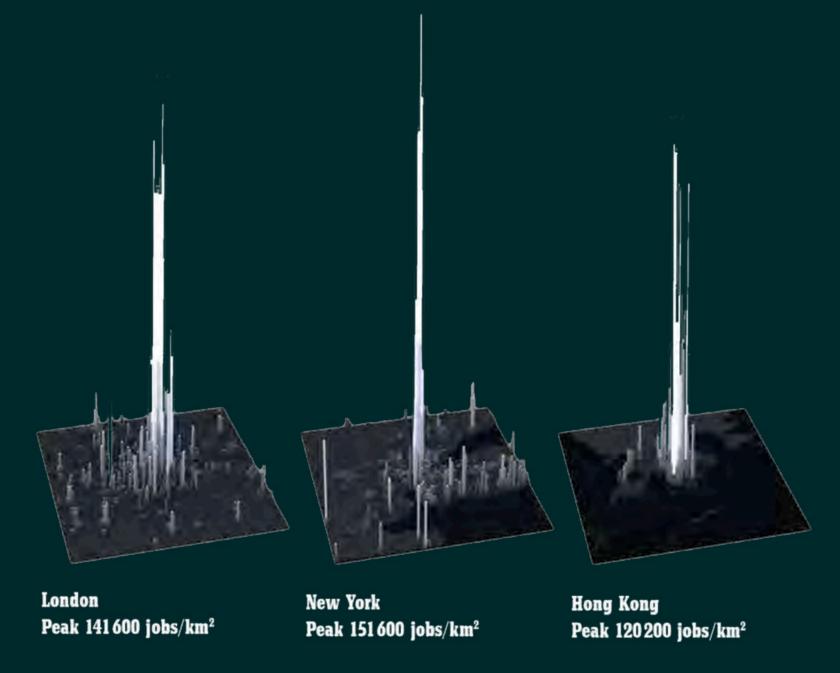
Source: QuantUrb, CASA

Transit network centralities and differences in accessibility + agglomeration economies concentrate densities in spikes at intra urban scale



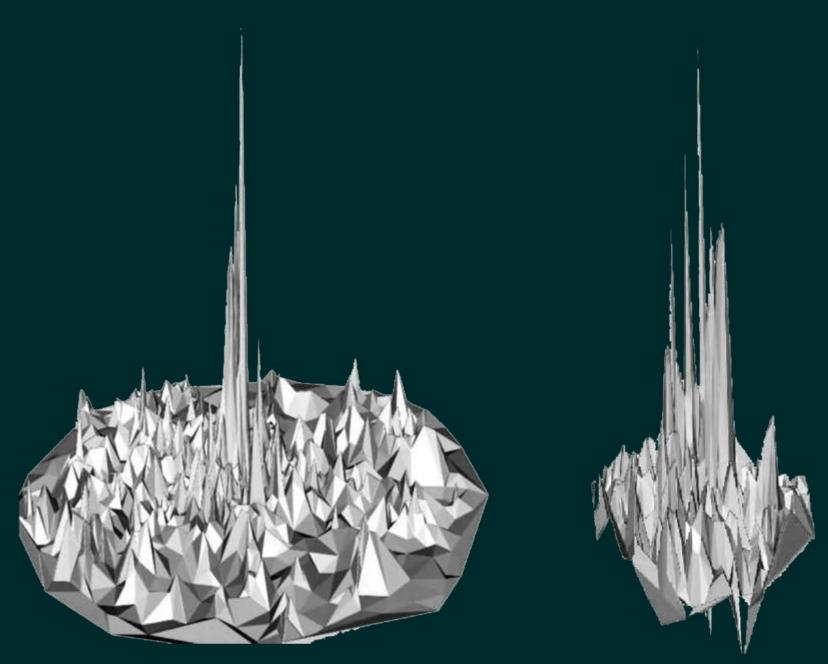


Residential densities in London, New York, Hong Kong Source: LSE Cities, LSE London

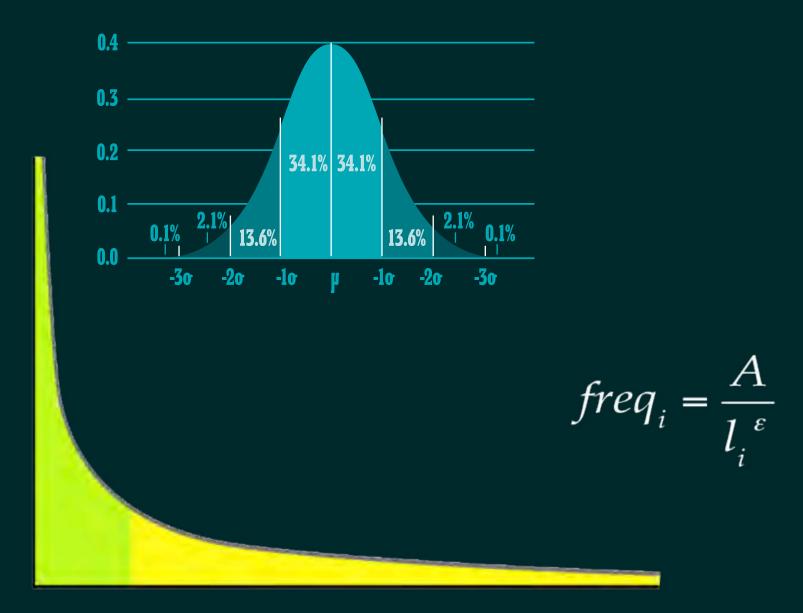


Jobs densities in London, New York, Hong Kong. Source: LSE Cities

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Rents in London. Source: Robin Morphet, CASA, UCL London.

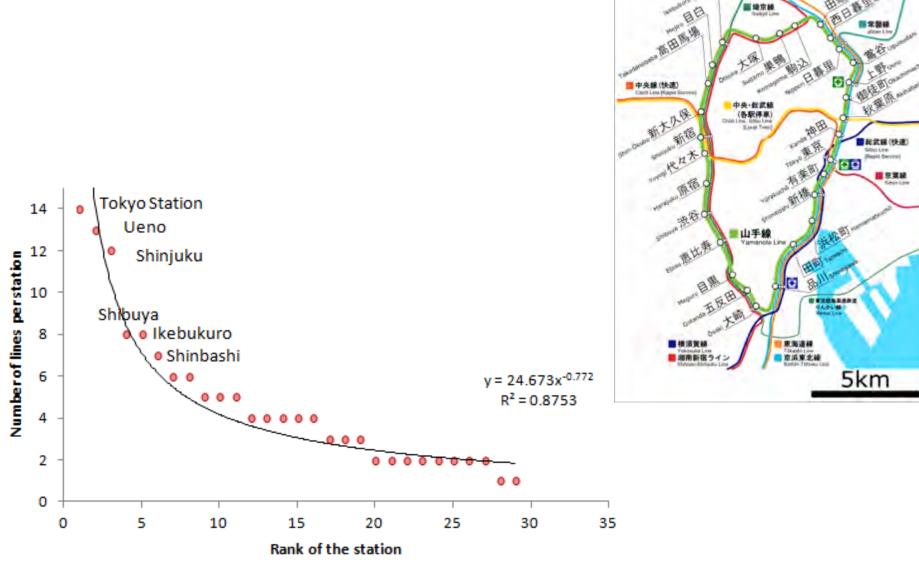


The urban world is not Gaussian (top). It is Paretian (bottom) and follows inverse power laws

4. 2. Case Studies: Tokyo, Seoul, London, New York	(

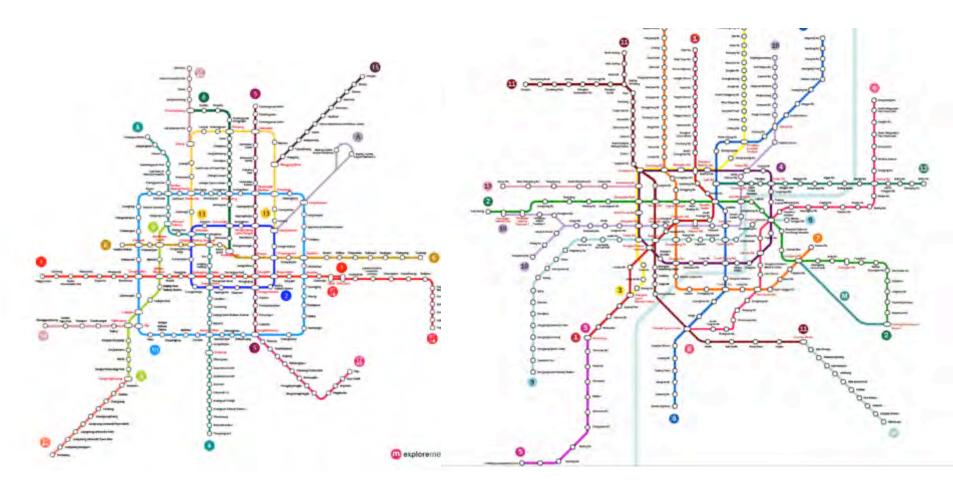
Tokyo economic engine is concentrated along the high spikes of connectivity and economic density of Yamanote line





