A COMPARATIVE RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATORY PRACTICES IN ISTANBUL AND AMSTERDAM

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

EKİN GÜNEŞ ŞANLI

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
URBAN DESIGN IN CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING

SEPTEMBER 2022

Approval of the thesis:

A COMPARATIVE RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATORY PRACTICES IN ISTANBUL AND AMSTERDAM

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATORY PRACTICES IN ISTANBUL AND AMSTERDAM

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September 2022, 139 pages

Citizens and representatives of local governments have developed a growing consensus on the desirability of citizen participation. Citizen participation is an important tool to generate creative solutions to the problems and challenges in cities. New forms of citizen participation in urban planning and design represent a dramatic shift in citizen engagement.

There are differing perceptions between local governments regarding citizen participation in practice. Local governments emphasize designing citizen participation processes and finding ways to support and strengthen it. This highlights an important shift that is now taking place in the way citizens are engaged. In fact, we are moving from a representative democracy and toward a more interactive democracy which citizens take a more active and direct role to develop solutions for cities.

There are different practices for engaging the public in planning and design; however, not all of them reach agreements and tangible results. Such practices may affect citizen satisfaction with participatory planning, depending on how they are implemented. This study examined how to reframe citizen participation practices for spatial development based on emerging global practices.

The research investigates the processes of participation practices and collaborative city design tools by revisiting the examples to such practices and tools in Istanbul and Amsterdam. The thesis analyze these two cases and compares them in terms of processes and the intended outcomes of these processes.

Keywords: Citizen Participation, Local Democracy, Participatory Planning

ÖZ

İSTANBUL VE AMSTERDAM'DA KATILIMCI UYGULAMALAR ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ARAŞTIRMA

Şanlı, Ekin Güneş
Yüksek Lisans, Kensel Tasarım, Şehir Bölge Planlama
Tez Yöneticisi: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yücel Can SEVERCAN

Eylül 2022, 139 sayfa

Vatandaşlar ve yerel yönetimlerin temsilcileri, yurttaş katılımının arzu edilirliği konusunda giderek artan bir fikir birliği geliştirmiştir. Vatandaş katılımı, şehirlerdeki sorun ve zorluklara yaratıcı çözümler üretmek için önemli bir araçtır. Kentsel planlama ve tasarımda yeni vatandaş katılımı biçimleri, vatandaş katılımında çarpıcı bir değişimi temsil ediyor.

Uygulamada yurttaş katılımı konusunda yerel yönetimler arasında farklı algılar bulunmaktadır. Yerel yönetimler, yurttaş katılım süreçlerini tasarlamaya ve bunu desteklemenin ve güçlendirmenin yollarını bulmaya önem vermektedir. Bu durum, vatandaşların katılım biçiminde gerçekleşen önemli bir değişimi vurgulamaktadır. Aslında, temsili bir demokrasiden, vatandaşların şehirlere çözümler geliştirmek için daha aktif ve doğrudan bir rol üstlendiği daha etkileşimli bir demokrasiye doğru ilerliyoruz.

Halkı planlama ve tasarıma dahil etmek için farklı uygulamalar vardır; ancak, hepsi anlaşmaya ve somut sonuçlara ulaşmıyor. Bu tür uygulamalar, nasıl uygulandıklarına bağlı olarak katılımcı planlama ile vatandaş memnuniyetini

etkileyebilir. Bu çalışma, ortaya çıkan küresel uygulamalara dayalı olarak yurttaş katılım uygulamalarının mekânsal gelişim için nasıl yeniden çerçeveleneceğini incelemiştir.

Araştırma, İstanbul ve Amsterdam'daki bu tür uygulama ve araçlara ilişkin örnekleri yeniden gözden geçirerek katılım uygulamaları ve işbirlikçi şehir tasarım araçları süreçlerini araştırıyor. Tez, bu iki kentteki katılımcı pratikleri analiz etmekte ve bu iki kentteki süreçleri ve bu süreçlerin amaçlanan sonuçları açısından karşılaştırır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yurttaş Katılımı, Yerel Demokrasi, Katılımcı Planlama

Devoted to people

who have touched my heart once

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to those who do not hesitate to support, guide, and encourage me. I could not complete this thesis without them.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yücel Can Severcan, for his guidance, advice, criticism, encouragement, and insight throughout the research. I would also like to thank the examining committee members, Prof. Dr. Serap Kayasü and Prof. Dr. Savaş Zafer Şahin for their valuable criticisms, suggestions, kind interests, and contributions to the study.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. Ekim Tan and Müge Yorgancı for their suggestions and comment; this work would not be possible without them. I want to give my special thanks for made possible with the support of the Netherlands Creative Industries Fund [Stimuleringsfonds Creative Industries].

I owe special thanks to Mustafa Raşit Şahin for his indulgence, patience, trust, and endless support during this research. I also thank my colleagues and friends, especially Başak Ağır and Sena Temurer, for their support, brainstorming, and pleasant conversations we had together.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my mother Elif Şanlı, and my father, İbrahim Şanlı, for their love, support, encouragement, and patience. I am very thankful to them as they supported me to become who I am now. I am deeply grateful to my sister Damla Şanlı, who did not stop supporting me and will forever be the closest person to me during my life. Also, thank you very much to my cat Şapşik, who has never left my side throughout this whole process.

Finally, I am very grateful to Ali Aydın, who stood beside me from the first pages of this thesis until the end, for his encouragement when the times got difficult for me. It was a great feeling to know that you were always there to help me whenever I needed it.

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ABBREVIATIONS

IAP2: International Association for Public Participation

IPA: Istanbul Planning Agency

IMM: Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context and Problem Definition

Since the 1950s, the issue of participation has gained an increased attention and became a topic of discussion, particularly in developed countries. From the 1950s to the present, there has been significant progress regarding citizen participation. Because one of the main objectives of participation is to foster a more robust and active democracy, citizen participation is seen as an essential component of democracy. Participation by citizens is viewed as an important aspect of democratic citizenship and decision-making.

In parallel, urban planning methods (as tools or processes for planning and designing cities) have evolved in recent decades. This shift may be seen from the viewpoint of how we perceive cities. In fact, a systematic view of cities was developed over fifty years ago, in which cities are seen as a collection of many entities interacting in a harmonious way. Governing, managing and planning of the cities from a top-down understanding started to be adopted by this approach. However, researchers quickly became aware of the limits of this narrow understanding as they understood that cities are not just mechanical systems, but they are much more than that (Batty, 2013). The progress in the advanced studies shifted systems theory from a top-down to a bottom-up perspective. From bottom-up perspective, cities are seen as an open and dynamic biological system that is the product of evolutionary processes (Portugali, 2000). This transformation in emphasis is reflected in the contemporary planning theories, which see planning as a process of learning with a higher number of people and subsequently as a process of dialogue and negotiation (Forester, 2009; Healey, 1997). The apparent flaws in the systematic approach's attempt to create a controlled framework for planning theories, the obvious gap between theory and

practice, as well as problems and solutions were the grounds for skepticism about the validity of scientific rationality to urban issues. As a consequence, a planning perspective that adopts the complexity of pluralism in cities, the uncertainty of urban systems, and the importance of citizens' ability to solve issues have become the accepted norm. Hence, cities are accepted as a dynamic system, characterized by fluxes and networks between individuals and the urban environment by the new planning theories. In this regard, urban planning is a collective non-individual process. This means that a consensus on the future of the city must be formed through bringing together a diverse range of comments and ideas (Batty, 2013). In recent decades, this urban planning and design transition from master/structural planning to collaborative/participatory planning has resulted in the dominance of participatory urban planning. Therefore, the question today changed from the perspective of inclusion of public to a discussion of the way and techniques in order to involve a greater range of citizens in planning processes.

The rise of civil society and the growth of direct democracy in planning means that more emphasis is placed on communication, deliberation, collaboration, and negotiation (e.g., Barber, 2003; Habermas, 1987; Forester, 1993; Sager, 1994; Beauregard 2003). Through a range of planning approaches, participation is proactively guided, including advocacy planning (Davidoff, 1965;), planning theories emphasizing transactive planning and mutual learning (Friedman, 1973), and collaborative planning (Healey, 1992; Innes, 1996; Innes & Booher, 2004), communicative action (Forester, 1989), and power criticisms in communicative practice (Baum, 1994; Flyvberg, 1998). These theoretical approaches encourage shifting from traditional participatory processes like public hearings and meetings to more open, dialogical, and deliberative procedures.

The traditional methods of citizen participation such as community planning, visioning, public meetings, focus groups, citizen juries, citizen panels, and other such terms have been the part of the daily language of local governments (Pratchett, 1999); however, arguably, most local governments not achieve participation in planning and decision-making. Local governments recognize that citizens do not

only have a voice that should be considered in elections and hearings but also need to have knowledge, resources, and ideas that may be used to address social issues and concerns. Citizens are urged to participate in identifying the challenges at hand and suggesting and putting into action novel and bold solutions since they are increasingly recognized as co-creators of public governance (Andrew & Goldsmith, 1998; Gaventa, 2002; Roberts, 2004).

Additionally, the concept of public participation in influencing the built environment, and hence the practice of community design, has gained mainstream recognition in light of the recent growth of sustainability consciousness and environmental concerns. The community design methodology has evolved significantly over the past few decades. In recent years, citizen empowerment, democracy, community-driven projects, bottom-up processes, and public participation are considered vital issues in the design processes to achieve sustainability and long-term development. For example, Agenda 21 referred "broad public participation in decision-making" as a "fundamental prerequisite for the achievement of sustainable development" (UNCED, 1992: 219). As a result, local governments are looking for new ways to engage citizens in participatory processes, as well as new ways to support these activities through planning and design.

Citizen participation is one of the essential principles in new innovative place-making experiments. Many countries have gained experience using participatory planning tools and methods like collaborative governance and participatory budgeting, while others are in the experimental stage.

There is a parallel between the current local democracy practices in Amsterdam and Istanbul. Amsterdam with the Coalitieakkoord [2018] and Istanbul with the Stratejik Plan (Strategic Plan) [2019], appear to prioritize 'citizen participation' in spatial development processes. Both cities have multiple participation tracks in place, which depend on the question, community, and scale that they operate in.

Istanbul enters a new period after 15 years of megaprojects. With its newly elected mayor, Istanbul began a new era (in 2019). The promised election program is

surprisingly moderate, prioritizing projects such as affordable daycare centers, accessible transportation for students and women with toddlers under the age of four, the revival of public parks and green belts, the completion of unfinished public transportation lines, the installation of a functional urban water management system, the revision of food chains connecting the city with rural land and communities, and the finalization of unfinished public transportation lines. The emphasis on local democracy is a notable shift from the previous time. The new program is contrastingly more moderate and different from the former period focusing on local democracy. Istanbul has already witnessed numerous processes aimed at experts and citizens' participation in envisioning and visualizing plans of varying scales.

Amsterdam has extensive practice with different forms of participatory planning at the local level. The changes in Amsterdam are not as dramatic as in Istanbul, but still, comparable changes have been taking place. Since 2018, Amsterdam has been governed by a local coalition, with 'democratization' and 'inclusive stad' as fundamental concepts in the coalition agreement. As a result, city residents are more likely to be invited to meetings organized by the local government about the renovation of a nearby street, the type of housing that is planned to be built in a given neighborhood, or the options for converting a gas-heated home to a one heated by the heat network burning waste. The city supports neighborhood foundations' self-build housing programs and energy cooperatives. City project teams collaborate with CityLabs to guarantee that new ideas are implemented, sometimes stretching the bounds of current legislation.

A range of methods are used for engaging the public in planning processes: from handing out sketchbooks, having citizens make postcards, surveys on the street and in schools, and drawing competitions to represent the future of the municipality.

1.2 Aim of the Study and Research Questions

This thesis critically examines how the ongoing citizen participation practices and tools are implemented in Amsterdam and Istanbul and whether these practices and tools have changed over time. The study argues that there is a new paradigm in cities for citizen participation with the emergence of collaborative planning and participatory democracy.

The research aims to evaluate municipal-led practical examples, policies within the struggles of meaning and values in planning in terms of future of citizen participation by comparing a number of participatory planning cases in Amsterdam and Istanbul to find out an answer for the following research questions:

> *What similarities and differences do we see in the way the local governments (at the metropolitan level) in Istanbul and Amsterdam engage the public in planning and design?* And, *how these processes have changed over time in these two contexts?*

The first part of the question is about the process (e.g., which stakeholders, which community engagement methods and which scales of planning practices), and the second part is about the intended outcomes (both in spatial dimension like climate mitigation or social inclusion, and social dimension like empowerment or agency). By answering these questions, the thesis aims to contribute to the effectiveness of participatory processes in Istanbul and Amsterdam.

1.3 Gaps in Knowledge

In order to describe an effective participatory process, it is necessary to examine and evaluate the process of urban planning and design projects regarding participation. The majority of studies that describe, analyze, or evaluate participatory urban planning and design processes look at the challenges or opportunities. Previous studies have shown both the challenges and benefits of participatory urban planning

and design programs and have proposed measures and strategies for enhancing the participatory planning and design method (Crewe, 2001; Cox et.al, 2014; Garde, 2014; Hou & Rios, 2003). Therefore, to create an effective participatory process that can play a significant role throughout the whole urban planning process, it is crucial to understand the challenges and benefits that arise with the adoption of participatory processes (Calderon, 2019).

According to Mannarini & Talò (2013), a limited number of studies have examined the subjective experiences of participants or the empowering potential of participation, despite the fact that social experiments of public participation (such as participatory budgeting, open space technology experiences, deliberative polls, citizen juries, town hall meetings, etc.) have grown in type and number over the past few decades.

In the national context, the lack of formal regulation on urban planning and design and participation in Turkey leaves local governments or non-profit organizations deciding whether to adopt a participatory approach in urban planning practices. Hence, there are few participatory urban planning or urban design instances in Turkey (Arın & Özsoy, 2015); thus, knowledge and experience with participation are limited.

This study aims to contribute to future practices by analyzing ongoing participation processes and employed tools. A systemic inventory of ongoing and planned processes in both cities and their comparative analyses will generate new knowledge.

1.4 Methodology of Research

After this introduction chapter, the second chapter uses a review of the literature to define the theoretical background for the research. The first section of the literature review starts out by discussing different concepts, definitions, and theories on citizen participation and democracy that are examined through the thesis. The literature

review aims to develop a framework by analyzing tools and different characteristics of citizen participation.

The third chapter presents a number of cases taken from Amsterdam and Istanbul. The participatory planning instruments provided by the Municipality of Istanbul and Municipality of Amsterdam will reference the study.

A qualitative comparative case study has been conducted to analyze the experiences of local citizen participation. The case study technique enables the investigation of a complex phenomenon in its unique context. The comparative analysis of two different cases allows us to identify similarities and differences.

The data for analysis collected from a co-creation workshop composed of experts from Istanbul and Amsterdam. Experts to be interviewed involve the designers and planner's community in the Netherlands and Turkey. The content of the outputs is relevant to the inclusion of citizens and other parties to develop urban plans and development processes.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

The first chapter is organized an introductory section of the study which briefly gives information about context of the research, problem statement, research questions as well as the purpose and motivation behind doing the research on citizen participation.

The second chapter structured as theoretical framework of the thesis. The first part of this section includes theories on notion of democracy citizen participation in urban planning. And then, it concentrates on how the concept is evolved in time in terms of purposes, levels, stakeholders, methods and tools of participation to create a basis for methodological framework. In this thesis, there is a wide literature review as broad questions are asked. Therefore, at the end of this section, after the subject is explained in detail, the indicators that lead the research to the method are highlighted.

The third chapter involves the methodological framework of the thesis. Qualitative research method is used to within the scope of this study. To answer the main inquiries of the study, the author benefits from various sources and tools, which are described in this chapter in detail. Additionally, the inquiries of the thesis are required field research, thus; a workshop and semi-structured interviews is conducted with experts in Amsterdam and Istanbul. At the end of the method section, based on the analysis of the data with the indicators obtained together with the literature review, the conclusion section was started.

The fourth chapter focuses on the findings and debates from semi-structured interviews with the expert communities in Istanbul and Amsterdam. This chapter presents interviewer data that have been gathered.

The final chapter summarizes the main findings of the research and remarks key conclusions. The implications of future works and contributions to urban design are also discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the issues that were not discussed in this thesis were discussed as limitations of this study. At the end of this section, suggestions are made about participatory urban design processes.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Notion of Democracy

Purcell (2016) states that democracy means that people maintain their power and exercise it when necessary; it is not a utopian ideal. According to Saward (2003), democracy is a notion that is constantly being built, challenged, fought for, implemented, and revised. Also, democracy as an idea and a practice is varied, open-ended, and subject to radical rethinking in response to new circumstances (Saward, 2021, p. xiv).

Creighton (2005) defines democracy as a work in progress. Over time, the idea of what democracy means has evolved. As the diversity of systems of governance in democratic countries demonstrates, there is no single form of democracy. Hence, bringing democracy into practice is always a challenge.

Dewey (1916) questioned the orthodox definitions of democracy, refusing to bind its meaning to a particular political ideology or form of governmental organization. Instead, he recommends understanding about democracy as "a way of life," which raised questions regarding the role and value of democratic participation on the part of citizens and communities (as cited in Escobar, 2017).

Creighton (2005) noted that public participation is not a novel concept, as demonstrated by the Renaissance Florence example. What is new is that it is becoming increasingly more common to have citizens participate in decision-making processes.

Citizen participation in public decision-making has long been emphasized in democratic theory (Sanoff, 2006). However, the democratic theory has mainly

promoted “low-quality citizen activity by creating a fetish out of only one kind of political participation-voting” (Pranger, 1968, as cited in Sanoff, 2006: pp.2). Although the ‘citizen rule’ is the main focus of democracy, significant portions of the people in all modern nations are effectively powerless to influence their societies’ political decisions, policies, and actions.

Theorists who claim that having more than simply a party system is necessary in politics and democracy should be more than just representative democracy have successfully challenged the Schumpeterian paradigm that dominated the previous century (Escobar, 2017). Pimbert & Wakeford (2001: 23) argue that “Democracy without citizen deliberation and participation is ultimately an empty and meaningless concept”. Contemporary participatory and deliberative democracy developments appear promising through strengthening citizenship, offering public spaces for active pluralism, and increasing the collective ability to solve problems as a community.

Pluralism and the purpose of democratic existence are topics covered by many interpretations of democracy. Representative, participatory, and deliberative forms have been widely used in current democratic theory and practice.

2.1.1 Representative Democracy

In a representative democracy, citizens elect candidates to represent themselves in government entities and make decisions on them regularly. This idea was presented by theorists like Joseph Schumpeter (1943), who noted that democracy is not the engagement of the general public in politics; it is about competitive elite politics and strategies to select leaders (Saward, 2003). From this viewpoint, democratic participation means citizens vote in elections and empower representatives and officials to continue with their governing responsibilities until the next election. Thus, political parties compete for votes in a democracy by trying to satisfy the preferences of as many people as they can., and the public is built on like-minded

citizens who form interest groups to influence the decisions made by political parties and policymakers after they are elected.

In the concept of representative democracy, the role of citizens is limited. They are encouraged to vote, and as Schumpeter (1975: 295) states "once they have elected an individual, political action is his business and not theirs". Today, many people think that democracy mostly means representative democracy.

However, as the shortcomings of this paradigm have been more widely recognized, alternatives that aim to create new definitions and practices for representative democracy have room to grow. Complex decision-making structures involving many actors, as well as the decline of political parties' representation function, have sparked debate about democracy's legitimacy and prompted calls for new forms of citizen participation (Cain et al., 2006). Participatory and deliberative democratic theorists typically emphasize the value of citizen participation in democracy.

As a result, collaborative governance and public involvement techniques are promoted to address the problems of democratic limitations, deal with complex challenges, enhance problem-solving abilities, build social capital, and maintain legitimacy in policy-making processes (Escobar, 2014). After all, the principles and methods of participatory democracy are rapidly being integrated into representative democracy.

2.1.2 Participatory Democracy

The arguments concerning participatory democracy may be traced back to Athenian democracy, as Olsen (1982) states that when participatory democracy was initially introduced in the 1960s, it represented a return to classic democratic philosophy.

Michels & De Graaf (2010) states that participatory democrats regard citizen participation as fundamental to democracy. The origins of this perspective may be traced back to Rousseau, whose belief was that each citizen's participation in

political decision-making is essential to the state's functioning. Rousseau's ideas provided the basis for theories on participatory democracy.

According to Saward (2003), participatory democracy allows citizens to actively participate in continuous decision-making, whether at the municipal, state, or federal level or within groups of people or organizations. While representative democracy handed politics to professionals and specialists, participatory democracy forces citizens to interact with one another without the need for mediators (Barber, 2003).

Participatory democracy envisions various publics forming by collective association, cooperation, conflict, and civic education processes; however, representative democracy views 'the public' molding itself via elections and the dynamics of interest groups. Since then, participatory democrats have emphasized the importance of 'the local' as a fundamental place for democratic participation. This requires decentralization and power devolution across social and policy spheres (Escobar, 2017).

Individuals gain participatory and active skills and are able to effectively participate in a variety of ways to make all choices that concern them in a participatory democracy, where collective decision-making is widely decentralized throughout all spheres of society. This theory of participatory democracy places a significant emphasis on the idea that full democratic reform of decision-making inside municipal and private organizations is essential to ensure the sustainability of political democracy at the national level (Sanoff, 2006).

Participatory democracy began to be defined by this evolving idea of citizen participation. Pateman (1970: 43) emphasized that participation not only provided outputs in the shape of policies and choices but also had educational aspects that aided in the "development of each individual's social and political skills". This encompasses two main key aspects of participatory democracy. Firstly, citizens can build a sense of empowerment by "taking advantage of opportunities for genuine participation in decisions affecting their lives" (Saward, 2003: 71- 72). Secondly, the idea that citizens are not "pre-packed bundles of fixed preferences and fixed

propensities" but rather "nurtured and shaped, for their benefit and for that of their societies" is growing rapidly (Saward, 2003: 71- 72).

