



A Novel Discussion on Urban Planning Practice: Citizen Participation

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Abstract

In the age of modern democracy, citizen participation process, including all types, is assumed as a major feature of policy, decision-making and urban planning fields. Commonly, the process of participation is considered as fundamental to the involvement of citizens in decision-making process in contemporary planning milieu. Since the late 1950s, the role of participation in urban planning practices has become larger and expanding; and after the communicative turn in urban planning theory it is now one of the influential topics of planning agenda. Because participatory processes have become popular and widely used in planning practices from local to national levels; achieving a comprehensible understanding of the theory, objectives, history, of citizen participation process in planning have become vigorous for planners of today. Located within the context described above, the basic concern of this paper is to expand our

Keywords:

Citizen Participation, Participatory Planning Approaches, Community Action Plan

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awareness about the changing meaning, role and positions, of citizen participation in urban planning.

INTRODUCTION

As one of the leading theoretician of democracy, Joseph Schumpeter (1942, cited in Michels, 2002) argues that citizen participation cannot be seen as an essential figures of democracy because of the fact that it merely operates as voting for leaders in election times. In compatible with Schumpeter's claims, Dahl (1985) argues that "the political participation is considered to have an instrumental function in the official political process; it may lead to a change of political leadership". Thus, the role of the people is limited to the production of government; political arena-power-is related to the political leaders. According to this point of view, democracy is just a method and participation play only a limited role, such as voting; and large-scale participation of common people threatens the effectiveness of the system because of the impossibility of so many individual interests became reconciled.

In contrast to the first view, Jean-Jacques Rousseau and John Stuart Mill strength a principle of active (expressive) participation. As a response to the situations at the urban public of the 18th century, Rousseau originated a political philosophy based on the ideal community. In *Du Contrat Social* (1762) Rousseau argues 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". On the contrary to the former approach, participation being more expressive includes either voting or the other aspects of participatory democracy. In other words, such an approach implies participation as a process that values deliberation among individuals about what to do but just voting.

As mentioned above, the idea of an ideal citizen participation can be traced back to Rousseau's participatory democracy, the 18th century; in the realm of urban planning citizen participation is seen as a relatively new development of the last 50 years or so (Ribot, 2003; Shrestha and McManus, 2008; Mahjabeen, Shrestha and Dee, 2010); but it is now critical to develop representative decision-making in urban planning. The growing body of studies on participatory urban planning reveal that when varied groups of community started to play active role in preparation and/or implementation phases of urban planning: the stakeholders' needs and expectations are more likely to be shown in the plans (Healey, 1998; Shrestha and McManus, 2005); the outcomes of the plans are improved through various stakeholders' knowledge and cultural values

(Margerum, 2002), and citizen participation increases the probability of, generating agreement over solutions and providing implementation aid (Healey, 1997).

While participatory processes have become popular and widely used; achieving a comprehensible understanding of the theory, objectives, history, and key discussions of the process of citizen participation have become vital for contemporary planners. Thus, there is a significant body of literature on citizen participation urban planning to provide intensely understanding what the goals are, what the changing roles and positions are. Located within the context described above, the paper focuses on the historical evolution of citizen participation concept on urban planning.

The paper is structured as follows. First, the concept of participation is explored. In the following part, citizen participation in planning is examined in detail in the context of non-participatory and participatory planning approaches. In the third section, community action planning approach is highlighted. Then the paper concludes by making an overview of literature and identifying the key issues of citizen participation in contemporary urban planning practices.

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION: THE CONCEPT EXPLORED

The term “participation”

Citizen participation became one of the common topics in research and development agenda of contemporary societies; however, it still is a blurred concept to explore. The studies on citizen participation, not surprisingly, make a composite and chaotic literature (Kweit and Kweit, 1981; Day, 1997; Maier, 2001; Lane, 2005); and it is named as different terms, such as citizen participation (Augur, 1945; Arnstein, 1969; Brody, Godschalk and Burby, 2003; Maier, 2001; Irvin and Staybury, 2004), public participation (Alfasi, 2003; Brabham, 2009; Carp, 2004), community involvement (Burby, 2003), public and stakeholder involvement (Brody, 2003), and etc. Oakley (1991) states that “participation is an umbrella term for a supposedly new style of research and development intervention” and it can only be perfectly understood through considering these two broad recognitions: participation as a method and participation as an objective.