Source: Urban Morphology Institute

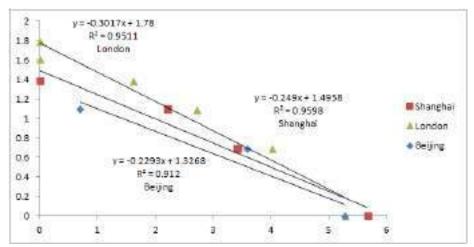
URBAN CHINA ISSUE: FLAT NETWORK HIERARCHY LEADS TO LOW NODE VALUE



Beijing subway map

Shanghai subway map

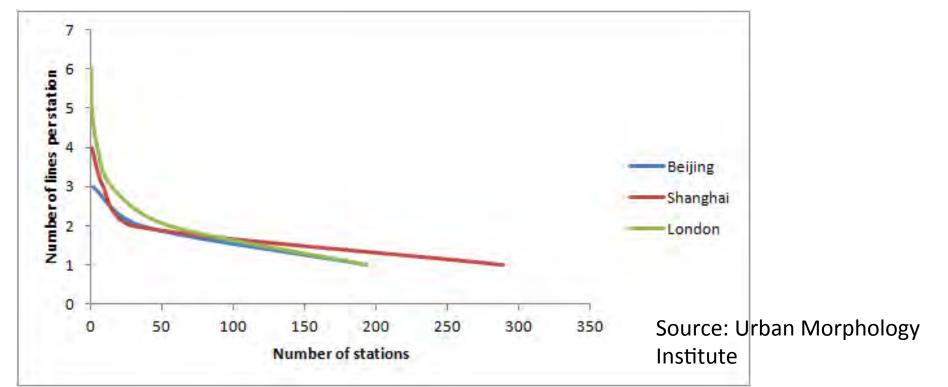
URBAN CHINA ISSUE: FLAT NETWORK HIERARCHY LEADS TO LOW NODE VALUE

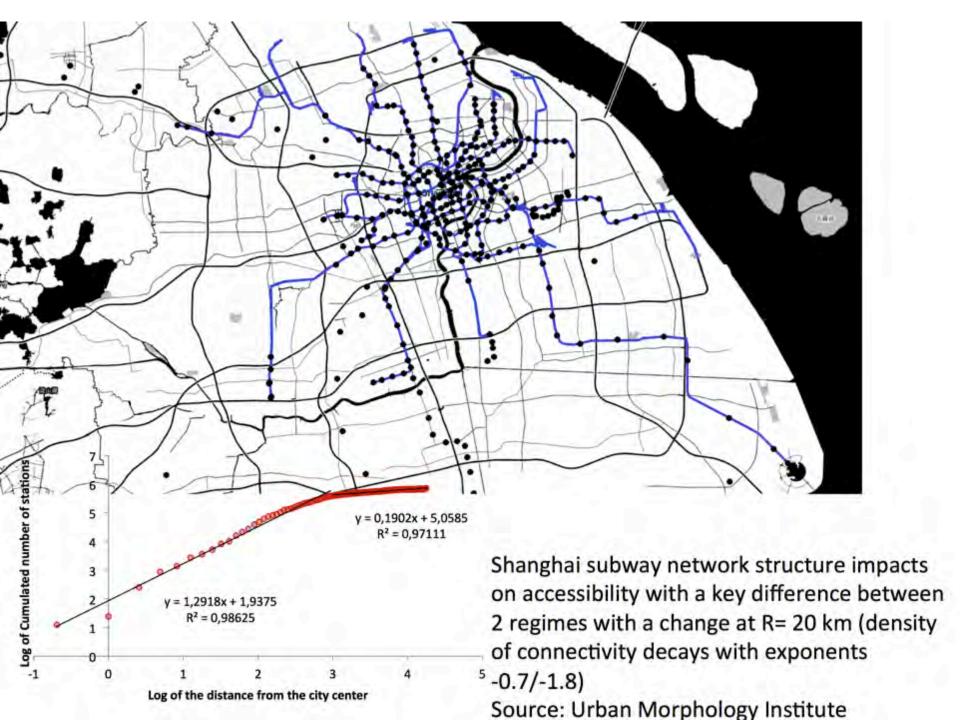


Beijing network hierarchy is flat and lacks hubs

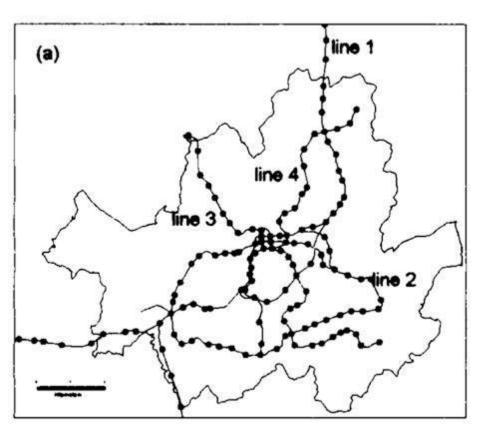
Shanghai is in an intermediary situation with a steeper hierarchy than Beijing but flatter than London and a very thick right tail of low degree centrality stations

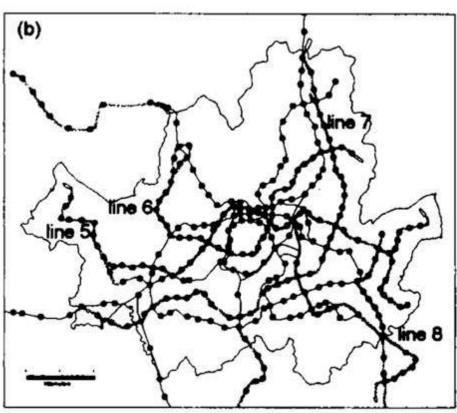
Due to this network lack of hierarchical structure there is much less opportunity to capture high land values in Shanghai and Beijing than in London and to articulate density accordingly





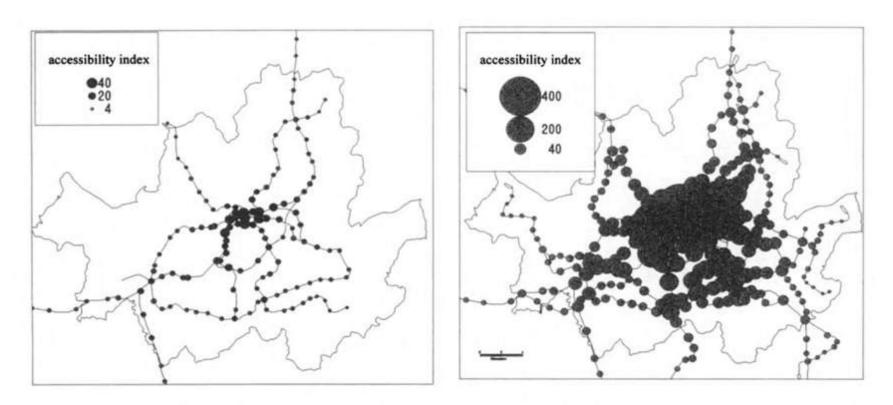
Seoul transformation in accessibility with the subway extension has reshaped the urban form





1st phase 2nd phase

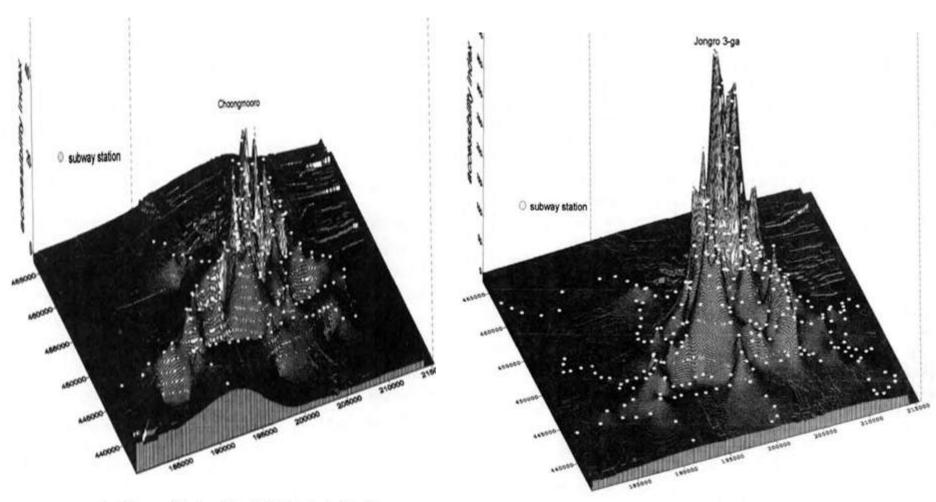
Increase in accessibility between first and second phase



Spatial Patterns of Nodal Accessibility (a) in the First Phase and (b) in the Second Phase

The second phase has intensified the core accessibility and created a second potential core

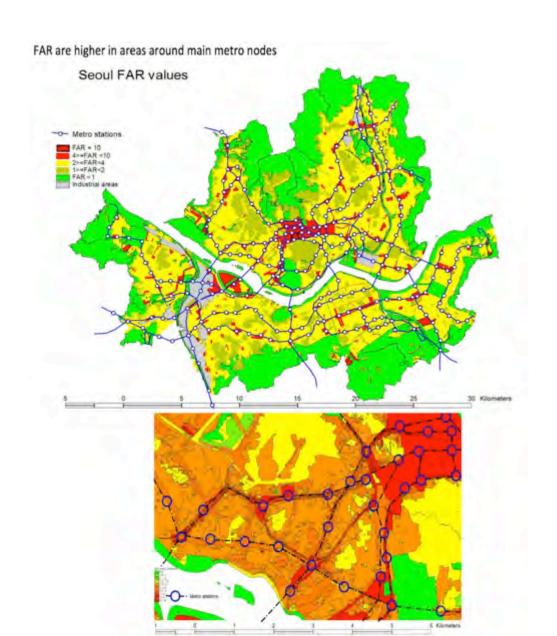
Closeness centrality from one station to all the others



Spatial Pattern of the Accessibility Grid Surfaces in the First Phase

Spatial Pattern of the Accessibility Grid Surfaces in the Second Phase

FAR policies matches closeness centrality with high FAR variations



Land use policies match closeness centrality

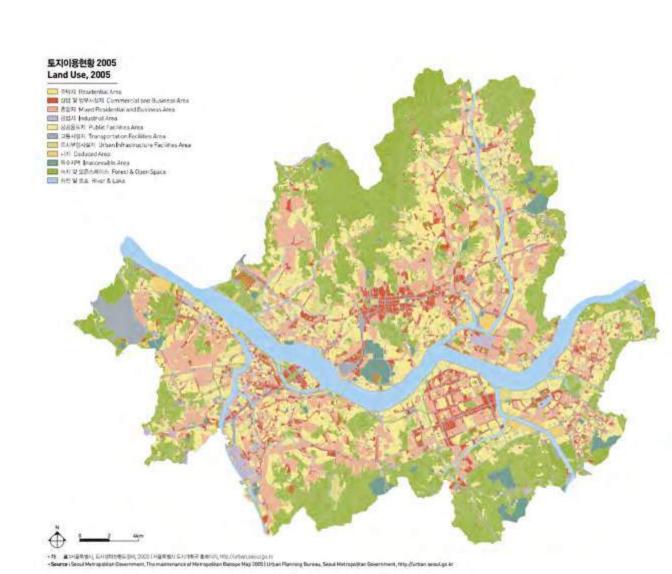
High closeness centrality **Business**

Medium closeness centrality

Mixed use

Low closeness centrality

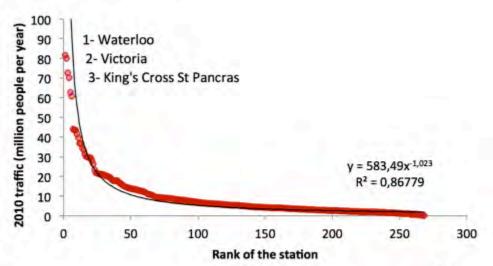
Residential



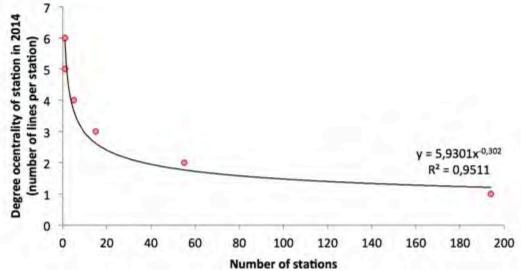
London subway network radiates from Circle line