Participatory democrats say that participation in a democracy serves a variety of functions. The first is an educational purpose. The participation of citizens in public decision-making may help them develop their civic competence. The second purpose of participatory democracy is its integrative nature. Participation improves people's perceptions of themselves as community members and public citizens. As a result, people could feel more individually responsible for public actions and decisions. Finally, participatory democracy also boosts the legitimacy of decisions and choices. As Rousseau underlined, participation is crucial in creating norms that are acceptable to everybody (Michels & De Graaf, 2010).

Participatory democracy has entered many areas of society in recent years, including industry, neighborhoods, and racial issues. The fast spread of relatively organized initiatives for encouraging participation in community and government activities has been most notable (Sanoff, 2006). Despite shortcomings and limitations, participatory democracy practices show that citizens can be influential problem-solvers and policymakers (Escobar, 2017).

2.1.3 Deliberative Democracy

Since the 1990s, principles of participatory democracy revived and expanded upon by deliberative theory and practice (Elstub, 2010). The democratic ideal was framed primarily by aggregating existing value preferences or interests into collective choice through procedures such as voting and representation before the theory of democracy took a deliberative turn in 1990 (Dryzek, 2000).

Deliberative democrats claim that the capacity of individuals influenced by a collective decision to deliberate in the development of that decision is the core of democratic legitimacy (Dryzek & List, 2003). Elstub & McLaverty (2014: 1) claim that "political decision-making should be talk-centric rather than voter-centric,"

which supports this discursive approach. Young (2000: 23) states that participants make decisions "by determining which proposals the collective agrees are supported by the best reasons," rather than counting which preferences have more numerical support. Bohman (1998) also says that the purpose of deliberation was consensus, or agreement among all parties affected by a decision, rather than compromise or negotiating equilibrium. Thus, deliberative theorists claim that the fundamental component of democratic self-government and decision-making is "public deliberation of free and equal citizens" (Bohman, 1998: 401). Furthermore, Saward (2003: 147) states that "deliberation improves the quality and acceptability of collective decisions". Deliberative democracy is based on pluralism, which relies on engaged pluralism while highlighting the importance of dialogue in reaching consensus. The concept of deliberative democracy acknowledges that preferences might change during the deliberation process.

Sirianni & Friedland (2005) defined deliberative democracy as a framework where citizens and their representatives discuss public issues and potential solutions through judgment and reflection, with an openness to understanding other people's values, perspectives, and interests to find solutions that benefit all parties. A fresh citizen voice that distinguishes from raw public opinion, simple voting, limited advocacy, or external protest is provided by deliberative democracy. It seeks to develop a responsible citizen voice with the ability of understanding complexity, acknowledging the genuine interests of other actors, cultivating a sense of common ownership and action, and recognizing the need for trade-offs. Parkinson & Mansbridge (2012: 170) state that the purpose of deliberative democracy is "to improve the legitimacy of democracy by making democratic institutions systematically responsive to reasons, not just the weight of numbers or the power of interests".

Deliberative democracy pays close attention to the formation of the public. It emphasizes that people with varied opinions, values, and perspectives should be engaged in dialogue and deliberation with others, rather than considering 'the public' for granted. This is a reaction to the critique of participatory democracy that the

majority of people are not truly knowledgeable about public issues and are unable to make rational decisions about governance and policy. In contrast to aggregative election procedures, which simply register people's opinions and preferences without questioning, deliberative democracy strives to transform citizens' potentially uninformed opinions and preferences by inclusive and open dialogue (Saward, 2003).

In deliberative democracy, the public is formed through deliberation. Unlike the power dynamics of negotiations between interest groups, public deliberation offers an open forum to test ideas, evidence, and arguments. The importance of diversity and inclusiveness in public deliberation cannot be underestimated. Hence, demographic diversity is critical in ensuring that deliberative processes include a diverse range of citizens from various social and economic backgrounds - for example, age, education, ethnicity, gender, and income. Citizens are urged to be informed deliberators who engage in sense-making, resolving issues, and making thoughtful decisions in deliberative settings (Escobar, 2017).

Dahl (1989) offered mini-publics as a tool for the first time involving citizens in addressing public concerns. He used the term "minipopulus" to refer to a group of citizens who are gathered for the purpose of learning and discuss a subject with the purpose of influencing public opinion and decision-making. Also, he states that these citizens should be demographically reflect the greater population. Chwalisz (2019) states that mini-publics, an aspect of deliberative democracy, are groups of individuals who are chosen at random and spend a lot of time developing well-informed suggestions for public authorities. Citizens' assemblies, deliberative polls, consensus meetings, citizen juries, and planning cells are just a few of the democratic innovations that have sprung up throughout the world as a result of this concept (Escobar, 2017).

To sum up, participatory and deliberative democracy theories claim that citizen participation enhances civic virtues and skills, results in rational decisions based on

public reasoning, and maximizes the legitimacy of the process and the outcome. These benefits all contribute to each citizen's inclusion in the policy-making process.

2.2 Citizen Participation in Urban Planning

The modern origins of urban planning trace back to the urban reform movement that evolved in response the chaos that existed in industrial cities during the middle of the nineteenth century. Citizen participation, according to Williams (1976), has its roots in the very first institutionalized city and regional planning process at the turn of the twentieth century. Day (1997) states that citizen groups were at the forefront of environmental improvements, with topics ranging from the City Beautiful Movement to slum eradication. Local communities have used public participation as a powerful tool to influence the design of public space. Participatory planning and design has been the major mechanism for reacting to community issues movement as a response to a lack of public participation in decision-making since its early beginnings during the civil rights (Hou & Rios 2003).

Urban planning and generating modes of participation that correspond to how the planning process is carried out have always been strongly related to the idea of participation. Therefore, planning theory has given considerable attention to the issue of how to encourage citizen participation.

The concept of participation has always been closely associated with urban planning, and developing forms of participation that are in line with the way the planning process is carried out. Planning theory has contributed considerable attention to the question of how to improve the participation of common citizens in the planning process.

Participatory planning theory, methods, and practices have been a source of debate since the 1960s; planning began to see participation as a process initiated by individuals. However, it is only since the 1990s that numerous categories have gradually evolved to provide a more practical context with base models.

In the contemporary world, events and circumstances can have unexpected origins, and the notion of citizen participation in the design of towns and cities is no exception. The Russian prince named Peter Kropotkin, in 1874, escaped from a prison in St. Petersburg and sailed to Britain to seek refuge and intellectual freedom to pursue his radical anarchist agenda (Hulse, 1970, as cited in Walters, 2007). After nearly two decades later, in 1894, the French geographer Elisée Reclus was saved from imprisonment by the Royal Geographical Society of Britain during the widespread arrest and state suppression of anarchists in France (Woodcock, 1980, as cited in Walters, 2007). These two influential thinkers in the late-nineteenth-century anarchist movement highly affected planning and design in the 19th century.

According to Hall (2014), the anarchist movement, which was prevalent at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries, inspired many of the early influencers. Kropotkin and other anarchist pioneers contributed to contemporary planning theory with the idea of a society centered on men and women cooperating voluntarily while working and living in tiny self-governing commonwealths, rather than just an alternate built form.

It examines the beginnings of anarchist ideology in the nineteenth century, its evolution via a broad collection of planning pioneers at the turn of the twentieth century, including Patrick Geddes and Ebenezer Howard, and its effect on a wide variety of planning and design projects. In this sense, Geddes envisioned an emerging urban form in which nature and urbanity were tightly intertwined, created by the collaborative efforts of the communities. Also, Ebenezer Howard's Garden City concept included elements including local management, self-government, and community identity comparable to this anarchist-derived philosophy (Walters, 2007).

Since the 1950s, there has been growing criticism towards the effects of the large-scale development projects on communities, environment, and urban character. In many countries, citizen participation has become an essential asset in urban planning and design processes throughout the next few decades (Hou, 2011).

According to Joseph Zimmerman (1972), the current citizen participation movement began with the participatory requirement of the Housing Act of 1954 (as cited in Glass, 1979). Citizen participation meant forming an advisory board, which is mainly composed of citizen leaders for most renewal agencies. Community participation was encouraged not because it was idealistic but because it was practical for housing and business rehabilitation. If the regeneration aims were to be fulfilled, citizens' assistance was required. If neighborhood residents were allowed to participate in agency decision-making, it was anticipated that they would come to share the agency's goals (Burke, 1979; Williams, 1976).

Citizen movements, such as those that emerged in the 1960s in inner cities, are a reaction to centralized authority and bureaucracies that are intractable. This form of local democracy is a major contributor in the process of transforming a representative democracy into participatory democracy. Therefore, a new movement was born as a result of increased community consciousness and direct public engagement in defining their physical environment. Following this trend, community design centers were created in the US and the UK to offer design and planning services so that the disadvantaged can identify and carry out their own planning objectives (Sanoff, 2006).

These early seeds of citizen power, inactive for decades, increased in the late 1960s-1970s and began with community protests against top-down decision-making processes and social and environmental issues in urban areas in America and Britain. According to Burke (1979), citizens' expectations and demands have joined to make citizen participation a fundamental need for each urban project. The citizens can demand to participate in decision-making processes to obtain the right to speak for the built environment in which they live.

Jane Jacobs (1961) praised local citizen engagement in fighting monolithic plans established by centralized bureaucracies. She believes that city plans should go from impersonal and authoritarian to personal and democratic. It must originate from a

genuine desire for high-quality citizen participation on the street and in the planning offices.

Davidoff (1965) articulates a role for advocacy planning; in this era, many urban planning and design professionals questioned the traditional practice. Therefore, they battled against urban redevelopment, advocated for disadvantaged citizens' rights, spoke in the language of community organizing, aimed to strengthen citizens' relative power, and established citizen participation methods. This movement was supported by government financial assistance programs that encouraged citizens to participate in community improvement projects and programs. Through these programs, people who are not professions were given the power to make planning decisions.

By the late 1960s and 1970s, planning theorists began to express doubts about the viability of instrumental rationality. The criticism called for more inclusive models for decision-making. German sociologist philosopher Jürgen Habermas developed social science theory of communicative action. He proposed a deliberative democracy founded on the concept of domination-free discourses, with the goal of reaching a consensus via rational argument (Kühn, 2020). Habermas (1984) suggests that scientific measures of rationality be replaced with measures based on debate, negotiation, and argument in decision-making. According to Habermas, instead of relying on political or scientific analyses to guide decision-making, society should focus on individual communication and discussion. This method turns decision-making into a form of interactive, group thinking where rationality is determined by agreement or consensus. Habermas (1984) claims that people nonetheless share a common sociocultural horizon of core ideas, values, and behavioral norms despite our diverse and opposing agendas. This horizon allows us to formulate our arguments, evaluate them, and come to a consensus. He provides three life worldly criteria on which we should build and evaluate our arguments while looking for communicative rationality. The three criteria are propositional truth, normative rightness, and subjective truthfulness (as cited in Mäntysalo, 2005).

Current communicative planning theory is built on the theoretical foundation of Habermas' communicative rationality. The fundamental idea behind the theory is to make planning more just and democratic by increasing the quality and quantity of interaction and communication among planning actors like technical experts, politicians, residents, and private sector representatives (Mattila, 2019). Habermas argues that genuine planning dialogue should aim to promote understanding among the participants rather than petty power struggles and games of bargaining between self-regarded interest groups (Mäntysalo, 2005). In this paradigm, planning is frequently tasked with assisting as a moderator, promoting methods for public debate, involvement, and forms of group collaboration (Forester, 1989; Healey,1992; Selle, 2013).

Historical and theoretical developments have a prominent role in recognizing communicative planning. For instance, several of the issues raised in communicative planning have been discussed in the planning literature in the past. Lindblom (1959) presented a test to determine good policy, while Davidoff (1965) proposed an advocacy model. Also, Jacobs (1961) and Arnstein (1969) can be considered early contributors in developing communicative planning.

In contemporary theoretical development, the communicative planning theory is deemed to have a significant role. Habermas (1984) promotes the collaborative decision-making model as a method for achieving democracy. Participation and participatory planning are regarded as the democratic right of people affected by a plan or decision in the current planning literature. Friedmann (1987) claims that modern idea of planning has been related to the concepts of democracy and progress since the 1980s. It focuses on the difficulty of figuring out how citizens can handle their collective concerns about sharing time and space by acting together (as cited in Healey, 1992).

Many planning theorists, including John Forester, Judith E. Innes, David E. Booher, and Patsy Healey have recommended a more democratic planning process in the aftermath of Jürgen Habermas. These new theorists focus on the issues and

challenges that come from their study of practice rather than systematic thinking about planning. They grounded their theory based on the interpretive analysis of practice. According to these planning scholars, planning is a participatory, communicative activity that is deeply woven into the fabric of society, politics, and public decision-making. Therefore, rather than being observers or neutral experts, planners are seen as actors by communicative action theorists (Innes, 1995).

According to Mandelbaum (1991), they favor qualitative, interpretative inquiry to logical deductive analysis, and they aim to grasp the unique and contextual rather than making broad statements. Rather than imposing order and definition, these thinkers share stories and explore for insights (as cited in Innes, 1995).

John Friedmann's transactive planning, which prioritizes dialogue and mutual learning, is the most important forerunner of communicative planning (Friedmann, 1973). According to Friedmann, between professionals and non-professionals, more close, face-to-face interaction is necessary for the essential sharing of experience, referred to as the transactive style (Sager, 2017). In this regard, mutual learning is the central notion of the transactive planning approach, according to Friedmann (1987), who believes that a planner and a client are engaged in a collaborative process based on mutual learning. He claims that a planner should have cared more about giving disadvantaged social groups the tools they need to help themselves than about lobbying the government for their needs. Friedmann's transactive planning clearly opened a new era in terms of the extent and significance of public involvement in urban planning processes. In this scenario, the planner functions as a mediator between customers (the general public) and experts (planners, civil servants, architects). Thus, transactive planning states that community engagement and empowerment are the objectives, not the tools to achieve them (Lane, 2005).

With Forester's (1980) embrace of Habermas' theory of communicative rationality, the communicative planning theory first appeared in the planning literature. He developed and applied an empirical planning practice based on Habermas' argument in the context of planning. Forester claims that rationality should be built by

collective acts of citizens rather than constructed by elites within society. As a result, he tests and proposes new strategies and policies which acknowledge planning as an interactive process within a social context. Therefore, in contrast to instrumental rationality, communicative rationality emphasizes communication, fosters procedural, participatory planning, and challenges the modernist concept of truth. Forester's studies can be regarded as a pioneer of communicative action in the field of planning. Drawing on Habermas's notion of communicative rationality, there are a variety of planning approaches that regard communicative and interactive activity.

Healey (1997) defines planning as a process of interactive collective reasoning within the scope of Habermas's works. According to Healey (1992), planning has been a process for addressing and determining how to respond to common concerns and manage environmental change collaboratively and interactively. Healey (1992: 154) outlined the components of communicative theory as follows:

> "*Planning is an interactive and interpretive process, focusing on 'deciding and acting' within a range of specialized allocative and authoritative systems but drawing on the multi-dimensionality of 'life-worlds' or 'practical sense,' rather than a single formalized dimension. Formal techniques of analysis and design in planning processes are but one form of discourse. Planning processes should be enriched by discussion of moral dilemmas and aesthetic experience, using a range of presentational forms, from telling stories to aesthetic illustrations of experiences.*"

Innes (1999) focuses on setting up a proper collaborative process to produce communicative rationality. She claims that innovative, stakeholder-based, consensus-building processes transform information into meaningful and actionable knowledge. Therefore, she proposes that planners should create processes to foster dialogue. She presented the planning curriculum emphasizing the negotiation and facilitation skills to handle group processes.

John Forester investigated the techniques and possibilities of mediation, while Healey, Innes and Sager looked for new ways of governance, including consensus

building, alternative conflict resolution, and other forms of partnership and cooperation. Scholars such as Forester, Friedmann, Sager, Innes, Healey, and Mandelbaum have created a communicative method of planning on the basis of Habermas' communicative rationality. Democracy is portrayed as deliberative and pluralistic in the notion of communicative planning; hence, power exchanges between actors are primarily seen as a pluralistic negotiation of interests. The major objectives are to settle the conflict by achieving consensus among the parties involved. The implicit goal of consensus is frequently to promote public approval of a plan or decision (Kühn, 2020).

Although the communicative planning paradigm has been in the planning literature since the 1990s, and its emergence and development were urged by the shortcomings of previous approaches such as "top-down planning" or "scientific/instrumental rationality," some planning theorists (like Hillier, 2002; Mäntysalo, 2005) have criticized and questioned it. The theory's idealistic and utopian nature has been frequently criticized.

Planning theorists who use Foucault's power analysis (e.g., Häkli, 2002; Hillier, 2000, 2002; McGuirk, 2001; Flyvbjerg, 1998) have given the strongest critical arguments. Some researchers, such as Hillier (2002), Häkli (2002), and Mäntysalo (2002), tried to link the Habermasian and Foucauldian perspectives using a reconstructed planning theory (2005). Michel Foucault questioned the previous paradigm, explaining power as a component influencing personal views and communication relationships rather than an outer distortion. According to Foucauldian theory, power cannot be separated from people's psychological, social, and cultural life and is reduced to bureaucratic or business procedures. Power has a much deeper meaning: it defines the social circumstances in which people discover their responsibilities and personalities in social interaction (Bäcklund & Mäntysalo, 2010).

Mäntysalo (2005) describes communicative rationality as a "sort of straitjacket," claiming that under communicative rationality, each person is assigned a global

identity as a moral and rational being who communicates Habermas's fundamental lifeworldly beliefs with others. Hillier (2002) claims that the person with this identity is responsible for seeking consensus and criticizes the idea that consensus is always achievable. She claims that Jürgen Habermas forces us to engage in argumentation and seek consensus in all circumstances. Bäcklund & Mäntysalo (2010) also states that the capacity to perceive the better argument needs a shared reality with shared problems. The Habermasian communicative planning theory is incapable of accepting competing views of reality as equally valid.

Mäntysalo (2005) claimed that the communicative planning theory distinguishes between two types of planning: planning as conflict management and planning as consensus-seeking. Planning as conflict management developed as a concept in reaction to criticisms of planning as consensus-seeking. Planning as consensus-seeking is participatory planning based on communicative rationality. According to Mäntysalo (2005), these two planning approaches are described as "two branches of communicative planning theory."

According to Friedmann (1993), the highly normative, rational models that ruled in the early part of the last century have shifted away from the dominant position of the planner, the use of reasoning and the scientific method, as well as future end-state goals. A number of tendencies have evolved in the present era's theoretical pluralism, like the political nature of planning, the atomistic and conflicting stakeholder interests, and the planner's support and mediation of decisions as negotiated solutions (as cited in Lane, 2005).

In short, the emergence of participation in urban planning and design started with community protests against top-down decision-making processes and social and environmental issues in urban areas. Historical developments have had an important role in the process of evolution in planning and the rise of citizen participation for the last two centuries. According to Burke (1979), citizens' demands and expectations have joined to make public participation a fundamental need for each urban project. Today, the notion of citizen participation has spread and become well-

known all across the world. Participation and participatory planning are regarded as the democratic right of people affected by a plan or decision in the current planning literature.

2.3 The Concept of Citizen Participation

Citizen participation can be defined in the most general form as a process in which people take part with the intention to influence a decision that will more or less affect their community. According to Wulz (1986), participation is a broad concept that encompasses a variety of decision-making processes involving several actors. Similar terms are used: citizen participation, public involvement, and public engagement. Governmental and social groups collaborate to decide on public problems in accordance with the concept of democracy.

The cornerstone of democracy is citizen participation, which may happen in various forms, mechanisms, and levels. The origins of public participation may be found in ancient Greece when it was considered legal right for anyone to take part in state affairs (Duţu & Diaconu, 2017). However, it is possible to trace the concept of active citizen engagement to Rousseau's participatory democracy from the 18th century. John Stuart Mill and Jean-Jacques Rousseau both highlighted the virtues of active participation. Rousseau developed a political theory centered on the ideal community in reaction to the circumstances of the 18th-century urban public. Rousseau argues in Du Contrat Social (1762) that "the individual participation of each citizen in political decision-making is essential and vitally important to the functioning of the state laid the foundation for theories on the role of participation in modern democracies" (as cited in Kamacı, 2014).

In 1948 starting with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, participation is a fundamental human right recognized by several human rights treaties. It is also a need for successful democratic citizenship.

In all democratizing societies, the concept of citizen participation has been increasingly becoming important. It is receiving increasing attention in many parts of the government services and policies. President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society programs institutionalized citizen participation in the middle of the 1960s (Cogan & Sharpe, 1986, as cited in Duţu & Diaconu, 2017). Participation became an important notion in the 1960s and was widely embraced by a variety of disciplines, including urban planning, public administration, psychology, architects, and politicians.

Burke (1979) states that citizen participation is an important aspect of our democratic heritage and is often promoted as a way to improve the democratic process. Wondolleck & Yaffee (2000) argue that participation is an effective effort and leads to better solutions. According to Wulz (1986), there are several synonyms for participation, including "citizen engagement," "citizen's influence," "citizen's action group," "cooperation," "co-decision," and "self-decision," which suggests that participation encompasses many decision-making processes involving a number of parties.

More participatory techniques to guaranteeing citizen voices in democratic governance processes are being investigated as a result of reconsidering citizenship as a right that includes participation and the expansion of participation rights beyond standard voting and political rights (Hickey et al., 2006). Ipsen (2004: 140) states that "participation today no longer means that the population is merely informed or that it has a formal right of objection, but is rather evolving into conflict management in order to overcome the blockage of developments and to actively participate in designing future developments." There are several more examples of participation being more democratically responsible than traditional, representational, and instrumental methods. According to some scholars (e.g., Arnstein, 1969; Putnam, 1995; Irvin & Stansbury, 2004), arguments for more citizen involvement often rest on the benefits of the process and the notion that an active population is preferable to one that is passive (as cited in Kulözü, 2012).