In her well-known article, Arnstein (1969) defines participation as “...the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens, presently excluded from the political and economic processes, to be deliberately included in the future”. In contrast with Arnstein’s (1969) categorical term for “power”, Glass (1979) defines citizen participation as “...providing citizens with opportunities to take in governmental decision or planning

process...” To refine this definition, Glass (1979) put forwards the well-known components of participation as follows: informational exchange, education, supports building, supplemental decision-making and representative inputs (see Table 1).

Table 1.
Main Components of Public Participation.

Information	A two-way process Dialogue, speaking and listening Key element of participatory approaches
Support Building	Providing opportunities Addressing issues in different areas Determination of the resources Citizens should have an opportunities to involving the process
Education	Providing information Information is power Making citizens aware of opportunity to participate Making citizens aware about different participation methods
Supplemental decision-making	Being part of the process Participation is an integral part of the whole levels of planning process Objectives of participation has a priority Determination of who will be involved Determination of the methods of the process Determination of the possible outputs of the process
Representative input	Providing influence on the decision and result Be aware of the influence of stakeholders' impact on final outcomes or decision Realizing power relations between planners and common stakeholders

Source: Adopted from Maier (2001).

Cohen and Uphoff (1980) define participation as “...the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions that enhance their well-being, e.g. their income, security or self-esteem”. And World Bank (1990) defines participation as “...a process through which stakeholders influences and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them”. In the Participation Charter (2000), participation is claimed as a “means to build concrete collective choices is improving social cohesion” and the main aim of the process is summarized as “... active involvement of inhabitants and city users in identifying the problems and opportunities, defining the context analysis, and making strategic choices about the future of their territory, every aspect of everyday life”. Keeping the same line above, International Association of Public Participation (2003), founded in 1990, proposed that “...participation is any process that involves the public in problem-solving and/or decision-making and uses public inputs to make better decision”.

Within this backdrop, it is clear that there is no commonly accepted definition as well as the theory, of citizen participation (Jack, 1987) and it needs to be carefully thought out in advance (Fisher, 2000) As Pateman (1976) summarizes that citizen participation can refer to different contexts which have been continuously arranged and rearranged regarding

different actions, different people and different cultures. In other word, citizen participation has a different meaning for different people and even a different meaning for the same people according to the situation.

Typologies of Participation

Randolph (2003) argues that “theoretically, the more the public is involved in the decision-making process (in our case in the planning process), the chance to implement planning decisions increase; however, the appropriate level of public participation may vary from one case to another, depending on projects aims, goals, available resources”. The empirical findings of the studies on public participation fortify the arguments above and also show that because of the context-dependent characteristics of citizen participation it varies in type, level of intensity, extent, and frequency.

In the widely cited paper, Arnstein’s ladder of participation (1969), citizen participation was classified into eight categories from manipulation to citizen control (see Table 2).

Levels of Non-participation: The two rungs on the bottom of the Arnstein’s ladder, Manipulation and Therapy, define the stage of non-participation or contrived participation. According to Arnstein (1969), the real aim of manipulation and therapy is to empower power holders to train or cure the participants; not to empower citizen to act participation in planning process.

Levels of Tokenism: The following three rungs of the ladder; Informing, Consultation and Placation, describe the levels of Tokenism. In the levels of Tokenism, participants have the rights to hear, to have a voice and to have ability to advice. However, the right and power of decision-making still belongs to power holders Tokenism: In sum up, Maier (2001) indicated that at the Tokenistic level, citizens could be perceived but then the decisions are made without regarding their concerns and opinions.

Levels of Citizen Power: The last three rungs, Partnership, Delegated Power and Citizen Control, fall under Citizen Power level. Partnership types of participation that “enables citizens to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders”, in addition, Delegated Power and Citizen Control provide the power and majority to have-not citizens (Arnstein, 1969).

Table 2.
Arnstein's Ladder of Participation (1969).