Hubbing in London



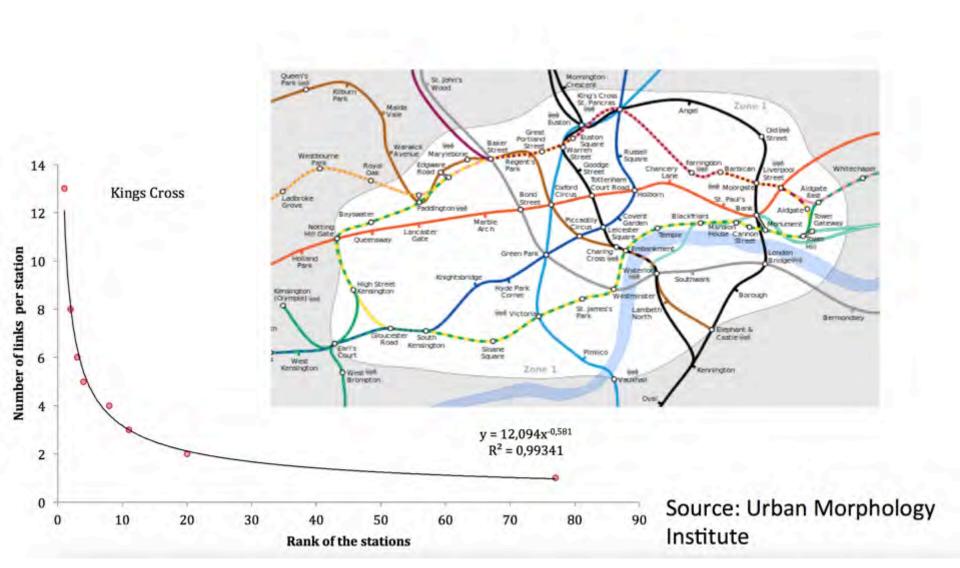




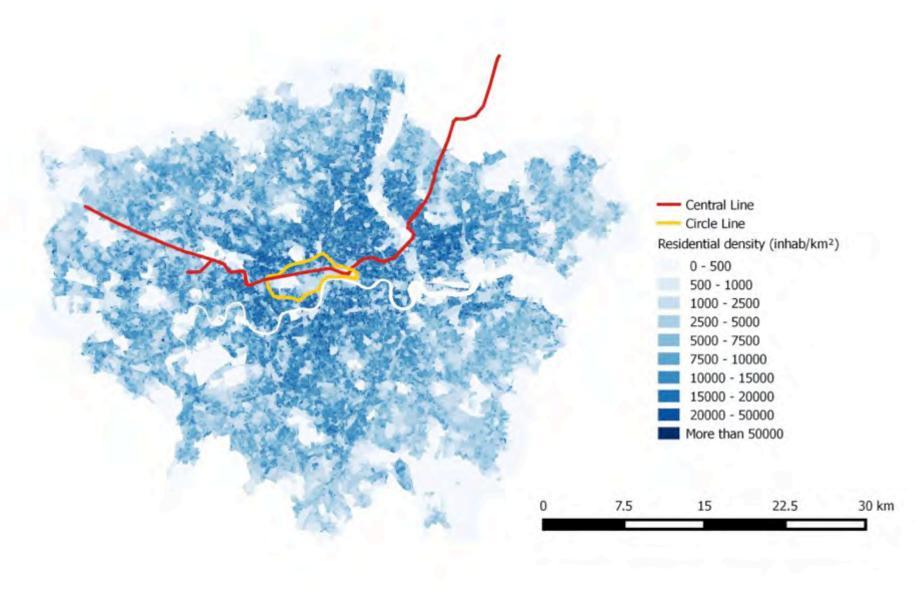
Source: Urban Morphology Institute

Compact polycentricity in London

Circle Line encompasses 33km² and links the economic cores of London



Residential density in Greater London



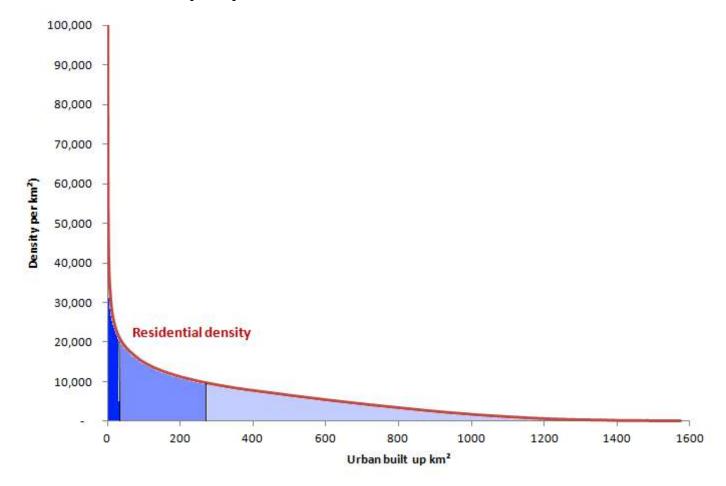
Source: Urban Morphology Institute

Residential density in Inner and Central London



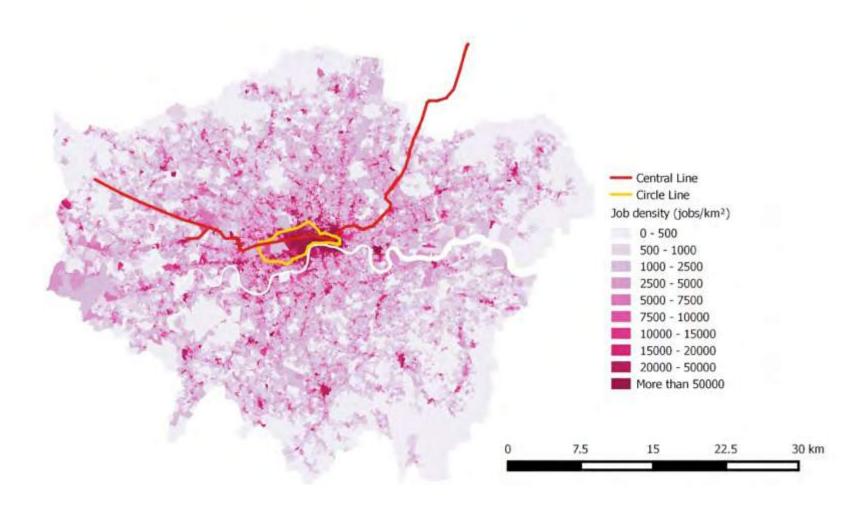
Source: Urban Morphology Institute

London population distribution is Paretian with a hierarchy coefficient of - 0.5 Half of the population lives in Outer London



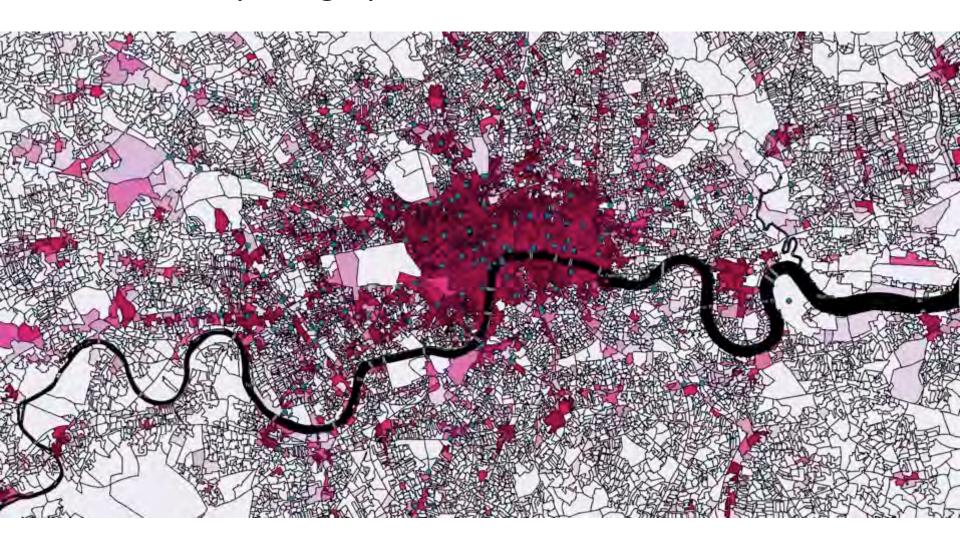
Source: Urban Morphology Institute (2015)

