

Assessing the Environmental Capacity of Local Residential Streets

November 15, 2012

(Word Count: 6579 + 5 figures/tables)

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The inherent conflict between the residential amenity and traffic access functions of roads
3 causes debate on what constitutes a true “local” street. The concept of ‘environmental capacity’
4 was developed to identify a suitable maximum traffic volume on such local streets. In separate
5 research in the 1960s–1970s, both Buchanan and Appleyard settled on broad-brush traffic
6 thresholds of 2,000–3,000 vehicles/day. Since then, other research has relied heavily on these
7 original findings; this paper investigates that presumption in the present day.

8 A residents’ survey was applied to four conventional “local” streets with varying traffic
9 volumes in Christchurch, New Zealand. Residents living on those streets with higher volumes
10 felt that their streets were busier, noisier and less safe. There was also an increasing trend for
11 residents along higher volume streets to have their houses turned away from the street and they
12 tended to have less personal involvement and/or knowledge of their neighbors. A more
13 appropriate environmental capacity appeared to be around 1,500–2,000 vehicles/day.

14 A subsequent study looked at further Christchurch streets, this time with treatments such
15 as street calming and tree plantings, aiming to see whether the street treatments affected the
16 perceived environmental capacity. As well as reinforcing the previous conclusions, a higher
17 environmental capacity of around 2,000 vehicles/day was found for the surveyed streets. This
18 suggests that appropriate street treatments can increase the environmental capacity, which has
19 implications for local councils who want to maintain road traffic carrying capabilities without
20 having unsatisfied residents.

21

1 INTRODUCTION

2 There appears to be an increasing trend for non-residential activities (such as education
3 and health facilities) to establish along local residential streets, which some people would argue
4 are to the detriment of residential amenity. Additionally, many local streets become attractive for
5 through-traffic to other destinations. Often these non-residential activities develop in a piecemeal
6 fashion and in a manner that appears to disregard actual or potential cumulative effects that
7 might result from increasing traffic. While it is generally true that the geometric capacity of these
8 streets can cater for these additional traffic volumes, the actual and potential effects on
9 residential amenity are frequently concluded to have effects that are “less than minor”. This often
10 appears to be determined without any real justification – whether quantitatively or qualitatively.

11 While it is accepted that residential amenity effects are rather qualitative and subjective
12 (as one person’s perception and opinion often differs from another), there is likely to be some
13 correlation between increasing traffic volumes and the degradation of residential amenity. This
14 suggests that it might be possible to take an existing street and, after examination of some key
15 elements, to define the volume and character of the traffic permissible in the street so that it is
16 consistent with good environmental conditions. Buchanan, in his seminal thesis *Traffic in*
17 *Towns (I)*, first introduced the concept of “environmental capacity,” which is likely to be much
18 lower than the theoretical numbers of automobiles that the street could cater for physically. Since
19 then, there has been debate on environmental capacity, particularly in reference to the acceptable
20 upper limits of tolerable traffic on local streets. These differences are probably explained by
21 many varying factors – perhaps volumes themselves, street widths, speeds, building setbacks,
22 etc. These issues may also be perceived differently from one resident to another. In any instance,
23 the answer is still not clear.

24 A widely used rule of thumb in the traffic planning and engineering profession is that a
25 local residential street has an environmental capacity of 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day. This paper
26 sheds some light on this presumption; it is based on research undertaken in the New Zealand city
27 of Christchurch (2, 3). The overall objective of this research was to determine the environmental
28 capacity of selected local residential streets in a Christchurch context, although this method is
29 likely to provide a useful contribution to the international discussion of this topic. A secondary
30 objective of this research was to see whether or not street treatments, such as traffic calming and
31 plantings, could increase the environmental capacity of local streets, by altering residents’
32 perceptions of their livability.

33

1 BACKGROUND LITERATURE

2 The idea of increasing residential amenity and livability along local residential streets is
3 not new; it goes back over 100 years when the “garden city” concept was first introduced in the
4 United Kingdom (4). This has since led to a continual desire to balance amenity needs and traffic
5 effects – especially with increasing traffic volumes. The garden city idea was particularly
6 influential in the United States, where a number of settlements were planned during the early 20th
7 century using this format, as well as in many other countries (5).

8 As the motor car became more widespread and traffic volumes grew, the inherent conflict
9 between the amenity and access functions of roads created the debate on what constitutes a true
10 “local” street and what functions should take precedence. Such issues also found their way into
11 discussion about urban planning and redevelopment (6).

12 The Buchanan Report

13 This concept of environmental capacity appears to have been first raised by Colin
14 Buchanan (an architect, civil engineer and planner) in *Traffic in Towns (1)*. This was an
15 influential and popular report on urban and transport planning policy for the United Kingdom in
16 the 1960s. Although Buchanan never intended to write about environmental capacity, it was an
17 issue that arose and he consequently made an attempt to define some possible methods of
18 calculating it.

19 Buchanan firstly recognized that traffic on residential streets affects the environment in
20 many ways, including noise, fumes, vibration and the danger for people wishing to cross the
21 street. He then explored the possibility that the environmental capacity could be assessed, for
22 practical purposes, by the ease in which the street can be crossed by pedestrians; if this critical
23 condition could be satisfied, then it is likely that needs relating to noise, fumes, etc would also be
24 satisfied.