Arnstein (1969) defines participation as the power redistribution that enables those who are not involved in political and economic processes to be involved voluntarily in such processes. International Association of Public Participation (IAP2) defines citizen participation as "any process that involves the public in problem-solving or decision-making, and that uses public input to make better decisions."

For decades, Western democracies have explored numerous methods to give citizens an equal voice in the planning process. When post-World War II programs of social improvement through planning and urban regeneration were proven ineffective by the 1960s, citizens' participation in planning was seen as a potential remedy. Several planning theories emerged, emphasizing various citizen participation types in planning and urban development (Maier, 2001).

In recent years it has been estimated that participation has grown significantly in all public spheres. There is a worldwide consensus on the need and benefits of incorporating citizens into the future design of cities because today's future cities represent a collective challenge, which involves governments and includes citizens. Hence, the concept of citizen participation must now be understood as integrated into everyday urban processes and dynamics.

According to Sarnoff (2000), participation in urban studies may be defined as multi-actor decision-making processes that include individuals in the planning and design processes. People who, in this sense, have shared interests that influence their surroundings and way of life. He sees civic engagement as a chance for people to influence the built environment. Therefore, citizen participation in urban planning is critical to developing a sense of community.

Arnstein (1969: 24) states that "the idea of citizen participation is a little like eating spinach: no one is against it in principle because it is good for you." Beneviste (1989) remarks that planning faces a dilemma in that involvement is essential to its success, yet it also cannot be allowed to rule the process entirely. Citizen participation, he claims, is the "Achilles heel of planning" (as cited in Day, 1997).

Every discipline has its context; therefore, definitions of participation may vary. It is necessary to narrow down the potential spectrum to a set of particular circumstances. The theoretical treatise of participation will be limited to a relatively small focus on spatial planning for this work.

2.4 The dichotomy of Participation (Means/Ends)

In the 1990s, participatory planning was a highly discussed topic, and different approaches that conceptualize participation have arisen. It has been developed with competing conceptions. Participation in planning may be seen from two distinct perspectives in the current study: participation "as a means to an end" and "as an end in itself." Participation "as a means to an end" welcomes participation from the standpoint of communicative rationality, which embraces the process itself, but participation "as an end itself" accepts participation from the viewpoint of instrumental rationality, which outlines the outcomes of a participatory process.

Rosener (1978) defines the situation in which participation is both a means to an end to help achieve some objective and an end in itself for the sake of participation.

Buchy & Ross et al. (2000) have highlighted two emerging themes. Participation is identified in the first theme as an approach, a philosophy, and a particular ethos for community development. In the second, communities or the general public are acknowledged as participants in certain planning activities through the use of a technique, a set of rules, and practices known as participation.

Buchy & Ross et al. (2000) recognize "participation as an ethos" as the approach that considers participation as an end. This approach accepts that:

- Since different people understand participation differently, it's critical to establish a common definition to avoid potential conflict and/or disappointment.
- People participate partly because they desire greater control; thus, participation becomes meaningless when no power is transferred or shared in decision-making.

- Participation can help promote the ongoing learning process and raise the awareness of collective responsibility in the community.

Buchy & Ross et al. (2000) accept "participation as a management tool" as the approach that considers participation a means. It can be summarized as follows:

- Since various levels of engagement need different methods and techniques, planners should be clear on their objectives before interacting with the larger community.
- Participatory processes have advantages and disadvantages that must be evaluated before engaging.
- All partners must be engaged, but the lead agency is responsible for creating the appropriate climate.
- Realistic timelines and group dynamics that are well managed are crucial.
- The subject of representativeness has to be handled by the agency in a productive manner.

Nelson and Wright (1995) noted a common distinction between "participation as a means," which refers to achieving the goals of a project more efficiently, effectively, or inexpensively, and "participation as an end," which occurs when a community or organization establishes a process to regulate its own. Participation can be "a means" to achieve a project's goals more efficiently or inexpensively, or it can be "an end in itself," with those in charge of the entire process exercising control from the beginning. Both of these modes of participation imply different relationships between community members and the state, agencies, or research institutions.

Cleaver (1999) distinguishes between the efficiency arguments of participation as a tool to enhance project outcomes and results and participation as a process that increases people's potential for improving their own lives and a tool of social change to the benefit of marginalized and disadvantaged groups. Based on their rationale, Rydin & Pennington (2000) explore these two distinctive approaches. These writers

contend that although participation “as an end itself” views planning participation as a democratic right, participation “as a means to an end” analyzes participation planning as the delivery of policy. Despite the fact that participation “as a means to an end” concentrates on the efficiency of policy delivery and takes into account how public participation may help produce a better policy outcome, participation “as an end itself” focuses on making ensuring that participation contributes in terms of policy results, facilitating access to the policy process, and promoting take-up of that access.

To summarize, despite the fact that there are several approaches to conceptualize participation in planning, the current study claimed that there are primarily two basic approaches that are characterized by their rationalities. “Participation as a means” cover practices from the point of instrumental rationality that do not share the goal of participatory planning, which is to act on a democratic right, create a democratic culture, and increase social capital. In comparison, “participation as an end” embraces communicative rationality, which recognizes participation in planning as a tool helping make better plans and ensure that your choices and actions are legitimate.

2.5 Purpose of Participation

At least theoretically, the growing tendency toward participation and participatory practices may be explained by the notion that if citizens get actively involved as participants in the decisions that affect their lives, the ensuing governance would be more democratic and effective.

According to Edmund Burke (1968), citizen participation may be considered a technique for achieving various goals, including education, identifying objectives and goals, attitude change, and organizational stability. Judy Rosener (1975) demonstrates which of the 37 participatory techniques can fulfill at least one of 14 distinct functions listed in a technique function matrix (as cited in Glass, 1979). Both

writers imply that if methods are not classified according to the purposes they can achieve, then the probability of a successful program is certainly reduced if not hindered. Therefore, it is important to identify the purposes of citizen participation based on different scholars.

Regarding the purpose of citizen participation, there are two group of thought: one promoting the citizen perspective and the other favoring the administrative perspective. One purpose, which is the administrative perspective, is to increase citizens' trust and confidence in government by involving them in planning and other governmental processes. Consequently, they are more likely to recognize decisions and plans and operate effectively within the system when pursuing solutions to problems. The other purpose, which is citizen perspective, gives citizens a voice in planning and decision-making so that plans, decisions, and provision of services can be improved (Glass, 1979).

Participation is not a zero-sum game in which citizens must choose between developing trust or enhancing plans and services. When planners and residents can balance the two goals, a participatory program is more likely to be effective (Cole 1975, Hallman 1972).

Glass (1979) claims that participatory methods and techniques are being developed in parallel with the most suitable purposes. He lists exchange of information, education, support-building, supplemental decision making, and representative input as the five goals of citizen engagement. Bringing planners and residents together to exchange information entails listening to each other's thoughts and concerns. Education involves the sharing of particular information about a project, ideas, or citizen engagement and is seen as an extension of information sharing. The purpose is to inform citizens about a plan and offer details about the plan. Support building creates a favorable atmosphere for proposed policies and initiatives and resolves conflict among citizens or between citizens and the government. The purpose of the decision-making supplement refers to activities intended to give citizens more opportunities to participate in the planning process. For this purpose, citizens are

consulted to ensure that the citizen's perspective is taken into account along with the staffs' in planning. Representative input is described as an effort to gather the opinions of the whole community on a given topic to ensure that future plans represent community interests. The first three purposes (information sharing, education, and support building) seemed to be more directly tied to the administrative perspective. In contrast, the latter two seemed to be more closely related to the citizen perspective.

Creighton (1994) states that the purpose of citizen participation, in general, is to inform the public, collaborate on problem-solving in order to find solutions that will benefit whole society, and obtain the community feedback on any actions or policies that are presented.

According to Sanoff (2000), participatory processes can be used for many different things, such as coming up with new ideas, exchanging information, highlighting attitudes, distributing information, reviewing a proposal, assessing opinions, resolving conflicts, calming down a tense situation, and ultimately assisting the planning and design continuum. Furthermore, Sanoff (2005) states that citizen participation aims to inform people about future objectives or policies, gather their opinions and reactions, and engage them in problem-solving to get the most suitable answers for everybody. According to him, there are three main purposes of participation. The first purpose is to engage people in the design of decision-making processes to strengthen their trust and confidence in organizations, increasing the probability for them to accept decisions and plans and work within the systems while finding solutions to problems. The second purpose is to expand public participation in the planning and decision-making processes in order to enhance the quality of plans, decisions, and the delivery of services. The third purpose is to generate a sense of belonging by bringing citizens together who have similar goals.

According to Baum (2001), the objectives of citizen engagement include information sharing, relationship building, acting ability development, and maintaining or improving conditions. Citizens have different degrees of power while accomplishing

these goals. These categories may be viewed hierarchically because information sharing creates relationships, which in turn foster the ability to take action. However, in practice, these categories overlap. For instance, communication can result in developing relationships and have the potential to bring about other changes, such as more communication.

Innes & Booher (2004) define five purposes to justify participation. One is for decision-makers to learn about public preferences to integrate them into their decisions. The second goal is to improve decisions by incorporating public input and local expertise. The third purpose of public engagement is to promote fairness and justice because traditional information sources and analytical techniques do not acknowledge many groups, particularly the least advantaged ones. The fourth purpose is about getting legitimacy to public decisions. Because if a planner claims to have a dozen public meetings, evaluated comments, and everyone gets an opportunity to speak, this makes the decision democratic and legitimate in theory. The last and five purpose is that participation is a requirement by law, so it is something planners and public officials do.

Furthermore, Innes & Booher (2004) claim that many of these purposes appear to be better managed by collaborative practices. Therefore, they define sixth and seventh purposes for participation based on experience with emerging methods. These purposes are to build a civil society and establish an adaptable, self-organizing community capable of solving wicked challenges in an informed and effective way (Rittel & Webber, 1973, as cited in Innes & Booher, 2004).

2.6 Levels of Participation

Governments and cities all around the world increasingly recognize the need for more inclusive decision-making processes, particularly when it comes to interventions in the public realm. Citizen participation in decision-making does not always guarantee that citizens have a say in the outcome of the process; decision-

makers may disregard the view and opinions of the public. According to Day (1997), public influence is the result of a citizen's impact on a decision, and it may happen even if the person does not take part in the decision-making process. Thus, participation and its emerging significance are emphasized in a variety of contexts; the level of participation also has critical importance.

The two most notable and referred frameworks are the Ladder of Citizen Participation proposed by Sherry Arnstein in 1969 and the Spectrum of public participation developed by the International Association for Public Participation (IAP2).

Participation, according to Arnstein (1969), is the basis of democracy. Participating in an empty ritual and really having genuine ability to affect how the process turns out are quite different things. political elites might utilize participation to pretend that the interests of all stakeholders are sufficiently taken into account, only just a limited minority benefit from the process.

Arnstein (1969) categorized participation at eight levels, representing the degree of citizen power in decision-making and measuring the value of participation on a ladder of citizen participation (Figure 2.1).

8. Citizen Control	Degrees of Citizen Power
7. Delegated Power	
6.Partnership	
5.Placation	Degrees of Tokenism
4. Consultation	
3.Informing	
2.Therapy	Non-participation
1.Manipulation	

Figure 2.1 Arnstein’s (1969) Ladder of Citizen Participation

It is important to remark on the different levels of participation. The first two levels, which range from “manipulation” to “therapy,” refer to non-participation. Arnstein (1969) states that the objective of these levels does not involve the participation of citizens but enables power holders to educate or cure the participants. Therefore, the suggested strategy or plan is the ideal one, and participation's mission is to use public relations to earn the approval of the general public.

The levels which are “informing” and “consultation,” referred to as tokenism, involve dialogue and enable the participants to hear and have a voice, but they still lack the power to make any real influence. Informing is the most important first step to legitimate participation. However, there is one-way communication at this level since it does not give a chance to receive feedback. Again, consultation is a legitimate step that consists of surveys and polls, community gatherings, and inquiries from the public. In the ladder, “placation” refers to a higher degree of tokenism in which the citizens are given the opportunity to assist and advise, but the powerholders keep the ability to decide. This reveals that “tokenism” refers to involvement as merely symbolic rather than genuine.

Further up the ladder are the concepts of partnership, delegated power, and citizen control; these constitute genuine levels of participation that participants affect decision-making and determine the end product. At the level of “partnership,” negotiation between citizens and those currently holding positions of power results in a redistribution of power. Responsibility for planning and making decisions is shared, such as joint committees. Ordinary citizens have considerable or full responsibility for the management in decision-making in the steps “delegated power” and “citizen control.” Citizen control is the highest degree of participation since it guarantees that people have complete control over a program or organization, accept full responsibility for policy and administration, and negotiate the terms.

According to Arnstein (1969), citizen participation equals citizen power. She states that the problem is that the citizens does not perform power, and participatory processes are pointless as long as the power distribution is unequal.

Deshler and Sock (1985) established two levels of participation based on a survey of participation literature and Arnstein's ladder. It emphasizes the importance of outsiders' and beneficiaries' relative power as a fundamental feature in describing participation (as cited in Michener, 1998). The authors examine the various degrees of participation using a scale that ranks them from "pseudo participation" to "genuine participation." This scale measures the degree to which one has control or authority (Figure 2.2).

Pseudo participation is when citizens participate in a project that is controlled by professionals to meet the needs of elites. In this level of participation, citizens are there to listen to what is being planned for them. This is considered a non-participatory situation. The level of genuine participation is centered on citizens' empowerment to control program policy and management.

<table>
<tr><td>8. Citizen Control</td><td>Empowerment</td><td rowspan="3">Genuine Participation</td></tr>
<tr><td>7. Delegated Power</td><td rowspan="2">Cooperation</td></tr>
<tr><td>6.Partnership</td></tr>
<tr><td>5.Placation</td><td rowspan="2">Assistencialism</td><td rowspan="5">Pseudo-Participation</td></tr>
<tr><td>4. Consultation</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.Informing</td><td rowspan="3">Domestication</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.Therapy</td></tr>
<tr><td>1.Manipulation</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 2.2 Participation Levels by Deshler&Sock (1985)

The study of Wulz (1986), which was established mainly to characterize levels of participation in urban planning and architecture, provides a typology with seven stages ranging from passive participation to active participation. He proposes a participation continuum consisting of seven levels, ranging from full professional autonomy to full user autonomy. Starting from passive to active representation, questionary, regionalism, dialogue, alternative, co-decision, and self-decision are the levels of participation (Figure 2.3).

Since professional expertise dominates the first three levels of the participation continuum—representation, questionary and regionalism—no act promotes active involvement. In the first level, the expert represents the personal view of own and the user's subjective interpretation. The focus of the questionnaire is the general characteristic based on statistical data of anonymous users. The third level, regionalism, emphasizes local regions' historical and cultural heritages and gathering data from the local community about architectural expressions, symbols, forms, and spatial behavior. The focus of the dialogue is on casual exchanges between the users and the expert. The alternative participation level allows local inhabitants to pick from a set of options supplied by the expert in a predetermined time frame. The level of co-decision seeks to include users directly and actively in the design process. The seventh stage, self-decision, is when the user has complete influence over the whole design and building process (Toker, 2007).

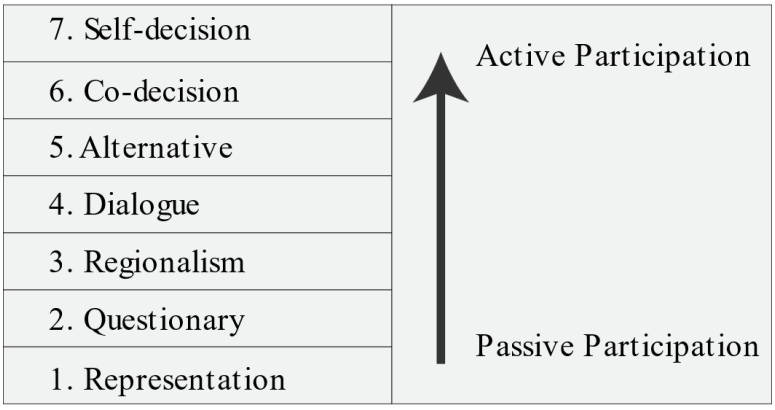

Figure 2.3 Levels of Participation by Wulz (1986)

According to Wulz (1986), experts can utilize participation as a technique of collecting and incorporating user knowledge into the design process. The user's ability to influence and change both decisions and design outcomes is a pre-condition for participation. This knowledge and understanding present right from the start of the participation and gains during and after participation. Thus, he defines participation as a process rather than mere action. When the process of participation may affect the design, it becomes an open process in terms of adding and acquiring

new knowledge. Participation is an “instrument of emancipation” that democratizes planning and design by allowing users to actively contribute while also ensuring a better sense of owning and belonging to the designed space.

Burns (1994) argues that the current system keeps the citizen in front of the stage and offers only a passive role; citizens choose a group of people to represent themselves; however, they rarely produce values. Burns (1994) raised issues about citizen participation and how it enhances or undermines representative democracy.

In light of this, Arstein’s work was later enriched by Burns (1994) with the idea of modifying the ladder. He puts the citizens in the place of the consumers, who can multiply their choices when they have more power. He specifies that the points ladder of Arnstein needs to be modified. He proposed a ladder of citizen power, with a more qualitative breakdown of some of the different levels. Firstly, the authors state that participation and control need to be distinguished. Secondly, they add several new forms of empowerment. Thirdly, they say that rungs between ladders do not have to be equal. The range of meanings must be altered because it takes the form of a ladder with a more qualitative separation. For instance, it distinguishes between ‘cynical’ and ‘real’ consultation.

12. Independent Control	Citizen Control
11. Entrusted Control	
10. Delegated Control	Citizen Participation
9. Partnership	
8.Limited Decentralized Decision-making	
7. EffectiveAdvisory Bodies	
6. Genuine consultation	
5.High-quality Information	
4. Customer Care	Citizen Non-Participation
3.Poor Information	
2.Cynical Consultation	
1.Civic Hype	

Figure 2.4 Levels of Participation by Burns (1994)

A framework for participation based on three dimensions is presented in David Wilcox's "Guide to Effective Participation": levels of participation, phases of participation, and the people engaged (local groups, businesses, residents, activists, officers, politicians) (Figure 2.5).

Wilcox (1994) produced a guide to effective participation that focuses on creating collaborative consensus-building rather than emphasizing conflict. He defines five stages (Figure 2.6). In this model, Wilcox argues that different levels of participation are expected in different contexts, and he points out that it depends on the specific situation rather than on the assumption that the ultimate goal of each process should be a higher level of participation.

Wilcox extends the concept of the ladder's level of participation by two extra dimensions. These are the phases of the participation process and different interests or stakeholders that are involved in different ways, levels, or phases of participation. (Figure 2.5)

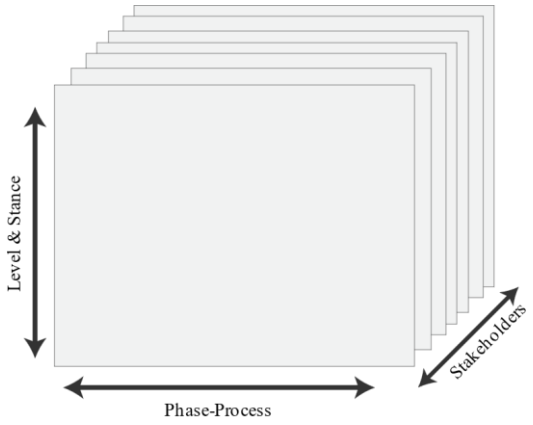

Figure 2.5 Three-dimension framework for participation by Wilcox (1994)

In addition to identifying four phases of the participatory process which are initiation, preparation, participation, and continuation, Wilcox also specifies five

levels of participation as “information, consultation, deciding together, acting together, and supporting independent community initiatives”.

Giving information entails informing others about upcoming events and providing expertise. Consultation collects citizens’ opinions by asking precise questions and specifying what will be changed or not. Experts offer some options and listen to get feedback. The decision is reached after taking into account the results of the consultation along with a number of other aspects. Deciding together encourages the generation of ideas or alternatives and a joint decision on the best course of action. Acting together facilitates varied interests to reach a decision together about what is best and helps to develop a cooperation to carry it out. They share the same amount of responsibility for the result. Supporting independent community initiatives through funding, advice, and other resources.

5. Supporting	Substantial Participation
4. Acting Together	
3. Deciding Together	
2. Consultation	
1. Information	

Figure 2.6 Level of Participation by Wilcox (1994)

White (1996) claims that participation has to be understood in a political context and that there are two main ways that participatory processes recognize the politics of participation. The first is to assess who participates, and the second is to consider the level of participation. The issue of who participates is related to an argument that individuals are not homogenous and that particular measures are necessary to engage comparatively disadvantaged groups. The level of participation demonstrates that having individuals involved in only one stage of the process is insufficient.

White (1996) offered a participation model that went beyond the limitations of the past and considered the diversity of function and form. She identifies four types of participation for top-down (managers, planners, specialists) and bottom-up (local

people) stakeholders, each with matching interests and roles. Her typology brought attention to the power struggles in participation politics amongst stakeholders. White claimed that genuine public engagement in management and decision-making would constitute complete, meaningful participation.

Form	Interest		Function
	Top-down	Bottom-up	
Nominal	Legitimation	Inclusion	Display
Instrumental	Efficiency	Cost	Means
Representative	Sustainability	Leverage	Voice
Transformative	Empowerment	Empowerment	Means/Ends

Figure 2.7 Relation between form, interest, and function in participatory practices (White, 1996)

The objective of nominal participation is to legitimize the interests of the experts who create and carry out the participation process; the interest of participants (who are local people) is inclusion. However, such participation is merely a display and does not result in change. The term "instrumental participation" describes community engagement that is employed to accomplish a particular objective, like the efficient use of community members' skills and expertise during project implementation. Representative participation is the process of including local residents in the implementation and development of programs, policies and projects that have an impact on them. For the bottom-up stakeholders, it may give a chance for pressure; for the top-down stakeholders, it increases the chances that their involvement will be long-lasting. Transformative participation is the highest form since it serves as a tool of empowerment and a goal for both top-down and bottom-up participants.

