Activating the Role of Public Participation as a New Vision Towards Urban Planning System Reform: What Can Syria Learn from the British Experience?

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ABSTRACT

As a cross-national comparative study, this research examines the urban development decision-making process as a form of urban governance, emphasising the progress achieved in public participation within the British and Syrian urban contexts. According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), public participation is one of the key attributes of good governance. Therefore this study addresses public participation as an *indicator* of good governance; a *means* to ensure better development, and an *end* to enhancing the capacity building of the society.

There is an abundance of theoretical and practical research addressing the topic of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in the UK, which might provide valuable references and lessons for developing countries to benefit from. Since 2011, Syria has been in turmoil and instability due to the ongoing war in the country, resulting in drastic social, economic, and political changes. Before the war and during the first decade of the 21st century, Syria sought to make some social and economic changes under the influence and help of the UNDP. Those change attempts were noted within the 10th Five Year Plan (FYP), where the concepts of 'civil society', 'participation', and 'governance' were introduced. Those changes have affected the urban planning context within the country, where a new approach to decision-making within the land-use planning system was introduced. However, the efficiency of the new approach to achieving better outcomes for development plans was still questionable.

This research aims to critically review, evaluate and compare the progress achieved in the field of public participation in the urban development decision-making process (evolution, achievements, and problems) in the British and Syrian contexts by following a cross-national approach. It reviews the evolution of urban planning theories and public participation approaches and their practices. Based on the findings, an analytical framework is adopted to examine and evaluate the level of public participation within the decision-making process, both theoretically and in practice. The research is based on a case study approach. A mixed-method of data collection and analysis is applied in both countries through literature, policy and regulations reviews, and fieldwork in the selected study cases: Edinburgh, Scotland, UK, and Latakia, Syria. By studying and analysing the possibilities for broader public participation and more effective engagement of members of civil society in the urban development decision-making process, this research attempts

to promote potential sustainable outcomes of public participation within their related political, economic, and social contexts.

This research found some theoretical similarities between the UK-Scotland and Syria when addressing classic democracy (structure of the state, administrative and geographical division, the structure of state institutions, and the laws and regulations governing). However, the empirical research found that the fundamental differences lie in the practical implementation of the concept of democracy on the ground. Empirical research shows that public participation in the Syrian urban development decision-making process is primitive and limited to informing only. Even the methods used to inform the public are ineffective enough and do not achieve the required propagation. Whereas in the case of UK-Scotland, public participation is more developed, and the public is engaged and consulted during the formulation of the decisions.

Despite the difference in the level of democracy, the research indicates that Syria could benefit from the British experience. However, achieving this is a political matter that needs a political and societal will that involves restructuring the main forces of society (the state, the market, and the society). Based on the research findings, a series of recommendations have been developed to improve the practice of public participation in the urban development decision-making process and achieve reformatory changes to urban governance in Syria.

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"I think and think for months and years. Ninety-nine times, the conclusion is false. The hundredth time I am right".

- Albert Einstein

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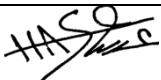
DECLARATION STATEMENT

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v

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

GLOSSARY

The following abbreviations are used in this thesis (after the first mention when each term is fully spelt out):

APA	: American Planning Association.
AV	: Alternative Vote.
BBC	: The British Broadcasting Corporation.
BIS	: Department for Business, Innovation & Skills.
DS	: Development Strategy
EFTA	: European Free Trade Association.
EU	: European Union.
EU15	: The EU15 comprised the following 15 countries: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.
EU-27	: European Union countries (1 January 2007 - 30 June 2013).
FAO	: Food and Agriculture Organization.
FPTP	: First Past the Post.
FYP	: Five Year Plan.
GCESC	: The General Company for Engineering Studies and Consulting.
IAP2	: International Association for Public Participation.
ILO	: International Labour Organization.
LDP	: Local Development Plan.
LPA	: Local Planning Authority.
LDPA	: Local Development Planning Authority.
MDSD	: Most Different Systems Designs
MIR	: Main Issues Report.
MoP	: Ministry of Personnel/India.
MP	: Master Plan
MPs	: Members of Parliament.
MoHUD	: Ministry of housing and urban development/Syria.
MoPWH	: Ministry of People's Work and Housing/Syria.
MSSD	: Most Similar Systems Designs
NFRP	: National Framework for Regional Planning
NIMBY	: Not in My Back Yard.
NOGs	: Non-Government Organisations.

NPF	: National Planning Framework.
NPF	: National Progressive Front
NV	: National Vision
ODPM	: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister.
OECD	: The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
PAG	: Planning Advisory Group.
PAN	: Planning Advice Note.
PCM	: Presidency of the Council of Ministers
PICC	: Planning and International Cooperation Commission
PM	: Prime Minister.
PP GISs	: Public Participatory Geographic Information Systems.
PPP	: Playful Public Participation.
PSs	: Participation Statements.
RDAs	: Regional Development Agencies.
RPs	: Regional Plans
RPC	: Regional Planning Commission.
RTC	: Regional Technical Committee.
SDP	: Strategic Development Plan.
SDPA	: Strategic Development Planning Authority.
SESplan	: South East Scotland Plan.
SPC	: The State Planning Commission/ Syria.
SPP	: Scottish Planning Policy.
UK	: The United Kingdom.
UN	: United Nations.
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme.
UNESCAP	: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.
UNHCR	: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
WTO	: World Trade Organization

Chapter One: Introduction to the Research

1.1 Research Overview

Public participation is one of the key attributes of good governance; according to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), it is one of the effective indicators of democracy (Graham et al., 2003; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), 2009). In this thesis, public participation has been adopted as an *indicator* of good governance (for more details, see 2.2.2), a *means* to ensure better development and an *end* to enhancing the capacity building of the society. Based on the importance of public participation in the decision-making process (Creighton, 1992; Wiedemann and Femers, 1993; Irvin and Stansbury, 2004). As a cross-national comparative study (for more details, see 4.3.3), this PhD research analysed the urban development decision-making process as a form of urban governance with emphasis on the progress achieved in public participation within the British and Syrian urban contexts alike. By studying and analysing the possibilities for broader public participation and more effective civil society engagement in the process, this research attempts to promote potential sustainable outcomes of public participation within their related political, economic, and social context, and more practically within the urban development decision-making process.

This research was conducted by applying the contextual approach and adoption of the planning cultures model developed by Steinhauer (2011) as a conceptual framework to analyse the national planning cultures in UK-Scotland, and Syria alike. In terms of comparative strategy, this research is based on a case study approach adopting Yin's (2009) approach of 'replication approach to multiple-case studies' where a mixed method of data collection, analysis, and comparison is implied.

Thus, this research relied on an analytical framework (see Figure 4.5) to test the contribution of public participation in the urban development decision-making process within the Syrian and British contexts. The analytical framework identifies three main dimensions of the study, as follows:

- National settings: the main society forces (state, economy, and society) were discussed, with an emphasis on the concept of public participation.
- Planning structure: this dimension was covered by studying policies, institutions, and principal regulations of urban planning with a focus on the opportunity for

the public to participate in the decision-making process within the urban planning field.

- Planning practice: a field trip in selected study cases (one city in each country) was carried out to investigate the level of public participation in planning practices.

This research sought to analyse collected data (full details are discussed in the methodology chapter) in both the Syrian and British contexts to identify patterns and factors that affect the quality and level of public participation in the urban development decision-making process. A critical comparison between both contexts contributed to generating ideas and recommendations to develop the implementation of the concept of public participation in the Syrian context (politically, economically, and socially) and, more specifically, in terms of urban and land-use planning.

1.2 Why Is There a Need for Public Participation in Planning?

Public participation is a much-debated topic within the planning literature; much research has been written about the need for public participation in the planning process (Davidoff, 1965; Douglass and Friedmann, 1998; Healey, 2003; Taylor, 2007). Datta (2011) points out that there are multiple motivations behind many public engagement activities. For some, public engagement is about 'putting science into context', promoting decision-making that is more transparent and trustworthy, and that incorporates ethical and social considerations. Discussing the motivations behind the public engagement process Stirling (2005) categorises them into three main motivations: normative, instrumental, and substantive. While the normative point of view considers participation as 'the right to do'. Participation is 'the better way to achieve particular ends' from an instrumental viewpoint. In substantive terms, participation 'leads to better ends'. These motivations encouraged many researchers (Leach and Scoones, 2005; Healey, 2006a; Skidmore et al., 2006; Stilgoe, 2007) to conduct more studies that discuss the need for public participation in many fields of science and urban planning as a part of them.

Proponents of the participatory planning approach have argued that "from our modernist reliance on state-directed futures and top-down processes, we have to move to more community-based planning, from the ground up, geared to community empowerment" (Sandercock, 1998: p.30). The researcher agrees with this viewpoint in that most strategies based on a top-down approach were not successful because they did not fully and openly engage the community in development projects (Muraya, 2006; Fraser et al.,

2006). Thus, there was a need for new strategies that emphasised community-based involvement, and an innovative approach appeared for that purpose called the 'bottom-up approach'[1] (Muraya, 2006; El Asmar et al., 2012). Other researchers indicate how the inclusion of public participation in the planning process, if implemented correctly, can potentially have a variety of benefits (Soh and Yuen, 2006). These benefits could be achieved from two main viewpoints: firstly, from the citizens' viewpoint: getting to understand the project, getting to know their future area, and being able to influence decisions affecting their destiny. Secondly, from the city officials' viewpoint: strengthening the sense of community in the area and transferring the workload from planners to future residents (Lehtonen, 2005). In the same vein, Datta (2011) points out that the benefits of public engagement with science are for the public, scientists, institutions, and other actors (including industry and the private sector). When citizens are given an active role in plan-making, a sense of ownership can be fostered. Potential controversy and conflicts may be reduced as participants share responsibility for planning decisions; these procedures enhance confidence between the community and local government (Creighton, 1992). Asserting Creighton's perspective, Healey (2003) argues that incorporating the views of members of the public into planning decisions gives greater legitimacy to those decisions. Public participation is considered a good strategy to enhance the trust between the government and laypeople (Healey, 2003; Soh and Yuen, 2006). On the other hand, public participation is not without drawbacks, limitations, and even contradictions; this process has negative aspects which many studies have drawn attention to (See: Day, 1997; Irvin and Stansbury, 2004; Soh and Yuen, 2006), these limitations will be addressed in later chapters (See 2.3.6). Despite these limitations, the importance and benefits of engaging citizens in the planning process cannot be overemphasised, and they should prompt policy planners to improve on techniques and management of public participation (Irvin and Stansbury, 2004; Lehtonen, 2005).

On the other hand, concerning the researcher's personal motivation to conduct this research, in 2008, the researcher became very interested in the concept of public participation in the urban development decision-making process since he witnessed the massive popular objection to the new master plan of Latakia city (for more information see 4.6.2 & 8.3.1). The proposed plan raised many issues, the most important of which

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[1] "Is a form of cooperation and collaboration between territorial administrations, and stakeholders such as built environment professionals, and the public. Participatory approach allows the members of the community to share their own views and convictions in planning strategies to improve and solve issues related to their communities." (El Asmar et al., 2012: p.38).

was the horizontal expansion of the urban area in the new plan by more than double. In addition, many issues aroused the ire of the city's residents, such as the proposal to transfer informal settlement dwellers to other areas in the city and the farmers' objection to the proposal of urban areas on their agricultural lands. All of these issues prompted the researcher's interest to conduct research on public participation in urban planning and investigate the need to involve the public in the making-decision process of matters that affect their lives.

1.3 Research Problem and Topic Justification

"People can be dramatically affected by the quality of their environment, and they care deeply about the new development… That is why we need a planning system that fully engages people in shaping the future of their communities" (DTLR as cited in Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013, P.24).

Cities, towns, and urban areas are created to meet the needs and desires of the inhabitants living in them and facilitate their daily lives. From the researcher's viewpoint as an architect, any client has the right to have an opinion on the shape and design of the place in which they will live. So the architect listens to the customers' desires and tries to involve them in the design process to design the place in a manner commensurate with the architectural, environmental, and organizational principles. At the same time, they try hard to satisfy the customers. By analogy to this principle and on a larger scale, cities are the urban spaces planners design for local people who will live and work there. Therefore, the researcher believes it is essential that local people have the right to have a voice and opinion in shaping and planning their urban area. And herein lies the research problem: *Are locals genuinely involved in the urban planning process, or is this process taking place without their complete and effective participation?*

This question about public participation in the urban planning process was the first thing that occupied the researcher after witnessing the significant objections to the new Master Plan (MP) of Latakia city-Syria, following its announcement in 2008. This question raised many other questions which needed an answer:

- Had people been fully informed of what the planners and city officials had been doing over the past eight years since the work began on the new MP?
- Were the public involved in the preparation process of the plan-making, and were their views and future aspirations for the city considered?

- Were there laws and regulations guaranteeing the participation of the public in the urban planning process?
- What were the mechanisms and tools used to inform people and involve them if there was an intention?

All these questions above motivated the researcher to be interested in the concept of public participation and its implementation in the urban planning process and formed a strong justification for starting a study on the topic. The researcher conducted this PhD research to investigate the progress achieved in the field of public participation in the urban development decision-making process by studying the experience of chosen countries to benefit and learn from their good or 'bad' legislation and practices.

1.4 Research Aim and Contribution

It is supposed that the work of any popularly elected democratic government is to implement the desire and aspirations of their people in matters related to their life and destiny (Grant, 1994). Hence the importance of activating public participation in the decision-making process at various levels on issues and matters related to self-determination to ensure better rates of democracy and justice (Newman et al., 2004).

Thus, given the importance of public participation in the decision-making process, this PhD research aims *to critically review and compare the progress achieved in the field of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in the UK-Scotland and Syria and to assess the extent to which Syria could benefit from the British experience in order to contribute towards the enhancement of public participation in legislation and practice alike within the Syrian urban planning context*.

Since urban planning research can be addressed at different levels (international, national, regional, and local) (Newman and Thornley, 1996), the key focus of this research is on two main levels 'national and local'. *At the national level*, two main points have been addressed. Firstly, providing a brief overview of the main society forces (state, market, and civil society) in each country to verify the extent to which society has been involved in economic, social, and political activities. Secondly, providing a critical review of policies, institutions, and main urban planning regulations in each country to assess the level of public participation within the urban planning system. A practical study has been conducted *at the local level*, with one case study in each country (case studies are discussed and analysed in detail in chapters seven and eight). This is to assess the level

of public participation in urban planning in practice and address the gap between the policies and practices if it exists.

1.5 Research Objectives and Key Questions

1. *First objective:* To shed light on the importance of public participation in urban planning and its relation to the concept of governance in order to build a solid theoretical background for this research; this, in turn, contributes to the adoption of a conceptual framework to identify the scope and the track of this study.

   This objective will be achieved through a critical review of the academic literature which has addressed the concept of public participation and related concepts (governance, urban planning, etc.) by answering the following questions:

   1.1. What is governance, and how it is associated with the concept of public participation?

   1.2. What is the concept of public participation?
   - The meaning and evolution of the concept
   - Public participation in planning and its main theories
   - The purpose of public participation and its positive and negative aspects.

   1.3. To investigate whether there was a role for promoting the concept of public participation within urban planning, reforming planning theories, and introducing new urban planning models?

2. *Second objective:* Critically assess the current effect of public participation within programmes, policies, and laws of the urban planning system with reference to the political, economic, and social forces that affect the culture of planning in Syria and the UK-Scotland alike.

   2.1. What are the main factors that affect public participation in the urban planning process?

   2.2. What are the main policies, laws, and regulations that seek to regulate and control the urban planning process?

   2.3. What is the level and scope of public participation within the planning process?

3. *Third objective:* Critically assess the effectiveness of public participation in urban planning in practice within the Syrian and Scottish planning context alike.

   3.1. Who is engaged in the urban planning process in the UK-Scotland and Syria?

   3.2. What opportunities exist for participants to:
   - obtain relevant information,

- express their views,
- and make sure that their views have been adequately heard and will be fully addressed by officials.

    3.3. When and at what stage of the urban planning process does public participation occur? How early does it take place?

    3.4. How does the public participation process occur? What approaches and methods are used to encourage groups and individuals to participate?

    3.5. What is the level of public participation in urban planning in practice?

4. *Fourth objective:* Critically analyse the differences and similarities within the urban development decision-making process between the UK-Scotland and Syria, both in theory and practice, in order to propose recommendations that are designed to improve the quality of public participation in urban planning, with a view to promote and achieve changes in local urban governance in Syria.

1.6 Research Timeline and Obstacles Encountered

The author started his PhD study in January 2011. At that time, the initial research was intended to be an empirical study to examine the contribution of public participation within the urban planning system in Syria, theoretically and in practice. That year, the ongoing war in Syria started in March; the impact of this war on the research, in general, was drastic. In February 2012, the researcher was informed of the outcome of the progress review meeting held by the school research panel in January 2012. The panel's decision had a drastic impact on changing the research structure. They attributed their decision at the time due to the unstable security situation in Syria and the inability of the researcher to conduct the fieldwork. The panel suggested refocussing the research to emphasise a comparative planning study between the UK-Scotland and Syria. The proposed changes to the research structure required fundamental modifications regarding the main aim and the overall objectives of the research. These changes took around 12 months to reposition the research structure again.

In March 2012, the researcher started the research process again by exploring the literature on planning theories, urban development, public participation and comparative planning studies. Hence, a great emphasis was placed on studying comparative planning research and how to conduct them. In addition to researching and exploring the keywords and main concepts used in this research, such as urban governance, urban planning, society forces and public participation. The British and Syrian contexts were then explored in relation to politics, economy and society in order to understand the contexts

where the research investigation was to take place. These finally led to reconstructing the research aim and objectives and finalising the research analytical framework by February 2013.

In the Summer of 2013, after studying the research methodologies and data collection methods, the researcher adopted the case study approach as the primary research strategy. Accordingly, the two study cases were selected and justified in both countries (Edinburgh - UK-Scotland and Lattakia - Syria). This was followed by the process of studying the literature related to the chosen study cases, designing the questionnaire survey and creating and finalising the semi-structured interview questions.

In July 2013, the researcher started the field trip in Edinburgh by distributing the self-administered mail questionnaire survey; he distributed more than 500 copies. These questionnaires targeted the residents of neighbourhoods adjacent to the proposed development areas in the new local development plan (LDP) of Edinburgh. In addition, the researcher managed to hold interviews with nine participants representing various stakeholders in Edinburgh between November 2013 and April 2014. One of the obstacles the researcher faced in his field trip to collect the required data was that the interviews took a long time to complete. This was because the participants were too busy and unable to conduct the interviews soon after their contact date. In the autumn of 2013, the researcher created an electronic version of the questionnaire in a step to increase the number of responses he obtained from the paper questionnaire distributed in Edinburgh.

In the other case study (Latakia city - Syria), in the autumn of 2014, the researcher created an online questionnaire promoted through social media to reach the most significant possible number of interested people. One of the obstacles that the researcher faced here was the dire situation of electricity and internet services in Syria which impeded the required spread of the questionnaire.

The primary data collection phase for this study lasted until the spring of 2015. Then, all primary data collected from questionnaire surveys and interviews were transcribed, tabulated and organised in order to prepare them for analysis. This process took until September of 2015. At the end of 2015, the researcher started the data analysis phase. The data collected were analysed and compared. Research findings were extracted, leading to recommendations for promoting effective and positive public participation in policy and practice within the Syrian urban development context. At the same time, the writing up

of the thesis was in progress by finalising the chapters' first draft. Figure 1.1 shows the research timeline and progress achieved in detail.

Here, it is worth noting that one of the main obstacles that the researcher faced during this research journey was the deterioration of his health condition. Since the beginning of this PhD programme, the researcher has been suffering from different symptoms (headaches, blurry vision, abdominal ache, freezing hands, burning sensation in feet, rash .etc.). These symptoms had a negative impact on his productivity in general and on the overall progress of this PhD program. In August 2016, after a life-threatening incident, the doctors discovered the condition that caused all these problems (a blood condition that needs urgent treatment). Therefore, in 2017, the researcher started the continuous treatment program for that chronic disease which required him to suspend this PhD program for one full year. The researcher stopped his PhD programme on three separate occasions due to his health deterioration.
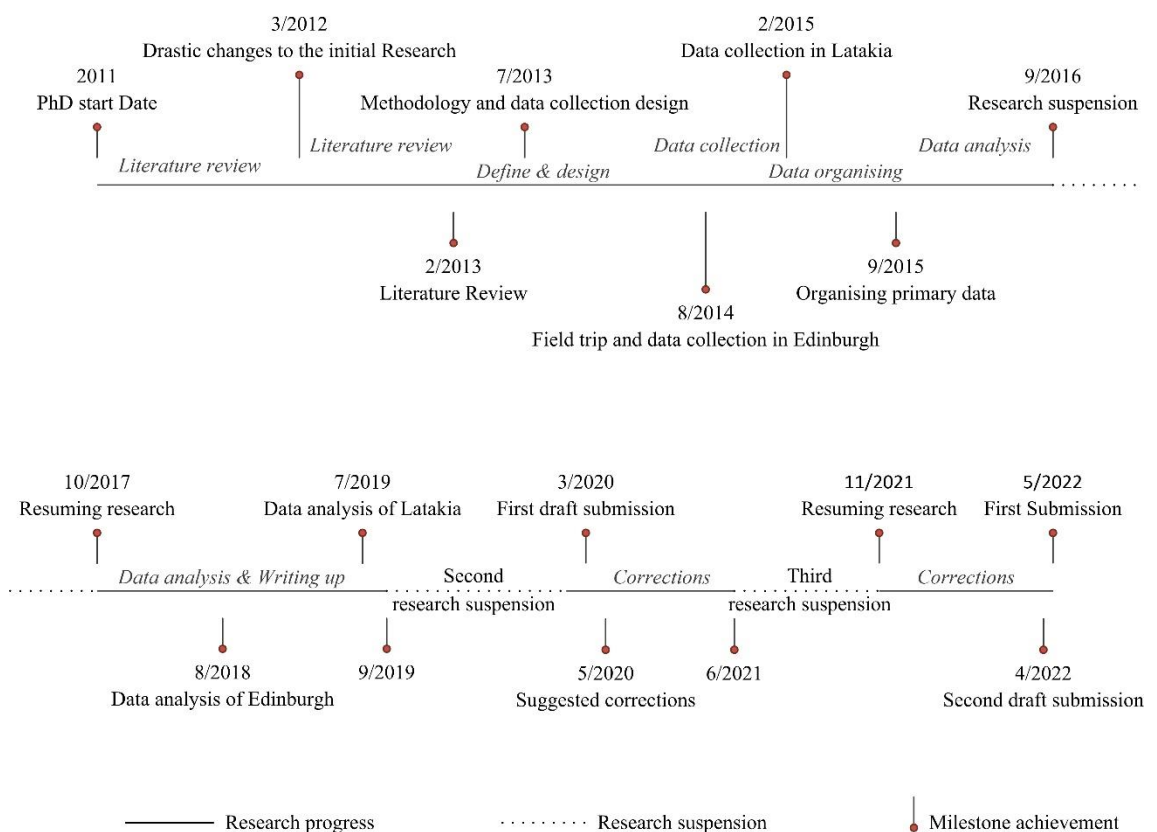
Figure 1.1: Research timeline and progress achieved
Source: Author's Original.

In addition to the obstacles mentioned above, the researcher lost his scholarship financial support in August 2012 due to the economic sanctions imposed on the Syrian government

at that time. This situation intensified the challenge of finishing this study as the researcher had to work a part-time job to support himself and fund this research.

Despite all those obstacles and challenges, the researcher was determined to finish this PhD degree and complete this study.

1.7 Thesis Structure

This thesis is divided into four main parts; the first part consists of this introductory chapter.

The second part consists of chapters two, three, and four which review, define, and explain the key concepts of this research and reposition this research into a broader research context. Chapter two provides a critical review of the notions of governance and public participation and the interrelation between the two concepts in order to justify and define the meaning and scope of those concepts as contained in this research. Chapter three continues to explore and review the rest of the key concepts used in this research. It highlights the emergence and evolution of the concept of modern urban planning through reviewing, discussing, and examining the most important planning approaches and models that have emerged throughout the past century. Then it examines how the development of the concept of public participation played a role in the development and modernisation of these approaches and models. Chapter three concludes by adopting "The culturised planning model" (See Figure 3.6) with its three main dimensions (national settings, planning structure, and planning practice) as a conceptual framework to conduct the comparative planning study between the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Syria. The research methodology and data collection protocol have been determined in chapter four. This research is conducted within the frame of the inductive-deductive cycle as a comparative study based on a case study approach where a mixed method of data collection and analysis is implied.

The third part consists of chapters five, six, seven and eight, which examine the urban development decision-making process as a form of urban governance, emphasising the progress achieved in public participation within the British and Syrian urban planning contexts alike. Within these four chapters, the study cases (UK-Scotland and Syria) are studied and analysed under the approved general research framework (see Figure 4.5). This framework defined the course of the research by studying three main dimensions replicated in both study cases, namely (national settings, planning structure and planning practice). Chapters five and six review and investigate the two dimensions of national

settings and planning structure in the UK-Scotland and Syria. The adopted comparative approach in this research is Yin's (2009) approach of 'replication approach to multiple-case studies'. The same steps undertaken in chapter five to study the British context are replicated in chapter six to study the Syrian context. At the dimension of the national settings, a critical review of the main society forces (state, market, and society) and their interrelations is undertaken in order to analyse the British and Syrian political, economic, and social context as a general background to understand the working mechanism of the British and Syrian urban planning system. At the dimension of planning structure, a critical review of the main planning policies and the key planning law and regulations is undertaken to investigate the extent to which people can participate in the decision-making process in terms of land-use planning. Chapter seven examines and explores the dimension of planning practice in the Scottish context by studying the LDP of Edinburgh (selected case study in UK-Scotland). The analysis of collected data concluded that the level of public participation within the Scottish urban planning process in practice reaches the consultation level. Following the replicated approach, chapter eight examines and investigates the dimension of planning practice in the Syrian context as the Master Plan (MP) of Latakia city (selected case study in Syria) was under study. The analysis process of collected data indicated that the level of public participation in Syrian urban planning in practice is limited to informing level.

The last part is chapters nine and ten, which is the conclusion of the whole research. Significant findings of the comparison study are summarised to provide answers to the key research questions. Also, it provides a set of recommendations for policymakers and practitioners in Syria, which are designed to improve the quality of public participation in urban planning, with a view to promote and achieve changes in local urban governance in Syria.

Chapter Two: Key Research Concepts

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter and the first section of the following chapter, a critical review of the key concepts, terms, words, and notions used in this research will be presented. This chapter will review and discuss in detail the concepts of governance and public participation and the relation between both concepts in order to form a general understanding of the political, social, and economic culture within which the urban planning system operates. Then, the following chapter will review and discuss the concept of urban planning and planning reform and if there is any correlation between fostering public participation and planning reform. This review delves into presenting and examining a number of critical publications related to the concepts of governance, public participation, and urban planning. This is designed to justify and define the meaning and scope of those concepts as contained and relevant to this research.

In this regard, this chapter provides answers to research questions raised in respect of fulfilling the first objective of this research which aims "*To shed light on the importance of public participation in urban planning and its relation to the concept of governance, in order to build a solid theoretical background for this research, this, in turn, will contribute to the adoption of a conceptual framework to identify the scope and the track of this study*". This chapter seeks to present answers to the following research questions:

    1.1. What is governance, and how it is associated with the concept of public participation?
- What is governance?
- What is good governance?

    1.2. What is the concept of public participation?
- The meaning and evolution of the concept,
- Public participation in planning and its main theories,
- The purpose of public participation and its positive and negative aspects.

This chapter starts by defining the concept of governance and how it is related to the notion of public participation. A discussion to justify and clarify the scope of governance adopted in this research is included.

Then after, the chapter reviews the concept of public participation, starting by defining the meaning of 'public', 'participation' and the term 'public participation' in order to

thoroughly clarify and define the meaning of these words used in this research. This is followed by an in-depth literature review covering the history and different definitions of the concept, its main approaches in planning, the purpose of participation and its advantages, disadvantages, and limitations. In this, and during reviewing the main approaches of public participation used in planning, a brief discussion about the convenient approaches to be adopted in this research (such as Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation, Spectrum of public participation) is addressed; this is in order to supply the researcher with academic approaches to be used as criteria to assess the level of public participation in planning theoretically and practically.

This chapter concludes by reviewing what has been achieved and provides answers to research questions addressed in this chapter.

2.2 Governance and Public Participation:

This section provides an adequate summary of the concept of governance and the relationship between governance and public participation to define the meaning of governance used in this study.

2.2.1 What is governance?

When the word *'Governance'* is mentioned in any speech, most people tend to understand it in the meaning of *'Government'*, in spite of the fact that both terms have the same root word *'govern',* but governance is more than just about government see (Graham et al., 2003; Bevir, 2012; Newman, 2001). Governance differs from government both theoretically and empirically. It can be explained theoretically as '*the process of governing'*, which does not need to be undertaken by a hierarchically organised set of actors. It is not just what governments do to their citizens but also what organisations and corporations do to their members and staff (Bevir, 2012). Thus, whereas government refers to political institutions, governance refers to processes of governing wherever they take place (Bevir, 2012).

Moreover, in practical terms, governance refers to a shift in public organisations. The state's increasing reliance on private and voluntary sectors to deliver a wide range of services has been notable in recent decades. It has opened the door widely for government to rely more on privatisation (Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013). In this vision, governments have become one of the multi-actors of the governing process where governance mediates the relations between them (UNESCAP, 2009; Bevir, 2012; Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013).

Since the 1980s, the use of the new concept of 'Governance' has become omnipresent and has come to dominate the debates on politics and academia (Bevir, 2012; Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013). It is believed that the widespread use of the new concept 'governance' is related to the rise of neoliberalism[2] and the need for new strategies to deal with the neoliberal politics at that time (Newman, 2001; De Angelis, 2003; Harvey, 2005). Bevir (2012, p. 1) argues that the rapid spread of the new concept 'Governance' is related to two main reasons firstly, "changing social theories have led people to see the world differently"; secondly, "the world itself has changed". On the other hand, Arndt and Oman (2006, p.15) sum up the reasons behind the explosive growth of interest in governance and its quality in the developing economies in recent years into main four sets of phenomena: 1) "the spectacular increase in international investment in developing countries; 2) the end of the Cold War; 3) failed development policy reforms in the 1980s and 1990s, and 4) a new awareness of the importance of politics in economic development and policy reform". The debate around governance has developed rapidly and now covers diverse contexts and disciplines, including political science, development studies, planning, economics, geography... etc.(Arndt and Oman, 2006; MoP, 2010; Bevir, 2012).

Thus, the widespread use of the concept of governance requires searching for a definition of this notion to identify the meaning and the scope for using it in this research. So, *just what is governance*? And how is it defined?

Governance has been defined variously depending on the context and the topic related; for example, Bevir (2012, p. 2) defines Governance as:

> "The process of governing ... the term 'governance' draws attention to processes of decision-making and ruling throughout society."

In the same vein, Newman (2001, p. 4) outlines the concept of governance as:

> "Governance refers to ways of governing, whether of organisations, social systems or the state itself. It embraces not only the actions of government but also the wide range of institutions and practices involved in the process of governing. Much of the literature argues that the governance of modern states is characterised

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[2] Neoliberalism is "in the first instance a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade. The role of the state is to create and preserve an institutional framework appropriate to such practices". (Harvey, 2005, p. 02)

by the increasing importance of networks in both the shaping and delivery of public policy. They represent a shift from the traditional forms of governance through state hierarchies and neo-liberal focus on markets as a form of self-regulating governance."

Graham and other researchers underpin the definitions shown above as they argue:

"Governance is about how governments and other social organizations interact, how they relate to citizens, and how decisions are taken in a complex world. Thus governance is a process whereby societies or organizations make their important decisions, determine whom they involve in the process and how they render account." (Graham et al., 2003, p. 1).

Sharma (2004) argues and emphasises the idea that governance not only includes but transcends the related notion and concepts like state, government and regime. Where the author defines governance as:

"Governance involves interaction between the formal institutions and those in civil society. Governance refers to a process whereby elements in society wield power, authority and influence and enact policies and decisions concerning public life and social upliftment." (Sharma, 2004, p. 10)

As mentioned before, the concept of governance has many interpretations and definitions according to the context and topic debated. Thus, there are many other definitions of governance; the researcher mentioned some other definitions in Table A2.1 see Appendix 2-1. Definitions can be challenging, contesting, subtle, complex, and powerful (Graham et al., 2003).

Reviewing the above definitions of governance makes it noticeable that some elements are common across all of them; those elements can be organised into two main categories. Firstly, the exercise of power and authority; secondly, the ability of the government/organisation to fulfil its obligations effectively (MoP, 2010). It is now widely accepted that "governance is much more than the formal institutions of government. Governance includes the whole range of actors within society, such as community based or grass-roots organisations, NGOs, trade unions, religious organizations and businesses, both formal and informal, alongside the various branches of government and governmental agencies, both national and local" (Devas et al., 2001, p. 5-6). Therefore, in the governance process, the government is one actor of multilateral actors; other actors

involved in this process vary depending on which level of the government is under discussion and which type of governance is addressed.

To summarise, 'governance' is a contested concept. Thus, no specific definition could be adopted as an ideal concept definition. 'Governance' is an evolving dynamic concept that varies according to diverse contexts and disciplines, including development studies, economics, political science, planning, public administration ...etc. (Bevir, 2012). This research tends to choose the definition presented by Graham et al. (2003) mentioned above. The chosen definition asserts that 'governance' is about the interaction between government, social organisations, and citizens, where societies can make their decisions. Although the selected definition does not include all the issues addressed in the literature, it is convenient for the purpose of this research, as it shows the relation and interaction between the government and citizens in general. In this research, the main concern is the public's participation in the formulation of new local development plans and the urban development decision-making process in general. The nature of the interaction, in this case, will be between (local people and the local planning authority), in other words, between (citizens and government), which is the focus of chosen definition. It is worthy to note here that the nature of this research comes under urban governance studies, where urban governance is concerned with how the main forces of society (state, market, civil society) are interacting and overlapping (this issue is discussed in detail, see 3.3).

A short but concise discussion about governance has been written in the previous section to outline the meaning of the concept in general and its meaning used in this research. Hence, what is the relationship between governance and public participation, if there is any relation? This question leads to a more in-depth search of governance and, more specifically, the concept of good governance.

2.2.2 What is good governance?

Much research and studies have addressed the importance of the quality of governance and its effects on human well-being and development outcomes in general (UNDP, 1997; Graham et al., 2003; Sharma, 2004; Arndt and Oman, 2006; MoP, 2010). To assess the quality of the governance, the UNDP (1997) defined a set of principles and attributes of good governance. These principles seem to appear in many other studies in the literature and obviously with slight changes. Table 2.1 below shows the main attributes as cited in the UNDP document:

Table 2.1: The main attributes of Good Governance.