Levels of non-participation	Manipulation	is just an exercise that mainly aims to educate participators who are placed on authorize advisory communities or advisory boards. On the contrary to citizen control exercise, manipulation indicates the misrepresentation of citizen participation as a public relations vehicle by power holders.
	Therapy	is a participation that aims to cure or educate the pathologies of participants. However, because of the fact that it is either untruthful or arrogant, therapy should be on the bottom of the ladder.
	Informing	is "the most important first step to legitimate participation". One-way communication and information techniques, such as, news and posters, are mostly preferred by professionals. Because of the weakness of these methods, the benefits of information such as, feedbacks and negotiations opportunities are neglected.
Levels of Tokenism	Consultation	does not offer insurance that concerns and opinions of citizen have been allowed in the public participation process. The methods of this type of participation, for example; surveys, public hearings, and community meetings, only provide a statistical date and their abstractions, at all.
	Placation	is a kind of participation at tokenism level that the voice of citizens can heard and in some degree have been influential on decision-making process. The well-known technique of Placation participation is public boards. Placation provides at least a little power to citizens to advice on the implementation stage of the process.
Levels of Citizen Power	Partnership	power has been "redistributed through negotiation between citizens and power holders". The most used techniques of partnership approach are policy boards, planning committees. In order for partnership to be successful and effective, the requirements that have been realized are "an organized power-base in the community to which the citizen leaders are accountable, the adequate financial resources, and finally, the resources to hire (and fire) its own technicians, lawyers, and community organizers".
	Delegated Power	At this level, citizens have a capability to hold the programs accountable to their needs and desires. Power holders should apply the negotiation and bargaining methods into the decision-making process.
	Citizen Control	That is much related to real participation exercise. Citizens have rights to negotiate the conditions of the program or institution, they have an ability to govern these programmes and they are in charge of political and managerial aspects of them.

Source: Modified from Arnstein (1969).

While citizen participation is contextual concept, it differs in type, level of intensity, extent, and frequency. In a review of participation literature, linking with Arnstein's ladder, Deshler and Sock (1985) identified the following typology. According to the typology of Deshler and Sock, the level of pseudo-participation is that of people being present to listen to what is being planned for them. This is definitely non-participatory. To come about genuine participation, it is critical that public have been empowered to take the control of action.

Another well-known typology of participation was proposed by Jules Pretty in 1995. As can be seen in Table 3, Pretty (1995) classified participation into seven levels from 'the bad form: manipulate participation' to 'the better form: participation by consultation' and to 'the best form: self-mobilization'. On the contrary to Arnstein's (1969) typology based on the perspective of those on the receiving end, this categorization is based on the participation process in whole (Cornwall, 2008).

Table 3.*Citizen Participation Typology of Jules Pretty (1995).*

Manipulate Participation	Participation is merely a pretence, with people's representatives on boards or committees, but have no influence or power
Passive Participation	People participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened. This kind of participation involves announcements by an administration or project management without anyone listening to people's responses. The information being shared or told belongs only to external professionals
Participation by Consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions. External agents define problems and information-gathering processes and control analysis. Such consultative processes does not concede any share in decision-making, and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views
Participation for Material Incentives	People participate by contributing resources, such as labour, in return for food, cash or other material benefits. This may also include people participating in meetings because they are provided with food or are given compensation.
Functional Participation	Participation seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals. Here people may participate by forming groups to meet pre-determined objectives related to a project. The involvement may be interactive and involve shared decision making, but arises only after major decisions have already been made by external agents.
Interactive Participation	People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation of strengthening of local institutions. Participation is a right, not as a means to achieve a project goal. This process involves interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and employ a systematic and structured learning process. As groups take control over local decisions and determine how available resources are used, so they develop a stake in maintaining structures and practices.
Self-Mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. Self-initiated mobilization may or may not challenge existing distributions of power.

Source: Adopted from Pretty (1995)

In Pretty's typology, 'functional participation', which is probably the commonly found citizen participation type in development (Rudqvist and Woodford-Berger, 1996), conceptualizes the way of participation that aims to meet the goals of project efficiently as the main decisions have already been made by external agents (Cornwall, 2008). Cornwall (2008) indicates that in as much as their end-point clearly differs, both Arnstein's and Pretty's typologies on citizen participation have been seen as a kind of spectrum (Cornwall, 2008) in which its levels has been specified distinctly by a shift from experts' or specialists' control to citizen's or community's control. However, the scope of these two spectrums are different while the initial point of the former is 'power', the later mainly analyses the motivations behind participatory process. Figure 1 illustrates the synthesis of citizen participation typologies of Arnstein (1969), Deshler and Sock (1985) and Pretty (1995).