Jobs density in Greater London is articulated by transit lines and nodes



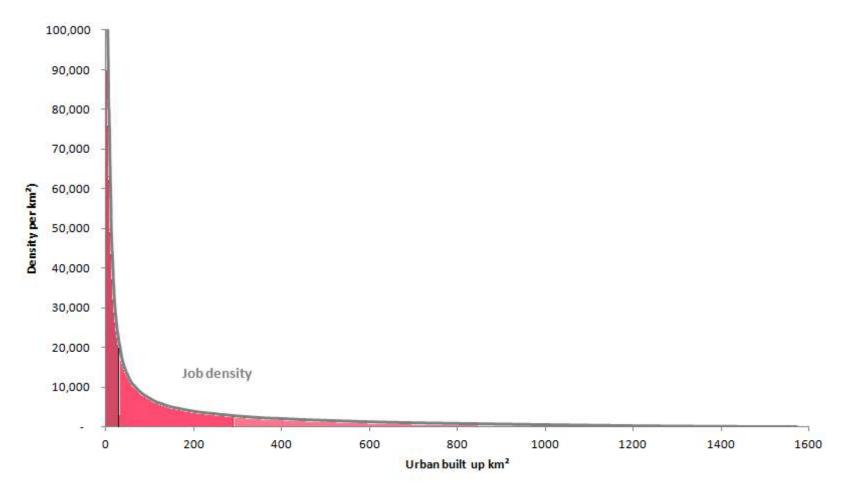
Source: Urban Morphology Institute

Jobs density is highly concentrated in central London

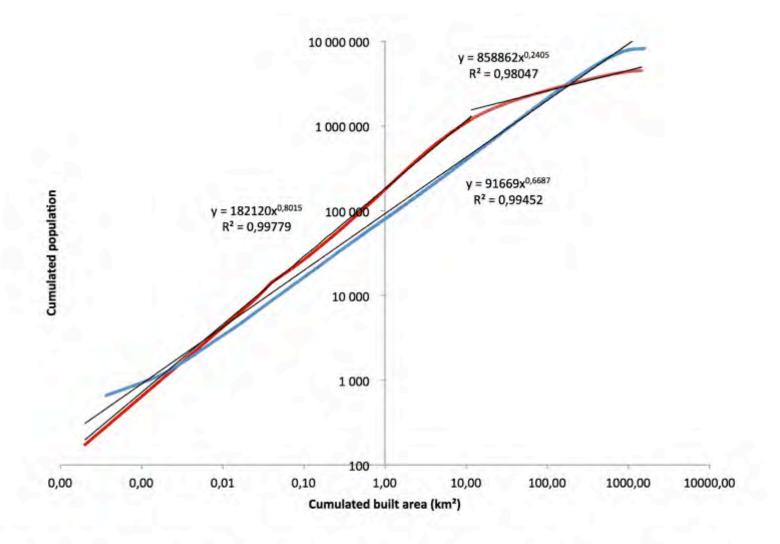


Source: Urban Morphology Institute

London jobs distribution is Paretian with a hierarchy coefficient of -1, which reflects a very strong concentration of economic densities fostering agglomeration economies that are an engine of growth, productivity, and urban competitiveness



Source: Urban Morphology Institute (2015)



Allometric relationship for residential (blue) and job (red) spatial distribution in Greater London. Output areas are ranked by density (residential or jobs). The cumulated population of the N most populated output areas is plotted versus the cumulated area of the N output areas.

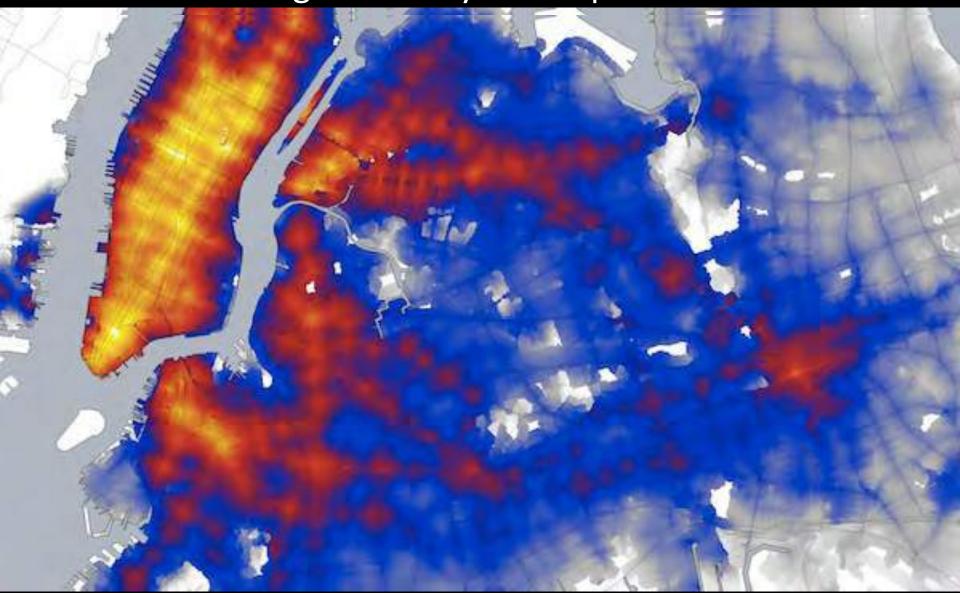
The allometric behavior of the residential population is infralinear with an exponent of 0.66.

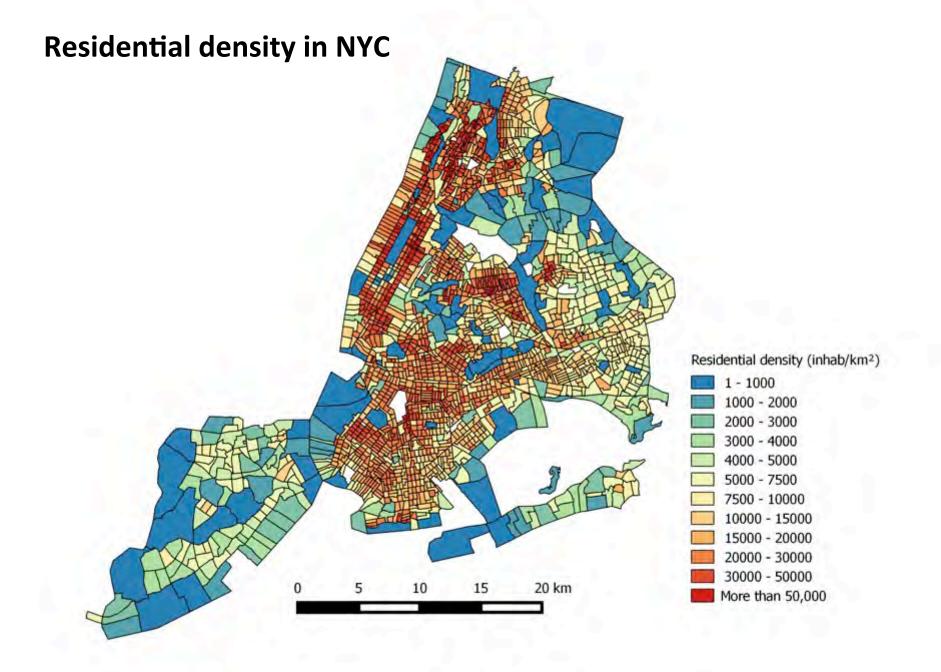
The allometric behavior of the job distribution is infralinear with an exponent of 0.8 within the 12 most populated km² in terms of jobs, and then with an exponent of 0.24 in the rest of the city.

London economic spatial hierarchy is spiky

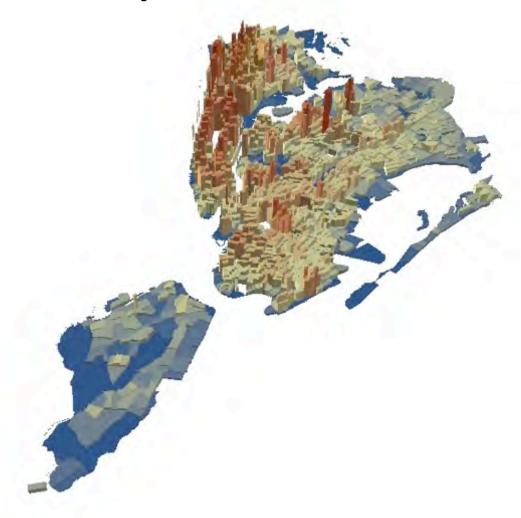
- 8.5 % of UK GDP on 1 square mile (2.9 km)
- 29 % of Inner London office space is in the square mile of the City of London (in less than 1% of Inner London area) with jobs densities of 155,000 per km²
- 40% of London jobs are centrally located in 32 km² (2% of Greater London area)
- 75% of Greater London jobs are in Inner London (20% of Greater London)

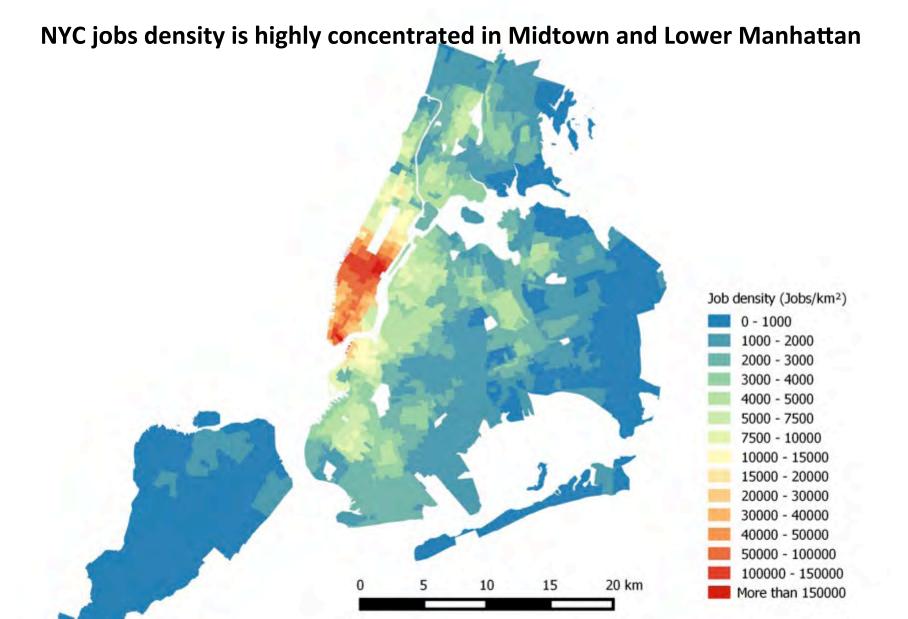
The 30min transit area from high job concentrations defines the high intensity development area in NYC