25 Buchanan suggested that the level of risk might be measured by the delay a pedestrian is
26 subjected to when waiting to cross the road. The average delay for pedestrians will depend upon
27 the volume of traffic and the width of the road. Buchanan assumed an average delay of two
28 seconds as a rough guide to the borderline between acceptable and unacceptable conditions. Any
29 greater delay would imply that most people have to adapt their movements to give way to
30 automobiles, a situation not compatible with the idea of an “environmental area”.

31 Buchanan further refined his method to consider the proportion of “vulnerable”
32 pedestrians (children, elderly, parents with prams, etc) and the level of “protection” afforded by
33 the street (i.e. parked cars, vehicle speeds, footpath continuity, etc). In order to explore the
34 practical effect of these variables, Buchanan studied ~50 examples of residential streets with
35 traffic flows ranging from 10 to 1500 vehicles per hour. From this, Buchanan derived a series of
36 graphs that enabled the environmental capacity to be determined for any carriageway width and
37 for any levels of ‘vulnerability’ and ‘protection.’ Figure 1 shows an example of one such graph,
38 for streets with a high level of pedestrian protection (“Type A”).

39

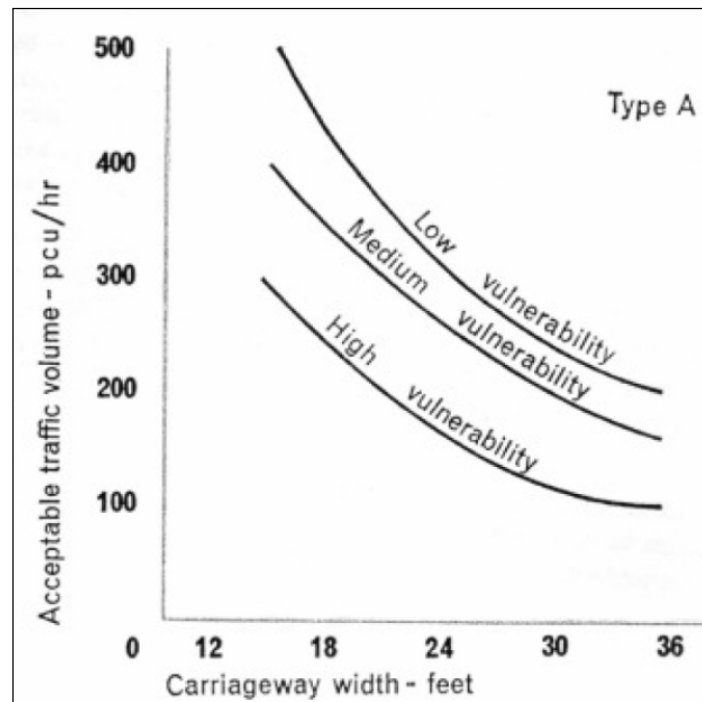


FIGURE 1 Example of Maximum Acceptable Traffic Volumes (Buchanan 1963)

In the New Zealand context, where residential streets are typically at least 10 m (33 ft) wide, Buchanan's work suggests that maximum daily traffic volumes of 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day are acceptable, although that figure will be less where there are low levels of pedestrian protection or high proportions of vulnerable pedestrians.

Appleyard's Livable Streets

In the late 1960s and 1970s, Donald Appleyard (a Professor of Urban Design at UC Berkeley) conducted a renowned study on residents' perceptions of their streets, comparing three residential streets in San Francisco that (on the surface) did not differ in much but their levels of traffic. This was documented in the widely acknowledged publication *Livable Streets* (7), although the original research had been undertaken somewhat earlier (8). One of these streets carried 2,000 vehicles/day (which he termed as a "Light Street"), one carried 8,000 vehicles/day (a "Medium Street"), and the final street carried 16,000 vehicles/day (a "Heavy Street"). In simple terms, Appleyard's research showed that residents on the Light Street had three more friends and twice as many acquaintances living on the street than the people on the Heavy Street. Further, as traffic volume increased, the space people considered to be their "territory" shrank.

Appleyard suggested that the Light Street was a "closely knit community." For example, front steps of the houses were used for sitting and chatting, sidewalks were used by children to play and the carriageway was even used to play more active games like football. Moreover, the street was seen as a whole and no part was out of bounds. The Heavy Street, on the other hand, had little or no sidewalk activity and was used solely as a corridor between the sanctuary of individual homes and the outside world. Residents kept very much to themselves, and there was virtually no feeling of community. The difference in the perceptions and experience of children and the elderly across the two streets was especially striking.

1 Appleyard clearly identified the connection between residential amenity and traffic
2 volume. Although he settled on a maximum reasonable environmental capacity for a residential
3 street of around 3,000 vehicles/day, he made the point that the 2,000 vehicles/day level was a
4 threshold above which increasing numbers of residents would become concerned about traffic
5 levels on their street. There was however no real rationale as to why he reduced the 'desirable'
6 threshold from 3,000 to 2,000, although it was interesting to note that his lower level aligned
7 with Buchanan's research. Thus, any street with peak flows greater than 200-300 vehicles per
8 hour (or 2,000-3,000/day) was seen as an indicator of exceeding environmental capacity.