Attribute	Description
Participation	All men and women should have a voice in decision-making, either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their interests. Such broad participation is built on freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate constructively.
Rule of law	Legal frameworks should be fair and enforced impartially, particularly the laws on human rights.
Transparency	Transparency is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information are directly accessible to those concerned with them, and enough information is provided to understand and monitor them.
Responsiveness	Institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders.
Consensus orientation	Good governance mediates differing interests to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interests of the group and, where possible, on policies and procedures.
Equity	All men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their well-being.
Effectiveness and efficiency	Processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the best use of resources.
Accountability	Decision-makers in government, the private sector and civil society organisations are accountable to the public, as well as to institutional stakeholders. This accountability differs depending on the organisation and whether the decision is internal or external to an organisation.
Strategic vision	Leaders and the public have a broad and long-term perspective on good governance and human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development. There is also an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which that perspective is grounded.

Source: (UNDP, 1997, P. 5)

Another study by United Nations "Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific" (UNESCAP, 2009), this study defined a set of eight significant characteristics as the main principles of good governance, which are: participation, consensus orientation, accountability, transparency, responsiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, equity and inclusion, and the rule of law, see Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Characteristics of good governance
Source: (UNESCAP, 2009, p.03)

Based on the above, it is evident that participation is one of the main principles of good governance. It is crucial for all people of any gender, race, colour, social class, etc., to have their own say on decisions that could affect their lives in any way. This participation could be either direct participation or through a representative authority/institution, which should represent the public intention in any matter.

Thus, how is the concept of good governance addressed in this study? This research examines the level of public participation (theoretically and practically) in the decision-making process within urban planning. It considers urban planning as a form of governance (urban governance) and public participation as an essential indicator of how good the governance is.

2.3 Public Participation

Over the last few decades, there has been a growing interest in the important role of the public in determining policies regarding issues of many disciplines, including political science, social science, development studies, planning, economics, geography, etc. There is an increasing realisation of the importance of public participation in governmental institutions and scientific and industrial bodies. All of these institutions/bodies believe that they need to pay more attention to the public, be more accountable, transparent and responsive to them, and involve them in the decision-making process when feasible (Renn, 1992; Rowe and Frewer, 2000). The topic of public participation[3] in planning has been addressed in many academic pieces of research and is still a vital idea that continues

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[3] Much research has addressed the concept of public participation under various terms, some researchers have depicted it as synonyms of uncertain equivalence! (Rowe and Frewer, 2005). In USA the concept has addressed under the term of 'citizen participation', where in Scotland it is addressed under the term of 'community engagement'.

to attract more academic attention and debate around it (Davidoff, 1965; Douglass and Friedmann, 1998; Cooke and Kothari, 2001; Rowe and Frewer, 2005; Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013). The debate in planning literature around the importance of public participation can be divided into two main arguments. Firstly, those who support more participatory planning argue that increasing dialogue will lead to better, more informed decisions. Secondly, those who question to what extent public participation in practice is beneficial to the public interest argue that public participation is just a form of governmentality[4] (Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013). These arguments are both theoretical and practical, and they debate the effectiveness of public participation in planning and discuss whether more public participation in planning is needed or not. The proponents of each side built their own argument on basic theories. on the one side, the supporters of more participatory planning draw on Habermasian[5] concept of deliberative democracy, the theory of communicative action (for more details see 3.2.3) and the theory of social capital (for example, Healey, 1997; Forester, 1999; Innes and Booher, 2004; Healey, 2006a; Taylor, 2007), on the other, the researchers who argue that public participation in practice does not live up to the theoretical perfection, draw on Foucauldian[6] critiques of power (for example, Campbell and Marshall, 2000; Ellis, 2004; Barnes et al., 2007).

The disputes and arguments between both sides of the debate around public participation in planning are played out within the planning literature. The supporters of more public participation in planning justify their point that more public engagement will help build 'institutional capacity', social and political capital and enhance community cohesion (Healey, 1997; Taylor, 2007). Moreover, those on this side of the debate ask for more participatory planning, 'collective planning' based on a deliberative approach (Forester, 1999; Healey, 2006a). For those on the other side of the debate, the theoretical position of the proponents of the Habermasian concept opens the door widely for them to criticise the Habermasian normative perspective about participation. They argued that the

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[4]"A concept of Michel Foucault to encompass the mentalities, rationalities and techniques used by governments, within a defined territory, actively to create the subjects (the governed), and the social, economic, and political structures, in and through which their policy can best be implemented. In other words, governments try to produce the citizen best suited to fulfil their policies" Mayhew, S. (2009). *A Dictionary of Geography*, OUP Oxford.

[5]-Pertaining to Jürgen Habermas (born 18 June 1929), he is a German sociologist and philosopher; he is very well known for his theories on communicative rationality and the public sphere.

[6]- Pertaining to Michel Foucault (15 October 1926 – 25 June 1984). He is a French philosopher, historian of ideas, social theorist, philologist, and literary critic. His theories addressed the relationship between power and knowledge. Foucault had some claim to be the most prominent living intellectual in France.

outcomes of public participation in practice are not always for the 'public good'. They believe many tacit factors play a crucial role in shifting the participation process from its normative position. Such factors include the dominance of certain interests (i.e. business interests), the existing power structure in every social action and its effects, the diversity of social action and the focus on short-term objectives, affecting the process outcome (Flyvbjerg, 1998; Campbell and Marshall, 2000; Phelps and Tewdwr-Jones, 2000; Ploger, 2001).

However, these differing viewpoints on public participation in planning have been reflected in how to define this term. Fogg (1981) argued there is no consensus around the real meaning of 'participation' in planning. Moreover, Barnes et al. (2003) contended a dispute about the definitions of 'public' and 'participation'. Actually, when 'public participation in planning' goes under discussion, the debate often refers to the initial related work of Arnstein, 'A ladder of citizen participation' (Arnstein, 1969). Hence, what is public participation? How have scholars defined it?

2.3.1 Meaning of public participation

As mentioned earlier, there is no specific definition for 'public participation', as the notion per se has many terms (public participation, community engagement, citizen participation). The researcher will review how academia has defined and understood this notion in this section. But before doing so, it is essential to define what does public mean in general? And more importantly, explain the meaning of this term, as it is used for this research.

Public: According to Cambridge dictionaries (2015), the word 'public' means "all ordinary people" as a noun, while it is "relating to or involving people in general, rather than being limited to a particular group of people" as an adjective. In the same context, Oxford dictionaries (2015) define 'the public' as "ordinary people in general; the community". In this sense, 'public' refers to lay people who form a community.

The word 'community' is commonly used in governmental and local policies, governmental strategies and legislations, as well as in planning theories and a vast array of books. Many social critics have reached a consensus that there is no universally shared concept of community (Young, 1986). In a later study by Young (1990, p. 234), she defines community as "the people with whom one identifies in a specific locale. It refers to neighbourhood, church, and schools. It also carries connotations of ethnicity, race, and other group identifications. For most people, insofar as they consider themselves

members of communities at all, a community is a group that shares a specific heritage, a common self-identification, a common culture and set of norms." In this definition, Young indicates that the community can be defined according to two factors:

- Geography, spatial, territory: People who live or work together in a given place (neighbourhood, factory, school, church, mosque. etc.)
- Shared character or identity: Group of people share some characteristic(s) - ethnicity, culture, age, heritage, and religion.

Sarkissian et al. (1994) share the same viewpoint as Young, where they argue that 'community' can be defined according to several factors as follows:

- Geographical definitions, e.g., adjoining houses, streets, neighbourhood, school, etc.,
- The patterns of interaction among individuals,
- And the perception of commonality or common interest.

In the same context, Healey (1996, p. 223-4) argues that the meaning of community used in her study refers to two meanings "The first is spatially based, all those in a place who share a concern and/or are affected by what happens there. The second is stake based, that is, all those who, directly or indirectly, have an interest in or care about what the people in the first community are doing in a place."

All reviewed studies emphasise the geographical factor in defining communities. This point was criticised by Jenkins (2007) as he argues that the most common use of the word 'community' refers to a group of people living in a defined region, while the accurate use is to refer to a group that has the same interests.

In addition to the factors mentioned above, the internet revolution has led to the spread of virtual communities (Wellman and Gulia, 1999; Koh et al., 2007). In this sense, a group of people who have the same interest can form a virtual group on social networks to discuss and communicate with each other (A widespread form is a Facebook group page). Maybe this underpins the viewpoint of Jenkins that shared interests define communities more than territories do.

As far as the meaning of 'public' in this research is what matters, the word 'public' refers to ordinary people in general 'public at large' who form the community. In this respect, and within this research, the meaning of 'community' is very similar to the definition

used by Healey (1996). *It refers to a group of ordinary people united by common interests and the same spatial geography targeted by a certain development strategy*. The scale of the chosen territory, which is targeted by a development strategy, is local. In other words, this research will investigate the participation of local ordinary people in the formulation process of the local development plan of their city.

This study now turns to investigate the literature as it searches for the meaning of participation and public participation in general.

Public participation: The World Bank participation sourcebook (1996, p. xi) indicates that participation is a vibrant and vast notion. It could mean "different things to different people in different settings". It is a matter of principle for some; others understand it as a means in practice, and for still others, it is an end in itself. Each one of these conceptualisations has its own merit. Due to the high flexibility and richness of the concept of participation, there is no broad consensus about its real meaning. In their extensive study in Sydney, O'Neill and Colebatch (1989) pointed out that 'participation' can be understood through the harmonic relation between the results of the process and the participants' aspirations. It is generally believed that participation is 'real' when the participants have the opportunity to determine the process outcomes and therefore 'bogus' when those outcomes are determined elsewhere. Therefore, all the participants in the process must have a kind of power to contribute to the formulation of the process itself, which ultimately could lead to an effective contribution to the formulation of the final outcomes. Here we can understand that "the term of community participation, rather than consultation, it indicates an active role for the community, leading to significant control over decisions." (Sarkissian and Hofer, 2009,p 47)

According to many research scholars (Connor, 1988; Choguill, 1996; Collins and Ison, 2006; Tritter and McCallum, 2006), the work of Sherry Arnstein (1969) 'A ladder of citizen participation' is considered one of the most important leading research in the field of public participation in planning. It gives a simple, clear typology of different levels of participation in the planning process (this typology is discussed in detail in 2.3.3). She defines citizen 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. It is the strategy by which the have-nots join in determining how information is shared, goals and policies are set, tax resources are allocated, programs are operated, and benefits like contracts and patronage are parcelled out. In short, it is the

means by which they can induce significant social reform which enables them to share in the benefits of the affluent society" (Arnstein, 1969, p. 216-217).

In the footsteps of Arnstein, many other definitions of participation have appeared in further research. The core team[7] in the World Bank defines participation as "a process by which people -especially disadvantaged people- can exercise influence over policy formulation, design alternatives, investment choices, management, and monitoring of development interventions in their communities." (Bhatnagar and Williams, 1992, p. 7). In another definition presented by Burns et al. (2004, p. 2) underpins on the idea that "community participation concerns the engagement of individuals and communities in decisions about things that affect their lives."

In addition to the definitions mentioned above, other research on the topic of public participation shares the same general thoughts regarding this concept (Cooke and Kothari, 2001; Newman et al., 2004; Skidmore et al., 2006). the general understanding of this concept boils down to being a kind of practice involving members of the public in the decision-making process, agenda settings and policy formulation of bodies and institutions which are in charge of policy development (Rowe and Frewer, 2005). However, this general explanation of participation is too vast. It opens the doors widely for various interpretations, as the public could be involved (in the policy formation and decision-making process) at different levels in several different ways and techniques (Wiedemann and Femers, 1993).

Based on the above, participation is a broad, rich, and contested concept, and it has a lot of interpretations. The debate about whether participation is a means or an end is not new. In a study for the World Bank, the managing director Sven Sandstorm wrote in the foreword:

"Participatory development is an end and a means. It is an end because participation builds skills and enhances people's capacity for action and for enriching their lives. It is a means because participation contributes to better development policies and projects. As a development agency, the World Bank is primarily concerned with exploring how

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[7] "A group of 15 Bank staff (the core team) oversees the learning process. The group was given a mandate to assist in developing and documenting 20 Bank–supported operations that could be considered participatory, accelerate Bank learning from different initiatives taking place inside and outside the Bank, and investigate any modifications the Bank may need to make in its operational practices in order to encourage popular participation where appropriate."

individuals, communities and public and private institutions can contribute to making development prospects better and more lasting" (Bhatnagar and Williams, 1992, p. 2).

It is evident that the World Bank study adopts the concept of participation as both a means and an end. Other studies differentiate between the two meanings. Those who believe that participation is a means justify their viewpoint that participation is a tool that leads to more effective development by ensuring better planning, implementation, evaluation, and monitoring based on the data generated collectively between participants and interventionists. On the other side, advocates of participation as an end in itself believe it delivers empowerment by giving people control over the process they had traditionally been excluded (Chambers, 1994; Chambers, 1997; Cooke and Kothari, 2001). In the same context, Jenkins (2007) argues that "there are fundamental differences between participation as a means and/or an end". Participation as a means is "information, consultation, even devolved decision-making, but with an instrumental objective". But participation as an end is "the fundamental acceptance of individual or group rights to self-govern" (as cited in Hasan, 2012, p. 21).

Many social critics and theorists (e.g. Jürgen Habermas and Patsy Healy) believed that introducing the concept of public participation to society is crucial, not only as a tool to carry out planning activities but furthermore as an essential tool to deal with diversity and differences in the structure of the community in order to achieve more deliberative democracy (Young, 1986). This belief is a response to the fact that decision-making bodies and institutions often tend to create and exacerbate injustice. Usually, "policy formation in welfare capitalist society tends to be depoliticized and operates through a relatively closed club of interest-group bargainers" (Young, 1990. p. 244).

Here and after reviewing how the literature addresses the concept of public participation, this study tends to share the viewpoint presented in (Bhatnagar and Williams, 1992) that public participation is a means and an end. It is a means to promote better urban development by participating in formulating policies/plans and evaluating the practices. And it is an end as participation contributes to enhancing the capacity building of the community and enriches their skills and knowledge to be more effective citizens. Moreover, this research uses public participation as an indicator of good governance (see 2.2.2 above).

The following sections will shed light on the history of public participation, and some approaches (e.g., Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation, Skeffington report) used to enhance this notion in urban planning.

2.3.2 The early initiatives of the concept of public participation and its evolution

Engaging people in the decision-making process, which could have consequences on their lives, is not new; its early seeds can be traced back to the age of ancient Greek philosophers. In his work "the republic", Plato presented a few forms of government; democracy was one of these forms. He depicted the state of democracy where all people "are free. Liberty and free speech are rife everywhere; anyone is allowed to do what he likes." (Plato and Cornford, 1945, p. 282). In this state, Plato dreamed of ideal community participation. In Athena, an example of that state, the rule was not for the majority through elected representatives. It "was based on the theory that every adult male citizen had an equal right to take a personal part in the government through the Assembly and the law courts and was capable of holding any office" (Ibid, p. 279). Even though Plato limited participation in that state to males without females, the idea of giving "every" adult male the chance to participate in the government is considered a good opportunity for effective participation in decision-making.

Moreover, in 4th century Athens, where Plato lived, the dominant norms of defining human beings by their bodies led to the unavoidable distribution of social roles between men and women. Women are defined by gender and bound to the tasks of raising children and taking care of them, which makes them quite inapt for work and combat (Brisson, 2012); "Men, in contrast, are generally physically stronger than women, are assigned to manual labour and to war; and they are therefore necessary also political actors" (Brisson, 2012, p.130). Therefore, and taking into account the dominant norms at the time, "Plato can be seen as urging a significant improvement in the status of women relative to the norms of his time" (Olugbade, 1989, p.504).

Looking at more recent history, specifically the eighteenth century, Jean-Jacques Rousseau developed a political philosophy based on the ideal community. He dreamed of a transparent, visible, and legible society. In this society, there are no privileges for any royal power or some corporation, where all people have equal opportunities to participate effectively in decision making. In this philosophy, Foucault (1980) cited Rousseau's dream:

"It was the dream that each individual, whatever position he occupies, might be able to see the whole of the society, that men's hearts should communicate, their vision be unobstructed by obstacles, and that the opinion of all reign over each."(Foucault and Gordon, 1980,p 152)

In Rousseau's theory, there is a robust emphasis on participation. He sees there are three main functions of participation. Firstly, it increases the value of freedom according to the principle of "being one's own master". Secondly, "it enables collective decisions to be more easily accepted by the individual", and thirdly, "it increases the feeling among individual citizens that they 'belong' in their community" (Pateman, 1976,p 27). In his theory, society is aware that participation is worthwhile; all people have the opportunity to participate effectively in collective decisions. In this society, by practising effective participation, the human 'not law' should rule; at the same time, people will be ruled by the political system that they themselves have created. In this case, the role of an individual is automatically restricted (Pateman, 1970; 1976).

More recently, in the twentieth/twenty-first century, there has been a growing interest in public participation in many disciplines, including planning, because of the rise of new theories and approaches in political, economic, and social sciences (e.g., neoliberalism, postmodernism). After the emergence of planning regulations and laws in the early 20th century in many countries globally, the priorities for these laws were to control and lead the development and ensure that new development conformed to specific standards of amenity and convenience (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). The first emergence of participation research dates back to the beginning of the institutionalised city and regional planning in the early 20th century, particularly in the US (Williams, 1976; Day, 1997). In the UK, The work of Patrick Geddes (1904) 'Place, Work, Folk' in his study 'Civics: as Applied Sociology' is considered an early initiative toward the concept of public participation at the beginning of the 20th century, although, his approach was limited to the powerful elite rather than the masses. He proposed the idea of 'civic exhibition' where he assumed that the exhibition could be the best way to correlate their theoretic civics with their practical policy fully. The purpose of the exhibition was to submit a practical proposal to the society for their consideration and discuss it. Geddes was very keen to engage the public/society in the decision-making process in their area. The work of Geddes was not applied at a large scale at that time, and even the concept of public participation was unthinkable as the power was in the hands of a powerful elite. Significant interest in public participation began in the 1960s and 1970s (Innes and

Booher, 2004; ESPON, 2007). According to Day (1997), interest in public participation increased dramatically in the 1960s due to poverty and poor living conditions after the war. There was a need to engage people effectively and give them the chance to have a say in programs and policies that affected their lives, rather than manipulating them by using participation to gain their cooperation. Diane Day writes, "Significant interest [in citizen participation] began in the 1960s and 1970s as North America was in the midst of what appeared to be a countercultural revolution." (Day, 1997, p. 421). The 'countercultural revolution', as Day calls it, refers to the unrest and distrust in government that led to citizens exercising their rights to engage in democracy in America. 1960s was a period of dramatic and far-reaching social change and progress as the Black African Americans have granted their right to vote in elections.

On the other hand, the recession of the early 1980s in the United States and much of the developed world pushed the interest in citizen participation out of the foreground. This economic recession has had a dramatic impact on financial resources for local governments across the globe; as investments and revenues from business taxes or planning applications decline, increasingly governments have relied on private and voluntary sector actors to manage and deliver services at that time (Grant, 1994; Day, 1997; Bevir, 2012). The planners focused more on strategic planning and economic development to overcome the recession, which boosted the importance of citizen participation as the planners had to rely more on cooperation with the citizens to achieve that (Grant, 1994; Day, 1997).

As noted above, it is evident that social and economic changes/challenges that occurred during the last century have had an essential effect on the emergence and evolution of public participation. These social and economic challenges have always been present in the agendas and manifestos of political elites who were working to enact laws and regulations to deal with them. Consequently, new approaches and legislations which stress the importance of public participation have emerged.

2.3.3 Public participation in planning

In the late sixties of the last century, there were two important documents in planning literature. One of them in the United Kingdom, and the other in the United States, where both of them were considered the actual pioneer initiatives which gave the basic statutory frame of the concept of public participation 'citizen participation' in planning (Sarkissian et al., 2003; Cullingworth et al., 2014). The first document was a British government

report known as the 'Skeffington Report' *(People and Planning Report)* on the Committee on Public Participation in Planning (1969), which provided guidance for a statutory basis for public involvement in development plan making. This report "is sometimes celebrated as the turning point in attitudes to public participation in the UK planning" (Cullingworth et al., 2014, p. 509). The second document was Sherry Arnstein's Ladder of citizen participation 1969, which gave a classification of the power degree possessed by the community to participate in the decision making process (Sarkissian et al., 2003).

Skeffington Report

In 1968 the Minister of Housing and Local Government gave the official mandate to Mr A. M. Skeffington "... to consider and report on the best methods, including publicity, of securing the participation of the public at the formative stages in the making of development plans for their area" (Levin and Donnison, 1969, p.475). In that year, the government firmly endorsed the term of public participation (The Skeffington Committee, 2013). The terminology 'public participation' was mentioned in the recommendations of the Planning Advisory Group's Report (PAG); when PAG was asked to reassess the Town and Country Planning Act of 1947[8]. The report's recommendations focused on the commitment to public participation in planning, where this commitment to public participation was embodied in the Town and Country Planning Act of 1968 (Levin and Donnison, 1969; Damer and Hague, 1971). But, the Skeffington Committee was set up before the Act of 1968 was passed; the committee ended up with a report titled 'people and planning' and these are some of the main recommendations included within the report (as cited in Levin and Donnison, 1969, p. 476):

- "People should be kept informed throughout the preparation of a structure or local plan for their area.
- Representations should be considered continuously as they are made while plans are being prepared; but, in addition, there should be set pauses to give a positive opportunity for public reaction and participation [...] Where alternative courses are available, the authority should put them to the public and say which it prefers and why.

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[8] The importance of the Town and country planning Act 1947 lies in that it brought almost all development under control by making it subject to planning permission. However, discretion was built into the planning system at this time and played an important role. Also, it allowed the council voluntarily to consult with the public -in effect, the start of modern 'public consultation' at a very basic level.

- Local planning authorities should consider convening meetings in their area for the purpose of setting up community forums. These forums would provide local organizations with the opportunity to discuss collectively planning and other issues of importance to the area. Community forums might also have administrative functions, such as receiving and distributing information on planning matters and promoting the formation of neighbourhood groups.

- Community development officers should be appointed to secure the involvement of those people who do not join organizations. Their job would be to work with people, to stimulate discussion, to inform people and give people's views to the authority.

- The public should be told what their representations have achieved or why they have not been accepted.

- People should be encouraged to participate in the preparation of plans by helping with surveys and other activities as well as by making comments."

Through a critical review of the previous points listed in the Skeffington report, It is noticeable that the report was trying to ask for more public engagement in the formulation of new development plans. From *informing* "people should be kept informed" to *consultation* "representations should be considered continuously" to *participation* and *involvement* "setting up community forums […], The public should be told what their representations have achieved […] People should be encouraged to participate" (Levin and Donnison, 1969, p. 476). In other words, the Skeffington report established a theoretical framework to engage and involve the public in formulating the structure and local plans of their area, which is similar to the theoretical framework "a ladder of citizen participation" established by Sherry Arnstein, the American Scholar in 1969.

Figure 2.2: Eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation.
Source (Arnstein, 1969, p.217)

Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation
In her work 'a ladder of citizen participation', Sherry Arnstein sought to clarify the "critical difference between going through the empty ritual of participation and having the real power needed to affect the outcome of the process"

29

(Arnstein, 1969, p. 216). The core of her work, as defined, is 'the redistribution of the power'. Thus, Arnstein's standard and important ladder of citizen participation is a well-known classification of degrees of power used by the community in the participation process. Although this approach has been criticised for its linearity and simplicity, it is considered a meaningful means to assess and evaluate participatory approaches (Collins and Ison, 2006). Arnstein's approach represents a typology of eight levels of participation, depicted in a ladder of eight rungs. Each rung reflects the extent of citizens' power in determining the end outcomes of the process (see Figure 2.2).

As illustrated in Figure 2.2, the bottom two rungs in the ladder '*manipulation and therapy*' represent the level of 'non-participation'; power-holders devise this level (e.g., city council, planners) to substitute for genuine participation. Arnstein explains the real objective of these two rungs "is not to enable people to participate in the planning or conducting programs, but to enable power-holders to 'educate' or 'cure' the participants" (Arnstein, 1969, P 217). Slightly further up the ladder, '*informing and consultation'* are the first two rungs in the level of tokenism, where this level gives the have-nots the opportunity to have their own say and hear and be heard from/by the power-holders. Although they have the chance to have a voice, they still lack the power to make sure that power-holders will heed their viewpoints. When participation is limited to this level, this leads to the non-guarantee of changing the status quo. '*Placation'* is the higher rung in the level of tokenism; it gives people and have-nots the right to advise, yet the final decision is still in the hand of power-holders to decide.

At the top of the ladder comes the ultimate level of participation named the citizen power, which assumes that have-nots' citizens will obtain the power to determine the outcomes of any participatory process. At this level, the citizens can enter into a partnership with traditional power-holders to negotiate and debate any issue that affects them. Moreover, at the topmost of this level, 'Delegated Power and Citizen Control' have-nots' citizens obtain the full managerial power where they themselves will be the essence of the decision-making process.

Arnstein's approach has become the focus of attention of many scholars who evaluated and criticised it (Choguill, 1996; Bishop and Davis, 2002; Tritter and McCallum, 2006). Even Arnstein herself acknowledged that her approach had some limitations:

- The simplification of using terms (have-nots and power-holders) as each one of them as an independent entity, while in reality, neither the powerless nor the powerful citizens are homogenous clusters.

- Many significant barriers to achieving genuine levels of participation have been omitted in the typology. Such as "racism, paternalism, and resistance to power redistribution on the power-holders side" and "inadequacies of the poor communities political, socioeconomic infrastructure and knowledge base" on the have-nots' side (Arnstein, 1969, p.217).

- The simplification of using eight rungs in the ladder to represent the levels of participation in the real world of people and programs might require as many as 150 rungs to cover the genuine participation.

Despite the criticism of Arnstein's ladder, her approach is considered one of the pioneer studies of citizen participation in planning (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). The approach has provoked many critiques of power issues in various domains, including planning. Many researchers relied on her typology of levels of participation to build their own new studies.

This research adopts Arnstein's ladder to evaluate the level of public participation within the planning models and approaches of modern urban planning (this point is addressed in some detail in 3.2.6). Then, the suggested criteria will be used to assess the level of public participation in planning policies and primary laws in selected study cases.

The Spectrum of Public Participation
In a recent study, International Association for Public Participation (IAP2, 2007a) has developed a cluster of 'core values for public participation'. These values were designed with a broad international input that transcends national, regional, cultural, and religious boundaries to specify the main aspects of public participation. The main objective of identifying these values is to help make better decisions to achieve the goals and aspirations of potentially affected people and entities. Core values for practice of public participation as contained in the IAP2 confirm that public participation:

- is based on the belief that those who are affected by a decision have a right to be involved in the decision-making process.

- Includes the promise that the public's contribution will influence the decision.

- Promotes sustainable decisions by recognizing and communicating the needs and interests of all participants, including decision-makers.

- Seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected by or interested in a decision.
- Seeks input from participants in designing how they participate.
- Provides participants with the information they need for meaningful participation.
- Communicates to participants how their input affected the decision.

Despite the theoretical dimension of these values, which have been mentioned in other studies, these values still reflect the essence of the public participation process and give the guidelines for the implementation process of the public participation approach. IAP2 (2007b) has developed a spectrum of public participation to explain the implementation of the public participation process in practice (see Figure 2.3). The spectrum gives a scale for public impact within the process; it is divided into five different levels of participation (inform, consult, involve, collaborate, and empower).
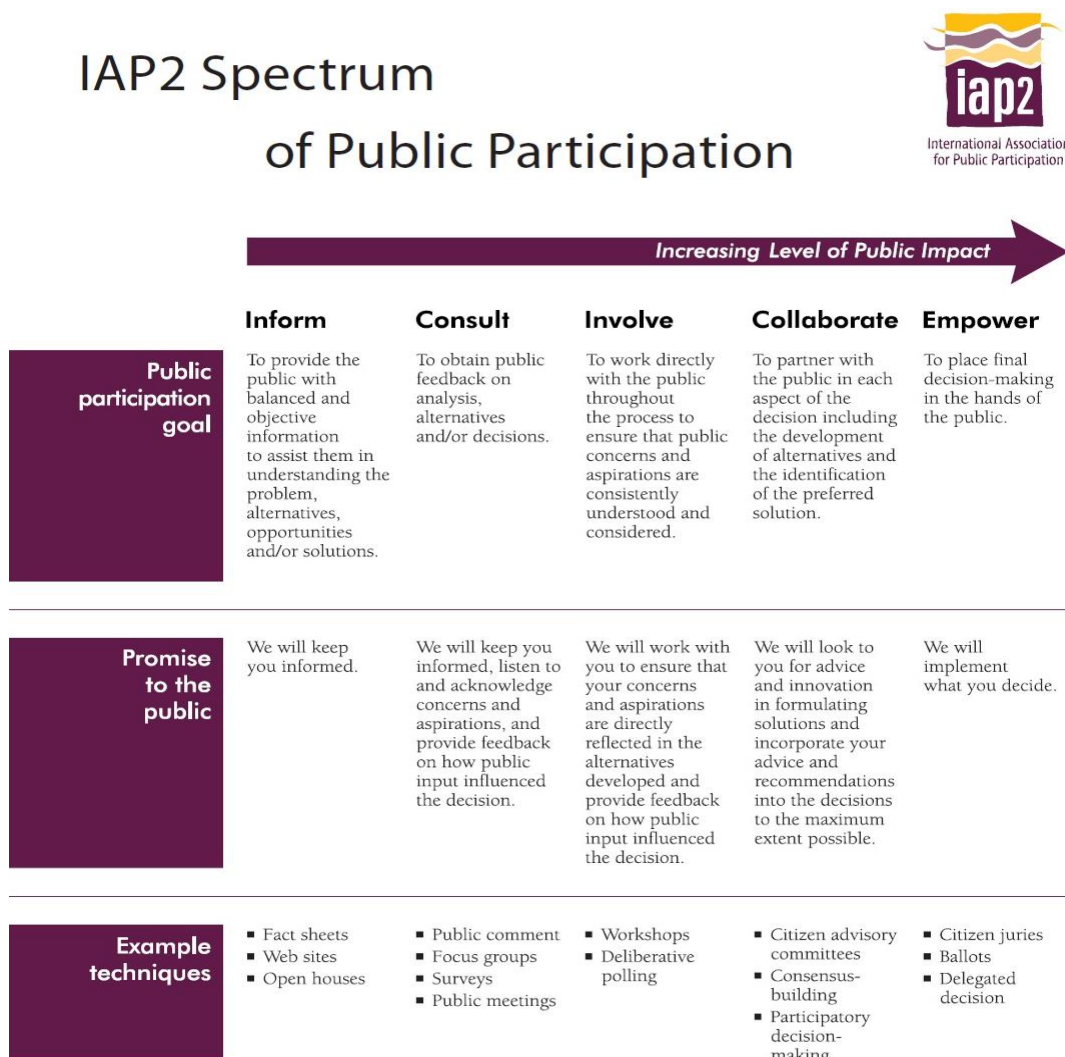
Figure 2.3: IAP2 Spectrum of Public Participation
Source: (IAP2, 2007b)

Within each level, IAP2 identifies the goal of the process and the "promise to the public and gives examples of some techniques that can be used to achieve the goal of each level. This vision is a good example of practical steps to implement the public participation approach.

As mentioned before, this study adopts Arnstein's ladder to evaluate the level of public participation (theoretically) in planning policies and laws in selected study cases. Considering the striking similarity between Arnstein's approach and the IAP2 spectrum, this research will depend on the IAP2 spectrum to assess the level of public participation in practice in selected study cases. The chosen approach gives a good classification of the level of participation in practice. Each stage explains the targeted goal to achieve, the promises to the public to be kept, and gives examples of techniques that could be used to achieve the targeted goal.

2.3.4 Public participation in other studies

Since the late sixties of the last century and yet, Public participation has become a buzzword which attracted many scholars to study and evaluate the engagement and participation of the public in the decision-making process. Arnstein's approach has raised a lot of debate about the concept of the public participation process and how to evaluate it? See (Rowe, 1975; Connor, 1988; Choguill, 1996; Davidson, 1998; Collins and Ison, 2006). Andrew Rowe (1975) established a new model which distinguishes between nine meanings of participation see Table A2.2 (Appendix2-2). He explains in his work the relation between different stages in the political process and the degrees of power. Rowe criticises the linearity of Arnstein's work and avoids the classical order in his work. The stages do not necessarily follow each other in a standard order (step-by-step) (Sarkissian et al., 1994).

Studies and research related to participation concur that the critical point of applying participation is how power is decentralised or shared with the community. It is crucial for the community to have a degree of power that enables it to have a say in the allocation and expenditure of resources. Here, a new level of participation has been raised, called "coproduction". It is different in measuring the extent of participation or autonomy and power. It needs full involvement of the affected people in allocating and expenditure of resources. The "Coproduction" model of participation was proposed by Susskind and Elliott (1983) in their broad study on participation in Western Europe. The researchers proposed three distinct models of participation at the local level: "*Paternalism, Conflict*

and coproduction" Table A2.3 presents a short description of each pattern (see Appendix 2-3). These terms categorise the relationship between the state officials and citizen groups; they describe the attitudes that people and government interact with each other.