Figure 1.
The synthesis of main citizen participation approaches in urban planning

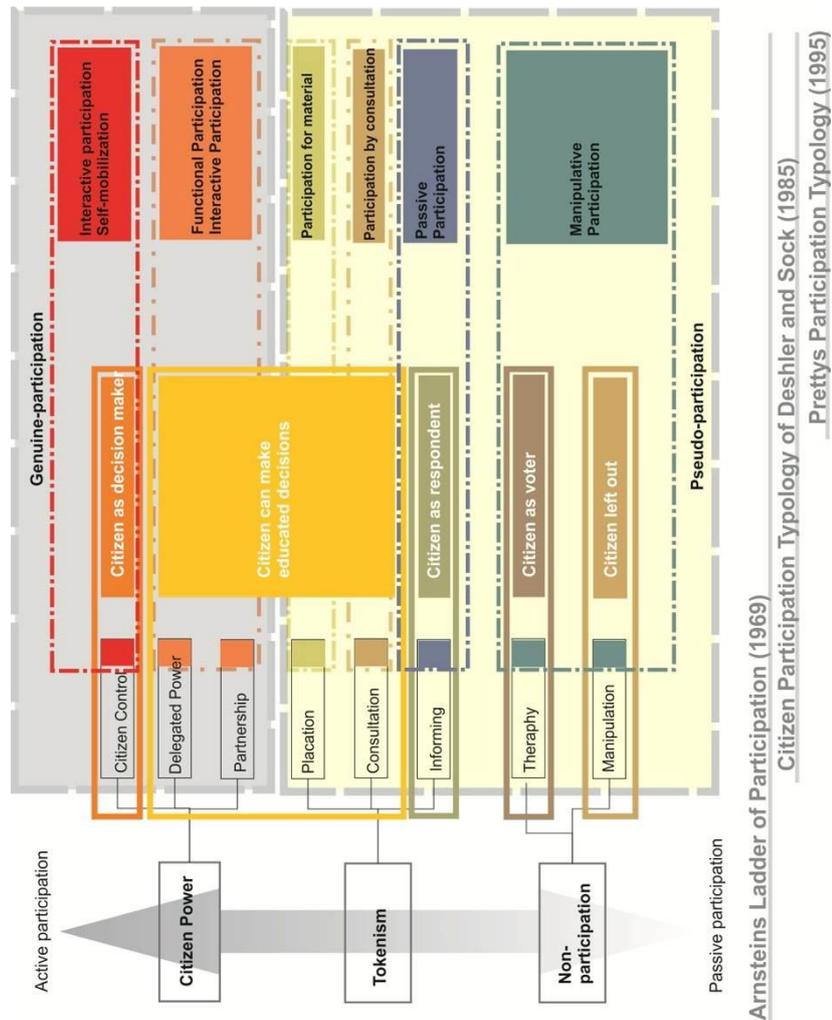


Figure 1.

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING

Lane (2005) states “...the role of citizen participation in urban planning is largely determined by the nature of the planning enterprise being undertaken, the definition of the planning problem, the kinds of knowledge used in planning practice, the conceptualization of the planning and decision-making...”. In compatible with this statement, in the Table 4, urban planning approaches are examined regarding political, societal and citizen participation contexts. The paper follows historical review of citizen participation in urban planning practices under two broad sub-sections: (1) non-participatory planning approaches and (2) participatory planning approaches.

Non-participatory Planning Approaches

In the classical planning approaches (Blueprint or Master Plan and Urban Rational Comprehensive Planning), the final product is end-state plans (Hall, 1983) with certain objectives (Faludi, 1973). Here, the planners were omniscient ruler (Hall, 1992) who decides the ends by themselves only (Hall, 1983).

Lane (2005) claims “providing citizens a voice in determining the ends and means of planning was contrary to the basic conceptions of classical planning such as the unified public interest”.

As can be seen in Table 4, the classical theory of urban planning is Rational Comprehensive Planning oriented with holistic society figure (Faludi, 1973) and unitary public interest (Kiernan, 1983). Along with this approach, in the absence of public input, professional experts mostly employed by government to recognize a comprehensive range of problems and to develop broad solutions based on rational planning thought (Lane, 2005). And the citizen participation operates only to validate and legitimize the goals of planning (Lane, 2005). However, the first call for citizen participation in urban planning traced back to the system planning approach (Faludi, 1973). In such planning approaches tokenistic participation, especially consultation has been used to gather information from the public as well as to give information to public (Sandercock, 1998). Alfasi (2003), also, points out that classical planning approaches ignore the representation of different groups in the society as a consequence planning process do not operate in democratic manner (see also, Forester, 1999; Healey, 1997; Sandercock, 1998).