In 1990, the IAP2 was established with the purpose of enhancing and expanding public participation in decision-making. Figure 2.8 shows the public involvement spectrum developed by the organization, which is widely used by governments in planning and reporting on public consultation initiatives. The spectrum provides a matrix of several levels of participation that may be used to define the degree of public involvement in relation to project goals. The public participation spectrum

features five levels as “inform, consult, involve, collaborate, and empower”. This commonly used framework emphasizes different involvement levels, their legitimacy, and their relationships to project goals and available resources.

The IAP2 Spectrum presents five public engagement levels based on the engagement process’s goals. It demonstrates the empirical actions that decision-makers should take in order to achieve the objectives. Furthermore, decision-makers could define the role of the public in the engagement process and decide how much public influence is allowed on decisions with the help of the spectrum. It is similar to Arnstein’s Ladder of Citizen Participation in that it gives people complete management power at the highest level of participation while still allowing them to make choices. Thus, it quickly establishes itself as a global standard for public involvement.

	Inform	Consult	Involve	Collaborate	Empower
Participation goal	To provide the public with balanced and objective information to assist them in understanding the problem, alternatives, opportunities and/or solutions.	To obtain public feedback on analysis, alternatives	To work directly with the public throughout the process to ensure that public concerns and aspirations are consistently understood and considered.and/or decisions.	To partner with the public in each aspect of the decision, including the development of alternatives and the identification of the preferred solution.	To place final decision-making in the hands of the public.
Promise to the Public	We will keep you informed.	We will keep you informed, listen to and acknowledge concerns and aspirations, and provide feedback on how public input influenced the decision.We will seek your feedback on drafts and proposals.	We will work with you to ensure that your concerns and aspirations are directly reflected in the alternatives developed and provide feedback on how public input influenced the decision.	We will look to you for direct advice and innovation in formulating solutions and incorporate your advice and recommendations into the decisions to the maximum extent possible.	We will implement what you decide.
ExampleTools	Fact sheets Websites Open houses	Public comment Focus groups Surveys Community meetings	Workshops Deliberative polling	Citizen advisory committees Consensus-building Participatory decision-making	Citizens' Juries Ballots Delegated decisions

Figure 2.8 IAP2’s Public Participation Spectrum,

(Source: Adapted from Davis & Andrew, 2017)

In their adaption of IAP2's Spectrum of Public Participation (2017), Davis and Andrew (2017) provide "example tools" of participation for each stage. Examples of involvement methods for the "inform" stage include fact sheets, websites, open houses, and citizen advisory groups. Public opinion, focus groups, surveys, and community meetings are typically employed during the "consult" stage. Workshops and deliberative polls are tools for participation at the "involve" level, whereas consensus-building and participatory decision-making are tools for the "collaborate" stage. Finally, in the "empower" stage, citizens' juries, ballots, and delegated decisions are used.

2.7 Stakeholders

We should consider not only the level of participation but also the actions that people participate in and who participates in them as well as who does not participate in developing and assessing participatory planning. Thinking carefully about who participates, what spaces and language are chosen, and how to assure quality participation are all necessary for effective and inclusive participatory planning exercises. This involves the requirement to continuously define the roles of various stakeholders who should show up in these exercises. Therefore, designating the participants is one of the key characteristics of participatory planning. The discussion surrounding the stakeholders involved in participatory planning has grown increasingly complex since the divide into 'power holders' and 'have-nots' (Arnstein, 1969), combining various ideas and theories.

All stakeholders, including professionals, politicians, public sector workers, business leaders, media, and activists can work together in a collaborative environment through public participation to give voice their opinions and feelings in a public arena and form social and ideological bonds. It includes not just the public hearings but also how all participants contribute to the public debate on planning and design issues (Goodspeed, 2008). Participation events could be initiated by citizens, community groups, local governments, the central government, and other actors. In

order to create a comprehensive organizational framework, defining participants is a crucial preliminary stage in the participatory design process.

Wates (2008) states that the philosophy of community planning focuses on engaging all of the actors or stakeholders in the process of planning and design while also establishing a climate that encourages multidisciplinary work and collaboration.

Also, Vranken (2005: 264) highlights that “Participation is an instrument for social inclusion. However, only active and socially integrated individuals and groups will make use of opportunities to participate, while excluded individuals and groups, who either perceive participation as useless or unimportant or do not know how/why to participate, remain inactive. Therefore, activating those individuals and groups is the main challenge in terms of participation. Participation is a complicated and mostly a challenging process, which is affected by several factors.”

Afrassiabi (1985) gathered the participants into three main groups: (1) designers who collaborated with all relevant disciplines throughout the design process, including planners, sociologists, engineers, architects, and finance specialists; (2) local authorities, which includes municipalities, urban land associations, urban planning offices; and (3) users who are neighborhood communities of varied different socioeconomic backgrounds, with diverse perspectives and interests.

When it comes to community involvement, Chanan (1999) proposed a “pyramid structure” of different roles, with membership in an organization as the most common form, and formal representation of a network of organizations as the highest level of engagement. He claimed that the "upper" levels, such as representing the community in a plan, relied on the "lower" levels, such as collaboration between groups.

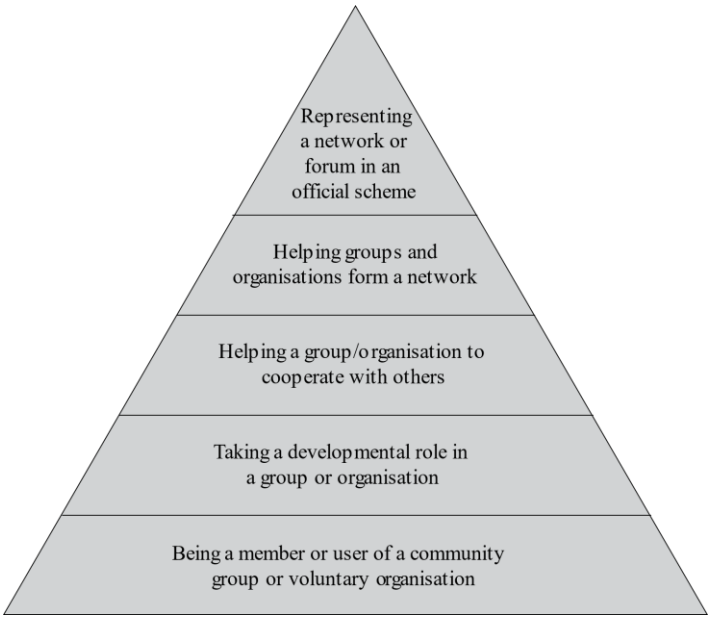

Figure 2.9: Pyramid of Chanan (1999)

Five roles were established for participants by Skinner (1995) as "beneficiaries and users, consultants and representatives of local opinion, sources of community activity (activating, facilitating), sources of delivery for the regeneration of programmes, potential long-term partners in regeneration".

According to Wates (2008), the following organizational framework can be found in any standard structure. It is the responsibility of steering committee or organizer to coordinate the entire process; individuals or groups representing the interests of the local community; international, national, and regional organizations serve as support bodies; and the event crew and facilitators are all specialists in their respective disciplines. Every actor plays a crucial part in each stage of the process, including the planning stage, the event itself, and the follow-up phase.

According to Tasan-Kok & Vranken (2011), five stakeholder groups contribute to the participation process, which can be recognized as illustrated below.

Participatory Multi-Level Urban Governance Stakeholders	
The Public Sector	includes organisations of the EU, national governments, regions, local governments and neighbourhood organisations
The Semi-Public Sector	includes PPPs (i.e. urban development corporations and infrastructure or service providers that have public and private partners
The Private Sector	includes firms and companies that operate at national (i.e. infrastructure providers), regional (i.e. regional infrastructure and regional development companies), city (i.e. urban development agencies) and individual (i.e. property development companies) levels of activity
The Third Sector	includes NGOs, civil society organisations, non-profitmaking organisations, such as labour unions, mutual aid societies, cultural and ecological associations, neighbourhood committees
The Citizens	urban residents who have expectations and needs of different scales and types)

Figure 2.10 Five Types of Stakeholders in Contemporary Multi-Level Urban Governance by Tasan-Kok & Vranken (2011)

2.8 Citizen Participation Methods & Tools

Over the last several decades, more emphasis has been placed on the participatory aspect of planning. Accordingly, urban planners have generated alternative methods, tools, and techniques to empower communities and increase communication in response to citizens, initiatives, and local governments. In any discussion of new developments in planning theory and practice, participation has a core value.

Perspectives on participation, as well as the methods in which participation is practiced, vary across time. Participatory practices can be described as methods and techniques used by planning authorities to engage, listen to, and negotiate with persons not part of the formal planning environment. Rowe & Frewer (2004) highlight that the methods for enacting participation are varied, ranging from the

traditional methods to the innovative methods, and from methods that aim responses from individuals acting alone to those involving group deliberation and interaction. Although traditional definitions of citizen participation in planning include hearings, public meetings, and, on rare occasions, actions and protests, a growing tendency is to incorporate and promote cultural and creative activities like city walks, exhibits, and performances. According to Wulz (1986), as citizens, there are numerous possible ways to become involved in urban planning and design, from attending meetings to building something yourself. Also, he states that the terms "instrument" and "method" become important when participation is understood as a process that involves generating knowledge into design and planning.

There are a huge number of mechanisms for engagement, and the range of those methods is expanding. Rosener (1975) specified 39 "techniques," ranging from formal processes like "task forces," "workshops," and "citizen referenda" to broader concepts like "public information programs" and "citizen employment" (as cited in Rowe & Frewer, 2005).

Ringholm et al. (2018) state that such activities are sometimes carried out in their "pure form", while other times they are combined with workshops, public meetings, and more traditional modes of engagement. According to Innes & Boher (2004), collaboration, dialogue, and interaction are all important components of effective participatory methods because they are inclusive. Because a collaborative approach allows citizens to be more representative and have more opportunities to offer more thoughtful inputs, anticipate future actions, seek agreement, and build shared knowledge compared to traditional methods.

Both the planning authorities and other stakeholders can launch participatory planning activities. Traditional and non-traditional modes of engagement have gained new chances through digital platforms and social media.

In his study on techniques on participatory processes, Sanoff (2005) identified three main categories: "awareness methods, group interaction methods, and indirect methods." As awareness methods, newspaper articles are good examples because

they are one of the most efficient ways to keep the general public informed about the process. In the course of a long decision-making process, newsletters are also helpful to keep the public informed about the process. Organizing walking tours is a good and effective way to start the participatory process. Planning a walking tour around the project's research topic or area of study helps raise users' awareness of environmental conditions. Walking tours are powerful tools for participation because they allow participants to rediscover or identify new circumstances. A map or plan, specific stops for recording impressions, and a list of specific activities may be used in this technique by planners/designers.

Surveys and questionnaires are examples of indirect techniques of involvement. These approaches are used to acquire information and assess the attitudes and opinions of a sample group. Even though surveys and questionnaires provide quantitative findings in a short amount of time, the perspectives reflected in those results are those of the people who designed them, not the people who respond to them. On the other hand, One-on-one interviews, can give more thorough information. Even when they do not match to a scientific sample, interviews give qualitative and comprehensive information that cannot be obtained in any other way.

Group interaction methods are distinguished by direct interaction, often addressed as workshops. Focus groups, games, and charrette processes are examples of interaction methods. In focus groups, participants range from six to ten in number, and a facilitator guides the group through a discussion on a particular subject. In gaming techniques, relevant aspects of a genuine problem are evaluated. A charrette is an intense participatory process that might take a few days or more, based on how complex the issue is. It is a series of interactive meetings that bring together various interest groups to discuss and propose solutions to specific problems. Participants develop ideas, recommendations, and decisions during workshops as part of the charrette process. Professionals and citizens cooperate to explore possibilities utilizing plans, photographs, and models in a charrette.

According to Wolf et al. (2020), there are two ways to categorize the participatory methods, tools or approaches: formal and informal. Formal methods are a collection of top-down and obligatory tools, and they often consist of charrettes, public hearings, community workshops, interviews, and walking tours. In the formal participatory tools, the intensity and time of participation are regulated, and the types of stakeholders, such as administrative institutions, public utility suppliers, and specific groups of people, must be engage in the process of planning. Informal participatory approaches are not legally mandated instruments but are offered as an alternative to increasing public participation in planning processes.

More critical analyses of the shortcomings and unexpected implications of participatory procedures have been raised since the initial wave of enthusiasm faded a few years ago (Agger, 2012). The majority of these are concerned with the legitimacy of the input. Participants were usually intermediate bodies of sub-elites between laypeople and governmental authorities, which have created the question of representation. Another issue of representation is the procedures that keep particular voices and interests from being heard (Young, 2000). According to some scholars, participatory planning methods are frequently utilized in tokenistic ways to gain public support or to conceal or even strengthen power imbalances (see, e.g., Innes & Booher, 2004; Huxley, 2000).

According to Innes & Booher (2004), traditional methods of citizen participation are ineffective: "Most of these methods discourage busy and thoughtful individuals from wasting their time going through what appears to be nothing more than rituals designed to satisfy legal requirements" (p.419). The proposal is that participation should be collaborative and include citizens and different stakeholders like planners, profit-making and non-profit organizations, public officials, and other interest groups in a common framework that provides an environment where they all interact with and influence each other. The point here is that participation is not a one-way dialogue between citizens and government; however, it is a multi-dimensional approach in which action, learning, and communication are all intertwined.

Hirscher (2017) also highlights that participatory planning has to be improved by using innovative informal instruments to increase stakeholder identification and acceptance. Informal planning instruments should emphasize deliberative approaches and citizen participation in the early stages of the planning process (as cited in Wolf et al., 2020).

As a result of this criticism, new kinds of citizen participation modes are being introduced that allow citizens to discuss challenges and policies within themselves and with public officials (Agger, 2012). Public consultations and user surveys, citizen juries and deliberative polling, workshops, simulations, and consultations are examples of practices in different countries which are inspired by collaborative planning theory (Ringholm et al., 2018).

In recent years, it has been more crucial than ever for cities to be "open" to other lifestyles, interests, and ethnicities as well as to "experiment" with incorporating the general public and stakeholders in the planning process. Besides conventional participation techniques, custom-made participatory techniques can be designed for specific project schemes. Computer simulations, gaming sessions, design charrettes, visioning, and a variety of feedback instruments, ranging from visual preference surveys to focus groups and citizen polling, are some specific examples of participatory design techniques. Furthermore, tools such as consensus building, conflict resolution, and organizational engagement have been used to address issues related to the public process (Sanoff, 2000).

For example, non-digital and interactive city games, developed and applied to serious urban issues, are a means of encouraging stakeholders to work together. Playfully negotiating possible partnerships and existing conflicts amongst actual "players" involved in urban issues is a radical new planning tool that city games provide. Generative city gaming is a new approach to urban planning and design that brings together politicians, market parties, and residents (Tan, 2016).

Furthermore, the category of technology-based instruments is also included in the innovative planning instruments. In the past two decades, participatory urban planning methods based on information and communication technology (ICT) have become more popular. Many technology-enabled participatory tools, techniques, and apps have been created to provide platforms for urban stakeholders to participate (Gün et al., 2019). As governmental authorities investigate new ways to deliver fresh, open, and democratic communication, the use of ICT-based participatory platforms for solving urban challenges is gaining steam.

Although they are not empirically based on planning studies, several new approaches have been offered. For example, when it comes to young people's participatory methods, the authors of "Can Tocqueville Karaoke," Clark et al. (2014), believe that there has been a change from the past; today's youth interact through video games, phones, and the Internet.

2.9 Benefits of Citizen Participation

The genuine benefit of public engagement in the planning process is a prevalent subject in the planning literature (Day, 1997). Increasing public engagement is usually justified by pointing out the advantages of the process as a whole. For example, the participation process is emphasized by Nelson & Wright (1995) as a transformative tool for social change. As Beierle (1999) and Thomas (1995) note, citizen participation is supposed to yield better decisions and hence more efficient benefits for the rest of the community (as cited in Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

According to Stivers (1990), citizen participation is inherently beneficial due to the fact that it fosters and cultivates the best possible human traits, as Aristotle and contemporary theorists in this tradition initially proposed. According to King and Stivers (1998), increased citizen participation might help restore public trust.

Successful citizen participation benefits the community by improving decision quality, reducing costs and delays, facilitating implementation, avoiding "worst-

case" scenarios, preserving credibility and legitimacy, preparing for the concerns and attitudes of the public while simultaneously increasing their knowledge and creativity. The legitimacy of a decision is based on the perception of the decision-making process as "fair, open, and democratic" rather than the content of the decision. Even if some people or groups are displeased with the final decision, this helps build trust. Citizens contribute to the value of social capital by participating in decision-making. Citizen participation makes a substantial contribution to community life by involving the public, building trust, and assisting in making better decisions (Sanoff 2005).

Involving citizens in the planning process increases the likelihood of a plan being approved by potential users (Burby, 2003; Brody et al., 2003; Miraftab, 2003, as cited in Brabham, 2009). In study carried out in the UK by Lowndes et al. (2001) on the subject of the advantages of citizen engagement at the level of local government, two factors came out as particularly important. First, the citizens were better informed if participation practices were linked to them, and second, citizens stated that participation was directly linked to service improvements.

Citizens who actively engage in decision-making while still maintaining a high level of intellectual sophistication might be considered citizen experts. They are aware of technically challenging issues as well as holistic community-wide solutions. Participation may result in the formation of consultants who may assist in the project's implementation while also raising public awareness of environmental issues. Citizens develop activist citizenship abilities owing to their participation (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004). When the public is involved in the development of a program, they are responsible for its success. They also obtain significant experience that will be beneficial to decision-makers in the future (Sanoff 2005). Citizen participation allows citizens to share and gather their thoughts, take part in something "bigger than oneself,"; and take responsibility for the community (King et al., 1998).

The planning process can be improved if a genuine dialogue is established on an equal term among all groups of citizens in which they are equally empowered and

informed; being listened to and heard respectfully; working together on a task while following their agendas. They acquire new ideas and frequently realize that other people's opinions are legitimate. They can work through problems, come up with shared meanings, and take joint action. Participation offers citizens the opportunity to acquire new heuristics (Innes & Booher, 2004).

Participation may result in improved choices about policy and its implementation, as well as better results in the social and environmental contexts (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004; Creighton, 2005; Sanoff, 2005). Education through mutual learning and informing each other is one of the benefits of the participation process for both citizens and government. Citizens learn how to interact and communicate with the many different subgroups that make up society, as well as build political legitimacy and influence, through participation. Administrators benefit from regular contact with the community to learn about the opinions of special interest groups on vital issues, which policies to follow, and how to minimize mistakes (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

Government builds trust, calms tensions, forges strategic alliances, and legitimizes choices through participatory processes. Administrators have a chance to voice their concerns and reasons for enacting policies that appear to be undesirable among citizens. Citizens' input could help parties agree and discover answers to previously hard problems; hence a participatory approach could improve social outcomes. Participation enables citizens to gain some control over the policy-making process, whereas the government saves money on litigation costs. As the public becomes more cooperative in implementing a policy based on citizen preferences, it may be implemented more efficiently (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

Day (1997) states that the primary objective of including the public in the planning process is to help develop a comprehensive plan that serves as the foundation for all future planning efforts. Burke (1979) claims that participation by citizens enhances the likelihood that the public interest will be appropriately served since citizens are a source of knowledge and collective wisdom. According to Barber (1981), citizen

participation would be able to make better use of its resources, give insight into policies and programs, and open the door to fresh, imaginative, and novel approaches. Citizen participation supplies planners with detailed and accurate information about community wishes and conditions (Rich, 1986, as cited in Day, 1997). Also, by including citizens at an early stage of the planning process, planners get all of the material before implementing policies, thus minimizing delays caused by unforeseen community conditions or unexpected post-hoc participation (Day, 1997).

In short, citizen participation supporters claim that it leads to better policy outcomes, fosters mutual learning and trust, enables consensus building, and empowers citizens.

2.10 Challenges of Citizen Participation

Even those most sympathetic and promote citizen participation in decision-making processes warn about the potential negative consequences. Participation is "context and implementation sensitive" Hoyle (2000) claims that a participation strategy that works in a context with established communities and has a long tradition of citizen participation in municipal policy-making may not be successful in a context with the new and emerging community and no prior experience concerning citizen participation in planning. Furthermore, a well-intentioned citizen participation strategy may fail if not properly and holistically conducted (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

Moreover, incorporating participation into the decision-making process is difficult since the type of participation to be employed is up to debate. Authoritarian decision-making approaches might be used as an excuse for the lack of clarity in participation (Wulz, 1986). Hence, it is important to recognize and recognize the challenges that participation might provide in order to facilitate the process (Calderon, 2019).

Current institutional and professional planning and design processes face a significant challenge as a result of participation in the planning and design practice and process. The dynamic nature of the processes and interactions makes it difficult to adapt standard means, which rely on rational decision-making and the fragmentation of different parts of a project (Hou & Rios, 2003). Gardesse (2014) argues that a participatory arrangement must rethink the planning system and consider all components of the planning organization, including the interaction between the public, civil society, and private players. Prilenska et al. (2017) claim that in a participation scheme, conflicts may occur as a result of mutual bias among the various stakeholders, an ineffective participation strategy, and shortfalls in the agency that governs participation, such as a lack of flexibility and initiative.

Genuine participation is hard to reach because participatory processes are often characterized by inevitable challenges like power dynamics, which can lead to conflicts and disagreements (Calderon, 2019). Moreover, participation that does not result in a redistribution of power is a pointless and irritating exercise that contributes to the status quo from the perspective of those who lack power (Arnstein, 1969). Regarding the stakeholders, basic challenges include involving a large number of competing social groups and stakeholders, various statements have been made about the use of public spaces, various viewpoints have been offered regarding the worth of certain areas, identifying what constitutes a problem, and identifying what a potential improvement plan may be (Calderon, 2019). Therefore, Ostrom (1990) believes making decisions through collaboration is more practical among small and homogeneous groups (as cited in Irvin & Stansbury, 2004). Stakeholders rarely achieve a satisfactory level of active participation (Prilenska & Liias, 2015). Furthermore, because it is difficult to go beyond dialogue and reach genuine consultation, local people are typically not seen as real collaborators (Gardesse, 2014).

