

Mobile Food Vending and the Public Realm: A Seattle Study

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**Abstract**

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Due to its position in the public realm, low public-investment costs and popularity among residents, mobile food vending presents a potentially effective means of improving streetscapes and amenities within a neighborhood. The flexible and adaptable nature of mobile food vending provides opportunities for increased vitality, walkability and pedestrian activity for the public realm. This research explores the design potential of mobile food vending two-fold: if mobile food vending is effective at contributing to Seattle's design goals of an "attractive, vibrant and liveable city" and what qualities of vending make it effective at addressing these goals. The research used structured observational studies for 20 vending sites within Seattle and evaluated the ways in which mobile food vendors addressed these citywide goals through three site characteristics: public or private ownership of the property, the duration of the vending unit and distance from the sidewalk. Through these evaluations, this research has found great variability in the ability for mobile food vendors to address design criteria and issues of walkability based on these factors. The distance from the sidewalk was the most showed the most variability in these results, however locating on public or private property as well as a vendor's duration has additional implications to how vendors affect the public realm.

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## 1. Introduction

Planning and design have increasingly focused on aspects of livability, walkability and quality of life for urban residents. New efforts from policymakers, planners and designers have attempted to address problems with contemporary land use patterns and public right-of-ways. The development of automobile-centric corridors and hostile places for pedestrians has led to major concerns with pedestrian safety, traffic, health impacts and quality of life. Many cities have made efforts to refocus their priorities to quality of life and walkability goals within their departments and current movements such as New Urbanism, Smart Growth, or Complete Streets have become the mantra of new design and development. In Seattle, the development of Urban Villages, citywide design guidelines, and pedestrian and bicycling master plans are indicative of this shift.

These plans, however, often include long time horizons to implement substantive change. Dismal funding outlooks have severely reduced the ability of cities to effectively bring these plans and policies to fruition. Cities have had to be creative in how these public improvement projects come about, combining funding sources together in a piecemeal manner or requiring private investment in public amenities with each new development. These strategies, however, still fail to seriously consider the potential of smaller community-based efforts or private activity to improve streets and other public space for short-term, low-cost and temporary changes (O’Conner 2012).

Due to its position in the public realm, low public-investment costs and popularity among residents, mobile food vending presents a potentially effective means of improving streetscapes and amenities within a neighborhood. The flexible and adaptable nature of mobile food vending provides opportunities for increased vitality, walkability and pedestrian activity for the public realm (City of Seattle City Council 2011; Ball 2002, 2; Morales and Kettles 2009, 1). Vendors are able to respond quickly to changing needs as “their mobility enables them...to adapt to changes in demand for their goods and yield to higher priority uses of space they temporarily occupy” (Morales and Kettles 2009, 1).

This research explores the design potential of mobile food vending two-fold: if mobile food vending is effective at contributing to citywide design goals of an “attractive, vibrant and liveable city”<sup>1</sup> and what qualities of vending make it effective at addressing these goals. The research used structured observational studies for 20 vending sites within Seattle and evaluated the ways in which mobile food vendors addressed these citywide goals through three site characteristics: public or private ownership of the property, the duration of the vending unit and distance from the sidewalk. Looking through the lens of citywide public space and planning goals and the research utilizes design criteria based on Seattle’s Citywide Design Guidelines. Each site was graded on a scale on how effectively it met 47 different design approaches within 9 Design Guidelines. Through these evaluations, this research has found great variability in the ability for mobile food vendors to address design criteria and issues of walkability based on these factors. The distance from the sidewalk showed the most distinctive variation in these results, however locating on public

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<sup>1</sup> From Seattle’s Design Guidelines, iii.

or private property as well as a vendor's duration has additional implications to how vendors affect the public realm.

The idea of a "food truck urbanism" is aided by their popularity and support by the public. With growing attention towards mobile food vending, cities are now grappling with what role vendors could play in urban areas. There is confusion from city planners and municipalities that are unsure how to regulate mobile food vendors in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Juarez, Glenn and Grant 2012). The practice of mobile food vending raises a number of questions about the role of food in cities and within urban culture, the responsibility of government to uphold the public interests of health and safety, and ownership and rights to public space. Vending is an inherently political activity within cities, with opposition coming from vocal community members and business owners who often see vending as an undesirable activity. With renewed interest in vending by community members and municipalities, these arguments over how, when and where vending should occur have come to light. This research tries to address this notion of location appropriateness through examining the spatial impacts of mobile food vendors on a street-level.

## Structure

The first chapter of this thesis is an overview of mobile food vending and urban design in Seattle. Within this chapter, the first section an explanation of the role of vending in cities historically and current social and economic issues that surround vending is provided. The second section examines the role of food in urban design and the public realm. As vending is often viewed as a controversial activity, an overview of vending in a larger scheme is an important component to understanding the policies behind vending. The second chapter discusses the research format and methodology, outlining data

collection and analysis procedures. The third chapter details the existing state of mobile food vending within the Seattle area through legislation and practices. The final chapter is an analysis of vending sites located across Seattle for their impact and effectiveness as a strategy to contribute to a more attractive, vibrant and liveable spaces.

## **Definitions**

Although this research strives to use standard and commonly used definitions, familiarity with specific terms will help to clarify any ambiguities in their usage.

**Public realm:** Defined inclusively as all publicly accessible spaces between buildings, including streets, alleys, sidewalks, plazas and parking lots. The public realm includes areas where ownership is not clearly delineated and users cannot easily distinguish property lines, including privately-owned open spaces such as parking lots or corporate plazas. When referencing space owned by the city or another government entity, this research will attempt whenever possible to make that distinction through terms such as “publicly-owned space” or “public right-of-way.”

**Mobile food vending:** Often referred to as street food, food trucks, and food carts and typically defined as the activity of vendors selling food products from moveable units or vehicles (City of Seattle City Council 2011; Kapell et al. 2008, 11). King County Board of Health requires mobile food vendors to have the same food safety and health standards as restaurants in order to sell (King County Board of Health 2012).

**Vending Site:** Defined as the location or footprint of the actual vending unit (see definition of vending unit below) and exists only during the period the vending unit is present. In most instances in Seattle, vending sites are temporary and exist for only a few

hours during the day, however there are permanent vending sites where the vending unit does not move. During the period that vending occurs, the vending site and the vending unit occupy the same space. The distinction between vending sites and the actual vehicle is important because multiple vendors may occupy the same vending site at different times and many vendors choose to operate in multiple locations throughout a week.

***Vending Unit:*** Defined as the vehicle or structure where food is prepared and/or sold.

Vending units include vehicles such as trucks, hitch trailers or push carts (City of Seattle City Council 2011; Kapell et al. 2008, 11).

## 2. Literature Review: Understanding Vending

Street vendors and day laborers, driven by economic need, have negotiated their presence, evading or challenging regulations and asserting claims to the city in the process. Street vending wars have been characterized as a struggle over the meaning and uses of public space between a public with a specific ideal for order and a counter public. (Loukaitou-Sideris & Ehrenfeucht 2009, 127)

Mobile food vendors have an interesting role in cities. Their profession, by nature, spans both public and private spheres, thereby forcing cities, their officials and citizens to define their own position on the role of the “public” within public spaces and the role of private enterprise within the public realm. As an inherently public activity, a discussion on mobile food vending first requires an understanding of how public space and subsequently vending have been reinterpreted through history in order to understand the roles and conflicts present today.

### Brief History of Public Spaces and Vending

Historically, public spaces have served distinctly utilitarian purposes. Before the 20<sup>th</sup> century, these plazas, squares and avenues served as areas of economy, political and social life (Jackson 1987). Individuals using these spaces generally “were present...to perform some public service or play some public role” (Jackson 1987, 277). These spaces were born out of function and necessity to serve the everyday lives of residents (Cooper Marcus and Francis 1998, 1; Gehl 2010). Through the 19<sup>th</sup> century, markets, vendors and merchants were critical components of the city, serving as primary outlets for food and merchandise and playing large roles in the local economy (Loukaitou and Ehrenfeucht 2009,

128). Vending during this era was seen as legitimate employment that could help address problems of unemployment in the labor market (Morales 2000, 84). Much of the community life existed outside of buildings, creating cities that were active, bustling and at times disorganized and chaotic (Loukaitou-Sideris & Ehrenfeucht, 2009, 20).

The emergence of a “public” in public space and the modern forms of the public realm can be traced to the 19<sup>th</sup> century with the rise of the progressive and public parks movements (Jordan 1994, 87; Jackson 1987, 287). Largely a response to health and sanitation issues in crowded cities, proponents of the movement shift the focus from economy-based commons and squares to parks, with the idea that nature, tranquility and serenity could cure social ills (Jordan 1994, 86). These spaces were envisioned as a method to humanize the city and act as areas for democracy and civil engagement (Banjeree 2001, 10). Ideal public spaces were no longer seen as framed by buildings and uses nearby, but instead with the removal of the constructed manmade environment altogether. With this, the idea of community was changed and the emphasis became individual experience rather than a “celebration of collective identity” (Jackson 1987, 284). The parks movement helped to recreate a vision of what public spaces should be: a natural open space and a contemplative retreat isolated and distinct from the bustle of city life. As a consequence, vending, peddling and other business activities shifted from acting as useful, generative activities to undesirable nuisances.

By the 20<sup>th</sup> century, public space had changed dramatically from its predecessors as a result of advances in technology, restructuring of a larger global economy and changes in governmental priorities (Banjeree 2001, 10). Regulations were put in place to standardize and modernize public facilities, and sidewalks were no longer places for economic or social activity, but rather conduits for transport (Loukaitou-Sideris & Renia Ehrenfeucht 2009;

Trancik 1986, 64-5). Additionally, the wide-scale emergence of modern retail such as supermarkets and malls helped to delegitimize vendors and other small retailers, as their numbers diminished (Morales and Dunning 2012). In the 1980s, cities such as Seattle imposed restrictions and limitations on vendors in an effort to clean up city streets, further suppressing activity on public streets (SDOT 2011a). As public areas before the late 19<sup>th</sup> century served as the core of civic, economic and social life, spaces in the 20<sup>th</sup> century reflect priorities of privacy and efficiency.

This disappearance of what is considered traditional public space is analogous to the disappearance of vendors and other retail activities once common two centuries ago (Morales 2009). The ever-changing role of public space and its participants in the past two centuries reflects bigger shifts in cultural and political values. Many have argued that the quality and diversity of open and public space has declined in this period, suffering what Tridib Banjeree calls a “steady withering of the public realm” (2001, 9). Arguably, this richness that composed city life in the 19<sup>th</sup> century had largely disappeared by the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century (Loukaitou-Sideris & Renia Ehrenfeucht 2009).

The discourse of public space in the past 20 years has primarily been a narrative of this withering of the public realm and the decline of public life. Theorists have argued that the proliferation of automobile dependency, globalization and lifestyle changes has changed both the physical and social components of communities (Banjeree 2001; Trancik 1986). Others instead have argued that although there have been fundamental shifts, the appetite for social interaction and public life is very much alive in cities today (Marcus Cooper and Francis 2; Oldenburg 1989).

As a response to misguided designs of the past, planners and designers have increasingly looked at how to integrate the social and community component into urban design. Historically the artistic tradition of urban design, centering on architectural form, structure and relationships between buildings has dominated much of the design field (Jarvis 1980, 24) However, this method has come under fire as an insensitive approach to design because it ignores the needs of very audience it is intended to attract. The approach has been criticized for making “assumption[s] about what *should* be done” in public space, rather than what *is* done in public space and for creating spaces where human needs have “been neglected in both public space design and management” (Carr et al., 1992).

The social-usage approach is a more recent branch of urban design where the focus is placed on pedestrian experience through habit, usage and movement patterns as the primary basis of design (Jarvis 1980). Although social-usage and artistic tradition branches of urban design are not independent of one another, this dichotomy has been present in much of how practitioners have considered and designed for the urban landscape. It has become increasingly common on the part of cities and their officials to bridge the differences between these two approaches and to take a comprehensive approach towards city planning and urban design (Robertson 1981).

Today, there is a growing belief among practitioners that urban design must incorporate both form and function to become a “field that engages the human experience of the built environment: the sense of understandability, congeniality, playfulness, security, mystery, or awe that lands and built forms evoke” (Sternberg 2000, 34). Many cities and neighborhoods have adopted and formalized a hybrid approach that incorporates a balance of people and place into their plans and policies. In Seattle, this process began with the adoption of citywide and neighborhood design guidelines in 1993, followed by updates in

2007 and 2010 that have incorporated the importance of activity and public life into urban development policies(DPD 2010). These guidelines have become part of the regulatory framework for development.

In response to the dissatisfaction of the products of a postmodern past, citizen-fueled improvements represent another popular response to the perceived decline of public spaces in cities. The rise of “everyday urbanism” or “tactical urbanism “has exemplified this movement of citizen-driven incremental civic improvements (Chase, Crawford and Kaliski 2008; Lydon et al. 2010). In tactical urbanism, local jurisdictions and urban residents use temporary or inexpensive solutions to bridge the gap between existing development and an envisioned future. From community gardening to art walks and pop-up storefronts and street food, temporary installations have become common ways to address urban issues and reinstitute a physical presence in communities. Particularly common in urban areas with strong citizen involvement, these community-driven projects have been important for building community both socially and physically (Chase, Crawford and Kaliski 2008).

### **Current Topics in Vending**

Since 2008, the popularity of mobile food vending has exploded and become popular in most major cities (Stenssen 2011). Once the workhorse of blue-collar lunches, the “roach coach” has modernized and reached mainstream audiences. Its rebirth is commonly attributed to a famous mobile food vendor, Kogi, in Los Angeles serving gourmet fusion tacos (Juarez et al. 2012; Groves 2011). Although Kogi was not the first to start the gourmet trend, publicity generated by complaints from LA police and their social media savvy advertising garnered numerous fans in the area (Juarez, Glenn and Grant 2011; Gelt 2009).

Elsewhere, new vendors are emerging rapidly and existing vendors have garnered a devoted fan base both in the real and digital world. In King County, the number of mobile food vendors annual permit inspections has more than doubled from five years ago, from 86 vendors in 2006 to 237 vendors by mid-2011 (Seattle-King County Public Health 2012). Similarly, cities such as Los Angeles, Austin and Portland have seen significant jumps in licensing numbers (Robbins 2010; Shouse, 2011; Groves 2011). Food truck rallies and events have emerged in many cities, pulling in thousands of attendees and hour long waits for food (Robbins 2010). In 2011, a national survey of chefs and restaurateurs indicated that 6 out of 10 respondents would consider opening a mobile food vending business (National Restaurant Association 2011).

The fight between those for and those against mobile food vending has played out in many cities across the US as mobile food vending gains large audiences. With the growth of social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook, vendors have been able to cultivate a digital audience into vying customers and advocates (Juarez, Glenn and Grant 2012). Kogi in Los Angeles, for instance, has over 98 thousand followers on Twitter, while popular local Seattle vendors draw in 3 to 8 thousand followers each.

The use of social media has been attributed to the success of small and independent businesses such as vendors, and has had the power to build the popularity of these industries nationally (Gelt 2011). A mobilized force of citizen advocates and newly formed vending associations have helped support and defend individual vendors. With this publicity, however, mobile food vendors have established vocal opponents who are wary of the impacts vendors bring to streets and businesses. The debate itself still faces problems of miscommunication and unreliable information as the industry matures. Discussion

surrounding mobile food vending has been focused on economic competition, the perception of blight, entrepreneurship and healthy food access.

### *Economic Competition*

Developers and business interests, particularly the restaurant industry, have been the most vocal about mobile food vending. Citing unfair competition, some business owners have argued that mobile food vendors threaten the livelihood of local businesses by siphoning customers away from brick-and-mortar restaurants (Allison and Martinez 2010; Barnett 2011). Restaurants have argued that vendors located too closely to their storefronts entice would-be customers who would prefer the more attractive pricing options vendors can offer due to lower overhead and fewer costs. This is a particular threat during prime dining hours, as the mobility of vendors affords them to choose popular lunch and dinner locations to plan routes.