9 Appleyard's work, despite being based on perceptions that could be construed as being
10 location-specific and somewhat subjective, appeared to be simple, yet credible and logical at the
11 same time. Appleyard's study method was subsequently repeated in other research in New York
12 (9) and Bristol, United Kingdom (10), and similar relationships were found between traffic
13 volumes and neighborhood interaction.

14 **The Effects of Street Treatments**

15 From a network planning perspective it might be relatively difficult to counter growing
16 volumes of traffic on some local streets, thus leading to a risk of greater resident dissatisfaction.
17 An alternative management technique might be to introduce various attractive features to the
18 streetscape so that the improved environment somewhat "cancels out" any increase in traffic
19 volumes.

20 In a similar study to Appleyard's, conducted in New York and California,
21 Bosselmann *et al* (11) found that high-volume (24,000-44,000 vehicles/day) "boulevards", where
22 local access side lanes are separated from the main carriageways by landscaped medians, were
23 rated as more livable than neighboring, conventionally designed streets with medium traffic
24 volumes (4,000-14,000 vehicles/day). This suggests that appropriate street treatments can raise
25 the acceptable environmental capacity of a local street.

26 Traffic calming (i.e. treatments to slow down automobile speeds) also has the potential to
27 improve the perceived street environment. According to Litman (12), potential benefits of traffic
28 calming include road safety, increased comfort and mobility for non-motorized travel, reduced
29 environmental impacts, increased neighborhood interaction, and increased property values.
30 Traffic calming can thus help create more livable communities, tending to provide the greatest
31 benefits to pedestrians, bicyclists and local residents. Buchanan's earlier work (see Figure 1) also
32 supports the theory that street narrowing work allows more traffic to be tolerated.

33 As well as making a street look more attractive, streets trees can also provide numerous
34 benefits to residents. Drivers typically travel more slowly on streets with trees, due to their
35 calming effect, and drivers seem at least subconsciously aware that, where there are trees, there
36 are often pedestrians and children playing. Wide streets where the buildings are small and set
37 back can feel primarily like a transportation corridor, not a place where people live, unless this
38 effect is mitigated by lining the street with trees. Jacobs (13) cites research showing that, for
39 many people, trees are the most important single characteristic of a "good street". Trees
40 alongside streets also reduce the amount of engine noise by slowing down drivers and absorbing
41 a lot of noise before it reaches private yards and homes.

1 Other Environmental Capacity Methods

2 A variety of other techniques have been identified, particularly in North America and
3 Australia, for determining the relative effect of new developments on existing local streets:

- 4 1. RTA's *Guide to Traffic Generating Developments (14)*, commonly used by traffic
5 planners and engineers in Australasia, sets out a desirable maximum peak volume (the
6 "environmental goal") of 200 vehicles/hour and an absolute maximum of 300
7 vehicles/hour for local 40 km/h (25 mph) streets. RTA suggests that there may be
8 situations where alterations to these levels might be appropriate, e.g. if a street has a
9 central median.
- 10 2. The "Traffic Infusion on Residential Environment" (TIRE) index (15), used in a number
11 of North American cities, is an alternative approach to evaluating impacts on local streets
12 to evaluate the change in average vehicles/day along a street segment. The TIRE index
13 provides a numerical representation of residents' perceptions of the effect of traffic on
14 residential activities and has values that range from 0.0 to 5.0. A change of 0.1 or more
15 indicates that traffic would be noticeable to residents in an affected neighborhood,
16 equating to approximately a 25% increase in traffic volumes. The TIRE Index however
17 doesn't define a threshold at which a volume change should be considered unacceptable
18 or a significant impact.
- 19 3. The Australian Model Code for Residential Development (AMCORD, 16) is a national
20 resource document for integrated residential development and refers to four key
21 performance areas for new developments: noise, air pollution, crossing delay, and
22 pedestrian safety (the latter regarded as the most important criterion). AMCORD
23 proposes different environmental capacity values for each criterion and, while they do not
24 provide any definitive rule-of-thumb figures (as each situation and local area should be
25 considered on its individual merits), reference is often made to 2,000 vehicles/day in
26 many instances.
- 27 4. The City of Portland developed an "Impact Threshold Curve" (17), for determining
28 whether the secondary or unintentional impacts of neighborhood traffic management
29 projects are acceptable (typically in terms of increased traffic on local roads). The
30 standard impact curve provides for an increase of between 150-400 vehicles/day on local
31 streets, but with the resulting traffic volumes not to exceed 3,000 vehicles/day. Because
32 of the error inherent in the collection of traffic volume data due to daily volume
33 fluctuation, the curve is presented as a wide band of values rather than a single curve. The
34 standard impact curve may also be modified to account for factors such as the proportion
35 of non-local or re-routed traffic, peak hour volumes, and truck traffic.

36 Although some of the above methods have incorporated other research (e.g. 18, 19, 20),
37 most of it still has some basis in the work of Buchanan and/or Appleyard. Note that some other
38 researchers have also used the term "environmental capacity" in different contexts, such as the
39 traffic volume at which local pollution limits are not exceeded (e.g. 21, 22). This is quite
40 different to the concept here of a qualitative measure of residents' satisfaction with traffic-related
41 impacts on their streets.