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The contemporary era reveals that the public has an axiomatic image in which there are pluralistic distribution of power and interest (Friedmann, 1973). These approaches focused on the “process” instead of “end” (Hall, 1983). In compatible with this shift, the government bodies by professional planners conducted the consultation to develop the goals and objectives (ends) of the planning process (Faludi, 1973). As Hall (1983) states this is the great restructuring in the role of planning and its interconnection with the public.

Participatory Planning Approaches

Until the late 1950s, the type of citizen participation in planning was limited with manipulation and therapy and consultation. Since then, the direct involvement of citizen in planning practices has been one of the challenging theme in modern urban planning thought (Hall, 1983; Lane, 2005). Social movements of 1960s and 1970s in planning called for democratic participation in planning to decrease the inequality (Fainstein, 2005). Within the same vein, transactive and advocacy planning approaches were developed. Paul Davidoff’s advocacy planning model rejected the traditional planning practices and advocated the right of poor citizens and developed participatory planning methods in 1965’s America. In his well-known book, *Advocacy and Pluralistic Planning* (1965), he claims

that “... if planning process is to encourage democratic urban government then it must operate so as to include rather than exclude citizens from participation in the process”. Due to pluralism approach are on the agenda within the all parts of disciplines such as policy and planning, the individual interest is obtained more attendance (see Table 4).

Table 4.
The political, societal and participatory dynamics of Non-participatory and Participatory Planning Approaches.

	Non-participatory Planning Approaches			Participatory Planning Approach			
	Blueprint Planning	Racial Comprehensive Planning	Technocracy	Advocacy Planning	Transactive Planning	Collaborative Planning	Strategic Planning
Political Profile	Autocracy	Technocracy		Democracy	Democracy	Democracy/ Citizenship Atomistic Pluralist	Democracy/ citizenship Atomistic Pluralist
Society Profile	Holistic	Holistic		Atomistic	Atomistic		
Public Interest	Unitary	Unitary		Pluralist	Pluralist		Pluralist
Typology of Rationality	Bounded	Bounded		Communicative	Communicative		Communicative
Planning School	Blueprint	Synoptic		Pluralism	Pluralism		Pluralism
Scientific Justification	Postivist	Postivist		Post-positivist	Post-positivist		Post-positivist
Nature of Planning	Top-down	Top-down		Bottom-up	Bottom-up		Bottom-up
Nature of knowledge	End-matter	End-matter		Process-matter	Process-matter		Process-matter
Participation Type	Expert-driven	Expert-driven		Expert-dependent	Mutual learning		Socially-constructed
Role of Planners	Manipulation, Therapy, Information	Information, Consultation		Citizen control	Citizen control		Partnership, Citizen Control
Role of Citizens	Expert	Expert, provide technical leadership		Delegated power	Delegated power		Negotiator, intermediary, stakeholder
	Educated elite	Educated elite		Partnership	Partnership		Stakeholder
				Advocate	Advocate		
				Disadvantaged groups	Client groups		Stakeholder

Source: Prepared by a author

Friedmann (1973) developed transactive planning approach against the failures of synoptic planning models in the 1970s. Quite opposite to the synoptic models, this approach emphasizes the importance of person-centred and face-to-face

communication, also interpersonal dialogue in the planning process. In this extent, the fundamental concept of transactive planning approach is mutual learning while Friedmann (1987) supposes that a communicative process based on mutual learning between a planner and client. He states that a planner should have been interested in acting to empower deprived social groups in order that they can help themselves, rather than advocate their interests to government. It is clear that regarding the scope and role of citizen participation in urban planning practices, Friedman's transactive planning opened a new era. Here the planner acts as a channel for information and feedback between client groups (public) and the professionals (planners, governors, architects, and etc.). By doing this, transactive planning approach, in a way, declares that citizen participation and empowerment are the goals to be achieved instead of the methods to be used (Lane, 2005).

Jürgen Habermas' (1987) communicative rationality has certainly dominated theoretical discourse in planning since the late 1980s and has begun to spurn a number of interpretations from Healey's (1993) and Innes' (1998) "communicative planning" to Healey's (1997) "collaborative planning" in the UK literature and to Forester's (1999) "deliberative planning" in US literature. In short, with communicative turn, a novel period for citizen participation in urban planning has begun.