Another study was carried out by a group of local municipal practitioners in Scotland who have modernised and redeveloped Arnstein's approach by presenting a new innovative approach with a detailed explanation of the various aspects and dimensions of the participation process (Davidson, 1998). The Wheel of Participation is the result of their work which provides a basic theoretical understanding of an open and democratic planning system that offers the proper participation techniques to achieve the main objective of the study. Since the primary goal was to fully engage local communities in the planning system, the Wheel covers four main steps (Information, Consultation, Participation and Empowerment) with three sub-steps to enhance community involvement. See (Figure 2.3) and Table A2.4 in Appendix 2-4.
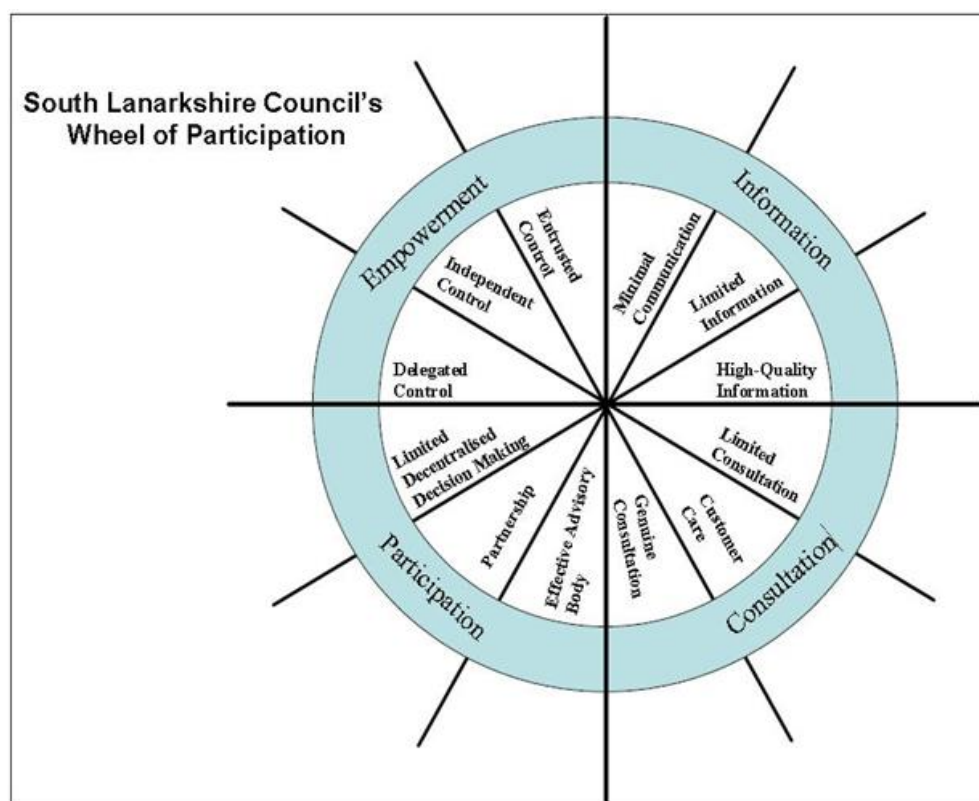
Figure 2.4: The wheel of participation
source: (Davidson, 1998, p.2)

2.3.5 Purposes of participation

After reviewing the literature on public participation, we can say that the purpose of the participation process is to give people the chance to contribute to the formulation of the decisions that might affect their lives. But some studies have outlined other purposes of

34

the participation process and interpreted them in the light of the relation between two main clusters of stakeholders in the participation process (Government and Citizens). Williams (1976) and Innes and Booher (2004) have mentioned some purposes of the participation process, and below is a summary of the main points mentioned in both studies:

- The purpose of public participation is to establish good and effective communication between the government and the public at the initiation of the process; such communication will give the decision-makers the chance to acquire information about the public's preferences to take them into account in their decisions.
- Public participation helps educate people to make decisions and may contribute to gaining more trust in the government.
- Public participation will supposedly improve the quality of decisions made by integrating the knowledge of the public into the calculus of the decision.
- The public participation process should be productive. It means that the product of the process must be useful and usable.
- Public participation is about 'getting legitimacy for public decisions.'
- Public participation is basically about enhancing fairness and justice.
- Public participation is something planners and public officials do because the law requires them to.

Clearly, the purposes of the public participation process stress the interaction and communication between the general public and public officials, in other words, the relation between government and the public, so the purposes of the participation process can be categorised in two main aspects: firstly, in terms of 'Public' is to build active civil society. While secondly, in terms of 'Government', it is to create an adaptive, flexible and self-organising polity that can deal with wicked problems in an informed and effective way (Rittel and Webber, 1973). Once again, this underpins the use of public participation as a means and an end in this research.

2.3.6 Advantages and disadvantages of public participation

As mentioned previously within the former section, the main two beneficiaries of the participation process are (the government and the citizens). Hence, to explore the advantages and disadvantages of the public participation process, we need to address them from two main perspectives (citizen and government perspectives). In their study, Irvin

and Stansbury (2004) depend on this classification to discover the positive and negative aspects of the participation process and investigate these aspects at two tiers of benefits, 'the process and outcomes' more information is in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: The advantages and disadvantages of the participation process

		Citizen perspective	Government perspective	
Advantages		• Education (learn from and inform government representatives) • Persuade and enlighten government. • Gain skill for activist citizenship	• Education (learn from and inform people) • Persuade citizens; build trust, and allay hostility. • Build strategic alliances. • Gain legitimacy of decisions.	Decision process
		• Achieve outcomes. • Gain some control over the policy process. • Better policy and implementation process	• Achieve outcomes. • Avoid litigation costs. • Better policy and implementation process	Outcome
Disadvantages		• Time consuming • Pointless if the decision is ignored	• Time consuming • Costly • May create more hostility against the government	Decision process
		• Worse policy decisions if heavily influenced by opposing interest groups	• Loss of decision-making control • Possibility of bad decision which is politically impossible to ignore. • Less budget for implementation of actual projects	Outcome

Source: Irvin and Stansbury, 2004, p. 56-58.

In a related context, Lehtonen (2005) emphasises the importance of addressing the advantages of the participation process from two distinct perspectives (citizens and city officials), sharing the same viewpoint as Irvin and Stansbury (2004) in evaluating the citizen participation process. The following table summarises the most important advantages raised in the study.

Table 2.3: The advantages of the public participation process

Citizens' perspective	City officials' perspective
• Getting to understand the project. • Getting to know their future area. • Being able to influence decisions affecting their destiny.	• Strengthening the sense of community in the area. • Transferring the workload from planners to future residents.

Source: Author's Original design, based on Lehtonen, 2005.

Other studies have addressed the negative aspects that could be a result of the public participation process if this process is not well managed. Day (1997) and Soh and Yuen (2006) have mentioned some of these negative points as follows:

- The engagement of various interest groups leads to the achievement of a more pluralistic outcome that, if not well managed, can result in excessive competition that is harmful to the policy-making process.

- The problem of genuine representation by interest groups may not necessarily represent a broad spectrum of citizens.

- Participation is a luxury in modern industrial societies because it requires skills, resources, money, and time that many citizens do not have.

- Through greater participation and decentralisation, the difference in interest groups does not eliminate governmental power. Still, it transfers it to private hands, thereby facilitating the exploitation of public policy for narrow private interest and running the risk of corruption.

On the other hand, the arrival of the digital revolution and the spread of the internet has led to the creation of virtual communities based on mutual interest (Wellman and Gulia, 1999; Koh et al., 2007). Considering that the integration and inclusion of people or local citizens are vital to urban planning and other participatory processes, there was an acute need to develop and modernise traditional methods and tools of public participation to move to a digital participation system. Poplin (2012, p.196) argues that "new methods and technical possibilities for online public participation require the re-thinking or reengineering of current participatory processes in urban planning". During the past three decades, there have been many studies that have developed and introduced new technical methods to involve the public in the urban planning process. Among these methods, name a few, public participatory geographic information systems (PP GISs), interactive Web-based survey tool, playful public participation (PPP) and a smartwatch application to support citizen feedback (Al-Kodmany, 2001; Poplin, 2012; Wilson et al., 2019).

As with traditional methods and tools for public participation, the modern online methods and tools in the digital participatory system have some advantages and disadvantages. Their advantages include their flexibility, widespread, easy access, information distribution, transparency, solutions through participation, consensus building and improving the convenience and comfort of participation will promote inclusion (Bugs et al., 2010; Poplin, 2012; Wilson et al., 2019; Jankowski et al., 2019). Yet, despite considerable potential benefits, online methods might not be an elixir for improving the quality of public participation processes and outcomes. Jankowski et al. (2019, p.513) cited a number of shortcomings of digital participatory methods in other studies as follows:

- "The limited awareness of planners about web-based participatory methods,
- The ''rational ignorance of citizens'' related to one's assessment of the cost of becoming familiar with online tools versus the likely benefit of participating,
- Expensive and require substantial investment in learning how to use and maintain them,
- The digital divide, which limits access to online participation to those who are not connected to or simply lack skills for using Internet tools,
- Using online methods in planning also requires basic map literacy skills, which may further limit the pool of potential participants,
- The lack of trust in the effectiveness of online tools among participants
- And the lack of trust in data quality among planners and decision-makers".

As stated above, it is notable that all studies agree on the benefits and advantages (education, increasing mutual trust, etc.) that could be gained from the public participation process if it is well managed. And like any other approach, there are some potential limitations of the process, whereas the occurrence of these limitations depends on to what extent the process is well managed. Thus, good governing and managing the process will ultimately promote its advantages, which makes public participation one of the main aspects of good governance (see good governance discussion earlier in this chapter).

2.3.7 Commentary and discussion

The emergence of the concept of governance and the tendency to further decentralise the governing process in many countries globally have fostered the need for more public participation in the decision-making process in many disciplines. This is to give all stakeholders and those interested in a specific issue the right to participate and be involved

in the process of dealing with that issue. The literature review on public participation in urban planning shows that the early interest in the notion dates back to the late sixties of the last century (Day, 1997; Sarkissian et al., 2003; Innes and Booher, 2004). Since then, much research has addressed the need for public participation and how to implement and evaluate it?

There is a consensus that the early pioneer studies that discussed the need for public participation within the planning process are notably Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation and the Skeffington Report. Arnstein's approach, despite its simplicity, gives a good classification of the levels of participation in all stages of the decision-making process. This approach has been used as a cornerstone for many later studies in the field of public participation (e.g. Davidson, 1998; IAP2, 2007b). The main critiques of Arnstein's approach focused on its simplicity and linearity (Bishop and Davis, 2002; Collins and Ison, 2006). Meanwhile, other studies went further in their critiques and criticised its typology of participation levels. They assumed that the approach did not differentiate between (the general public and leaders) see (Connor, 1988).

Most of the studies reviewed earlier in this chapter (The Skeffington Committee, 2013; Arnstein, 1969; Rowe, 1975; Davidson, 1998; IAP2, 2007b) have a consensus that the public participation process goes through five main stages, which are 'Information', 'Consultation', 'Involvement', 'collaboration' and 'Empowerment', and within each stage, there is a number of procedures and techniques that give society the ability to overcome the lower stage and jump up to the higher one.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a literature review concerning the main concepts discussed in this study (i.e., public participation and governance). This is in order to respond to the first objective of this research by answering its first two questions, which are:

1.1. What is governance, and how it is associated with the concept of public participation?

1.2. What is the concept of public participation?
- The meaning and evolution of the concept,
- Public participation in planning and its main theories,
- The purpose of public participation and its positive and negative aspects.

In order to provide an answer to the first question, 1.1, this chapter reviewed a brief history of the emergence of the concept of governance and presented the different viewpoints on how to define the concept, which is varied depending on the contexts and disciplines of issues under study. The brief concluded by determining the scope and the context of the governance used in this research, which is under urban governance. More specifically, to address the relation and interaction between the government and the citizens (state, society) within the urban planning system. This study considers urban planning as a form of governance. And for the evaluation of how good the governance process is? Public participation is used as an indicator for this purpose.

The chapter then moved to answer the second question, 1.2, by reviewing the related literature around the concept of public participation. The previous review identified the meaning of 'public' used in this research as "ordinary people in general; the community". And it referred to the meaning of community used in this study from two aspects 'spatially based' and 'stake based', in other words (people in general who live in a country/city targeted by national/local development). Moreover, the chapter has identified the purpose of public participation as a means for promoting better urban development and as an end to enhancing society capacity building. Then the chapter reviewed some public participation approaches in urban planning and ended up adopting Arnstein's approach to evaluate the level of participation theoretically and its updated version, the 'IAP2 approach', to assess the level of participation in practice.

Finally, the chapter presented the purposes of public participation as well as the negative and positive aspects of the participation process from two perspectives (government and citizens), then concluded with a commentary discussion about the importance of public participation in urban planning.

The following chapter will continue reviewing the key concepts of this research (urban planning and planning reform). It will address the notion of urban planning and its different models during the last century and the beginning of the current one, to investigate whether public participation played a role in modernising urban planning models and theories. Moreover, a critical discussion of a few contextual models (the institutional and culturised planning model) will be presented to form a theoretical background which will lead to the adoption of a convenient conceptual framework for this research.

Chapter Three: Key Research Concepts and Conceptual Framework

3.1 Introduction

As indicated in the introduction of the previous chapter, this chapter will continue to critically review and discuss the keywords, terms and concepts used in this research. After reviewing and discussing the concept of governance and public participation in the previous chapter, this chapter examines and reviews the concept of urban planning and its correlation with public participation. The main purpose of this chapter is to critically outline the conceptual framework of this research which outlines and illustrates the scope and the track of this study. This chapter seeks to fully fulfil the first objective of this study which is: *To shed light on the importance of public participation in urban planning and its relation to governance concept in order to build a solid theoretical background for this research; this, in turn, contributes to the adoption of a conceptual framework to identify the scope and the track of this study.*

The first part of this chapter highlights the emergence, evolution, and definition of the concept of modern urban planning through reviewing and discussing the fundamental planning approaches and models that have emerged throughout the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century. In addition and taking into account the core purpose of this study and responding to question 1.3 of the first objective of this research, this section seeks to shed light on 'to what extent the concept of public participation has existed within the reviewed planning approaches'.

Furthermore, in the second part, a summary of urban governance is presented to highlight the relations and interactions between the main forces of the society. This review shows how these linkages and interactions between the main societal forces (The state, the market and civil society) could affect the decision-making process. Further, the chapter will also discuss which of these forces could be the most influential in the decision-making process.

The final section of this chapter introduces a few models (i.e., institutional model and culturised planning model) of contextual approaches used to study planning comparatively. The critical discussion of those models comes to fulfil the first objective of this research by identifying the general aspects of the study and adopting an appropriate conceptual framework for the purpose of this research. By explaining, reviewing, and comparing the selected approaches and their related models, the author concludes that adopting one of them as a conceptual framework is crucial to conducting this study.

3.2 Urban Planning and Planning Reform

This section reviews the germination of modern urban planning's new mental models and approaches during the 20th century and early part of the 21st century and analyses how these new successive approaches have led to changes and reforms within the planning system. This overview mainly focuses on the United Kingdom experience, considering its global pertinence.

The roots of modern urban planning date back to the emergence of the social movement for urban reform, which arose at the end of the 19th century as a reaction to the problems and dilemmas caused by the industrial city in urban areas (Hall, 1992; Fainstein, 2015). For the planners at that time (e.g. Sir Ebenezer Howard[9] and Sir Patrick Geddes[10]), the need for planning was not just seeking an ideal city but mainly ensuring adequate sanitation and providing good amenities within urban areas. It is worth noting here that the planners at that time were concerned with aesthetic, environmental and social issues of the urban areas. Still, the priority was to provide cities with good amenities (Geddes, 1904). Meanwhile, contemporary planners work more on balancing the conflicting demands of modern planning, such as social equality, economic growth, environmental issues and aesthetic appeal (Fainstein, 2015).

There is no specific definition of urban planning which everyone can agree upon; it is a contested concept. The many definitions tend to vary according to the planning theory and planning system adopted in a country, region or city (Horelli et al., 2013). A wide variety of these definitions range from those that concentrate on physical forms to those that have more comprehensive forms. Sandercock (2004, p. 134) defines planning as an "always unfinished social project whose task is managing our coexistence in the shared spaces of cities and neighbourhoods in such a way as to enrich human life and to work for social, cultural, and environmental justice". The American Planning Association APA (2015, para.1) argues that "planning, also called urban planning or city and regional planning, is a dynamic profession that works to improve the welfare of people and their communities by creating more convenient, equitable, healthful, efficient, and attractive places for present and future generations. Planning enables civic leaders, businesses, and citizens to play a meaningful role in creating communities that enrich people's lives".

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[9] Sir Ebenezer Howard (1850-1928) was a British urban planner and the founder of the English garden-city movement, which has influenced urban planning throughout the world (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2015).
[10] Sir Patrick Geddes (1854-1932) was a Scottish biologist and sociologist who was one of the modern pioneers of the concept of town and regional planning (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2015).

While, The Office of the Deputy Prime Minister ODPM (2005, p. 2) defined planning as "Planning shapes the places where people live and work and the country we live in. Good planning ensures that we get the right development, in the right place and at the right time. It makes a positive difference to people's lives and helps to deliver homes, jobs, and better opportunities for all [...] But poor planning can result in a legacy for current and future generations of run-down town centres, unsafe and dilapidated housing, crime and disorder, and the loss of our finest countryside to development".

Clearly, the previous definitions indicate that planning is an important activity that is linked to significant and important issues such as sustainability, economic growth, urban design and environmental protection, and emphasise the need for planning to remain relevant and connected to the contemporary economic, political and cultural issues of our cities (McCann, 2008; Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013). The main purpose of reviewing the previous definitions of planning is to stress the fact that planning is an important activity that affects people's lives in a positive or negative manner (ODPM, 2005). Herein, and proceeding from this fact, this study tries to investigate the opportunities that exist for public people to contribute and participate in the planning process and, thus, participate in the shaping and formation of the place where they live and work.

As indicated earlier in this chapter, it is noted that the purpose of planning has changed over time from a tool of ensuring a good healthy environment and providing good amenities in urban areas to a strategy of attempting to solve the conflicts between all society forces (Hall, 1992).

In a discussion of the evolution of planning in the UK during the 20th century, Jenkins and Smith (2001) suggest that the evolution of planning can be viewed within the framework of three broad paradigms of planning (Table 3.1). Through its three broad paradigms, this framework is considered an appropriate theoretical approach that can be relied upon in this research to critically classify the most popular planning models that emerged during the 20th century and early part of the 21st century.

Jenkins and Smith (2001) believed there was a shift in British planning from a rational to a relative perspective. The first paradigm was based on a '*command and control*' approach based on the idea of a big scheme, usually referred to as a 'blueprint' or 'masterplans' for development activities.

This approach was a designed-based, technocratic and positivist approach that was influenced mainly by officials and civil engineers who were working to achieve what was perceived as offering more comprehensive public benefit. One of the most important instruments of this approach was land-use zoning which gives a comprehensive vision to solve all fundamental problems, "large-scale social housing projects, urban motorways and Britain's New Towns all were developed under this paradigm" (Rode, 2006, P.3).

Table 3.1: Paradigms of planning

	Nature of planning	Planning techniques	Predominance in planning	Division of power	Assumed nature of relation	Philosophy
First paradigm	Fixed vision of the future (blueprint)	Master Plans Zoning	State planners	Government	Common consensus exists	Rationalism
Second paradigm	Flexible vision and specific action	Structural plans, action plans, special development areas	Public-private partnership	Government with the private sector	Common consensus has to be created	Rationalism
Third paradigm	No fixed vision	Above techniques with participatory planning	Negotiation forums	Government, private sector and civil society	Conflict needs negotiation	Relativism

Source: (Carley et al., 2001, p.25)

Relevant to this research, the main critique of the 'command and control' approach in the 1960s was its lack of ability to give information about actual processes of development (Jenkins and Smith, 2001). Gerd Walter described this critique as a knowledge gap of "incomplete information about existing and future developments" (as cited in Rode, 2006, p.3).

The critiques of this planning model led to a shift to the second paradigm, which held within it a new perception of planning. The new model described planning as a '*process of conflict mediation*', and the role of the experts tended to be an advocacy one. Questions about participation in the planning process rose after the increased awareness of planning as a process. New legislations were passed in the UK that institutionalised some public participation in planning "formal consultation and public inquiries" (Jenkins and Smith, 2001, p.25). In this planning model, a range of interests sought to have their own voice heard within the System and reduce government control over the decision-making process. This range of interests challenged the political-administrative nexus to keep control of both processes and agendas during the 1970s-80s, which led to a reduction of government support for planning (Healey, 1995).

The lack of awareness of a diverse spectrum of interests and their interaction in the second paradigm has been one of the factors which led planning to shift further and gave rise to what was referred to as the third paradigm of '*interdiscursive policy formation*'. According to Jenkins and Smith (2001, p.25), this new planning model worked to "embed planning practice in its social context". The new planning policies were required to promote and take advantage of this spectrum of interests and "knowledge", which is best achieved by building a collective consensus rather than bargaining on conflicting interests.

The former discussion of the three paradigms, presented in Jenkins and Smith (2001) study, shows a chronological classification of shifting and reforming the planning system in the United Kingdom. While this approach seems to be very linear, the planning paradigms presented within it reflect a set of planning approaches that deeply affected planning practice, education, and theory, successively adding new aspects rather than entirely replacing previous approaches. (Hague and Jenkins, 2005). This reform in the planning system had a visible effect in shifting the role of the state, the market and civil society. Through their interaction and relation, these three main spheres constitute urban governance (further discussion in section 3.3). The evolution of planning paradigms has not just affected and changed the planning praxis; it has resulted in an institutional change in the sense of the institution as an organisation (Carley et al., 2001).

In this study, where the main concern is the contribution and participation of public people in the decision-making process within the field of urban/spatial planning, it is crucial to give an overview of the main planning models and theories which emerged over the past century and the beginning of current one. In this respect, the following overview of planning models and approaches will discuss how these models have addressed the idea of public participation in planning and afforded a greater opportunity for the public to have their own say on decisions that directly affect them. Moreover, this research will classify the studied planning models based on the framework suggested by Jenkins and Smith (2001) after adding two new columns to the framework. The first column classifies each planning model within the appropriate paradigm based on the mutual characteristics of the paradigm and the model. The second assesses the level of public participation within each planning model using Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation. This attempt comes to answer question 1.3 of the first objective of this research: "*To investigate whether there was a role, for promoting the concept of public participation within urban planning, in reforming planning theories and introducing new urban planning models*".

3.2.1 The rational comprehensive model

The rational comprehensive approach has been considered one of the key theoretical approaches of planning since its inception in the first half of the 20th century. It is based on a normative ideology that highly values rationality in dealing with a number of issues in a comprehensive way (Ledgerwood, 1985). The 'rational comprehensive' theory – within the term itself - has two main characteristics. The first aspect is '*rationality*', where skilled planners, who are mastered cognitive skills combined with administrative expertise and appropriate aesthetic perception, can study all existing options to present some alternative solutions to decisions makers to choose from (Ledgerwood, 1985). The second aspect is '*comprehensiveness*', which can be embodied in the desire to analyse all possible rational alternatives for any existing problem. The more comprehensive the problem analyses, the better the plan would be (Camhis, 1979). In this approach, the state, through planners, played the role of guardian of the 'public interest', leading communities potentially to achieve a desired long-term future. The planner was undoubtedly the 'knower' (i.e. expert) who relied on his cognitive skills, professional expertise and administrative authority to objectively do what was best for the public (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). But community opposition and critique of this form of top-down planning indicated that what planners did probably was not in the public's best interest (Sandercock, 1998).

A number of planning models fall under the large umbrella of the rational comprehensive approach. It would be helpful to review a brief summary of some chosen models (blueprint and synoptic) in favour of fulfilling the objective of this chapter.

Blueprint planning model
Howard and Geddes are considered two of the most influential pioneers of modern planning at the beginning of the last century. Howard is much known for his concept of 'garden-city', which today remains vital in urban planning, while Geddes is best known for his contributions relating to the origination of scale and methods of planning (Hall, 1992; Lane, 2005). Geddes's contribution to modern planning was to develop the survey-analysis-plan sequence method described by Hall (1992, p. 59) as it "gave planning a logical structure".

The contributions of Howard, Geddes and other early pioneers of modern planning formed the foundations of the blueprint planning model. This planning model came as a response to the need to deal with all rapid urbanisation and industrialisation problems that

occurred between the wars and the need for urban reconstruction after World War II (Hall, 1992). The blueprint planning model has been defined as "an approach whereby a planning agency operates a programme thought to attain its objectives with certainty" (Faludi, 1973, p. 131). The essence of the blueprint planning model is based on the creation of fixed end-state plans. These plans are built based on specific ends, usually determined by the state through planners, then using the science of planning in practice to pursue these ends (Webber, 1983). In this sense, the blueprint model depends entirely on the desired ends of the state without any kind of contact with other potential stakeholders to identify these ends. This issue is one of the persistent critiques faced by this model as the planners are incapable of deciding which ends could be the most preferred by society. Addressing this point, Webber (1983, p. 91) pointed out that "the classical planning model […] will not work in the absence of agreement on objectives".

This model relied on planners' assumptions about the predictability of the future of the world in which they lived; this required them to simplify the world around them (Faludi, 1973). Within this context, and because long-term predictions are unreasonable, the blueprint model faced more criticisms that claimed the failure of this model's predictions (Webber, 1983). Even though the criticisms inflicted on the blueprint planning model, two main dimensions of this model remain essential in the contemporary planning practice. Firstly, the ethic of planning is distinct from politics and secondly, the concept of a single, unified public interest (Kiernan, 1983 cited by Lane, 2005).

Synoptic planning model
The synoptic or 'systems' model is considered a revolutionary shift in planning in the late 1950s and the beginning of the 1960s in the US and then in the UK (Hall, 1983; Lane, 2005). Although the synoptic planning model falls within the rational comprehensive approach, it is quite different from the Blueprint planning model (Hudson et al., 1979). Maybe, the reality of the new urban geography[11] imposed by the new changes in urban areas was an incentive for the emergence of the synoptic planning model. The increase in the number of private vehicles *'transport problems'* and the growth of the population in newly expanded areas *'housing problems'* urged the planners to deal with these new problems in a new way far different from the traditional one (the blueprint planning) (Hall, 1983).

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[11] The spatial study of the city, including urban policy; race, poverty, and ethnicity in the city; international differences in urban form and function; historical preservation; the urban housing market; and provision of services and urban economic activity. Pacione (2003)

The proponents of the synoptic planning model believe it gives a robust deliberative framework for planning practice which roughly consists of "four classical elements: 1) goal-setting, 2) identification of policy alternatives, 3) evaluation of means against ends, and 4) implementation of policy" (Hudson et al., 1979, p.388). The proponents of this model argued that its simplicity and clarity are considered distinctive strength points of this model. On the other hand, the opponents criticised its simplicity and argued that it is a primitive way of thinking assuming stable accepted values to structure goals settings, especially for the planning process, which is a perplexing one (Berry, 1974).

The synoptic planning model differs dramatically from its predecessor in the means, not the ends. In 1967, Richard Bolan (cited in Hall, 1983, p. 42) pointed out that the synoptic planning model is nothing but "old-fashioned comprehensive planning, dressed up in fancier garb". Both models (the blueprint and the synoptic) seek to create fixed end-state plans (Hall, 1983). This model highly relies on numerical and quantitative analysis using mathematical models to relate ends to means. However, this model clings to one of the basic dimensions of the blueprint model, namely, 'the single, unified public interest'; of course, by using different means to meet that (Kiernan, 1983). Faludi (1973) argued that the synoptic model sought to meet 'the single, unified public interest' by depicting society as a holistic one, leading to the homogeneity of interest. Despite the criticisms that levelled up against this model 'specifically for its rigid simplicity', it remains a viable approach and the starting point for a number of various approaches developed from a critical analysis of its shortcomings (Hudson et al., 1979; Lane, 2005).

Blueprint and synoptic planning models and public participation
Discussing the concept of public participation within the blueprint planning model, with its form of top-down planning, this model was described as anti-democratic. It entrenches the power and authority in the hands of the minority elite, "the planners" (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). This model placed the ultimate power in the hand of the planner, who was seen as the expert who analysed and studied all the information required to solve the problem, this mentality that was dominating this model ignored public consultation and did not give the opportunity for other actors – apart from planners - to have their say in the process. Lane (2005) states that the core concept of the blueprint planning model is contrary to giving the public the chance to determine the ends and means of planning where the state totally determines these ends and means through the planners. Therefore, this model includes no scope of public participation within it. This point, in particular, was one of the key criticisms of the blueprint planning model where the critics asserted

that public participation and consultation should be a fundamental procedure in the decision-making process.

In the case of the synoptic planning model, the concept of public participation was embedded in its context; confirming this point, Hall (1983) pointed out that the British planning authorities started conducting consultations (following the legislation enacted in 1968) which became a statutory part of the planning system. Moreover, the nature of this model emphasises the importance of unitary public interest, which assumes that "the goals of planning are essentially universally shared and transcend any special, sectional interests" (Kiernan, 1983, p.77). This shows the value of public participation within this model. Lane (2005, p. 292) drew the attention to the two most significant achievements that the synoptic model added to the planning process regarding public participation as follows:

- "The institutionalisation of a limited role for public comment in planning, and
- The inclusion of actors from outside the formal policy-making arena in the incremental mode of planning".

To conclude, the previous review shows that the blueprint model has no scope for public participation within its context. In contrast, the synoptic planning model is considered the start point of public participation in planning despite the fact that the level of participation was limited to informing only.

Although other planning models (e.g., incrementalism and mix scanning) fall under the rational comprehensive approach, the researcher has chosen blueprint and synoptic planning models to be addressed in this study. On the one hand, the blueprint model is considered the first model of modern planning, which gave the planning a logical structure; on the other hand, the synoptic planning dominated planning literature and practice in the 1960s in the US and UK (Hudson et al., 1979; Hall, 1983; Lane, 2005). It should be noted here that the rational comprehensive planning approach was in the face of mounting critiques from many other schools. For instance, neo-Marxists have criticised many aspects of this model, such as its top-down approach and its ideology based on 'expert knows better' (Hudson et al., 1979; Kiernan, 1983). Here it must be pointed out that Marxists have been criticised for relying on a concept of politics "that speaks less of virtue (as Rousseau did) than of needs" (Burton as cited in Hoch, 1984, p. 91). In other words, Burton (1978) argues that Marxist "political economy has not yet developed a substantive account of either the forms by which equality is expressed or the life of virtue

that democratic theorists traditionally demanded" (as cited in Hoch, 1984, p.91). However, these criticisms of the rational model led to the emergence of new models, such as the 'advocacy planning' model, which aimed to engage other actors side by side with planners in the planning process.

3.2.2 Advocacy or 'pluralistic' planning model

The 'advocacy planning' movement emerged in planning literature in the mid of the 1960s as a response to a situation where the voice of the poor and weak was not being heard and represented in the planning process (Sandercock, 1998). It is worth noting here that this model had a greater vogue in the United States than it had in the United Kingdom and the rest of Europe, as a direct consequence of the civil rights movement durin1960s in the USA (Angotti, 2007). The main concept of this model lies in adversary procedures framed in the legal profession, where a group of experts represent and defend the interests of weak groups against stronger ones (Damer and Hague, 1971; Hudson et al., 1979; Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). In 1965, Paul Davidoff - the pioneer of the new movement of advocacy planning - published an article, 'advocacy and pluralism in planning'. His key arguments have been summed up by Douglass and Friedmann (1998, p. 171) as follows:

- "He criticised the obsession of rational comprehensive planning with means and confirmed that the question of ends still exist.
- He called for greater role of politics in planning and encouraged planners to take a step towards the political arena.
- He called for many plans rather than relying on one plan (Master plan).
- He raised the distributional question, which as long as the rational model tried carefully to hide it, of (who gets what)".

The essence of advocacy planning lies in representing the poor and weak people who previously had been marginalised in the planning process so that advocacy planners would represent those people. In this model, the planners would go to the streets and neighbourhoods where those people live and find out what they need, then bring their claims back to the planning office to discuss and translate them into a technical language of a plan (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998).

It was supposed that advocacy planning was established to give the have-nots and poor citizens the right to have their say in the planning process, but strikingly the power of

planners has been expanded. The planners who are supposed to be advocates representing the public became the 'soft cops' who, with their expanded power, manipulated the fate of people (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). Many critics addressed the idea of public participation and empowerment in this model. Goodman (1972) argued, "that taking the poor off the streets and encouraging their participation in planning was not empowerment them but robbing them of their power" (as cited in Douglass and Friedmann, 1998, p.171). In the same vein, Peattie (1968) described the advocacy planning model as the 'manipulator model'; she argued that the planners go into streets and neighbourhoods where poor people live and collect their ideas. Then, they set the agenda and conceptualise the problem after trying to define the possible alternatives to the problems. Still, they were selective to some extent with the issues raised. They tended to select the issues they were more comfortable with rather than which were highly important to the community (Peattie, 1968).

Although the advocacy planning model emerged from the criticism of rational comprehensive planning being a monopoly of power, the new model did not present any essential change. On the contrary, it expanded the power and role of experts, and there has been little or no significant change in the structure of power (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). On the other hand, despite its problems, the advocacy planning "fills a crucial need for managing latent conflict in the cities and for humanising public action" (Peattie, 1968, p.80).

Remarkably, and from the experience of advocacy planning, various groups of planners have been inspired by this model to develop new approaches. Some planners, like Norman Krumholz, Robert Mier and Pierre Clavel, called for a kind of alliance between themselves and progressive politicians as a step to mastering the advocacy concept, and they presented 'equity planning' (Mier, 1993; Krumholz, 1994; Clavel, 1994). Others drew more attention to the process itself; they discussed and revised the role of planners as experts and discussed how to foster planners' role to become advocators for citizen participation. These discussions led to the emergence of new ideas such as social planning, transactive planning and mutual planning (Friedmann, 1973; Forester, 1982). Another group of planners, from their experience with the advocacy model, drew more radical emancipatory lessons and adopted more revolutionary models such empowerment model and the radical model (Heskin, 1980; Peattie, 1987; Friedmann, 1992). The following sections will discuss in more detail some of these approaches.

3.2.3 The social learning and communicative action models

The advocators of advocacy planning had learned different lessons when they took their professional skills to poor communities; they learned about the local knowledge and political skills that exist within impoverished communities. Based on lessons learnt, a chance for new planning approaches has been discussed by a number of planners and theorists, which has led to the emergence of social learning and communicative action models.

Friedmann (1973) addressed the idea of 'a crisis of knowing', which in his opinion, was the result of a conflict between experts' processed knowledge and the clients' experimental knowledge. He argued that neither side of the conflict has all the answers; he suggested that the best solution is to engage the two sides in a 'mutual learning' process. This process could establish a personal relationship between experts and their clients and make them much closer to each other than before. He called the new approach a 'transactive style of planning'. Friedmann depicted transactive planning as '*a life of dialogue*' that appreciates the value of humans and emphasises equality and reciprocity (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). Transactive planning came to change the prevailing thought of planning by shifting it away from the monopoly of experts to draw more attention to the value of locals.

For others, planning has been perceived as an interactive activity that combines many different actors within the process; all these actors need to communicate and interact with each other in order to identify the problems, suggest the alternatives and find the solutions. John Forester (1980), in his work 'critical theory and planning practice' based on Jurgen Habermas's concept of communicative action, presented a new model that emphasises communicative rationality rather than the instrumental rationality that earlier models have relied on. The proponents of critical theory rely more on qualitative and interpretive analysis than on quantitative and deductive ones. They assert the importance of understanding the contextual aspects in planning studies. Forester (1980, p.283) sums up how critical theory calls our attention in three main points:

> "a critical theory of planning practice, barely indicated here, calls our attention (a) *empirically* to concrete communicative actions and organizational and political-economic structures, (b) *interpretively* to the meanings and experiences of persons performing or facing those communicative actions, and (c) *normatively* to the

respect or violation of fundamental social norms of language use, norms making possible the very intelligibility and common sense of our social world."

In another study, where planners were observed at work; Forester (1982, p.67) believed that "information is a source of power in the planning process […] and if planners understand how relations of power work to structure the planning process, they can improve the quality of their analyses and empower citizen and community action as well". For Forester, planning is a process of critical listening to others' stories, not just listening to their verbal actions but also observing their non-verbal actions. In this sense, planning could be described as a form of communication that depends on verbal and non-verbal actions (speech, questions, inquiries, observations) through a process of dialogue and discourse to shape attention (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998).