One of the challenges related with the use of participatory processes is the likelihood that the outcomes will not accurately reflect the preferences or interests of the population as a whole. This is due to the fact that only a small percentage of people

take advantage of the opportunities provided for participation (Day, 1997). The public could be unwilling to participate due to time and other constraints (Prilenska & Liias, 2015). The public may be reluctant to participate in what they consider the duty of government entities. They could believe that having a reliable administrator make choices on their behalf is preferable than committing the time necessary to actively participate in the process themselves. Regular meetings may be inconvenient for a variety of reasons. Even when the public expresses an interest in participating, actual participation may be low. Because citizens do not get payment for their time, and elites may hold power over participation committees. It could result in decision-making dominated by certain interest groups when citizens observe inequality in representation and react to what they regard to be an unfair public participation process. Therefore, citizen juries could serve as an alternate form of participation, where citizens are randomly picked from the population to overcome the representation problem. Even if it appropriately represents population groupings, a jury or panel system is unlikely to contain representatives from important special-interest organizations (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004). The majority of people who can participate in participatory projects come from advantaged society groups (Garde, 2014).

If people' contributions are neglected throughout the process of citizen engagement, it has the potential to be time-consuming, dull, and meaningless. Also, when opposing interest groups influence the outcome of a public participation process, the results can be regarded as worse policy decisions. Citizens may not consider an issue as a problem, or the proposed solutions can be unfamiliar to them; therefore, technical knowledge may be required to understand the problem and explore potential solutions (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

Citizens' lack of authority to make decisions and affect the process could lead to public dissatisfaction and bitterness. It also needs to point out that the authority of the public could be exploited for selfish reasons or to satisfy the demands of a few powerful and influential citizens who do not represent the majority of the public (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

When compared to traditional decision-making systems, citizen participation may be time-consuming, demanding of resources, and loaded with potential danger. Without providing information on the details of the problem and engaging residents in participatory methods, decisions in the public sector already take a long time. Furthermore, a well-qualified and skilled administrator may reach the same conclusion following citizen participation in a relatively short period of time. Additionally, a complex participation system deprives resources and may have a negative impact on the outcome since less money can be set aside for project implementation. Even if the people's "time" is disregarded, participation by citizens can be more expensive than decision-making by a single administration. Also, some governments think that they may lose authority over decision-making when citizens participate (Irvin & Stansbury, 2004).

In short, the limitations of participation can include being time-consuming, rising costs, no assurance of a beneficial result, professional superiority, uncertainty about the outcomes of public participation, a lack of transparency, empowering certain participants, and mistrust between communities and experts.

2.11 Evaluation of Citizen Participation

Chess (2000) states that the importance of participatory processes and their failures necessitates their examination to improve practice. According to Kaiser et al. (1995), on the ground of the rational-adaptive planning paradigm, plans, policies, and practices are established, then implemented; after that, they are assessed or monitored in order to affect the next cycle of plans, policies, and practices. Rowe & Frewer (2004) also point out that evaluation is important for several reasons like financial, practical, ethical/moral, and research/theoretical.

Sewell & Phillips (1979) point out that because governments are hesitant to invest money in evaluation, formal evaluation of citizen participation has been historically scarce. In contrast to the evaluation of policies and programs and the more recent

work in conflict resolution, the assessment of participation in planning did not begin until the late 1990s and the early 2000s, and it has not yet consolidated around a set of agreed-upon principles or techniques (Laurian & Shaw, 2008). Rosener (1981: 583) claims that the field had "no widely held criteria for judging success and failure; there are no agreed-upon evaluation methods". Fifteen years later, Beierle (1998) notes that no standardized approach for evaluating the participatory processes or methods has evolved. According to scholars (Halvorsen, 2001; Rowe & Frewer, 2004; Chess, 2010), there is no broadly accepted framework for evaluating public participation (as cited in Brown & Chin, 2013).

Chess (2000) lists three techniques to evaluate public engagement commonly used. Firstly, a user-based evaluation functions with the presumption that various participants will have various aims and that the evaluation must take into account these various goals. Second, a theory-based evaluation uses normative criteria and is directed by various public involvement theories and models. This kind of evaluation is applied to all of the different citizen engagement projects. Thirdly, theories do not affect the process of goal-free evaluation, which means that the evaluation is not constrained by any particular objectives.

Also, Rowe & Frewer (2004) mention that although an evaluation methodology may be developed and adapted to a particular public participation scenario, the replication and generalizability of various case studies are challenging without clear evaluation criteria. According to Laurian & Shaw (2008), except for a handful of meta-analyses, the few research that evaluates participation rely on small numbers of cases, and sound evaluations are also scarce in the applied literature on public participation.

There is an increasing tendency toward producing criteria to evaluate the participation process in the literature. Hence, the question of what is being evaluated in citizen participation arises. According to scholars, there are two ways to look at public participation: either the process itself is good, or it is good only if the desired outcomes are realized (Kweit & Kweit, 1981). Various scholars suggest objectives and criteria in the evaluation of public participation. For example, Rosener (1981)

emphasizes user-based evaluations based on the satisfaction of participants with processes and outcomes. Webler (1995) underlines the goals of ‘fairness’ and ‘competence’. According to Innes & Booher (2003), institutional capacity and resilience are the fundamental criteria for evaluating collaborative processes. Laurian (2005) illustrates the importance of power-sharing and the balance of exchanges between institutions and citizens.

Some scholars in the field of participatory planning, such as Rosener (1978), Chess & Purcell (1999), and Innes & Booher (2003), have separated the goals and criteria that have been proposed to evaluate participatory planning into two distinct categories, which they refer to as "process" criteria and "outcome" criteria.

According to Chess & Purcell (1999), program evaluation has traditionally focused on whether or not a program meets its process or outcome objectives. The outcomes of participatory processes or how public participation activities are carried out might be the topic of evaluation. While evaluating participatory planning is based on a process that looks at factors like fairness, information exchange, group process, and procedures, the outcomes of the participatory process are evaluated based on whether the process's products are successful. Also, Weiss (1998) states that process evaluations investigate what happens while a program is running and are related to the phase of the program. Outcome evaluations analyze whether the program has achieved the desired effects and relate to the final result. In general, first when evaluating participatory processes, it is vital to talk about the process’s success, because achieving a participatory planning’s goal of democratic involvement is considered the most crucial challenge. Second, despite being a participation process, it is critical to examine the outcomes of participatory planning like plans, projects, and policies; the generation of a plan or set of policies through the use of participatory techniques and strategies is one of the objectives of this process.

Rowe and Frewer (2000) state that, evaluation criteria can be divided into two separate categories: “process” criteria, which deal with the efficient development and implementation of a method, and “acceptance” criteria, which deal with the

likelihood that the public will well receive the procedure (see Figure 2.11). In fact, the term “acceptance criteria” refers to the features of a technique that make it acceptable to the general public. On the other hand, the term “process criteria” refers to characteristics of the process that are likely to guarantee that it operates properly. When it comes to the efficient planning and execution of a process, the authors consider representativeness, independence, early engagement, influence, and transparency to be accepted criteria. The term "representativeness" refers to the participants in the participatory activity representing a wide variety of the affected population. Independence refers to the participation process being performed in an independent/unbiased manner. In terms of early involvement, the process should begin with the participation of citizens at the earliest possible stage; they also emphasized strongly that the output of the process should have a meaningful influence on policy. Finally, transparency refers to the ability of the relevant population to understand what is happening and how decisions are being made is.

Furthermore, as process criteria, Rowe & Frewer (2000) include resource accessibility, task definition, structured decision making, and cost-effectiveness. Participants having access to the resources they need to complete their brief is resource accessibility. Task definition refers to the nature and scope of the participation task, both of which have to be specified in an accurate manner. Structured decision-making refers to a participation activity in which proper methods for organizing and presenting the decision-making process are used/provided. From the sponsors’ perspective, cost-effectiveness indicates that the process should be cost-effective somehow.

Evaluation Criteria	Definition
Acceptance Criteria	
Representativeness	The participants should comprise a broadly representative sample of the affected population.
Independence	The participation process should be conducted in an independent (unbiased) way.
Early involvement	The participants should be involved as early as possible in the process, as soon as value. judgments become salient.
Influence	The output of the procedure should have a genuine impact on policy.
Transparency	The process should be transparent so that the relevant population can see what is going on and how decisions are being made.
Process Criteria	
Resource accessibility	Participants should have access to the appropriate resources to enable them to successfully fulfill their brief.
Task definition	The nature and scope of the participation task should be clearly defined.
Structured decision-making	The participation exercise should use/provide appropriate mechanisms for structuring and displaying the decision-making process.
Cost-effectiveness	The procedure should in some sense be cost-effective from the point of view of the sponsors.

Figure 2.11 Evaluation Criteria by Rowe & Frewer (2000)

Crosby (1986), who developed and proposed success criteria based on a literature review, concludes that six factors determine the participatory method's effectiveness: the participants should be chosen in a way that is not open to manipulation, the decision-making proceedings should be effective, the process should be fair, the process should be cost-effective, the process should be flexible, and there should be a high probability that the group's recommendations will be put into action.

Buchy and Hoverman (2000) offer two different measures of success. First, establishing a consensus on what constitutes a successful outcome; second, beginning the project with a monitoring and evaluation plan that incorporates standards that all relevant parties have approved.

Moreover, some scholars like Webler (1995) and Tuler & Webler (1999) developed evaluation criteria based on case studies with perceptions of participants and they focus on the process criteria rather than outcomes while developing criteria for evaluation, and refer to successful participatory processes as "good public

participation processes". They ask the participants of the process in the specific case to identify criteria for good processes.

Many worldwide evaluations have been based on the 'fairness' and 'competency' criteria of Webler (1995). Fairness refers to the terms of ability to participate in the participatory process, such as allowing participants to create the agenda, choosing the moderator, and the norms of debate, and ensuring that all participants have an equal opportunity to express their opinions. In order to be considered competent, a process must be able to give participants access to knowledge, definitions of terms, and interpretations of understanding. It must also be able to recommend the best process for handling disagreements over knowledge and interpretations and establishing the authenticity and sincerity of claims.

In addition, Tuler & Webler (1999) recognized the seven elements listed below as essential for successful public engagement in their research of participation principles that were significant to participants. While not comprehensive, they give insight into what the public understands and expects from a successful participation process. These include having access to the process, having the ability to affect its outcomes, having information at hand, having structural features that encourage interaction, facilitating positive behavior, enhancing social circumstances for future processes, and offering proper analysis.

McCool & Guthric (2001) defined two measures: product- and process-oriented measures. Product-oriented measures are writing a plan and implementing it, as well as gaining social and political acceptability. Process-oriented measures are learning, interest representation, relationship building, and responsibility.

Dalton (2006) divides success criteria for participation process into five categories. These can be listed as active participant involvement, positive participants interaction, efficient administration, fair decision-making, and decisions based on complete information (see Figure 2.12).

Active Participant Involvement	Opportunity for input Early involvement Motivated participants Influence over the final decision
Positive Participant Interactions	Positive social conditions Constructive personal behavior Social learning
Efficient Administration	Cost effective Accessible Limited influence of sponsoring agency
Fair Decision-Making	Transparency Representative participation
Decision based on Complete Information	Best available information Constructive dialogue Adequate analysis

Figure 2.12 Successful participatory process criteria by Dalton (2006)

Some researchers establish evaluation criteria through the use of case studies by interviews with professionals such as planners and managers. Tuler et al. (2002) focus on local government officials because, in most cases, their contributions are essential for an effective implementation and enforcing local policies. They conducted a qualitative analysis of three different cases based on the results of open-ended interviews with local government officials. Their research identified nine criteria as elements that influenced participation decisions and that were shown to affect the success of the participatory processes. These factors include: effectiveness and progress, desires for a participatory experience, defined aims, support and resources for project, personal values, previous experiences, time, municipal support and resources, and the socio-political environment.

The parameters were classified by Tuler et al. (2002) into three categories: elements related to the character of the individuals, the situation, and the process. Individual factors include individual motives, attitudes, and beliefs. The second set of criteria was recognized that were related to the context but were largely beyond the direct control of the individual or the other sort of projects but were linked to the social, political, historical, institutional, or economic environment. The third set of criteria

involved the planning process, and the sponsoring organization was considered to have complete control over these factors.

Laurian & Shaw (2008) make a distinction between objectives that are focused on the process, goals that are based on the result and user-based goals (see Figure 2.13). Process-based goals, which participation aims to improve decision-making processes' openness, inclusivity, and fairness and organize power-sharing between agencies and stakeholders. The goal of participation should be to increase public knowledge of issues and agencies' awareness of public perspectives with the end goal of encouraging democratic decision-making. This kind of learning, known as mutual learning, can only be achieved through participation. Outcome-based goals include issue-related goals, governance goals, and social goals. The issue-related objectives are the objectives that comply with legal obligations, discover solutions, and enhance the quality of decisions by incorporating public input. The governance objective involves enhancing the legitimacy of agencies and decisions, decreasing conflict, and simplifying implementation. Social outcomes include building institutional capacity, trust, and social networks. Finally, user-based goals are concerned with the satisfaction of participants and the public and additional goals defined by participants.

Goals of Participation		Evaluation Criteria
Process-based Goals	***Mutual Learning***	
	Increase Public Awareness	Participants and general public are informed about issue, stakes, and decision-making process
	Increase Agency Awareness of public views	Agency is aware of public views, concerns, and preferences
	Democratic Process	
	Transparency	Public understands decision-making process. Information about issues and process is available
	Inclusiveness	Broad attendance. All stakeholders and views are given standing, expressed, heard, respected and considered.
	Fairness and power sharing	Fair ground rules, decision-making, solutions, and implementation. No dominating group. Shared decision-making power (e.g. through binding agreements). How process fares onArnstein's ladder of citizen participation.
Outcome-based Goals	***Issue-Related Outcomes***	
	Meet staturory requirements	Requirements met.
	Find solution, reach consensus	Acceptable solution found.
	Improve quality of decision	Decision integrates broad knowledge base and public input.
	Governance Outcomes	
	Increase legitimacy of agency	Agency and officials seen as legitimate by participants and general public.
	Increase legitimacy, acceptability of decisions	Assessment of implementation, level of opposition / acceptance of decision.
	Avoid or mitigate conflict	Presence / absence and degree of conflict.
	Facilitate implementation of solution	Solution implemented.
	Social Outcomes	
	Build institutional capacit y, resiliency	Community capacity to participate and act in the future.
	Increase trust in planning agency	Agency seen as responsive to public input, committed, and capable to implement decisions.
	Build social networks, mutual understanding among participants, social capital, sense of citizenship	Participants feel included in governance, build trust and lasting relationships (among themselves and with administrators), understand and are committed to the public good identified.
	Improve outcomes for most disenfranchised	Distribution of the costs and benefits of outcomes.
User-based Goals	Participants satisfied	Overall satisfaction, staisfaction with process and outcomes.
	Other goals defined by participants	Criteria depend on participants' goals.

Figure 2.13 Goals of participation and evaluation criteria by Laurian & Shaw (2008)

According to Laurian & Shaw (2008), evaluations may be planned and made accessible from the beginning of the process, conducted regularly to boost engagement as the process develops, or they can be completed post hoc to improve future practice or provide knowledge. In any case, they argue that participatory processes have to be evaluated according to the particular objectives and objectives they seek to achieve.

As a result, the evaluation of citizen engagement has been conducted using a diverse selection of methods and strategies, with each evaluation having the ability to be based on a unique set of criteria.

2.12 Evolution of Citizen Participation in Government Institutions

The notion of citizen participation in democratic countries is nearly universally accepted. In such countries citizen participation is widely seen as a fundamental and unquestionable component of contemporary, functional, and democratic local governance. During the 1960s, members of several social movements supported participatory democracy as a solution to a variety of societal issues, and empowering residents to engage effectively in urban planning and policymaking became a widespread aim (Miller, 1987; Davidoff, 1965). More municipalities adopted formal mechanisms to enhance citizen participation in policymaking with each passing decade, a trend that has become more prevalent over the last several years as a result of the expansion of collaborative planning and civic engagement practices (McGovern, 2013).

Many researchers and professionals have emphasized various benefits of citizen participation since the early 1980s. As mentioned in the previous sections of this thesis, some of these benefits are: improving the accountability of government, providing better public services, and higher government response to community demands, which results in more satisfying solutions and increased public trust in government. Kweit & Kweit (1981), for example, stated that citizen participation in government enhanced public service delivery and improved citizen trust in government. Also, Aulich (2009) highlights that citizen participation in government has typically focused on improving public access to government information, strengthening citizens' rights to be consulted on issues that directly impact them, and ensuring that all views are heard equally through fair representative democracy systems. Furthermore, according to Michels & De Graaf (2010), it is possible that citizen engagement will lead to a better democracy in which individuals feel a greater

sense of responsibility for the administration of public affairs. They identified a number of arguments in favor of more direct forms of citizen participation, including the possibility for citizens to influence policy decisions, the inclusion of citizens in the policy-making process, the development of policies based on public reasoning, and the increased legitimacy of decisions. Also, Arnstein (1969) claims that citizen participation enhances social capital and strengthens the relationship between citizens and government. Cuthill (2003) argues that citizen participation helps develop 'strong local democracy' through increasing human and social capital. Moreover, Huang & Fenny (2015) state that many governments have regulatory requirements or guidelines that compel agencies to include public input in policy-making processes. This is done to promote and facilitate citizen involvement in decision-making and is required by these legal requirements or regulations.

The fundamental concept of democracy is that people should have the power to influence government officials' decisions. Nevertheless, citizens' participation in the democratic decision-making process is dynamic and constantly changing. From the 1960s onwards, the educational revolution and anti-authoritarian revolution caused many shifts in what people think about the role of citizens in public governance (Warren, 2002). Consequently, conventional modes of public participation have been supplemented with new kinds of participation (Nabatchi & Leighninger, 2015).

Until around the middle of the 1960s, liberal representative democracy was the norm in the Western mass countries. Representative democracies are founded on the principle that citizens should regularly have the opportunity to choose their own leaders in free and fair elections (Held, 1987). Citizens should have a role in how their elected officials spend the money they pay in taxes to fund their programs. Individuals should be able to hold elected officials accountable for their actions or inaction, but citizens' participation in general elections is mostly passive since it is limited to going to the polls and selecting a candidate. General elections are held regularly, with a number of official protocols in place to guarantee that the process is fair. In free and open elections, citizens have the option of running for office or voting for their favorite candidate. In order to gain the support of the majority of the

public, political parties offer competing party-political policies (Downs, 1957). Through the way they developed and achieved politically defined objectives, government agencies were the primary deliverers of public value during this period (Salamon & Elliott, 2002). Also, the most important value in government operations was efficiency. Citizens were primarily considered as voters, customers, or constituents (Bryson et.al, 2014).

Later in the 1960s and early in the 1970s, there has been a rise in participatory democracy. Citizens who are affected by a particular choice, such as constructing a new roadway near their home, should have an extra channel to influence public policy-making between elections. In a participatory democracy, citizens should be encouraged to participate in more meaningful dialogue with elected officials and with each other. Furthermore, deliberative democracy means that decisions are not always determined by majority vote but rather through political debate in which arguments and explanations are given equal importance; therefore, participatory democracy should evolve to deliberative (De Jongh, 2013). These people are considered to be engaged stakeholders who have interests that should be enabled to be protected and promoted, such as through commenting on government plans and policies (Rowe & Frewer, 2000; Lowndes et al., 2001). The development of new forms of participatory democracy is encouraged through holding public hearings, town hall meetings, citizen panels, and other events that allow public engagement and debate. These events provide citizens the opportunity to voice their opinions, interests, and preferences (Lowndes et al., 2001). Elective politicians demonstrate leadership by making policy choices based on the input of relevant stakeholders, and public administrators must understand how to organize and facilitate public meetings, hearings, and consultations.

A new paradigm for citizen participation emerged with the growth of New Public Management during the 1980s and 1990s. Local governments in Western nations began implementing decentralization policies in the 1970s, which led to policies of privatization, decentralization, and devolution, all of which expanded the role of local government and made it more important in today's society. In popular meaning,

decentralization refers to the transfer of central government power and responsibilities in areas such as planning, decision-making, and revenue collection to provincial institutions, federal states, quasi-autonomous agencies, trade unions, professional bodies, and non-profit organizations, and finally, local government. As a result, decentralization was an evolution of a popular approach, which reduced the role and scope of the central government in service supply. Local governments in several European countries, including Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Spain, Portugal, France, and Italy, were given increased responsibilities and financial resources, allowing them to become more autonomous from the central authority. As a result, the importance of local government in modern society has been emphasized even more (Kosecik & Sagbas, 2004).

Despite the fact that citizen engagement was not one of the primary goals of new public management, it strives to empower regular citizens. As a result, new public management was intended to be more in tune with the wishes of its citizens. Public officials were criticized for paying insufficient attention to people and this had to change by incorporating market mechanisms into the supply of public services in order to make the public sector leaner, efficient, and service-minded (Bryson et al., 2014; Nabatchi & Leighninger, 2015).

According to OSCE (2016), decentralization is one of the most successful strategies to strengthen the stability and security of communities as well as the engagement and involvement of citizens in the governance. This requires an organized and sustainable effort from the institutions concerned at both the local and central levels. It also includes a continuous readjustment of the relationships between various stakeholders, which is accomplished by constant dialogue and communication.

Furthermore, in the previous decade, globalization had significant implications for local governments in all countries, notably in economic, political, and socio-cultural dimensions. Local governance based on universal ideals, debated on a global scale beyond national borders and widely distributed by international institutions of local authorities to all societies, have positive consequences for local government,

increasing its autonomy and status while improving the participatory nature of its operations (Kosecik & Sagbas, 2004).