Additionally, opponents have argued that vendors on public right-of-ways pay artificially low fees. Because cities establish permit fees based on staff time for permit review and inspection, this pricing does not necessarily capture the value of the rent on the land (Committee on the Built Environments 2010; Barnett, Riveras and Skwiercz 2011). This system does not necessarily capture the competition present in the real estate market, allowing vendors to pocket the difference between private property rent and right-of-way permit fees. This problem is prevalent in many cities that charge based on set permit fees rather than through a bidding system. This is most apparent in New York City, where a street vending permit can be sold for 30 to 40 times more than the actual fee set by the city (Basinski 2009).

Mobile food vending supporters have argued that mobile food vendors help to attract pedestrian activity to neighborhood blocks and enliven streets, which only further helps restaurants attract business (Ball 2002, 9; Quinn et al. n.d., 15). The types of customers that vendors attract are arguably different than restaurant customers who may prefer the amenities that vending cannot provide. Although mobile food vendors pay significantly less than restaurants from low costs from rent, maintenance, and fees, in many instances, mobile food vendors on average still do not compete economically on a scale comparable to brick-and-mortar businesses (Basinski 2009). Constant travelling, preparation time from commissary or third-party kitchens, and limited hours cut into vendor's profits, and limited food served due to space constraints limits their customer base (Barnett, Riveras and Skwiercz 2011).

Although most cities have some form of location requirements established for vendors, there is significant variation from city to city. Of the 50 largest cities in the US, a study found that 20 cities imposed some form of a proximity setback from existing brick-and-mortar restaurants (Norman et al. 2011, 22). These setbacks vary considerably, with cities such as Raleigh or Seattle requiring minimal setbacks of 50 feet from restaurants, to 300 feet in Baltimore or Jacksonville, or 1,500 feet setbacks for vendors on private properties in Atlanta (Norman et al. 2011, 22).

### *Third-world Imagery*

There is often an image of vendors as a cause or perpetuator of blight within neighborhoods. In some instances, citizens have argued that vendors are unsightly, evoke a "third-world" image or compete with other uses for sidewalk space (Ball 2002, 2). Tensions in Santa Ana, California in 2005 over the designation of permanent space for vendors

spurred numerous resident complaints alleging that vendors “make the city a ghetto” and bring with them “unattractiveness and ugliness” to city streets (Delson 2005).

This perception of vendors is thought to be the impetus for the ban of mobile food vendors, targeting Hispanic-owned *loncheros*, in East Los Angeles in 2006 (Quinn et al. n.d., 61). In 1984, Seattle residents’ opposition to vendors was in part due to their appearance of blight that ultimately led to tightened restrictions and bans (SDOT 2011a). However, with stricter regulations on the appearance of mobile food units, such as size limits or standardization of vehicles, this has become less of a problem (Ball 2002, 12).

Vendors are an opportunity in some cases to attract pedestrian activity to commercial streets, helping to increase the flow of potential customers (Ball 2002, 9; Quinn et al. n.d., 15). This co-activation effect that can benefit multiple businesses is particularly beneficial for streets or neighborhoods that face high vacancy rates. Vendors, if sited and advertised properly, can be successful generators of activity. In some instances, vendors can pair with brick-and-mortar businesses for special events, gatherings or late night crowds to lengthen the stay of customers and help to generate a livelier atmosphere (Juarez, Glenn and Grant 2012). Additionally, with vendors positioned at eye-level and within close proximity to public streets, they can provide a set of “eyes on the street” to increase safety and surveillance (City of Seattle City Council 2011, 1).

#### *Low-income, immigrant and first-time business owners*

Vending provides real opportunities for low-income, minority and immigrant individuals “to legitimize themselves and enter into the real economy” (Morales and Dunning 2012). In a report on mobile food vending in Portland, researchers found that about half of the vendors were born outside the US, while 63% of surveyed vendors stated

that vending has been a viable way to support their families (Kapell et al. 2008, 31). Low capital investments on the part of vendors allows for opportunities to bring what would otherwise be considered a “fringe” populations into the economy, socialize them and allow for businesses incubation (Morales and Dunning 2012). With a relatively low cost of entry, estimated to be about 20 to 50 thousand dollars to start up a vending unit, individuals are able to enter the industry without significant upfront costs compared to restaurants (Ball 2002, 8; Shouse 2011, 2; Gelt, 2011). Although mobile food vending is a small sector within a larger food service and hospitality industry nationwide, the census estimates that mobile food vending (NAICS 722330) topped 570 million in sales nationally and 12 million in Washington in 2007 (US Census Bureau, 2007).

In many respects, vending is associated with the informal sector. There is a common perception that vending works outside the confines and regulations of the “normal” economy (Castells and Portes in Morales 2000). Vendors are believed to practice “under the table” sales and failing to fully report their sales on tax returns, an activity often associated with the informal sector (Ball 2002, 4). However, Morales argues that the perception that vendors work outside this normal economy is simply not true in many cases. Vendors that aim to further improve or expand their business, either through adding more vehicles or through opening brick-and-mortar businesses, make efforts to be considered a legitimate business through business equity and financial records. Furthermore, he argues that this categorization only further helps to “deem [vending] ‘different’ from, inferior to, or not related to other parts of social life” (2000, 87).

*Food Access and Healthy Food*

Another area of opportunity for mobile food vending is increasing access to healthy foods in underserved neighborhoods. In areas with few grocers or supermarkets, access to healthy and nutritious food can be a major issue for residents. Although awareness of lacking food access in underserved communities is growing, many of these neighborhoods still face challenges in this regard. Healthy food and produce vending is being piloted in many cities to address these problems of access.

Cities such as New York, Boston, Philadelphia and San Francisco encourage healthy food vending by tapping opportunities for small business entrepreneurship and food access (PHLP 2010; Morales and Dunning 2012). New York and Philadelphia provides additional permits to vendors who sell unprocessed fruits and vegetables (PHLP 2010). Kansas City provides reduced permit fees and better locations to vendors who serve a portion of their menu that meets health guidelines (Tester et al. 2010). Policies on how to promote healthy food vending is still developing and presents an opportunity to provide economic opportunities to low-income or minority vendors while tackling the larger issue of food access and obesity in communities (Morales and Dunning 2012; Quinn et al. n.d.).

### *Legislation*

Cities that permit vending regulate with the intention “to improve community image, to protect shops and restaurants, to avoid sidewalk congestion, and to reduce the liability of adjacent businesses” (Morales and Kettles 2009, 2). City codes have internalized many of the concerns regarding mobile food vending, choosing instead to abate what may potentially be negative effects rather than explore the positive responses that vendors have received (Ball 2002). Despite acknowledging the possible benefits vendors may bring to city streets, little of this is brought into municipal codes once they are put in place.

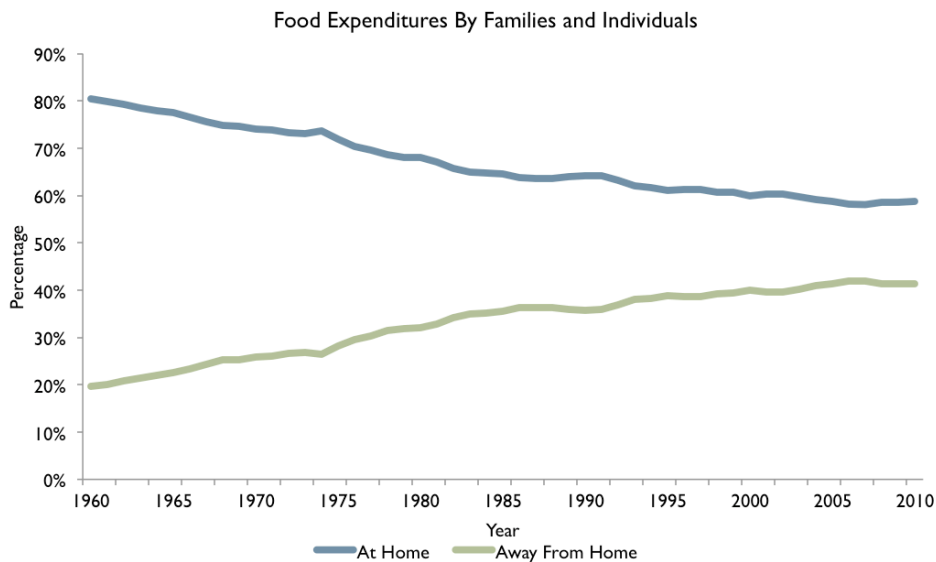
Many municipalities have updated vending legislation in the past decade with the boom of mobile food vendors and the emergence of a food truck culture. Cities such as Seattle, Austin, Los Angeles and Boston have updated policies within the past five years, with more cities interested in changing their own codes regarding street vending (Juarez, Glenn and Grant 2012). Taking on different components of the food system, new topics on the economic, social and health aspects of vending have emerged. Balancing between protecting local interests and providing leniency for cultural and economic growth, municipalities must negotiate between numerous public and private interests with each new ordinance, code revision and policy change.

### **Public Life, Food and the City**

Food in the built environment plays a multiplicity of roles from sources of hospitality to critical components of equity and access. Although mobile food vending and brick-and-mortar restaurants are seen as competitive activities, their commonalities – the service of food and hospitality – help bring street-level activity, sociability and investment in cities. Food has long been tied to social and psychological wellbeing and comfort. Seen as an activity that elicits comfort, social engagement and good times, food is a generator and provider of human interaction (Mehta and Bosson 2009). Its vital role in everyday life and its potential to bring people together make food and the act of eating an important opportunity to connect social wellbeing to the built environment (Franck 2005b, 7).

Shifts in lifestyles have changed the face of food consumption in the U.S. Eating out has become an increasingly large portion of the average American income. Whereas the average household in 1960 spent 20% of their food expenditures on food away home, in 2010 expenditures stood around 45% (ERS 2011). Additionally, latest estimates from the

National Restaurant Association show that the dining industry has hit new levels in sales despite a declined economy. These numbers indicate that more Americans are choosing to dine out more often, food establishments are increasingly important places to plan and design for (Franck 2005, 42). Their potential in local economies and within communities transform food establishments into opportunities that can be leverage in city planning.



**Figure 1 Household Food Expenditures from 1960 to 2010 (Data from ERS 2011)**

The use of food to build urban activity, conviviality and a sense of community emerges from the works of William H. Whyte and Ray Oldenburg. Whyte’s research in plazas and sidewalks in the 1970’s and 1980’s provided tremendous depth in habits and needs of New York’s pedestrians. Whyte was a strong proponent of vendors in the public realm and in his words, “food attracts people, who attract more people”, and vendors are “caterers of the city’s outdoor life” (Whyte 2008, 142).

In several experiments in parks and plazas in New York, Whyte and his team provided extensive seating and added vendors. In all instances, plazas flourished, with some of the crowd eating from food carts but just as many patronizing nearby cafes or

bringing homemade lunches. Food in the public realm brought what Whyte called “optical leverage,” where the inclusion of chairs, tables and canopies alongside food stands brought a self-fulfilling image of outdoor activity (143). He concluded that providing food was a necessary addition to improving barren corporate plazas in the city and his team pushed for zoning changes that would encourage food in public spaces, whether in the form of vendors or outdoor cafes (2008, 140-3). Similarly, in a 2008 study conducted on mobile food vending in downtown Portland, Oregon, researchers found 58% of business owners said food vendors increased foot traffic, and 66% of business owners citywide had a positive perception of food vendors (Kapell et al. 2008, 24-27).

The focus of food establishments as areas for social interactions emerges from Ray Oldenburg’s studies of informal public gathering places, what he calls “third places” (1989, 20). These places provide the type of setting that promotes social activity, people watching and gathering not present in the typical spheres of work and life (Franck 2005b, 7; Oldenburg 1989, 27). Although in his characterization these gathering spaces, Oldenburg did not include food as a prerequisite, they are present in some shape in each one of Oldenburg’s examples, and the life and activity associated eating and drinking reflect many of the characteristics found in third places (Oldenburg 1989; Mehta and Bosson 2009, 780).

Food establishments are apt to be these generators of activity because they provide what Jan Gehl calls “opportunities for staying,” or invitations for people to comfortably linger in the public realm (2010, 134). Few other types of activities can offer such extended and casual experiences in the public in the way that dining and eating are able to (Mehta and Bosson 2009). “The popularity of cafes and relatively lengthy stays in them underscores the fact that they offer an attractive combination of options: reasonably comfortable chairs and usually a good view of passersby” (Gehl 2010, 146).

The design of food establishments reflects these social aspects of food and the opportunities that they provide to the public realm are numerous. In a study of third places, Mehta and Bosson identify the physical qualities that compose such third places. They note that these places are likely to personalize their storefronts, create permeability between the business and the street, provide significant seating and provide outdoor shelter (2009, 780). Their facades often are designed to engage customers from the outdoors and provide their customers with a view to the outside world. Through transparency between the public and private spaces, restaurants and cafes are ideal for ground floor activation.

Food establishments and the buildings they occupy are important contributors to the pedestrian experience. In addition to physical pedestrian infrastructure (sidewalks, street furniture, tree coverage), other elements such as activity-supporting stores, and permeability and community gathering places are critical to facilitate public life on streets (Mehta 2007, 183). Restaurants can encourage activity on sidewalks because of the architectural forms they take. The use of the sidewalk and the activity that spill out from these establishments further help to enliven the public realm. The measure of a space, Gehl argues, is not a matter of quantity, but quality: total pedestrian counts can only show traffic, but total pedestrian time spent within the space indicates the quality of space provided (2010). This change in speed is critical to the public realm as it helps to generate more activity and create an atmosphere of conviviality and liveliness (Gehl 2010, 71).

By encouraging “opportunities for staying,” neighborhoods and cities can enliven streets while bringing in economic potential. The idea of food as a type of experience places dining and eating into the social realm and “in many cities, new food-consumption venues are the forerunners of urban regeneration” (Franck 2005b, 9). Food establishments become an opportunity for re-establishing a sense of community back into a neighborhood. As

these venues become a new center of urban lifestyles, a new culture of “hospitality and commensurability” is woven into “the lives of urbanites and the patterns of urban living” (Bell 2007, 15). As part of an “experience economy,” food and dining opportunities are as much about hospitality and memorability as it is about food itself (Pine and Gilmore 1999).

Well-programmed and active places can “enhance a community’s tourism potential, draw shoppers and new businesses, and improve the value of commercial and residential real estate” (Levy, 1998). The promotion of food-related activities has become a large component of tourism. This notion of hospitality as a forum for this sort of everyday social interaction is not necessarily a new one, but is becoming increasingly important for contemporary urban life. Increasingly, private businesses have played an important role in hospitality and essentially act as spaces for public exchange. Businesses providing this form of hospitality are significant to cities not only for their economic development potential, but for their role in social investment within a neighborhood (Bell, 12).

Food-related activities, such as grocery stores, restaurants, farmers markets and gardens, help contribute to the vitality of neighborhoods. These activities can generate high traffic counts critical to maintaining neighborhood businesses, such as in the case of grocery stores, or encourage community engagement, as in the case of community gardens (Easton and Owens 2009). Activities related to food have the potential for urban regeneration (Franck 2005b, 9). Although these activities are linked only through consumer interaction within the food system, they provide an important platform for livability, placemaking and design. The use of open air or farmers markets “contribute to the character of the area and, possibly, of the entire city” (Franck 2005a, 42).

Streets, plazas and parks have become the primary source of open space for urban areas (Mehta 2007, 165). As their position spans both public and private spheres, vendors help to bridge the gap between indoor and outdoor spaces. Vendors become an element of the public realm, affecting both how people perceive space and subsequently how they use it. Food Vending, in many aspects share similarities to their brick-and-mortar counterparts by helping to increase and lengthen pedestrian activities through food and hospitality. Street food provides important opportunities to help create more pedestrian-friendly streets, increase safety and stimulate the local community and economy (Quinn et al., n.d.).

### **History of Vending in Seattle**

Seattle has a lengthy history with food vendors. Vending has been a part of the city from its early history, with vendors lining Produce Row, what is now Western Avenue, to sell local agriculture products (Shorett and Morgan 1982). The creation of the beloved Pike Place Market at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century gave permanent housing to these vendors and remains the longest publicly owned market in the United States (Crowley 1999). Vending outside the market offered a range of food, coffee and florists in retail areas around downtown.

In two major instances the City of Seattle has tried to eliminate vendors, both in the market and on city streets. In the 1960s, Pike Place Market faced serious threats of demolition to make way for a new stadium complex (Crowley 1999). Large opposition from the community protected Pike Place Market from destruction, despite wide consensus by city officials to demolish it. This catalyzed market supporters to create an initiative that would ultimately protected from future changes with the designation of a Historic District.

