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A METHODOLOGY OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING[1]

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The aim of this chapter is to present for discussion a methodological approach to participatory planning from the perspective of environmental psychology. The presentation seeks to explain: why environmental psychology should be interested in this type of planning, what participatory planning is like in some of its varieties, and how and with what methodological tools this activity might be conducted. Finally, the likely impact on both behavior and the environment will be discussed.

THE PROBLEMATIC NATURE OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

The previous Handbook of Environmental Psychology (Stokols & Altman, 1987) ignored rather conspicuously the theme of participation in spite of the many movements and trends in action research and participatory planning and design, from the 1960s on. Student riots in Europe and political protests in favor of civil rights and against nuclear weapons and the Vietnam war as well as the rise of the neighborhood movement and the grass-roots organizations in the United States and Canada, paved the way for seeing planning as a form of political action, directed at realizing certain values (Castells, 1983; Connor, 1996;Taylor, 1998). Some of the early planning theorists who were sensitive to the value-laden and political nature of planning sought to promote forms of participatory planning that would simultaneously improve democracy as a whole. Davidoff (1965) not only stressed the necessity of making and debating choices during the phases of planning but also pointed out that it was the duty of planners to act as “advocates” for client groups whose interests were not adequately represented. Alinsky (1972, cited in Sanoff, 1999) utilized various methods to mobilize citizens on the neighborhood level to grasp local control and consumer power. Sherry Arnstein (1969, 216) claimed that “participation without redistribution of power is a frustrating process for the powerless”. She formulated her much cited “ladder of participation”, which raised the question concerning the degree to which the public should be given a say over and have power to decide their affairs.

Several experiments in participatory planning around housing and community building took place in Europe during the 1960s and 1970s (Bernfeld, Mayerl & Mayerl, 1980). Hungarian-born Yona Friedman (1970) not only created popular utopias for ordinary people about cities in France, but also designed serial cartoons to enable residents in poor areas of Europe and in developing countries to improve their neighborhoods and towns (Y. Friedman, 1975). After the student riots of the late 1960s, there was a wave of interest in co-housing in Denmark. Collective construction and living were seen as a solution to the demands of raising children since both women and men were working. “Every child should have 100 parents” was the slogan that inspired an interdisciplinary Nordic women´s group to create the utopia of a “new everyday life” and its supportive structures (Forskargruppen, 1987; Horelli & Vepsä, 1994). Johannes Olivegren (1975) created his method of user-planning for collective groups of dwelling in Sweden. The corresponding Finnish version of participation was a system of self-planning for housing, developed by Heikki Kukkonen

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(1984), which was, however, too radical for that stage of societal development in Finland. The United Kingdom had several early promoters of participation. Among the most influential internationally, were Colin Ward (1976) and John Turner (1976), who inspired many followers in their native country and abroad to promote the role of residents, including children, in the development of housing and living environments.

Public participation was nurtured in the 1980s and 1990s both by the theories of planning as communicative action (Healey, 1997; Forester, 1999) and by innovations in the practical tools for participatory endeavors (Wilcox, 1994; Hamdi & Goethert; Sanoff, 1999; Wates, 2000).

Currently, participatory planning enjoys a varying status in different parts of the world depending on the political, economic, and administrative culture of the country, the prevailing planning system, and the stage of transformative empowerment of citizens, enabled by the interactive application of information and communication technology (Castells, 1996). Many of the most inspiring participatory tools have been created in the developing countries (Worsley, 1967). Several Western industrialized nations still have complex planning systems, full of rules and regulations that have been created for the governance of an industrial society (European Commission, 1997). Thus, they have had difficulties in shifting from an expert-led, top-down system of planning to one that would grant a voice to different partners and the networks of citizens. Phenomena like NIMBY (not in my backyard) or LULU (locally unwanted land uses) have made the implementation of participatory results difficult, especially in the better-off neighborhoods. In addition, signs of manipulation – co-option of participatory projects by powerful local interests (Francis, 1988; Hester, 1996) - and even exploitation of poor people as cheap labor for housing construction have not been infrequent (Hamdi & Goethert, 1997).

Many kinds of participatory planning seem to exist the names of which vary according to the taste of the author. Some of the examples are advocacy planning (Davidoff, 1965), self-planning (autoplanification, Y. Friedman, 1970; itsesuunittelu, Kukkonen, 1984), transactive planning (Friedman, 1973), user-planning (brukarplanering, Olivegren, 1975), community action planning (Hamdi & Goerthert, 1997), deliberative planning (Forester, 1999), communicative or collaborative planning (Healey, 1997; Innes & Booher, 1999a), community planning and design (Sanoff, 1999).

The naming of the phenomenon is not the only difficulty. Participatory planning is in fact a typical “mess” of late modern times that seems to involve a set of interconnected problems that are difficult to conceptualize and analyze (Chisholm, 1998). Some of the problems are the access to planning arenas, the eligibility of participants, and the selection of appropriate methods and techniques to be used. The core problem lies in the fuzzy relationship between participatory planning and decision making or in that between direct and representative democracy.

Little focus has so far been granted to the methodology of participatory planning, perhaps because of the complexity of its conceptualization. This is not alleviated by the gap in scope and level of abstraction that seems to exist between the approaches of theoreticians and practitioners of participatory planning (Taylor, 1998; Forester, 1999; Wates, 2000). However, both expert groups seem to have in common the focus on the process of planning at the expense of the outcomes and their internal or external evaluation.

Consequently, it is difficult to assess the real impact of participatory planning and design on people and their settings.

The methodological approach presented here is based on a meta-analysis of theoretical and practical planning literature, on an analysis of some 30 case-studies sent in by members of EDRA (Environment, Design, Research Association) and IAPS (International Association for People-Environment Studies), as well as on the author´s personal involvement with participation for nearly 3 decades.

FRAMING THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

The methodological approach to participatory planning from the perspective of environmental psychology is constructed from three sources:

- concepts of environmental psychology and environment-behavior-design research, which provide the basis for the argumentation regarding why participation is important for environmental psychology
- concepts of collaborative planning and approaches, including enabling tools, as described by the practitioners of community design and action planning that help to define what participatory planning is
- concepts and strategies of action research, which assist in defining how participatory planning can be methodologically approached.

Why Should Environmental Psychology Bother about Participatory Planning?

Several arguments exist for, why participation in planning and decision making by citizens is necessary and desirable. Participation is a human, moral, and democratic right, a duty in the new type of welfare society, and a necessary resource for mastering the problems of "glocalization" (the tensions between the globalization of markets and the local efforts of survival; Healey, 1997). But what is the argument for why participatory planning should be important for environmental psychology?