Communicative action theorists tried to create a modern democratic model by eliminating the obstacles to communication and accentuating the necessity of open discourse. In this model, the main concern was less on how much the planners know and more on how they could use and share their knowledge; less on how they could solve the problems and more about the way they discuss and open a debate about them. "The shift here is away from expertise and efficiency, and toward ethical commitment and equity" (Fischler, 1989, p.127).

Discussing the extent to which social learning and communicative action models contribute to enhancing the concept of public participation within the planning process, it is noticeable that the new models assert the importance of dialogue and open discourse between experts and their clients (planners and public). Remarkably, both models tend to open a debate and share the knowledge and information in a more open and dynamic concept of mutual learning; in these models, planning is about talk, discussion, debate, arguments and shaping attention (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998). Although these models are more inclusive than their predecessors, the key actor in the process is still the educated planner. Forester, in his theory, depicted planners as social activists far away from the bureaucratic image and herein the problem, planners could be activists, but for sure, they are and remain bureaucrats who work through the state (Fischler, 1989).

Strikingly, both models of social learning and communicative action have presented the concept of public participation in the planning process by asking to acknowledge the value of locals in this process. These models suggested forms of practices that allow

various actors in the planning process to create close relations through debate and open discourse.

However, these models do have some weaknesses; the main criticisms are as follows: firstly, the failure to achieve a balance between structure and agency which led to a more uneven distribution of power; secondly, the proponents of these models did not rely on the basic aspects of planning practice (e.g., established procedures and political frameworks) (Fischler, 2000), thirdly, and most especially when it comes to how these models have addressed the issue of empowerment if they have done! (Sandercock, 1998). In this respect, and as mentioned before in chapter two (see 2.3); there is a dialectical discourse between the proponents of these participatory models and their opponents, which reflects on two main arguments that represented the crucial old debate between two main theories of Habermas and Foucault (Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013). This critique of the normative and utopian philosophy of the communicationalists fostered the need to discuss the issue of empowerment within the planning practice, which led to the introduction of a new theory of radical planning (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998; Fischler, 2000).

3.2.4 The radical planning model

Radical practices in planning have commenced with a critique of the status quo, which was based on unequal relations and distributions of power, then provided practical responses to deal with that critique. This critique is embodied in the argument presented by Friedmann (1987, p.303), indicating that the normative goal of his radical planning model is "the emancipation of humanity from social oppression", the oppression and injustice caused by the state, and the inequality created by the market. In the same vein, Sandercock (1998) shared the same idea where she asserted that the main reason for the emergence of radical practices was the response to a wide variety of injustices and oppressions. For example, but not limited to inequality, gender discrimination, environmental degradation, social-economic exclusion and more; she describes it as:

> "Radical practice emerged from experiences with and a critique of existing unequal relations and distributions of power, opportunity, and resources. The goal of these practices is to work for structural transformation of systematic inequalities and, in the process, to empower those who have been systematically disempowered."(Sandercock, 1998, p.176)

54

For Friedmann, the radical planning model is planning as social transformation; in his work, he differentiates between two broad forms of planning: planning as societal guidance and planning as social transformation. He explains the differences between these two forms as follows:

> "The operative terms in these definitions are societal guidance and social transformation. Whereas the former is articulated through the state, and is concerned chiefly with systematic change, the latter focuses on the political practices of system transformation. Planners engaged in these two practices are necessarily in conflict. It is a conflict between the interests of a bureaucratic state and the interest of the political community." (Friedmann, 1987, p.38-39)

In other words, the planning as societal guidance can be described as traditional planning that depends on well trained, educated and professional practitioners. In contrast, planning as social transformation relies on the idea of 'social mobilisation' where planning can be understood as a transformation process of social, political and economic structures at different scales (Friedmann, 1987). In this case, the planner is the community's ally who helps people understand the process and clarify their goals (Heskin, 1980; Beard, 2003).

This planning model is a substantial shift from its predecessors in which the planner is the key actor who works through the state. The radical planning model presents the planners as the professionals who assist, enable and advise the community but never impose their solutions. And always, it is the community that initiates, and planners facilitate and enable (Heskin, 1980; Leavitt, 1994). This model asserts how to work *with* the community, not *for* them (Leavitt, 1994). Around the same point, Friedmann (1987) discusses the role of the planner in the radical planning model and asserts that the new model imposes a dramatic change in understanding of the professional identity. A radical planner is a connecting link between the community and the state who has to maintain a notion of critical distance. "radical planners must not become absorbed into the everyday struggle of radical practice […] as mediators; they stand neither apart from nor above nor within such a practice" (Friedmann, 1987, p.392).

Clearly, the radical planning model came to empower mobilised communities and gave them the power to decide over the discussions of radical planning where the role of the state in these discussions was excluded. The elimination of the state's role in radical planning discussions has led to a plethora of criticism. Friedmann (1987, p.407) argues

that any social progress achieved through radical planning that skips the state will ultimately collide with material limits; in his opinion, to get beyond these limits, "appropriate actions by the state are essential". On the same theme, Sandercock (1998, p.179) argues that "while it may be a contradiction in terms to think of the state engaging in radical planning, it may be equally misleading to think that radical planning can do without the state". In light of these facts, radical planners have to address the relationship between the state and mobilised communities, including the antagonistic and dialectical aspects of this relationship. Dealing with this relation imposes new urban politics, which could be understood as a way to deal with various conflicts around many axes of oppression, in which the role of the state is not for granted but depends on the relative strength of civil society and its context (Sandercock, 1998). These new urban policies pose a new form of relationship between the state and civil society and many other stakeholders, perhaps best described as a cooperative relationship among all stakeholders. This new cooperative form of the relationship urged some planners (Healey, 1997; Innes and Booher, 1999) to introduce a new planning model under the term 'collaborative planning'.

3.2.5 The collaborative planning model

The former chronological review of planning models shows that there has been an increasing interest in understanding the communicative and interactive nature of planning (Friedmann, 1973; Forester, 1982; Healey, 1992b). This interest in understanding the interactive aspect of planning and asking for more participation and democratic content was initiated by postmodernists who categorically rejected the concept of modernity which believes that planning could be a comprehensive and widely applied without taking into account the context and rationale (Goodchild, 1990; Allmendinger, 1998). In this respect, Allmendinger (1998, p. 227) pointed out that "planning is a product of modernity, but post-modern thinkers argue that it should now change to adapt to the world around it". In order to respond to the needed changes, radical planners sought to explain the communicative nature of planning through the cooperative relationship between all stakeholders in the process. At the same time, collaborative planning understands this nature in the form of an interactive partnership between all stakeholders through consensus building, plan development and implementation (Lowry et al., 1997; Margerum, 2002). Fulton (1989) argues that a collaborative decision-making process necessitates a process of shared decision-making which usually includes various stakeholders who are willing to share information to build a consensus. These

stakeholders are usually the people who have a specific interest or stake in the outcome of the process and may include government representatives, interest bodies, main sectors of the community and public people. For Innes et al. (1994, p.vii) collaborative planning process means "long-term, face to face group processes . . . [in which] groups were called together to prepare legislation, policies, plans, regulatory principles, and implementation strategies."

According to Gray (1989, p.57), the process of collaborative planning can be categorised into three main phases. The first phase is identifying the 'problem settings' where all interested stakeholders will be asked to engage. The second phase is the 'direction-setting' in which all stakeholders will interact with each-others in an attempt to reach a consensus around the raised issue. And the last and third phase is the 'implementation', which is crucial to the success of collaboration where stakeholders work to implement through individuals and joint measures. Thus, collaborative planning strives to create an interactive and communicative environment where all actors involved within the process can get and share information to reach convergence on raised issues. Healey (1992a) summarised the main aspects of a communicative rational approach to planning (these aspects are the components of collaborative planning); these aspects are cited in Tewdwr-Jones and Allmendinger (1998, p. 1976) in the following manner:

- Planning is an interactive and interpretative process.
- Planning is undertaken among diverse and fluid discourse communities.
- The methods require respectful interpersonal and intercultural discussion.
- Focuses rest on the "arenas of struggle" (Healey, 1993, p. 84), where public discussion occurs, and where problems, strategies, tactics, and values are identified, discussed, evaluated, and where conflicts are mediated.
- There are multifarious claims for different forms and types of policy development.
- A reflective capacity is developed that enables participants to evaluate and re-evaluate.
- Strategic discourses are opened up to include all interested parties which, in turn, generates new planning discourses.
- Participants in the discourse gain knowledge of other participants in addition to learning new relations, values, and understandings.
- Participants are able to collaborate to change the existing conditions.

- Participants are encouraged to find ways of practically achieving their planning desires, not simply to agree and list their objectives.

Like the case of other models, the collaborative planning model was under criticism for its shortcomings (see Innes et al., 1994; Tewdwr-Jones and Thomas, 1998). Healey (2003) summarised these critiques into four main critiques as follows:

- The first two criticisms alike claim that both 'collaborative planning' and 'communicative planning theory' are a far cry from 'substantive content', and both neglect context and focus on process.
- The third criticism comes in a broader scope and claims that both 'collaborative planning' and 'communicative planning theory' lack sufficient pillars in social theory.
- The last and fourth criticism focus on the neglect of 'power' in the collaborative planning approach.

Despite the criticisms that the collaborative planning approach has drawn, it is still the much-debated approach within planning literature in the UK since the mid-1990s onward (Healey, 2003). In her work defining collaborative planning, Patsy Healey (2003) affirms the tacit interactive relation in all planning activities and believes there is some kind of governance process in these activities. In her perspective, collaborative planning "develops an approach to understanding and evaluating governance processes, and especially those that focus on developing qualities of place and territory" (Healey, 2003, p.107).

Turning to the main end of reviewing this model, it is overtly apparent that this model seeks to engage the public in the planning process and goes further and gives the public the right to control the process. This argument is derived and based from/on some aspects of collaborative planning where "participants are able to collaborate to change the existing conditions, and they are encouraged to find ways of practically achieving their planning desires" (Tewdwr-Jones and Thomas, 1998, p.1976). In this context, this model 'theoretically' reaches the top rung in Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation.

The main aim of Healey's (2003) work was to understand the interactive nature of planning and "to ground the discussion of process forms in the context of economic, social and environmental dynamics and their translation into institutionalised governance processes" (Healey, 2003, p.107). The economic, social and environmental contexts form

urban governance, which was the way for Healy to study and understand the communicative and interactive nature of the process. More about urban governance will be discussed in a later section.

3.2.6 A critical commentary, criteria for comparative description and evaluation of public participation within planning models

It is not the purpose of this research to explain a particular planning approach at length. Each approach mentioned above could be studied in separate research and extended almost indefinitely. Those models discussed above are probably sufficient to shed light on the ongoing transformation and reform process of planning during the last century and early time of the current one. Since the main purpose of this research is to study the extent to which the public participates and contributes to the decision-making process within the field of urban planning. The author investigates the participation opportunity that the public has within the planning models mentioned earlier using the typology suggested by Arnstein in her study 'The Ladder of Citizen Participation' (see 2.3.3). The author depends on Table 3.1 created by Jenkins and Smith (2001), then he added two new columns to it. The first column is to classify the planning models mentioned earlier under the main three paradigms. The second column is to classify the planning models according to each model's level of public participation, more details in Table 3.2.

Strikingly, the previous review of planning models shows the change in the conception of these successive models especially and more relevant to this research in terms of dealing with the public to ensure their engagement and contribution to the planning process. It was found that the planning model is the essential factor in determining the role of the public (Lane, 2005). The early model of planning, 'rational comprehensive planning', was entirely in the hands of the state through its planners where the consensus existed and no need for public participation to discuss and debate to form a convergence (Hudson et al., 1979). This model dominated the field of planning with its rigid normative approach in the early time of the last century. It collapsed at the beginning of the second half of the 20th century when the proponents of post-modernism criticised the rational paradigm of planning and struggled to find a new paradigm that emphasises the relativity and pluralism of planning (Carley et al., 2001; Lane, 2005). The new perception of planning has produced new trends which focused on contested thoughts at that time, such as the political nature of planning, the diversity of competing stakeholders' interests in planning and the planner's role in mediating the negotiations between all stakeholders to reach a decision as a negotiated outcome (Friedmann, 1994; Sandercock, 1998).

Table 3.2: The level of public participation within planning paradigms.

	Nature of planning	Planning techniques	Predominance in planning	Division of power	Planning Model *	Level of public participation*	Assumed nature of relation	Philosophy
First paradigm	Fixed vision of the future (blueprint)	Master plans Zoning	State planners	Government	Rational comprehensive approach (Blueprint model)	Nonparticipation (without any kind of contact with the public)	Common consensus exists	Rationalism
Second paradigm	Flexible vision and specific action	Structural plans, action plans, special development areas	Public-private partnership.	Government with the private sector	Rational comprehensive approach (Synoptic model & incremental model)	Tokenism (Informing and Consultation)	Common consensus has to be created	Rationalism
Third paradigm	No fixed vision	Above techniques with participatory planning	Negotiation forums	Government, private sector and civil society.	Advocacy or ' pluralistic' model Social learning and communicative action models Radical planning model Collaborative planning model	Tokenism (placation) Citizen power (partnership) Citizen power (Delegated Power) Citizen power (Citizen Control)	Conflict needs negotiation	Relativism

Source: (Jenkins and Smith, 2001) Modified by the Author.

*- A column added by the Author.

Under these circumstances, new planning models have emerged (e.g., radical political economy, equity planning, social learning, communicative action, etc.) to respond to the thoughts debated in the post-modern era[12]. These models asked for more public inclusion in the process, which led to an increase in the level of public participation within the planning process (as shown in Table 3.2). The level of public participation offered within these models was determined through specific aspects of each model, such as how the model defined the planning problem, what kinds of knowledge were used in practice to analyse the problem, and the conceptualisation of the context of planning and decision-making process (Lane, 2005).

The review shows that the latter model, 'collaborative planning', seeks to enhance public engagement in the planning and decision-making process and share the power with the public and all stakeholders/actors interested in the outcomes of the process. Healey (2003) argues that the 'collaborative planning' approach came as a response to the situation of governments across Europe which were under pressure to restructure and reform their systems and practice. Using the urban governance approach, Healey investigated these transformations and reforms.

3.3 Urban Governance and Urban Development Decision-making Process

In the previous chapter, a brief summary of governance has been reviewed (see 2.2). The summary outlines the meaning of the concept and shows the variety of contexts and disciplines that governance covers. Urban governance can be understood through the interaction between the three main spheres of society forces 1) the government, 'the state', 2) the private sector, 'the market', and 3) civil society, 'the society' (Carley et al., 2001). "The state creates a conducive political and legal environment. The private sector generates jobs and income. The civil society facilitates political and social interaction by mobilising groups to participate in economic, social and political activities" (UNDP, 1998, para. 3). Paul Jenkins in Carley et al. (2001) affirms the importance of the relationship between the state and civil society as a solid basis for new forms of governance. He argues that a new sustainable urban future needs new forms of

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[12] The beginning of the postmodernism era is in line with the thinking of many social and political historians who argue that the 1970s saw a major shift in the organisation of the capitalist economies in the West (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2015). The transition from Modernism to Postmodernism is often said to have happened at 3:32 pm on 15 July 1972, coinciding with the demolition of Pruitt-Igoe Housing Estate, St Louis, US. (Irving, 1993).

governance which can be formed through the relationships between state and civil society on the one hand and economic forces 'market' and civil society on the other hand.

On the other hand, in a debate around the relation between the state and the market and how the state uses the planning regulation to moderate or steer it. Jones (2014, p. 578) argues that the state, through planning, "not only regulates/constrains the market it also shapes and simulates it".

The optimal relationship between the three key spheres of society forces can be understood in the sense of influential and affected forces. In other words, civil society affects the state through the process of participation. The state affects the market through laws and regulations. The market affects civil society by creating jobs opportunities and securing decent living standards (see Figure 3.1).
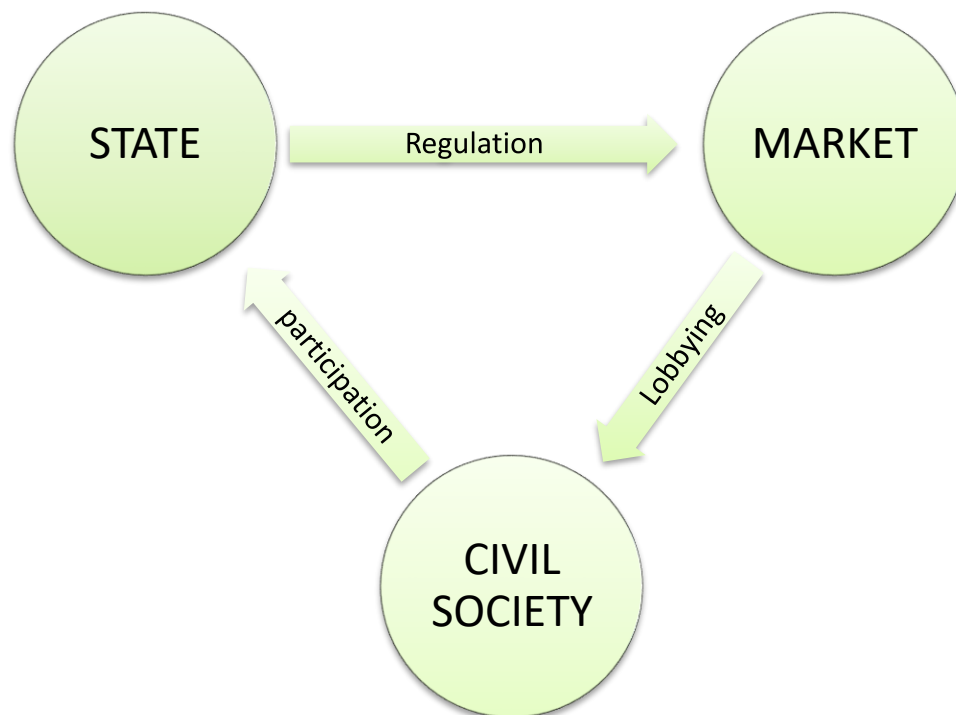
Figure 3.1: Links between the state, market and civil society.
Source: (Carley et al., 2001, p.190) Modified by the author.

This process seems to be in a shape of an endless cycle. But when examining the process of collaboration and contribution within the cycle, civil society has become a vital ruler of the new state-market relationships. On the one hand, it directly affects the state in the 'decision-making process'. On the other hand, the state's economic regulations are, ideally, a reflection of civil society's aspirations and objectives through the process of participation (Alexander, 2008). Thus, the economy 'the market' is "embedded in, and

controlled by the society" (Carley et al., 2001, p.190). Consequently, "rather than the market creating equilibrium, it is society and its organizations which do – and the state is essentially, and ideally, meant to be a socially representative organism" (Carley et al., 2001, p.190).

The rise of civil society as an active actor in the public sphere has introduced a new way of planning (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998), which differs from the ways introduced by the state-market conflict[13]. Civil society has strongly posed itself as an effective and competitive power among the three forces of society, where the civil society organisations showed the ability to have all skills associated with the planning profession, such as "applying knowledge to action, defining issues, mobilizing participation, and reconciling conflicts, evaluating the potential impact of policies and their performance, and designing a framework for collaboration" (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998, p. 12)

Despite the importance of studying the relation and linkage between the main forces of the society (the state, the market and civil society), which many scholars addressed in their works see (Douglass and Friedmann, 1998; Carley et al., 2001; Healey, 2006b; Alexander, 2008; Hasan and McWilliams, 2014), but for the purpose of this research, the main focus will be on the relation between the society and the state by studying the main policies and regulations which control the urban planning field, preceded by a summary of the main societal forces.

3.4 Conceptual framework of the research

At this point, and after reviewing and discussing the importance of the concept of public participation within the planning process and taking into account the main assumption of this research that a comparison of the contribution of public participation within the urban planning systems in the UK-Scotland and Syria can contribute ideas, viewpoints and recommendations for positive changes in particular to the future Syrian planning system. Taking into account the current situation of the ongoing conflict in Syria, reforming and modernising the current planning system to ensure more public participation in the decision-making process in the field of urban planning is an urgent need that could foster the contribution of the public in post-conflict planning[14] and reconstruction process. Here,

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[13] The state-market conflict "implies that there are only two ways to approach planning: the one way is public planning, i.e., planning that is directly or indirectly associated with state intervention and action; the other way is not-planning, i.e. the 'free' non-planning and unplanned-for market" (Alexander, 2008).
[14] The author is aware of the possible effects of the current conflict in Syria, particularly on the urban structure of Syrian cities and more generally on the whole Syrian urban fabric. The core of this research is not to study post-conflict planning, but rather to examine and enhance the contribution of the public

it is essential to adopt an appropriate conceptual framework to conduct this study, which will outline and define the scope of this research.

While the nature of this study is a comparative one, the benefits of comparative planning studies are well documented in many studies (see Masser, 1982; Masser and Williams, 1986; Khakee, 1996; Sanyal, 2005). Masser and Williams (1986) argue that there are three main objectives of comparative planning studies:

a) The improvement of the planning theory.
b) The improvement of planning practice.
c) And the promotion of the unification of the field of planning.

Khakee (1996, p.93) added there are "other benefits put forward such as the opportunities such studies offer for developing and maintaining trans-national information networks based on personal relationships and experience and for promoting the efforts of international agencies such as the United Nations (UN), The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the European Union (EU)."

There is a broad consensus on the benefits of comparative studies, and there are many approaches and techniques used to study planning comparatively (Masser and Williams, 1986; Khakee, 1996; Sanyal, 2005). One of these approaches is the contextual approach; by using this approach, researchers could study planning according to chosen contextual variables (Ibid). According to Khakee (1996), there is a vast array of variations of the contextual approach. For instance, using the contingency model to study planning, this model assumes that planning structure is dependent on a number of contextual factors, where planning itself could be seen as an independent variable and contextual variables as independent ones. In this sense, contextual variables can be seen as restraints in planning practice. In another example, Sharpe's rule "maximum similarity", that has been used in many cross-national urban policy studies (Masser and Williams, 1986), shows another variation of the contextual approach. Applying Sharpe's rule requires that all compared systems need a maximum similarity within their political and institutional contexts (Sharpe, 1975). This point has been addressed by Davies (1980), reporting the Tri-national Inner City Project, which involved the Federal Republic of Germany, Great Britain and the United States. He pointed out that the main weakness of the project was its acceptance of the hypothesis that all three countries shared a common urban

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within the planning system which in turn could be one of the most important aspects of Syrian post-conflict planning in the reconstruction phase.

experience. In this respect, how can this research go ahead in favour of a comparative planning study for countries as different as The United Kingdom and Syria? (For the answer to this question see section 4.3.3).

An example of a contextual approach is Friedmann's institutional model (1967). In this model, Friedmann distinguishes between three main groups of variables:

1) National system variables.
2) Decision environment variables.
3) Planning style variables.

Within each group, many variables play an essential role in determining the nature of the planning process (See Figure 3.2).
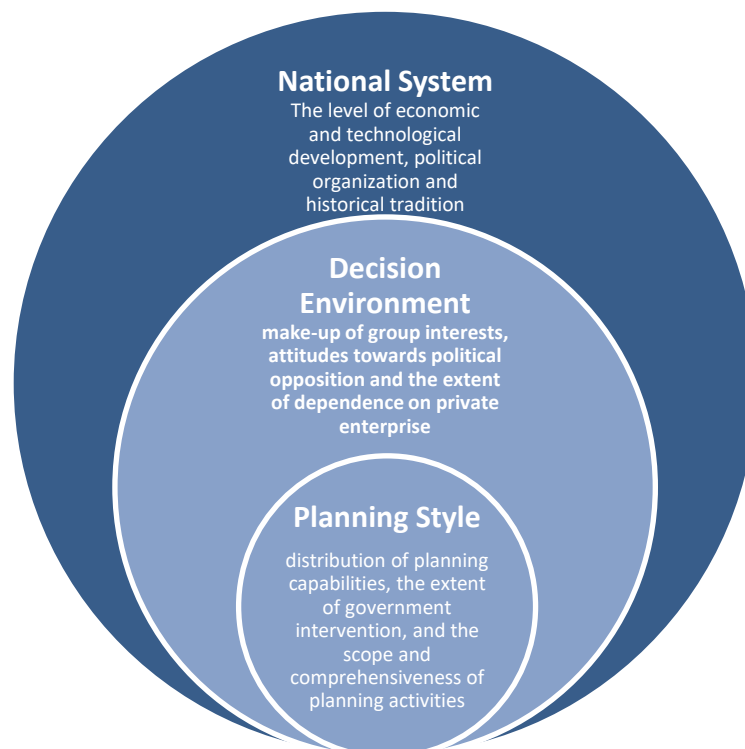
Figure 3.2: The institutional model.
Source: Author's Original design based on (Friedmann,1967)

Another example of a contextual approach is the 'culturised planning' model; this model illustrates how culture affects planning practices. Othengrafen (2010) has built the culturised planning model based on Schein's understanding of culture. Schein points out that cultures are "phenomena that are below the surface" (Schein, 2004, p. 8). According to Schein, culture is a product of three main groups of variables: 1) visible artefacts; 2)

espoused beliefs, values, rules and behavioural norms; and 3) tacit, taken-for-granted, basic underlying assumptions (Ibid) for visual illustration, see Figure 3.3.

Artifacts — Visible organisational structures and processes (hard to decipher)

Espoused Beliefs and Values — Strategies, goals, philosophies (espoused justifications)

Underlying Assumptions — Unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings (ultimate source of values and action)
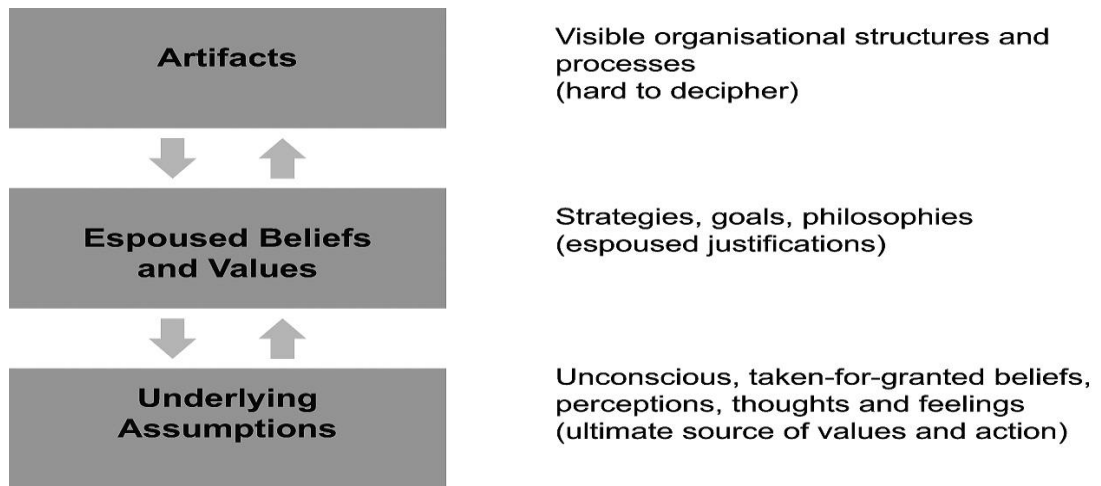
Figure 3.3: Levels of culture.
Source: Schein, (2004, p. 26)

The culturised planning model has three dimensions; all are integrated and related to each other and have different influences on planning culture (Othengrafen, 2010). A simplified outline of how to approach the constant phenomenon of culture and its impacts on the planning practices and development process is shown in Figure 3.4.

Achieve more focus

Achieve more context

Planning Artifacts
Visible planning products, structures and processes

Planning Environment
Shared assumptions, values and cognitive frames that are taken for granted by members of the planning profession

Societal Environment
underlying and unconscious, taken-for-granted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings which are affecting planning

Figure 3.4: The culturised planning model.
Source: (Othengrafen, 2010, p. 92)

In another study to explain the culturised planning model Steinhauer (2011) presents Othengrafen's model in a new vision (See Figure 3.5). The new vision illustrates the different weightings of the three dimensions and the relation and overlapping among them. It shows the hierarchy of the three dimensions. On the one hand, the first and second dimensions (societal environment and planning environment) illustrate invisible aspects of planning culture which are hard to identify and analyse; these aspects of planning culture "deal with assumptions, traditions, values and underlying perceptions" (Steinhauer, 2011, p. 488). On the other hand, the last dimension, the core of the model (planning artefacts), deals with more visible aspects of planning which are easy to recognise, such as formal instruments and institutions (Steinhauer, 2011).
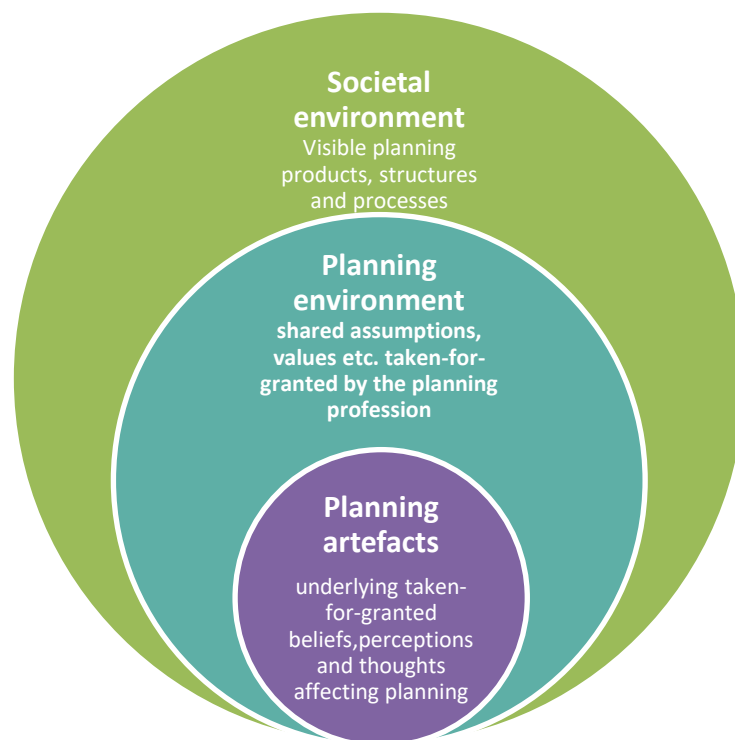
Figure 3.5: The culturised planning model.
Source: (Steinhauer, 2011, p. 488)

In the same vein, Othengrafen (2010, p. 92-4) explained each one of these dimensions in the following manner:

- Societal environment: this dimension includes the explanation of underlying assumptions that are very difficult to perceive, such as (people's respect for and acceptance of planning, the self-perception of planning, etc.). These assumptions are the basics of forming a specific societal background, which affects urban planning.

- Planning environment: this dimension is associated with assumptions and values such as (objectives and principles of urban planning, tradition and history of planning, the scope of planning, etc.) that are related to all actors/stakeholders who are involved in the structures, processes and outcomes of the urban planning process.

- Planning artefacts: this dimension is about the aspects and elements of urban planning, such as (the structure of urban planning, planning laws and institutions, etc.) that can be easily detected and understood.

More illustrations about the three dimensions of the 'culturised model' are listed in Table A3.1 see Appendix 3-1.

In discussing the limitations and weaknesses of this model, developing it raised a few critical anticipatory questions, such as which practical or empirical findings this theoretical model might explain and what results can be achieved using it? In addition, there is a question about the ability of the findings of this model to delineate the future of planning practices and activities (Othengrafen, 2010). Othengrafen also questioned potential strengths as well as the weaknesses and limitations this theoretical model might have.

Herein, and from the researcher's point of view, one of the potential limitations of this model might be *the broad scale of the model*. The culturised planning model can theoretically consider and decode a cultural phenomenon of planning at two levels: 'visible' (horizontal) and 'invisible' (vertical). These two levels include many aspects, elements, and variables of the observed cultural phenomenon of planning, such as traditions, customs, history, emotions, social norms, socio-economic relations, the interaction between individuals and organisations, etc. All these elements/variables and their interactions further complicate the dynamic nature of the observed phenomenon. Hence, and according to the broad scale of the model, it seems very hard to choose which elements and variables to study and address. In this case, it is entirely the task of the researcher to determine the variables and factors that contribute to the research completion.

Steinhauer (2011) developed a conceptual framework for analysing planning based on the previously mentioned culturised planning model. She sought to complement it with

the "theory of structuration"[15] of the British sociologist Anthony Giddens[16]. Steinhauer agrees with Othengrafen in categorising planning culture into three dimensions. However, some adjustments to their focus and labelling were required. She argues that there is a need for an overall dimension that deals with the general aspects of a country while the other two dimensions deal with planning aspects in detail.

National settings
(= Different national influences)
Visible & invisible

Planning structure
(= institutions, legislation, instruments)
Visible

Planning practice
(= performed routines and practices)
Visible & invisible
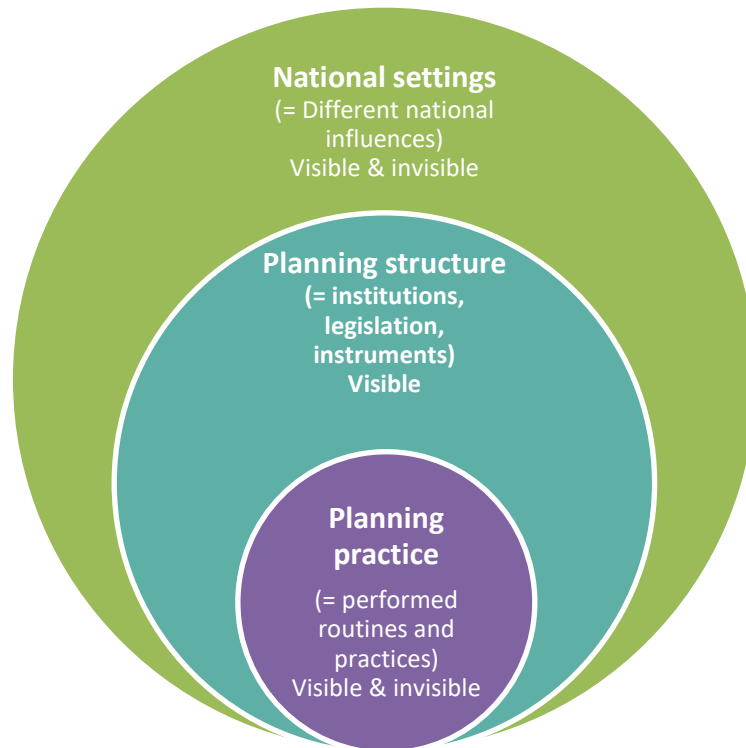
Figure 3.6: Enhanced analytical framework for analysing (national) planning cultures.
Source: (Steinhauer, 2011, p. 490).