Once more, in 1984 street vendors in Seattle's downtown area were targeted for removal, although for different reasons. Vendors had gained an unattractive and undesirable image in the city and there was a perception that vendors encouraged blight and disinvestment in communities. These code changes in 1984 restricted vendors to only serving limited food items such as coffee, popcorn and hot dogs (SDOT 2011; Schaefer 1984b).

Despite these restrictions, post-1984 Seattle still had a vibrant, although limited, vending culture. In the late 80s and early 90s, the numbers of vendors were estimated to be between 25 and 30 espresso carts in downtown, serving morning coffee and lunchtime sandwiches to downtown office workers (Browder 1985). However, further regulations and enforcement from the health, transportation and engineering departments made vending a complex and onerous process, discouraging many from operating a cart (Allison 2010). It appears that an increasingly complex regulatory system worked to limit the number of vendors and that the growth of a coffee culture now synonymous with Seattle was final blow to sidewalk vendors. Espresso vendors had largely disappeared from downtown by the 1990s, and by 2008, only one espresso cart remained in downtown (Murakami 2008, Allison 2010). After the restrictions in 1984 and the decline of Seattle's espresso carts, food vending became a relatively uncommon sight in Seattle.

### **Seattle: Public Realm and Mobile Food Vending**

In understanding the place vending has in the built environment and within the urban space design, it is important to understand how public space is evaluated and understood locally.

In the past decade the City of Seattle has made considerable efforts to improve access, safety and walkability on city streets. In tandem with the city's environmental pushes and economic development considerations, quality of life has become central to issues related to built environment. Through citywide facility improvements, updated design guidelines, alternative transportation master plans and departmental shifts, the City of Seattle aims to become the "most walkable city" in the U.S. (SDOT 2010). Continued efforts at implementing traffic calming, improved pedestrian facilities and concentrated mixed-use development are examples of some key features of this push.

Since 2009, the City of Seattle has explored the potential of bringing a diversity of mobile food vendors to city streets. The 2009 Pedestrian Master Plan included a vending pilot project as one of the key tactics by the city that would help to reclaim and activate public spaces (SDOT 2009, 15). Additionally in 2010, the City of Seattle established a Vacant/Underused Lot Pilot Project as a response to stalled pre-2010 redevelopment projects (SMC 23.42.038(2)(b); DPD 2011b). Using the idea of temporary activities and structures, the goal of the pilot project was to provide an interim use, such as mobile food vending, while vacant or abandoned parcels awaited redevelopment. Property owners could apply for Interim Use permits established by the Vacant and Underused Lot Pilot Project, with the purpose of improving foot traffic.

### ***Seattle Citywide Design Guidelines***

Seattle's walkability goal is supported by land use and design policies. Using citywide Design Guidelines for commercial and multi-family development, the City aims to ensure the quality of new developments for residents as well as strengthen the streetscape connections for pedestrians (DPD 2010). The purpose of the Design Guidelines is to "define the qualities of architecture, urban design and public space that make for successful project

and communities” and contribute to an “attractive, vibrant and liveable city” (DPD 2010, iii).

Revisions to the existing Design Guidelines were made in 2010, reinforcing three main design principles: context and site, public life and design concept. The guidelines have undergone considerable modification, review and comment from its original document in 1993, in order to reflect broadly the design values of Seattle’s residents while allowing flexibility for developers and to create a fair and consistent process for evaluation (DPD 2010, iv).

The Design Guidelines emphasize the impacts of design beyond an individual development. The guidelines reiterate the idea of a building as a segment of a woven streetscape rather than a building as an individual monument. Comprising over a third of the land within the City of Seattle, city streets serve a critical role as a dominant form of urban space in denser areas. If used well, the sidewalk can be elevated to a communally driven space, as the “extended front porch” or “public living room” because of the functions it performs (Hinshaw 2007, Jacobs 1961). The design of the built environment, from infrastructure such as sidewalks and streets to building fronts and amenities, has a significant role in how pedestrians use and engage these spaces.

By emphasizing the outward function and appearance of structures, the Design Guidelines help to further this idea of unity in the public realm and the pedestrian experience. There are 11 different design guidelines covering topics such as public space, project use and natural systems. Within each one of these guidelines is 5 to 10 design approaches, 95 total, which cover specific spatial considerations the development must incorporate (Figure 2 and Table 1).

Figure 2 Layout of Seattle Design Guidelines

THEME	<b>DC. Design Concept</b> <b>PL. Public Life</b> <b>CS. Context and Site</b>
GUIDELINE	<b>CS2. Urban Pattern and Form:</b> Strengthen the most desirable forms, characteristics, and patterns of the streets, block faces, and open spaces in the surrounding area.
DESIGN APPROACH	<b>CS2.A. Location in the City and Neighborhood</b> <b>CS2.A1 Sense of Place:</b> Emphasize attributes that give Seattle, the neighborhood, and/or the site its distinctive sense of place. Examples include patterns of streets or blocks; slopes; sites with prominent visibility, relationships to bodies of water or significant open spaces, iconic buildings or transportation junctions; and land seen as a gateway to the community.

In most instances, design review is mandatory for multifamily and commercial developments. Development proposals are required to meet or exceed each of the applicable design approaches that are applicable to the development (Table 4).

**Table 1 Seattle City Design Guidelines and Design Approaches**

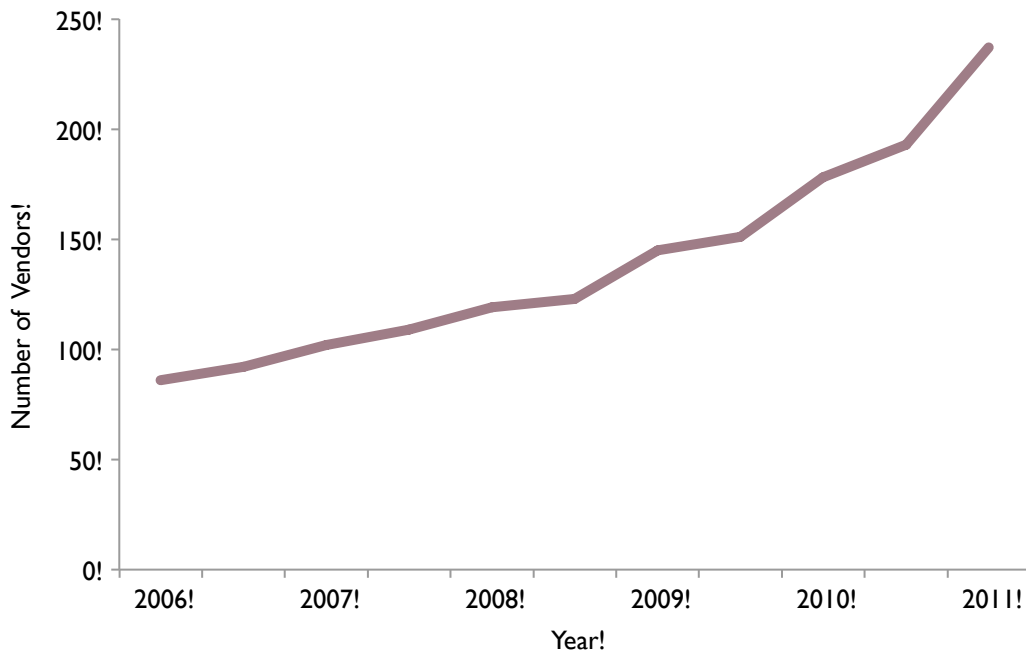
<b>Natural systems and site features</b>	Energy use; sunlight and natural ventilation; managing and embracing topography; plants and habitat; natural water features
<b>Urban Pattern and Form</b>	Sense of place; architectural presence; understanding surrounding characteristics of public realm; relationship to the block; height bulk and scale
<b>Architectural context and character</b>	Emphasizing positive neighborhood attributes; local history and culture
<b>Public Space</b>	Enhance existing public spaces; adding to public life; pedestrian considerations – infrastructure, volume and amenities; selecting activity areas, informal community uses and year-round activities
<b>Walkability</b>	Accessibility for all; safety and security through natural surveillance, lighting and transparency; weather protection; and wayfinding
<b>Street Level Interaction</b>	Designing entries as elements of a building; retail edges as porous, visible and encouraging ancillary activities; residential edges to encourage security, privacy and interaction
<b>Active Transportation</b>	Selecting access points to serve and connect all modes of transportation; include considerations for cyclists; include considerations for transit
<b>Project Uses and Activities</b>	Arrangement of “interior” public spaces to be visible and at crossroads of activity; design priorities for vehicular access location and design; design priorities for parking and service uses
<b>Architectural Concept</b>	Massing to consider site characteristic and uses; minimize massing; façade composition; avoid blank walls; visual depth and interest through secondary architecture features; human scale and texture; legibility and function
<b>Open Space Concept</b>	Building – open space relationship; open spaces that meet user needs, fit in with existing conditions and connect to other spaces; design that provide amenities; support natural areas
<b>Exterior Elements and Finishes</b>	Building elements that are climate appropriate; signage that has appropriate scale and character; functional lighting; building and plant materials; project recycling

### **Ordinance 123659**

In 2011, the Seattle City Council unanimously passed Ordinance 123659, relaxing many of the restrictions on food and merchandise vending that were set in 1984. After several years in the making, the code changes have been a positive step in increasing opportunities for mobile food vendors.

The ordinance, rather than prompting drastic changes in mobile food vending in the city, has signaled a wide-scale acceptance of a booming food truck culture in Seattle (Figure 2). The ordinance comes at an opportune time by reflecting the current popularity and growth of vending in Seattle. By the end of 2011, 243 mobile food vendors were active in King County, more than double the vendors present in 2006 (Seattle-King County Public Health 2012).

**Figure 3 Number of Active Mobile Food Vendors in King County, WA by Annual Permit Inspections 2006-2011**



(Data from Public Health Seattle-King County, 2011)

The ordinance was passed with the intention of creating more opportunities for street vendors and local residents. The City Council, in adopting the ordinance, noted that vending provides opportunities for “low-cost, entry-level business[es]”, increased “public safety by providing eyes-on-the-street and create pedestrian activity on sidewalks” and “creates a more vibrant retail business climate” (City of Seattle City Council 2011, 1). By

permitting the vendors on public right-of-ways, the City could further encourage pedestrian activity by creating more opportunities for street-level activity.

The ordinance signals, in part, a larger effort to legalize, regulate and permit mobile food vendors within urban areas. The changes have helped to remove barriers to street vending by clarifying code, creating a standardized permitting process and removing some discrepancies between health codes (SDOT 2011).

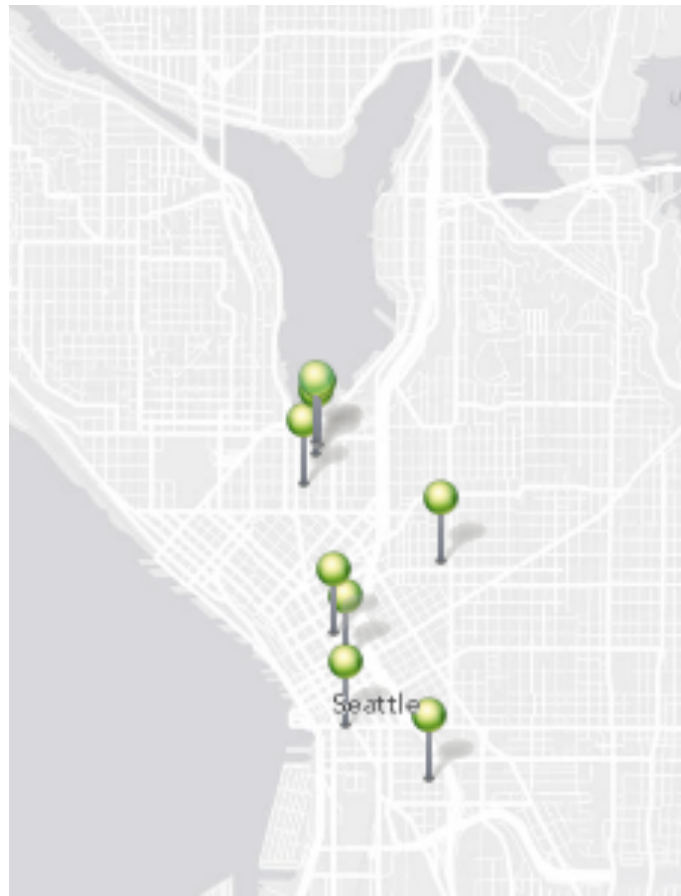
The largest component of Ordinance 123659 is the creation of “Food-Vehicle Zones” on public right-of-ways for on-street vending. Before this ordinance, these larger vehicles (Figure 3) were limited to selling only on private property. The Seattle Municipal Code (SMC 15.17.120) establishes procedures and locations where vendors may sell on public right-of-ways. Currently, there are eight of these designated Food-Vehicle Zones within the city (SDOT 2012). A handful of these zones were originally established by the City of Seattle, however the intention was that vendors would request or propose to create new Food-Vehicle Zones in the future. Vendors that choose to propose new Food-Vehicle Zones are required to meet specific location requirements where the vending unit must be:



**Figure 4 A mobile food vendor at a designated Food-Vehicle Zone in Downtown Seattle**

- Not located adjacent to low-density residential zone
- Located on a sidewalk with a width must be at least five to six feet wide with a visual corridor of three to four feet

- At least five feet from alleys, driveways, bus zone areas, disabled person parking zones, food-vehicle zones, and commercial loading zones
- At least ten feet at least from all curb ramps and street fixtures
- At least ten feet at least along the curb line from the point where the radius of the corner-curb area intersects the curb line
- At least three feet from the front of the curb for vending carts
- At least fifteen feet from any business entrance or exit
- At least fifty feet from a food service business
- Not located on a driveway or alley
- At least 1,000 feet from any public or private school containing a 9th grade through 12th grade class if the vendor is located in a public place abutting low-rise residential areas
- Permitted by the Parks Department to vend within 50 feet of a park
- A maximum of 2 vendors can located on a block face, or 4 per block, at any given time (SDOT 2011)



**Figure 5 Established Food-Vehicle Zones in Seattle in May 2012 (Data from SDOT 2012)**

From July 2011 to May 2012, the city has granted permits for nine vendors in eight locations concentrated primarily in the central neighborhood areas in and around to Downtown. South Lake Union is home to four of these locations. These permits allow vendors 4-hour timeslots per day in specific Food Vehicle Zones. Passage of the ordinance has opened new options for mobile food vendors: they are able to go through a new public process to vend on public right-of-ways or to continue with private property agreements. Despite increased flexibility on the part of the City, since the ordinance's passage, only a handful of vendors have opted to use this public option, suggesting that vendors are choosing to continue with established processes between private property owners and vendors.

### 3. Methodology

This research was developed largely in response to a questions surrounding mobile food vending regulations in cities. Although mobile food vending has become a popular topic for many cities, municipalities largely have not been able explore the positive contributions of mobile food vendors and instead have had to mitigate and regulate the negative effects that mobile food vendors may bring. Instead, this research has yet been done that looks at the possibilities of how mobile food vendors can improve public spaces within urban areas.

The impetus for this project emerged from an exploration of the role of land uses in neighborhood design, particularly with food and dining establishments, which could connect private activity with the public realm. The focus on mobile food vending emerged as the particular land use in question, as the researcher followed debate over Seattle's own mobile food vending ordinance in the summer of 2011. Following encouragement from informal conversations with the City of Seattle, the researcher sought to address the missing component of public design within the mobile food vending regulations.

Relying on site studies across the city, the research connects mobile food vending to existing City of Seattle urban design and public space strategies. This research evaluated 20 vending sites across the city and investigated the potential of mobile food vending to address citywide goals and policies regarding walkability, design and quality of life. This

section outlines steps in the research design from site selection, creation of an evaluation process, data collection and analysis.

## Site Selection

The study used vending sites, rather than vending units, as the basic unit of analysis. This approach was selected because of the importance of distinguishing between a mobile food vendor and a vending site. In some instances where the mobile food vendor is a permanent fixture, the vendor and the vending site are the same. However, in most instances, food vendors are mobile and travel to different sites throughout a given week or month. In these cases, it is more accurate to look at the vending site itself rather than the individual vendor. In many cases, popular sites may be occupied by more than one vendor during a given time of the week.