There is no consensus on the definition and scope of environmental psychology (EP). According to a review of six textbooks by Sime (1999), some of the authors regard EP as a subdiscipline within psychology or social psychology (Bonnes & Secchiaroli, 1995). Others see it as part of the multidisciplinary field of environment-behavior (EB) research (Bechtel, 1997). Sommer (2000) prefers a dual approach in which EP is both a subdiscipline within the behavioral sciences and a field of study involving people from a variety of disciplines and professions. The author of this chapter is in favor of an interdisciplinary approach to the field, the foci of which are the psycho-social and behavioral processes of different individuals and groups of people in diverse settings in the varying phases of the cycle of research, policy planning, design, implementation, and evaluation (cf. Moore, 1987). Thus, the approach is close to that of environment-behavior-design research but with a special focus on the environment-behavior transactions that are interpreted from the perspective of individual, communal, and societal regulation (Horelli, 1999). Communal regulation means the opportunity of a group or local collective to influence environmental issues, for instance, through participatory planning. Societal regulation takes place as regional policy, zoning laws, or urban policy programs. Individual regulation can be seen as the subjective appropriation of the environment and the processing of this experience in which the setting and its cues are used as a means of psychic self-regulation (Horelli, 1993,1995; Korpela, 1995). The latter comprises the construction and maintenance of self through psychic work

(mental operations with images, intentions, thoughts, dreams), use of the body, and through behavior or activities in the social and the built environment as well as in nature. Environmental transactions can be examined both as verbal and non-verbal communication (cf. Rapoport, 1982). They also involve a form of internal communication in which the participant processes meaningful emotions, cognitions, and symbols (Noschis, 1988). The approach is in fact an expansion of the transactional perspective to environmental psychology (Altman & Rogoff, 1987) in the sense that it lays more emphasis on both the psychological interpretations of and the societally mediated nature of environmental transactions (Bronfenbrenner, 1993; Horelli, 1999).

Planning and design are regarded in this framework as supporters of environmental transactions that enhance the fit or congruence between the needs and intentions of the users and their settings. The approach sets requirements for the quality of the planning content. The approach also implies a demand for methods that enhance the communicative nature of the planning process. The latter means that the procedural theories of planning should explain, how participation can be organized in such a way that the planning cycle becomes an arena for learning and capacity building of citizens, experts, and decision makers.

Thus, *the argument for participatory planning within environmental psychology is based on the conception that participatory planning can be a medium that supports successful communicative transactions benefiting women and men, young and old, from varying ethnic groups and social classes, in different environments.*

What Is Participatory Planning?

Different disciplines or fields, such as political science, community organization or environment-behavior studies, tend to define citizen or public participation in varying ways (Churchman, 1987, 1990). Therefore, defining participatory planning requires an examination of the literature on planning theories and of the writings of practitioners.

The history of urban planning theories after the Second World War has been characterized, especially in the Anglo-American countries, by two significant changes (Taylor, 1998). The first one took place in the 1960s, when the tradition of *planning as urban design* was transformed into a *systems and rational process view of planning*. This ended the centuries-long tradition of seeing planning as mostly physical design of human settlements aiming at the production of master plans and blue-prints for the construction and implementation of settings of high aesthetic quality. The systems view of planning saw its object, whether neighborhood, town, or region, as a system of inter-related activities in a constant state of flux. The focus of planning was, besides the physical environment the social, cultural, and economic aspects that affected the lives of people and institutions. Consequently, urban planning was conceptualized as an exercise in systems analysis the results of which were reflected mostly in strategic plans (local planning went on as usual). This shift also meant that the geographical and morphological conception of space was replaced by a sociological and even an economic one (Harvey, 1973, cited in Taylor, 1998). Planning itself was thought of as a rational process of decision-making the goals of which were not an end state. Faludi (1973) distinguished substantive theories, dealing with the subject matter or content, from procedural theories, focused on the process of planning. In fact, he understood planning as a process of rational action, comprising the

definition of problems and goals, identification and evaluation of alternative plans and policies, implementation, and monitoring of the effects.

However, the rational model of instrumental (means-end) reasoning and the comprehensiveness of the plans soon met with criticism. On the one hand, Lindblom (1959, cited in Taylor 1998) argued for a non-comprehensive and *incremental approach to planning* in his famous article "The Science of Muddling Through". On the other hand, Davidoff (1965) and others criticized the technical fallacy of the approaches that hid the value-laden and hence, political nature of planning. *The role of the planner should be that of an advocate.*

The second significant change took place in the 1970s and 1980s, when the gradual shift in the role of the planner became conspicuous. It was *a shift to viewing the planner, not as a technical expert, but as a negotiator, communicator, or facilitator who enables various participants or stakeholders to express themselves and make planning value judgments* (Taylor, 1998). This communication model of urban planning has dominated the academic discussions of the1990s.

The communicative or collaborative "turn" in planning became a term to denote the types of practice whose emphasis is on interaction and communication among various stakeholders. On one hand, it draws on the American pragmatism developed in the philosophy of John Dewey and Richard Rorty. On the other, it is based on the theory of communicative rationality or action by Jurgen Habermas (Feinstein, 2000). Collaborative planning is heavily based on a consensus-building tradition in which stakeholders of different interests are guided through the phases of the planning cycle by facilitators. They apply a variety of methods to animate the discourses, which might turn into collaborative tinkering (Innes & Booher,1999a; Susskind, McKearnan, & Thomas-Larmer, 1999). Judith Innes approaches the content of planning through concepts borrowed from complexity science. The latter sees the world as a self-organizing and adaptive learning system in which new solutions and patterns of action emerge, if space is made for them. Consensus building can provide the necessary information flow and links that help the complex adaptive system move to higher levels of performance (Innes & Booher, 1999b).

Patsy Healey (1997) brings an institutional approach to collaborative planning by focusing on, besides communicative planning practices with individuals (the soft infrastructure), the institutional frames of planning systems within which the planning takes place (the hard infrastructure). She argues for planning systems that will encourage more collaborative and inclusionary forms of planning practice. This might bring about individual and institutional capacity, which assists in dealing with the social, economic, environmental and spatial problems of "fragmented societies". Healey is more interested in the transformative influence upon existing structures, whereas the U.S. version of collaborative planning focuses more on agency and the informal negotiations between the participating stakeholders.

The positive aspect of collaborative planning is that it brings new participants into the theory and practice of planning and seeks to care for and value a range of knowledges and reasoning from different sources (Healey, 1997). The outcome of such a process might be consensus over the planning solutions or decisions as well as much needed social and political capital for communities (Innes & Booher, 1999b). Schneekloth and

Shibley (1995) elaborate a similar kind of approach to design by placing architecture into the practice of collaborative placemaking.

The main criticism of collaborative planning focuses on the neglect of power, especially in the American, individualist version (cf. Flyvbjerg, 1998). An other criticism is the non-empirical treatment of structure and agency (Allmendinger, 1999). Collaborative planning also pays too much attention to the role of the planner as the central element of communication, at the expense of dealing with the visions, content, and distribution of the outcomes of planning (Campbell & Marshall, 1999a). Last but not least, collaborative planning has so far been surprisingly gender neutral or even gender blind, even though several pioneers of collaborative planning have been women.

The latest directions in planning theory are the “New Urbanism” with its focus on the physical image (although not place making; cf. Shibley, 1998) of the desirable town and the “just city”, with its model of spatial relations based on equity (Feinstein, 2000). They corroborate Taylor´s (1998) claim that there cannot be just one theory of town planning. There are different kinds of urban planning theories that answer different questions. Procedural theories, such as the rational process view and incremental and collaborative planning, provide answers concerning the process of planning. Questions concerning the content and outcomes are answered by the substantive theories of the traditional design approach and the New Urbanism but also by some forms of pragmatic and advocacy planning. There seems to be a shortage of adequate substantive theories, although some of the ecological ones around Local Agenda 21 are promising.

Some planning theories are more explicit about their normative elements than others. The rational process view and collaborative planning include prescriptions of how to carry out the process properly or fairly. Ethical concerns comprising both good outcomes and fair actions, in the service of both individuals and the community, are taken up only in the theories of participatory planning, such as advocacy planning (Campbell & Marshall, 1999a).