Accordingly, and based on this vision, the new proposed model consists of three main dimensions. The first and overall dimension (national settings) is quite similar to the overall dimension of the culturised model (societal environment) with a broader focus on "external framework conditions of planning in a particular country" (Steinhauer, 2011, p. 490). The other two dimensions (planning structure and planning practice) have been developed based on structuration theory (structure and agency). Herein, and according to Giddens (1984) belief that there is a continual interaction between the structure and agency, "we are both shaped by our social situation and actively shape it" (as cited in

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[15] Structuration theory is the famous work of the British Sociologist 'Anthony Giddens', it is a social theory of the creation and reproduction of social systems that is based on the analysis of both structure and agents.

[16] Anthony Giddens (1938 -) is a British sociologist who is best known for his work "structuration theory". In addition to his famous theory, he has published more than 30 books alongside with more than 200 articles; his cognitive production has contributed to the insertion of some significant developments within the modern social theory (McMann, 2007).

Healey, 1999, p. 114). In sum, there is an interactive relationship between the structure of planning and its practices. Figure 3.6 gives an overview of the proposed conceptual framework for analysing planning culture.

3.4.1 Commentary and discussion

The main purpose of reviewing the planning models mentioned above is to adopt a conceptual framework for this research. Through a comparison between the institutional and culturised models, it is clearly shown that there is a noticeable convergence between them (compare between Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.6). Both models suggest that there are three main dimensions of planning. The first and overall dimension deals with the national aspects (political, economic, social, and environmental) of a country under study. The other two dimensions deal with the planning aspects of the country under investigation (policies, regulations, institutions, and practices). This research adopts the conceptual model devised by Steinhauer (Figure 3.6) to conduct a comparative planning study between the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Syria. The author is fully aware of the broadness of the adopted framework, where many studies can be done in each single dimension of the presented model. Therefore, in the next chapter (see Figure 4.5), specific variables in each dimension will be determined to set and direct the path of this study.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has completed what the previous chapter has started by reviewing the academic literature related to the key research concepts used in this study. This is in order to fulfil the first objective of this research by responding to its questions. The first part of this chapter responded to question 1.3 (*To investigate whether there was a role for promoting the concept of public participation within urban planning in reforming planning theories and introducing new urban planning models?*).

The chapter reviewed the emergence of modern urban planning and its successive models 'of good planning practice' in a chronological narrative. The interesting point in that overview is that 'as each new model emerges, it seeks to achieve more public participation in the planning process' (see Table 3.2). Each subsequent model is a new form of the previous model after the reformation in accordance with the criticism raised against it. By discussing Table 3.2, it is clearly shown that the development of planning theories/models was coupled with strengthening the role of public participation in the planning process. The need for more public participation in urban planning practices has contributed to the reformation of existing planning theories. Hence, and in response to

question 1.3, there has been a significant role for promoting the concept of public participation in reforming urban planning systems and contributing to the emergence of new planning models.

In this chapter and the previous one, and by reviewing the key concepts and terminologies used in this study with a focus on their selected definitions for the purpose of this study, a solid theoretical background for this research is established. Then, and in response to the first objective of adopting a general conceptual framework for this study, this chapter reviewed a few models of the contextual approach used to study planning comparatively. In spite of the fact that the main two models discussed in this chapter (institutional and culturised models) are quite similar, the author adopted the culturised model by Steinhauer (2011). The selected model "with its three dimensions is suggested as a contribution to a better understanding of the structure, processes and results of planning practices and the relations between these phenomena by introducing a more comprehensive analysis" (Othengrafen, 2010, p.105). Accordingly, urban planning in both countries, United Kingdom-Scotland and Syria, will be studied through three dimensions:

1- National settings: at this dimension, a brief of the main society forces (state, economy, and society) will be discussed with an emphasis on the concept of public participation.

2- Planning structure: this dimension will be covered by studying policies, institutions, and the principal regulations of urban planning, focusing on the opportunity that exists for the public to participate in the decision-making process within the urban planning field.

3- Planning practice: at this dimension, a field trip to selected study cases (one city in each country) will be carried out to investigate the level of public participation in planning practices.

The level of public participation will be defined in terms of statutory and administrative requirements and behavioural characteristics regarding who will participate and how and when? This study adopts Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen participation and the IAP2 spectrum of public participation to assess public participation in theory and practice. Although the IAP2 spectrum of public participation has been developed based on Arnstein's approach, both approaches, to a great extent, have similar measurement levels for public participation. Still, the IAP2 approach has been developed with a broad

international input that transcends the boundaries at different levels (national, regional, cultural, and religious), which is most convenient for this study.

The following chapter, chapter four, concentrates on the selected research methodology and the detailed analytical framework, and it provides a theoretical consideration of the research. In addition, it gives a full and detailed explanation of all methods used to collect and analyse research data.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Data Collection Methods

4.1 Introduction

"Unlike objects in nature, humans are self-aware beings who confer sense and purposes on what they do. We can't even describe social life accurately unless we first grasp the concepts that people apply in their behaviour."

(Giddens 1997 cited in May, 2001, p. 8)

Social research is concerned with exploring and investigating human activity, where its role is to understand and grasp social phenomena. Social science research usually involves many variables and attributes, making it more complicated yet exciting to be under study (May, 2001; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Due to the complexity and diversity of such research, it is acceptable to use a variety of approaches, research methods and measuring instruments (May, 2001).

This chapter provides a theoretical background of the main science philosophies and their main approaches, methods and techniques used in natural and social science. It begins by reviewing the main approaches used in research science and its related paradigms, 'metatheories'. Then, in the light of reviewed approaches/paradigms, the philosophical background of this research is determined and clearly stated. The chapter then moves to identify the methodology of this study 'strategy and design', which ends by determining the analytical framework used in this research.

Furthermore, following the research hierarchy, the main techniques used to collect and analyse data are intensively explained. In the end, this chapter reviews the main ethical issues that have been considered while conducting this study.

4.2 Theoretical Considerations

At the first stage of initiating research, it is essential to determine the approach is being implemented. In general, two major categories of research approaches (deduction and induction) are widely implemented in both natural[17] and social science[18] (Saunders et al., 2007; Bhattacherjee, 2012). The two categories are considered the two-way bridge

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[17] "Natural science is the science of naturally occurring objects or phenomena, such as light, objects, matter, earth, celestial bodies, or the human body. Natural sciences can be further classified into physical sciences, earth sciences, life sciences, and others." (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p.1)

[18] In contrast to natural science, "social science is the science of people or collections of people, such as groups, firms, societies, or economies, and their individual or collective behaviours. Social sciences can be classified into disciplines such as psychology, sociology and economics." (Ibid, 2012, p.1)

between theory and observation, which provide a scientific base for logical thinking. A "scientific inquiry in practice typically involves alternating between deduction and induction. Both methods involve interplay of logic and observation. And both are routes to the construction of social theories" (Babbie, 2015, p. 52).

4.2.1 Deductive and inductive research approaches

A deductive research approach seeks to test and examine well-known concepts and patterns of a given theory by using new observed empirical data (Bhattacherjee, 2012). In other words, researchers who rely on this approach in their studies work to develop a hypothesis based on a specific theory, and then they test this hypothesis to prove it is either right or wrong through a defined research strategy (Snieder and Larner, 2009; Wilson, 2010). Accordingly, deductive reasoning can be understood as "reasoning from the general to the particular (or from cause to effect)" (Pellissier, 2008, p. xiv).

On the contrary, an inductive research approach seeks to deduce theoretical concepts and patterns from empirical data; it starts with observations. The results of observations contribute to the formulation of theories. (Goddard and Melville, 2004; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Bernard (2011, p.7) affirms that the inductive approach "involves the search for pattern from observation and the development of explanations – theories – for those patterns through series of hypotheses". In this sense, inductive reasoning can be explained as a 'bottom-up' approach to knowing; in this approach, the researcher relies on observations to build an abstraction or describe a picture of the studied phenomenon (Lodico et al., 2010).

Lancaster (2007,p. 25) argues that inductive research "essentially reverses the process found in deductive research". Thus, there is a complementary nature of both approaches where both of them integrated with one another to form the cycle of research (see Figure 4.1). Although both deductive and inductive research approaches are very important for advancing and developing natural and social science, these approaches are challenging in the social sciences (Bhattacherjee, 2012). According to Bhattacherjee (2012, p.4), The difficulty of deductive and inductive approaches in social science can be summed up into four key points as follows:

- The imprecise nature of the theoretical concepts,
- Inadequate tools to measure them,

- The presence of many unaccounted factors that can also influence the phenomenon of interest,

- It is also very difficult to refute theories that do not work.
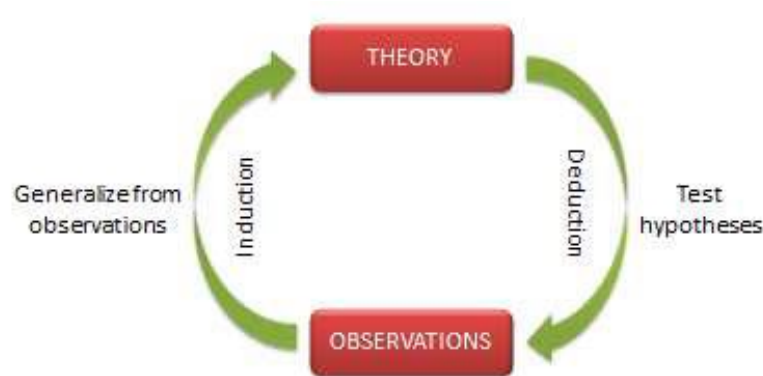
Figure 4.1: The Cycle of Research.
Source (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p.4)

Comparing deductive and inductive research approaches, Saunders et al. (2007) distinguish the key differences between both approaches as listed in the table below:

Table 4.1: Major differences between deductive and inductive research approaches.

Deductive approach	Inductive methods
- Principles based on science - Movement is done from theory to data - Casual relationships between variables need to be explained - Quantitative type of data is mainly collected - Measures of control are applied in order to ensure the validity of data - Concepts are operationalised in order to ensure the clarity of definitions - The approach is highly structured. - Researcher is independent from the research process. - Samples need to be selected of a sufficient size in order to be able to generalise research conclusions	- The meaning of human attachment to events are aimed to be explored - Research context is understood in a deeper manner - Qualitative type of data is collected - More flexible approach to research structure to ensure provisions for changes during the research - Researcher is perceived to be a part of the research process - Research findings do not have to be generalised

Source (Saunders et al., 2007, p. 120)

4.2.2 Research mental models 'metatheories.'

The importance of selecting appropriate research approaches is equivalent to choosing the convenient mental models used to organise the reasoning and observations for the research (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Lor, 2011). These mental models are listed in the literature

under some other labels such as 'paradigms' and 'metatheories'. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 105) define a paradigm as it is "a basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically[19] and epistemologically[20] fundamental ways". For the use of the same meaning, Hjørland (2005, p. 05) defines "metatheories" as "...theories about the description, investigation, analysis or criticism of the theories in a domain. They are mostly internal to a domain, and may also be termed 'paradigms', 'traditions' or 'schools'".

Many researchers emphasised that the consideration of metatheories 'paradigms' should precede the consideration of methods. Respectively, selecting a specific metatheory leads to adopting appropriate methods (see Dervin, 2003; Pickard, 2007; Wahyuni, 2012; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Reading and reviewing the literature shows a slight disparity in the classification of the hierarchy of the relation from paradigms to methods. Dervin (2003) clearly distinguished between three key terms, metatheory, methodology and methods; where she arranged them from a broader one to a more specific one as follows: 1) metatheory, 2) methodology, 3) methods.

Similarly, Pickard (2007, p. xv-xvii) presented a new classification of research hierarchy, which is very close to the hierarchy proposed by Dervin with slight variations, Pickard's research hierarchy is illustrated in the following manner:
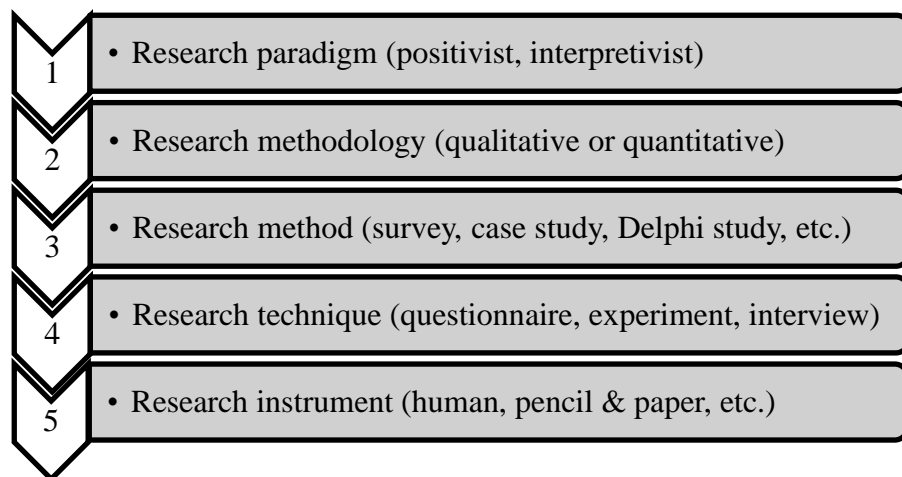
Figure 4.2: Research hierarchy.
Source: Author's Original, based on (Pickard, 2007).

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[19] Ontology: it refers to our assumptions about how we see the world, "the term derives from Greek, with "onto" meaning "being", and "logos" usually interpreted as "science"; so that ontology, as traditionally understood, is the science or study of being." (Lawson, 2004, p. 01)
[20] Epistemology: it refers to our assumptions about the best way to study the world. This term is "concerned with the nature of knowledge, its possibility, scope, and general basis." (Honderich and Masters, 2005, p. 260)

Both 'research hierarchy' approaches reviewed above affirm the importance of designing and conducting research based on a solid theoretical background, which leads to the selection of appropriate methodology and methods. Nowadays, the popular and major paradigms 'metatheories' in natural and social science are positivism, postpositivism, and interpretivism (Pickard, 2007; Lor, 2011; Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Positivism
It is the metatheory associated with natural science (Wahyuni, 2012). Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 109) explain positivism as "an apprehendable reality is assumed to exist, driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms. Knowledge of the '*way things are*' is conventionally summarized in the form of time-and context-free generalizations, some of which take the form of cause-effect laws". in other words, from a philosophical perspective 'positivism' is associated with factual knowledge which is gained through quantifiable observations. Smith (1999, p. 66) summed up the fundamental beliefs of positivism which have been stated in (Mark, 1996) as follows:

- "There is an objective world that exists independently of our existence or our perception of it; events are determined by natural laws and mechanisms;
- the researcher and the phenomenon being studied are completely independent;
- bias can be avoided by strictly adhering to scientific procedures; and
- to understand the world, standard scientific procedures, based on deduction [usually using abstract quantitative research methods], must be used".

Thus, positivism is based on tangible objective reality where positivist researchers tend to achieve law-like generalisations 'nomothetic'[21] in their studies (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Bhattacherjee, 2012; Wahyuni, 2012). Moreover, the positivist researcher must be neutral and independent from the subject and phenomenon under study, where "the investigator and the investigated 'object' are assumed to be independent entities, and the investigator to be capable of studying the object without influencing it or being influenced by it" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p. 110). There is a common belief among positivist researchers that when a factual problem is investigated by different researchers who adopt a similar research process and use exact statistical tests on a large sample, all these studies will ultimately present a similar result (Creswell, 2009). Their belief in the existence of a

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[21] According to British Oxford dictionary nomothetic is "Relating to the study or discovery of general scientific laws. Often contrasted with idiographic." Where Lancaster (2007, p. 35) defines it as "research techniques which are based on highly structured research."

universal generalisation that can be applied to various contexts is called a '*naive realism*', which opened the doors widely to criticise this paradigm.

However, many researchers (e.g., Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Mark, 1996; Wahyuni, 2012) have addressed the deficiencies and limitations of positivism in social science. The main critique was that positivism relies on experience as a source of knowledge, which can be achieved in natural science but not in social science, where many concepts such as value, time, space, context, etc., are not based on experience (Wahyuni, 2012). In the same vein, Smith (1999) argued that within any study which investigates a social phenomenon, there is a great value of human interaction; the effect of that value cannot be quantified. And therefore, absolute generalisations do not exist in abstraction from time and context. Consequently, the positivism approach has limited and little practical value in social science studies.

Postpositivism
This paradigm developed as a response to the critiques of positivism, especially with regard to social science; it is a reaction to positivism and an adaptation of it (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Lor, 2011; Wahyuni, 2012; Bhattacherjee, 2012). The new paradigm challenges the belief in absolute truth, specifically when studying human behaviour in social studies (Wahyuni, 2012). Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 110) affirmed the importance of human behaviour to grasp reality. They argued that "Reality is assumed to exist but to be only imperfectly apprehendable because of basically flawed human intellectual mechanisms and the fundamentally intractable nature of phenomena". Although post-positivists still believe in generalisation and objectivity as a 'regularity ideal', they have admitted that social conditioning has an impact on knowledge (Wahyuni, 2012). They tend to view science as not certain but probabilistic based on several possibilities and often try to examine these possibilities to understand social reality better (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Hence, this paradigm is called "critical realism", which means that perception and understanding of social reality must be defined in a given context of associated laws and dynamic social structures that generated the social phenomenon under study (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Wahyuni, 2012).

Based on what has been mentioned above, it is evident that both positivism and post-positivism try to study social science through the lens of natural science; the two paradigms alike share the same belief that social reality is external and objective (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Wahyuni, 2012). The objectivity and rigid nature of positivist and postpositivist research opened the door widely to criticise these paradigms in the late

1970s, leading to the emergence of the interpretivism 'relativism' paradigm (Mark, 1996 cited in Smith, 1999).

Interpretivism

In the social science field, researchers often rely on interpretivism as a comprehensive term for various clusters of metatheories and approaches[22] that have emerged in contrast to positivism in an attempt to perceive and understand human and social reality (Mark, 1996; Crotty, 1998; Lor, 2011). Likewise, Schwandt (1994, p. 125) stresses that "interpretivism was conceived in reaction to the effort to develop a natural science of the social. Its foil was largely logical empiricist methodology and the bid to apply the framework to human inquiry".

Interpretivism, based on its rejection of the positivism approach, has many characteristics that free the researcher from most restrictions imposed by positivism. These characteristics improve the intuitiveness and dexterity of the researcher and give them the freedom and flexibility needed to move forth and back between theoretical analysis and data collection methods. In this respect, a wide variety of research methods can be used, including subjective ones that supply the researcher with the freedom to move from general to specific and vice versa (Mark, 1996).

The new characteristics of interpretivism placed it in contrast with positivism. Many studies addressed the differences between these two metatheories (e.g. Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Weber, 2004; Livesey, 2006; Pickard, 2007; Ramanathan, 2009; Lor, 2011). According to Weber (2004), while positivists separate the researcher and the phenomenon under research, interpretivism sees them as inseparable. For positivists, the objective reality exists outside the human mind, and knowledge consists of proven hypotheses (acts, laws). In contrast, interpretivism believes that knowledge is the result of the intentional action of the researcher to understand the world.

By comparing the paradigms above, It is often believed that positivism and interpretivism metatheories differ significantly in research strategies and their way of understanding the world (Roth and Mehta, 2002). The differences between the two metatheories are well discussed in many studies; for instance, Livesey (2006) presented a figure showing these differences see Figure A4-1 (Appendix 4-1). In another study Pickard (2007)

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[22] "Interpretivism is associated with the philosophical position of idealism, and is used to group together diverse approaches, including social constructionism, phenomenology and hermeneutics; approaches that reject the objectivist view that meaning resides within the world independently of consciousness" (Collins, 2010, p.38).

differentiates between the main characteristics of the three metatheories reviewed earlier in this section see Table A4-1 (Appendix 4-2).

The incompatibility between positivism and interpretivism has been significantly debated in social science research. Nevertheless, social researchers tend to use a mixture of methods from both extremes. This point has been emphasised by Roth and Mehta (2002) in their study. They argue that when conducting social research, using a mixture of research methods associated with different theoretical backgrounds would enrich the source of collected data, consequently improving the research results.

However, according to its social nature, this research might tend to be inductive (related to interpretivism), but it follows the deductive-inductive research cycle (see Figure 4.1). This PhD research implies both extremes (deductive and inductive), from theory to practice and vice versa. The literature review critically addressed a few public participation approaches in urban planning. Some of them have been adopted as criteria to assess the level of public participation in urban planning in chosen study cases theoretically (policies, regulations and laws) and practically (collected data).

Therefore, this research follows the study of Roth and Mehta (2002) in using a mixture of research methods from different theoretical backgrounds. However, the dominant metatheory that forms the background of this research is interpretivism. There is a tangible effect of positivism in this study. This is due to the contested nature of the research questions raised in this study. In other words, the work undertaken in this research within its chosen contexts (the UK-Scotland and Syria) is operated under two visions. Firstly, the positivist vision contributes to identifying general patterns of public participation in the urban planning process. Secondly, the interpretivist vision explores how these patterns work in practice by analysing the primary and secondary data collected. In that case, the research methods used in this research are mixed (quantitative and qualitative) with the domination of qualitative methods. The following section explains the methodological approach of the study.

4.3 Methodology and Analytical Framework

Comparison exists in all science disciplines, including social science, where comparative studies have played an essential role in developing and enhancing these disciplines (Lor, 2011). "A comparison is a fundamental tool of analysis, it sharpens our power of description, and plays a central role in concept-formation by bringing into focus suggestive similarities and contrasts among cases" (Collier, 1993, p. 105). There is a

dispute in social science whether to consider the comparative method as an independent subfield or to be included as a part of the holistic methodology. For instance, Lijphart (1971) argued that the comparative method is a stand-alone method, where he compared it 'as a method' with other three methods (experimental, statistical and case study). Others (e.g. Yin, 2009) still believe that the comparative method is a part of social science methodology.

For example, Mabbett and Bolderson 1999 (cited in Lor, 2011, Chap 4 p. 02) indicated that "many of the issues surrounding the theories and methods in comparative work are not exclusive to cross-national studies [...] There is no distinct social science 'cross-national' method although such research highlights some of the issues in making scientific as opposed to impressionistic comparisons". In other words, there is no difference between comparative social science and social science in general. There is no distinctive methodology for comparative social studies; basically, all social studies use the same common methods. In the case of this study, which is comparative planning research that comparatively studies public participation as a phenomenon of planning culture within selected contexts (the UK-Scotland and Syria). Therefore, the research emphasises international (or cross-national)[23] comparisons.

Research design is the logical sequence that links empirical data with the main objectives and questions of the research and ultimately to its conclusions (Yin, 2009). Nachmias and Nachmais (1992) have presented a brief definition of research design as they considered it a plan that "guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting observations. It is a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigations" (cited in Yin, 2009, p. 26)

It might be helpful to visualise the systematic track used to structure the research design. In this regard, Lor (2011) suggests a diagram (see Figure 4.3) that depicts the relationship between metatheory and methodological level in comparative studies. The suggested figure roughly follows the research hierarchy presented by Pickard (2007) (see Figure 4.2). The methodological level is divided into four sublevels: metatheory, general methodology, comparative strategy, and comparative research design. This research relies on this suggested view to continue building the research design.

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[23] Cross-national studies "that are explicitly comparative, that is, studies that utilize systematically comparable data from two or more nations" (Kohn, 1989, p. 714).
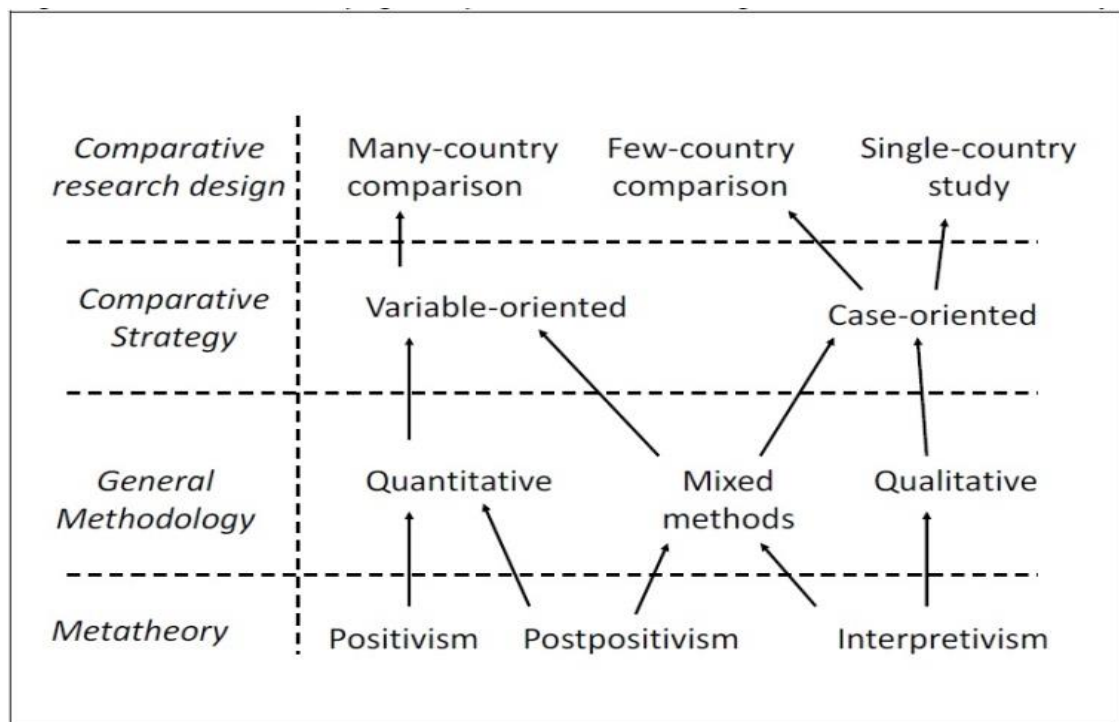
Figure 4.3: Relationship of comparative methodological choices to metatheory.
Source: Lor (2011, chap 4 p. 6).

As stated before, this research tends to use a mixture of research methods from different theoretical backgrounds. Depending on the diagram above, this research falls in 'interpretivism and post-positivism' at the metatheory level and 'mixed methods' at the general methodology. The general methodology concerning this research is further discussed in the next section.

4.3.1 General research methodology

Research in the social science field (i.e., human society and human behaviour) is too complex, sophisticated, varied and changing to yield scientific categorisation, measurement, and analysis (Azcárate, 2012). Yet the actual practice of science shows that there are not only different perspectives on a given phenomenon but also alternative methods of gathering information and analysing the data collected. Researchers' reliance on different perspectives in the study of science has led to the development of natural and social sciences (Azcárate, 2012). However, social science differs from natural science in the sense that people being studied may also be effectively participating in the study. As Giddens (1997 cited in May, 2001, p.8) argues, "Unlike objects in nature, humans are self-aware beings who confer sense and purposes on what they do. We can't even describe social life accurately unless we first grasp the concepts that people apply".

The social nature of this research, which depends on the interaction and communication among many actors and stakeholders involved in the participation process, implies the focus on two main aspects:

- Human aspect: this includes all people who might be participants in this process, such as (local people, government officials, members of non-government organisations 'NGOs' and other stakeholders).
- Spatial aspect: the place where the participation process will take place (city, town, village, etc.)

Therefore, this kind of research tends to use a mixture of research methods with a clear dominance of qualitative ones. Asserting the on communicative and humanistic nature of qualitative research, Creswell (2003) indicates that qualitative research uses multiple interactive and humanistic methods. It systematically reflects on who he/she is interviewing and is sensitive to their personal biography and how it shapes the study. Qualitative research takes place in a natural setting and often goes to the participants' site (home, office, and neighbourhood) to conduct the research (Rossman and Rallis, 1998). Following is a review of the three main approaches to conducting research.

Quantitative vs qualitative
The quantitative research approach has a long-old history; it dates back to the 1250 A.D when investigators were searching to quantify data. Since then, quantitative research has become the dominant method in natural sciences designed to create meaning and new knowledge (Williams, 2007). Quantitative research can be defined as "a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures. The final written report has a set structure consisting of introduction, literature and theory, methods, results and discussion"(Creswell, 2009, p. 04). Then, this method's objective orientation is shown with an experimental strategy of inquiry and pre-test measures of attitudes overtly; it relies on numerical data and statistical analysis to build knowledge (Smith, 1999; Creswell, 2009).

As mentioned earlier, the quantitative research method based on positivism was criticised by interpretivists for its rigorous, objective way of perceiving reality. Especially when it comes to studying social science where "perception, memory, emotion and understanding are human constructs not objective things. Yet, this construction is not a chaotic process because it takes place within cultural and sub-cultural settings that provide a strong

framework for extracting meaning" McClelland's 2006 study (cited in Hasan, 2012, p 123). Consequently, this criticism led to the emergence of the qualitative research method in the early 20ᵗʰ century, mainly in psychology and sociology (Mark, 1996; Creswell, 2009).

The qualitative research approach is not looking for an accurate firm law that can be generalised. In contrast to the qualitative approach, it concerns patterns such as (value, time, feeling, etc.) that cannot be quantified. This approach involves observing human interaction when studying the social phenomenon, where human thoughts, feelings and actions are not measurable constructs (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Smith, 1999; Williams, 2007). In the same context, Rubin (1995) depicted the qualitative method that it is "not looking for principles that are true all the time and in all conditions, like laws of physics; rather the goal is, understanding of specific circumstances, how and why things actually happen in a complex world" (cited in Hasan, 2012, p. 105).

Qualitative research emerged from the critique of positivism which applies quantitative methods to social science as "a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's settings, data analysis inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data" (Creswell, 2009, p. 04). In this sense, and based on the belief of interpretivism that knowledge is the result of the researcher's work to understand the world, qualitative research relies on subjective interpretations of social phenomena from the perspective of the researcher and participants (Williams, 2007; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Qualitative research can be conducted under two approaches of 'constructivist and participatory', where the former includes ethnographic design and observation of behaviour. In contrast, the latter includes narrative design and open-ended interviews (Creswell, 2009).

Despite the fact that qualitative research methods have emerged as a response to overcome the deficiencies of quantitative research when studying social science, neither quantitative nor qualitative measurements solely are adequate to provide a precise evaluation of some projects and studies (e.g. the social development projects and programmes funded by international agencies) (Smith, 1999; Hasan, 2012). Under this vision, each approach has several advantages and some weaknesses, and it is the researchers' task to choose the convenient method for their studies. In this PhD study,

neither a quantitative nor qualitative approach is sufficient to meet its objectives, so a mixture of both methods is required.

Thus, it is acceptable to use a mixture of both methods in some studies. The aim is to maximise the advantages and minimise the weaknesses of these methods in favour of meeting the study objectives (Williams, 2007). By addressing the same point, Bhattacherjee (2012) stated that although interpretive research basically relies on qualitative data, quantitative data might add more accuracy and clearness to the phenomenon of interest. This drew attention to the integrated nature between the two methods rather than incompatibility (Smith, 1999), which led to the emergence of the mixed methods approach.

Mixed methods approach
Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003 (cited in Williams, 2007) argue that the mixed methods approach emerged in the mid-to-late 1980s. This approach is based on combining qualitative and quantitative research methods in a single research study. Moreover, the mixed approach is more than using and conducting both kinds of data in one study; it uses both approaches to make the study stronger than quantitative or qualitative (Williams, 2007; Creswell, 2009). This approach is based on a pragmatic perspective where "the researcher bases the inquiry on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides an understanding of research problem"(Creswell, 2009, p. 18). Usually, the study using mixed methods begins with the quantitative method by conducting a broad survey. After, the researcher collects qualitative data by conducting open-ended interviews with participants (Williams, 2007; Creswell, 2009).

Many studies (Creswell, 2003, 2009; Neuman, 1997; Bhattacherjee, 2012) addressed the differences between quantitative, qualitative and mixed research approaches in terms of strategies of inquiries and research methods used to collect, analyse and interpret data. Table 4.2 shows the alternative strategies of inquiries used under each research approach (Creswell, 2009, p. 12).

Table 4.2: Alternative strategies of inquiry

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed methods
- Experimental design - Non-experimental designs, such as surveys	- Narrative research - Phenomenology - Ethnographies - Grounded theory - Case study	- Sequential - Concurrent - Transformative

Source Creswell (2009, p. 12).

A brief commentary

This research, therefore, uses a mixture of research methods to collect and analyse research data (these are explained in detail further below). By reviewing, discussing, and comparing policies, regulations, laws and practices of the urban development process in terms of involving civil society (in particular local citizens) in the land-use decision-making process (local development plans, master plans) in the UK-Scotland and Syria. This research seeks to propose recommendations that could positively contribute to the urban governance process reform in Syria, emphasising the role of the public within the urban decision-making process. It is worth noting that this research mainly focuses on the urban development plan-making process and the extent to which the public is involved in preparing and establishing these plans. The actual justifications for focusing only on public participation in the plan-making process in the urban development decision-making process are, first, to narrow the scope of this study and concentrate on public participation in plans making process. Second, to examine, investigate and measure the practical implementation of policies and regulations to engage the public in urban planning. Third, in line with the main motive that encouraged the researcher to conduct this research, which lies in whether the local people can participate effectively in preparing and making the development plans for their areas.

Qualitative measures are applied to examine collected topic-related materials to articulate the key terms used in this research, such as 'governance', 'urban planning', 'public' and 'public participation'. Moreover, quantitative and qualitative secondary data are used through reviewing the literature to identify and test the selected main variables of the urban governance forces and planning system structure in both countries.

Regarding primary data, quantitative and qualitative methods are used to investigate the actual level of public participation in the decision-making process in land-use planning. These needed data were collected by conducting fieldwork in the selected study cases in the UK-Scotland, and Syria using questionnaires and interviews. The methods used to collect and analyse research data are explained in detail in a later section of this chapter.

4.3.2 Comparative research strategy

When initiating a comparative study in social science, maybe the most important point to be raised at the outset is how many cases 'countries' to be considered in the study? (Lor, 2011). According to the adopted diagram to structure the design of this research (see Figure 4.3) and the fact that this study compares two countries (the UK-Scotland and

Syria), the comparative research design of this study is a few-country comparison which in turn leads to a case-oriented as a research strategy.

Therefore, and for the purpose of this research, the case study is used as the research strategy where case studies attempt to learn "more about a little known or poorly understood situation" Leedy and Ormrod 2001 (cited in Williams, 2007, p. 04). In the case of this research, public participation in urban development planning in Syria is a newly studied topic (see Hassan, 2010; Hasan, 2012; Hasan and McWilliams, 2014). This research is another step towards studying and analysing this concept and enhancing it theoretically and practically within the Syrian context, taking into account the lessons learned from the British experience (UK-Scotland). Case study research is "an examination of specified units of analysis which may be simple or complex in itself, but which is reasonably well-bounded either empirically or conceptually. It comprises a network of connected evidences from which conclusions may be drawn about the nature of the object as a whole which forms the unit of analysis, that is, conclusions which reflect that simplicity or complexity." (Cropper, 1982, p. 346). This definition of case study research emphasis some characteristics of the case study itself 1) the individuality preserving, 2) a clear definition of boundary. Then, once the boundary of the case study is well defined, all other variables related to the case study can be determined.