42 In summary, the idea of environmental thresholds or capacity with regard to traffic
43 volumes has been bandied around for some time, yet there appears to be little modern research

1 on the topic. Both Buchanan (1) and Appleyard (7) settled on broad-brush traffic thresholds of
 2 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day, which were based on their own observations, surveys, and
 3 assumptions. A literature review on environmental capacity reveals that all other research since
 4 then heavily relies on the original Buchanan and Appleyard findings and that there has been little
 5 questioning of the validity of the original information in the present day. Perhaps one reason lies
 6 with the fact that issues involving traffic volumes have traditionally fallen within the domain of
 7 traffic engineers and other environmental considerations (such as amenity) have been in the
 8 domain of town planners.

9 CASE STUDY 1 – CHRISTCHURCH 2008-09

10 To explore these issues further, a residents' survey (using similar techniques and
 11 questions to those used by Appleyard) was applied to some "local" streets with varying traffic
 12 volumes in the New Zealand city of Christchurch (2). Four Christchurch streets in the same
 13 suburb were selected because they were similar in appearance (relatively conventional or
 14 "untreated"), yet quite different in traffic volumes. Table 1 summarizes their key characteristics.
 15 The intention was to include streets with varying traffic between 500 and 3000 vehicles/day;
 16 these were labeled LIGHT, LOW, MEDIUM and HIGH accordingly.

17

18

TABLE 1 Christchurch streets surveyed – Case Study 1 (Untreated Streets)

	Murdoch Street	Jennifer Street	Aorangi Road (northeast)	Aorangi Road (southwest)
Daily Traffic Volume (veh/day)	560 (LIGHT)	1090 (LOW)	2120 (MEDIUM)	3530 (HIGH)
Length of street (m)	170	580	630	300
Number of households	14	67	99	42
Carriageway width, in meters (feet)	8.0 (26)	11.0 (36)	14.0 (46)	14.0 (46)
Mean / 85th %ile speeds, in km/h (mph)	37 / 42 (23 / 26)	46 / 53 (29 / 33)	50 / 56 (31 / 35)	51 / 57 (32 / 36)

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Other characteristics worthy of mention include:

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22

- All four streets are generally characterized by stand-alone suburban residential houses rather than commercial activity.

23

24

- All streets are classified as local roads in the City Plan, and provide through-access to other local streets (i.e. not culs-de-sac).

25

26

- All streets appear to share a similar socio-economic status by virtue of their proximity to each other and with similar housing stock characteristics.

- 1 • All street are within 500 m (1600ft) radius of each other, directly linking with a main
2 arterial road providing access to and from the inner City.
- 3 • All streets have a posted speed limit of 50 km/h (31 mph).
- 4 • All streets have no dedicated bus routes running along them.
- 5 • All streets have sidewalks along both sides, with no pedestrian crossing facilities.
- 6 • Other than Murdoch St (LIGHT) all streets had grass berms and occasional small
7 street trees.
- 8 • All streets display typical residential “tidal flow” characteristics during peak hour
9 periods, which represent around 10% of the total daily volume.

10 It is acknowledged that there are some differences in street width and length, and this
11 may be affecting traffic speeds and resulting survey outcomes.

12 The study generally drew on resident perceptions using a letterbox questionnaire, which
13 asked several broad questions relating to residential amenity such as:

- 14 • whether they know their neighbors
- 15 • whether the road is noisy
- 16 • whether they are delayed in crossing the street
- 17 • whether they consider the volume of traffic as high
- 18 • whether they would let their children play on the street

19 Perception questions were generally posed with a three or five-point descriptive scale.
20 Given that the traffic volumes of each street were known, the responses to each question could
21 be compared to those volumes. This information could then be used to examine the impact of
22 traffic on street life. Essentially it was a simple, yet structured way to analyze the variables that
23 might contribute to the complicated interaction between traffic and residents’ livability.

24 The use of a reply-post questionnaire was governed by limited resources (i.e. time and
25 costs), which ruled out formal interviewing and/or direct observation. A \$50 lucky prize
26 provided an incentive to respond and the overall response rate for all four streets was 37%.
27 Attempts were also made to word the questionnaire in such a way that no particular answer
28 would be favored over others, but no random ordering of questions or possible responses was
29 employed. It is important to remember that a key aim was to mimic as much as possible the
30 questions posed by Appleyard in his study.

31 **Results**

32 The number of survey responses for each street ranged from just five on the LIGHT street
33 to 36 on the MEDIUM street (response rates between 34% - 43%). Admittedly, the limited
34 number of respondents on some streets might be susceptible to random variation, although the
35 resulting trends proved remarkably consistent (it should be remembered too that Appleyard’s
36 seminal study only interviewed 12 residents per street). Over 90% of respondents owned their
37 homes (i.e. not renting), which is high even by New Zealand standards and may reflect a
38 response bias.

1 Table 2 summarizes results from the key survey questions. Note that some of the
 2 questions had multiple-choice options and only the proportion of answers in the “worst” one or
 3 two response options are presented. Almost consistently, there is a clear trend in responses from
 4 the LIGHT street through to the HIGH street.