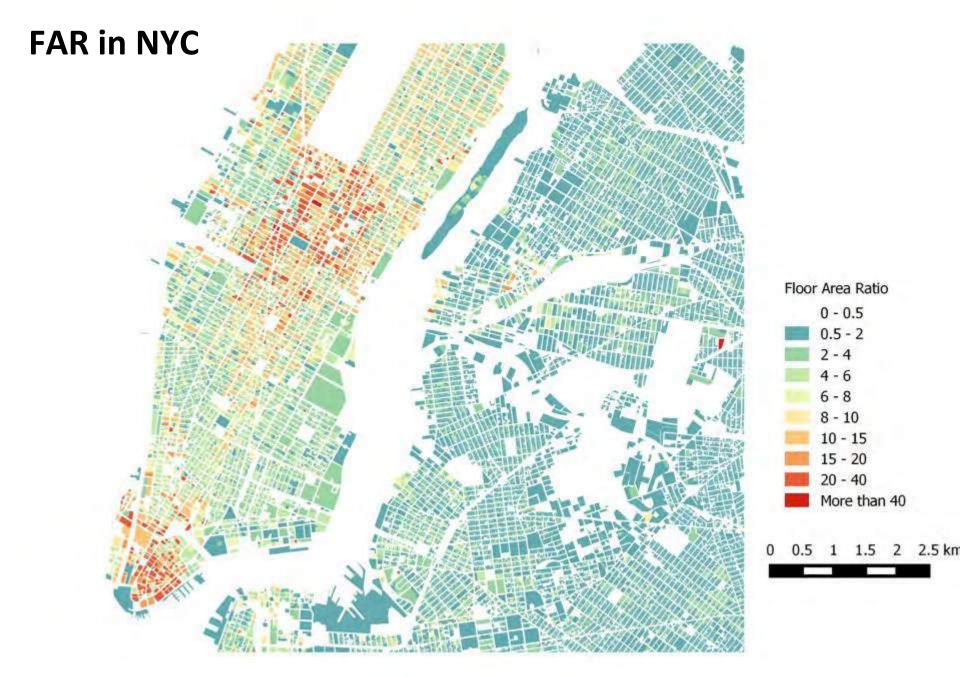




NYC Population density

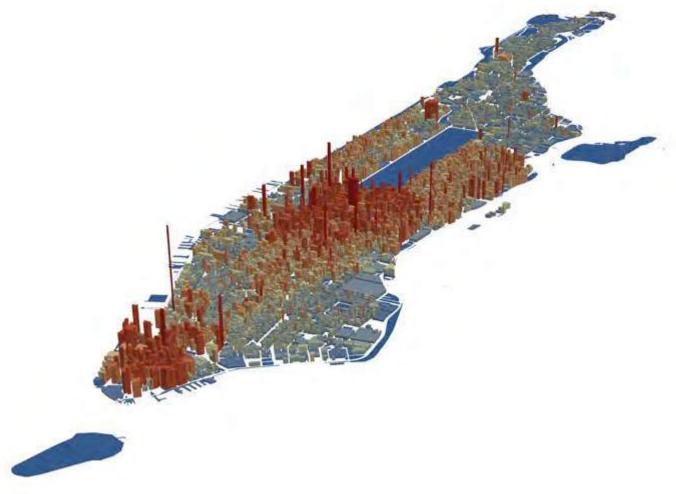






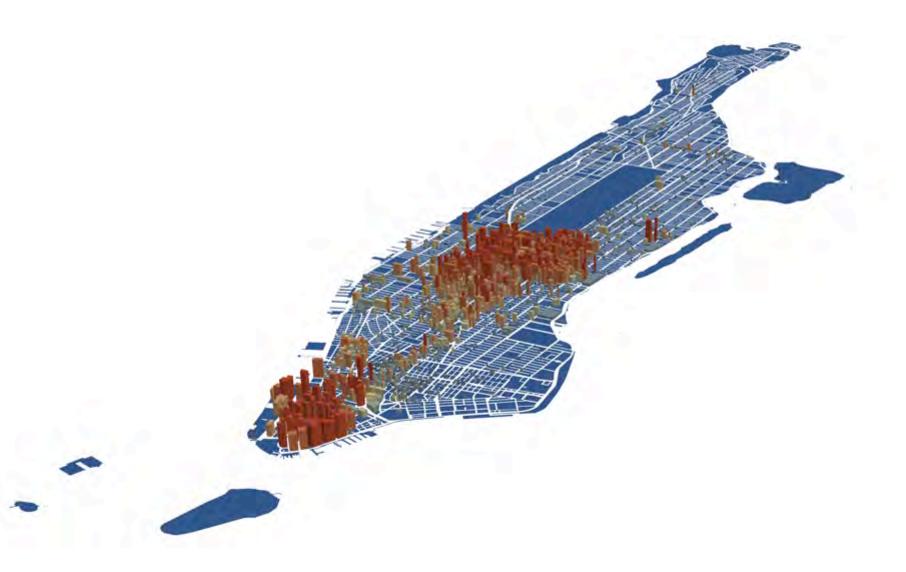
Source: Working paper UMCSII, Urban Morphology Institute ©

FAR in NYC



Source: Working paper UMCSII, Urban Morphology Institute ©

Office FAR in NYC



Source: Working paper UMCSII, Urban Morphology Institute ©

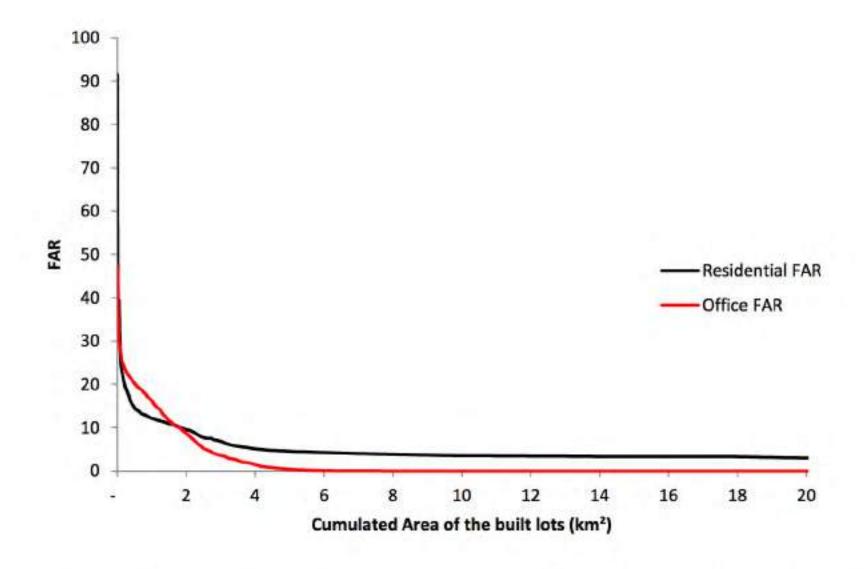
Manhattan

• 40 %

of NY REGION OFFICE SPACE IS IN MIDTOWN

• 60 %

of NY REGION OFFICE SPACE IS IN MIDTOWN +LOWER MANHATTAN



Rank size distribution of floor area ratios (office and residential) for Manhattan. Residential: R^2 =0.88, scaling exponent 0.53. Office: R^2 =0.66, scaling exponent 1.7.

Manhattan

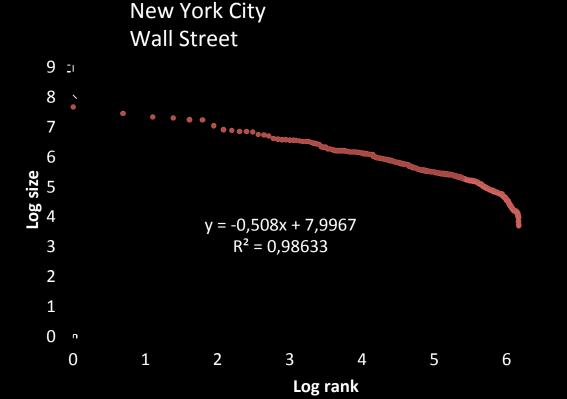
A highly heterogeneous urban landscape within an apparently homogeneous Euclidean grid





Highly adaptive platting follows a mathematical regularity characteristic of scale free complex systems: Frequency of sizes follows an inverse power law

Wall Street's plot area scaling coefficient is similar to Paris reflecting the European origin of this part of the city (New Amsterdam) and its longer evolution The largest plot is 2000 m2.





Source: Working paper UMCSII, Urban Morphology Institute

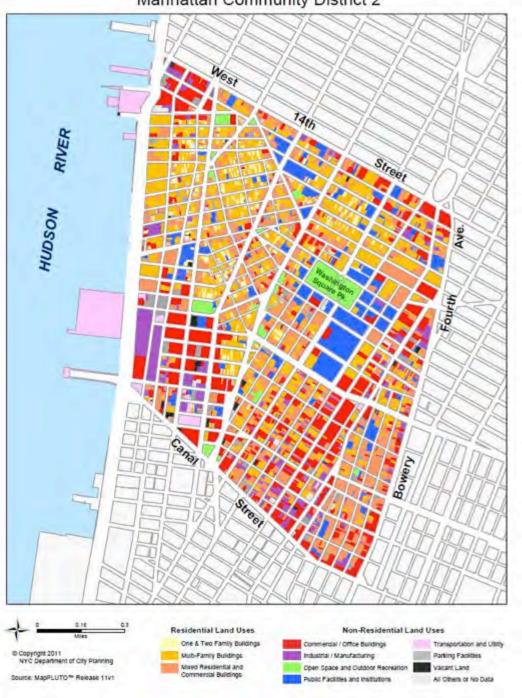
Fine grain diversity

- Fine grain diversity refers to mixed use at the neighborhood and block scale:
 - At the neighborhood scale, it refers to a "smart" mix of residential buildings, offices, shops, and urban amenities.
 - At the block and building scale, mixed use consists of developing small-scale business spaces for offices, workshops, and studios on the ground floor of residential blocks and home-working premises.
- A number of studies of single-use zoning show strong tendencies for residents to travel longer overall distances and to carry out a higher proportion of their travel in private vehicles than residents who live in mixed land use areas in cities. Single-use zoning is a low resilience urban development, because it is highly dependent to individual cars and fossil fuel energy
- Fine grain mixed-use development shortens journeys and promotes transit/walking/cycling and adaptive reuse of buildings. As such it widely contributes to urban resilience.