It has been theorized ever since the 1980s that neoliberal governments are making the transition from government to governance using Foucauldian 'neo governmentality' (Brenner et al., 2003). According to Foucault (1983:221) government refers to "the way in which the conduct of individuals or of groups might be directed"; hence, to govern is "to structure the possible field of action of others". Woods & Goodwin (2003) state that the term "governmentality" refers to the ways by which the state makes the public governable, and in its most recent version, the distinction between the people and the government has become hazier. Rose (1996) describes a shift from a Keynesian welfare state regimes of managed liberalism in which the social spheres like health, education, and many more were viewed as the transition from a legitimate object of governance that is controlled through state planning at a central level to one in which governance operates through communities. Although some scholars have criticized the practice as weakening local government's traditional duties in delivering local services, devolution of power to new entities at local levels has benefited both the state and local actors (Healey, 2003).

The shift from government to governance requires establishing mechanisms for engaging individuals and organizations outside of government through "structures and arrangements which support effective relationships across the public, private and community sectors as they collaborate in decision-making" (Edwards, 2005:12). Cuthill & Fien (2005: 64) state that citizen participation is a "basis building block for contemporary democratic society and sustainable communities" and underpins the traditional concept of citizen participation and this evolving concept of capacity and relationship building.

As it directly influences local populations' daily lives, local government is the level of government with which residents engage the most. Most Europeans' (50%- 80%) interactions with the government occur with local government (Box, 1998; Putnam, 1993; UN, 2008).

The participation of the local residents in the various stages of decision-making is an important element of local democracy. It improves transparency and keeps local government representatives accountable for their actions. Between two elections, there is a continuous process that entails sharing information about local decisions and policies in both directions: citizens state their concerns to the local government, and the local government briefs citizens on the implementation of local policies. (OSCE, 2016).

Local government provides excellent opportunities for citizen participation. Indeed, as Parry et al. (1992) point out, the regular citizen's direct involvement is generally limited to the local sphere. The strength of local democracy is frequently based on the belief that local government has significantly greater potential for effective public participation than its central government counterpart.

Local governments have evolved toward a more democratic route in recent decades. They started to include citizens more often in participatory decision-making to increase quality and sense of ownership of policies at the local level (Cawley, 2016). There is a growing recognition of participatory governance, covering various principles and methods for citizen participation. Decentralizing decision-making and inter-institutional communication, encouraging system-wide information and knowledge exchanges, and adopting reciprocal and trust-based interactions are some of these (Reddel &Woolcock, 2004). Local governments recognize that citizens have more than a voice to be heard, interests to pursue, or needs and requirements to express. Citizens have the ability to mobilize their resources, expertise, and ideas. Citizens are therefore coming to be seen as co-creators, together with private and public stakeholders, in the process of developing fresh and improved responses to the challenges faced by local governments (Andrew & Goldsmith, 1998; Gaventa, 2002; Roberts, 2004; Torfing et.al, 2016).

2.13 Concluding Remarks

The theoretical frame is drawn to understand and analyses citizen participation and changing local democracy practices in urban design processes. As this research aims to analyze and compare participation in the process of Istanbul and Amsterdam, it focuses particularly on collaborative and communicative approaches in planning which are important for the research process.

The literature review begins by introducing the concept of democracy in general and the definitions of different theorists; it focuses on different approaches to democracy and how concepts changed over time. Key literature on representative, participatory and deliberative democracy is reviewed. With the changing understanding of democracy, the evolving and developing citizen participation is discussed.

In the following section, the historical and contextual development of citizen participation in urban planning and design is presented together with the views and criticisms of different theorists. This section explains when and why the term "participation" started being used in urban planning. It provides light on the origins of participatory decision-making and the social, economic, environmental, technological, and political processes that contributed to its development.

Afterwards, citizen participation is discussed in more detail. Participation may show an alteration according to different contexts and point of views. Therefore, the genuine meaning of the term, the views of different academicians on the purposes and levels of participation, the stakeholders and their roles involved in participation, the methods and tools used in the participation process, and evaluation of participatory planning are included. Also, the challenges and benefits encountered in the participation process and the benefits it brings are emphasized. Besides that, the approaches of city administrations & government institutions to the phenomenon of participatory planning in the world and what are the trends in the world in this regard are discussed.

In conclusion, two broad questions were asked within the scope of this thesis. These questions prompted the researcher to write an extensive literature review. However, considering this literature review, the researcher has obtained a number of indicators and has carried these indicators to the next sections. These indicators can be listed as follows.

In order to examine the context of the practices the indicator that may vary depending on the context is selected, each participatory practice was examined considering that the purpose of the participation, the key topics covered, and the decision-making process. Stakeholders, level of participation, representativeness and inclusiveness were discussed to examine the process of participatory practices. At this point, the representativeness in the literature review is based on the evaluation table of Rowe & Frewer (2000); inclusiveness is one of the process-based goals in a democratic process according to Laurian & Shaw (2008). At the same time, the stage of participation, methods and tools are discussed in the review of the processes. Outcomes have also been examined in two ways, social and spatial outcome.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter aims to provide a methodological framework based previously reviewed theories and approaches to answer the main research questions of the thesis:

> *What similarities and differences do we see in the way the public institutions in Istanbul and Amsterdam engage the public in planning and design?* And, *how these processes have changed over time in these two contexts?*

The chapter is divided into parts related to cases of the research, methodological approach, data collection tools and analysis methods employed within the scope of the study, and research limitations.

3.1 Background Information for the Chosen Contexts

'Changing Local Democracy and New City Making Practices,' a comparative research project initiated by Play the City, the Istanbul Planning Agency's Vision 2050 Office, and the City of Amsterdam, forms the basis of this thesis. The Netherlands Creative Industries Fund is providing support in order to make it feasible for researchers to do hands-on research that focuses on open, inclusive, and participatory city practices.

3.1.1 Istanbul

Article 127 of the 1982 Constitution was amended to allow for specially adapted local government structures for large residential areas. Decree No. 3030 on 'Management of Metropolitan Municipalities' entered into force on 27 June 1984,

and this legislation established two-tier municipal structures in Istanbul: (i) Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality (key municipality responsible for the management of city-wide problems), (ii) District Municipalities: As of 2019, the total number of districts is 39. Within this framework, Istanbul is the largest municipality in Turkey. There are a total of 962 neighborhood headmen in 39 districts in Istanbul.

Istanbul has a management structure in which basic administrative functions such as health, basic education, security, some housing projects, and intercity transportation are provided by the ministries located in the capital Ankara and the Presidency within a unitary and national framework. The representations of the ministries in the city are coordinated by the governor, who is directly appointed by the central government. Moreover, administrative structures such as the Privatization Administration (Ministry of Treasury and Finance), Mass Housing Administration (subordinate to the Ministry of Environment and Urbanization), and The Ministry of Transport and Infrastructure have a significant say on important projects in the city.

Mayor of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality (IMM) is directly elected by the people of the city for a five-year term and shares his administrative power with the City Council, which is formed by the members elected from the 39 district municipalities of the city and the District Mayors. District Mayors are also directly elected and preside over District Municipalities. IMM is responsible for important services, including urban planning, transportation, housing and environmental services, and thus, has a large budget.

As in other local government units, Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality has the responsibility of bringing all stakeholders together in a multi-layered governance approach and reflecting the demands of the citizens it represents into the decision-making processes.

The relevant planning and decision authority for disaster risk areas, natural protected areas, forest areas and agricultural areas, historical, urban and archaeological sites is the relevant Ministry. This situation brings with it difficulties in terms of taking large-scale decisions by the IMM.

The governance of Istanbul does not take place only at the municipal and central government levels. In Turkey, in line with the requirements of the European Union harmonization process, 26 development agencies, including the Istanbul Development Agency, have been established to assist the coordination between the municipality and the central government and to provide coordination between urban actors in the budgeting and planning of large-scale urban projects. In addition, in every city of Turkey, there are special provincial administrations that also have responsibilities such as preparing a territorial development plan (in Turkish, Çevre Düzeni Planı). However, the responsibility of preparing the territorial development plan in Istanbul has been transferred to the Metropolitan Municipality.

The Mayor of the Metropolitan Municipality established the Istanbul Metropolitan Planning and Urban Design Center (IMP) in 2005 in order to ensure interdepartmental coordination within the municipal units that will develop the territorial development plan of the city.

Although there is not enough data to evaluate the consultation processes of the planning and urban design studies carried out by IMP, it is generally accepted that this change brought a new understanding to the planning of Istanbul. When IMP Bulletins, IMP Magazine, IMP Brochures, IMP Wednesday Talks/Seminars, IMP Almanac, and IMP Almanac 2007 are examined, it can be observed that these bulletins, magazines and so on provide information about the activities of the IMP, their level of cooperation with the central government and NGOs, their OECD meetings, and meetings related to competitions and universities. It was concluded that an open structure was exhibited with joint activities and many activities.

In these discussions about participation at that time, it was pointed out that participation could become meaningful only when its relationship with transparency and enabling it was established. It was stated that non-transparent and non-participatory decisions create an exclusionary effect on the poor living in the city and contribute to the poverty. In these meetings suggestions about how to distribute

resources and investments and what approach should be adopted to alleviate poverty (Arkitera Architecture Center, 2006).

In the last 40 years from 1980 to the present, particularly in the years 1980, 1994, 1995, 2006, and 2009, the upper scale plan studies of 1/50,000 and 1/100,000 scale have been carried out, and the current plan still needs revision, it is clear that the territorial development plans alone cannot produce a solution. It requires an integrated strategy that links development policies and regional development strategies at the spatial level, a long-term approach that will be accepted by the broad segment of society (Vision 2050 Katılım Süreç Planı, 2020). It is important to share such a need only with the understanding of participatory democracy. The need to work together with both national and local stakeholders through participatory planning in Istanbul and to determine the needs of the local emphasizes the need for local governments to operate within the framework of this participatory democracy and governance.

The Mayor of Istanbul emphasized scientific production, data-based decision making, democracy, and participation while explaining his understanding of local government. In this direction, Istanbul Planning Agency (IPA) was established in February 2020 to solve urban issues with a participatory understanding, data-based solutions, and international norms. IPA deals with the scenarios for the city's future, such as the city's demography, economy, environment, agri-food policies, and public space, and works with each of the stakeholders who have ideas about the future of this city.

3.1.2 Amsterdam

The Netherlands has a broad knowledge in many forms of local participatory policymaking. The Netherlands has a long history of cooperation and consensus building which dates back to the pillarization era, when governmental and non-governmental organizations cooperated under corporatist institutions. This practice

of participation and collaboration, in which political elites played a central role, is a part of that history. The development of city centers, the revitalization of old neighborhoods, and the building of public works have all been the common themes in participatory projects (Michels & Graaf, 2010).

The capital and largest municipality in the Netherlands is Amsterdam. This city has a population of around 907,976. The Netherlands is divided into twelve provinces, each of which acts as a layer of administration between the central government and local governments and is in charge of matters having subnational or regional importance; Amsterdam is found within the Dutch province of North Holland.

Both Amsterdam's economic and social conditions have been determined by the towns that lie immediately to its north and south. Starting in the 1960s, important residential areas and major logistical facilities have grown outside of the city. However, they have maintained a close connection to the city's center: Almere was considered to be a twin city of Amsterdam, and Schiphol served as the city's airport while also maintaining connections to the large housing area in the neighboring municipality of Haarlemmermeer. Both of these connections are still in place today. Between 1989 and 2003, the fringe and outside regions of the metropolitan area recorded almost 57 percent of overall new development (Hamers & Piek, 2012).

The city is divided into eight administrative boroughs. The administrative boroughs were in charge of organizing development projects and creating land use plans until 2016. Except for the harbor, each administrative borough had its own council and executive branch. However, these responsibilities have been given to the central city since 2016 (Hochstenbach, 2017).

The local government of Amsterdam is composed of the City Council, the College of Mayors and Aldermen, and the district committees. The highest governing body of Amsterdam, the city council, is formed up of people elected by the city's residents. The public chooses members of the city council in a democratic process that takes place every four years. The 45 members of Amsterdam's city council are then elected by a vote of the city’s residents. In addition to this, they choose representatives to

serve on a district committee that will watch over the way their municipal district is handled. The city council establishes the city's general policies and monitors the College of Mayors' and Alderpersons' implementation of those policies. The city council sessions are open to the public (Gemeente Amsterdam, 2022).

The Amsterdam city council has an autocratic decision-making process. There are many failed attempts to reduce the distance between citizens and government with the help of the city, district, and neighborhood councils. For over 50 years, Amsterdam has experienced innovation with support from the bourgeoise and city council. However, these attempts and experiments have negatively affected the structure deeply, and usually vanished after a few years, so that this means that they cannot make participation permanent (Writer, 2021).

The College of Mayor and Aldermen is in charge of the day-to-day running of the city and the execution of local policies. The city council chooses seven aldermen, each having different responsibilities. The mayor appointed by the national government is the chairperson of both the College of Mayor and Aldermen and the city council. Also, the College of Mayor and Aldermen meetings are not open to the public (Gemeente Amsterdam, 2022).

Centre, Nieuw-West, Noord, Oost, West, Zuid, Zuidoost are the seven city districts of Amsterdam. Every part of the city has its own district committee. The College of Mayors and Aldermen selects three district managing directors, each of whom is supported by an advisory council. The number of committee members who act as a medium of communication between the local community and city hall is directly proportional to the population of the district. They address important problems facing the neighborhood, such as the layout of streets and squares, the maintenance of public parks and gardens, the collection of household garbage, and the organization of social services in the community (Gemeente Amsterdam, 2022).

In the context of local democracy in the Netherlands, numerous fresh and novel or experimental types of citizen engagement exist. Local governments have chosen greater civic engagement in policymaking and implementation to bridge the gaps

between citizens and their government. The neighborhood-level closer to citizens is frequently used as a testing ground. Many sorts of participation packages are aimed at increasing political participation to involve citizens and go beyond traditional citizen participation opportunities. Engaging citizens in interactive workshops or giving them their own budgets to spend in the neighborhood are some examples of such packages (Geurtz & Van de Wijdeven, 2010).

Also, following the financial crisis of 2008–2009, it was stated that Amsterdam's governance was driven by ideas of urban experimentalism and innovation, which might better involve residents and encourage entrepreneurship. In Amsterdam Structuurvisie 2040, citizen participation in urban planning is mandated by law, and planning is guided by long-term planning documents that emphasize citizen participation (Savini et al., 2016).

3.2 Data Collection Tools

In order to get an understanding of the structure, process, and outcomes of participatory processes (at the local level), two cases are picked from a municipality in Turkey and one case is selected from a municipality in the Netherlands. The study seeks to inventory participatory methods, and analyze conditions and compare outcomes regarding the participatory processes in two cities – Istanbul and Amsterdam – over a specific period of time.

The research technique has a qualitative goal and is based on qualitative methodologies. This is because qualitative procedures promote quality, depth, richness, and perception rather than statistical representativeness and scientific rigor. Questionnaire surveys are not employed since the purpose of the study is not to get information on the characteristics, behaviors, and attitudes of a population to a sample of individuals (Clifford et al. 2010). The purpose is to provide insight into how cities establish citizen participation in urban planning and design. For this research, two questions are posed by the author to investigate local experts' points

of view and thus demanded the use of qualitative data collection methods to understand the context better and interpret responses. Therefore, the data collection consists of two main parts: workshop and semi-structured interviews.

The study is intended to be exploratory because the literature has seldom included in-depth analysis to understand how the participation was handled, how views were formed, and the impact of the engagement on local governments.

3.2.1 Workshop

The workshops bring together different experts from two cities and enable them to share experiences. According to Ørngreen & Levinsen (2017), workshops are a promising tool for collecting data. They allow stakeholders from many organizations to work collaboratively and learn about a particular topic. Hence, this assists in gathering data through the collaboratively shared experience. Also, Creswell & Poth (2017) highlight that workshops are also helpful for meeting participants who have agreed to be a part of the study when a researcher needs data that is rich in information.

3.2.1.1 The Structure of the Workshop

A knowledge exchange meeting was held at Müze Gazhane (a museum setting in Istanbul) on the 19th and 20th of August (2021), bringing experts together from Amsterdam and Istanbul. The workshop is initiated by Istanbul Planning Agency (IPA), City of Amsterdam, and Play the City. The aim of the workshop is to deliver a constructive contribution to ongoing public debate on local democracy and collaborative city design instruments in Amsterdam and Istanbul. The researcher is an active participant in this workshop process. During the workshop, the author recorded the presentations for analysis. She took notes whenever a pre-defined question posed in this thesis is answered.

A part of this knowledge exchange meeting, lectures, field trips and interactive workshops were also conducted. Both Amsterdam and Istanbul metropolitan municipalities use participatory planning procedures to construct their Vision 2050 plans, making the dialogue more tangible and purposeful. The event was attended by about 20 Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality officials, representatives from the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality and the Amsterdam Municipality, and many external experts.

Participants from Amsterdam and Istanbul took part in informative field trips prior to the program on August 18th. They first went to Validebag Korusu (a woodland in Istanbul that is listed as a natural preservation area), where they were led by civil initiatives such as Validebag Volunteers and Validebag Defense. These groups provided information to visitors about local practices for preserving the city forest.

The Kuzguncuk Information Center was the next destination. The Department of Transportation at IMM provided information on their interactive social work with the community. The group also paid a visit to the Dutch Consulate, where they learned about the relevant Liveable Cities initiative that the consulate is implementing in collaboration with a number of local partners.

Source: Authors' Archive (2021)

The Vision 2050 Office Coordinator and Istanbul Planning Agency's foreign relations coordinator welcomed attendees on August 19th and presented the IPA's basic principles and progress in terms of transparent governance and city-making. During the first lecture, project partners presented preliminary study findings through a comparative lecture emphasizing involvement procedures in Istanbul and Amsterdam done by municipal governments and civil society.

The representative of the project team in the Municipality of Amsterdam emphasized the significance of cultural capability in municipal and citizen paradigm design. She emphasized the need to incorporate people, networks, policies, and data into decision-making processes in cities – a process which, according to her, ends up with complex participatory systems. To this end, the Amsterdam Open Research Platform was established to facilitate collaboration between academics, municipalities, and designers.

The participation Coordinator of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality presented the Prince Islands Strategic Plan and the Beyoglu Strategic Plan carried out by participatory planning studies. Pakhuis de Zwijger's director assists the City of Amsterdam's participation tracks. Pakhuis de Zwijger is a dialogue center where various events related to city concerns are held and supported by the Amsterdam Municipality and civil society. It provides everyone in the city with an accessible, autonomous, and safe public gathering area.

The second half of the meeting focused on evaluating the Vision 2050 initiatives that both cities are developing. Vision 2050 Office Coordinator highlighted the need to develop a shared vision for Istanbul in her presentation. Chief Planner at the Spatial Planning and Sustainability Department from the City of Amsterdam briefed participants on the experiences gained through the 'Omgevingsvisie Amsterdam 2050' project, which began shortly before the Istanbul Vision 2050 works.

The President of the Istanbul Citizens Assembly spoke about the reasons for the Citizens Assembly's formation and the efforts taken to adopt participatory budgeting

in Istanbul, which the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality launched and implemented on a metropolitan scale.

The city of Amsterdam presented its research on how to develop a link between the 'lived city' and the 'planned city'. They spoke about a project which collects citizen stories about the city to monitor the 2050 vision plan for Amsterdam. It was a guide in terms of understanding the approach of fellow citizens' reactions to decisions made at various stages and scales. Also, the City of Amsterdam concentrated on co-creation and participation experiences in Amsterdam's Nieuw West neighborhood.

The second day of the events focused on how Amsterdam and Istanbul might turn their work into concrete strategies and local government's duties for effective civil society involvement. Verdedig Noord (Defense of the North), an active citizens' movement in Amsterdam's north, spoke on how residents may contribute actively and meaningfully to the municipality's services. The workshop continued by discussing how the public's cooperation and cooperative work with civic society may be enhanced. The Amsterdam Municipality Science Board, with various service units working on an approach that unifies the municipality's policies with the public, underlined the necessity of combining field data and big data in the presentation of municipal services in Amsterdam.

Source: Authors' Archive (2021)

This two-day workshop provided the author of this thesis qualitative data regarding level of participation, objectives and main motivation to design, methods & tool used during the process, as well as intended outcomes of the participation practices. Also, the lectures giving by experts have enabled to the researchers to understand the context of two cities and how their perception is evolved.

Before the event took place, the researcher had prepared the questions for which she sought answers. In this direction, she recorded the opinions of the experts by taking notes when the questions are answered during the workshop. In addition, the researcher accompanied the experts from Amsterdam during the field trips, which is the first part of the workshop, and recorded their ideas and opinions in the field samples visited in Istanbul. In this way, the author had the opportunity to better understand the different approaches applied in Amsterdam in the context of applied practices in Istanbul.

In the workshop, which was held in Gazhane, the researcher took notes on the appropriate parts of the questions for which she sought answers. At the same time, lectures and presentations given by experts were also used while performing these analyzes.

3.2.2 Semi-Structured Interview

Data is obtained from four in-depth semi-structured interviews with the selected participants. The data consists of four semi-structured interviews with local experts between 2021-2022 with their full consent. Semi-structured interviews with experts were conducted because expert interviews are a good way of quickly obtaining results as because the interviewer and the interviewee have a certain level of knowledge and interest, the expert is more motivated to engage in an interview because of this shared ground (Bogner et al., 2009). A semi-structured interview is a verbal interaction in which one person, the interviewer, strives to gather information from another person by asking that specific questions. Despite the fact that a list of

predetermined questions was created, a semi-structured interview provided the opportunity to examine which topics required more attention or not (Clifford et al. 2010). Aside from that, using the conceptual model described earlier, the list of predetermined questions assisted in asking the correct questions in the proper order.