5

6 **TABLE 2 Survey Questionnaire Results – Case Study 1 (Untreated Streets)**

Survey Question	Murdoch Street	Jennifer Street	Aorangi Road (northeast)	Aorangi Road (southwest)
Traffic Volume	(LIGHT)	(LOW)	(MEDIUM)	(HIGH)
Number of responses	5	23	36	18
Rear-section Property?	0%	9%	39%	53%
Main living area in your house generally faces away from the street?	0%	43%	61%	83%
Front sections: do you have a fence in the front yard that blocks street views? <i>Yes</i>	60%	65%	72%	89%
Would you feel comfortable with children playing unsupervised on or near the street? <i>No</i>	60%	70%	86%	89%
Do you know any of your neighbors personally? <i>No</i>	20%	32%	33%	58%
Do traffic volumes along this road create a barrier to social connection with neighbors?	0%	9%	11%	14%
How would you rate the amount of traffic on this street? <i>Heavy / Very Heavy</i>	0%	26%	48%	57%
Do you think that the overall speed of traffic on this street is: <i>A bit fast / Too fast</i>	80%	87%	72%	67%
Has traffic on this street got worse over past few years? <i>Yes</i>	0%	41%	61%	70%
Looking ahead five years from now, do you think traffic on this street will get worse? <i>Yes</i>	20%	39%	58%	68%
Do you consider this road to be: <i>Noisy / A little bit noisy</i>	40%	49%	60%	84%
Does traffic in your street bother you during some activities? <i>Yes</i>	20%	28%	33%	40%
Do you usually have to wait for traffic before crossing the street? <i>Yes</i>	20%	49%	67%	89%

7

1 The dominance of traffic as a problem on all street types is the most salient finding of this
2 study. From the survey results, residents on the lighter and lower volume streets were the most
3 contented; however, they were not without their traffic problems. More than half (60%) of the
4 residents along the LIGHT street still have a fence in their front yard that blocks views to and
5 from the street and they would not let their children play on or near the street. While more
6 residents along the LIGHT street personally know their neighbors, 80% of them believe the
7 overall speed is “a little bit fast”, yet the same proportion suggest they do not have to wait at all
8 to cross the road. In addition, 40% believe it is “noisy” or a “little bit noisy.” This however is
9 further confused by findings that only 20% of the residents are bothered by traffic during some
10 activities. The conflicting and contrasting verbatim comments on these topics also confirm the
11 subjective and variable nature of opinions in relation to traffic issues along their streets.

12 Overall, the perception held by residents living on the streets with higher traffic volumes
13 is that their streets are busier, noisier and less safe. The outlook is also not positive with an
14 increasing trend for residents along higher volume streets believing the traffic will continue to
15 get worse. This is coupled with an increasing trend for the same houses to turn away from the
16 street through the construction of high fences in their front yards. This in turn could be limiting
17 passive surveillance and the exposure to passers-by, and might explain why residents along
18 busier roads tend to have less personal involvement and/or knowledge of their neighbors.

19 One interesting item to emerge was that residents on streets with lower daily traffic
20 volumes perceived traffic as being “a little bit fast.” Again, this could be a reflection of people
21 on the higher volume streets becoming accustomed to the overall speeds. This may account for
22 the slightly higher proportion of residents on the higher volumes streets suggesting that the
23 overall traffic speed was “about right.”

24 Commonplace throughout the survey responses was the regular verbatim comments
25 referring to the streets being used as a short-cut route. Appleyard also found this on his surveyed
26 San Francisco streets back in the late 1960’s. The issue of extraneous traffic was also referred to
27 heavily in Buchanan’s research; he suggested that areas containing only local streets should have
28 all through-traffic removed. For the surveyed Christchurch streets, all were classified as local
29 roads and therefore had a function of providing property access to residential properties. The
30 traffic volumes on all four streets however carried well in excess of the expected traffic that
31 would be generated solely by the houses located along them (estimated to be between 2-8 times
32 more traffic than expected based on dwelling numbers).

33 This raises questions as to whether the road classification is correct, or whether the street
34 layout and overall housing pattern is correct. This is highlighted by the fact that many classified
35 “local” roads in Christchurch carry more than 2,000 vehicles/day (such as Aorangi Road), which
36 is the upper limit cited by the local Infrastructure Design Standard (23). Roads that carry more
37 than this appear to have a dual function of traffic distribution and property access. This runs
38 counter to the deeply entrenched inverse relationship between movement and access functions
39 for local and arterial roads. On all four surveyed streets there appears to be some overlapping
40 functions (whether intended or not) and this clouds the issue further of what a true local road is.

41 Appleyard’s surveys included a street where the traffic volumes were around 2,000
42 vehicles/day; this traffic volume coincides with that of Aorangi Road (northeast). Given that the
43 same questions were used for both studies it is useful to compare resident responses from the two
44 streets. Note that both streets served stand-alone residential houses.