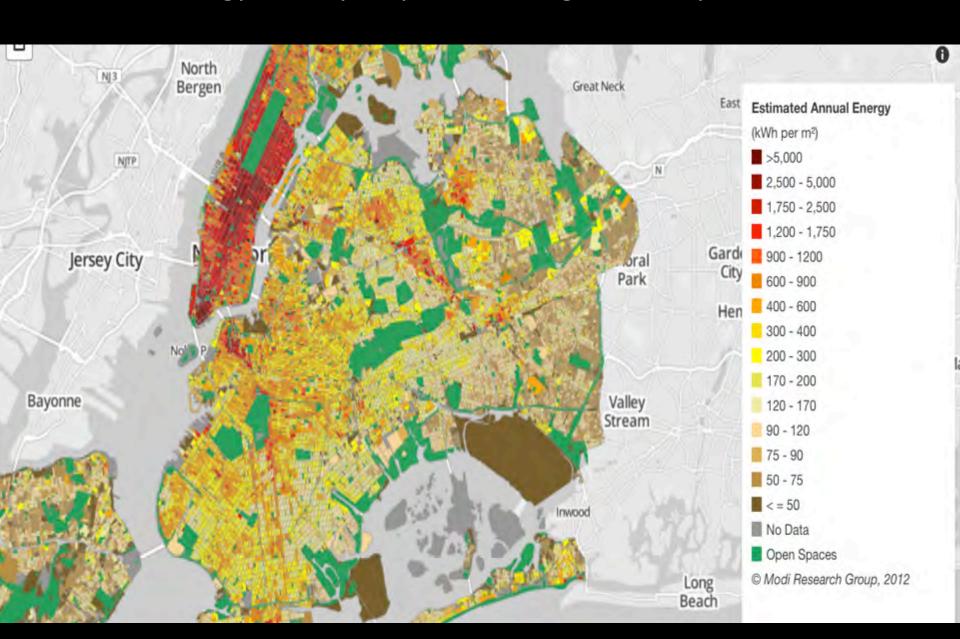


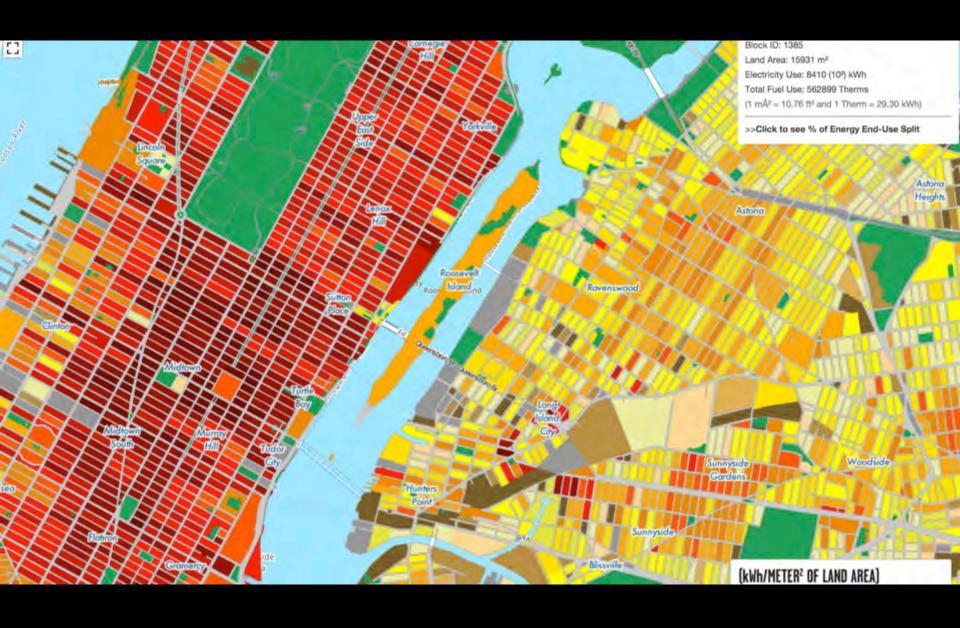


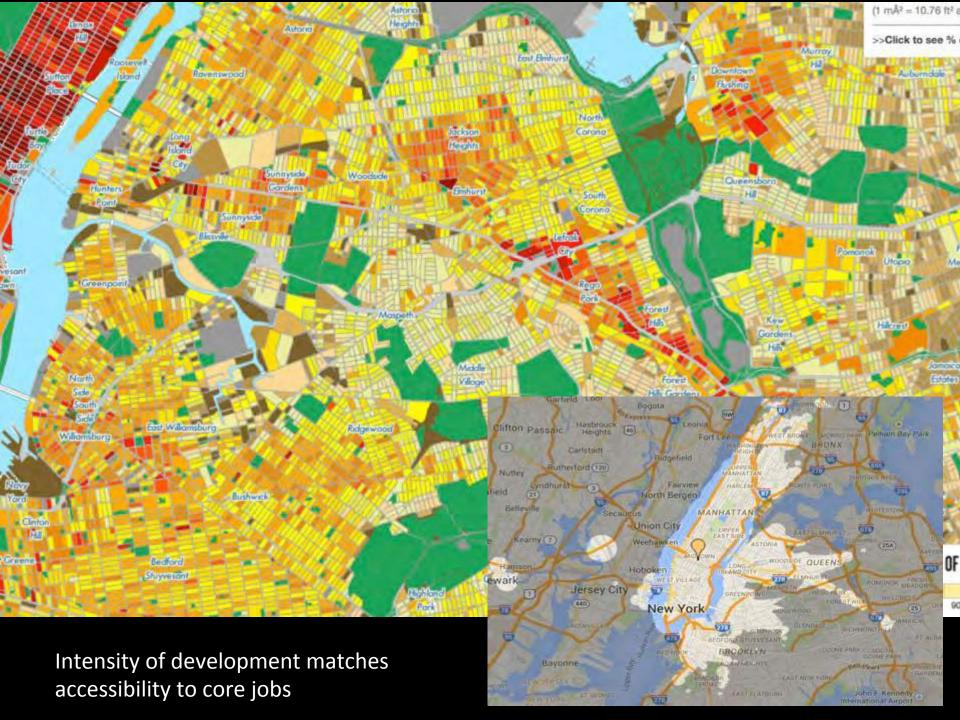
Manhattan Community District 2



Manhattan energy density map shows a high diversity at all scales



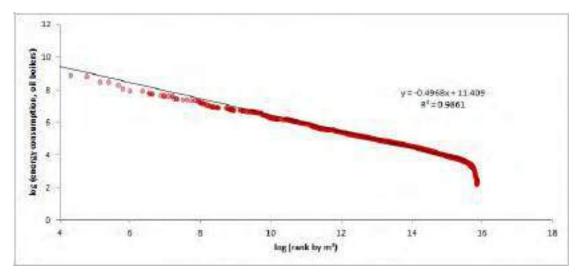


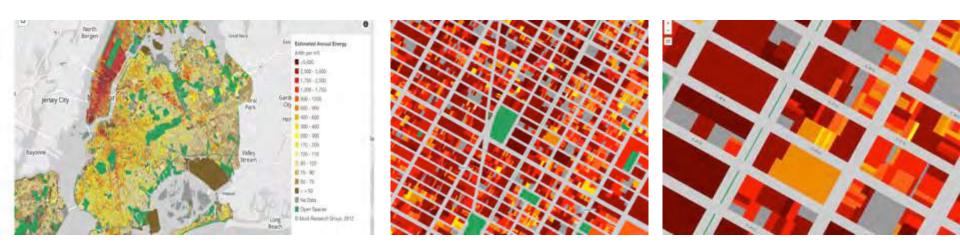






In a city shaped by market forces like New York, energy density at tax lot level (in kWh/m² of land), which is a good proxy of the intensity of land development, varies more than 100-fold and follows an inverse power law





Data Source:

Spatial distribution of urban building energy consumption by end use. B. Howard, L. Parshall, J. Thompson, S. Hammer, J. Dickinson, V. Modi

5. How to address simultaneously challenges to urban quality of life, housing affordability, and urban competitiveness?

Case Studies from London and New York





到**2020**年,约有**5**万人将在国王十字车站 区域学习、生活和工作







King's Cross in the core of London is a major interchange station, at the scale of the city, of UK, and of Europe. King's Cross is a 6 subway lines hub. King's Cross Central combines 2 major train stations (International high speed Eurostar and domestic). Passengers can reach the center of Paris in 2hrs 15, Brussels in 1hr 51 and Lille in 1hr 20. These destinations will be joined by Amsterdam, Cologne and Frankfurt via Deutsche Bahn's high speed ICE. This transport hub is expected to support 63 million passengers a year from 2020.



KING'S CROSS CENTRAL EXAMPLE

国王十字车站范例
CREATING
HIGH PLACE
VALUE IN A
NODE OF
UNIVERSAL
CONNECIVITY

HIGH DENSITY (173,000 JOBS + PEOPLE/KM² IN A SERIES OF OPEN PARKS) WITH A FAR OF 4.6

Source: Argent

King's Cross Central
250 million £ investment in
20 new streets and 10 new public spaces have leveraged
2.2 billion £ of private investment
国王十字车站
对2.5条街道和10个新建公
共场所,投资20亿英镑

PRINCIPAL OPEN SPACE BUILT SPACE * ACRES * Built space includes associated public spaces such as courtyards and gardens Source: Argent

Public realm公共区域

2 Billion £ (21 Billion RMB) already spent in local transport infrastructure and public realm)

20亿英镑(**210**亿人民币)用于当地交通基础设施和公共区域建设 A third of the site (10 ha) dedicated to new public streets and open spaces

三分之一的场地(10公顷)用于建新的公共线路与开放空间 20 major streets created 建设20条主要街道 10 new public spaces 10个公共空间

Including 5 major squares totaling 3.2 ha 包括3.2公顷的5大广场



London King's Cross Central伦敦国王十字车站

Mixed use 混合用途

5000 students (Granary Complex) 5000名学生(谷仓型大楼)

650 student's housing rooms 650间学生宿舍50 new buildings 50栋新建筑

Residential buildings (2000 homes including affordable homes)

住宅建筑(2000户,包括经济适用住房) Office buildings (One Pancras Square) 办公建筑 (一处潘克拉斯广场)

A concentration of high tech economy

高技术经济中心

Google new UK headquarters is a low-rise building longer (330 m) than the Shard skyscraper is tall. 谷歌的英国新总部是一所低层建筑,其高度(330米)大于Shard摩天大楼。

Google has spent about 650 million £ (RMB 6.8 Billion) to buy and develop a 1 ha site. The finished development will be worth up to 1 billion £ (RMB 10.5 billion) . Google presence is expected to draw other technology companies to King's Cross - especially small start-ups - and help bump up rents.