Academic adherents of collaborative planning concentrate on the nature of participatory planning, whereas the practitioners focus on how participatory planning should be carried out in specific contexts. The code of ethics of the International Association of Public Participation Practitioners (Michaelson, 1996) provides a model of behavior for inclusive participatory practice. The code implies that people should have a say in decisions about actions that affect their lives. Participation should provide necessary information for and facilitate the involvement of those potentially affected. Participation should also include the promise that the public´s contribution will influence the decisions and that the authorities will communicate to participants how their input was, or was not, utilized.

The differences between theoreticians and practitioners are conspicuous in their varying approaches to planning arenas. According to Voogd (1998), planning arenas can be categorized by their territorial level (local or regional), the level of legal regulations (formal or relaxed), the power structure of the actors (hierarchical or mixed), the level of integration of planning (sectoral or comprehensive), and the level of abstraction (strategic or operational).

The planning arenas that seem to concern theoreticians of collaborative planning are characterized by local or regional territorial levels and by strategic and comprehensive,

rather than operational and sectoral, planning. The practitioners of participatory planning, on the contrary, seem to be most active on the local level. The planning is operational and sectoral or trans-sectoral, and it takes place in either hierarchical or mixed power structures. Practitioners also tend to focus on the application of a wider palette of enabling tools than theoreticians.

If urban or community and regional planning are not a science, but rather a form of social, ethical, and political action and practice, directed at shaping the physical environment (Taylor, 1998), what is participatory planning? Because of the abundance of different kinds of participatory planning, the definition has to be so generic that it refers to planning in a wide variety of contexts. It should be based on both procedural and substantive theories, with normative and ethical tones in terms of fair implementation of the participatory process and just distribution of outcomes for the individual and the community. It should also take an explicit stance on the desired level of decision making in the specific context. Thus, *participatory planning is a social, ethical, and political practice in which individuals or groups, assisted by a set of tools, take part in varying degrees at the overlapping phases of the planning and decision-making cycle that may bring forth outcomes congruent with the participants´ needs and interests*. Although the users or the residents are a necessary stakeholder group in participatory planning, a distinction is not made here between the participation of residents and the involvement of authorities or professionals, as Churchman (1987, 1990) has done, because participation increasingly involves a great variety of stakeholder groups.

Participatory planning as defined above might support the communicative transactions of participants in the overlapping phases of the planning cycle (cf. Figure 1). It might also bring forth, in addition to the geographical, economic, and sociological space, a psychological and behavioral space that is congruent with the needs and interests of the participants and the community. This is a hypothesis needing testing and assessment that the methodological approach to participatory planning should take into account.

How Can Participatory Planning Be Approached Methodologically

Methodology refers to the aims, concepts, and principles of reasoning and action of some discipline or practice, including its strategy and mode of research or implementation. Methodology is closely connected to one or several paradigms. Paradigms are general concepts or world-views of a discipline, associated with a certain ontology and epistemology. The chosen methodological approach is usually set by the problem under examination. The core problem here is: How can (with what strategy and methods) participatory planning support the communicative transactions of the participants in specific contexts, and what is the impact of the process on varying groups of people and their environments?

Participatory planning involves, however, besides the practical problems mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, a set of interconnected problems that relate to the intermingling of normative and explanatory statements about the planning process and its outcomes. Normative means that the description of the issue implies a value statement or that the phenomenon is expressed in a prescriptive mode of what ought to be done or what good results should be like.

Epistemologically problematic is the fact that environment-behavior-design research has and still is operating mostly within the post-positivist paradigm, in which the explanatory mode of inquiry dominates. Participatory planning, on the other hand, like post-modern architecture, represents a multiparadigmatic and fragmented phenomenon that combines several conflicting elements (cf. Groat & Despres, 1991). Locating participatory planning in the borders between modern and postmodern theories of knowledge and social practice might be one solution to the dilemma. Schneekloth and Shibley (1995) argue that the complex realm of borders between modern (either - or positions and standpoints) and postmodern thought (embracing contradictions) provides places for dialogue between multiple and partial knowledges of professionals, politicians and lay people, in each site of intervention.

The most suitable methodological approach that recognizes the creation of both change and knowledge is provided by action research (AR). It is a fairly loose methodological orientation and strategy. AR can be applied from various theoretical perspectives (psychological, social, critical, feminist) since it is not tied to one specific theory. AR acquires its substance from the object and context where it is applied, whether in education, working life, organizational development, waste management, or urban and rural planning (cf. Wisner, Stea & Kruks,1991). Currently, the differences between the two main strands of action research are being blurred (Stringer, 1996). The individually or psychosocially oriented Anglo-American strand has its roots in the pragmatism of John Dewey. It was explicitly formulated into action research by Kurt Lewin (1948) and later on developed into reflective action science (Argyris and Schon, 1991) and participatory action research (Whyte, 1991) including participatory evaluation (cf. Sabo, 1999; Horelli & Roininen, 2000). The societally oriented strand of AR draws from the critical theory of the German philosophers Adorno and Horkheimer, in the 1930s. Their thought was expanded by Jurgen Habermas (1979, 1984, 1994), whose writings on the value-laden basis, conditions, and legitimacy of knowledge production have influenced both participatory planning and critical action research. This critical strand of AR focuses on questioning and changing the underlying value structure of society, institutions, and daily praxis. Its tenets have been adopted and further elaborated by the Deakin school of action research in Australia (Carr & Kemmis, 1986) but also by some U.S. researchers of planning and design (Schneekloth, 1987; Wisner et al. 1991; Sabo, 1999).

The shared characteristics of different types of action research include the involvement of many participants in a change process and even in knowledge production (Whyte, 1991). Most AR also implies an adherence to democratic values and a critical attitude to the object of change. Collaborative learning plays a central role, which is enhanced by the creation of arenas for dialogue and by the application of enabling tools. The latter may create favorable conditions for the circle of reflexive or even double-loop learning (Kolb, 1984:42; see also Argyris & Schon, 1991; Horelli, 1997). Thus the social and material change caused by the action might also result in local theory (a new shared framework), which is cocreated by participants who test it, when acting on it (Elden & Levin, 1991).

Carr and Kemmis (1986), on the basis of the earlier work of Habermas (1979), suggest three types of action research the appropriateness of which depends on the object and context of the project. In the *technical type,* the researcher is an independent outsider who concentrates on the empirical analysis of the phenomenon undergoing change. In the *practical type*, the researcher collaborates with the participants and urges them to perceive and reflect on the action and its goals. In the *emancipatory or critical type,* the researcher

is a change agent and coordinator who shares the responsibility for the process and project with the participants. The latter are urged to question the conditions and power structure of the project as well as its societal and historical context. Wisner et al. (1991) prefer to speak about instrumental and transformative AR. The latter seeks to change the social consciousness of the participants and the social structures of the context, whereas the former is concerned with the effectiveness of the endeavor.

Habermas (1984, 1994) turned his interest from critical theory to the development of the conditions for and validity claims of ideal discourse – communicative rationality and authentic dialogue. The principles of the latter mean, for instance, that the participants in collaborative planning should speak in its ideal form with sincerity, legitimacy, accuracy, and comprehensibility (Innes & Booher, 1999a, 1999b).

The differences and similarities of varying knowledges produced during participatory planning and design, such as place knowledge (material and physical), local knowledge (people´s subjective interpretations), and situational knowledge (partial contextual visions), require continuous negotiation of meaning and position (Schneekloth & Shibley, 1995). Also the externalization of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge requires special techniques (Nonaka & Takeuchi,1995). All these, consensus-building tools included, can be regarded as knowledge-making technologies that assist in determining, what constitutes legitimate knowledge and how the knowledge will or should be used.