There is no comprehensive list of mobile food vending sites in the Seattle area. In order to identify these vending sites, the researcher first compiled a list of vendors from food establishment inspection data from Seattle-King County Public Health through February 2012. As all food establishments within King County must be inspected by the Department of Health at least once a year, food establishment inspection data was used as an accurate way of counting currently active mobile food vendors in the county. Permits for the actual vending unit were also compared to permits for commissary use (a requirement for all licensed mobile food vendors in King County), to ensure an accurate and reliable count. The entries were then reduced to vendors within the City of Seattle limits.

In cases where vendors were mobile and sold at multiple vending sites, data generally did not provide location information. In order to identify sites for these traveling food vendors, the researcher developed data from additional resources, including City of

Seattle Street Use permits, Internet resources such as Seattlefoodtruck.com and individual vendor webpages, news media, and by word-of-mouth.

In total, about 80 vending sites were identified within City of Seattle boundaries. Although efforts were made to ensure a thorough and accurate list of vending sites, changes in vendor routes and the addition of new vendors and sites are frequent. From this initial list of 80 sites, 20 sites were selected as locations of study. These sites were then identified by a number of different site characteristics, such as mobility status or locational qualities. Table 2 shows an example of some site characteristics that were identified during the process of site selection and the final number of the studied vending sites that fall within each category. The vending sites in this study were narrowed down 20 sites, chosen to represent a range of different neighborhoods and site characteristics, such as street classification or surrounding land uses. Other considerations for site selection included generalizability and researcher access.

**Table 2 Vending Site Characteristics**

<b>Site Ownership</b>	Public (6)	Private (14)
<b>Duration</b>	Permanent (4)	Part-time (16)
<b>Location to Sidewalk</b>	Adjacent (13)	Setback (7)
<b>Group (2 or more vendors)</b>	Yes (8)	No (12)
<b>Arterial</b>	Yes (11)	No (9)
<b>Relation to Neighborhood Core</b>	Central (10)	Peripheral (10)

A detailed list of vending sites studied in this research with the identified vending site characteristics is listed in Appendix A. The research identified these vending sites based on a set of qualities with the intention of drawing trends or findings from the group rather than from unique cases. Three site characteristics were ultimately chosen as the areas

of particular focus in this study due its relevance to the municipal vending regulations and the urban design implications of the chosen characteristics. Property ownership of the site (private or public) was chosen with the intention of understanding spatial quality differences between vendors that are or are not regulated by setback requirements. The duration of the vendor (permanent or mobile) was chosen in order to compare the urban design qualities between mobile vendors that must move frequently or permanent vendors that may be able to adapt their sites. Distance from the sidewalk (set back and adjacent) was the last site characteristic chosen for this study as it has large urban design implications on urban form, streetscape activity and walkability. Although this research is not intended to be generalizable or inclusive across an entire range of mobile food vending, it can show some common threads between urban design and mobile food vending.

### **Developing a Coding Scheme**

Direct observation was critical to this study in order to understand the role of mobile food vending and to understand the “on-the-ground” impact of vending. Data was collected by the researcher at each of the sites chosen for the study between February and April 2012. Due to limited days of data collection during the winter months, a majority of the observations did not include pedestrian counts, and instead examined vending site characteristics and the vendors’ relative impact on identified municipal policies.

Direct observation through site visits is an ideal method when trying to understand a physical or social phenomenon. Observation and other qualitative methods provide informational depth, such as sensory details, emotion or activity, not readily captured by traditional quantitative measures (Leedy 2004; Robson 1993, 322). However, this method faces some flaws if improperly used: potential observer bias and different interpretations of

what is being observed. Robson (1993, 324) identifies 4 main issues that affect the quality and accuracy of data collected through observation: selective attention, selective encoding, selective memory and interpersonal factors. Robson suggests that to overcome these biases, observers must be able to distribute their attention, keep an open mind, record quickly after a session, and to remove biases through self-recognition (324).

With this in mind, structured observation is a method that allows for a more systematic collection of observational data that can help to overcome these many of these biases. Additionally, structured observation allows for an easier translation between qualitative and quantitative data. In structured observation, coding schemes are developed prior to observation events. These coding schemes are typically presented as checklists or category systems, and their breadth and complexity vary greatly. The use of coding schemes as an observational technique requires that in order to be reliable, the coding scheme “depends crucially on the skills of the observer” (Robson 1993, 331). This format of research necessitates that any individual who is evaluating or observing must qualified to do such work by having a depth of knowledge in the field as well as an understanding the scope of work. In this project, the researcher is able to do such work based on previous experience in administrative design review and in evaluating projects in adherence to design guidelines.

It is recommended that researchers use or adapt existing coding schemes or criteria in order for potential comparison among studies and to avoid potential biases (331). Robson suggests a coding scheme must be focused, objective, non-context dependent, explicitly defined, exhaustive, mutually exclusive and easy to record (332).

A method of evaluation was developed using Seattle’s Citywide Design Guidelines. Existing City of Seattle plans and policies were examined for guidance on walkable and activated public spaces with Seattle. These local plans were targeted, as they take into consideration public space and urban design principles, while establishing citizen priorities and needs within these principles. Goals from the Pedestrian Master Plan, Seattle Design Guidelines, and the Comprehensive Plan that may impact the design and development of public space were identified (Appendix D).

**Table 3 Walkability-Related Policy Language Comparison for City of Seattle Documents**

Seattle Design Guidelines	Comprehensive Plan	Pedestrian Master Plan
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PL1. Public Space. If public space is provided or authorized by law, its design should complement and contribute to the network of public spaces around the site and the connections among them.               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pedestrian Volumes (PL1.B2): Provide ample space for pedestrian flow and circulation, particularly in areas where there is already heavy pedestrian traffic or where the project is expected to create or attract new pedestrians to the area (Citywide Design Guidelines, 8)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p>TG15 Increase walking and bicycling to help achieve City transportation, environmental, community and public health goals.</p> <p>TG16 Create and enhance safe, accessible, attractive and convenient street and trail networks that are desirable for walking and bicycling.</p> <p>(Transportation Element, 3.11)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Objective 2: Improve walkability on all streets.               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Strategy 2.1: Create and maintain a walkable zone on all streets to enable a clear pedestrian path of travel</li> <li>○ Strategy 2.2: Improve pedestrian access to major destinations</li> <li>○ Strategy 2.3: Create an expanded set of design standards for pedestrian paths and sidewalks</li> <li>○ Strategy 2.4: Support the dual benefits of tree canopy coverage and walkability</li> </ul> </li> </ul> <p>(Pedestrian Master Plan Matrix)</p>

Ultimately, Seattle Citywide Design Guidelines were used as a basis for evaluating vending sites, as its goals were prescriptive enough to assign values to sites and development-oriented to allow for evaluation. Neither the Comprehensive Plan nor Pedestrian Master Plan could provide this level of detail necessary for evaluation. Table 3 shows an example of the differences in policy language between the three documents for walkability on city streets. Whereas municipal plans such as the Comprehensive Plan and Pedestrian Master Plan are oriented towards government operations, design guidelines

provide a standard for private development. Additionally, Seattle Design Guidelines were comprehensive enough to encompass the goals presented in the other two documents.

The 2010 Design Guidelines document is organized in three tiers. The first tier, “theme,” is broken into three topics that address architecture, people, and environment: design concept, public life, and context and site. Within each of these themes are the design guidelines, 11 in total, which provide the goals of Seattle design (Figure 6 and 7). The last tier, the “design approach,” specifies performances or actions that development proposals should consider within each guideline. In this study, each of the vending sites was evaluated in accordance to these design approaches (57 in total were used). The guidelines, although providing specificity for design, did not provide the depth that design approaches did for evaluation.

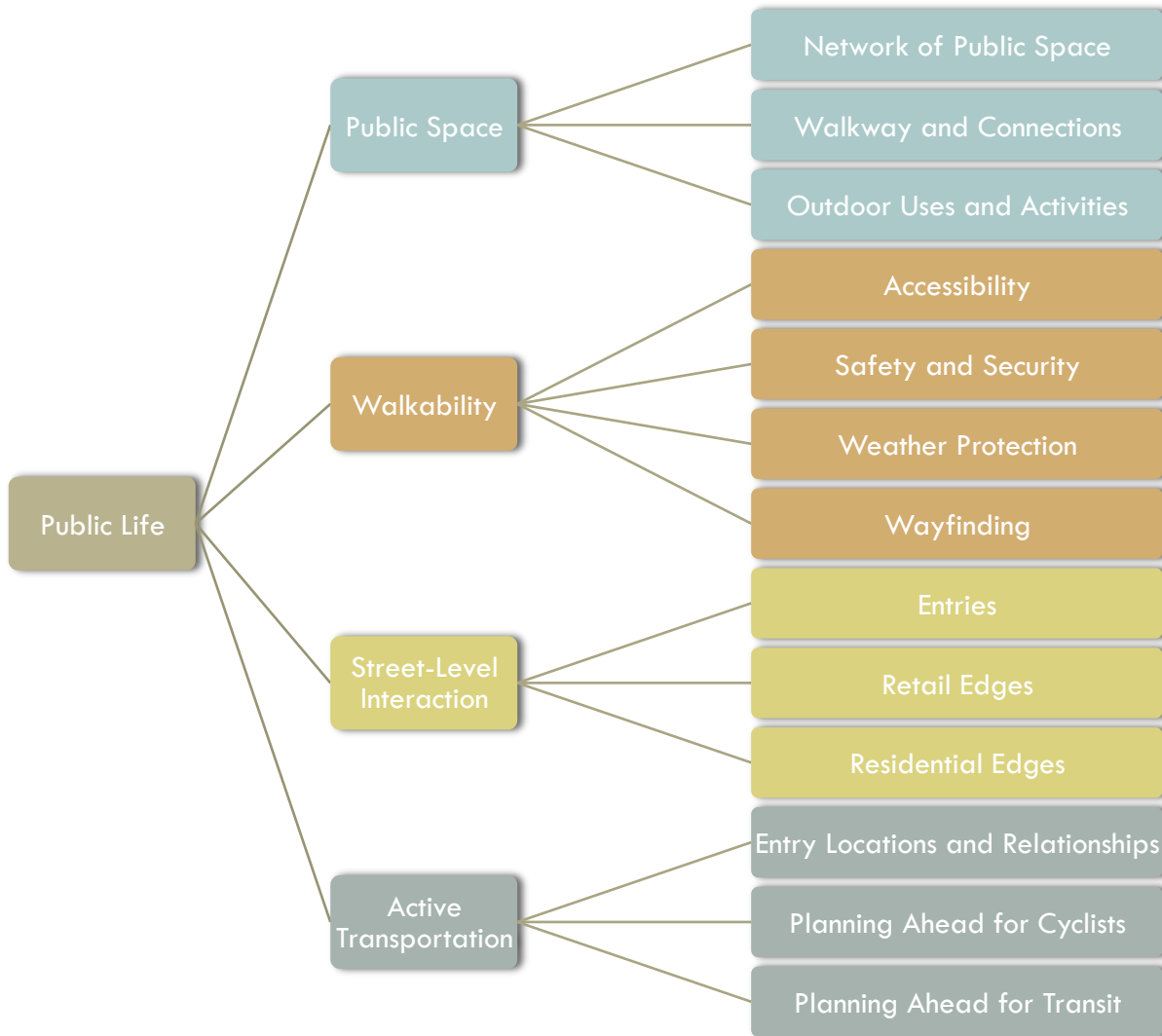
**Figure 6 Seattle Design Guideline Organization**

THEME	<b>DC. Design Concept</b> <b>PL. Public Life</b> <b>CS. Context and Site</b>
GUIDELINE	<b>CS2. Urban Pattern and Form:</b> Strengthen the most desirable forms, characteristics, and patterns of the streets, block faces, and open spaces in the surrounding area.
DESIGN APPROACH	<b>CS2.A. Location in the City and Neighborhood</b> <b>CS2.A1 Sense of Place:</b> Emphasize attributes that give Seattle, the neighborhood, and/or the site its distinctive sense of place. Examples include patterns of streets or blocks; slopes; sites with prominent visibility, relationships to bodies of water or significant open spaces, iconic buildings or transportation junctions; and land seen as a gateway to the community.

3 THEMES

11 DESIGN GUIDELINES

95 DESIGN APPROACHES



**Figure 7 Outline of the Design Guideline Format for the “Public Life” Theme**

The Citywide Design Guidelines exemplifies the goals of the city in terms of development, while providing performance-based statements for evaluation (DPD 2010, iii). Where some of the language references specific items, such as building scale and bulk, the language was modified to match research needs as well as keep the spirit and intention of the original goal. Where the guideline or language was not applicable, such as building

materials or natural systems, it was omitted from the evaluation as it could not be affected or influenced by mobile food vendors.






In an effort to translate the relative “effectiveness” of the vending site could contribute to or be detrimental to that particular policy, the sites were rated on a number scale to allow for comparisons between the particular site attributes to the set of vendors as a whole. Because this valuation is subjective and faces variation between evaluators, a relatively simple five-level grading system was used. The scale offers some flexibility in the grading based on the degree the vending site does or does not meet the criteria, but does not give such excessive variability that may emerge due to value or taste judgments. The following are two examples of how study sites were evaluated based on the design criteria adopted in this study. Included in each example is the template language, specific language for each guideline, site examples and researcher notes.

The following is an example of how the Walkways and Connections criteria is evaluated on this scale:

**“2. Pedestrian Volumes:** Provide ample space for pedestrian flow and circulation, particularly in areas where there is already heavy pedestrian traffic or where the project is expected to create or attract new pedestrians to the area.

**3. Pedestrian Amenities:** Provide pedestrian amenities where necessary to enliven the area and attract interest and interaction with the site and building” (DPD 2010).

**Table 4 Example of Guideline Ratings as applied to PL1.B “Walkways and Connections”**

Scale	Rating	Approach Criteria	Example	Researcher Notes
-2	The particular vending site is ineffective at promoting the goal	The vendor detrimentally impacts or severely reduces walkways and pedestrian connections		Total sidewalk width is <5 feet and does not allow adequate space for walking and line queuing. Site can only handle minimal pedestrian traffic
-1	The particular vending site is somewhat ineffective at promoting the goal	The vendor somewhat impacts or reduces walkways and pedestrian connections		Adequate sidewalk space is provided for the vending site. However, Customer line is a hindrance to pedestrians by blocking sidewalk access
0	The particular vending site is neutral at promoting the goal	The vendor has no impact on walkways and pedestrian connections		Vending site (unit and shelter are left), has no positive or negative impact to the sidewalk
1	The particular vending site is somewhat effective at promoting the goal	The vendor somewhat positively impacts or increases walkways and pedestrian connections		Sidewalk space is adequate for pedestrians. Connection between the sidewalk and vendor and customer is improved but shielded from the sidewalk.
2	The particular vending site is effective at promoting the goal	The vendor positively impacts or increases walkway and pedestrian connections		Sidewalk space is adequate for pedestrians and there are no obstructions that block path. Site has grass space for waiting customers towards street edge.

## Data Collection and Analysis

Initial pilot visits were made to several vending sites in order to gain an understanding of the variation of mobile food vendors and to retool the evaluation process and criteria as needed. The researcher used these initial visits to self-calibrate the scale based on the grading criteria to ensure that site evaluations and grades would be consistent through the duration of the study.

Evaluations and observations were conducted by the researcher at each one of the 20 vending sites over the between March and May. Data collection days were chosen on warmer days (60 degrees and above) with little to no precipitation or wind. Each visit to the site was approximately an hour to an hour and a half where observations were recorded through field notes and an evaluation sheet created from the adapted Design Guidelines (Appendix C). In some instances, particularly with the sites that were visited earlier in the research, sites were visited an additional time to supplement or corroborate previous data.

Once the data was collected the study sites, the data was aggregated based on the three site characteristics chosen (site ownership, vending unit duration and distance from the sidewalk). The data was then put through a Mann-Whitney U test, a statistical test of significance for ordinal data, in order to find potential differences in scores in each of the 9 design guidelines.