谷歌耗费约6.5亿英镑(68亿人民币)购买并开发一块1公顷土地。完工后价值将升值至10亿英镑(105亿人民币)。谷歌进驻将吸引其他技术公司进驻英王十字中心 - 尤其是小型创业公司 - 并可帮助提升租金。

Value creation创造价值

50 new and restored buildings and structures 50所新建及修复建筑和设施 GOOGLE UK headquarter 1 Billion £ per ha 谷歌英国总部每公顷10亿



Source: Argent

New York region by 2025: 440,000 new jobs requiring 12 million m² of new space

Hudson Yards Project:

- 22 ha
- 2.5 million m² of new office space
- 13,500 new housing units, inc 4,000 affordable units
- 110,000 m² of new retail space
- 220,000 m² of new hotels

Market value is created by a high spike of economic density (20% of NY jobs growth by 2050)





Source: Hudson Yards website



Market value is fostered by place value high quality public space and small Manhattan blocks at pedestrian level with the High Line with an investment of 600 million \$ in public realm and landscaping



Source: Hudson Yards website

Market value is fostered by high place value (mixed use)



Source: Hudson Yards website

HUDSON YARDS

Adopted Zoning-Base/ Maximum FARs

Land Use

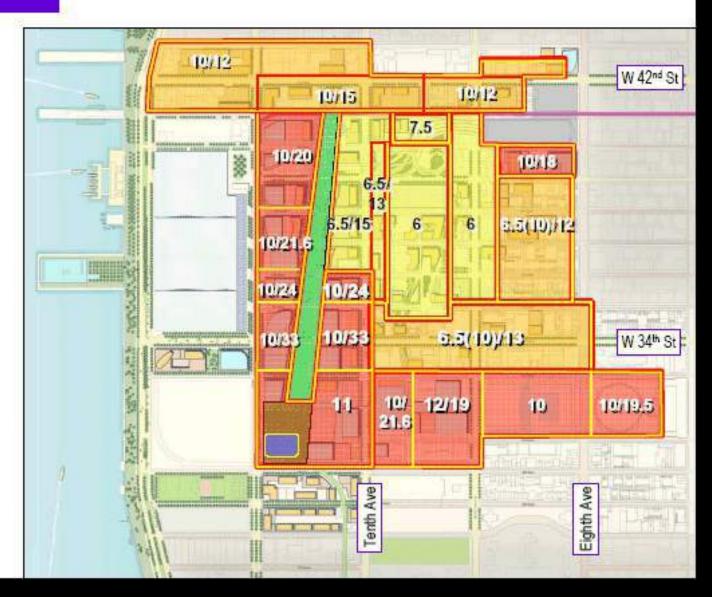
predominantly residential

mixed use

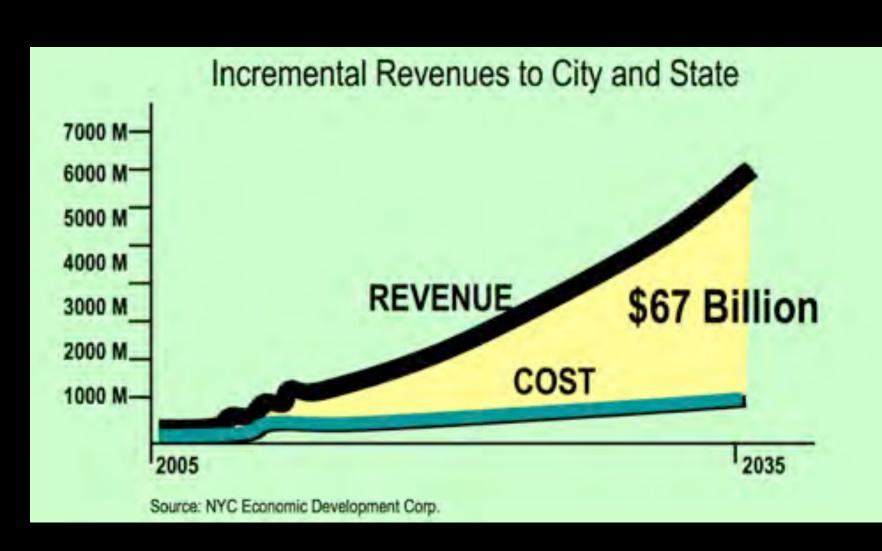
predominantly commercial

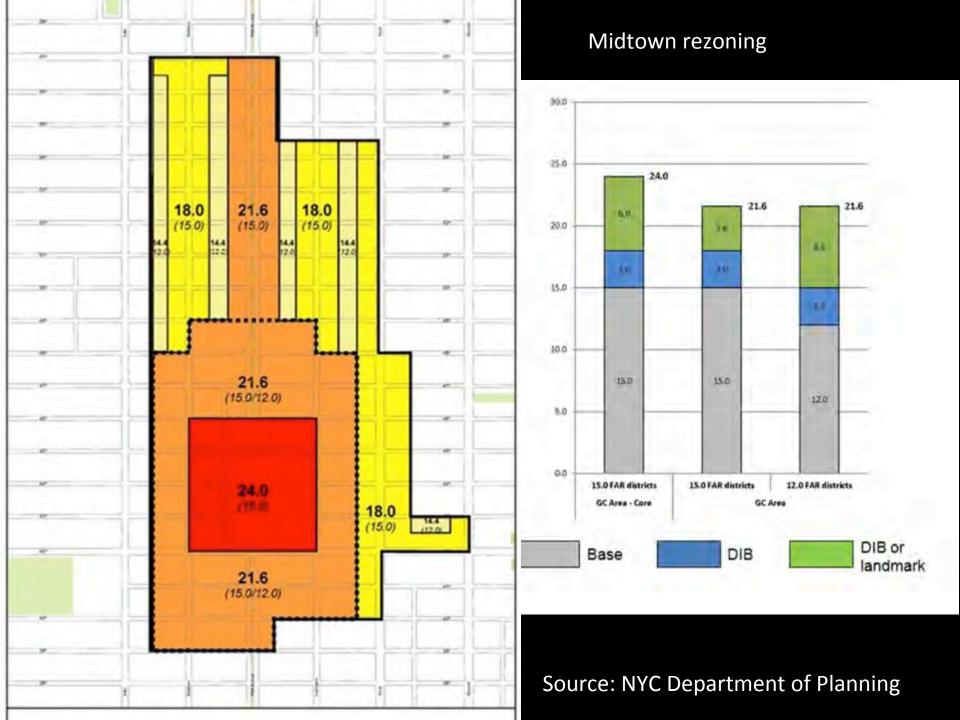
open space

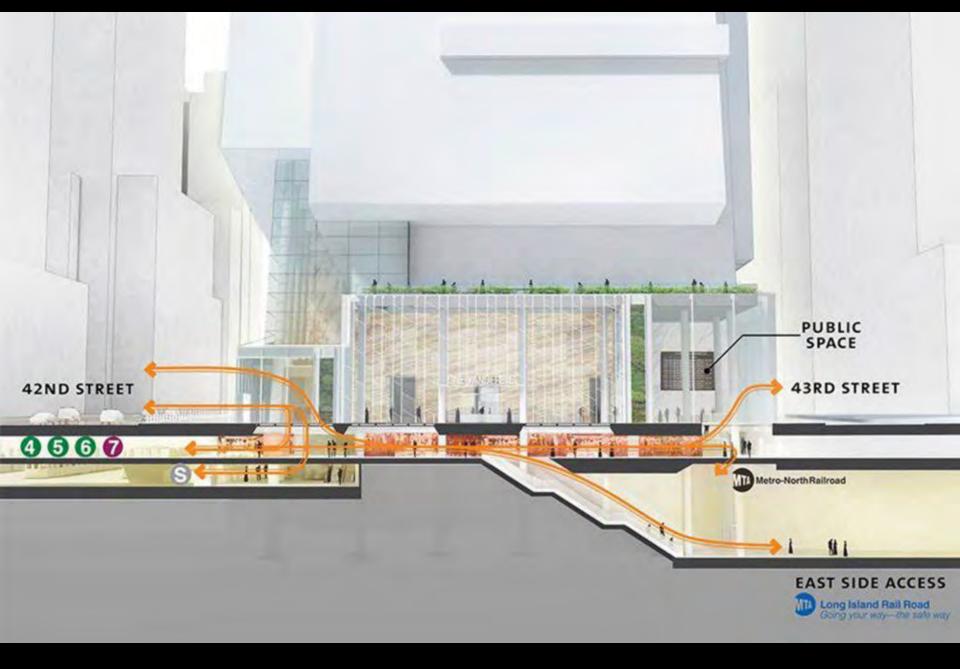
institutional



Source: NYC Department of Planning

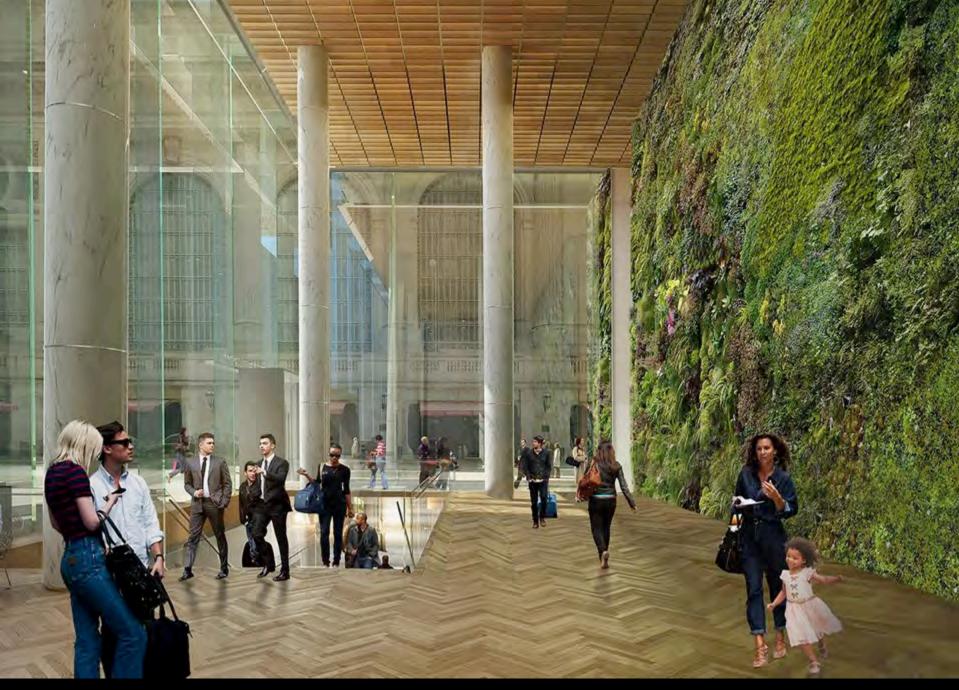










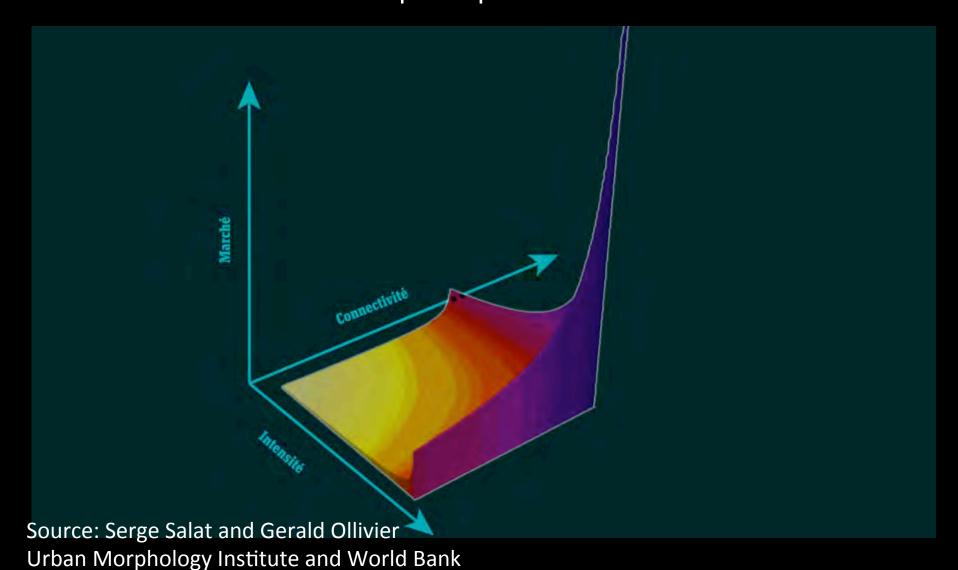




6. The 3 V Framework

Guiding local authorities and planners to prioritize TOD investment with a set of indicators addressing connectivity and accessibility, urban design and planning at local scale (street patterns, high quality urban fabric, mix use) as well as economic levers to create market value through the integration of urban form and transportation.

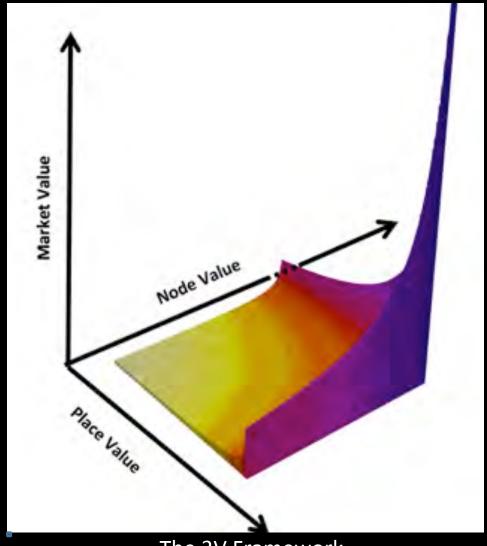
The alignment of high node value and high place value creates the highest peaks of market value and the highest spikes of value capture potential