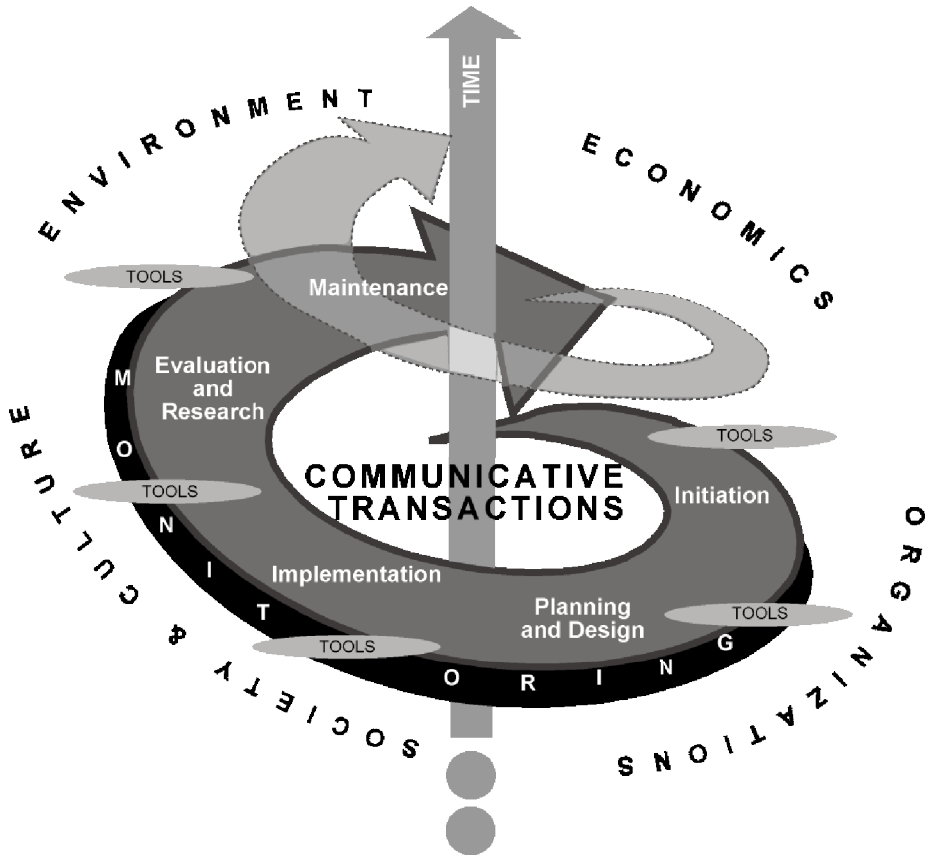

Figure 1. A schema of the methodological approach to participatory planning.

Action research and participatory planning share the iterative and spiral-like flow of evolvement in which perception, reflection, and new orientation (planning) unfold

throughout the process (cf. Horelli, 1997). Thus, it is possible to integrate AR as part of the methodological approach to participatory planning. Figure 1 presents the methodological schema of participatory planning, at the center of which lie the communicative transactions of participants in a specific environmental, organizational, economic, cultural, and temporal context. The transactions are supported by appropriate tools during the overlapping phases of the planning process – initiation, planning, design, implementation, evaluation, and maintenance. Both participatory planning and action research initiate the process with a preliminary analysis of and reflection on the context, after which the dialectical and hermeneutic spiral of action research runs more rapidly. The latter is integrated with the phases of planning through continuous self-monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring provides the participants with feedback on the quality of the change process and its results as well as on the advances in collaborative learning leading to knowledge creation. Evaluation might take the form of research in which the impact of participation can be examined in depth. Research is then conducted from a chosen theoretical perspective in accordance with the problem in question.

The application of enabling tools and methods for the promotion of action and knowledge creation, plays a significant role in this methodological approach. Sabo (1999) argues that participation becomes a transformative, relational activity if its methods grow out of group activity. Especially young participants and women seem to profit from the creation of their own enabling tools (Owens, 1997;Horelli, Booth & Gilroy, 2000; Svane, 2001). There are, however, certain conditions that should be taken into consideration in the choice and appropriation of tools for participatory planning and design in practice, which are described in the next section.

CONDITIONS FOR SELECTING TOOLS AND METHODS IN PARTICIPATORY PLANNING

Practitioners of various types of participatory planning seem to agree that the following issues, which should be addressed at the initial stage of the planning cycle, will condition the choice of tools and methods in participation (Wilcox, 1994; Hamdi & Goethert, 1997;Sanoff, 1999;Wates, 2000):

- clarification of the context (situational culture; geographic scale; topics and goals of policy, program, or project; extent of intended action; access to resources)
- eligibility of participants (representation of users, professionals, politicians)
- definition of the level of participation (information – full control)
- definition of the phases in which participation occurs (initiation – maintenance of results)
- availability of various types of techniques, methods, or tools

The methodological approach described in Figure 1 will structure the following exposition of the conditions for selecting tools and methods for participatory planning.

An Abundance of Enabling Tools for Participatory Planning

A great variety of techniques, methods and tools exist within participatory planning, but awareness and use of them are not widespread (Sharpe, 1999). Traditional research methods, such as surveys or paper and pencil tests, can be applied at the beginning and at the end of the planning cycle. They do not, however, enhance the communicative process of planning. Therefore, it is important to distinguish another category of techniques that are called enabling tools (Horelli, 1997). A collection of 40 enabling tools, most of which comprise several techniques, is presented in Appendix 1. *Enabling tools refers to any techniques, even traditional research methods, that enhance the transactions and knowledge creation of the stakeholders during the phases of participatory planning*. Tools can also be created by the participants themselves.

Requirements for the development of enabling tools derive from the nature of person - environment transactions, from the needs of knowledge management, and from the logic and nature of the planning process. Consequently, tools are needed to support the communication of the participants with the psychosocial and physical environment. The stakeholders have to be able to recognize their own important symbols and to *express* themselves adequately. Therefore, expressive tools are necessary and enable even children or elderly people to get involved. The participants also need to be able to *diagnose* the context and the quality of the evolution of the process and outcomes (diagnostic tools). Participation involves extensive *organizing* of resources, events, and processes as well as the mastering of social situations and conflicts that demand organizational and consensus building tools. Last but not least, participation is always connected to power issues and to the *political* networks that might demand the application of political tools.

These enabling tools have been classified into four types: diagnostic, expressive, organizational and political (Horelli, 1997; for an other type of classification see Durrenberger & Behringer, forthcoming). The varying types of enabling tools presented in Appendix 1 are, however, overlapping in the sense that most tools belong to two or three categories, even if the main focus is on one particular issue. The collection of tools also includes a few “methodological packages”, such as charettes (special design workshops) or CAP (community action planning), the scope of which covers all the phases and most issues of participatory planning. Since they require a great deal of organizing they have been put into the category of organization.

This long list of enabling tools, which is far from exhaustive, offers a good range of choices for dealing with diagnostic, expressive and organizational tasks. Nevertheless, the list lacks tools for managing political issues that reflect the problematic relationship that participatory planning has with power and politics.

Clarification of The Context of Participation

Any participation project, regardless of its size or significance, should start by discussing its context. Some of the critical questions to be discussed with the participants at the initiation of the project or process are the following:

What is the cultural (political) context ?
What is the geographic scale or territorial level of participation?
What are the topic and goals of the project, program or policy?
What is the extent of action in which the participants will be involved?

What will the levels of integration and abstraction of planning be?
What will the available resources (money, time, personnel, spaces) be?