On the other hand, Masser (1982, p. 08) argues that case study techniques are very appropriate to study planning because "case studies focus attention on the sequence of decisions that is taking place over time, and they also have the advantage that features which are essentially unique to the situation that is being studied can be taken account of as well as features which reflect general aspects of the case in the collection and presentation of material." Masser justified his preference for the case study method because of its ability to deal with the subject of planning which has unique temporal sequences and contextual factors of occurrence.

As a distinctive form of empirical inquiry, case study research differs from experimental and survey research. Its primary concern is about exploring and understanding the circumstances of the phenomenon of interest and understanding how things are happening and overlapping within their complex context, in addition to collecting data about cases under study or dealing with defined variables on which experimental research is based on (Creswell, 2003; Yin, 2009). Nevertheless, this approach has been underestimated and

criticised for its shortcomings. Yin (2009, p. 14-5) summarises the main critiques as follows:

- The lack of rigour of case study research (too many times, the investigator has not followed a systematic procedure).
- Case study research provides little basis for scientific generalisation.
- Case study research takes too long; it results in massive, unreadable documents.
- Case study research relies on randomised field trials 'true experiments'.

However, this approach is convenient to be adopted as a research strategy for this study in order to fulfil its primary purpose. This research is a comparative study that aims to examine and investigate the process of public participation in urban planning in terms of the land-use process in two countries (the UK-Scotland and Syria). The main aim of this comparative research is not to universally generalise its results and outcomes. Yet, it aims to suggest some reforms to the Syrian urban planning system that are thought to enhance and promote a more positive public participation within urban governance.
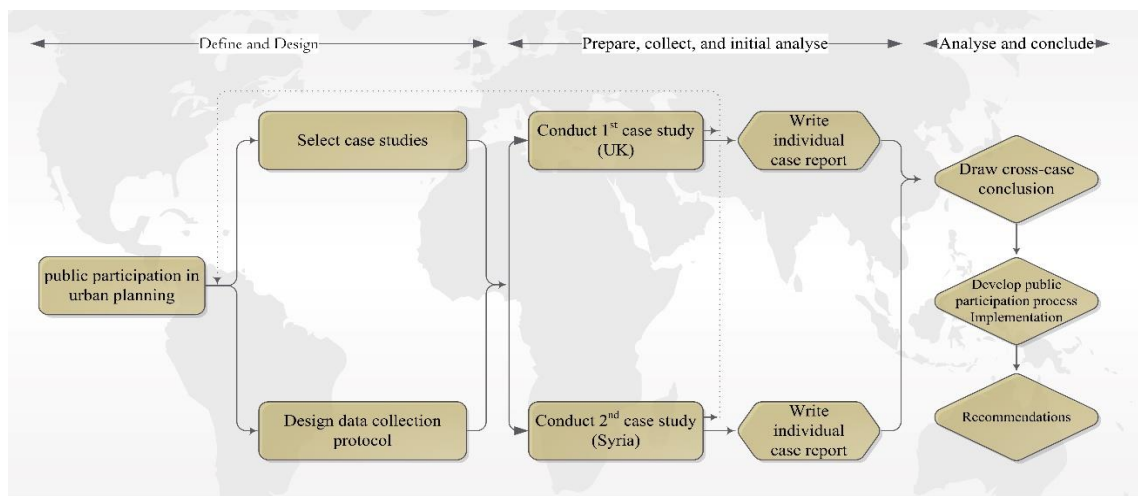
Figure 4.4: General analytical framework of the research.
Source: Author's Original design based on (Yin, 2009, P.57)

In order to conduct this study, the researcher has created a general analytical framework, see Figure 4.4 above, based on Yin's (2009) approach of 'replication approach to multiple-case studies'. This approach is commonly used when the investigator wishes to define and determine the prevalence of the subject of interest (Yin, 2009), 'the subject of public participation in the case of this research'.

The figure above indicates that the first step in designing this study must illustrate the concept of public participation in urban planning and its related theories and approaches

(this step has already been addressed in the literature review). Then it shows that the following steps are selecting study cases (why the UK-Scotland and Syria have been chosen?) and designing the data collection phase along with its methods and approaches to analysing the collected data (this step is addressed in detail further below). In each case study, public participation in the urban planning process will be investigated by presenting a brief review of the main societal forces (state, economy and civil society). Then a critical review of the major policies and laws controlling the urban planning process will be conducted. A field trip is the next step in collecting data to examine the level of public participation in the land-use process in practice. In the end, a conclusion will be presented on the extent to which the public participates and contributes to the urban planning decision-making in terms of the land-use process. The last phase in the figure shows the process of cross-national comparison, which will end with some recommendations that are thought to positively enhance the Syrian planning process to promote the practice of public participation within the urban development decision-making process.

4.3.3 Comparative research design

This study is classified as a 'few-country comparison'. Lor (2011) pointed out that the countries can be as few as two. He added that the most recent comparative studies tend to select two or three countries as the maximum. Herein, a very critical question in a few-country comparison is raised "which countries to be chosen in the study?" Ragin (1987) argued that in such studies, the selection of countries is not by sampling; alternatively, these countries are carefully chosen to fulfil the purpose of the study. Many factors can be considered while selecting countries. One of these factors is simply because the researcher is familiar with them or has access to the data needed for the study in these countries. Another factor could be the lack of studies that addressed the topic of interest in selected countries (Lor, 2011).

In the case of this research, on the one hand, although Syria is the homeland of the researcher, the main reason for choosing it as a case study lies in the fact that there are not many studies addressing the topic of public participation in the decision-making process in general (Hassan, 2010; Hasan, 2012; Abdin et al., 2014). Moreover, there has been an increasing interest from the Syrian government up to 2010 to engage society in the decision-making process and create a suitable environment that supports all interested groups and individuals to participate (State Planning Commission, 2005). This trend was one of the fundamental objectives of the 10th five-year plan approach (FYP) in Syria:

> "...the commitment for a participatory approach at the present Plan, given its transformational goals that call for dialogue and national unanimity. And, in this context, the early formulation stages of the Plan have gone through elaborate discussions by all popular organizations, and state executive and legislative bodies, over and above representatives of political parties, private sector, and the intellectual community [...] Dialogue and popular involvement on the other hand, will contribute to a large scale awareness of developmental needs and issues, inside government offices, among other players, and, most importantly among the public opinion" (State Planning Commission, 2005, p. 6-7)

On the other hand, the selection of the other country UK-Scotland as the second case study is because of the increasing interest of both British and Scottish governments in the concept of public participation in the decision-making process. The current policies and legislation stress the importance of involving the public in the decision-making process, in general, and in urban planning in terms of the land use planning process, as indicated in the quotes below (ODPM, 2004; The Scottish Government, 2010).

> "Planning shapes, the places where people live and work. So, it is right that people should be enabled and empowered to take an active part in the process. Strengthening community involvement is a key part of the Government's planning reforms"(ODPM, 2004, introduction)

> "… to create a planning system that is effective and efficient, while recognising the important role that communities have in the decision-making process. Successful operation of the planning system will only be achieved if those involved: planning authorities, agencies and consultees, applicants, communities, representative organisations, public bodies, the Government and the general public, commit themselves to engaging as constructively as possible in the process" (The Scottish Government, 2010, p. 01).

In effect, the main aim of selecting cases as different as these cases chosen in this study is to benefit and learn from the developed case (the UK-Scotland) to contribute to the development of the other case (Syria). The selection of these two study cases is in line with the method founded by the British philosopher John Stuart Mill[24]. His approach has

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[24] John Stuart Mill, (1806, London, Eng.—1873, Avignon, France), English philosopher, economist, and exponent of Utilitarianism. He was prominent as a publicist in the reforming age of the 19th century, and remains of lasting interest as a logician and an ethical theorist.

two methods; MSSD 'most similar systems designs' is used to compare countries that are very similar in many aspects except regarding the factor or variable under study. On the contrary, MDSD 'most different systems designs' (which is the case of this study) is used to compare countries that are very different in many aspects. Still, they do, however, share the phenomenon of interest under study; in the case of this study, public participation in the urban development decision-making process (Lor, 2011).

At this point, the critical question of "how can this research go ahead in favour of comparative planning study for countries as different as the UK-Scotland and Syria?" needs an answer. In the next section, the researcher justifies how to conduct this comparative study.

Cross-national studies could use either an academic or pragmatic approach. The former approach strongly emphasises the relationship between the context and practice, which increases complexity and the expansion of the study and requires the rule of maximum similarity. In contrast, the latter approach emphasises reducing the complexity of the research. It focuses more on the beneficial outcome of a comparative study by concentrating on particular aspects 'for example, public participation in urban planning in this study' without the need to delve deep into the contextual aspects of the countries under study (Khakee, 1996). It must be noted that the pragmatic approach does not ignore the contextual understanding of these countries but focuses more on selected aspects that are essential to conducting the comparative study.

The pragmatic approach answers 'how to conduct this comparative study?'. In effect, the mixed-method approach has been already selected to be the main method for collecting and analysing research data. It has been discussed that this approach is based on a pragmatic perspective, where the pragmatic approach as a metatheory is not committed to any system of philosophy or reality. It liberates its philosophical base to include a mixture of theories and approaches, giving the researcher freedom to select methods, techniques, and procedures that are useful and convenient to the research purpose (Creswell, 2013).

Based on the above and the conceptual framework adopted earlier (see Figure 3.6), this study will be conducted through three main dimensions as follow:
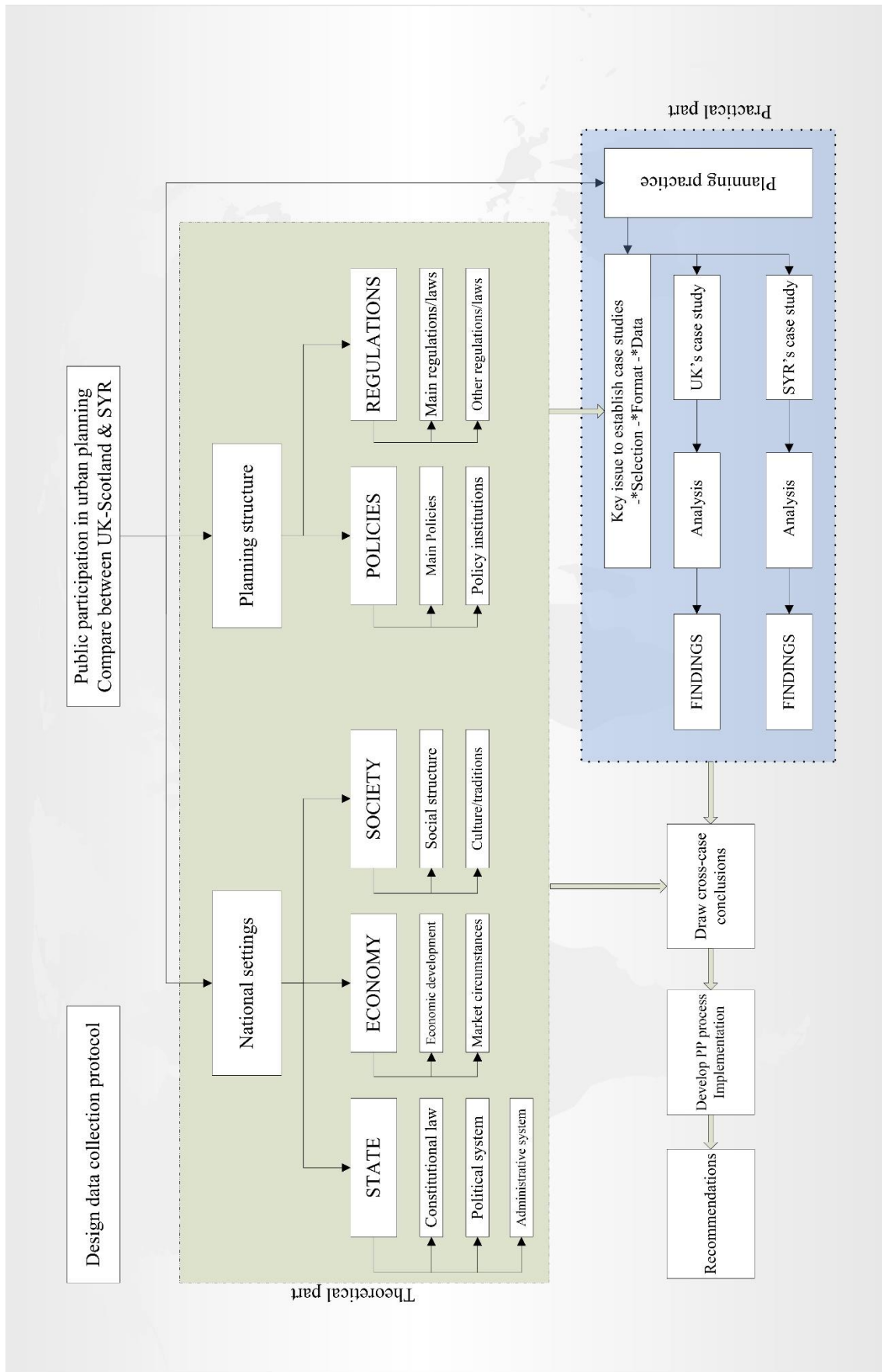
Figure 4.5: Detailed analytical framework of the research
Source: Author's Original.

- National settings: includes a summary of the main society forces (state, economy, and civil society) with a focus on the national background information such as political, administrative, and institutional settings.

- Planning structure: includes a critical review of the main policies, laws, and regulations that regulate and control the urban planning process, emphasising the contribution of public participation within it.

- Planning practice: in this dimension, a field trip will be conducted to collect adequate data to investigate the level of public participation in land use planning in practice.

After identifying the study cases, it is very important to determine the main aspects and variables related directly to the study cases and essential to fulfilling the main aim of this study. Figure 4.5 depicts the detailed framework of this study.

4.4 Data Collection

This research has been operated in two linked phases. The first phase (secondary data, both qualitative and quantitative) was mainly based on desk research of existing urban planning systems in both countries (the UK-Scotland and Syria). A critical review of the planning process's current policies, laws, organisations, and infrastructure was conducted to investigate public involvement and participation in the planning process. The main method used to collect needed data is 'documentation', including official documents and reports. The second phase (primary data, both qualitative and quantitative) has been conducted in two parts. Firstly, a questionnaire survey was carried out to collect data on attitudes, feelings, opinions and experiences of the targeted sample of the population within study cases. The purpose of the questionnaire was to investigate the level of participation in practice in land use planning and to illustrate if any obstacles were preventing public participation. Secondly, face-to-face interviews with participants from many sectors (public, private and civil society) have been conducted.

4.4.1 Literature review

"The literature review accomplishes several purposes. It shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the one being undertaken. It relates a study to the larger, ongoing dialogue in the literature, filling in gaps and extending prior studies".

(Creswell, 2009, p. 25)

Thus, the literature review is considered the leading resource for collecting secondary data needed to set the context of this research; it contains conceptual, research, academic, governmental and professional literature. Exploring the literature allows the researcher to be fully versed in the area of interest (public participation in urban planning). The literature review forms an essential part of the research methodology as an integral approach to meeting the research objectives. The literature review sought to clarify the concepts used in the research, and it addressed the evolution of the concept of public participation and related notions in terms of theory and history.

The literature review fulfiled the first objective of this study. Academic literature has been reviewed to explain and illustrate the meaning of the key terms and words used in this research, such as 'governance', 'urban governance', 'public participation' and 'urban planning' and to define the scope of these terms in this study. In addition, the literature review was the primary tool used to review and adopt a conceptual framework for this study. The main resources used to cover the literature review were relevant academic books and journal articles that addressed public participation in urban planning in particular and governmental and international reports. All in all, most of these publications were accessible through UK academic libraries and online international publications.

Moreover, a further literature review of the Syrian and British contexts in terms of governance, urban planning in land use planning and critical reviews of the essential urban development policies and laws have been undertaken. This review was in response to the second objective of this study which is '*Critically assess the current effect of public participation within programs, policies, and laws of the urban planning system with reference to the political, economic, and social forces that affect the culture of planning in Syria and the UK-Scotland alike*', and to answer its related questions.

In this case, the literature review provided background information about the governance context and the urban planning development in terms of the institutions, laws and regulations in both countries under study. Moreover, this review gave an indicator about to what extent the public has the statutory right to participate and contribute to the urban development decision-making process regarding land-use planning.

It is worth noting here that the materials used in the UK-Scotland case were sufficient and accessible through government websites (e.g. legislation.gov.uk, and gov.scot) and British libraries that provide plenty of publications (books and articles) that addressed the

urban development planning in this country. In the case of Syria, the materials used were limited and confined to some government documents and regulations accessible through government websites (e.g., The state planning commission (SPC) and a few academic studies. In addition, some publications from international agencies (UN, UNDP) and a few other publications in Arabic. Moreover, due to the limited academic and official materials, the researcher has engaged with grey materials[25] in Syria. Still, these materials were carefully chosen to help gain more information, especially when addressing the case study selected (Latakia city-Syria).

4.4.2 Questionnaire survey

"…a questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a set of questions (items) intended to capture responses from respondents in a standardized manner. Questions may be unstructured or structured. Unstructured questions ask respondents to provide a response in their own words, while structured questions ask respondents to select an answer from a given set of choices".

(Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 74)

A questionnaire survey is one of the main methods used to collect the primary data for this research; as it was mentioned before in this chapter (see mixed methods approach), the primary data collection phase for this study starts with a questionnaire survey in order to collect a large and diverse number of public views about their personal experience participating in preparation and formulation of the local development plan and master plan for their area.

The same design of the questionnaire survey has been used in both study cases (UK-Scotland 'Edinburgh city', and Syria 'Latakia city'). In the case of Edinburgh city, two forms of the questionnaire have been used (a self-administered mail questionnaire survey and an online questionnaire survey). While in the case of Latakia city, and because of the difficult security situation in Syria caused by the ongoing war there, an online questionnaire survey was the most convenient method to collect data needed.

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[25] Grey literature publications are non-conventional, fugitive, and sometimes ephemeral publications. They may include, but are not limited to the following types of materials: reports (pre-prints, preliminary progress and advanced reports, technical reports, statistical reports, memoranda, state-of-the art reports, market research reports, etc.), theses, conference proceedings, technical specifications and standards, non-commercial translations, bibliographies, technical and commercial documentation, and official documents not published commercially (primarily government reports and documents)(Alberani et al., 1990).

Self-administered mail questionnaire survey: this type of questionnaire was used in Edinburgh to collect information about the contribution and participation of local people in the formulation process of the new local development plan for the city. Targeted areas for the distribution of this questionnaire were chosen by the researcher, where neighbourhoods adjacent to proposed development areas were selected (Further information in chapter 7). In the summer of 2013, the researcher himself distributed nearly 500 questionnaires surveys to homeowners in targeted areas. Each mail has a copy of the questionnaire, a cover letter and an enclosed return envelope (for a sample of the questionnaire and cover letter, see Appendix 4-3). There are many advantages to this form of a questionnaire that can be summarised as follows: unobtrusive, low cost, greater anonymity, considered answers and consultations and accessible (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992; Bhattacherjee, 2012). However, probably the most common shortcoming of this type of questionnaire is its low response rate. People tend to not reply to questionnaire surveys, or it takes them a long time (sometimes months) to complete and return the form (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Arguing the low response rate of this method Bhattacherjee (2012, p. 80) pointed out that "survey research is generally notorious for its low response rates. A response rate of 15-20% is typical in a mail survey, even after two or three reminders."

The questionnaire survey design included structured and unstructured questions (closed-ended and open-ended), that is, in order to collect as much as possible information from respondents. However, the design of the questionnaire takes into account the basic rules of designing a questionnaire survey (see Dillman, 1978; Creswell, 2009; Bhattacherjee, 2012), where it is as short as possible and limited to what is absolutely necessary for the purpose of the research, it uses a clear and understandable language (no jargon). The researcher makes sure that each question is clear and focuses on the asked issue. The questionnaire starts with easy questions closed-ended, and then the questions get more specific about the topic under study (participation in Edinburgh local development plan). Response formats for closed-ended questions vary between nominal-scale and ordinal-level. The former presents more than two unordered options to choose from, and respondents always have an 'other' option to add more explanation, while the latter offers a 3-point or 5-point Likert scale[26]. Likert scale usually varies between three and nine

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[26] Likert scale: designed by Rensis Likert, this is a very popular rating scale for measuring ordinal data in social science research. This scale includes Likert items that are simply-worded statements to which respondents can indicate their extent of agreement or disagreement on a five or seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 47).

values; it always uses an odd number to allow a neutral response (Bhattacherjee, 2012). In this questionnaire, three and five values responses were used for the purpose of this research. In addition to structured questions (closed-ended), the researcher gave the respondents some room to express their points of view about the issues asked using open-ended questions. These questions are used to collect qualitative data that may generate unexpected insights from participants, enriching the overall research data.

As expected, the response rate to the mail questionnaire was low in this research; 96 out of 500 (19.2%) responded to the questionnaire. Thus, in an attempt to increase the number of questionnaire responses, the researcher designed an electronic copy of the questionnaire '*Online questionnaire survey*', which is accessible via: https://goo.gl/LzksH0. The researcher emailed community councils in Edinburgh asking them if they could ask the community council members to participate in the questionnaire (The mailing list of community council office-bearers in Edinburgh is presented in Table A4.2 in Appendix 4-4). Moreover, the researcher tried to use social networks (Twitter and Facebook) to promote the questionnaire. Fifty-five responses were the maximum number that the online questionnaire was reached. In total, 151 responses to the questionnaire survey from Edinburgh city were addressed in the analysis process of this research.

In the other case study (Latakia city in Syria), the link of the '*Online questionnaire survey*' was shared on social networks (Facebook and Twitter) to reach the largest possible number of people living in the city. Bearing in mind the dire conditions of electricity and internet facilities in Syria and the fact that some people do not have a computer or internet access, the total responses reached 102. Two of them were duplicated, so 100 responses were under analysis. The online questionnaire is accessible via: https://goo.gl/4m4sLj Please note it is written in Arabic.

4.4.3 Interviews

Face-to-face interviews or 'individual interviews' are probably the most preferred methods to collect data for qualitative research, especially in case study research. They are used in different forms (structured, semi-structured and unstructured 'in-depth') where the essence of their strength lies in their ability to provide an intensive focus on the debated topic with the interviewee (Creswell, 2009; Yin, 2009; Bhattacherjee, 2012; Ritchie et al., 2013). The main goal of using interviews is because,

"…They provide an opportunity for detailed investigation of people's personal perspectives, for in-depth understanding of the personal context within which the research phenomena are located, and for very detailed subject coverage. They are also particularly well suited to research that requires an understanding of deeply rooted or delicate phenomena or responses to complex systems, processes or experiences because of the depth of focus and the opportunity they offer for clarification and detailed understanding."

(Ritchie et al., 2013, p. 36-7)

Semi-structured interviews have been used in this research. These interviews were guided by a sequence of pre-prepared questions, yet they were quite open by giving the interviewee a chance to explain in more detail his/her viewpoint. Also, providing the possibility of expansion on relevant issues that emerged during the conversation, but the researcher has kept in mind to follow the sequence of pre-prepared questions and decently shift the debate in case no relevant information is provided by the interviewee (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Ritchie et al., 2013). These interviews were conducted with individuals representing different stakeholders who might participate in the planning process (politicians, community councillors, NGOs members, private sector members etc.).

The questions used to conduct these interviews are listed in Appendix 4-5. A total of nine participants were interviewed during the field trip conducted in Edinburgh. Relatively, these interviews took a long period of time, from November 2013 until April 2014; this was because the participants were too busy and unable to conduct the interviews soon after their contact date (one of them gave an appointment after five weeks), another reason was referred to using a snowball sampling method[27]as some participants were contacted based on recommendations of the other participants. Those interviews were conducted with individuals from a variety of institutions that can be considered as samples of various stakeholders who are involved in the urban development process in Edinburgh (a list of participants is provided in Table A4.3 in Appendix 4-6, in order to ensure privacy and confidentiality all participants will be presented by pseudonyms (P1, P2 .etc)[28]). All

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[27] Snowball or chain referral sampling is a method that has been widely used in qualitative sociological research. The method yields a study sample through referrals made among people who share or know of others who possess some characteristics that are of research interest (Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981, p. 141).

[28] These pseudonyms are used to represent all the interviewees, where "P1" means the first participant, "P2" means the second participant and so on.

participants agreed to have their interviews digitally recorded, making it easier to transcribe all recorded materials. Information obtained from these interviews focused on the concept of public participation in the urban development context in Scotland, specifically, the participation process in land-use planning.

4.5 Primary Data Analysis

This research falls under social science research, where the main form of data used in such research is qualitative. However, this research uses a mixed-method approach with predominant qualitative data. The analysis stage of qualitative research is very important and challenging. It is dependent on the researcher's analytical and cognitive skills and requires the researcher to be fully aware of the social context where the data is derived (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Ritchie et al., 2013).

> *"Analysis is a challenging and exciting stage of the qualitative research process. It requires a mix of creativity and systematic searching, a blend of inspiration and diligent detection. And although there will be a stage dedicated to analysis, the pathways to forming ideas to pursue, phenomena to capture, theories to test begins right at the start of a research study and ends while writing up the results. It is an inherent and ongoing part of qualitative research."*

(Ritchie et al., 2013, p. 199)

The raw primary data collected for this research consists of two main parts. Firstly, the questionnaire survey which contains qualitative and quantitative data. Secondly, the semi-structured interviews 'mainly qualitative data' that conducted in the case of Edinburgh city. While secondary data 'previously conducted research' is used in the case of Latakia city.

In the case of Latakia city, the researcher faced the challenge of collecting and analysing the data in Arabic and then translating the results to be presented in English. In this regard, many studies have addressed the challenges of language differences in qualitative research (Smith et al., 2008; Van Nes et al., 2010; Ho et al., 2019). Van Nes et al. (2010, p. 313) argue that "interpretation of meaning is the core of qualitative research. As translation is also an interpretive act, meaning may get lost in the translation process". Their study concluded with some recommendations to potentially reduce the loss of meaning and thereby improve the validity of cross-English qualitative studies. One of these recommendations is to avoid potential limitations in the analysis they, therefore,

recommend staying in the original language as long and as much as possible. Under this recommendation, the researcher collected primary and secondary data from the city of Latakia in Arabic. All collected data were sorted and arranged for analysis in Arabic. The analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data collected from Latakia city was in Arabic also. The translation into English was limited to the main findings of the analysis process. The researcher is fully aware of the social context from which the data collected was derived. And relying on his analytical and cognitive skills, the researcher, while translating the main findings, tried to minimise the loss of the original meaning and maintain data validity and credibility.

Further below is more information about the data analysis process of each method used for data collection.

4.5.1 Questionnaire survey analysis

The first step was to prepare and organise the raw data for analysis. The researcher worked on sorting and arranging all collected data from mail questionnaires and online questionnaires into an excel spreadsheet in order to make it easier to initiate the analysis. The following step was to deal with and analyse both kinds of data (quantitative and qualitative) in each questionnaire question; for this purpose, a few software programmes (Microsoft Excel, SPSS and NVivo 12 Plus) were used to analyse these data.

Quantitative data in the questionnaire (which used closed-ended questions) were basically designed on a Likert scale, either 3-point or 5-point. The following is an example of how quantitative data has been analysed in this research. In response to the question "Do you think there were barriers to participating in the preparation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh?" there were three options for the participant to choose from (Yes, No, and Not sure). These options were built on a 3-point Likert scale. This kind of data can be analysed quantitatively using 'univariate analysis'. This analysis "refers to a set of statistical techniques that can describe the general properties of one variable" (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 121), Such as frequency distribution. Figure 4.6 illustrates the percentage of responses to existing obstacles to participating in the formulation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh.

On the other hand, qualitative data collected by using open-ended questions have been analysed using the open coding method. This method is "a process aimed at identifying concepts or key ideas that are hidden within textual data, which are potentially related to the phenomenon of interest" (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 113).

Barriers to Participate
(n = 96)

- Yes
- No
- Not sure
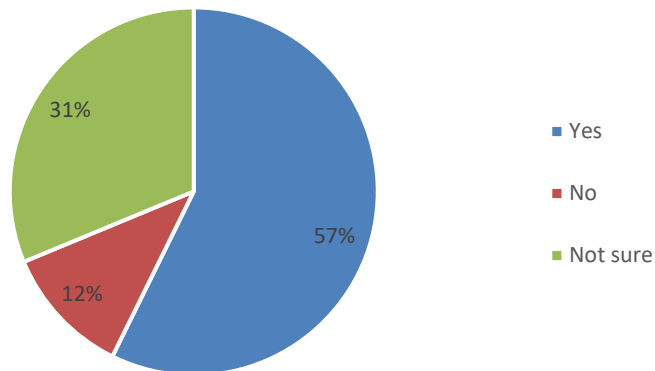
Figure 4.6: Barriers to participating in the formulation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh city.
Source: Author's Original.

Follow-up on the same example mentioned above, the researcher asked the respondents who answered 'Yes' to identify the main obstacles that prevent them from participating in the formulation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh. Each respondent mentioned one or more obstacles; the researcher used the open-coding method to identify the main and key ideas and concepts mentioned in their comments. He ended up identifying the main obstacles from their point of view. Below are some examples of how the researcher coded the key ideas within the textual data.

*Initially the council was understood in advertising their plans and asking for public reaction, **by chance we heard of the plan**. The council was surprised at public reaction* ⟶ *Poor Information*

*__Very complicated, need help from experts to understand it__. Do not quite understand the process. Not sure what **influence our community council's responses had**.* ⟶ *Complexity of planning process*

⟶ *Lack of trust*

Fifty-five respondents believed there were barriers to participating in the formulation process of the local development plan of their area. Their comments were coded into main concepts and ideas that form the barriers to participating in the land-use planning process in Edinburgh. Figure 4.7 shows these main barriers.
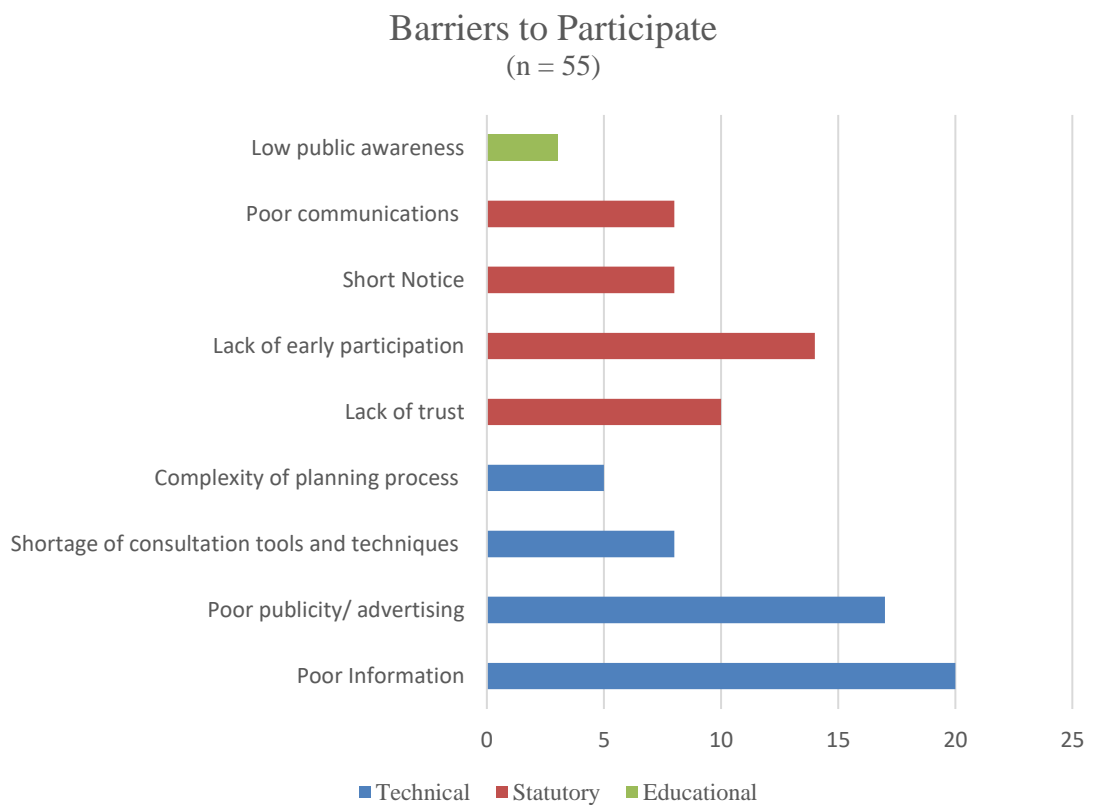
Figure 4.7: Barriers to participating in the formulation process of the LDP of Edinburgh.
Source: Author's Original.

The next stage was to categorise the derived codes into higher categories according to the nature and context of each code. The researcher organised these codes into three main categories (technical barriers, statutory barriers and educational barriers) as follows:

Table 4.3: Categorising the main coded concepts[29].

Code	Category
Poor Information	Technical barriers
Incorrect information	
Poor publicity/ advertising	
Lack of finance	
Shortage of consultation tools and techniques	
The complexity of the planning process	
Lack of early participation	Statutory barriers
Lack of trust	
Short Notice	
Poor communications	
Low public awareness	Educational barriers
Lack of education	

Source: Author's Original.

According to this categorisation, the main barriers to participation in the formulation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh are shown in Figure 4.8.
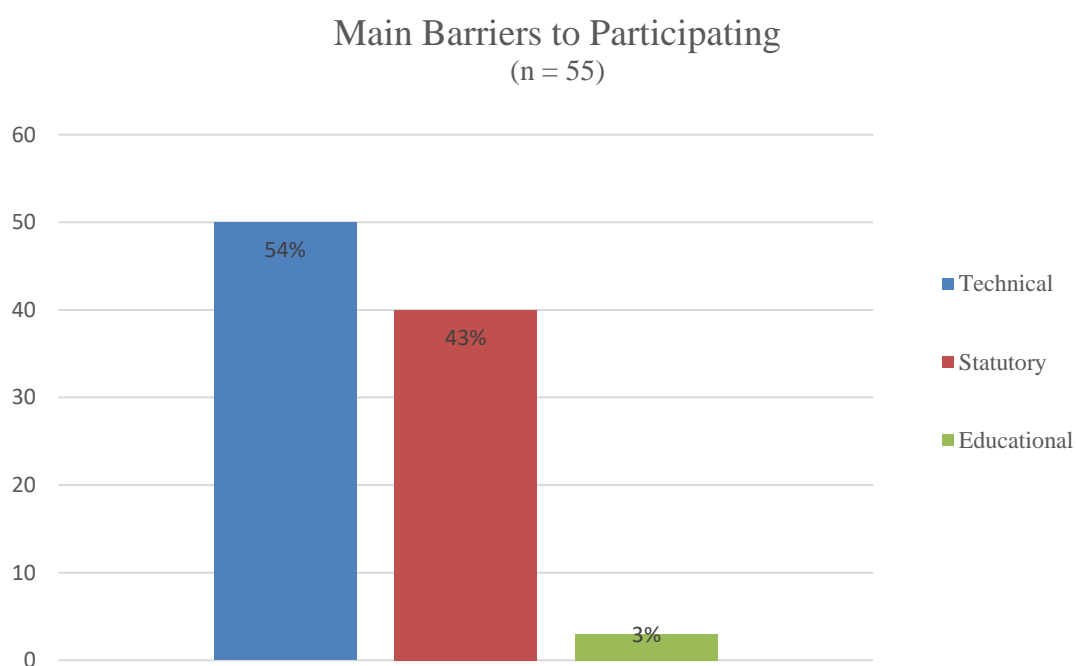
Figure 4.8: Main barriers to participating in the LDP of Edinburgh (questionnaire).
Source: Author's Original.