The "3V Framework"

"3V框架"

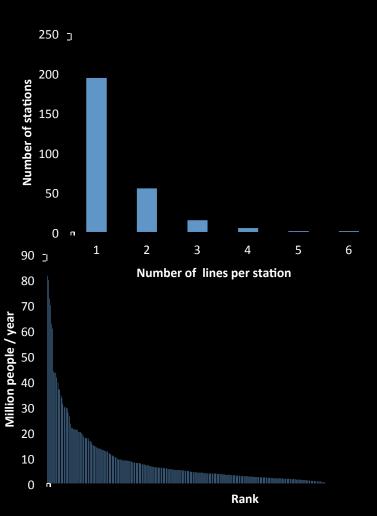
- Node Value based on its location in the network
- 节点价值—基于网络中的位置
- Place Value based on its urban qualities
- 场所价值—基于城市空间 质量
- Market Value, based on its economic potential
- 市场价值—基于经济潜力



The 3V Framework

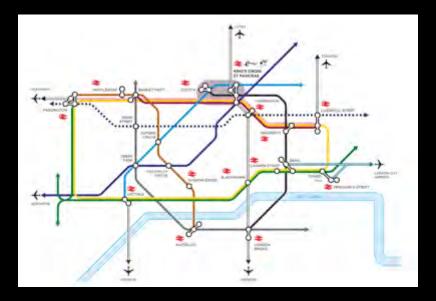
Node Value (London Tube) 节点价值(伦敦地铁)





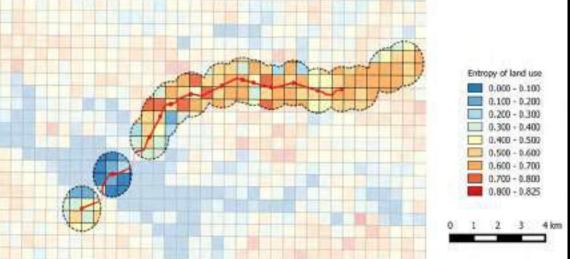
Source: Urban Morphology Institute

- Hub, Interchange, Single station
- 枢纽、换乘、单一站点
- Diversity of connectivity
- 多样的连接性
- Node Accessibility/Centrality
- 节点可达性/集中性
- Intensity of node activity
- 节点活动的密集性



Place Value 场所价值

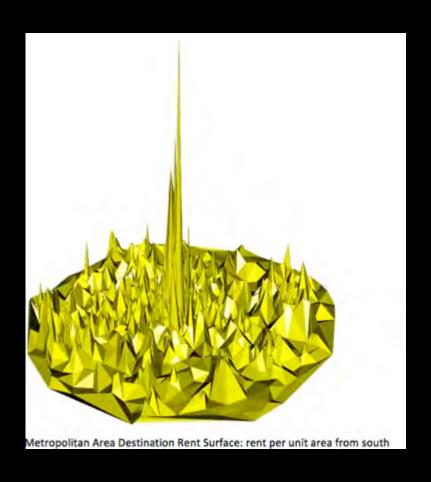




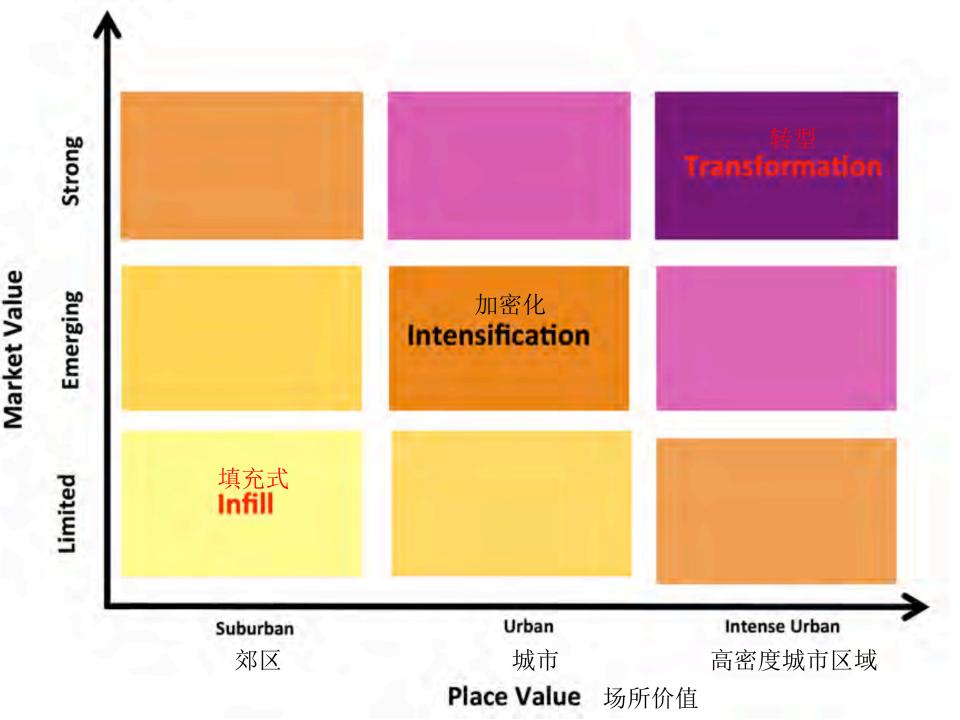
- Mix of land uses
- 土地混合使用
- Density of social infrastructure
- 社会基础设施密度
- Compactness
- 紧凑性
- Physical form and street patterns
- 空间形式和街道形态
- Walkability and bikability
- 步行及自行车友好

Source: Urban Morphology Institute

Market Value 市场价值



- Economic attractiveness for developers (job densities/ accessibility; People density)
- 对开发商的经济吸引(就业密度/可达性,人口密度)
- Land and real estate opportunities (FAR/unbuilt land)
- 土地和房地产机会(容积率/未建成地)
- Market prices and activity
- 市场价格和活动
- Land shortage at city level
- 城市层面的土地短缺



Urban morphology, spatial planning, and spatial economics have significant implications for climate change mitigation, infrastructure costs, social inclusiveness and economic competitiveness of cities.

The articulation of density in a "spiky" geography of growth connected by dense networks reduces developments costs, creates more wealth, inclusiveness and competitiveness, and contributes to climate change mitigation and to a significant increase of structural resilience.

Thank you 谢谢

Serge SALAT

serge.salat@free.fr

www.urbanmorphologyinstitute.org

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