The cultural and political context, a complicated social issue, can initially be reflected upon by analyzing the regulations level (formal or relaxed regulations concerning the process and product of planning) or the type of power structure (hierarchical – top-down - or mixed; Voogd, 1998). The mixed and less formally regulated power structure allows space for "autonomous participation". This means that the forms of organization are determined by the participants, in contrast to "mobilized participation", which is initiated by external actors to the community (cf. Churchman, 1987). The latter is typical of a hierarchical and formally regulated culture.

Awareness of the geographic scale or territorial level of participation in planning is important. Local planning is closer to citizens and is often operational and implementation oriented. Regional planning deals with strategic (long term) and comprehensive planning, which is less frequently open to meaningful public participation. The strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) -analysis is a simple method for involving various citizen groups in the assessment of the cultural and political context, especially if the SWOTs are conducted from the point of view of women and men, young and old, or varying ethnic groups (see Appendix 1; Horelli et al., 2000).

The topic and the goals of the project or program are also determinants of the attractiveness of participation. Sustainable development and waste management may attract different participants from those interested in housing or social issues. The goals of the project, which usually evolve during the process and require several redefinitions, can at the initial stage be quickly diagrammed as problem and goal trees or conceptualized with simple charts (Appendix 1; Wates, 2000; Chambers, 1992). Later on, the goals might be checked through visioning and the making of scenarios. Special planning assistance kits with sheets for prioritizing concerns and conflicts, the setting and choosing of goals, strategies, options and trade-offs have been created for participatory purposes (Hamdi & Goerthert, 1997). Visioning can also take place through on-line social networks and computer-mediated discussions (Kimball & Rheingold, 2001).

Participation also varies in terms of the extent of action. Action can be high and intensive at the individual or communal level, such as recycling or tree planting, whereas it is low at the institutional level, for instance as a member of urban policy committees. The impact of the latter is, however, greater and potentially has a wider impact (cf. Sharp & Connelly, 2000).

The availability of resources should also be mapped from the very beginning, as participation always requires human, material, and temporal resources. Later on, the mapping of resources can take the form of profiling, auditing, or even photographing (Appendix 1; Martin, 2000). The application of information and communication techniques (ICT) provides a promising participatory tool if the access to it is organized in a communal way. For instance, Al-Kodmany (2000) has applied a Web-based survey, linked through a server to a GIS program (geographic information system), to map residents´ concerns, preferences, and resources in a Chicago neighborhood. Similar experiments have been conducted with Finnish young people (Horelli & Kaaja, 2000).

Eligibility of Participants

Some of the critical questions concerning the eligibility of participants are:

Can everybody participate in the project or process?
Who decides who can participate, if the participation is limited?
What are the criteria of representation for citizenship or the public?

Openness of participation depends on the situational context as well as the goals and initiators of the project. In small- scale projects of direct participation, all those interested can get involved. Sometimes, however, people are not motivated to get involved for one reason or another. In more complex contexts, one criterion for involvement might be the degree of threat participants represent for the established system. Those groups that are unlikely to challenge the existing policy, are considered safe, whereas networked and well-informed participant groups might be dangerous (Sharp & Connelly, 2000).

According to Pitkin (1967, cited in Churchman, 1990) the criteria for representing "the public" in participation can be formal, as in elections or similarity in terms of demographics, attitudes, or behavioral characteristics. The criterion might also be symbolic, as when the representative is an object of identification by the others, or it maybe the sharing of interests with the constituency. Practitioners tend to divide the participants into politicians, professionals (both planning and business experts), and lay people or citizens. The latter are further classified into activists, local groups, residents in general, or end-users (Wilcox, 1994). Participation projects often under-represent minority groups, women, and young and elderly people. What ever the case is, an effort should be made to tap a large variety of representatives of the community, based on both demographics, interest, and geographical location through mapping techniques or stakeholder analysis (Appendix 1).

Choice of The Level of Participation in Terms of The Overlapping Phases of The Process

The opportunity to participate and the role of the participants will also vary according to the level and phase of participation.
Some of the critical questions concerning the level and phases of participation are:

What are the varying phases of participatory planning?
What are the different levels of participation?
Will the stakeholders participate in all the phases equally?

Planning and development, place-making included, imply cyclical processes that can be classified for analytic purposes into phases or stages. The latter are not separate from one another in practice but overlapping and iterative. The phasing, described in Figure 1 and Table 1, has been chosen from several sources (Moore, 1987; Hamdi & Goerhert, 1997; Wates, 2000). *Initiation* refers here to the beginning of the process in which the preliminary clarification of the context, the definition of participants, the choice of the level of participation, and the preliminary selection of tools are made. *Planning comprises* the programming or briefing of the project in which the details and specific activities are defined. *Design* involves technical expertise that develops the details of the plans. *Implementation* means the execution of the project through constructing the buildings,

installing the infrastructure, or putting up some training or social programs. *Evaluation* (and research) consists of the analysis and assessment of the monitored data, gathered throughout the project. *Maintenance* means the transference of results and nurturing them in a long-term perspective.

The level of participation is connected to the goals of participation. The latter are not, however, the same as the goals of the project or program, although they might be associated with one another. Churchman (1987) distinguished six higher-order goals of participation in her seminal study of Israel´s Project Renewal: the furthering of democratic values; bringing about political, social, or personal change; legitimizing planning solutions; educating the public, and achieving congruence with the preferences of different groups through planning. The latter is a typical goal of environmental psychology, whereas the furthering of democratic values and the promotion of political and social change belong to the sphere of politics or political science. Because of the great variety of goals of participation, they might be incompatible with and even contradictory to one another.

Inherent in the goals of participatory planning is the power of the public to have an impact on decision making. Sherry Arnstein´s (1969) ladder, which is a visual metaphor depicting the balance of power between the participants and decision makers, has been criticized for being too simplistic and not empirically valid. The rungs of the ladder, starting from non-participation (manipulation and therapy)and moving through tokenism (informing, consultation, and placation) to degrees of citizen power (partnership, delegated power, and citizen control) are overlapping and do not recognize the complexities of the varying interests of different players in the participation processes (Sharp & Connelly, 2000).

Nevertheless, Arnstein´s ladder is ethically illuminating (Forester, 1993) in that it takes a stance in favor of the powerless. It also indicates, even if metaphorically, the level of influence or control and space for action by the citizens in specific projects. For instance, in the hierarchical and formally regulated planning contexts of continental Europe, full citizen control is rarely achieved since the legislation only recognizes the decision making of political representatives. Partnership then means the collaboration with the planner or other professional gatekeepers of planning issues, but not partnership with political decision makers.

In spite of the defects in the ladders of participation, it is important to be able to indicate what level of control the users or residents have in specific projects. Therefore, a five-level scale of participation is adopted here. The levels, which are only indicative, since the borders of the levels cannot be exactly defined, include (cf. Hamdi and Goerthert 1997; Wates, 2000):

- *no participation* – no involvement of users or the community; authorities are in charge.
- *information* - authorities are still in charge but one-way flow of information exists either as informing or retrieving data from the public, for instance, through surveys. The community is treated in the abstract.
- *consultation* – authorities are in charge of the project, but they ask opinions about the presented options (in North America, consultation may sometimes mean almost partnership). The role of the community is that of an interest group.

- *partnership* – shared working and decision making with the authorities (not necessarily politicians in formally regulated planning cultures). The role of the community is that of stakeholders who have a stake in the project.
- *community control* – the community (users and residents) decides and the experts or practitioners are used as resources.