The local experts chosen from participants who invited to the workshop through personal convenience based on their willing to participate to the study. During expert selection process, the author particularly paid attention to work in municipality and took part in participatory projects. The two experts from City of Amsterdam works in Chief Science Office. The other two experts work in IMM is from City Planning Department Participatory Planning Coordination, and IPA Participatory Democratic Governance Policies in Vision 2050 Office.

In order to get a supplementary view of participatory planning and citizen participation methods in Istanbul and Amsterdam, the author interviewed knowledgeable informants from both outside but still closely related to the cases and inside of the planning department.

The author assisted in and led all the interviews. The author addressed interviewees using questions that were both pre-defined and open-ended. All semi-structured interviews were conducted face-to-face. However, there is an unprecedented interview process in this research because the interview could not be conducted with a single person in one sitting due to time constraints. In the remaining time from the mentioned workshop, the time of the participants was used with maximum efficiency.

The discussions that are held in the semi-structured interviews are limited to municipality-initiated participation projects. It aims to compare the processes, outcomes, and focus of projects that emphasize space and target civic engagement in Amsterdam and Istanbul. In this case, the participants are asked to answer questions that are directly related to the space and target citizen participation in the context of Istanbul and Amsterdam.

The interview questions were designed based on the findings obtained from the literature review (e.g., findings regarding purpose, levels, stakeholders, methods &tools. The interview consisted of four parts. It is designed from more general to specific questions (see Appendix A).

It is not possible to give the exact duration of the research with each expert, as the interviews are conducted piecemeal with the experts for 10-15 minutes. However, it can be said that the average duration of each interview took approximately 30-45 minutes in total. The researcher took care to ask the questions in the order as much as possible. While the questions were directed to the experts, the researcher took care not to repeat the questions which experts mentioned during the workshop, as it might irritate them. As the experts participating in the interview were civil servants, they were sensitive about the audio recording; therefore, no audio recording was taken in order not to frighten the participants. Instead, the researcher preferred to take notes during the interview. At the point where she could not take notes, she made her additions right after the interview was over.

In the first part, seven questions are asked, and the aim is to get a general overview of participation. Participants were asked to get information about their work experience in professional life and specifically with local governments and their experience in participatory projects. Also, the attitudes of the city concerning participation and the importance of producing participatory projects were asked to the interviewee.

The second part of the questions is about the content, names, years of the projects where the interviewee took place, as well as their purposes, focus and actors. This part aims to get information on the general characteristics of the participatory projects; thus, we can consider this part as a light entrance to classify projects. The author asked questions to understand whether there is a change or a trend in projects' focus, actors, and target group from the past to the present. Also, if there is a change, questions were asked to determine the reason for it and at what point it changed.

The third part is based on understanding the process and mechanisms of the projects. The phases of the projects were asked, and the phase of citizen participation was questioned. The next question asked whether the level of participation decreased or increased over the years. And then, it was asked whether the participant profile had changed over time. Questions were asked to determine the significance of the citizens' opinions during the project process and whether this importance has changed over time. The last questions of this section were asked to identify the methods and tools used in the participatory process and to understand which ones are more effective.

The last part regards to outcomes of the projects. Firstly, the project outputs are divided into place-oriented and socially-oriented outputs. And then, it was asked whether a change was observed in the intended outputs of the projects over time, and if there was a change, on what kind of issues it varied.

3.3 Method of Analysis

The author conducted a qualitative comparative case study to examine the local experiences of citizen participation. The case study method allows the investigation of a complex phenomenon in its particular context, and the identification of similarities and differences between two different cases is made possible by comparative study of the cases (Baxter & Jack, 20 08).

The comparative case analysis focuses on the practices of participatory planning and design that are held in two different cities. The aim is to deliver constructive contribution to ongoing debates on local democracy mechanisms and collaboration tools used for city-making in Amsterdam and Istanbul.

The key aspects of the study are categorized into three sections, each of which relates to a certain objective and set of criteria and contains leading indications to evaluate the scope of the two cases.

The first part is concerns with the context which circumstances of the planning process in which participants are actively engaged. The first indicator concerns the reasons for initiating participation and the objectives of the participation process. The second indicator concerns to the planning of the process. The last indicator refers to the key topics of the participatory process that are involved in urban design and planning. These topics include housing, public space, regeneration, and transportation.

The second part of the analysis, process evaluations, regards the phases of the participation program that is under analysis, such as program implementation, and concentrates on the study of what happens throughout the running of a program (Weiss, 1998). This part looks at the targeted and participating types of stakeholders, the number of participants, and the diversity of participants. Also, this part focuses on the level of participation, in fact, how actively engaged citizens are, as well as what kind of contributions and opinions they are expected to offer. Considering the different engagement models analyzed in the literature review, the guideline includes the following four-level range for the level of participation: information, consultation, consensus-building, which includes other models' levels of involvement, dialogue, debate, collaboration, and decision-making which includes partnership, self-management, empower. Also, the analysis looks at the different methods the municipality deploys to realize participation. Focus on typology, diversity, and outreach by engagement mechanisms organized by engagement levels used in the process.

The last part of the analysis focuses on the outcome of the process, which include social outcomes such as increasing awareness and comprehension of the plan, as well as spatial outcomes such as contributions, support, and consensus on topics of urban planning. Evaluations of the program's outcomes determine whether or not the intended program impacts have been achieved, and they, therefore, concern the program's final outcome (Weiss, 1998).

According to Kiger & Varpio (2020), The process of thematic analysis would be one of describing data, but it also requires interpretation in the form of code selection and theme development. Because of its adaptability, the thematic analysis may be utilized with a broad variety of research topics, designs, and sample sizes, making it a very desirable method for a wide range of questions. Moreover, because thematic analysis is a useful technique when trying to get a holistic understanding of a collection of phenomena such as a group of experiences, ideas, or actions (Braun & Clarke, 2012), this method is used for this research of analysis is chosen.

In order to analyze the sections mentioned above, firstly, the researcher became familiar with the full data set to give a useful context for the raw data. The researcher collected all the notes, and then initial thoughts, questions, and linkages between data points were highlighted by the researcher. She takes note of all themes that might be significant, regardless of how much information falls under each category; thus, content is carefully read, and main categories are gathered under themes.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of this study. The logical organization of the chapter, in sub-headings, is based on the sub-questions. Each sub-question and subject is covered in detail, and a link to the theory is established. In this chapter, the author analyzes the citizen participation practices, strategies, and mechanisms in Istanbul and Amsterdam. A comparison of the cities illustrates how participation activities can be implemented in different contexts.

4.1 Context

4.1.1 Objectives of Participation

Amsterdam has been trying to build the skills and capacities of citizens, so that they can take up responsibilities for the provision of public services. In local level projects, experts state that, in the beginning, the goal of any project is to experience and collect information and get in contact with local population. Some other goals are to connect different parties together and check for the energy of a neighborhood regarding their motivation to participate in a project.

Since participation and democratization processes are only recently experienced in Istanbul, the objectives of participation differ compared to Amsterdam. For example, in Istanbul, when starting a project, the objectives are usually indicated as increasing the interest of young people in participation processes, increasing their willingness to participate, and creating a sense of belongingness. Also, it has been mentioned that the participation processes, which started with the initiative of local governments, are carried out in order to reach a conclusion instead of being the ground for legitimizing the decisions.

Objectives of Participation	Istanbul	Amsterdam
Build skills and capacities of citizens	✕	✕
Collect information and experience		✕
Connect different stakeholders/parties		✕
Raise awareness of volunteerism	✕	
Increasing the interest and participation of young people	✕	
Create sense of belongingness	✕	
Providing transparency and accountability	✕	

Table 4.1 Objectives of participatory planning and design projects in Istanbul and Amsterdam mentioned by the interview participants

In both cases, participation was necessary in the sense of cooperating on identifying the issues as well as designing and implementing those solutions into action; yet, the reasons for or goals of the participation process were different. It would be interesting to investigate whether or if the various motivations for beginning involvement will have an effect on the procedure or the results.

4.1.2 Key Topics in Participation

Amsterdam works in social, spatial planning, sustainability, technology, economy, democracy, and creative industry. The most discussed topics in ten to fifteen years are directions for growth, speeding up transitions especially in energy, mobility and climate adaptation. Another topic is about housing because of the rising house prices gets the problem of gentrification. The theme of citizen participation seems to be coming in waves in the Netherlands. Participation in the 1970s, social renewal and neighborhood approach in the 1990s, interactive policy-making at the turn of the century, active democracy around 2010. Experts highlight that perhaps they are now in the prelude to a new wave. The proposal for an Act on strengthening participation

at local level will certainly put it on the agenda of municipalities. The concept of co-creation has been brought to the fore here and there like a labyrinth.

In Istanbul, for example, citizen assembly focuses on topics like climate change, poverty, cultural issues and art, heritage. In the previous periods, projects mostly focus on urban regeneration, redevelopment, revitalization, and new development projects. However, experts state that in the last 10 years, local networks that have come together to address urban problems such as migration, healthy food, and energy production have increased in Istanbul. Also, after Covid-19, especially with the demand of citizens, Istanbul has given more attention to green spaces; thus, one of them stated that this issue is directly linked to climate. At the same time, one of the most important topics in Amsterdam is energy transition because the city recently adopted Doughnut Economy. People in Amsterdam are demanding that their government do something about the climate.

There is an interesting similarity in climate issues in both cities. For example, the rainproof program is offered by the city of Amsterdam. The effort aims to make Amsterdam rainproof to cope with the rising number of downpours. In addition, the program seeks to use rainwater that is ‘free’ for other objectives. The program is collaborating with all Amsterdam citizens to achieve its goal. This program is open to participation from the public. The online platform brings all ideas, initiatives, and information together, and the program assists in incorporating those ideas and efforts into planning. It is stated that the strong network of many organizations and citizens is the program's strength.

On the other side, in Istanbul, one of the steps Gazhane has taken in strengthening its position as a climate center is to re-evaluate the campus and its surroundings with the aim of reducing the carbon footprint to zero.

Key Topics in Participation	Istanbul	Amsterdam
social & spatial planning		✕
sustainability & climate change	✕	✕
energy	✕	✕
housing/gentrification/regeneration	✕	✕
cultural issues and art	✕	
poverty	✕	
heritage	✕	
migration	✕	
technology & creative industry		✕
pandemi/covid-19	✕	✕

Table 4.2 Key Topic in participatory planning and design projects in Istanbul and Amsterdam mentioned by the interview participants

Surely, Table 4.2 shows that each city deals with its own unique problems and issues that they discuss in their own context. For this reason, the topics discussed vary. However, when we examine the picture in general, we observe that both cities show sensitivity on housing, energy, pandemic and climate issues.

4.1.3 Decision-making

In Istanbul, the most basic expectation of the stakeholders is to establish a framework for participation by local governments and to develop a program that will accelerate the legal, institutional, and social transformations regarding participation.

Participation in Amsterdam is a very deep-rooted concept, and it has always existed. For this reason, it is a more accepted process, not a new one; citizen participation is seen as a neutral extension of daily life. However, 15-20 years ago, the city started to change. There are seven districts in Amsterdam, and they can work autonomously in the form of participation, so they produce all participation processes themselves. The city was more synchronized. It is now centralized. Since it has been centralized,

participation has gotten a bit superficial. Then, participation came as a new agenda by the central government, and this brought a new understanding of participation. They said, “look, participate”; this time, it has become a cycle again because there was already participation, it lost its old importance, and now it has come to all parts of Amsterdam as a new process." This created a flash because the people sent to participate came from the central place. Parallel to this, another expert indicates that autocracy is an issue in Amsterdam because seven boroughs and a central city exist together. Boroughs have a very close population and are in contact; however, the central city has money and decision-making power; so they are not very local.

All mechanisms that are incompatible with the participatory process produced by the decision-making process in Amsterdam are built on representative democracy. The participatory processes produced have no legal equivalent, and the direct decision-making power of the public is very limited. Local governments aim to develop representative democracy at this point; United Streets of Amsterdam is a good example for this.

One notable discussion is based on the differences between central and local policies on basic issues such as the natural thresholds of Istanbul; it is a debate on the importance of participatory policy-making, not decisions. It has been stated that the investment decisions taken by the central administration and the violation of vital thresholds concerning the future of Istanbul are at the center of the problems regarding participation. In many issues and areas that are important for Istanbul, the difference in approach between the central government and local government decisions is encountered.

One of the local experts in Istanbul states the relationship between the decisions taken and the policies produced in the participatory media with the municipal council and other decision mechanisms should be determined, and the legal framework should be established by the representatives of civil society, academia, and local government.

In both cities, experts state that the development of the modern legal framework for citizen participation is needed.

4.2 Process

4.2.1 Stakeholder / Target Group

Local experts in Istanbul emphasized the importance of interacting with people without waiting to hear for their demands and the value of meeting with all parts of society. They stated that this interaction should not exclude any areas, groups, or subjects. Also, it is stated that participation processes are carried out mostly with stakeholders or researchers with high technical knowledge and expertise, such as planning and architecture. It is pointed out that adequate participation of the users of the space should be ensured.

In Amsterdam, one of the civil servants from the Chief Science Office specifies that the municipality has been trying to have a mix of stakeholders in a balanced way; they do not invite only the ones who always show up. In a participatory project, she stated that they aim to involve residents, health workers, entrepreneurs, staffs of the housing cooperations, polices, priests, as well as the representatives of social and civic organizations.

Also, in Amsterdam's experience, the residents are experts; human capital is very strong in Amsterdam. Those involved in the process are very knowledgeable and mostly consultants. However, we cannot fully talk about such a situation in Istanbul. There is a distinction that is made between professionals, experts, and residents in Istanbul. Also, in Amsterdam, residents are dealing with the issue of not being seen as experts. They build on solidarity and fight against gentrification. In the past, more retirees and those with more time and sufficient economic status participated in planning and design practices in Amsterdam, but now more diverse groups like old and black women are participating. It is stated that there is a significant increase in

the female population in particular. Also, the target audience of the municipality has changed. Diverse participation, not just anyone's participation, is important. Leading politicians also give importance to change. For example, the head of the district is a woman who wants to include different people. Also, in Amsterdam new civil society actors embrace a more liberal discourse of entrepreneurialism.

In the participation processes, it is seen that it is mentioned that the work done with the people living in a place should be given priority and it should not be forgotten that the real users of the spaces are the residents.

If we look at the participation of the designer, we can say that Istanbul is ahead of Amsterdam. For example, while the municipal designer's office selects 150 thousand residences to be built in 2050 in Amsterdam, Istanbul organizes competitions for its public squares; that is, it shows a different approach than Amsterdam by making the designers a part of the participatory process and submitting it to the public vote.

If we emphasize the role of local governments as stakeholders: in Istanbul, the municipality is an initiator and supervisor in participatory practices. However, since 2018, the planning experts in the Municipality of Amsterdam has been trying to act as facilitator rather than an initiator. In the workshop, it has been mentioned frequently that the local government should play a role that opens and facilitates space in Istanbul, establish a link between the municipality and its citizens with a more inclusive language, and the city council’s interface and facilitation role in this regard.

Also, workshop groups emphasized that the participation scheme should be designed together by the local government and civil society and that the municipalities should deliver the process to the civil structure by presenting the space and infrastructure.

A significant portion of the participants, who conveyed their observations on the civic space of Istanbul, stated that the civil society and local government relationship

should be strengthened and that more efforts should be made to keep the civil society field strong in Istanbul.

Also, in terms of the private sector, experts point out that Istanbul is weak in this regard, and they organize workshops with different working groups in order to involve the private sector in the participation processes. On the contrary, it is stated that the private sector in Amsterdam presses to be included in the participation dynamics, puts pressure on the processes to be more sustainable, and even insists on joining local governments if they are not included in the process.

Stakeholder/Target Group	Istanbul	Amsterdam
Public Sector	Initiator/Supervisor	Facilitator
Private Sector	More passive	More proactive
Citizens	More passive	More proactive
Designer	More proactive	More passive
Experts	More proactive	More passive
Third Sector (NGOS, civil organizations, etc.)	More passive	More proactive

Table 4.3 Stakeholders & their roles in participatory planning and design projects in Istanbul and Amsterdam mentioned by the interview participants

4.2.2 Level of Participation

Experts in Istanbul state that ordinary public complain about participatory processes conducted in various places of the city, which serves like therapy sessions. In the literature, therapy even do not seen as participation, Arnstein (1969) and many others define it as non-participation. In terms of level of information, it was stated that the digital interface required for participation in the "Plan Askı" application (which is a website allows Istanbul residents is informed of the zoning plans and changes taking place in different parts of the city, especially in their own neighborhood), which started recently, is an important beginning for information activities; thus, it plays

the role of facilitating access to information. It has been stated that getting answers to information or requests is a very important process in planning. Even if information is not considered sufficient in terms of participation, it should continue uninterruptedly as a front-line step in ensuring continuity in communication with the city's residents.

In terms of empowerment, although it is subject to a certain pre-selection process, the results of the square design competitions are determined by the citizens. Apart from this, there are applications where the decision-making authority is delegated in matters such as low-impact decisions like choosing the color of the water taxi. However, as in the above-stated example, the question of whether voting is a participation process arises.

Also, in Istanbul experts stated that there are obstacles to be overcomed in order for these stakeholders, who are users of the space, to participate in spatial decisions, and that the first of these is the forgetting that the residents of the city do not have technical knowledge about planning and the way the decisions are presented increases this difficulty. A significant portion of the stakeholders stated that not overcoming this obstacle in the participation processes limits the level of participation.

The Amsterdam, the City Council has an autocratic decision-making process. There have been many failed attempts to reduce the distance between citizens and government with the city, district, and neighborhood councils. For over 50 years, Amsterdam has experienced innovation with support from the bourgeoise and city council. However, as mentioned before, these attempts and experiments have hardly affected the structure deeply, and usually vanished after a few years, so that this means that they cannot make participation permanent.

Amsterdam states that the focus should be on a step higher on the participation ladder, which therefore encompasses more than the municipality is currently rolling out under the guise of co-creation. For example, Ma.ak 020 project stands for Social Agreement and city making. It is a kind of participatory budgeting practice. Nine

official residence discussions were held with the 248 residents. No fewer than 60,000 Amsterdammers took part in this, mainly by voting for the many ideas submitted. However, it is still far from participatory budgeting. Citizens wants a new Participation Regulation. For over 25 years, citizen participation has developed gradually; however, city councils are unwilling to share their power.

Residents of Amsterdam have the opportunity to provide feedback on proposed changes to land use plans. In addition to this legal requirement, the municipality is responsible for organizing participatory procedures in order to garner support for development plans. The meetings consist of a variety of activities, ranging from consultation panels to initiatives that have a more significant affect on local communities. Over the course of the last decade, there has been a concerted drive to recruit locals for roles as developers in various construction projects. This occurs rather regularly in other parts of the globe, but it is a relatively recent development in the Netherlands. This is an element of a plan to gradually develop places as part of a strategy to build development initiatives in an "organic" manner.

While in Istanbul, the emphasis is on informative rather than participatory or interactive content; the city of Amsterdam has seen an increase in the number of ad hoc gatherings of more proactive, smaller interest groups. However, even though local governments are experimenting to take roles at the lower level of the ladder, it is obvious that in the end, both cities could not reach the highest level in the ladder of participation.

Level of Participation	Istanbul	Amsterdam
Inform	✕	✕
Consult	✕	✕
Involve	✕	✕
Collaborate	✕	✕
Empower		✕

Table 4.4 Levels in participatory planning and design projects in Istanbul and Amsterdam mentioned by the interview participants

When we examine Table 4.4, we observe that Istanbul uses many different levels of methods and tools to increase the level of participation. We do not know how sustainable these levels are, as it has only just experienced the practice of participation.

We see that Amsterdam has experienced all levels of participation stemming from its deep-rooted history of participation, even targeting a level of participation that we do not define on the ladder today. At this point, it would not be wrong to say that Amsterdam is far ahead of Istanbul.

4.2.3 Representativeness

Istanbul states that participation processes should be carried out with sufficient participation of the users of the space, not only for stakeholders or researchers with technical expertise, such as planning and architecture. In the participation processes, it is seen that it is mentioned that the work done with the people living in a place should be given priority and it should not be forgotten that the real users of the spaces are the residents. It was emphasized that the representation that represents not only the mainstream non-governmental organizations but also every citizen is very important, and that it is necessary to ensure direct participation, if possible, rather than representation.

In the Amsterdam case, even though there are attempts to produce co-creation processes, everything still depends on representative democracy. In fact, there is no legal equivalent for participation practices because the decision is made at the municipality and city council. The direct decision-making power of the public is very limited. The participation process and decision-making process is incompatible with each other. The alderman is aware of this problem and there are attempts to improve representative democracy and keep pace with the current process. For instance, United Streets of Amsterdam is a new process. In Istanbul, also there are neighborhood councils and street representatives like in the case of United Streets of Amsterdam. In this process, it has been suggested to increase the capacity of "muhtars" (the head of the administration in the neighborhood legal entity) in terms of participation and to transform the ties that IMM will establish with muhtars into a regular, disciplined and defined medium. Based on the common discourse of the stakeholders, it was stated that with the formations based on solidarity and volunteerism, ordinary citizens and individuals could get out of a single problem and connect with the city as a whole.

4.2.4 Inclusiveness

Another issue raised regarding inclusion was the need to diversify areas of expertise by taking into account the different dimensions of projects. He reported that the Istanbul Local Equality Action Plan provides indicators on participation and inclusion in the municipality. Within the scope of LEAP studies, it was discussed that IMM's studies on participation were analyzed with a gender equality perspective, and an evaluation was made on what kind of participation understanding was found. It was stated that non-governmental organizations should be included in all participation activities according to their fields of activity, and that civil society working on women's rights and gender equality is the natural stakeholder of all participation processes.

In order to ensure inclusiveness, the importance of local governments to diversify services for immigrants living in Istanbul and to work on participation in different languages was mentioned.

Amsterdam has been a refuge for people fleeing persecution for their faith or beliefs. Amsterdam works on anti-discrimination, LGBTI rights, and empowering women. Experts state that Amsterdam's policy is not focused on diversity but inclusion.