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[29] This categorisation is based on grounded theory through its three main stages (open coding, axial coding and selective coding). In the selective coding stage, the researcher identified central categories (core variables) and systematically and logically related these central categories to other extracted codes. The technical category contains (all identified codes related to techniques and methods of participation and their tools and ways to apply them). The statutory category includes (all identified codes which can be improved by enacting legal requirements). The educational category contains (all identified codes related to knowledge, cognition and level of awareness).

4.5.2 Interview analysis

In the first stage and before analysing the interviews, the researcher worked on transcribing all audio-recorded interviews and converted them to a text file in order to prepare raw data for analysis. One of the most common procedures in analysing qualitative data is identifying the main ideas, concepts, themes, and categories in the textual materials (Ritchie et al., 2013). In this study, the researcher used the open-coding technique to identify the main ideas and concepts in each interview question. Similar ideas and concepts are grouped into higher-order categories where it is needed (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

The analysis approach used to analyse qualitative data in this study (in both questionnaire surveys and interviews) relies on 'Grounded theory'[30] , which starts with coding the main concepts in the text and then grouping up all similar concepts into one category. Following is an example of the analysis process undertaken in this research to analyse the conducted interviews. In response to a question asked about the main barriers that obstruct the implementation of public participation within the Scottish planning system at any level, the participants' responses have been coded as follows:

> P7:
> "*__Planning legislation is too complex for most people to get their minds around__; it seems unfair and thus people shrink away from getting involved.*"
>
> → *Complexity of planning process*

> P9:
> "*… I think with all these things __it is about education__ and __engaging earlier__, younger and __making people aware of it__.*"
>
> → *Lack of awareness and education*
> → *Lack of early participation*
>
> "*… I think there are barriers, but I think they get overcome __through education and through publicity and through positive messaging from the council and from your developers__.*"
>
> → *Poor publicity and advertising*
> → *Poor information*

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[30] grounded theory – an inductive technique of interpreting recorded data about a social phenomenon to build theories about that phenomenon [...] a process of classifying and categorizing text data segments into a set of codes (concepts), categories (constructs), and relationships (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 113).

P2:
*"Money, money, money! **Money is the resource to actually go on there and do it properly**"*   → *Lack of finance*
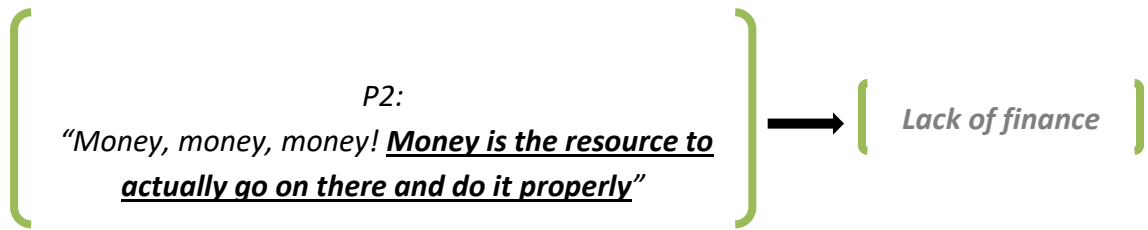
The next step was to categorise these codes into key categories; for this purpose, the same categorisation used for the questionnaire survey is used in the interview case (see Table 4.3). The total number of interviewees is nine, but each of them has the right to mention as many as they want of barriers that obstruct the participation process, in their opinion. Accordingly, the total number of barriers mentioned by interviewees was more than nine. Figure 4.9 shows the main barriers mentioned by the interviewees.
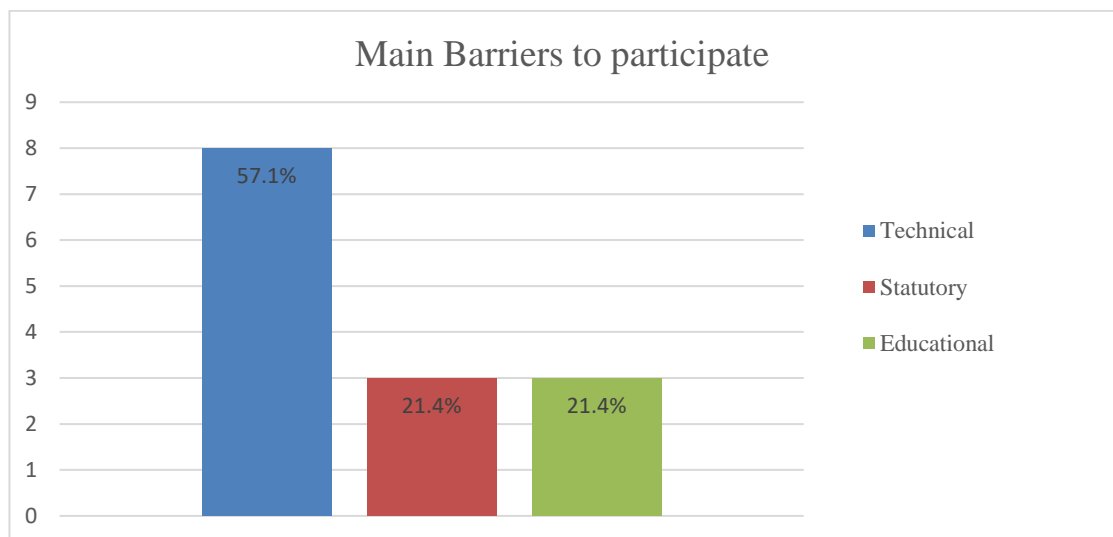
Figure 4.9: Main barriers to participating in the LDP of Edinburgh (interviews).
Source: Author's Original.

All examples mentioned above were from the Edinburgh case study, and bearing in mind that the comparative approach strategy adopted in this study is the 'replication approach to multiple-case studies'. In this sense, the same analysis process used to analyse the case study of Edinburgh will be replicated to analyse the case study of Latakia, with a slight difference regarding analysing the interviews[31] as secondary data. The primary data analysis is fully explained in chapters seven and eight.

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[31] The research relies on qualitative data that has been conducted in other two studies (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2014) where both of them have addressed the topic of public participation in planning within the Syrian context, which means the secondary data is reliable to be used in this research. The main reason for using this data is the researcher inability to conduct interviews in Syria because of the unstable security situation there.

4.6 Ethics and Research

4.6.1 Social research ethics

Research ethics is a very important consideration in any type of research (natural and social) (Creswell, 2009; Lodico et al., 2010; Bhattacherjee, 2012). In the case of this research, that falls under social science research, which is usually concerned with studying a social phenomenon by providing answers to questions of who and how within a given geographic and time context. Thus, it is critically important to consider a number of ethics during conducting a social study, as truth is good, however, human dignity is better (Weber 2007 cited in Hasan, 2012). Ethical issues are critical in all phases of research, from identifying the research problem and formulating the primary aim and related questions to writing up the research (Creswell, 2009).

> *"Ethics is defined by Webster's dictionary as conformance to the standards of conduct of a given profession or group. Such standards are often defined at a disciplinary level though a professional code of conduct, and sometimes enforced by university committees called even Institutional Review Board."*

(Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 137)

Using the ethical issues in any research is to establish safeguards that will protect participants and the researcher alike (Lodico et al., 2010). In this research, several ethical issues were considered, such as obtaining informed consent from participants, ensuring that they are protected from harm ensuring confidentiality and anonymity and avoiding deceit in the course of research (Creswell, 2009; Lodico et al., 2010; Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Regarding **obtaining informed consent** for this research, all interviewees who took part in the interview process were informed about the researcher's position as a PhD student at Heriot-Watt University. Moreover, they learned about the main purpose of the research and were assured that all data collected from them would be merely used for the purpose of the study. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher provided the interviewee with a cover letter from the School of Built Environment that articulates the purpose of conducting the interview and asked for their permission to record it. In the case of the questionnaire survey, an introduction at the beginning of the questionnaire illustrated the researcher's position as a PhD student and gave a brief about the purpose of the research and noted that the intended use of the collected data is for research purposes only.

This kind of research that discusses notions and concepts such as 'governance' and 'participation' related to political context is a very sensitive issue. Thus, the researcher paid attention to **avoid participants from harm**, as some of them were conservative in their answers to some questions. The researcher showed full respect and did not insist or put pressure on obtaining the information. In general, this research was at the minimum risk of hazards towards participants and the researcher alike. The researcher filled out a risk assessment form[32] where the potential risk was very low.

In respect of **confidentiality and anonymity,** the identity of all participants was kept anonymous within this thesis, where pseudonyms were used to identify each quoted text. The purpose of this research is not to reveal people's viewpoints on the participation process but instead to use their viewpoints to explore the strengths and weaknesses of the public participation process in the land-use planning system (that is why their names were kept anonymous). In the case of the questionnaire survey, there was an assurance for all participants at the beginning of the questionnaire that all information provided would be kept confidential.

Another ethical issue considered in this research is **avoiding deceit**. The researcher was very clear and transparent with all participants involved in this research. He indicated his position as a PhD student, and he illustrated the main purpose of his study and the intended use of collected data. On the other hand, the researcher avoided the distortion of the raw data, and he did his best to maintain it and interpret it honestly and transparently.

Heriot-Watt University has a University Ethics Committee to guide schools, monitor procedures and ensure appropriate ethical issues are being considered. For the purpose of this study and in compliance with all ethical issues mentioned above, the researcher filled out an application form to grant ethical approval for this research. In March 2013, the University Ethics Committee endowed the researcher with ethical approval to conduct this research.

4.6.2 Positionality and reflexivity in research

There is a set of certain values, standards, convictions, feelings, and interests that any researcher believes in, which inevitably influences and shapes the research project. These norms are often related to religious beliefs, political views, personal experiences of

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[32] All research students in Heriot-Watt University are asked to fill out a risk assessment form to assess the level to which their research is harmful to participants and the researcher alike, where low levels are acceptable, medium, and high levels are tolerable, while very high levels are unacceptable.

research such as research training, previous projects worked on, and even may include aspects of identity- gender, age, race, class and sexual orientation (Hopkins, 2007). All that is mentioned here usually forms the researcher's position in the research or what is called 'research positionality'. Reflecting on the researcher's own positionality is known as reflexivity. According to Corlett and Mavin (2018, p.380), "reflexivity is always a self-monitoring of, and a self-responding to, our thoughts, feelings and actions as we engage in research projects".

On the one hand, Hopkins (2007) argues that reflexivity efficiently enriches the grasp of reality in social science rather than pretending its absence. On the other hand, Malcolm (1993, p. 142-144) questions the "integrity of researchers" and suggests that such a stance may lead to questionable practices in the "use, selection, manipulation, and interpretation of data". She suggests that a deliberately self-critical approach would be more effective in order to make explicit the evidence and arguments needed to defend a position:

> *"It requires us to explore more fully the subtle distinctions between an admitted lack of neutrality and a straightforward surrender to bias, and to seek an unaccustomed distance between ourselves and our practice".*

(Malcolm, 1993, p.144)

May (2001, p.51) explains that the researcher's values are involved in the research phases of:

- "the researcher's interests leading to research;
- the aims, objectives, and design of a research project;
- the process of collecting data;
- the interpretation of the data; and
- the use made of the research findings".

Based on the above, and in reflecting on the researcher's own positionality, the researcher's interest in public participation in urban development planning was triggered when the author witnessed the large number of objections raised against the new MP of Latakia city (Syria) following its announcement in 2008. The main question that preoccupied the author at that time was: *Are locals genuinely involved in the urban planning process, or is this process taking place without their complete and effective participation?* Since 2008 the author had a passion for knowing more about public participation in general and how effectively the locals could participate and contribute to

the decision-making process, especially towards matters that affect their lives and destiny. This led the author to enrol in the Master of Research in Urban Studies program in 2009/2010. The main focus of his master's dissertation was on community participation in urban planning and how fostering community participation could contribute to the reform of local planning in Syria (see Hassan, 2010). The author intended to carry on this research during PhD study to investigate and study the topic of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in depth.

This PhD study is a cross-national comparative study investigating the level of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in the British-Scottish and Syrian contexts. Latakia/Syria is the author's hometown, and he intended to carry out research on public participation in urban development in Syria based on the case of Latakia and investigate the reasons behind the broad popular objection to the new MP. In the British context, the author, as a resident of Edinburgh city, had chosen it as a case study to conduct this comparative research. The researcher's interest in the topic of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in the British and Syrian contexts; led the author to widen his knowledge about related issues of governance, democracy, urban planning, and associated urban studies, which in turn led to the structure of the research aim, objectives, and methods.

The author has been aware of the areas of similarity and difference between him and the research participants, especially while carrying out the interviews. This was essential in the process of data collection and analysis (Hopkins, 2007). On the same topic, Halliday (2002) discusses the values of the 'researched' in relation to those of the 'researcher'. He argues that researchers should be open to the values and opinions of all concerned with the research and be willing to engage in dialogue:

> *"The researcher or writer is likely to have calculated how best to further her or his values without appearing to be biased or prejudiced. The outcome of research must not appear to be a prejudgement arrived at without due examination".*

(Halliday, 2002, p.305)

Considering Halliday's (2002) approach to conducting a practical and neutral study as much as possible, the researcher tried to be open, flexible, and cooperative in obtaining data without imposing any kind of influence on the participants' responses and

behaviours. Furthermore, the author attempted to be objective in terms of data analysis and social behaviour interpretation.

Hereby, the researcher does not claim that these research results are value-free. However, the researcher tried to maintain 'an unaccustomed distance' between his values and those of the research participants to create research findings that approximate to reality.

4.7 Limitations of Research Methodology and Methods Used

This research follows the study of Roth and Mehta (2002) in using a mixture of research methods from different theoretical backgrounds. However, the dominant metatheory that forms the background of this research is interpretivism. There is a tangible effect of positivism in this study. The advantages of these metatheories have been discussed in detail earlier in this chapter (see 4.2.2). Given their benefits in continuously helping researchers develop their understanding of humans and events in social research based on clear evidence; these metatheories still maintain some limitations (Pham, 2018). Smith (1999) argues that the positivism approach has proven to have a limited and little practical value in social science studies. Positivism relies on experience as a source of knowledge. However, in social science, many concepts like value, space, time, context, etc., cannot be measured numerically and are not based on experience. Pham (2018, p.3) explains the limitations of positivism in social science as follows:

- "It could be impossible to measure phenomena related to intention, attitudes, thoughts of a human because these concepts profoundly may not explicitly be observed or measured with sense experience or without evidence.
- since the objective of positivism aims to generalise the result of the research at the large degree, there should be a risk that individuals whose understanding and interpretation related to any events, phenomena or issues can reveal a lot of truth about reality may be neglected.
- The inaccuracy of scientific data collected within this metatheory should be carefully reviewed as in some situations where the respondents may choose random answers rather than authentic responses".

On the other hand, interpretivism metatheory is the dominant paradigm used in this research. Although this metatheory freed the researchers from most restrictions imposed by positivism and gave them the freedom and flexibility needed to conduct social science research, this paradigm also has some limitations (Mark, 1996). These limitations have been summed up by Pham (2018, p.4) as follows:

- "The interpretivists aim to gain the deeper understanding and knowledge of phenomena within its complexity of the context rather than generalise these results to other people and other contexts. hence it tends to leave out a gap in verifying validity and usefulness of research outcomes with using scientific procedures.
- its ontological view tends to be subjective rather than objective. For this reason, research outcomes are unquestionably affected by the researcher's own interpretation, own belief system, ways of thinking or cultural preference which causes to many bias".

Many scholars (Ragin, 1987; Ragin, 2000; Ebbinghaus, 2005; Mills et al., 2006) indicate that there are many methodological limitations and problems in comparative research; several key problems include:

- case selection, unit, level and scale of analysis;
- construct equivalence; and
- variable or case orientation

Ebbinghaus (2005) argues that case selection is one of the most critical problems within comparative research. He indicates that cases in cross-national comparative research usually have been pre-selected due to historical and political processes. The selection of these cases is often deliberate and theory-driven. It is not just the case selection that the researchers have to decide, but the scale and level of analysis.

In the case of this thesis, the comparative strategy used is a case study (case orientation). Benbasat et al. (1987) describe five problems frequently encountered in case research studies. "First, many case research studies start without specific research questions, and therefore end up without having any specific answers or insightful inferences. Second, case sites are often chosen based on access and convenience, rather than based on the fit with the research questions and therefore cannot adequately address the research questions of interest. Third, researchers often do not validate, or triangulate data collected using multiple means, which may lead to biased interpretation based on responses from biased interviewees. Fourth, many studies provide very little details on how data was collected or analysed, which may raise doubts about the reliability of the inferences. Finally, despite its strength as a longitudinal research method, many case research studies do not follow through a phenomenon in a longitudinal manner, and hence present only a

cross-sectional and limited view of organizational processes and phenomena that are temporal in nature" (as cited in Bhattacherjee, 2012, p.94).

On the other hand, since comparative research aims to search for similarities and differences in cases studied, research necessitates equivalent instruments or definitions to measure constructs. "Construct equivalence refers to the instance where the instrument measures the same latent trait across all groups, or nations, or cultures" (Mills et al., 2006, p. 623). The necessity of equivalent comparison requires the researchers to debate the meaning and utility of standard analytic concepts such as 'race', 'class', 'age' and 'gender'.

4.8 Conclusion

To summarise, this research is conducted within the frame of the inductive-deductive cycle. From theory to observation and vice versa, this research relied on a theoretical framework to test public participation's contribution to the urban development decision-making process within the Syrian and British contexts (examining the level of public participation within main policies and regulations). On the other hand, this research sought to analyse collected data in both contexts (Syrian and British) to identify patterns and factors affecting the quality and level of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in terms of land-use planning. A critical comparison between both contexts contributed to generating ideas and recommendations to develop the concept of public participation in the Syrian governance context, especially land-use planning. However, the outcomes of this research are not suitable to be generalised on the international level of urban development theories. Yet, it is beneficial for studies that address a similar urban governance context to those addressed in this study.

This research is a comparative study based on a case study approach where a mixed method of data collection and analysis is implied. Qualitative and quantitative data in the literature, questionnaire and interview were collected and analysed with full awareness by the researcher of the ethical issues associated in this study. Therefore, primary and secondary data were collected and examined regarding urban governance and public participation in the urban decision-making process within both contexts to understand the level of public participation within the urban planning process in each context separately. This, in turn, gives the opportunity to compare both contexts by defining the differences and similarities and identifying the strengths and weaknesses that contributed to the formation of research outcomes.

This chapter sets out the research methodology and the main methods used and accurately charts the course of the research according to the adopted analytical framework (Figure 4.5). The next chapter will discuss the British-Scottish context and address the first and second dimensions of the adopted conceptual framework "culturised model," which are (national settings and planning structure).

Chapter Five: Urban Planning System within the British Context

5.1 Introduction

Masser and Williams (1986, p. 12) quote McCallum (1976): "it is impossible to understand the differences between British and US planning practice without reference to the political culture of planning which involves the emotional and attitudinal environment within which a political system operates".

Thus, this chapter and the following chapter start by addressing the national settings of each country by studying the political, economic, and social structure of UK-Scotland and Syria alike. Then turns to study the planning structure by critically reviewing the main policies, regulations, and Acts that manage and control the urban planning process in these countries. This chapter sets the UK-Scotland under study to answer the questions raised by the second objective of this research: *Critically assess the current effect of public participation within programmes, policies, and laws of the urban planning system with reference to the political, economic, and social forces that affect the culture of planning.*

> 2.1. What are the main factors that affect public participation in the urban planning process?
>
> 2.2. What are the main policies, laws and regulations that seek to regulate and control the urban planning process?
>
> 2.3. What is the level and scope of public participation within the planning process?

The first part of this chapter sheds light on the main society forces (State, economy, and society) that form the urban governance process within the British context to cover the first dimension of the conceptual framework adopted in this research (Figure 3.6). The first dimension investigates the visible and invisible national influence on the urban development decision-making process. In the adopted analytical framework (Figure 4.5), the researcher identified the key variables to be studied in this dimension. This is an initial step that reviews the British political, economic, and social context to form a general background to understand the mechanism of action of the urban planning system within the national context (more specifically, the Scottish planning system from the 1940s onward). Then, a critical review of the British-Scottish main planning policies and key planning laws from the 1940s onwards is undertaken to cover the second dimension (planning structure) in the adopted conceptual framework. A critical analysis will be

undertaken to investigate the extent to which people can participate in the decision-making process in terms of land-use planning.

5.2 National Settings

5.2.1 The state

Physical size

The United Kingdom consists of four countries: England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The United Kingdom refers to Great Britain and Northern Ireland, while England, Wales and Scotland form Great Britain (Royal Haskoning, 2006; UN, 2006). The total area of the United Kingdom is approximately 243.610 sq. km, where the land percentage in each of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland is 53.7%, 32.1%, 8.6% and 5.6%, respectively[33]. The country is located in Western Europe, and it lies between the North Atlantic Ocean to the west and the North Sea in the East and the English Channel in the south, which separates the United Kingdom and France (see Figure 5.1). The UK occupies the major parts of the British Isles[34] archipelago and includes the island of Great Britain, the north-eastern one-sixth of the island of Ireland and some smaller surrounding islands (Central Intelligence Agency, 2012).

Figure 5.1: The location of The United Kingdom within Europe.
Source: Author's Original, based on Google Maps.

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[33] This information from the 2011 Census: Population Estimates for the United Kingdom, 27 March 2011.
[34] According to the Oxford English Dictionary: "British Isles: a geographical term for the islands comprising Great Britain and Ireland with all their offshore islands including the isle of Man and the Channel Islands."

According to the 2011 census, the UK is the home of 63,182,178 people. Around 53 million live in England, 5 million in Scotland, 3 million in Wales and approximately 2 million in Northern Ireland[35] (see Figure 5.2). In the mid-2020, the estimated population of the UK was 67.1 million, 56.5 M in England, 3.2 M in Wales, 5.5 M in Scotland and 1.9 M in Northern Ireland (Office for National Statistics, 2021).
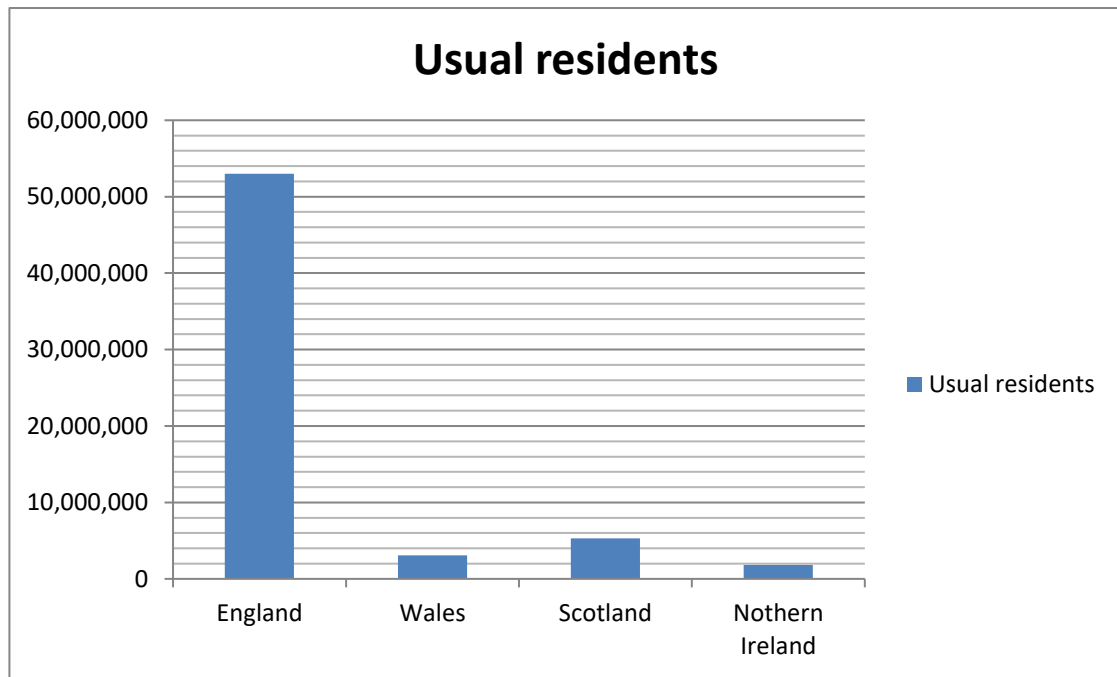
Figure 5.2: 2011 Population Estimates for the United Kingdom.
Source: 2011 Census available on http://www.ons.gov.uk

Government structure

The United Kingdom is a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarchy. The monarch (King/Queen) is the head of the state, and the prime minister is the head of the government. Figure 5.3 provides a more visual illustration of the structure and relation of the British Government (Britannia.com, 2011; UN, 2006). According to the law, the Monarch holds many positions in the state and has many responsibilities:

1- head of the executive branch of the government,

2- an integral part of the legislature,

3- head of the judiciary,

4- the commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the Crown

5- And the supreme governor of the established Church of England.

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[35] This information from the 2011 Census: Population Estimates for the United Kingdom, 27 March 2011.

While that sounds like a great deal of responsibility, the real power of the monarchy has been steadily reduced over the years to the point where the Monarch is uninvolved in the day-to-day operation of the government. The Monarch is impartial and acts only on the advice of their ministers (Britannia.com, 2011).

To discuss the political system in the United Kingdom, one must shed light on the mechanism of action of the political party system in the state. The UK political party system is an essential element in the working of the British constitution; it is a multi-party system that depends upon the existence of organized political parties[36] (Britannia.com, 2011; Darlington, 2012; The UK Parliament, 2012c). The political party which wins the majority seats in the parliament at the general election, although not necessarily the most votes, or which has the support of the majority members of the House of Commons, usually form the government (Britannia.com, 2011; Darlington, 2012; The UK Parliament, 2012c).
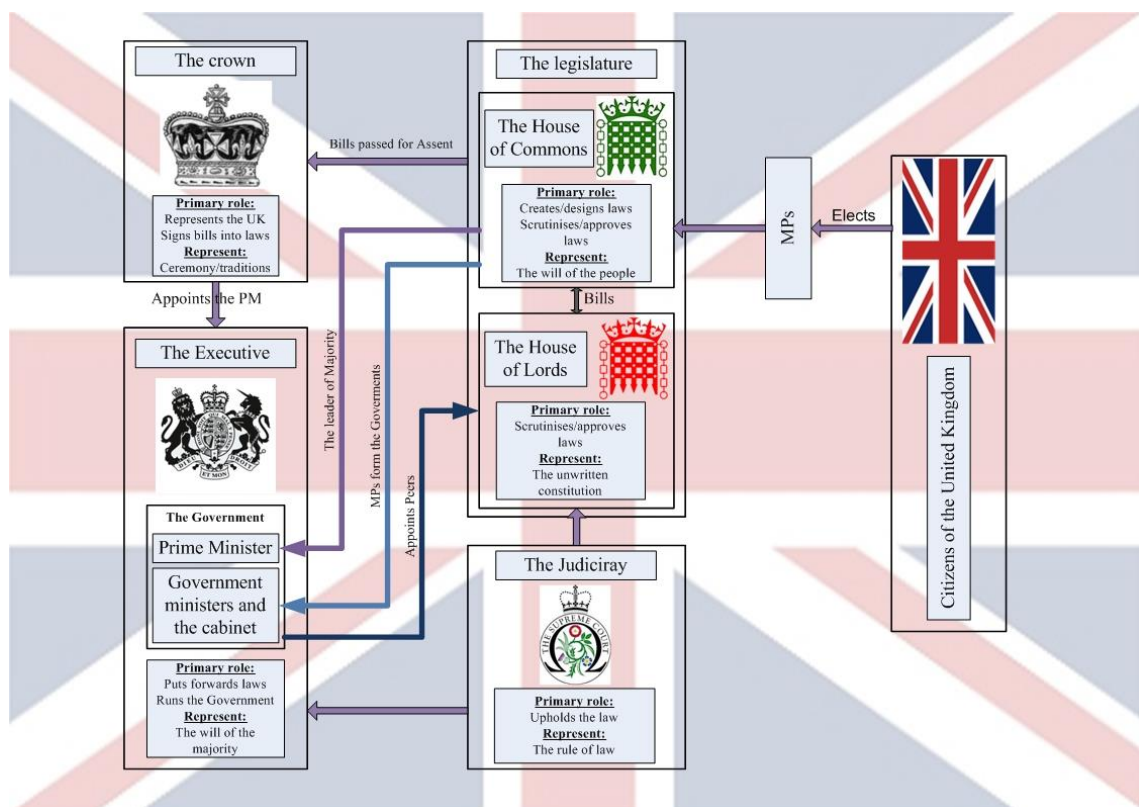
Figure 5.3: The structure of the political system in the UK.
Source: Author's Original, based on (Gov.uk, the UK parliament)

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[36] There are many political parties registered in the law, but the main political party which has held the power in the state since 1945 is either the Conservative Party or the Labour Party.

According to the classical political theory of democracy, there are three main parts that form the UK government (see Figure 5.3): 1) The executive, 2) The legislature, and 3) The judiciary.

The executive

The Monarch exercises the executive power in the United Kingdom via their majesty's government and the devolved national authorities in the other countries of the state; which are the Scottish Government, the Welsh assembly government, and the Northern Ireland Executive (Britannia.com, 2011; Darlington, 2012; Gov.uk, 2015).

The British government is formed of a number of ministers[37] (the current government has 122 ministers) who are in charge of the executive power in the country. Usually, the Prime Minister (PM) is the leader of the political party that has won the majority of seats in the House of Commons. Most government ministers are members of the House of Commons, although ministers fully represent the government in the House of Lords (Britannia.com, 2011; Gov.uk, 2015; Gov.uk, 2020).

The legislature

The UK parliament is the supreme legislative body in the United Kingdom, and the parliament has the right to guide the government and put it under accountability. The British parliament is bicameral, consisting of two houses (the House of Commons and the House of Lords). Moreover, the UK has a devolved system of government; this system has transferred varying levels of power from the UK Parliament to the UK's nations (The UK Parliament, 2012a; Darlington, 2012; Britannia.com, 2011). As a result of devolution, there are three new devolved administrations in the country, which are:

- *The Scottish Parliament* took responsibility for their devolved powers in July 1999. It has legislative powers over those matters not reserved to the UK Parliament, and it has limited tax-raising powers (The UK Parliament, 2012a), and most importantly, for this research, the Scottish parliament has devolved responsibilities for planning.
- *The Northern Ireland Assembly* came into operation in December 1999, but it was suspended on 14 October 2002 to be restored its devolved power in May 2007. After nearly a decade, this body was suspended again from 9 January 2017 until 11 January

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[37] There is no specific form of the government, the composition of governments can vary from administration to another, and the change might be in the number of ministers or in the titles of some offices, some new ministerial offices might be created others might be abolished, even some functions might be transferred form one minister to another. Typically, there are around 90 ministers in the government (current government has 122 ministers) (Gov.uk, 2020).

2020, when it restored its devolved power. Like the Scottish Parliament, this body has legislative powers over those matters not reserved for the UK parliament, but it has no tax-raising powers (The UK Parliament, 2021a).

- *The Welsh Assembly* came into operation in July 1999. The assembly has the power to legislate in some areas but is still subject to the British parliament. Therefore, the Welsh Assembly has less power than either the Scottish Parliament or the Northern Ireland Assembly because, unlike Scotland and Northern Ireland, Wales does not have a separate legal system from England. From 6 May 2020, the Welsh Assembly is officially known as the Welsh Parliament or Senedd Cymru. (The UK Parliament, 2021a).

The work of the parliament takes place in two houses, as mentioned before (the House of Commons and the House of the Lords). The main tasks of both houses are making laws (legislation), checking the work of the government (scrutiny) and discussing and debating the current issues (The UK Parliament, 2012b).

The House of Commons is the first and lower chamber in the parliament with the most authority. It consists of 650 members of parliament 'MPs' who represent 650 parliamentary constituencies across the United Kingdom (533 in England, 59 in Scotland, 40 in Wales and 18 in Northern Ireland) and have won the general elections (see Figure 5.4). The House of Commons is publicly elected, and the general elections take place every five years. It depends on the First Past The Post (FPTP)[38] or the Alternative Vote (AV)[39] systems (the next general election is due by December 2024) (The UK Parliament, 2012b; Darlington, 2012; The UK Parliament, 2021b).

The House of Lords is the second and upper chamber of the parliament with less authority. It is independent from, and complements the work of the House of Commons. Its essential tasks are to revise legislations and keep scrutinising the activities of the government. There is no fixed number of members in the House of Lords; currently, there are around 800 members. The monarch appoints all members of the House of Lords on the government's advice (The UK Parliament, 2022).