The level of participation often varies in terms of the phases of the planning cycle. There are examples of the involvement of the public in all the phases at the highest levels (Horelli, 1993), although they are rare. Wates (2000) and Hamdi and Goerthert (1997) argue that the criterion for real participation lies, at least, at the partnership level of the planning phase.

Table 1. A matrix of level and phase of participation with examples of appropriate enabling tools and research methods.

	OVERLAPPING PHASES OF THE CYCLE OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING				
INDICATIVE LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION	**Initiation**	**Planning and design**	**Implementation**	**Evaluation/ Research**	**Maintenance**
Community control	Paper and pencil tests, visioning	Modeling, games, trade offs	Contracted and self-building	Internal and external evaluation	Contracted or self-maintenance
Partnership	Future workshops, mapping, stakeholder analysis	Planning workshops Consensus building	Contracted and self-building, training workshops	Self-evaluation portfolios Citizen panels	Collaborative maintenance
Consultation	Surveys, meetings/ Campaigns, demonstrations	Communication and information techniques (ICT)	Displays	POE	Surveys, ICT
Information	Leaflets, lobbying	Media	Videos	Traditional research methods	Traditional research methods

Table 1 provides a matrix that can be used to analyze and even to outline participatory projects, such as playgrounds, schools, small housing communities, or local agendas. As neighborhood rehabilitation or regional planning often includes a set of different “projects” or sub-elements, each of them requires a matrix of its own.

Selection of Appropriate Tools and Methods

After examining the context, the eligibility of participants, the level and phase of participation, it is time to choose the appropriate tools and methods. The critical question will then be:
What enabling tools and methods should be applied in the different phases in terms of the varying levels of participation?

Table 1 can assist in answering the question above. The varying phases of participatory planning tend to require different types of enabling tools and research methods. Diagnostic tools dominate the initiation phase, whereas the planning phase abounds with expressive and organizational tools. Implementation, which is quite seldom dealt with in the case studies of participatory planning, lacks enabling tools. Implementation rather consists of the organizing of concrete actions, as is also the case with the phase of maintenance. The evaluation phase comprises again mainly diagnostic tools and traditional research methods.

The different levels of participation imply not only varying degrees of influence and control by the stakeholders but also different amounts of personal and collective involvement. Therefore, t*he higher the level of participation, the larger the spectrum of tools and methods that can be applied or created*. Examples of community control or partnership, such as the participatory planning of a school (Sanoff, 1999) or of a cohousing community (Horelli, 1993) or participatory urban risk reduction and disaster management (Bhatt, Gupta & Sharma, 1999), and environmental rehabilitation (Stea & Rodriguez, 2001) display the application of a wide set of tools. They include modeling and simulation (Kukkonen, 1994; Lawrence, 1993), games and trade-offs (Sanoff, 1979,1999), and a great variety of consensus building techniques (Susskind et al., 1999). This is the level where all kinds of planning and design workshops or charettes lasting from one to several days, are appropriate (see Appendix 1; Hamdi & Goerthert, 1997; Clitheroe, 2000).

Participatory programming or project briefing for spatial redesigning (cf. Vischer, 2001) or accessible design often comprise and invent new tools, which are sensitive to the special needs of groups, like senior citizens or handicapped people (Luck, Haenlein & Bright, 2001). However, if the level of participation is only information or consultation, false expectations concerning the effect upon decision-making should be avoided, as by involving the public with deeply mobilizing enabling tools, such as workshops of community action planning.

The chosen level of participation has political consequences. Churchman´s study (1990) indicates that although government-initiated projects do not necessarily lead to cooption, they seldom result in radical change. Nevertheless, if the public is not content with the granted minor level of participation, it might start applying political tools that are outside the consensus-building spirit (Susskind et al, 1999). Campaigning or organizing demonstrations might grant the citizens a higher level of participation opportunities (cf. Flyvbjerg, 1998) or paralyze it altogether, like in the demonstrations around the WTO negotiations. Consequently, *the choice of tools and methods for participation depends not only on the phase of planning cycle but also on the adopted level of participation in a specific context*.

THE IMPACT OF PARTICIPATORY PLANNING – A DOMAIN FOR SYSTEMATIC RESEARCH

There are at least two reasons why the question concerning the impact of participatory planning is difficult to answer. Firstly, monitoring and evaluation are not among the key issues taken up by practitioners. Participatory planning, which is enhanced by enabling tools, produces a great deal of data in both visual and verbal form. The data is, however, seldom systematically documented, gathered, analyzed and interpreted, perhaps because of the intensity of the action-oriented process.

The practical knowledge may remain tacit or underdeveloped unless the knowledge creation processes are integrated with evaluation or action research. The creation of a monitoring and evaluation system at the initiation phase, is a way to connect the application of the chosen enabling tools to systematic knowledge creation (cf. Figure 1). This kind of monitoring might take the form of self-evaluation portfolios containing assessment sheets for the tasks of different phasesthat the stakeholders can manage collectively (Sabo, 1999; Horelli & Roininen, 2000). Or the monitoring and evaluation can be organized by internal or external consultants.

At the end of the participatory project, a summative evaluation is often made. Some POEs (post occupancy evaluations) are close to research and they are frequently conducted by outside experts (cf. Preiser, Rabinowitz, & White, 1988). For instance, the POE, conducted by a group of researchers on the participatory creation of Davidson Elementary School in North Carolina, USA, included observations, interviews, and surveys accompanied by quantitative and qualitative analysis. The results disclosed that the new school provides interactive and aesthetically pleasing learning spaces, as was hypothesized, and it enhances the well-being of students and teachers alike (Sanoff, 1999). However, participatory POEs that connect the process to the assessed outcomes (cf. Vischer, 2001) are quite rare.

Secondly, in-depth -evaluation is only recently being taken up in the academic literature of collaborative planning (cf. Khakee,1998). Innes and Booher (1999b) focus on the results of the planning process and expand the evaluation criteria for desired outcomes and impact to include intellectual, social, and political capital as first-order effects. In addition, second- and third-order effects include joint learning, changes in practices, and results on the ground in the form of improvement of services or accessibility of urban parks. In- depth -evaluation and research share many characteristics, but evaluation is always tied to the requirement of utility for the clients, in contrast to traditional research (cf. Patton, 1997).

Some research on the impact of participatory planning has been conducted within environmental psychology. Churchman (1987, 1990) found that residents are mainly interested in tangible issues and that those who participate directly benefit most from the event. Both the process and outcomes of participation seem to be important, but the significance depends on the interests and perspective of the participant. Churchman´s report did not, however, mention the methods of participation used.

Horelli (1993, 1995) studied the impact of a participatory process in which 21 families planned their dwellings and communal spaces at the outskirts of Helsinki by using three-dimensional models and doll house furniture (Kukkonen, 1984). The results indicated that most of the self-planners succeeded in creating psychologically supportive and even

restorative spaces for themselves and the family, but that the community as a whole did not produce social capital to the extent that was expected (see also Noschis, 1988; Lawrence, 1993). Questions, such as, How does the participatory process enhance environmental competence and self-efficacy of children and young people (Kyttä, Kaaja, & Horelli,1998; Chawla, 2000) or empower women and self-builders in derelict neighborhoods (Feldman & Westphal,1999; Wiesenfeld, forthcoming), have recently been answered by applying a great variety of research methods and enabling tools.