1 In nearly every single aspect the overall response rate for the San Francisco street was
2 noticeably more positive than the equivalent Christchurch street. Nearly twice as many
3 Christchurch residents suggested that the traffic would get worse in the future and, although the
4 streets carried the same amount of traffic, nearly twice as many Christchurch residents had to
5 wait longer to cross the road. A greater proportion of Christchurch residents also implied that the
6 traffic along their street was heavier and faster than the San Francisco equivalent. All this
7 suggests that the Christchurch residents express more dissatisfaction in terms of environmental
8 components that contribute to the livability of their street. However, it is interesting to note that
9 the San Francisco street had a greater proportion of residents affected by traffic when doing other
10 tasks around their home (i.e. watching television, working in the house, eating). Ultimately, the
11 differences between both sets of results emphasize the point that there are many factors that
12 influence environmental quality, both in absolute terms and as perceived by different
13 communities. Given the 40-year time difference between the two surveys, it is also highly
14 possible that attitudes have changed over time with regard to technology, the environment, and
15 traffic in general.

16 **CASE STUDY 2 – CHRISTCHURCH 2011-12**

17 The streets investigated in the first study (2) were very typical of older conventional
18 streets. They were wide and straight, with no apparent level of street hierarchy associated with
19 them. Of particular interest in this next study (3) was how much of an effect local street
20 treatments, such as speed humps, narrowings and trees, have on residential amenity and
21 environmental capacity. Based on the previous literature, it was hypothesized that residents on
22 streets with such street treatments would be able to tolerate higher daily volumes of traffic.

23 The survey method was as similar as possible to that used in the first study; this meant
24 that survey findings would be more comparable. Streets with varying levels of traffic flows were
25 again required, ideally with similar volumes to the previous sites for comparison.

26 A major consideration when looking for streets to study was the significant earthquakes
27 that had struck Christchurch since September 2010, particularly February 2011. In order to
28 obtain results that could be compared with the previous research, the streets studied needed to be
29 as undamaged and unaffected by the earthquakes as possible. This was difficult, given that many
30 streets in Christchurch had been affected, although less so in the north west of the city where the
31 original study took place. Traffic patterns post-quakes had also significantly altered across the
32 city, although largely on the arterial road network. Ultimately, the main criterion was just that the
33 streets were not physically damaged by the earthquakes.

34 A group of local streets with high levels of street treatment was found, approximately
35 1.5km (one mile) away from the original study. The area, known as the Papanui Cluster, was
36 reconstructed between 2004-08 to reduce vehicle intrusion into the residential area. This was an
37 emerging problem in the area, being situated near a busy arterial road and major suburban
38 shopping centre. The area has a median income of NZ\$25,000, not too dissimilar to the \$23,200
39 median income in the original study area.

40 As part of the street reconstruction works, the Papanui Cluster incorporated street
41 narrowing, intersection platforms and realignments, re-opening and development of a previously
42 piped stream, landscaping and swales, and art features. Streets were typically reduced to 9m
43 (30ft) wide carriageways, with further narrowings mid-block and at intersections typically about

1 6m (20 ft) wide. An adjacent conventional street with large overhanging trees was also
2 investigated to assess the effect of the vegetation canopy on residents' perceptions.

3 To improve survey response rates, face-to-face contact was made with residents where
4 possible, with a post-back survey provided as an alternative. Together with another lucky prize
5 incentive, this resulted in a very good response rate (>70%). Conducting interviews in person
6 had the advantage of being able to avoid confusion and misinterpretations of questions, and to
7 provide more opportunity for residents to describe their thoughts and give more comments.
8 However, there was also the risk of biasing the respondents when asking the question, so careful
9 work was done to develop a suitably neutral interviewing process.

10 **Results**

11 Nine "treated" street sections were surveyed and the resulting data grouped into four
12 categories roughly corresponding to the average traffic volumes on each street. Table 3
13 summarizes the survey sites and results, by traffic category.

14 Again, the results show some general consistency in trends as traffic volumes increase.
15 However, there is a lot more variation amongst the LIGHT – MEDIUM streets, with the
16 HEAVY streets demonstrating consistently higher levels of concern than these groups. It may be
17 that the street treatments are helping to make most sites feel like truly "local" streets to the
18 residents, and only as traffic volumes get sufficiently high is this effect is being strongly negated.

19 One notable difference with some of the streets investigated in this study was the level of
20 on-street parking. The proximity to a suburban shopping centre meant that some streets nearest
21 to the retail district had high levels of all-day parking. From discussion with some residents, they
22 had strong concerns about this parking. There was a risk that the parking issue could overshadow
23 what the study was actually about. Therefore, it was important to separate the residents'
24 negativity stemming from parking concerns, from their perceptions of the traffic levels on their
25 street and how it was affecting them. This is where the face-to-face interview method was
26 invaluable in getting residents to focus on the through-traffic, and generally there was little
27 correlation between parking concerns and other traffic-related concerns. However, the streets
28 used in this study were probably too close to the busy main roads and shops for an easy
29 comparison with the first study.

30 The second study further investigated the effect of demographic factors on responses.
31 Investigation focused on the street with the largest response sample (Proctor St, 42 respondents)
32 to control for other variables. The respondents' age was a key factor in how respondents
33 answered certain questions. Younger people seemed more blasé about traffic and its effects. This
34 was reflected in findings such as younger people (especially under 30) being more likely to be
35 comfortable than older people with kids playing on the street, and being less likely to think their
36 street was busy.

37 During the interviews it was also noted that men seemed more relaxed about traffic and
38 the associated problems. This was also evident in some survey results, for example, 33% of men
39 surveyed on Proctor Street were comfortable with kids playing on the street, whereas only 21%
40 of women surveyed said the same.