**Table 5 Study Site Characteristics and Number of Vendors**

<b>Site Ownership</b>	Public (6)	Private (14)
<b>Duration</b>	Permanent (4)	Part-time (16)
<b>Location to Sidewalk</b>	Adjacent (13)	Setback (7)

## Limitations

This research faces some limitations in its applicability and generalizability to other cities and mobile food vendors. Due to time and transportation constraints of the researcher, the research was limited in terms of duration of the study and size of sample set. The sample set is relatively small and was not randomly selected (discussed above). Further research should include a larger sample with additional vending sites in order to gain a more robust sample.

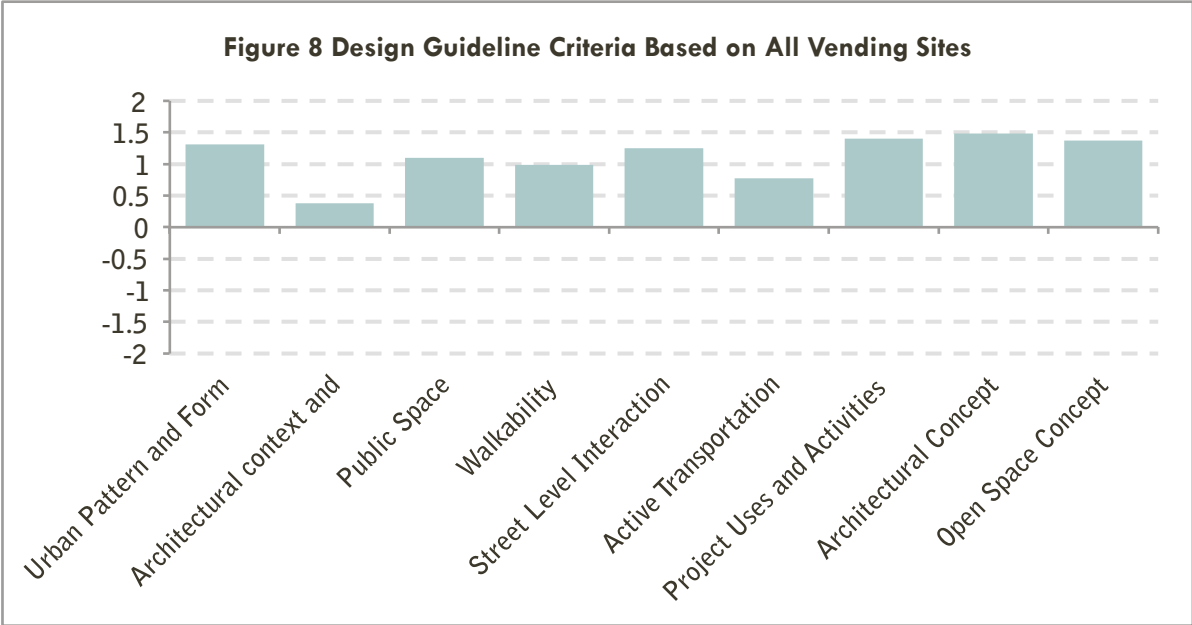
The research does not compare mobile food vending to other practices or alternatives (e.g., sidewalk cafes, ground-floor zoning, “pop-up” buildings) to understand how comparatively effective this strategy may be. In addition, the research is limited in how generalizable it can be to a wider population due to a non-random sample.

Lastly, collection of quantitative data collection was limited. This limitation is important because vending’s exposure to the elements makes it highly vulnerable to weather and seasonal fluctuations. Data in terms of pedestrian counts, adjacent business sales and customer habits were considered as part of the scope of work, but were not included due to extraneous variables such as weather and season.

### 4. Findings: Site Studies

The study examined three separate vending site characteristics in relation to City of Seattle Design Guidelines: property ownership, site duration and distance from the sidewalk. In total, 20 vending sites across the Seattle were evaluated through direct observations and an evaluation in order to compare how effectively certain site characteristics addressed the Design Guidelines (Figure 9 and Table 6).

Vending sites cannot be generalized across the city due to this variability in where and how they locate, resulting in wide range in the quality of space surrounding them. The findings show that there is significant variability in the effectiveness of vending sites to address the urban design criteria and many of the differences emerge when examining site characteristics (Figure 8). As a whole, vendors were most successful at addressing architectural concept, project use and urban pattern and form. Vendor scored the lowest in architectural context and active transportation.



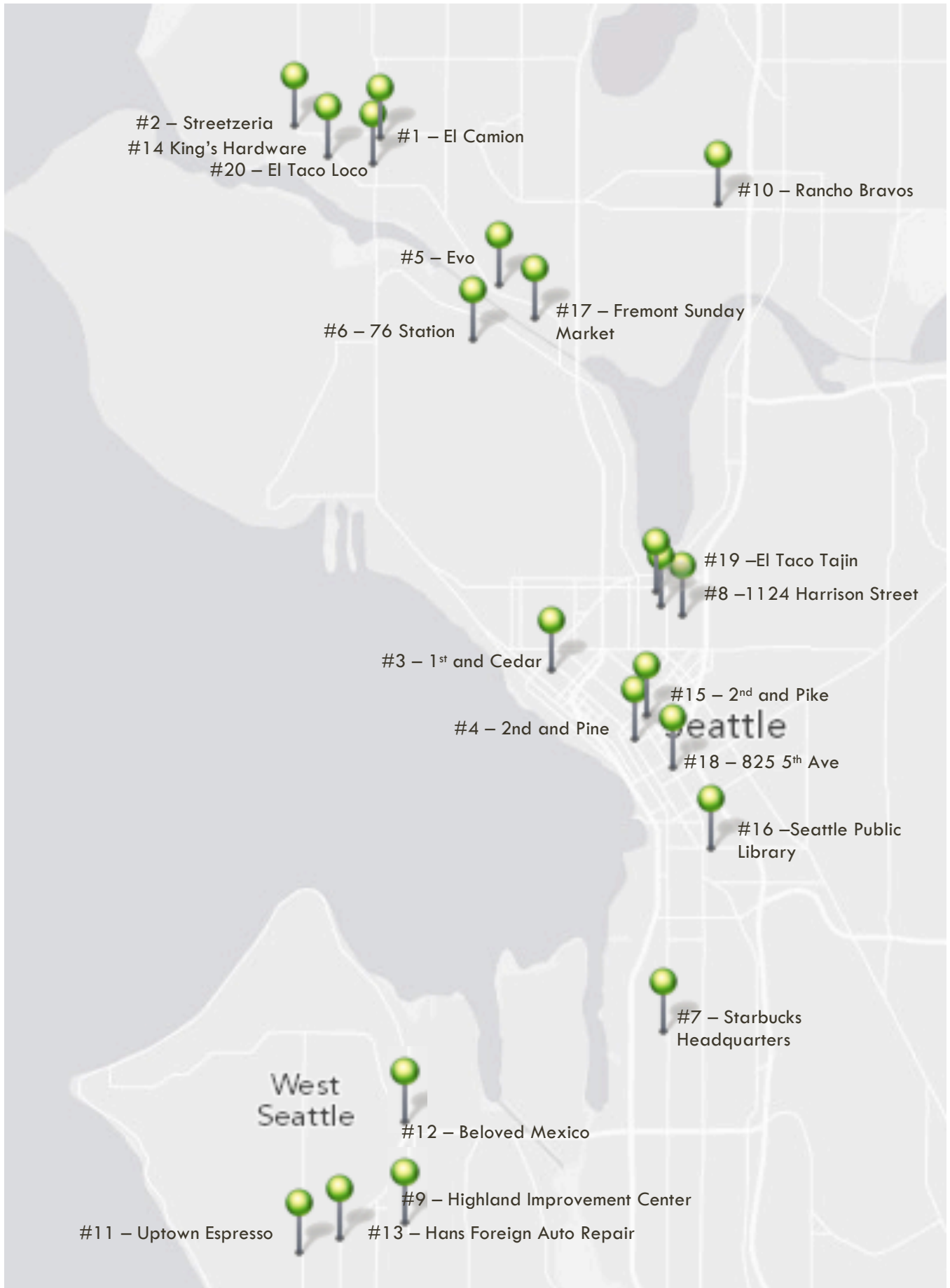


Figure 9 Map of Selected Study Sites in Seattle

**Table 6 Vending Sites and Site Characteristics**

#	Location	Neighborhood	Site ownership	Duration	Sidewalk	2 or more vendors nearby
1	5314 15 <sup>th</sup> Ave NW	Ballard	Private	Permanent	Setback	No
2	24 <sup>th</sup> and Market Spirit Gas	Ballard	Private	Mobile	Adjacent	Yes
3	1 <sup>st</sup> Ave and Cedar Chase Bank	Belltown	Private	Mobile	Adjacent	No
4	2 <sup>nd</sup> Ave and Pike	Downtown	Private	Permanent	Adjacent	No
5	122 NW 36 <sup>th</sup> St Evo	Fremont	Private	Mobile	Adjacent	No
6	Dravus St / 76 Station	Interbay	Private	Mobile	Setback	No
7	2401 Utah St Starbucks Hdqtr	SoDo	Private	Mobile	Setback	Yes
8	1124 Harrison Street	South Lake Union	Private	Mobile	Adjacent	Yes
9	Highland Improvement	West Seattle	Private	Mobile	Setback	Yes
10	211 NE 45 <sup>th</sup> St	Wallingford	Private	Permanent	Setback	No
11	Uptown Espresso	West Seattle	Private	Mobile	Adjacent	Yes
12	Beloved Mexico	West Seattle	Private	Permanent	Adjacent	No
13	35 <sup>th</sup> and Morgan Hans Auto Repair	West Seattle	Private	Mobile	Setback	No
14	King's Hardware	Ballard	Public	Mobile	Adjacent	Yes
15	Westlake Center	Downtown	Public	Mobile	Adjacent	No
16	4th and Madison Seattle Library	Downtown	Public	Mobile	Adjacent	No
17	Sunday Market	Fremont	Public	Mobile	Adjacent	Yes
18	825 5 <sup>th</sup> Ave S	International District	Public	Mobile	Adjacent	No
19	433 Boren N	South Lake Union	Public	Mobile	Adjacent	Yes
20	Ballard Bridge	Ballard	Private	Permanent	Setback	No

The differences based on the Urban Design Guidelines for each of the site characteristics, such as property ownership, duration and distance from sidewalk is discussed in depth in the below.

### **Location Ownership – Public and Private**

Mobile food vendors in Seattle may choose to locate either on public or private property. Land ownership, whether public or private, has a large effect on the types of processes vendors must go through in order to be able to sell. Vendors on public property must go through a process to obtain permits depending on the type of vehicle – either a Food-Vehicle Zone permit for trucks or plaza/sidewalk vending permit for carts. Vendors on public property must meet specific setback requirements in their locations – proscribing certain urban design, safety and engineering consideration. However, the differences do not reflect in the results and differences in terms of design criteria are minimal between public property and private vendors. In most of the criteria, public property vendors scored similarly to private property vendors, and there is not a clear distinction in design quality between property ownership despite regulatory requirements.

Figure 10 shows the mean scores in each of the nine Design Guidelines for property ownership. The Figure shows three categories of vendors: all vendors, public property vendors and private property vendors. The vendors on private property and vendors on public property scored closely in each of the nine urban design guidelines. A Mann-Whitney U test comparing vendors on public and private property suggests that vendors on public property and private property were statistically different in 2 of the 9 categories evaluated: street-level interaction and public space. Where vendors on public property were more effective at addressing public space, such as pedestrian considerations and

enhancing existing public spaces, vendors on private property were more likely to provide higher street-level interaction by providing better facades and edges.

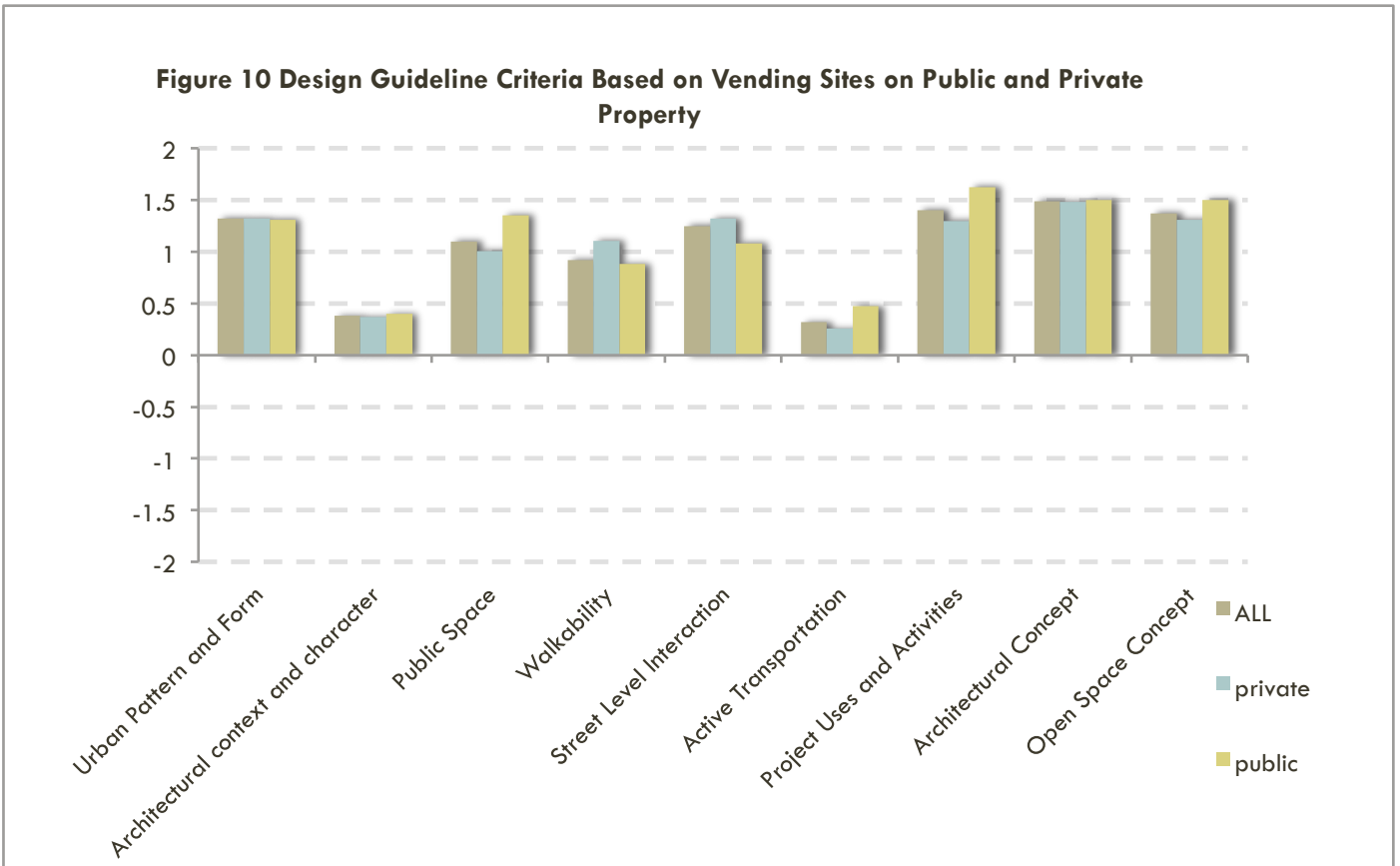
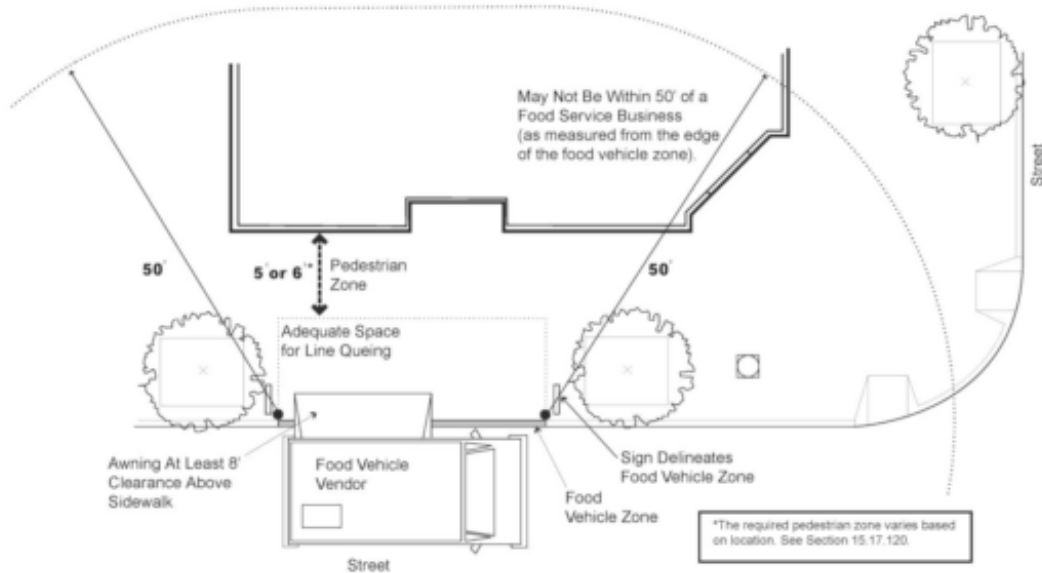


Exhibit A for 15.17.120:  
Food Vehicle Location



**Figure 11 Food-Vehicle Zone Requirements (Image from SDOT 2011b)**

The comparison between public and private property ownership addresses a larger question of if there is a quality difference between vendors who are regulated by city requirements (Figure 11) and those who are not. The mean scores (Figure 8) indicate that in most of the design areas, the requirements set forth in the Food-Vehicle Zone did not make a significant difference in terms of urban design quality for vendors.