Most of the research on the impact of participatory planning indicates that participation often brings forth favorable effects, such as the increase of individual competence and satisfaction or social capital, if the process has been organized and facilitated appropriately. There are also clear tangible results in the form of dwellings, schools or neighborhood infrastructure that meet the criteria of environmental congruence. Nevertheless, these results remain methodologically fragmented as long as there is no shared framework of evaluation and research. Therefore, the impact of participatory planning remains a domain for systematic research that would observe the key issues of participatory planning, namely the clarification of the context, eligibility of participants, the choice of the level of participation, and the selection of tools, which are integrated into a monitoring and evaluation system.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this chapter was to present a methodological approach to participatory planning from the perspective of environmental psychology. The specific questions that were dealt with were: Why should environmental psychology be interested in this type of planning? What is participatory planning like in some of its varieties? With what methodological tools might this activity be conducted? In addition, the likely impact on both behavior and the environment was discussed.

Participatory planning was defined here as “a social, ethical and political practice in which individuals or groups, assisted by a set of tools, take part in varying degrees, at the overlapping phases of the planning and decision-making cycle that may bring forth outcomes congruent with the participants´ needs and interests”. The chosen methodological approach consists of concepts from environmental psychology, planning theories, and action research. It was condensed into a schema (Figure 1) that guided the analysis of case studies on participation and the argumentation concerning the tools and methods for participatory planning. The schema is based on the idea that participatory planning will support the communicative transactions of participants in a specific environmental, organizational, economic, cultural and temporal context. Action research is integrated with the overlapping phases of planning through continuous self-monitoring and evaluation that provides the participants feedback on the quality of the change process and its results.

The application of enabling tools for the promotion of action and knowledge creation, plays a significant role in this methodological approach. Enabling tools or new participatory instruments, as they are sometimes called, are not yet widely known, nor applied, although the lengthy list of enabling tools in Appendix 1 might suggest the opposite (Sharpe, 1999). However, managing the complex conditions that should be taken into consideration before choosing the appropriate tools, might be problematic (cf. Durrenberger & Behringer, forthcoming). The analysis of the case studies indicates that

enabling tools are not knowledge-making technologies in the true sense, unless they are integrated with a monitoring and evaluation system or even with some type of action research.

Has participatory planning succeeded in producing psychological and social spaces that are congruent with the environmental needs of the participants? POEs and some research indicate that participatory planning might have favorable results, such as an increase in the environmental competence of children and young people and in the satisfaction with self-constructed dwelling solutions and neighborhood improvements, if the projects have been properly conducted. The results remain, however, fragmentary because of the lack of a shared methodological framework and the complexity of the issue of participation.

The chosen perspective regarding participation here has been based on the assumption that public participation can be complementary to and an expansion of representative democracy. Thus the adopted approach lies within the borders between the “system” and the “life-world” of the users (Habermas, 1984). The focus is on the opportunities of the users to have an impact on their environment, but their participation is seen as constrained by the culturally and politically conditioned planning systems as well as by the traditions of public production of space.

Participation is entwined in power issues in varying ways. The multiple rationalities embodied in the various knowledges of the participants are infused with particular power relations, not only with decision makers but also within and between different user groups. Consequently, communicative transactions become micro-political processes through which policy meanings, symbols and material forms are constructed and distributed (Healey, 1997). Power in itself is neither good, nor bad. Its quality depends on how and for what purpose it is exercised. It is evident that citizens are tired of being puppets in systems- or government-led participation. On the other hand, some community-led initiatives in the USA in which the unsuccessful (nonfacilitated) balancing of personal interests and the public good, have resulted in paralysing the local decision making altogether (Campbell & Marshall, 1999c).

However, Innes and Booher (1999c) suggest, on the basis of several positive American examples that “network power”, which links players who develop shared perceptions of problems, agendas for needed action, norms and heuristics to guide their actions on a reciprocal basis, could increasingly supplant traditional forms of power. Promising signs of network power and even innovations in dynamic participation (Catterall, 1997) are being provided by the place-based politics of women in some developing countries. In the pursuit of humanizing globalization, their unexpected political strategies imply the linking of identity, body, place, nature, and culture at local, regional, national, and transnational levels into a powerful virtual and real network (Escobar & Harcourt, forthcoming; also Staffans, 2001).

Research on participatory planning in the future would profit from a closer collaboration between users, practitioners, decision makers, and researchers. Users can bring forth issues and strategies of everyday life that are not as tied to the planning system as those of planners and decision makers, but are in need of critical analysis.
Planners and decision makers could test this methodological approach and provide answers, whether the application of enabling tools can assist in the reconciliation of community-led initiatives and the structures of representative democracy? Also the role of

the tools in the creation of supportive settings or social capital, and the application of aggressive instruments, such as demonstrations, in the pursuit of higher levels of participation, require further studies. As the presented methodological approach to participatory planning has mostly been discussed in the light of local cases, it should also be examined on regional and strategic levels, where other issues might be critical (Langer, 2000).

The core question concerning the role of participatory planning as a means to support the communicative transactions of the citizens, is not only scientific but also ethical and political. Providing support and balancing power relations are, of course, not merely a methodological issue. As such, however, they require a transdisciplinary approach in which E-B concepts and methods could play a significant role.

Nevertheless, it is evident that participatory planning has not succeeded in getting into the mainstream of planning despite its 40 years of history. Successful shifting of power from the strong to the weak seems to require significant political and civic will as well as cultivation of democratic values and procedures in planning. The trend is, however, toward an increase in participation or varieties of it since the evolving network society of the information age is deeply embedded in participatory processes.

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Appendix 1

LIST OF TYPES OF ENABLING TOOLS FOR PARTICIPATORY PLANNING WITH EXAMPLES

TYPES AND EXAMPLES OF ENABLING TOOLS	**DESCRIPTION OF ENABLING TOOLS**
DIAGNOSTIC	
Observation	Most forms of observation (structured/unstructured, obtrusive/ unobtrusive, participant/non-participant), focusing on traces, places, E-B-relations, can be used as enabling tools (Bechtel, Marans & Michelson, 1987).
Survey methods	Simple questionnaires, interviews (individual or focus groups; Zeisel, 1981),and checklists are useful survey techniques for finding out potential resources (people, spaces, equipment, organizations) for the planning process.
Paper and pencil tests	A vast array of standardized and specifically tailored self-administrative assessment sheets (tests) exist, which can be collectively discussed as the basis for negotiation: semantic differential, adjective checklists, scales, “Who am I”, “Our family”, visual appraisals, etc. (Bechtel et al. 1987)
Mapping	Behavioral mapping, cognitive mapping, mapping with colored labels (favorite places) can all be used for finding out how people view their settings in different ways, and as a basis for collective solutions (Wates, 2000). Mapping of problems can be displayed in the form of problem trees.
Behavioral plan analysis	Analysis and annotation of the floor plan or the layout of the neighborhood from the perspective of the participants provide a good basis for discussions (Zeisel, 1981).
Walking tours, Visits	Sensory walks or walk-throughs with pre-planned guidance and discussions after-tour discussions often function as a kick off event for a project (Sanoff, 1999). They might also serve as the first phase of a Future workshop (a three-phase session of critique, phantasy and planning).
SWOT-analysis	The SWOT-sheet of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats is one of the quickest ways to conduct a contextual analysis. The analysis can be conducted from women´s and men´s perspectives. It can also be combined with a community risk assessment comprising hazard and risk mapping, threat ranking, vulnerability and capacity analysis