41

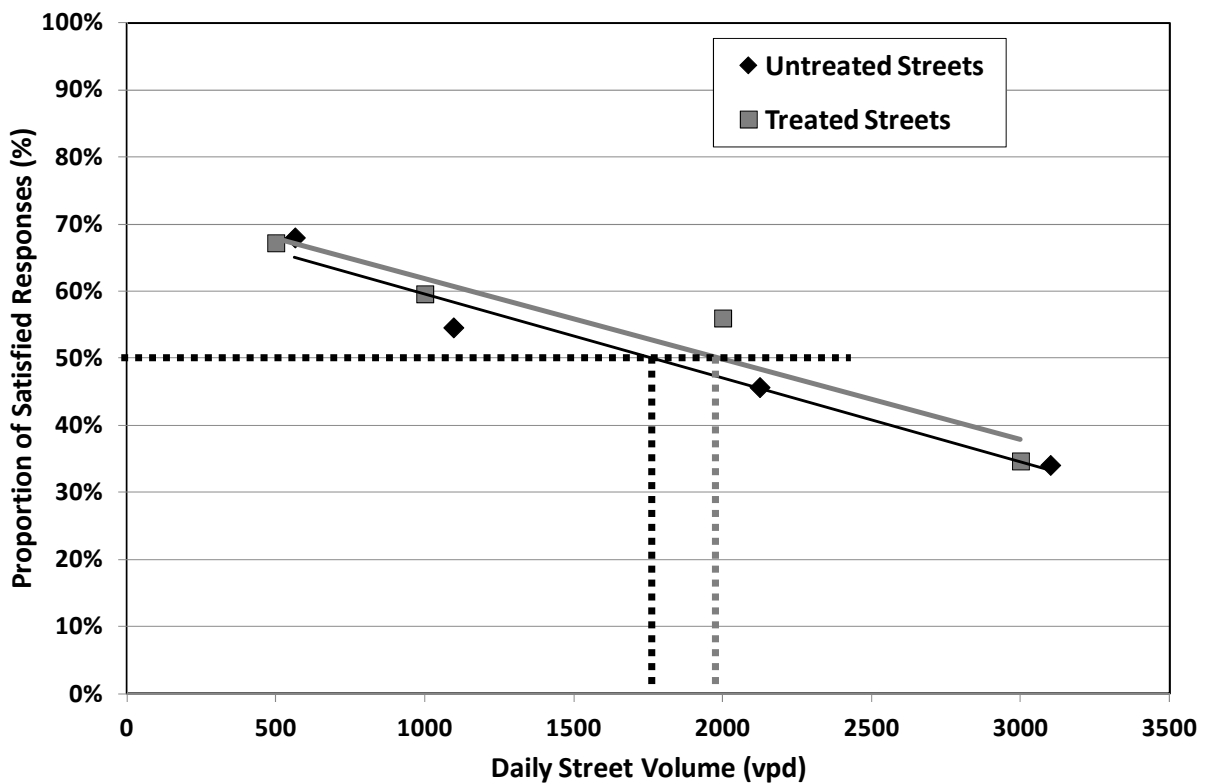
1 **TABLE 3 Survey Questionnaire Results – Case Study 2 (Treated Streets)**

Approx. Daily Traffic Volume – CATEGORY	500 (LIGHT)	1000 (LOW)	2000 (MEDIUM)	3000 (HIGH)
(Treated) Street names	Proctor St Loftus St	Grants Rd Frank St Wyndham St	Gambia St	Rayburn Ave Mary St (×2)
Number of households	80	70	21	56
Number of survey responses (%)	53 (66%)	48 (69%)	15 (71%)	46 (82%)
Rear-section Property?	23%	40%	33%	22%
Main living area in your house generally faces away from the street?	48%	54%	59%	66%
Front sections: do you have a fence in the front yard that blocks street views? <i>Yes</i>	48%	46%	34%	75%
Would you feel comfortable with children playing unsupervised on or near the street? <i>No</i>	69%	89%	71%	89%
Do you know any of your neighbors personally? <i>No</i>	12%	8%	5%	13%
Do traffic volumes along this road create a barrier to social connection with neighbors? <i>Yes</i>	12%	9%	5%	39%
How would you rate the amount of traffic on this street? <i>Heavy / Very Heavy</i>	31%	21%	21%	87%
Do you think that the overall speed of traffic on this street is: <i>A bit fast / Too fast</i>	31%	23%	40%	52%
Has traffic on this street got worse over past few years? <i>Yes</i>	35%	48%	40%	67%
Looking ahead five years from now, do you think traffic on this street will get worse? <i>Yes</i>	19%	38%	36%	54%
Do you consider this road to be: <i>Noisy / A little bit noisy</i>	15%	31%	20%	61%
Does traffic in your street bother you during some activities? <i>Yes</i>	0%	6%	7%	17%
Do you usually have to wait for traffic before crossing the street? <i>Yes</i>	43%	34%	25%	86%

1 **Determining Environmental Capacity**

2 The findings of the Appleyard study (7) and the Christchurch surveys clearly show that as
 3 traffic volumes increase there is a reduction in other ‘environmental’ values. Although the
 4 overall trend is clear, there is a difficulty in determining what the actual environmental capacity
 5 is.