Inclusiveness	Istanbul	Amsterdam
Women	✕	✕
Immıgrants	✕	✕
LGBTI+		

4.2.5 Stage of Participation

In Amsterdam, the concern is shifting citizen participation to an early stage, towards ideation or visioning. Then ideas and wishes are retrieved, which then disappear into a black hole. The board takes off with this and the result (plan, memorandum of principles, list of projects) no longer has a recognizable relationship for the citizens with the input provided. The board then believes it has done its best and characterizes the entire process as co-creation, which means, however, as explained in the first part, co-deciding. The result of this exploratory visioning is elusive to the public. Experts states that the citizens who are able to participate feel just as little involvement with the product as those who were not there.

Also, Istanbul has same concerns with Amsterdam since experts stated that there is a need for a two-way communication approach in which the demands of the citizens are taken into consideration, instead of thinking one-way citizen participation in planning and involving municipalities, NGOs, and citizens later in the process. Experts agreed that participation should start from the problem identification phase.

It has been stated that this understanding is a necessity of transition to governance understanding and participatory democracy.

While defining participation in spatial decisions, planning and design issues, participation is not only in the stages of getting ideas and discussing options; it was emphasized that starting from the analysis phase, it should also include resource planning and implementation processes.

Participation in spatial planning processes has been described as a process that needs to be structured from the bottom up. It is stated that this approach, which is described from the street scale to the neighborhood, from the neighborhood to the whole city, and which adopts the discussion of decisions with those concerned first, should be clear and defined, and it should be clarified which scale will be discussed with whom and at what level.

4.2.6 Methods & Tools

4.2.6.1 Typology

In Istanbul, participants emphasized that it is not technically and ontologically possible to carry out comprehensive and single-center participation in the whole of Istanbul, and in this direction, they stated that local governments should define areas and mechanisms for participation at different scales during the policy-making phase. While describing the need for these mechanisms, the potential of citizen assembly has been frequently mentioned. In this context, it has been defined as an important need for both the Istanbul Citizen Assembly and the district city councils to provide communication between the citizens and the local administration. The establishment of mechanisms for participation in urban policies describes a general framework in the approach of stakeholders to the issue.

In both cases, the importance of creating indicators and methods for the transparency and accountability of the project/work of civil society and its citizens regarding the

planning of resources has been mentioned, as the participatory determination of the priorities of local governments for the expenditures they will make while using their resources will provide an important input to the strategic plan making processes and budget studies. The relationship between the work of determining priorities, which is considered as important as transparency, and the participatory budget is mentioned. In particular, experts in this field emphasized that participatory budgeting is a good method to implement participatory democracy at an advanced level. The municipality is planning to go to a participatory budgeting experience. They asked citizen assembly to get in. they used the timeline given to them to build trust between the municipality and trusted parties. With 5-6 departments at the municipality created a concrete group to discuss the budgeting issue. Example constituting a unique example in Turkey's citizen assembly experiences because all the middle parties who discussed the issue were present in the group. After a 3-5 month discussion period, five steps for participatory budgeting are decided as collecting ideas, pre-assessment, referendum, evaluation, and implementation. The process is top-down in Istanbul and is not transparent. On the other hand, the budget is not controlled by the government in Amsterdam. The residents themselves decide what to do.

One civil servant from Amsterdam states that they conducted a neighborhood-level project since 2017 in the Nieuw-West using the service design method. In this practice, the municipality used questionnaires, street interviews with the local population, neighborhood walks, and pop-up week which officers records the insights like issues and dreams, in a visual concept of arena plan.

In the Princes' Islands to increase transparency of planning studies the department of municipality built a website which all information and data shared. Experts from Istanbul highlights that they have been run a similar process like Amsterdam, which start with talk with people in the field, analysis, field events, surveys to collect data, and then they have formed nine working groups to form final outcome.

Everyone has drawn attention to the need for a permanent mechanism where citizens can be involved in the administration of the city. While the issue of how the citizens can participate in local government processes is defined as an "interface need", suggestions have been made about the importance of neighborhood networks and pilot studies.

The importance of designing “open data” applications with a participatory process in which civil society, experts, and city residents will be included, and the use of citizens' data by citizens has been explained.

Methods & Tools	Istanbul	Amsterdam
Digital Platforms	✕	✕
Citizen Assembly	✕	✕
Participatory Budgeting		✕
Living Labs		✕
Workshops	✕	✕
Surveys	✕	✕
Platforms	✕	✕
Events & Meetings	✕	✕
Collaborative Mappings	✕	✕
Serious Gaming	✕	✕
Competitions	✕	

Table 4.5 Methods & Tools in participatory planning and design projects in Istanbul and Amsterdam mentioned by the interview participants

4.2.6.2 Diversity

In Istanbul, participants agreed that participation in policy development and decision-making processes should go beyond workshops and that different mechanisms should be defined, and emphasized that these mechanisms should not be limited to areas opened by the municipality. In addition to the participation

meetings, it was stated by the stakeholders that tools such as urban games and digital platforms that would enable the citizens to be personally involved in the project development processes could be beneficial.

It was stated that disadvantaged groups could not participate sufficiently, and that more egalitarian methods could be used and different methods could be tried together in order to ensure the participation of those using the urban space, by reminding the issue of the digital divide. Stakeholders suggest the use of squares and municipal infrastructures (nursery, neighborhood house, İSMEK, etc.) together with digital tools.

In Amsterdam, participation and co-creation practices are always a big part of the processes. However, in Amsterdam a participation strike is observed because when you do too much, people react badly. People now can get budgets to hire experts themselves. For example, Circular Buiksloterham is a project with people at a high educated level. They make self-building projects, with architects and residents, making together tenders. They decide the conditions for building there. They are ahead of the rules. Another example is that Verenigde Straten van Amsterdam which one group coming together once a year and decide on their agenda, what they would like and discuss on the issues. Also, there are participation strikes at the K-buurt: people raising their voices against participation, they want to be able to make their own plans.

Also, Defend North is an initiation where residents of Amsterdam prepared a protocol themselves because the municipality is unable to provide proper participation. It is where a hybrid forms of ‘bottom-linked’ participation, whereby initiatives developed by residents are supported and realized through top-down policies.

The emphasis is shifting from directing and deciding to the process of organizing and facilitating. After a number of consultation rounds, the choices emerge 'automatically' from the decision-making process.

Instead of adopting the traditional methods that are often associated with municipal decision-making and municipal planning, the local governments in each of these cases looked for new and innovative solutions to involve the citizens of their communities.

4.3 Outcomes

4.3.1 Social Outcomes

Experts from Istanbul emphasized that the building of trust is at least as important as participation. It is an important key to keep mutual communication continuous and strong, and the tools that will increase communication and participation can be found in different ways such as streets, neighborhoods and cities. It is thought that it would be a good step to build a system by defining it in scales.

It has been evaluated that this effort, which is a good example of IMM's participation and transparency efforts of the Veri Istanbul Platform, can improve communication and a two-way interaction is possible.

It was stated that the culture of solidarity in Turkey constitutes a unique experience, and participation practices create an environment for supporting this culture and keeping its examples alive.

Also, Amsterdam states that in their case not all participation attempts reach clear agreements, sometimes it leaves angry citizens. Also, one of the experts states that there are trust issues in Amsterdam especially towards to government officials. Municipality of Amsterdam tries to give more responsibility to citizens. For example, citizens are monitoring and analyzing climate change and its impact in different parts of the city. Another example is that local government give training of self- employed professionals to advise citizens on how to store rainwater on their properties.

Social Outcomes	Istanbul	Amsterdam
Trust	✕	
Transparency	✕	✕
Accountability	✕	✕
Give responsibility to citizens		✕
Capacity-building		✕

Table 4.6 Social outcomes in participatory planning and design projects in Istanbul and Amsterdam mentioned by the interview participants

4.3.2 Spatial Outcomes

In the case of Istanbul, there is a project-based management approach in the participation processes. There are micro-projects; however, these are not comprehensive enough to create a big picture. Also, the problem observed in those projects is that people have demanded to see a manager/administrator. Subsidiary companies like BIMTAŞ hold these projects; however, no one knows whether participation produced an input or output.

In Istanbul, the most prominent challenge has been that there is no feedback on how the participation processes are reflected in the policies, decisions and services produced by the local government. Stakeholders stated that another important factor in participation is accountability, and municipalities should report how much the suggestions of the stakeholders are implemented in the decisions taken, and if the suggestions cannot be implemented, why they are not implemented. It has been stated that feedback and monitoring stages are not implemented in the current participation processes, and that decisions are taken with a linear flow and the results cannot be followed. However, Amsterdam used story-catching method to monitor results of spatial vision. One of the interviewees stated that “In this particular case the experiment and the outcomes of the cross-analysis can serve as a mirror to the

concept version of the Spatial Vision, there where it takes, with the collected perspectives, a new look at how the vision is put together."

On the one hand, there are too many public talks in Amsterdam, but the results are very few, and because of this, people are getting angry and irritated. Too many talks, but there are few outcomes. On the other hand, industrialists and entrepreneurs are against this one-way communication between citizens and government, and they ask, "why don't you include us?"

One of the main problems of Amsterdam is they cannot turn the process into a decision. Basically, the politic system is working but the existing system does not comprise co-creation. It is a process that works independently and even excludes co-creation because there is another decision mechanism. A conflict arises due to the well-functioning of both processes.

According to the comments of the expert participants, the Büyükada Carriage Square Competition is an experience that differs from other competition processes and is important in terms of participation. It is thought to be instructive in terms of trying a transparent and participatory process, unlike the production processes of urban design projects procured by tender.

One of the experts from Istanbul who works as a participation coordinator in the municipality carries out the participation process of the Princes' Islands strategy document states that they prepared the document based on collecting feedback, proposals, demands and problems of working groups; however, strategic plans do not defined in the legal ground.

When we compare the Princes' Island and Defense North practices mentioned in two different cities, we see that a document emerges in both. The main difference between these two Practices is that while the output in the process in Istanbul came out with a process run by the municipality, in Amsterdam, this document was prepared by the citizens and accepted by the local government

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This research aims to carry out a comparative study by municipal urban planners' discourses of municipal-led participatory practices and/or projects in Amsterdam and Istanbul through the lens of a theoretical framework. Also, this thesis aimed to find out similarities and differences according to contextual differences in the two cities.

This comparative study contributes to the participatory planning and design literature by concentrating on the perspectives of public planners. This thesis demonstrates that citizen participation restricted by a complex environment where theory and practice clash with fast-paced building, global economy, and institutional ambiguity. A qualitative method is chosen in order to evaluate participatory practices. The study seeks different public participation programs, and presents practices and lessons learned from international examples.

5.1 Main Findings of Research

Results show that these two cities represent very different approaches to local participation: while in Istanbul, these are largely organized in a top-down manner, funded by the municipality, Amsterdam places a priority on bottom-up initiatives with which resident groups cooperate and are funded by institutions such as housing associations.

Apart from their differences, the two cities also have similar features. Both Amsterdam and Istanbul have problems with the issue of trust and they are trying to improve themselves in terms of transparency and accountability to ensure this. At the same time, in order to develop representative democracy in both cities, local governments are trying to carry out this work with representatives on the street scale.

While bottom-up and top-down participation practices are in conflict with each other in Amsterdam, there is no such situation in Istanbul, since there is no participation experience before, and the understanding of participatory planning, which has developed with the change of local administration in general, is positive.

The Istanbul case study shows that, while the top-down initiatives studied connect participants but they provide less possibilities for encounters with fellow residents. In contrast, bottom-up and bottom-linked initiatives do not only have a social function but also offer low-threshold access to representatives of 'mainstream' society. However, the Amsterdam case also shows that such 'bottom-linked' relationships can become fraught as volunteers demand more (also financial) recognition from institutional 'partners'.

Participation processes can best be operated on a local scale, the main reason for this is a sense of belonging, ownership of the place and empathy. Istanbul is a gigantic city, trying to run such processes for 16 million cannot go beyond representation. However, it has been stated by experts that bottom-up and spontaneous processes work better in Amsterdam. Participation in Istanbul today is based on a change in the approach of local government because even the name of participation was not mentioned in the previous; therefore, participation is enforced as a top-down process.

Participation in spatial planning processes has been described as a process that needs to be structured from the bottom up. This approach, which is defined from the street scale to the neighborhood, from the neighborhood to the whole city, and which adopts the discussion of decisions with those concerned first, ensures that local actors are clear and defined, which scale is used. It was stated that it should be clarified with whom and at what level to discuss.

Also, who plans the participation, how it's portrayed, and what sort of connection is formed with the participant are all crucial. When considering how to get people involved, it's vital to consider issues of scale, relationship, connection, and accessibility to participation.

It is understood that a comprehensive framework should be established for participation right from the start. It should be obvious what it wants to accomplish and who will be involved. Meaningful engagement is not possible without a clear aim. Certain age groups, underrepresented groups, and their ideas should all contribute. Also, an approach that views participation and urban design as processes that welcome fresh input and feedback at every stage is important.

By considering both literature review and analysis, it can be argued that it is necessary to identify the participation techniques and methods needed for the desired level of participation. Notwithstanding its advantages, planning and design participation is either ignored or used via indirect means, like surveys, which does not result in constructive engagement. However, in participatory contexts that encourage interaction, particularly when individuals are prompted to share their thoughts, people are expected to voice their ideas. Experts emphasize that the already produced tools have good intentions, but they should be produced accordingly in order to reach more local scales.

Different levels of public engagement are present in this research. The degrees of participation do not build upon one another as the participation ladder does. The degree of engagement varies depending on context and scale. Therefore, local governments should not constantly strive for 'empowerment' since there are instances when a lower level like tokenism or non-participation is more appropriate regarding scales like Istanbul. In addition, there is no ladder of participation in practice. The degree of engagement varies depending on the context. Different degrees of involvement may exist in a process because the interaction between the government and the public is continuous, and the best level of participation must be continually considered.

The egalitarian ideals should be applied to all of parties. That shift is not from top-down to bottom-up but from vertical government to horizontal governance. From the research, experts from both cities agree that the local government should act like a facilitator rather than an initiator and give citizens more responsibility.

Also, it is essential, in contexts where the demand for the democratization of planning and urban design of institutions and society is increasing, to design a broad, genuine participation process as an essential element of the development process in order to support the transformative and emancipatory potential of the participatory approach.

Developing social capital is essential for forging strong bonds between a city and its residents. Participation requires a solid network and partnership basis. It is concluded that creating bonds, and links is essential for increasing social capital. Strong bonds between people, social groupings, and between the public and those in positions of authority are essential. People are more inclined to contribute after developing common norms and values, building trust, and reducing distance.

To conclude, the study comments on the growing number of tools and methods used during participatory urban design and planning processes, with a comparative analysis of Amsterdam and Istanbul. It starts from the premise that participation in different forms affects the design of a place by having an active role in its development. Appropriate ways of exercising can lead to more prosperous and comprehensive planning and design solutions. Therefore, careful planning is required to achieve an effective public participation program. The challenge is to design an appropriate program in which methods and techniques match the purpose, reach the relevant stakeholders, and result in a clear linkage between public participation and the decision-making process.

5.2 Limitations and Implications for Future Research

Discussing citizen participation in urban planning grants a better understanding of the various actors, spaces, intentions, interventions, and roles involved and how this can enrich and disrupt the planning environment. It also contributes to the larger discussion on more inclusive urban governance. This study has examined different dimensions of the process of participatory planning as it highlighted important

differences and similarities in their experiences across two different cases. However, this study limited to participatory practices initiated by the municipality.

Examples taken from the literature demonstrate a number of opinions representing a range of citizen practices in urban contexts. Urban planners are increasingly employing a variety of planning techniques and methods to involve citizens. Neighborhood discussions, serious games, living labs, competitions, art-based interventions, and public online debates are just some examples of the many types of public engagement strategies. However, alternative media discussions were not included in this research.

Also, it is important to be noted that participatory culture was not taken into account in this study. Therefore, more investigation is required on the role that urban governance may play in fostering wide-ranging citizen participation in solving the problems that have been highlighted in various institutional and cultural scenarios. Thus, to determine if the conclusions in this thesis really match, practical research on a handful of global metropolitan regions is required. It is also necessary to do additional quantitative research and international case comparisons, adding to the body of knowledge on citizen initiative activities and their effects on the field of urban design.

In this study, other actors than the citizens control the planning processes analyzed, and if planners' judgements or politicians' visions differ from citizens interests, it is not obvious (mainly for Istanbul) what is the citizen influence. Municipal officials were the leading actors in the participation process in the framework of this thesis, but in other situations, other participants, including private contractors or other market participants, may assume this role. It should also be noted that this creates selection-bias as the research is conducted with municipal officials who are already in a certain profile in terms of participatory planning. In this case, it should be taken into account that the questions may have been answered biased in the favor of their institutions. If this research been conducted with other participants, different answers could have been obtained. Therefore, investigating the design and results of

participation processes in planning contexts when other agencies are dominant is crucial.

5.3 (Re-)Designing the Urban Design Process: Some Suggestions

As Inam (2002:54) highlights that urban design is essential for "creating an environment that satisfies, informs and inspires its users". This way of thinking about urban design requires communication with the user of the space, which means that urban design should adopt a participatory approach. Crewe (2001:450) also states that participatory processes could lead a "good design of a new and different kind".

It is possible to conceptualize citizen participation as a spatial organization using a particular set of tools. In the face of widespread socio-environmental inequality, they engage by imagining, envisioning, and then quickly putting their ideas into practice. They operate from the bottom-up as conquerors of urban space, transforming areas as they change themselves.

The framework and comparative analysis make an effort to go beyond highlighting the engagement of the various cities to public involvement by offering empirical data and pointing out similarities, differences, and trends within the analyzed case studies. This is anticipated to be useful and adaptable to future participation approaches for urban planning. A better design to develop and implement them is to consider the intended level of participation, the number and diversity of participants, the engagement and communication tools, and the results in terms of increasing citizen capacity, as well as influencing and contributing to the plan.

In all, citizen participation must be included in the urban design process to promote more inclusive urbanism with greater social influence and enriched by citizen input.

- It is understood from the case studies, for both cities there must be a legal framework on urban design and participation to encourage participation in the urban design processes, improve the anticipated advantages and possibilities of citizen participation, and maintain social harmony.

- Since participation in Amsterdam already started earlier phases than in Istanbul, especially for Istanbul the participation process needs to be planned and organized in combination with urban design from the start if it is going to develop into an essential component of the whole process.
- The first step in implementing a participatory approach to urban design should be for the relevant authorities to define the reasons for participation and the desired outcomes. It is important to get specific about the central features of participation, such as the level of engagement that will be most effective in attaining set goals. Also, it is crucial to identify and include all key stakeholders in the project from the beginning. To attain the desired level of engagement, suitable participation techniques and methods should be employed.
- Programs for public participation should be adjusted to the local context, the local community's needs, interests, as well as capacity and resources.
- Different stakeholders and groups of the public may be reached through a variety of participation methods and tools. For an efficient and democratic urban design process, it is necessary to seek for, create, and test new participation techniques and tools adapted to urban design projects. If we want better outcomes, we need to make it easier for the public to get involved through various forms of engagement.

- The public should be informed about urban design projects through a variety of methods. Instead of seeing informing as one-way communication between government and citizens, a good informing process should establish clear mechanisms for citizen feedback and generate power for negotiation.
- It is crucial to better the living environment to reinterpret the urban design process in light of contemporary expectations and paradigms and to provide new techniques and perspectives in which citizens may participate in the design process without losing professional expertise and focus of the design.

Especially since Istanbul is weaker in terms of human capital compared to Amsterdam, they may need the support of experts more.

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APPENDICES

A. Semi-Structured Interview

1.1 How many years have you been working?

1.2 How many years have you been working at the Municipality?

1.3 Did you work anywhere else before the municipality?

1.4 In which department of the municipality do you work?

2.1. How do you think Amsterdam approaches participatory projects in general? What importance do the city attach to such projects?

2.2. How many participatory projects did you take part in without adding to your student years?

2.3. How many of these projects did you take part in after you started working in the municipality?

3.1. Among the participatory planning projects that you are involved in or that you know, can you open the content of the projects with a spatial dimension?

3.2. What are their names?

4.1. In what year did each project take place?

5.1. What was the focus of each of these projects?

5.2. When you evaluated these projects within the framework of their focus from the past to the present, did you observe a difference or a trend?

5.3. If you sense a change, what do you think is the reason? At what point did this change occur? It could be a year, or a policy

6. What were the aims of initiating projects?

7.1. Can you tell me the actors of each of the projects you took part in, as far as you remember?

7.2.If you evaluate these projects in the context of the actors, have you observed a

difference like newly involved actors or actors whose participation has decreased over

time?

7.3. If there is a difference, what do you think is the reason or reasons for this difference? In what years did these reasons appear? What was the milestone?

7.4. Can we talk about a correlation between these projects in the context of the actors involved? For example, working with the same stakeholders on two or more projects? If so, which projects are related to each other in this context and why?

8.1.Who was the target group?

8.2. Have you observed any changes in the target audience? For example, can you evaluate the inclusiveness of projects over time?

9.1. Can you talk a little bit about the processes of the projects you have participated

in and how the process is handled?

9.2. What are the main phases of the design process? In which phases did the community participates?

9.3. Has there been an increase or decrease in citizen participation over the years?

9.4. Can it be said that there is a change in the profile of the participating citizens?

9.5. To what extent did you reflect citizens' demands during projects? Have you observed changes over the years?

10. What kind of participatory design methods and tools were used throughout the whole process?

11. Do you think that the participation process and participatory methods were efficient? Why?

12.1. What were the spatial and social outcomes when initiating projects?

12.2. Have you observed any change in the intended outputs of the projects over time?

12.A1. You stated that there is a differentiation in the spatial and social outcomes of

the projects over time. So, has this changed your perspective on participatory

planning projects? If yes, can you open it? How was your view in the past, how is it now?

12.A2. You stated that there was no differentiation in the project outcomes over time,

was there a difference in their perspectives over time? What do you think is the reason why the intended social outputs of the Municipality have no