Healey (1993) and Innes (1996) argue that through collaborative planning approach all types of stakeholders from powerful private interests to disadvantaged citizens treat equally in urban planning process; and thus commonly accepted objectives and a commitment to implementation are produced. On the other hand, this statement is criticized because of misleading that all stakeholder types have different interest and levels of power in decision-making process (Hiller, 2003).

In communicative or collaborative planning approaches, the role of public participation does not restricted with tokenistic level of participation in Arnstein's classification. Instead, in this approach the level of citizen power mainly is recognized as well as used. The main concerns of public participation in communicative planning are to communicate, argue, debate and engaged the public in planning process. As Lane (2005) states that the proponents of collaborative planning argue that without citizen participation, urban planning process does not progress.

As previously mentioned, all planning schools of contemporary era, including strategic planning, deem citizen participation as one of the underlying components of decision-making and urban planning process. While strategic planning, the vision, positioned itself more towards to action, outcomes

and implementation of urban planning process, it encourages the existence of the more diversified citizen participation in terms of the channels, levels and types in urban planning process. By broadening the basis of citizen participation in urban planning, strategic planning approach plays an important role in the formulation of today's way of conceptualization of participation. In line with the advocacy and collaborative planning approaches, the proponents of strategic planning stress the need of empowering the public in planning process (Davidoff 1965; Arnstein 1969; Healey, 1993) to get more reactive and perceptive planning practices (Kaufman and Jones, 1987).

Citizen participation literature shows that high citizen participation level is critical to achieve better public decision in planning process. While equality and diversity are the roots of the participatory theories, both neighborhood and metropolitan scale it is significantly difficult to organize a comprehensive process regarding to include diversity of class, race, and ethnicity. So, it is critical to organize the planning process by emphasizing bottom-up (from individual/neighborhood level to city/national level) order. Without no doubt, planning is a socio-spatial process and it simultaneously occurs in all spatial-scales (from parcel to national) and all social-scales (from individual to governmental). This complex intersection between social and spatial scales of urban planning makes citizen participation in planning challengeable and scale dependable. Here, it is necessary to restate that both formal and informal decision-making arenas have to be taken into consideration during citizen participation process in urban planning (Sandercock, 1998). Located within the context described above, community action planning, which operates with strategic and collaborative planning approaches, is developed as a novel participatory planning.

COMMUNITY ACTION PLAN

Forester (2006) reminds us that "..., effective public participation in planning ... calls for sensitivity and technique, imagination and guts..." Community Action Planning is an approach that invests communities with power to design, implement, and manage their community programs (Sanoff, 2000). It is clear that Community Action Planning is a process of action and not a blueprint for future development. Contrary to the main concerns of traditional planning, Sanoff (2000) states that the key feature of Community Action Plan is the development of participatory and community-led action plans. As first Hamdi and Goethert (1997) then Prashar et al. (2013) perfectly summarize "community action plan is a participatory approach that aims at community development by problem-

solving". The primary focus of this approach is to build partnerships among governmental and non-governmental groups, among rival government departments and among rival community groups.

Today's institutional, societal, political and planning contexts in which citizen participation is embedded in are different than in the past (Silverman et al, 2008). As a critique of expert-oriented traditional urban planning approaches, public-oriented Community Action Planning Approach was developed. The main statement behind this approach is that the degree of public involvement increases the success of urban planning increase. The people are considered as a primary source of knowledge which identifies the required actions to improve and re-build their lives. In other words, answers to problems are formulated with the people and the role of the facilitator is to extract the solutions from the people.

Prashar et al. (2013) state that community action planning is an organic process and consists of three broad stages: (1) problem and opportunity identification; (2) prioritizing solutions and implementing; and (3) monitoring actions. Owing to the nature of community action plan all these stages overlap in some cases.

The first stage of Community Action Planning is problem and opportunity identification. By using several tools and methods such as direct observation, semi-structured interviews, resource survey, diagramming, mapping and modeling, games role play, and group work intermixing (Hamdi and Goethert, 1997) and etc, the community – their local knowledge- is brought in identifying the problems and solutions during planning process. Here, the key aspect of this stage of community action planning is local knowledge (Prashar et al, 2013).