Food-Vehicle Zones at minimum are required to have a five to six foot sidewalk clearance, free from any street objects such as trees or trashcans, for clear pedestrian movement. In some Food-Vehicle Zones, such as Vending Sites #16 and #19, the sidewalk is larger than the requirement and can easily meet the “free pedestrian movement” design criterion that is emphasized in the Citywide Design Guidelines. In other cases, such as Vending Site #18, despite meeting Food-Vehicle Zone requirements meant to ensure adequate walking clearance for pedestrians, the sidewalk is blocked by a queue of waiting customers (Figure 12). Overall vendors on public property scored higher in this category due to less “conflict between [transportation] modes as needed” and to place “the primary entr[ies] in a location that logically relates to...uses and clearly connect all major points of access” (DPD 2010, 14).



Figure 12 Vending in Food-Vehicle Zones –Vending Site #16, #19 and #18 (from left to right)

Vendors on private property are not regulated by the SDOT policies and are free to locate without having to take into consideration distance and setback requirements such as sidewalk widths or pedestrian traffic flows.



**Figure 13 Vending Site #4 – Maximus/Minimus at Third and Pine**

Private property vending has significantly fewer hurdles compared to vending on public property, providing vendors with more flexibility in route choices and configuration of their site. In this study, mobile food vendors on private property took advantage of their position on private property to locate as close to the public right-of-way as possible (Figure 13). In total, only a handful of vending sites had significant problems with congestion.



**Figure 14 Vending Site #8 Before and After – Harrison Street, South Lake Union**

Vendors on the mid-block of Harrison Street between John and Terry in South Lake Union (Vending Site #8) has perhaps the narrowest of all the sites, providing only a six-foot gap between truck and curb edge for pedestrian flow and queuing (Figure 14). Sidewalk congestion from waiting customers with pedestrians struggling to weave through was observed during visits to this site. However in a later site visit, the two vending units at the site were pulled away from the street, which helped to clear up the bottleneck while allowing for two tables and waiting space.

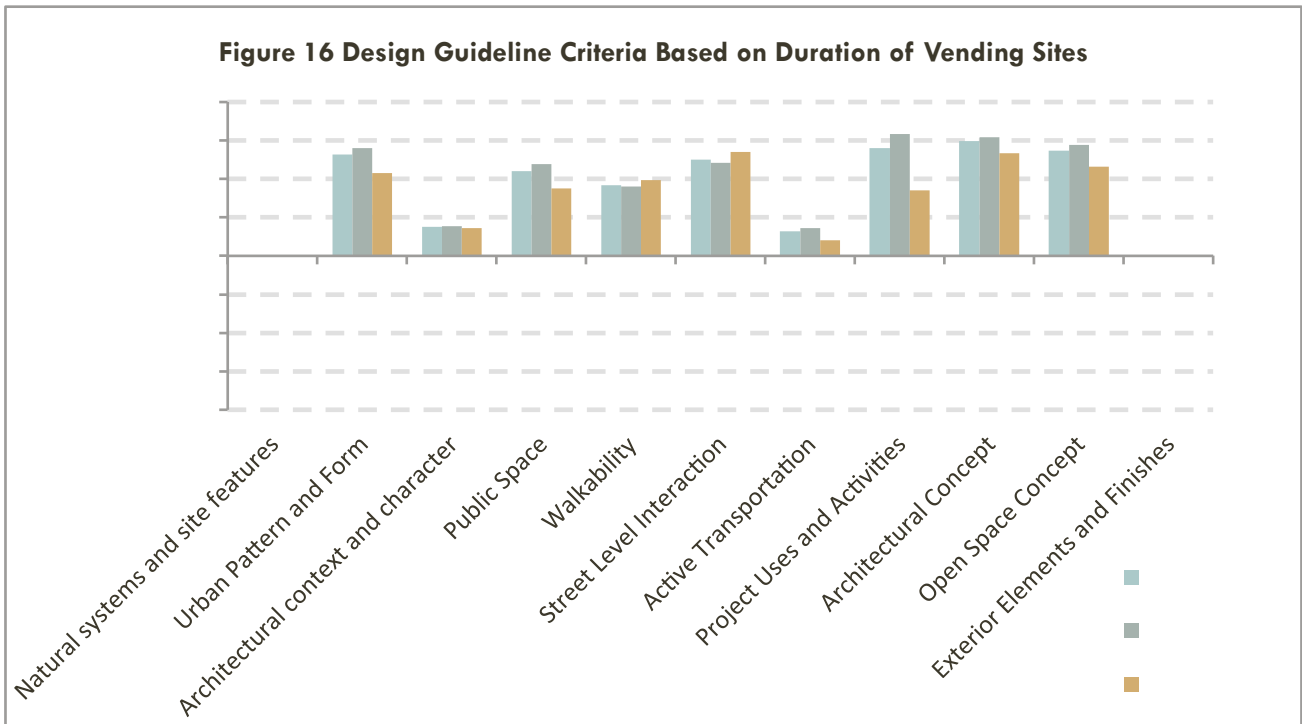
### **Duration – Permanent and Non-Permanent Vendors**

Travelling, temporary food vendors (truly “mobile” mobile food vendors) are more common in Seattle than permanent food vendors. Initial studies of this research identifying all vendors in Seattle found 12 of the 78 sites housed permanent vendors, while 5 of the 20 study sites were permanent. These permanent mobile food vendors may occupy the entire parcel (most often a parking lot) or vend alongside other automobiles.

Figure 16 shows that there are some noticeable differences between mobile food vendors on private property and mobile vendors on public property, where non-permanent food vendors scored higher in seven of the nine categories. However, a Mann-Whitney U test for duration demonstrates that only significant differences between permanent and non-permanent vendors in two categories: Public Space and Project Use and Activities.



Figure 15 – Permanent Vendors #1, #4, #10, #12



Project Use and Activities is related to the organization of uses on the site and the arrangement of parking to minimize impacts. Public Space is related to integrating pedestrian needs to activity, open areas and uses. These permanent vendors were set back further from the sidewalk (four of the five study sites), diminishing their impact on the streetscape. However, these four permanent food vendors provided seating and shelter for customers, a significant amenity absent nearly every non-permanent vending site. The differences in the results between permanent and non-permanent vendors are not likely due to this mobility status, but instead related to another site characteristic, distance from the sidewalk, discussed further below.

In several sites across the city, permanent vendors were the only use on a parcel. One of the most viable development opportunities that mobile food vending provides is on empty parcels. Vending and other similar temporary activities help neighborhoods by bridging the gap between existing vacant parcels and future redevelopment. Their mobility and adaptability provides an opportunity to fill vacant or underutilized spaces temporarily in lieu of a higher and best use.



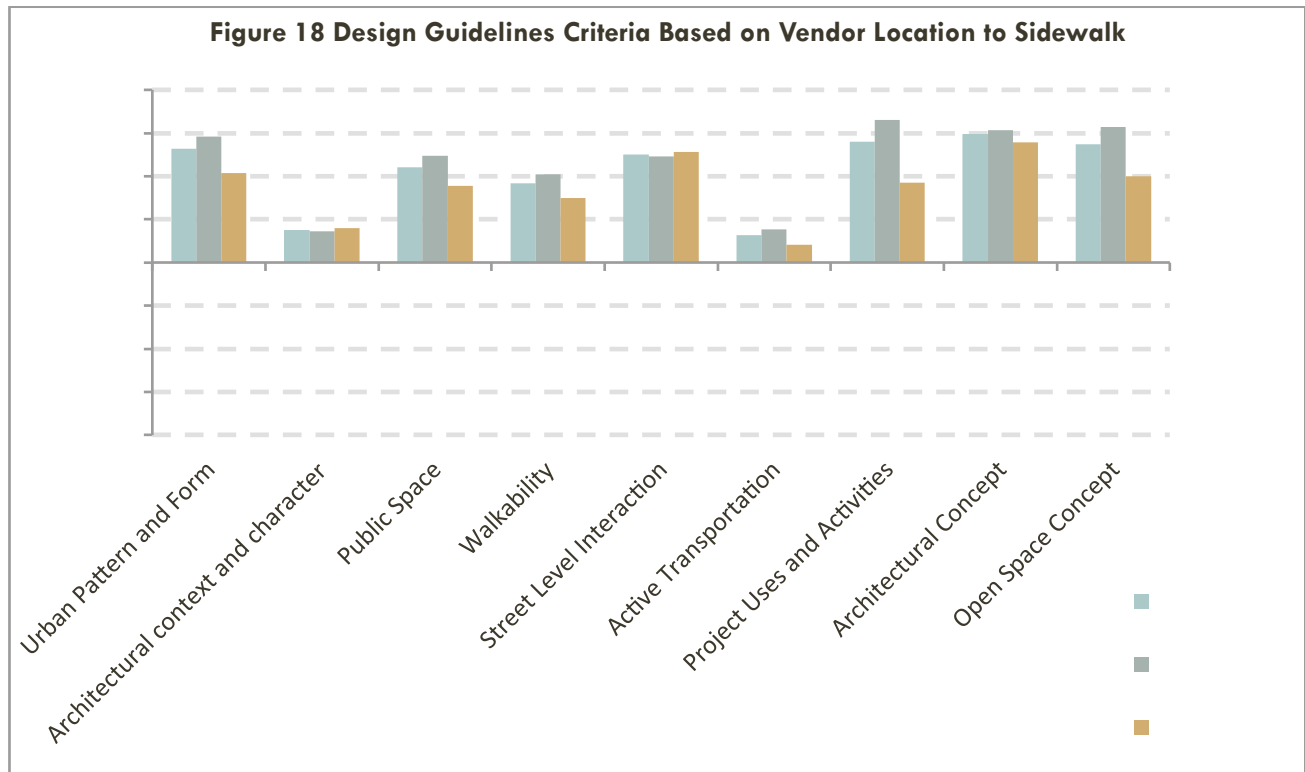
**Figure 17 Vending Site #10 – 45<sup>th</sup> and Corliss, Rancho Bravos Tacos, Wallingford**

In the case of Rancho Bravo Tacos located at Vending Site #10, the vendor sits on a small parking lot of a vacant donut shop. The mobile food vendor provides seating and shelter under a white canopy, set back about twenty feet from the sidewalk. The vendor is hard to spot when the parking lot is full and the vending unit's impact in regards to the streetscape is quite small (Figure 17). However, the vendor garners significant traffic during lunch hours, creating activity in the parking lot. The vendor has seen enough success to expand with another permanent location in the gas station across the street and has taken over the donut shop for storage.

"Markets and merchants can be a temporary use, meaning they can buy time for future development, or they can be permanent fixtures that strengthen local food systems, incubate businesses, fill in underutilized spaces, and enhance walkability" (Morales and Kettles 2009, 2). By encouraging vendors to occupy such spaces, communities can prevent the image of permanent disinvestment or vacancy while other alternatives are proposed.

### **Distance from the Sidewalk – Adjacent and Setback**

As with buildings, the placement of vending units in relation to the sidewalk and street has a significant influence on the streetscape. Of the twenty total sites, six vending sites were located ten or more feet away from the sidewalk (setback), and fourteen vending sites were located within ten feet of the sidewalk (adjacent).



As shown in Figure 18, the vendors adjacent to the sidewalk scored higher in seven of the nine categories compared to vendors who were setback from the sidewalk. The Mann-Whitney U suggests that vendors adjacent to the sidewalk and vendors setback from the sidewalk differed significantly in three categories: urban pattern and form, project use, open space. Placement adjacent the sidewalk, while providing more visibility to potential customers and passersby, were more beneficial in terms of urban design goals.

In relation to pedestrian needs, a vendor’s location can work to help or hinder walkability. This study found that vendors that are located close to the public right-of-way are more effective in regards to urban form and design as they help to better create connections between the sidewalk and customer activity. Although vendors as a whole provide a better alternative to the vacant lot or parking space that would otherwise be empty, vendors that were closer to the sidewalk were more effective at making connections

to the street and to other buildings. Vendors who were setback from the sidewalk still made many of these urban design contributions, however the distance diminished the extent of how effective they were.

These differences between vendor distances are apparent when looking closely at the Design Approaches. Vending sites adjacent to the sidewalk addressed ground-floor activation better, providing better street-level transparency and porous edges more than vending sites setback from the sidewalk and surveillance. However, vending sites setback from the sidewalk more amenities, provided for multiple uses and pedestrian volumes. Despite the lack of transparency and large set back distance from the sidewalk (Figure 17), the Vending Site #10 was successful in attracting activity to their street block.

Vendors that were adjacent or encroached into the public right-of-way were more successful in achieving these Design Guidelines criteria because they often integrated into the building line or masked parking lots behind them. Located at the edge of a covered parking lot underneath a high-rise building in Belltown, a vendor in Vending Site #3 shows how the placement of mobile food vendors can work to improve the existing streetscape (Figure 19). The vendor toes the edge of the private property, helping to shield the gap of the parking lot while bringing activity directly onto the sidewalk.



**Figure 19 Vending Site #3 – First Ave and Cedar St, Belltown**

On busy Saturdays, vendors set up on the corner of a five-way intersection on California Avenue and Erskine Way, where West Seattle’s Alaska Junction abruptly ends. Camped on a tight corner of the Uptown Espresso parking lot, two vendors position themselves in a “V” shape towards the street (Figure 20). Their position at the corner helps to extend the activity of the edge of the main corridor where parking lots comprise three of the five corners of the intersection. Not only do the vendors help create some consistency in urban form, they help to give the main street a terminus point. Vendors work well in closing gaps in the public realm despite their size. Although they nowhere near encompass the size of buildings, but their position in the public realm creates strong visual connections despite their limited stature.



Figure 20 Vending Site #11 – California Ave and Erskine Way, West Seattle

## Additional Qualities of Vending

Mobile food vending helped to bring additional design qualities not addressed in the Design Guidelines criteria in the blocks and neighborhoods they locate. Two of these qualities are neighborhood activity and excitement.

In eight of the twenty study sites, vendors were located within two blocks of another mobile food vendor. The inclusion of vendors helps to generate activity to streets and add another layer of land uses to a neighborhood. Studies show that an important indicator of neighborhood walkability is not only based on the traditional metrics retail square footage or intersection-density, but of the number of businesses within a block (Boarnet, Siembab, Fulton and Nguyen 2011). Vendors in these neighborhoods can help to “triangulate” pedestrian activity, where concentrations of pedestrians and retail activity occur.

This neighborhood-scale vending is most apparent in the South Lake Union neighborhood. With between from 5 to 8 vendors present in the neighborhood on any given weekday, South Lake Union has maintained what appears to be the most stable and consistent level of mobile food vending in all of Seattle’s neighborhoods. Helped by consistent traffic of workers on lunch, mobile food vendors in South Lake Union have established seven regular locations within a six-block radius. Some vendors rotate throughout the week, but many of the same ones are parked there everyday. The neighborhood, still in the midst of development and construction, lacks a critical mass of restaurants and cafes to serve lunch demand and vendors have critical to fill this need.