6 In order to make a quantitative judgment on a qualitative issue, a simple scoring system
 7 was derived from the Christchurch survey information for each of the four street categories,
 8 based on responses to ten of the main survey questions. The overall scores allocated were based
 9 on the percentage of *positive* responses to these questions. This reflects the proportion of
 10 responses where residents were “satisfied” with the overall residential amenity of the area, e.g.
 11 the percentage who said “yes” when asked if they would be comfortable with their children
 12 playing unsupervised on/near the street. For this exercise, 50% was considered the threshold (or
 13 environmental capacity). This aligns with Buchanan’s rough theory that simply separates
 14 acceptable from unacceptable, i.e. the majority (>50%) of people will find it
 15 acceptable/unacceptable. Figure 2 shows the results of the scoring system in comparison with the
 16 street volumes.



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FIGURE 2 Environmental Capacity Trend-line for Christchurch Streets

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A linear trend-line has been fitted to each dataset; while it is debatable whether this is actually the most appropriate relationship (particularly beyond the extents of this data) the r^2 values are >0.90 and it is considered sufficient for this exercise. Both sets of streets display similar decreasing relationships (in terms of “satisfied” responses) as traffic volumes increase.

1 While by no means an all-encompassing model for determining environmental capacity, it may
2 provide some insights into the issue, especially in relation to the surveyed Christchurch streets.

3 If an environmental capacity/threshold limit is set at the “50% acceptable” mark, Figure 2
4 would imply that the environmental capacity for untreated streets is somewhere between 1,500-
5 2,000 vehicles/day. This is clearly less than the 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day often quoted elsewhere.
6 While this research is not suggesting that the environmental capacity of *all* residential streets is
7 1,500-2,000 vehicles/day, the surveys imply that typical environmental capacities are perhaps not
8 as high as what previous literature has suggested.

9 Looking at the treated streets in Figure 2, it can be seen that around 2,000 vehicles/day is
10 the traffic volume where half of the responses would be positive. This suggests it is possible that
11 street treatments, such as those provided in the Papanui Cluster, can increase the environmental
12 capacity of local streets. It is notable that this threshold value is still at the low end of the
13 previously cited 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day figure.

14 **CONCLUSIONS**

15 A review of literature on environmental capacity reveals that the concept was first
16 introduced by Buchanan in his London-based research, followed by Appleyard in San Francisco.
17 Both authors settled on broad-brush traffic thresholds of 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day. Further
18 literature review however reveals that other subsequent research heavily relies on the original
19 Buchanan and Appleyard findings and there have been few questions on the validity of the
20 original information. This is not a criticism of the original findings, which occurred 40 years ago
21 when resident perceptions in relation to environmental and amenity values may have been
22 different. Changes in the way we live, technological improvements and a greater (or lesser)
23 acceptance of the automobile maybe partly responsible for any changes.

24 There are clear trends showing that residential amenity decreases as traffic volumes
25 increase. Although it is accepted that the issue is highly subjective and varies between districts,
26 the traditional rule of thumb that a residential local road could acceptably carry
27 2,000-3,000 vehicles/day is perhaps set too high. In the Christchurch context, an initial survey of
28 four local streets suggest that a more appropriate environmental capacity would appear to be
29 1,500-2,000 vehicles/day. This has implications for local town planning and street network
30 design guidance if true “local” roads are to be achieved.

31 A subsequent study investigated nine further streets in Christchurch using the same
32 techniques. These streets contained more traffic calming and street trees than the original four
33 sites. A threshold value of around 2,000 vehicles/day was determined as an acceptable traffic
34 level in these “treated” local streets. This suggests that appropriate street treatments can increase
35 the environmental capacity, which has implications for local councils who want to maintain road
36 traffic carrying capabilities without having unsatisfied residents.

37 **Recommended Further Research**

38 The Christchurch surveys in this research included only a small number of streets. These
39 of course do not represent all Christchurch streets and caution should be applied if using this
40 information with other local areas. In addition, although the response rates to the questionnaires
41 were reasonably good, the sample sizes were not particularly high on some streets (ranging from
42 5-42 responses). The trends however between low and high volume streets were obvious. Further

1 research using the same questionnaire for a number of other streets would be beneficial and
2 might reinforce the current conclusions further.

3 The streets studied also had some differences in road attributes such as carriageway width
4 and traffic speeds. The original study focused on the relative effects of traffic volume alone but,
5 like Buchanan's previous work, it is acknowledged that other road features may allow base
6 environmental capacity values to be adjusted. While the second study enabled some assessment
7 of the effects on residential amenity of road width, traffic calming, and landscaping, it has been
8 difficult to identify the specific effects of certain features. For example, it may be that street trees
9 have a far greater effect than speed humps on how well residents tolerate higher traffic volumes.
10 Further investigation of the relative effects of these features is needed; ultimately this may
11 provide some useful guidance on physical measures to improve the environmental capacity of
12 existing local streets.

13 The proximity to a busy arterial road and shopping area appeared to influence residents'
14 opinions, not least due to the level of on-street parking. Future research may want to either
15 investigate streets further away from busy commercial areas, or examine this effect separately.

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