The second stage of Community Action Planning, prioritizing solutions and implementing, deals with the difficulties and problems by creating strategies which are based on a needs/benefit analysis (Prashar et al, 2013). In order to make possible to select the solutions or options by community itself, various methods and tool such as questionnaire survey, brain storming, diagramming, time lines, daily routines, seasonal calendars etc. are used in the second stage of community action planning (Sanoff, 2000; Prashar et al, 2013).

The third stage of Community Action Planning is implementation and monitoring. When an action plan is developed, to measure the results of the plan it is essential to monitor the implemented actions. Here, the main aim is to figure out the way of implementing prioritized actions and in what circumstances. The implementation and monitoring stage is also useful for evaluating the impact of the action plan interventions

at local and national levels by using qualitative and quantitative indicators such as technical, economic, social, environmental and operating (Beaudox et al., 1992; Prashar et al, 2013). Within the same vein, Hamdi and Goethert (1997) point that the monitoring of action plan can be beneficial to develop and to rearrange the policy and interventions of the strategic plans at the city level. Here, by community action plan the knowledge, interests and preferences of the local is represented and be effective at the city and national levels.

In this context, Sanoff (2000) identified the principles of participation in community action planning as follows:

- There is no best solution to a design problem. Each problem has a number of solutions. These are traditionally based on two sets of criteria:

- o Facts: In terms of material strengths, economics, building codes and etc., the data derived from experiment and observation,

- o Attitudes: The way of explanation of the facts, conventional and customary approaches, and assessment of value. Thus, design and planning decisions are by nature biased and depend on the values of the decision maker.

- The role of planners involved in participation process is to identify possible alternatives and discuss consequences of various alternatives, not to decide the resolutions among them.

- A design and/or planning task could be made transparent. Alternatives considered by professionals are frameworks in their minds and can be brought to the surface for the users to discuss. The product is more likely to succeed because it is more responsive to the needs of the people who will use it.

- Such as open forum could be used to share the opinions of all individuals and interest groups, to make essential negotiations, and to reach at decisions that are wholly acceptable to all concerned.

- The participation process is never-ended and ever-changing. The product is not the final output of the process. It must be evaluated and re-evaluated in order to adopt the changing needs, tasks and expectations of participants.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Citizen participation phenomenon, fundamental element of democracy, is critical to maintain the effectiveness of democracy, in the contemporary era. Basically, what this historical review confirms that citizen participation is a widely-used notion with no specific definitions and boundaries.

While citizen participation concept traced back to the Greek city-states, in urban planning it is a novel discussion. The first call for the direct involvement of citizen in urban planning practice is traced back to the Davidoff's advocacy planning (1965) and Friedmann's transactive planning (1973) approaches. After the community turn, participatory planning approaches such as collaborative/communicative planning and deliberative planning, have dominated the theoretical discourse of urban planning. After the 1980s, strategic planning, as participatory planning approach, deems citizen participation as one of the underlying components of urban planning process. While strategic planning, the vision, positioned itself more towards to action, outcomes and implementation of urban planning process, it encourages the existence of the more diversified citizen participation in terms of the channels, levels and types in urban planning process. The complex intersections among social and spatial scales of urban planning, makes citizen participation in planning challengeable and scale dependable. Public-oriented Community Action Planning was developed to eliminate these challenges.

The discussions of the paper above also show that citizen participation is a key for planning to develop appropriate solutions to planning problems regarding equality, diversity and democracy concepts of contemporary era. While it is commonly accepted that, citizen participation is not a tool but main goal of the urban planning, there is almost universal uncertainty as to the best way of citizens' involvement in urban planning. In a way that citizen participation in planning process bridges the traditional gap between experts (planners most occupied by the governments and/or powerful stakeholders) and citizens. Here, citizen participation opens the door of pluralistic concerns and increases the reliability of the solutions and the implementation probability of these solutions through adding the concerns as well as knowledge of diversified groups in the community.

In a similar vein, this review highlights that in order to obtain comprehensive understanding of citizen participation in urban planning practice; the contexts of decision-making process in which citizen participation occurs are also taken into account simultaneously. Because of its context-dependent nature, each community needs to formulate its own community planning process. However, by taking the risk of repeating myself, I want to restate that the voice of citizens can be meaningful and visible only by giving power to citizens in decision-making and by opening up debates of urban subjects of whole frame of reference they live.

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RESUME

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