Vending’s biggest urban design potential seems to be in evolving or transitioning neighborhoods, such as South Lake Union, or at the fringe of activity within a

neighborhood, such as the case of Rancho Bravos Tacos (Vending Site #10) or Uptown Espresso (Vending Site #11). When located too close within a dense neighborhood center, vendors seemed to be a hindrance for pedestrians and businesses nearby by creating additional congestion from shortened sidewalk widths and idling customers. However, when vendors were located too far from a neighborhood center, few customers or pedestrians were observed around the vending site, diminishing the potential urban design impacts they may bring. By locating near the fringe of a street's main activity or at a gap in block activity, vendors seemed to extend the streetscape both visually and socially.

Additionally, cooperation between brick-and-mortar businesses and vendors can help both attract customers. This is the case in several locations in Seattle, where vendors pair up with drinking establishments or join special events or festivals (Figure 19). In neighborhoods popular for nightlife, mobile food vendors set up in the early evening and stay open until 2 A.M. (Vending Sites #2 and #14). Their presence on streets late at night helps to bring the vitality of drinking establishments outdoors while providing some safety and security through surveillance. This co-activation effect also occurs in the parking lot of two Uptown Espresso locations in West Seattle (Vending Site #11) and Wallingford, helping to draw in customers for both food and coffee during the weekends (Figure 18).

Mobile food vending is an important land use and activity to consider in cities because they bring considerable excitement to the public. Vendors are a method to connect residents back to the street through a common connection of food. They draw attention through the colors and shapes their vending units take (Figure 19).



**Figure 21 - Maximus/Minimus and Tokyo Dog Vendors at the Fremont Sunday Market**

Mobile food vending is appealing as it able to generate excitement and attention to parking lots, one of the most undesirable land uses in cities today, helping in a way to humanize automobile-dominated spaces. Their positioning, although strategic for sales and visibility, is good for public life as well. Mobile food vendors drum up attention with brightly designed vehicles. The well-known giant metal pig truck Maximus/Minimus (Figure 19) draws crowds as both a roving art piece and a restaurant on wheels.

### **Discussion**

The effectiveness of vendors to become a part of the streetscape varied considerably between each of the study sites. Their size presented some limitations in this aspect, however, vendors were able to become a part of and contribute to the built environment.

However, mobile food vendors are not necessarily effective or successful in every location. Many of the newer mobile food vendors are choosing to sell only during certain hours (primarily lunch from 11 AM to 2 PM) and in different locations during the week, making their impact in the neighborhood or block temporary. Additionally, vendors must

choose locations that have the potential to be profitable, meaning that these locations must still be central enough to attract foot and automobile traffic. Despite numerous areas in the city that may benefit from the potential energy that mobile food vendors may bring, these areas may not have the capacity to sustain a vendor.

The ability of a mobile food vendor to impact the urban form of a block was heavily dependent on their distance from the sidewalk, rather than property ownership or duration. This distance, despite being relatively small (ten feet or less) can make a difference in relating to the sidewalk, engaging pedestrians and sustaining activity on sidewalks. However, this difference in distance can be overcome if it used to provide amenities to customers, such as in the case of Vending Sites #1, #10 and #12, where vendors were permanent, they provided seating and shelter for customers.

Overall, mobile food vendors had the greatest impact on pedestrian and public space related elements of the Design Guidelines. "One could argue that because food carts, operating from the parking-lot perimeters, capitalize on the edge between the public streets and the private realm, they activate the space in a way that most buildings can't" (Rogers and Roy 2010). Their position right at the edge of the sidewalk and in the outdoors work to bringing a more human-scaled approach to the public realm that may not be readily present in buildings.

Yet there is tremendous untapped potential for mobile food vendors in Seattle. Although the City has worked to encourage vending and the benefits they bring, there are still basic changes that must occur to bring these public space benefits to light. Seating and tables is perhaps the most necessary change that needs to occur. Currently, mobile food vendors on public property are unable to provide any type of seating or shelter for

customers. Of all the “mobile” mobile food vendors, only two provided tables for customers. Customers generally stayed only as long as it took to order and receive their food, either walking back to their offices or cars or improvising seating on curbs, along walls or bicycle racks. In neighborhoods such as South Lake Union, many of the pedestrians walking during lunch held wrappers and containers of street food, however few were actually seen eating this food in public. Without this amenity, vending essentially became another form of carry out food service, rather than a placemaking activity.

## 5. Conclusion

In May 2012, Seattle held its second event centered exclusively around mobile food vending. The Mobile Food Rodeo hosted 37 trucks over a seven-hour period and an estimated 17,000 people were in attendance and generated \$100,000 in sales (Mobile Food Rodeo 2012). This event reiterates the popularity of mobile food vending in Seattle and power to generate significant crowds and sales.

Although this study only examines the role of mobile food vendors, opportunities for other types of vendors, markets and other people-based activities to encourage the use of public space. In this research, vending was found to be a viable way to tackle the goals of liveability and urban design set forth by the City of Seattle, however not necessarily as a long-term solution. Their limitations in scope and size, makes them really only effective in specific and strategic high pedestrian traffic locations at certain times. They are also highly impacted by weather and seasonal shifts, making vending a difficult activity for 4 to 6 months out of the year.

Recent changes in the City of Seattle have aimed to join mobile food vending to opportunities in economic development, public safety and community revitalization, however the results have not been as quick or as drastic as some had expected. Even with loosened restrictions, significant changes have not happened in the months that have passed, failing to meet expectations of many who had been a part of the process. (Hess

2012). With only a handful of right-of-way permits issued to vendors, it is difficult to assess the sort of impact vending legislation may have in improving the vending atmosphere. Perhaps the largest problems Seattle faces are considerable confusion about how the process works and lengthy permitting and process times.

Although the big distinction between spaces for mobile food vending has been the ownership of the property (public or private), it is more likely the relationship to the sidewalk and time duration that has a larger impact on the quality of space produced. Whether permanent fixtures or a weekly event, these vendors help to activity to underused areas such as parking lots, fill gaps along building frontages, reorient visual focal points and provide spatial synergies.

Although many municipalities have taken notice and have begun changing regulations regarding mobile food vendors, there are untapped opportunities to leverage mobile food vending as a design method and policy tool that can improve city streets and help build forms of community. As cities address concerns of livability within urban areas and reinvestment in communities, mobile food vending may be an opportunity for such change.

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## Appendix A

#	Location	Neighborhood	Vendor	Duration	Public or Private	Photo
1	5314 15 <sup>th</sup> Ave NW	Ballard	El Camion	Permanent	Private	
2	24 <sup>th</sup> and Market / Spirit Gas	Ballard	Streetzeria	Temporary	Private	
3	1 <sup>st</sup> Ave and Cedar / Chase Bank	Belltown	Where Ya At	Temporary	Private	
4	2 <sup>nd</sup> Ave and Pine	Downtown	Maximus/Minimus	Temporary	Private	

5	122 NW 36 <sup>th</sup> St / Evo	Fremont	Off the Rez	Temporary	Private	
6	Dravus St / 76 Station	Interbay	Where Ya At	Temporary	Private	
7	2401 Utah St / Starbucks Hqtrs	SoDo	Charlie's/Marination/ Kaosamai/Pai's	Temporary	Private	
8	1124 Harrison Street	South Lake Union	Barriga Llenga/Pai's/ Lumpia World..	Temporary	Private	
9	Highland Improvement Center	West Seattle	Street Treats/Lumpia World	Temporary	Private	

10	45 <sup>th</sup> and Corliss	Wallingford	Rancho Bravo Tacos	Permanent	Private	
11	Uptown Espresso	West Seattle	Skillet/Contigo/ Lumpia World	Temporary	Private	
12	4721 Fauntleroy Way SW	West Seattle	Beloved Mexico	Permanent	Private	
13	Hans Foreign Auto Repair – 6302 35 <sup>th</sup> Ave SW	West Seattle	Snout & Co / Marination	Temporary	Private	
14	King's Hardware 5225 Ballard Ave NW	Ballard	Dante's Inferno Dogs	Temporary	Public	

15 Second and Pike Downtown Dog Japon Permanent Public



16 4<sup>th</sup> and Madison Downtown Fusion on the Run Temporary Public



17 Fremont Sunday Market Fremont Veraci Pizza/ Bob's Donuts/ Temporary Public



18 825 5<sup>th</sup> Avenue International District Marination Temporary Public



19

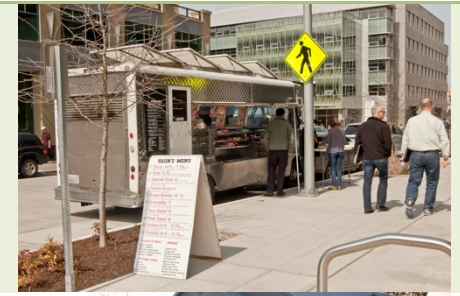
433 Boren N

South Lake Union

El Taco Tajin

Temporary

Public



20

Ballard Bridge

Ballard

El Taco Loco

Permanent

Private



## Appendix B – City of Seattle Food-Vehicle Zone Criteria

5.2.1 The vending cart or food vehicle types of vending activity described in Section 4.1 and 4.2.2 shall not be located in the public place abutting a lot zoned RSL, SF 5000, SF 7200, SF 9600, LR1, LR2, or LR3 as shown on the Official Land Use Map,

5.3.1.1 In the Downtown Urban Center (see map Section 12.5, Downtown Urban Center), a pedestrian zone at least 6 feet wide with a 4-foot-wide pedestrian visual corridor is required.

5.3.1.2 Outside the Downtown Urban Center, a pedestrian zone at least 5 feet wide with a 3-foot-wide pedestrian visual corridor is required.”

“Setbacks are required from the following elements, depicted in Exhibit A for 15.17.100: Vending Cart Location and Exhibit A for 15.17.120: Food Vehicle Location, and must be clearly identified on the required site plan for the Street Use permit application: SDOT Director’s Rule 3-2011:

5.4.1.1 3 feet from the front of the curb for vending carts on the sidewalk;

5.4.1.2 5 feet from alleys, driveways, bus zone areas, disabled person parking zones, food-vehicle zones, and commercial loading zones;

5.4.1.3 5 feet from curb ramps, parking meters or parking pay stations, traffic signs, SDOT and utility poles, fire hydrants, bike racks, and other street fixtures;

5.4.1.4 10 feet along the curb line from the point where the radius of the corner-curb area intersects the curb line;

5.4.1.5 15 feet from any business entrance or exit;

5.4.1.6 50 feet from a food service business if the permittee is vending food or nonalcoholic beverages and at least 50 feet from a floral business if the permittee is vending flowers. A vending Street Use permit may, however, be issued to the owner of a food service business for a site along the food service business’s frontage;

5.4.1.7 1,000 feet from any public or private school containing a 9th grade through 12th grade class if the permittee’s vending cart or food vehicle is located in a public place abutting a lot in land use zones listed in Section 5.2.1.

Vending sites shall not be located in driveways or within 15 feet of a business entrance or exit unless the abutting property owner submits an affidavit stating that access is not needed during the proposed vending hours.

5.4.3 If the proposed vending activity described in Section 4.1 or 4.2 is proposed within 50 feet of a park as defined in SMC Section 18.12.030, the Superintendent of the Parks Department may recommend to the Director of Transportation whether the vending site should be approved or denied based on the following considerations:”

## Appendix C: Public Realm Criteria Sheet

# _____ Location/Vendor: _____ Date: _____	
Public - Food Zone	Private - Parking Lot
Event/Late Night	Permanent
Rotating	If private: Adjacent or Setback
2 or more?	<b>Other:</b> _____
Other activity or use adjacent? _____	

<b>CS2.A1: Sense of Place:</b> Emphasize attributes that give Seattle, the neighborhood, and/or the site its distinctive sense of place.		
<b>CS2.A2: Architectural Presence:</b> Consider the degree of visibility or architectural presence that is appropriate or desired given the context, and design accordingly..		
<b>CS2.B1: Site Characteristics:</b> Reinforce interesting characteristics of sites, especially where the street grid and topography create unusually shaped lots that can add drama or distinction to the building massing.		
<b>CS2.B2: Connection to the Street:</b> Identify opportunities for the project to make a strong connection to the street. Consider the qualities and character of the streetscape—its sidewalk, parking, landscape strip, travel lanes, and other amenities.		
<b>B3. Character of Open Space:</b> Contribute to the character and proportion of surrounding open spaces. Evaluate adjacent sites, streetscapes and open spaces for how they function as the walls and floor of outdoor spaces or “rooms” for public use		
<b>CS2.D1. Existing Development and Zoning:</b> Review the height, bulk, and scale of neighboring buildings as well as the scale of development anticipated by zoning for the area to determine an appropriate complement and/or transition.		
<b>CS2.D2. Existing Site Features:</b> Use changes in topography, site shape, and existing vegetation or structures to help make a successful fit with adjacent properties		
<b>CS2.D3. Zone Transitions:</b> For projects located at the edge of different zones, provide an appropriate transition or complement to the adjacent zone(s).		
<b>CS2.D4. Massing Choices:</b> Where a project site abuts a less intensive zone, making a successful transition is especially important.		
<b>CS3.A1. Fitting Old and New Together:</b> Create a good fit between old and new projects, and historic and modern designs through building articulation, scale and proportion, roof forms, detailing and fenestration, and/or the use of complementary materials.		

## Appendix D: City of Seattle Policies

### City of Seattle Commercial and Multi-family Design Guidelines

Location in the City and Neighborhood	CS2.A1: <b>Sense of Place:</b> Emphasize attributes that give Seattle, the neighborhood, and/or the site its distinctive sense of place. Examples include patterns of streets or blocks; slopes; sites with prominent visibility, relationships to bodies of water or significant open spaces, iconic buildings or transportation
	CS2.A2: <b>Architectural Presence:</b> Consider the degree of visibility or architectural presence that is appropriate or desired given the context, and design accordingly. A site may lend itself to a “high-profile” design with significant presence and individual identity, or may be better suited to a simple but quality design that contributes to the block as a whole.
Adjacent Sites, Streets and Open Spaces	CS2.B1: <b>Site Characteristics:</b> Reinforce interesting characteristics of sites, especially where the street grid and topography create unusually shaped lots that can add drama or distinction to the building massing.
	CS2.B2: <b>Connection to the Street:</b> Identify opportunities for the project to make a strong connection to the street. Consider the qualities and character of the streetscape—its sidewalk, parking, landscape strip, travel lanes, and other amenities—in siting and designing the building.
	CS2.B3: <b>Character of Open Space:</b> Contribute to the character and proportion of surrounding open spaces. Evaluate adjacent sites, streetscapes and open spaces for how they function as the walls and floor of outdoor spaces or “rooms” for public use to determine how
Height, Bulk and Scale	CS2.D1. <b>Existing Development and Zoning:</b> Review the height, bulk, and scale of neighboring buildings as well as the scale of development anticipated by zoning for the area to determine an appropriate complement and/or transition. Note that existing buildings may or may not reflect the density allowed by zoning or anticipated by applicable policies.
	CS2.D2. <b>Existing Site Features:</b> Use changes in topography, site shape, and existing vegetation or structures to help make a successful fit with adjacent properties; for example siting the greatest mass of the building on the lower part of the site or using an existing stand of trees to buffer building height from a smaller neighboring building.
	CS2.D3. <b>Zone Transitions:</b> For projects located at the edge of different zones, provide an appropriate transition or complement to the adjacent zone(s). Factors to consider: a. Distance to the edge of a less (or more) intensive zone; b. Differences in development standards between abutting zones; c. The type of separation from adjacent properties (e.g. separation by property line only, by an alley or street or open space, or by physical features such as grade change); d. Adjacencies to different neighborhoods or districts; adjacencies to parks, open spaces, significant buildings or view corridors; and e. Shading to or from neighboring properties.
	CS2.D4. <b>Massing Choices:</b> Where a project site abuts a less intensive zone, making a successful transition is especially important. In some areas, the best approach may be to lower the building height, break up the mass of the building, and/ or match the scale of adjacent properties in building detailing. In other areas, approaches to massing that differ