	(Wates, 2000).
Stakeholder analysis	Charting the stakeholders in the various phases of the project is one of the basic steps in participatory planning. It reveals the different players with their interests and possible roles. Different kinds of sheets can be tailored and used (Horelli et al. 2000).
Engendering statistics	Instead of expert produced statistics women and men can participate in the collection of relevant numbers and indicators in local and regional development (Hedman, Perucci & Sundström, 1996).
Audits and appraisals	Many versions of audits exist. A step-wise safety audit, created by Women´s Design Service in London, is a technique to involve ethnic women in the planning of their neighborhood (Horelli et al. 2000). PAR (Participatory Rapid Appraisal; Chambers, 1992) comprises a family of techniques with community collection of information, initially developed for rural areas.
Profiling	Community profiling is a methodological package to build up collectively the picture of the nature, needs and resources of the community. It comprises techniques, such as activity charts, building surveys, walks, mapping, household livelihood analysis etc. (Wates, 2000).
POE	Post-occupancy evaluation, which comprises a set of evaluation techniques (observation, interviews, simulations) for the assessment of the utility of the building or setting, can also be conducted in a participatory manner (Preiser et al. 1988).
Self-evaluation portfolios	Internal or self-evaluation can be made easier for the participants if they have access to a collection of self-assessment sheets for the tasks, in the varying phases of the project (Horelli & Roininen, 2000; Wates, 2000).
EXPRESSIVE	
Photographing and filming	Participants taking photos or making a video of the area under change may have a mobilizing effect, especially on children and young people (Martin, 2000).
Diagramming	Diagrams and charts are effective visual techniques to collect and display information for discussion during the participation process. Types of diagrams are calendars, flows, matrix, mind maps, networks, organization, pie charts, and timetables. The Venn diagram focuses on the roles of and interrelations among different organizations (Wates, 2000)
Drawing and designing	Architect´s drawings and designs might become tools for participative design, if they are used as a medium of communication (Stea, 1988). Children´s drawings tend to enhance their involvement in the planning process.
Modeling and simulating	Most children and adults like to build models, ranging from room layouts, to house, street and neighborhood structures. Scrap material provides inexpensive models. Full-scale environmental simulation techniques (L.E.A.modelling kit in Lausanne) that are both perceptual and dynamic offer an effective medium for participatory design practice (Lawrence, 1993). Simulation can also be used to try out a real event or to test draft plans.
Role playing and drama	Residents can take part in role playing or in socio-drama depicting the future construction and living process (Kukkonen, 1984).
Visioning	Visioning is a tool for thinking about and creating the future. Several

	mobilizing techniques exist for eliciting shared visions: “I have a dream”, community visioning (Horelli et al. 2000), and even computer aided visioning.
Scenarios	Scenarios for optional futures of community centers, derelict neighborhoods, town centers, can be created with participants. Wates (2000) illustrates how methods can be combined in an overall strategy (including logistics, timescale, and actions) to realize a scenario in a specific context
Brainstorming	Classical brainstorming is a group problem solving method, which encourages the generation of ideas from which solutions can be elaborated. Brainstorming is usually complemented by some other techniques, such as the Nominal Group Technique, Pin Card etc. (Sanoff, 1999).
Games and trade offs	Games are simulations of real situations allowing the participants to have an experience of the future process or end-product. A variety of games exist around housing, design, participation, role play, trade offs. The latter compares competing alternatives, according to the types of amenities offered (Sanoff, 1979; 1999).
ICT-techniques	CAD (computer aided design), GIS (geographical information system), electronic maps and the use of interactive WWW will be the key simulation, communication and design devices in the participatory planning of the future (Al-Kodmany, 2000; Horelli & Kaaja, 2000; Kimball & Rheingold, 2001).
Exhibits and interactive displays	Exhibits are a medium to raise the awareness of the issues to be planned or to prepare for political panel discussions. Interactive displays allow participants to alter the plans or add new solutions.
ORGANIZ-ATIONAL	
Information dissemination	Leaflets, posters, newsletters, presentations, advertising, and briefing the media are tools to spread information about the participatory process or project. Capacity building is also an effective way of spreading out information that leads to mastering of soft outputs – community confidence and social capital (Booth, 1996).
Lobbying	Influencing decision makers through individual or group persuasion is sometimes necessary, especially in policy processes. Lobbying requires good contacts, sense of timing, knowledge of the context and subject area, as well as good communication skills.
Networking	A network is a set of autonomous individuals and organizations that come together to reach goals that none of them can reach separately. Networking is important for all citizens, but especially to groups with small resources. The internet can effectively support the networking of future participants (Baker, 1994; Levy, 1996; Chisholm, 1998).
Time planning	The coordination of the activities of daily life – work and care - in unsupportive urban structures, has encouraged women in Italy to focus on the planning of time (opening hours of services and institutions) instead of places (Belloni & Rampazi, 1996).
Consensus building	Consensus building is an approach to problem solving through which groups can forge agreements that satisfy everyone´s primary interests and concerns. The preconditions include facilitation, formalized commitment (ground rules), sufficient time, and a clear map of how to

	build consensus (Susskind et al. 1999).
Workshops and forums	Workshops can be considered as the basic tool of participatory planning. A variety of different kinds of workshops exists: Future workshops, stadtforum, charrette. The basic idea is to arrange a place and a social process in which the planning cycle and its outcomes can be collectively discussed. Some workshops last only a few hours, whereas most of them last for a day or several days. Workshops often comprise many participatory tools focusing on varying competences (Durrenberger & Behringer, forthcoming).
Community action planning	CAP is an active, intense community-based workshop, carried out over a period of two to five days. The output is a development plan, which includes a list of prioritized problems, strategies and options, and a work program. It involves a shared relation between the professional technical inputs and the community. CAP also comprises an elaborate package of tools (Hamdi & Goethert, 1997).
Planning for real	Planning for real is a community-built model focusing on public inputs and initiating workshop sessions with card and chart techniques. The length of the workshop is two to four days. A special kit is often applied, which provides basic instructions on how to conduct sessions, a sample model, cutout masters for physical items and non-physical attributes (problems and opportunities). The process in three phases, is effective in mobilizing community interests (Gibson, 1988; Hamdi & Goethert, 1997).
ZOPP	ZOPP or GOPP – goal oriented project planning in a workshop setting - provides a systematic structure for identification, planning and management of projects for principal interest groups. It produces a logical project framework, which summarizes and structures the main elements of a project and highlights logical linkages between intended inputs, planned activities and expected results. The workshop lasts two to five days and deals with all the phases of the project cycle (European Commission, 1993; Hamdi & Goethert, 1997).
UCAT (design charette)	Urban Community Assistance Team belongs to a larger family of tools which comprises task forces and workshops (design charrettes). The methodology is based on community mobilization and project definition by outside professional assistance teams who work with local officials, volunteer agencies and residents (Hamdi & Goethert,1997;Sanoff, 1999). The workshops last from two to four days.
POLITICAL	
Fund raising	Collective fund raising by the participants also requires a systematic plan of action – timeline, budget, stakeholder analysis – in order to be effective.
Goal setting and prioritizing	Setting goals and ranking them on the basis of needs and on what has to be done, is an aspect of decision making that involves all the participants. Prioritizing techniques comprise the “wheel of fortune” (Wates, 2000), “giving hearts”, and application of worksheets (Hamdi & Goethert,1997).
Strategic choice	Strategic choice enhances decision making and developing action plans in situations with many options. It can be applied in workshops and by using a special software (STRAD). The latter comprises modules: shaping, designing, comparing and choosing (Friend & Hickling, 1987).

Panels	Many types of panels exist, but the citizen panel is a highly political tool in which well-informed lay people ask politicians or experts questions concerning the project or policy.
Demonstrations	Demonstrations are a way to raise public awareness, which is not normally included in consensus building procedures.