	from existing buildings but preserve natural systems or existing features, enable better solar exposure or site orientation, and/or make for interesting urban form may also be appropriate.
Emphasizing Positive Neighborhood Attributes	CS3.A1. <b>Fitting Old and New Together:</b> Create a good fit between old and new projects, and historic and modern designs through building articulation, scale and proportion, roof forms, detailing and fenestration, and/or the use of complementary materials.
	CS3.A2. <b>Contemporary Design:</b> Explore how contemporary designs can contribute to the development of attractive new forms and architectural styles and/or demonstrate ways to incorporate sustainability into the project through design, as expressed through use of new materials or other means.
	CS3.A3. <b>Established Neighborhoods:</b> In existing neighborhoods with a well-defined and desirable character, site and design new structures to complement or be compatible with the architectural style and siting patterns of neighborhood buildings.
	CS3.A4. <b>Evolving Neighborhoods:</b> In neighborhoods where architectural character is evolving or otherwise in transition, explore ways for new development to establish a positive and desirable context for others to build upon in the future.
Local History and Culture	CS3.B1. <b>Placemaking:</b> Consider the history of the site and neighborhood as a potential placemaking opportunity. Look for historical and cultural significance, using neighborhood groups and archives as resources.
	CS3.B2. <b>Historical/Cultural References:</b> Reuse existing structures on the site where feasible as a means of incorporating historical or cultural elements into the new project.
Network of Public Spaces	PL1.A1. <b>Enhancing Public Space:</b> Enhance existing public spaces and the activities within them through project design. These spaces may include sidewalks, streets and alleys, circulation routes and open spaces.
	PL1.A2. <b>Adding to Public Life:</b> Look for opportunities to increase the size and/or quality of the physical space available for public life. Consider features such as widened sidewalks, recessed entries, curb bulbs, courtyards, plazas, or through routes.
Walkways and Connections	PL1.B1. <b>Pedestrian Infrastructure:</b> Connect on-site pedestrian walkways with existing pedestrian infrastructure, thereby supporting pedestrian connections within and outside the project.
	PL1.B2. <b>Pedestrian Volumes:</b> Provide ample space for pedestrian flow and circulation, particularly in areas where there is already heavy pedestrian traffic or where the project is expected to create or attract new pedestrians to the area.
	PL1.B3. <b>Pedestrian Amenities:</b> Provide pedestrian amenities where necessary to enliven the area and attract interest and interaction with the site and building. Examples of pedestrian amenities include seating and other street furniture, lighting, landscaping, pedestrian scale signage, site furniture, art work, and/or kiosks.
Outdoor Uses and Activities	PL1.C1. <b>Selecting Activity Areas:</b> Concentrate activity areas in places with sunny exposure, views across spaces, and in direct line with pedestrian routes.
	PL1.C2. <b>Informal Community Uses:</b> In addition to places for walking and sitting, consider including space for informal community use such as performances, farmer’s markets, kiosks and community bulletin boards, cafes, or street vending.
	PL2.C3. <b>Year-Round Activity:</b> Where possible, include features in public spaces for

	activities beyond daylight hours and throughout the seasons of the year, especially in neighborhood centers where active public space will contribute vibrancy, economic health, and public safety. These may include: a. Seasonal plantings or displays and/or water features; b. Outdoor heaters and overhead weather protection; c. Ample, moveable seating and tables and opportunities for outdoor dining; and/or d. An extra level of pedestrian lighting.
Accessibility	PL2.A1. <b>Access for All:</b> Provide access for people of all abilities in a manner that is fully integrated into the project design. Design entries and other primary access points such that all visitors can be greeted and welcomed through the front door. Refrain from creating separate “back door” entrances for persons with mobility limitations.
	PL2.A2. <b>Access Challenges:</b> Add features to assist pedestrians in navigating sloped sites, long blocks, or other challenges. Examples include exterior stairs and landings, escalators, elevators, textured ground surfaces, seating at key resting points, through-block connections, and ramps for wheeled devices (wheelchairs, strollers, bicycles).
Safety and Security	PL2.B1. <b>Eyes on the Street:</b> Create a safe environment by providing lines of sight and encouraging natural surveillance through strategic placement of doors, windows, balconies and street-level uses.
	PL2.B2. <b>Lighting for Safety:</b> Provide lighting at appropriate lumen intensities and scales; including pathway illumination, pedestrian and entry lighting, and/or security lights.
	PL2.B3. <b>Street-Level Transparency:</b> Ensure transparency of street-level uses by keeping views open into spaces behind walls or plantings, at corners, or along narrow passageways. Choose semi-transparent rather than opaque screening.
Weather Protection	PL2.C1. <b>Locations and Coverage:</b> Where overhead weather protection is required, locate it at or near uses that generate pedestrian activity such as entries, retail uses, and transit stops. Address changes in topography as needed to provide continuous coverage the full length of the building, where possible.
	PL2.C2. <b>Design Integration:</b> Integrate weather protection and drainage into the design of the structure as a whole, and ensure that it also relates well to neighboring buildings in design, coverage, or other features.
	PL2.C3. <b>People-Friendly Spaces:</b> Create an artful and people-friendly space beneath building canopies by using human-scale architectural elements and a pattern of forms and/or textures at intervals along the façade. If transparent canopies are used, provide for regular cleaning and maintenance.
Way finding	PL2.D1. <b>Design as Wayfinding:</b> Use design features as a means of wayfinding wherever possible, and provide clear directional signage where needed.
Entries	PL3.A1. <b>Design Objectives:</b> Design entries to be obvious, identifiable, and distinctive with clear lines of sight and lobbies visually connected to the street. Scale and detail them to function well for their anticipated use and also to fit with the building of which they are a part, differentiating residential and commercial entries with design features and amenities specific to each.
	PL3.A2. <b>Ensemble of Elements:</b> Design the entry as an ensemble of a variety of elements

	including the door(s) itself, overhead features, ground surface, landscaping, lighting, and other features. Consider a range of elements such as: a. Overhead shelter: canopies, porches, building extensions; b. Transitional spaces: stoops, courtyards, stairways, portals, arcades, pocket gardens, decks; c. Ground surface: seating walls; special paving, landscaping, lighting; and d. Building surface/interface: privacy screens, upward-operating shades on windows, signage, lighting.
Retail Edges	PL3.B1. <b>Porous Edge:</b> Engage passersby with a “porous edge” between the building and street as appropriate to building uses. Create multiple entries where possible and make a physical and visual connection between people on the sidewalk and retail activities in the building.
	PL3.B2. <b>Visibility:</b> Maximize visibility into the building interior and merchandise displays. Consider fully operational glazed wall-sized doors that can be completely opened to the street, increased height in lobbies, and/or special lighting for displays.
	PL3.B3. <b>Ancillary Activities:</b> Allow space for activities such as sidewalk vending, seating, and restaurant dining to occur. Consider setting structures back from the street or incorporating space in the project design into which retail uses can extend.
Entry Locations and Relationships	PL4.A1. <b>Serving all Modes of Travel:</b> Select access points that easily and conveniently accommodate arrival by all modes of travel, while also reducing conflicts between modes as needed.
	PL4.A2. <b>Connections to All Modes:</b> Site the primary entry in a location that logically relates to building uses and clearly connects all major points of access. Highlight entries and spaces leading up to them through the use of special paving, landscaping, public art, and/or architectural features.
Planning Ahead for Cyclists	PL4.B1. <b>Early Planning:</b> Consider existing and future bicycle traffic to and through the site early in the process so that access and connections are integrated into the project along with other modes of travel.
	PL4.B2. <b>Bike Amenities:</b> If amenities such as bike racks and storage, shower facilities, and lockers are provided for cyclists, choose locations that maximize weather protection, security, and safety.
	PL4.B3. <b>Bike Connections:</b> Facilitate connections to bicycle trails and infrastructure around and beyond the project. Design cycling access points so that they relate to the street grid and include information about connections to existing trails and infrastructure where possible. Also consider signage, kiosks, building lobbies, and bicycle parking areas, where provided, as opportunities to share cycling information
Planning Ahead for Transit	PL4.C1. <b>Influence on Project Design:</b> Consider how a transit stop adjacent to or near the site may influence project design, provide opportunities for placemaking, and/or suggest logical locations for building entries, retail uses, open space, or landscaping. Take advantage of the presence of transit patrons to support retail uses in the building.
	PL4.C2. <b>On-site Transit Stops:</b> If a transit stop is located onsite, design project-related pedestrian improvements and amenities so that they complement (or at least do not conflict with) any amenities provided for transit riders. Consider the proximity of transit queuing and waiting areas to other pedestrian gathering spaces, aiming for enough room to accommodate

	<p>all users. Similarly, keep lines of sight to approaching buses open and make it clear through location and design whether project-related pedestrian lighting, weather protection, and/or seating is intended to be shared by transit users.</p> <p><b>PL4.C3. Transit Connections:</b> Where no transit stops are on or adjacent to the site, identify where the nearest transit stops and pedestrian routes are and include design features and connections within the project design as appropriate</p>
Arrangement of Interior Uses	<p><b>DC1.A1. Visibility:</b> Locate public uses in visible or prominent areas, such as at entries or along the street front.</p>
	<p><b>DC1.A2. Gathering Places:</b> If the building’s program of uses includes any space or amenities for public gathering, maximize their use by considering the following: a. A location at the crossroads of high levels of pedestrian traffic; b. Proximity to nearby or project-related shops and services; and c. Amenities that complement the building design and offer safety and security when used outside normal business hours.</p>
Parking and Service Uses	<p><b>DC1.C2. Visual Impacts:</b> Reduce the visual impacts of parking lots, structures, entrances, and related signs and equipment as much as possible. Consider breaking large parking lots into smaller lots, and/or provide attractive landscaping or fencing as a screen. Design at-grade parking structures so that they are architecturally compatible with the rest of the building and streetscape.</p>
	<p><b>DC1.C3. Multiple Uses:</b> Consider designing parking areas to serve multiple uses such as children’s play space, outdoor gathering areas, sports courts, or common space in multifamily projects.</p>
Massing	<p><b>DC2.A1. Site Characteristics and Uses:</b> Arrange the mass of the building taking into consideration the characteristics of the site and the proposed uses of the building and its open space. Special situations such as very large sites, unusually shaped sites, or sites with varied topography may require particular attention to where and how building massing is arranged as they can accentuate mass and height.</p>
Architectural and Façade Composition	<p><b>DC2.B1. Façade Composition:</b> Design building facades—including alleys and visible roofs—considering the composition and architectural expression of the building as a whole. Ensure that facades are attractive and well-proportioned through the placement and detailing of all elements, including bays, fenestration, and materials, and any patterns created by their arrangement. On sites that abut an alley, design the alley façade and its connection to the street carefully. At a minimum, consider wrapping the treatment of the street-facing façade around the alley corner of the building.</p>
	<p><b>DC2.B2. Blank Walls:</b> Avoid large blank walls along visible façades wherever possible. Where expanses of blank walls, retaining walls, or garage facades are unavoidable, include uses or design treatments at the street level that have human scale and are designed for pedestrians. These may include: a. Newsstands, ticket booths and flower shops (even if small or narrow); b. Green walls, landscaped areas or raised planters; c. Wall setbacks or other indentations; d. Display windows; trellises or other secondary elements; f. Terraces and landscaping where retaining walls above eye level are unavoidable.</p>
chi tec	<p><b>DC2.C1. Visual Depth and Interest:</b> Add depth to facades where appropriate by</p>

	<p>thoughtfully incorporating balconies, canopies, decks, or other secondary elements into the façade design.</p> <p><b>DC2.C2. Dual Purpose Elements:</b> Consider architectural features that can be dual purpose—adding depth, texture, and scale as well as serving other project functions. Examples include shading devices and windows that add rhythm and depth as well as contribute toward energy efficiency and/or savings; or canopies that provide street-level scale and detail while also offering weather protection. Where these elements are prominent design features, the quality of the materials is critical.</p> <p><b>DC2.C3. Fit With Neighboring Buildings:</b> Use design elements to achieve a successful fit between a building and its neighbors, such as: a. Echoing aspects of neighboring buildings through architectural style, roof line, fenestration, color or materials, b. Using landscaping or other screening to buffer the building from its neighbors, and/or c. Creating a well-proportioned base, middle and top to the building in locations where this might be appropriate. Consider how surrounding buildings have addressed base, middle, and top, and whether those solutions—or similar ones—might be a good fit for the project and its context.</p>
Scale and Texture	<p><b>DC2.D1. Human Scale:</b> Incorporate architectural features, elements, and details that are of human scale into the building facades, entries, retaining walls, courtyards, and exterior spaces in a manner that is consistent with the overall architectural concept.</p>
	<p><b>DC2.D2. Texture:</b> Consider the character of the building as expressed in the form, scale, and materials of the building, and strive for a fine-grained scale or “texture” particularly at the street level and other areas where pedestrians predominate.</p>
Form and Function	<p><b>DC2.E1. Legibility and Flexibility:</b> Design buildings such that their primary functions and uses can be readily determined from the exterior, making the building easy to access and understand. At the same time, design flexibility into the building so that it may remain useful over time even as specific programmatic needs evolve. Strive for a balance between building legibility and flexibility.</p>
Open Space Uses and Activities	<p><b>DC3.B1. Meeting User Needs:</b> Plan the size, uses, activities, and features of each open space to meet the needs of expected users, ensuring each space has a purpose and function. Leave no “leftover” open spaces.</p>
	<p><b>DC3.B2. Matching Uses to Conditions:</b> Respond to environmental conditions and seasonal and daily light and weather shifts, matching uses with appropriate conditions. For example, place outdoor seating and gathering areas where there is sunny exposure and shelter from wind. Plan for changing needs over time.</p>
	<p><b>DC3.B3. Connections to Other Open Space:</b> Site and design project-related public open spaces to connect with, or enhance, the uses and activities of other nearby public open space where appropriate. Look for opportunities to support positive uses and activities on adjacent properties and/or the sidewalk.</p>
Open Space Design	<p><b>DC3.C1. Reinforce Existing Open Space:</b> Where a strong open space concept exists in the neighborhood, reinforce existing character and patterns of street tree planting, buffers or treatment of topographic changes. Where no strong patterns exist, initiate a strong open space concept that other projects can build upon in the future.</p>
	<p><b>DC3.C2. Amenities and Features:</b> Create attractive outdoor spaces well-suited to the</p>

	uses envisioned for the project. Use a combination of hardscape and plantings to shape these spaces and to screen less attractive areas as needed. Use a variety of features, such as planters, green roofs and decks, groves of trees, and vertical green trellises along with more traditional foundation plantings, street trees, and seasonal displays.
Signage	<b>DC4.B1. Scale and Character:</b> Add interest to the streetscape with exterior signs and attachments that are appropriate in scale and character to the project

### City of Seattle Pedestrian Master Plan Objectives and Strategies

Objective 1: Complete and maintain the pedestrian system identified in the Pedestrian Master Plan	Strategy 1.1: Fund new improvements and maintenance programs to promote walking
Objective 2: Improve walkability on all streets	Strategy 2.1: Create and maintain a walkable zone on all streets to enable a clear pedestrian path of travel
	Strategy 2.2: Improve pedestrian access to major destinations
	Strategy 2.3: Create an expanded set of design standards for pedestrian paths and sidewalks
	Strategy 2.4: Support the dual benefits of tree canopy coverage and walkability
Objective 3: Increase pedestrian safety	Strategy 3.1: Maintain pedestrian visibility at intersections
	Strategy 3.2: Improve crossing conditions, especially in areas with high pedestrian demand
	Strategy 3.3: Manage vehicle speeds to support and encourage walking
Objective 4: Plan, design, and build complete streets to move more people and goods	Strategy 4.1: Allocate and design Seattle’s rights-of-way to support Complete Streets principles
Objective 5: Create vibrant public spaces that encourage walking	Strategy 5.1: Create an appropriate mix of uses and destinations within neighborhoods
	Strategy 5.2: Reclaim and activate public spaces
	Strategy 5.3: Expand the use of pedestrian-scaled lighting
Objective 6: Get more people walking for transportation, recreation, and health	Strategy 6.1: Promote the benefits of walking as part of citywide sustainability and equity initiatives and through new and expanded programs
	Strategy 6.2: Foster communication to support pedestrian travel
	Strategy 6.3: Create a strong pedestrian education program
	Strategy 6.4: Establish and strengthen partnerships
	Strategy 6.5: Monitor and communicate the Pedestrian Master Plan delivery actions