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[38] "In elections held under FPTP, each voter makes a mark next to one candidate on the ballot paper. First Past the Post is a "plurality" voting system: the candidate who wins the most votes in each constituency is elected" (Gov.uk, 2015).
[39] "In elections held under the Alternative Vote, each voter may rank candidates on the ballot paper in order of preference (1, 2, 3 etc.). For this reason, the Alternative Vote is known as a "preferential" voting system. After marking their first preference, voters may then choose to express further preferences for as many, or as few, candidates as they wish" (Gov.uk, 2015).
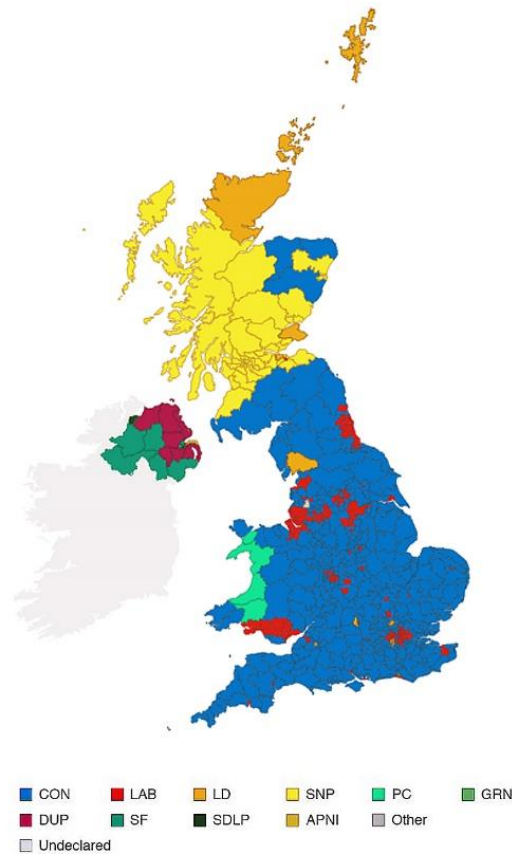
Figure 5.4: UK General Election 2019 results according to the constituencies map.
Source: **https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/election/2019/results**

The judiciary

The United Kingdom is a unitary state; unlike the most countries with a single system of law, the UK operates three separate legal systems: England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The three systems are not similar, and they differ in the form and manner of operation. The Judiciary was maintained for a long time by the Lord Chancellor's office, which has now been replaced by the Ministry for Justice, which administers the court system (Britannia.com, 2011; Darlington, 2012; The Supreme Court, 2012). The highest court in the state was the Appellate Committee of the House of Lords before the constitutional reform act 2005 replaced it by the Supreme Court in October 2009. The key objective of establishing the Supreme Court is to achieve a complete separation between the United Kingdom's senior Judges and the House of Lords and increase the transparency between Parliament and the courts (Britannia.com, 2011; The Supreme Court, 2012).
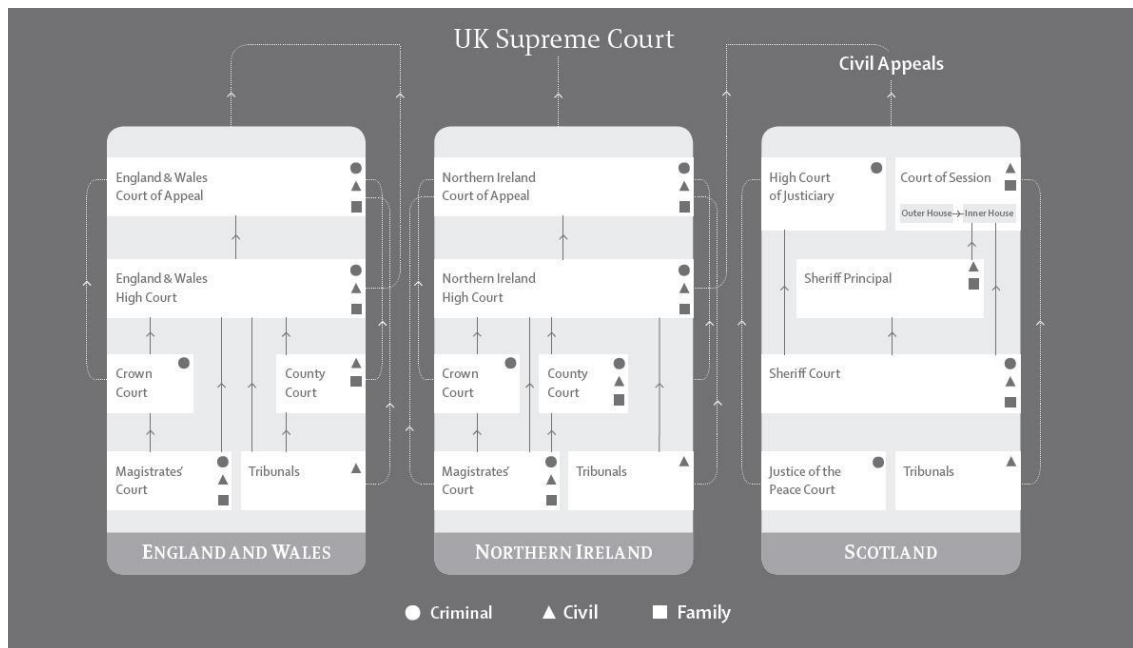
Figure 5.5: The Supreme Court and the United Kingdom's legal system.
 Source: The Supreme Court, (2015b).

The Supreme Court is now the ultimate court for appeal in the United Kingdom in all legal issues except the criminal cases in Scotland (see Figure 5.5). Moreover, it plays a vital role in developing United Kingdom law (The Supreme Court, 2012; The Supreme Court, 2015a).

Constitutional law
Britain is one of a few countries in the world without a written constitution. One of the reasons Britain has not adopted a written constitution is that in its history, there has not been any event that led to a new start of the state (Paine, 1791; Clements and Kay, 2007; Mitchell, 2008). In almost all countries that have adopted a written constitution, an event led to a new start of the state (independence, revolution, recovery from warfare, reconstruction as a new state, internal reorganisation) (Clements and Kay, 2007).

Most British constitutional writings would claim that Britain does have a constitution. Yet, some critics like Paine (1791) and in the modern age Ridley (1975) argue that Britain's arrangements are so deficient that there is no constitution at all. The traditional view is that Britain has a constitution but not a written one; the legal sources of the British constitution are (Common law, Acts of Parliament, European Union law, the Human Rights Act 1998, and Equity) (Clements and Kay, 2007; Mitchell, 2008). But unlike a written constitution, the British constitution can be changed and has no special protection. This flexibility and evolution is seen as both a strength and weakness. It is a strength

121

because it enables the British constitution to be in line with the changing circumstances. It might be seen as a weakness because the British constitution has no clear statement of the fundamental principles on which it is based and lacks the stability of other constitutions (Clements and Kay, 2007).

Constitutional arrangements in Britain upheld the long tradition of respect for individual liberty and democracy. In discussing these two main points, the individual liberty is protected through the principle of "the rule of law". As cited in Clements and Kay (2007,p. 6-7), Dicey summarised this principle into three main points as follows:

- "The rule of law and discretionary powers" implies that all government actions should be authorised by the law, and no one could be arrested or punished unless the law authorised that.
- "Equality before the law" meant that there is no immunity for anyone before the law; all people, 'whatever their position in the state is', are equal before the law, which is above them all.
- "The common law protects individual liberty"; in their decisions, courts protect civil liberties by developing the common law that respects individual liberty.

Despite the criticisms of "the rule of law" (see Heuston, 1964; Barendt, 1985), this principle still has its proponents (e.g. Allan, 1985), and it is considered the cornerstone of the British constitution (Clements and Kay, 2007).

On the other hand, Democracy is maintained by the principle of '*separation of powers*'; as it has been previously mentioned within the course of this chapter, there are three main powers which all together form the basic structure of the British government. The main idea of '*separation of powers*' is to avoid concentrating the governmental powers in the hands of one person or body; otherwise, a tyranny results (Clements and Kay, 2007).

In summary, the state in the **United Kingdom is characterised as a state with a parliamentary democracy.** The bicameral parliament plays a crucial role in formulating and discussing the Bills that will later form the laws and regulations that affect different sectors of life in the UK (political, economic and social). The government headed by the PM work to implement and enforce laws and regulations under the supervision and scrutiny of the judiciary, and the latter works to emphasise 'the rule of law'.

Administrative system

The United Kingdom is a regionalised unitary state; it is categorised as a decentralised unitary state with strong local and regional levels, see Table 5.1 (Tosics et al., 2010; Magone, 2013). The country consists of England (which is divided into 9 English regions), Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The English regions, which account for just over half of the total area of the UK (53%) and have 84% of the total population[40], are in the process of administrative regionalisation. In contrast, the rest of the UK has a measure of regional autonomy following the implementation of the devolution agenda in 1997. According to the degree of autonomy, the English regions come at the bottom of the ranking with the lowest degree of autonomy, while Northern Ireland and Wales, which account for just 15% of the total area of the UK and have 8% of the total population[41], have a higher degree of autonomy. But Scotland, which accounts for just under the third of the total area of the UK (32%) and has 8% of the total population[42], has the highest degree of autonomy.

The Welsh National Assembly does not have primary legislative power as Wales shares the same legal system with England. In contrast, the Assembly of Northern Ireland has a semi-autonomous character with a separate legal system. On the other hand, the Scottish parliament has primary and secondary legislative powers, and it has limited tax-raising powers, see Table 5.2 (Tosics et al., 2010).

The structure of the administrative system within the UK consists of three primary levels:

- National (State)
- Regional (countries)
- Local (counties and districts)

National level

The devolution agenda (in the period between 1997 and 1999), which passed a set of laws to establish the new sub-national bodies in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, sets out the division of the legislative and executive powers between the national and sub-national (regional) levels in the government (Paun and Hazell, 2008; Cullingworth et al., 2014). The United Kingdom is considered a regionalised unitary state at the national level, with specific characteristics of a more federal state (Tosics et al., 2010).

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[40] This information is derived from office for national statistics (2011 census).
[41] This information is derived from office for national statistics (2011 census).
[42] This information is derived from office for national statistics (2011 census).

Table 5.1: A typology of territorial governmental systems in the EU27+2 Countries.

Government structure	EU-15 and EFTA countries	New Member States
1. Classic unitary countries	Greece Ireland Luxembourg	
2. Centralized Unitary countries with strong, but non-integrated local authority level	Portugal	Bulgaria Czech Republic Hungary Romania Slovakia Cyprus Malta
3. Centralized unitary countries with strong, integrated local authority level	Denmark Finland The Netherlands Sweden Norway	Estonia Latvia Lithuania Slovenia
4. Decentralized unitary countries with strong local and strong regional level	France United Kingdom	Poland
5. Regionalized unitary countries	Italy Spain	
6. Federal states	Austria Belgium Germany Switzerland	

Source: Author's Original, based on (Tosics et al., 2010: p.18)

Regional level (sub-national and Regional government)

Since 1999, in each of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, new elected regional authorities have been established to take responsibility for their devolved powers. The only elected regional authority in England is the Greater London Authority, established in 2000, which has a directly elected mayor. However, the eight regions outside of London do have indirectly-elected regional chambers; these contain elected councillors representing the local authorities within these regions. These chambers have a consultative relationship with their Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), where the latter were established by the Government at the end of the 1990s in each English region.

Table 5.2 presents a classification of the sub-national authorities and their affiliated bodies and their authorised competences.

Table 5.2 The regional authorities in the UK and their main competences.

Country	Legislative body	Executive body	Key competences
Scotland	Scottish Parliament	Scottish Government	- Education - Health - Environment - Agriculture - Justice - Social work - Planning and local government
Wales	National Assembly of Wales	Welsh Government	Policy development and implementations in*: - Agriculture - Culture - Economic development - Education - Health - Transport - Social services - Housing - Planning and local government
Northern Ireland	Northern Ireland Assembly	Northern Ireland Executive	- Education - Health - Agriculture
England	In London Region "London Assembly"	Executive Mayor	- Public transport - Sustainable development planning - Fire and emergency planning - Metropolitan polices
	In the rest of England "The UK Parliament"	The UK Government	All competences

Source: Author's Original, based on (Tosics et al., 2010; GLA, 2012; The UK Parliament, 2012a)

Local Level (local government)

There is no specific administrative and geographical demarcation system in the United Kingdom, and each country (England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland) has its own system. But in general, it can be categorised in the following sequence (county-district-parish) (see Figure 5.6). Generally, councillors are elected for four years term using the "first past the post" system. England has the most complex system; there are five types of local authorities: county councils, district councils, unitary authorities, metropolitan districts, and London boroughs, with two types of tires (single-tier and two-tiers). There are 353 councils[43] in England. We can categorise them according to the type of tire into:

- Two tiers: 27 county councils (not including Isle of Wight unitary) and 201 district councils.
- Single tier: 33 London boroughs (including the City of London), 36 metropolitan districts, 55 unitary authorities (including all county unitary authorities) and the Isles of Scilly.

In Scotland, there are 32 Scottish unitary authorities and two national parks. In comparison, in Wales, there are 22 welsh unitary authorities, and in Northern Ireland, there are 26 district councils whose competences are more limited than elsewhere in the UK (Tosics et al., 2010; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006).

The mean competences of the local authorities can be categorised as follows:

Table 5.3 The main competences of the local authorities in the UK.

Type of the local authority	Key competences
county	Education, social services, highways and transport, strategic planning advice, fire, waste disposal, libraries.
district	Local planning, housing, licensing, building control, environmental health, waste collection, park and leisure services.
Unitary authority	Has the competencies of both county and district

Source: Author's Original, based on (Tosics et al., 2010; GLA, 2012; The UK Parliament, 2012a)

In addition to the local authorities mentioned above, there are over 12,000 very local small units (parishes, community councils, and town councils). Most of these units have small, elected bodies to look after local interests.

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[43] This information is derived from the Department for Communities and Local Government – 2012.

Figure 5.6: The United Kingdom, Local Authority Districts, Counties and Unitary Authorities.
Source: Office of National Statistics (census 2011)

In a step to give a clear articulation of the United Kingdom's administrative structure, the

Author created Figure 5.7, which illustrates the hierarchy of administrative levels.
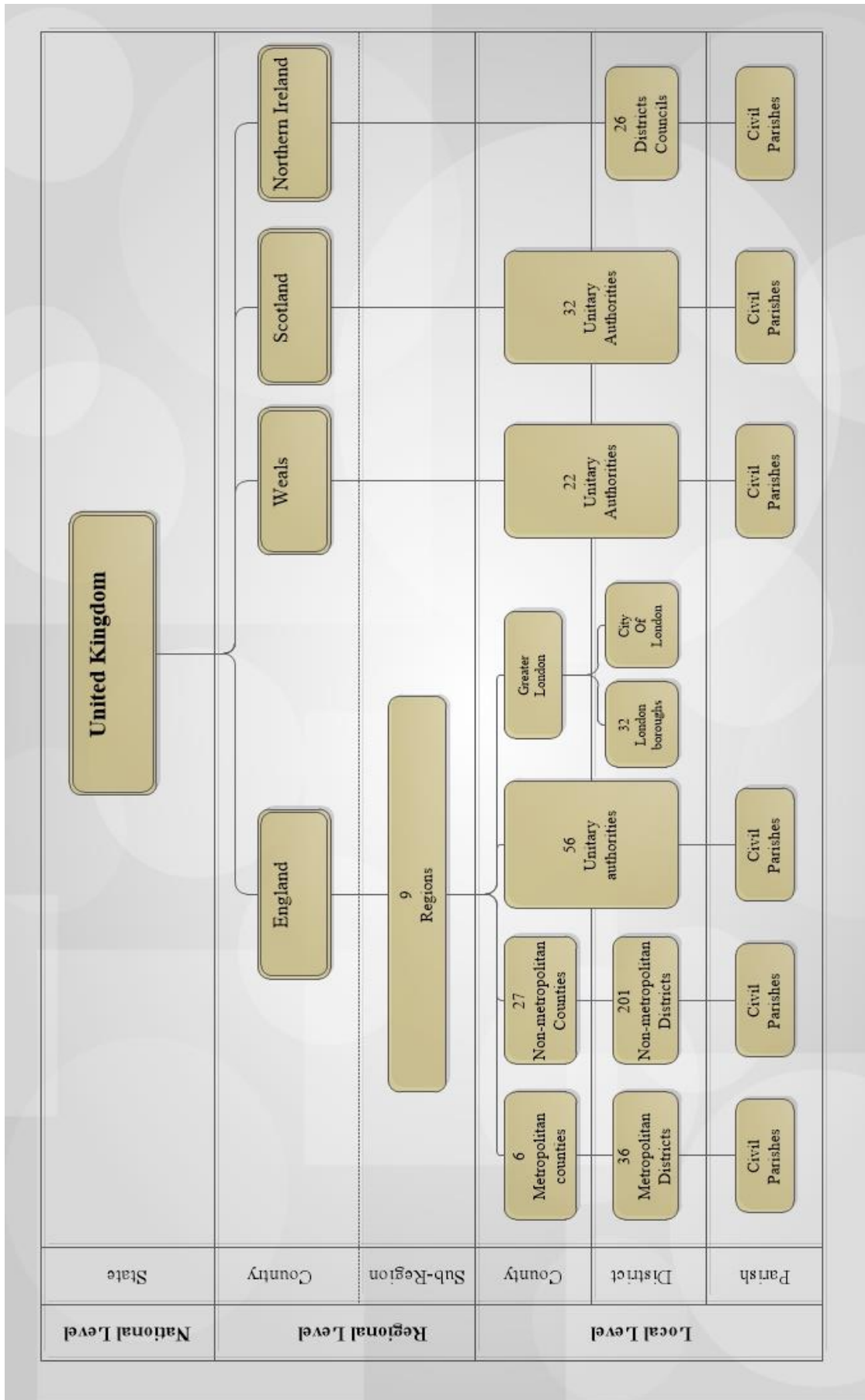
Figure 5.7 The administrative and geographical division in the United Kingdom.
Source: Author's Original.

5.2.2 The economy

In the last fifty years, the world economy has witnessed dramatic changes. Economic globalisation has become a hot topic in governmental and academic circles (Newman, 2001; Hirst et al., 2015). Tariffs and other obstacles to trade have been reduced while technology has made the movement of goods, people and even ideas easier, faster and cheaper (Hirst et al., 2015). The economic reform of many ex-socialist countries in Europe and Asia, the formation of the World Trade Organisation WTO and other international economic organisations (ILO, FAO, OECD), the expansion of the world financial market and increasing international cooperation, and a trend to economic liberalism, have further promoted an open trading world economy. In light of these changes in the world economy, the domestic economic system of developing countries and the early developed countries like Great Britain has been restructured (Ingham, 2000; Newman, 2001; Griffiths and Wall, 2011; Hirst et al., 2015).

In the last decades of the 20th century, the new trend in the world economy, which has created a new freer global marketplace, provided the British economy with both opportunities and challenges. The competitiveness of industries has become more vital and essential, and it is driving the economic restructuring in Britain to go further (European Commission, 2000; Ingham, 2000; Griffiths and Wall, 2011; Hirst et al., 2015). As a result of the massive decline of the traditional manufacturing and mining industries (see Table 5.4 below), many employees lost their jobs, and many firms closed. On the other hand, the rapid boom of technology and services industries provided new chances for future growth. Still, the majority of new jobs for new industries require highly-educated skilled workers to be recruited, which means shrinking the opportunity for low-educated, unskilled people to get the job that normally they could have for blue-collar jobs (European Commission, 2000; Newman, 2001).

The structure of the British economic system has changed over time. In recent decades, there has been a notable shift in the UK economy from manufacturing to service employment (Newman, 2001; Griffiths and Wall, 2011). Tables 5.4 and 5.5 clearly show this drastic shift in the British economy. Since the 1960s, the manufacturing industries have fallen 13%, while services have increased around 17%. This shift in the economic system structure inspired the new-liberal politicians to initiate economic reforms, which changed the old left-wing economic ideology. It was relying on a closed domestic economy and top-down national economics plans for a new structure of economy where many responsibilities have been restricted from the public sector to be transferred to the

Table 5.4 Percentage shares of GDP at factor cost*.

	1964	1969	1973	1979	1990	2009
Primary	5.8	4.3	4.2	6.7	3.9	3.7
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	1.9	1.8	2.9	2.2	1.8	0.7
Mining and quarrying, including oil and gas extraction	3.9	2.5	1.1	4.5	2.1	2.9
Secondary	40.8	42.0	40.9	36.7	31.5	19.4
Mineral oil processing	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	} 22.5	} 11.6
Manufacturing	29.5	30.7	30.0	27.3		
Construction	8.4	8.4	7.3	6.2	6.9	6.2
Electricity, gas and water supply	2.4	2.4	2.8	2.6	2.1	1.6
Tertiary	53.8	53.0	54.9	56.5	64.4	76.8
Distribution, hotels, catering, repairs	14.0	13.3	13.1	12.7	13.5	14.1
Transport and storage	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.8	} 7.6	} 7.0
Post and telecommunication	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.5		
Financial intermediation, real estate, renting and business activities	8.3	8.6	10.7	11.0	} 22.6	} 32.4
Ownership of dwellings	5.4	5.5	5.1	5.8		
Public administration, national defence, and social security	7.6	7.0	6.1	6.1	6.3	5.0
Education, health and social work	6.9	7.1	7.7	8.1	8.9	13.1
Other services	5.6	5.2	5.1	5.7	5.5	5.2

Note: Calculated from GDP at factor cost, at current prices and unadjusted for financial services and residual error.

*Totals may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

Source: (Griffiths and Wall, 2011: p.06)

private sector in a step called privatisation (European Commission, 2000; MoP, 2010; Hirst et al., 2015). This new trend in economic policy emerged in the early eighties of the last century after the collapse of state-managed capitalism[44] and the emergence of remarketized capitalism. According to Fulcher (2004) and Kaletsky (2011), the new trend of capitalism, 'remarketized', worked to apply new monetarism to control inflation by the revival of free or competitive markets and reduction of government intervention. Still, there was no 'rolling back' of the state. On the contrary, the state had a major impact on the formulation of laws and regulations that govern the operation of market mechanisms. The new form of capitalism offers a large variety of choices and more freedom for the individual but at the same time a less secure life, tremendous work pressures, and expands the inequality gap (Fulcher, 2004).

The new vision of conservative governments suggests a shift to responsible capitalism, where companies and firms have their own obligations but within genuinely popular capitalism, which gives everyone (in theory) the opportunity to share in the market's success (Jones, 2015). David Cameron 2012, as cited in Jones (2015, p.218), said, "the previous government [...] turned a blind eye to corporate excess [...] we believe in responsible capitalism".

Blair (1998) and Driver and Martell (2006) argued that the contribution only of private investments was not sufficient to achieve the sustainable development of the national economy in the market-oriented system. The new trend of potential economic growth has depended more than ever before on knowledge-based industries where human and intellectual capital become the key indicator of local competitiveness. This new trend in the economy requires public bodies and agencies to play a very important role in fostering and enhancing the local economy in all sectors (education, infrastructure, healthcare, training, etc.).

Therefore, the reinforcement of the public sector role should have the same importance as the encouragement of private investments. Hence, all available bodies (public, private and voluntary) need to work, cooperate and negotiate together in the form of partnerships, and share the responsibilities and benefits of promoting local competitiveness (European Commission, 2000; Driver and Martell, 2006; Blair, 2011).

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[44] "state-capitalism, has been widely used in mC20, with precedents from eC20, to describe forms of state ownership in which the original conditions of the definition - centralized ownership of the means of production, leading to a system of wage-labour - have not really changed" (Williams, 2014, p.19).

Table 5.5 Industrial market economies, distribution of GDP: percentages.

	1960	1980	1985	2008
Agriculture	6.0	3.1	2.6	1.8
Industry	41.0	36.5	34.2	28.1
(manufacturing)	(30.4)	(24.7)	(23.2)	(17.4)
Services	53.0	60.4	63.2	70.1

Source: (Griffiths and Wall, 2011: p.07)

Based on the foregoing, the **British Economy is based on capitalism** (re-marketized or responsible), whereas the United Kingdom has a **partially regulated market-oriented economy** (European Commission, 2000; BIS, 2011; Griffiths and Wall, 2011). Within this form of the economic system, the public sector provides the general economic framework in the form of plans and policies, while the private sector initiates the development process. Within this economic vision, government policy has been to reduce public expenditures to avoid the high level of taxation by transferring some services to the private sector (e.g. privatising water, electricity and gas services) (European Commission, 2000; Griffiths and Wall, 2011).

5.2.3 The society

Economic and political changes and transformations in the United Kingdom at the end of the last century and the early time of the current century were accompanied by significant changes in the structure of British society; these changes affected the structure of social and cultural life of British society (Kavanagh et al., 2006). Traditionally, Britain has been classified as a class-divided society. Although some would argue that class is no longer important in British culture and politics, a new Survey carried out by BBC (the BBC's Great British Class Survey) indicates that there are seven key classes shaping the current British society; this classification is the outcome of latent class analysis on social, cultural and economic variables that were asked in detailed questions of the survey; The new classification shows a social inequality in the society where the wealthy 'Elite' topping the classification and poor 'Precariat' comes at the bottom. (Savage et al., 2013; BBC News, 2016).

However, social inequality is not a new topic in British society; as discussed earlier, the market strategy, 're-marketized capitalism' in the neo-liberal era, contributed significantly to the steady rise of social inequality. Industrial restructuring and the shift

from manufacturing to services have led to a notable change in the labour market. There was no longer a need for unskilled workers who used to form a vast group of society at that time. As a result of the new market conditions, this class began to disappear gradually; Although some of them were lucky to find a job in the new market, the overall unemployment in Britain remained high, which in turn has led to increased poverty and social inequality (Fulcher, 2004; Kavanagh et al., 2006).

In addition to the changes brought by the economic and political transformations to the structure of British society, and during the second half of the 20th century with the early waves of Commonwealth immigration, more diversity has been introduced into this structure in terms of ethnicity, religion and language[45] (Kavanagh et al., 2006), see Appendix 5-1. Since then, there have been significant developments concerning new terms that emerged in the contemporary diverse British society, like the nature of a multi-cultural society, the impact of discrimination, and race in politics (Rothon and Heath, 2003; Fulcher, 2004; Kavanagh et al., 2006).

Alongside political, economic and social restructuring, there has also been a substantial cultural change. In the late 1970s, the new elected conservative government, led initially by Margaret Thatcher, introduced the Neoliberalism state[46]. There was a noticeable growth of individualism (summed up by Thatcher's claim that 'there was no such thing as society, only individuals'), which became a significant sector of social values, although it is difficult to quantify (Harvey, 2005; Qian, 2009; Ferragina and Arrigoni, 2017). Thatcherite individualism has created a fertile environment for the emergence and growth of the concept of a "me-first society". This new trend in British society has raised concern among politicians from both left and right parties as they saw it as a serious threat that could contribute to the traditional moral decay (Harvey, 2005; Ferragina and Arrigoni, 2017).

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[45] according to the data presented in 2011 census, the dominant ethnicity in the British society is White with 87.1%, while the second ethnicity in the ranking is Black with 3% and then Asian (Indian) with 2.3%. In terms of religion Christianity comes first with 58.8% while Islam comes with 4.5% to be the second most common religion in the UK while the second highest proportion goes to those who are not affiliated to any religion with 26.1%. in terms of language, the first main language in the UK is English with 92.3 per cent, while the remaining 7.7 % of population reported their main language other than English where Polish was the most common language after English with 1%. More information in Appendix 5-1.

[46] According to theory, the neoliberal state should favour strong individual private property rights, the rule of law, and the institutions of freely functioning markets and free trade (Harvey, 2005: p.64).

The successive governments after Thatcher's government, from both Labour and Conservatives parties alike, have pursued similar ideologies where "the faith in individualism has been replaced by the conviction that social engagement in local communities is the only remedy to mend a broken society" (Ferragina and Arrigoni, 2017: p.6). New Labour's government, led by Tony Blair, introduced their new interest in civil society through 'The third way'[47]. This interest can be explained by dealing with the 'Social Paradox' by easing the conflict between traditional and modern values. "The resolution of this conflict lies in applying traditional values to the modern world; to leave outdated attitudes behind; but rediscover the essence of traditional values and then let them guide us in managing change." (Blair, 2000, p.3).

On the other hand, the Conservative party manifesto of 2010 outlines the importance of reducing the state influence and dealing with public debt (Conservative Party, 2010; Cameron, 2010; Ferragina and Arrigoni, 2017). In order to achieve these objectives, the conservatives sought to enforce the change through social rather than economic initiatives. In this context, the concept of 'Big society'[48] came as a descended idea from 'The Third Way' politics and closer to New Labour's ideology. This idea came by embracing the belief that "there is such a thing as society" (Conservative Party, 2010, p. VII). 'The Big society' emphasises the importance of community empowerment and encourages British citizens to be more effective and actively engaged within their communities (Conservative Party, 2010; Cameron, 2010).

During the 1980s, British society witnessed considerable transformations in different fields (economic, political, social, and cultural). It was the decade in which 'greed is good' and 'me first' generations were spawned when privatisation was adopted as an economic, cultural, and social Acts. That contributed to the creation of a new individual lifestyle. According to Dunn and Layard (2009), Individualism dominates British society, and it is causing a range of problems for children. Despite all the initiatives of both parties

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[47] "The Third Way stands for a modernized social democracy, passionate in its commitment to social justice and the goals of the centre-left, but flexible, innovative and forward-looking in the means to achieve them. It is founded on the values that have guided progressive politics for more than a century — democracy, liberty, justice, mutual obligation and internationalism. But it is a third way because it moves decisively beyond an Old Left preoccupied by state control, high taxation and producer interests; and a New Right treating public investment, and often the very notions of "society" and collective endeavour, as evils to be undone" (Blair 1998, p. 1 as cited in Norris, 2001, p.1)

[48] "The Big Society refers to the transfer of power and responsibility for providing some key services from the state to community groups and charities, particularly ones that operate at a neighbourhood level. Society therefore gets bigger, in the sense that citizens get more involved in their communities, by, for instance, volunteers taking over the running of post offices and libraries, parents setting up 'free schools' and charities taking over public services" (Heywood, 2011, p.22)

(New Labour and Conservative) to tackle individualism by introducing new patterns of social change (The Third Way and Big Society, respectively), **individualism[49]still dominates British society** (Dunn and Layard, 2009; Ferragina and Arrigoni, 2017).

5.3 Planning Structure

An overview of the history of the modern planning system in the UK

The town and country planning system 'or as it is named urban planning system nowadays' in Britain has often been regarded as a good example around the world, yet this activity has been subjected to much criticism during 20th and early 21st century (Goldsmith, 1980; Hall, 1992; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006; Moore, 2010). In order to understand the current planning system in the United Kingdom, it would be beneficial to present a brief historical review highlighting the development of this discipline from its early inception until the current date.

The issue of town and country planning in the UK arose mainly from the weighty revolution through which the country has passed in the last two centuries; the 'industrial revolution' changed Britain from a predominantly agricultural nation to an industrial one (Hall, 1992; Engels, 1993). This change in the structure of the state brought a notable shift in population distribution; the result of moving people from the countryside to the industrial cities seeking a job in the new factories was to concentrate the population in certain parts of the country (industrial towns) (Hall, 1992). The conditions in the new industrial towns were horrific. These cities and towns had only the most elementary arrangements or none; for providing pure water, clearing refuse or sewage or disposal of waste, or even the ability to treat the mass epidemics; since many of these towns had sprung up so rapidly from villages that had virtually no arrangements at all (Hall, 1992; Engels, 1993).

Many serious problems have arisen in industrial cities because of the sudden increase in population densities, especially during the first half of the nineteenth century. These problems were mainly two types *urban problems* that caused *sanitary problems* (Hall, 1992). The uncontrolled spread of new dwellings around the industrial towns and the

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[49] The individualism that "C. B. Macpherson" (1962) spoke about in his political theory "Possessive individualism", Macpherson explained this concept as "the possessive quality of individualism is found in its conception of the individual as essentially the proprietor of his own person or capacities, owing nothing to society for them […] The human essence is freedom from dependence on the wills of others, and freedom is a function of possession. Society becomes a lot of free equal individuals related to each other as proprietors of their own capacities and of what they have acquired by their exercise. Society consists of exchange between proprietors" (Little, 2011, Par.3).

sprang of factories and houses side-by-side without zoning ended up in miserable housing conditions, leading to bad sanitary conditions (Hall, 1992; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). In this issue, Frederick Engels (1845) wrote "(.... the house, "says an English journal in an article upon the sanitary condition of the working people in cities," are often so close together, that persons may step from the window of one house to that of the house opposite – so high, piled story after story, that the light can scarcely penetrate to the court beneath. In this part of the town, there are neither sewers nor any private conveniences whatever belonging to the dwellings; and hence the excrementitious and other refuse of at least 50,000 persons is, during the night, thrown into the gutters, causing (in spite of the scavengers' daily labours) an amount of solid filth and foetid exhalation disgusting to both sight and smell, as well as exceedingly prejudicial to health" (cited in Engels, 1993, p.51)

The poor sanitary conditions in new crowded industrial towns needed an urgent intervention by the government to enhance the quality of public health in these towns. As a response from the government side, there were many Acts and reports (the Municipal Corporation Act of 1835, the Public Health Act of 1848, the Nuisance Removal Acts from 1855, the Sanitary Act of 1866, and two major official reports – the Select Committee on the Health of Towns (1840) and the Royal Commission on the state of Large Towns (1844-5)), which established the basics of public health and housing policies (Hall, 1992; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006).

The 19th-century public health legislations were directed at creating good sanitary conditions. Many procedures were taken to achieve this aim. Among the measures taken were to give the local authorities power to make and enforce building bylaws for controlling street width and the buildings' height, structure, and layout. On this point, public health and architecture met (Hall, 1992; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006).

The first time the term 'town planning' was used as a name for the new legislation was in 1909 (the Housing, Town Planning, Etc Act 1909). Although the Act was more about public health, insanitary conditions and public nuisance, it made the infamously unhealthy 'back-to-back' housing illegal, compelling local authorities to tackle substandard housing. Therefore, the Act opened the door for a new era urging the creation of a town and city environment that could be enjoyed (The UK Parliament, 2016). John Burns, the president of the local government board, tried to summarise all the diverse interests that affect the sanitary policies in the town planning when he introduced the first

legislation bearing the term 'Town Planning' (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). The new legislation authorised the preparation of planning schemes for any land by local authorities to control the development of new housing areas.

The Acts covered the period 1909-1943 had all been dependent on the concept of the planning scheme. Such schemes were undoubtedly helpful in controlling and leading the development, ensuring that new development conformed to certain standards of amenity and convenience, and controlling the changes in the use of existing buildings (Moore, 2010; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). But new problems arose and became serious problems that planning schemes were unsuitable for dealing with. The population continued to grow up substantially, although less dramatically than in the 19th century. The advent of road transport and the cheap supply of electric power played an essential role in changing the face of the country. These influences led to new growth in the size of the towns and cities inside and outside their boundaries. This growth in the size of the towns and cities drew the attention of governments to look into the key reasons behind it. Many government reports have been done to address that phenomenon (the Barlow Report (Cmd 6153), the Scott Report (Cmd 6378), and the Uthwatt Report (Cmd 6386)) (Moore, 2010; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006).

The Barlow Report (1940), after a depth examination of the phenomenon of the growth in the size of the cities, came to the explicit conclusion:

> *The disadvantages in many, if not in most of the great industrial concentrations, alike on the strategical, the social, and the economic side, do constitute serious handicaps and even in some respects dangers to the nation's life and development, and we are of opinion that definite action should be taken by the Government towards remedying them.* (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006, p. 20)

Both the Barlow Report and the Scott Report urged that more effective action should be taken to control the siting of development, and both pointed to the weaknesses of the Act of 1932. The results of the entire government work were the passing in 1943 of two acts concerned with planning the first one is 'Minister of Town and Country Planning Act 1943, s 1' and the other one is 'Town and Country Planning (Interim Development) Act 1943'. Cullingworth and Nadin (2006) and Moore (2010) argued that the legislation more suited to 'the control of land use' didn't come until the ratification of the Town and Country Planning Act 1947, which was considered a turning point in the track of the planning system in the UK.

The Town and Country Planning Act 1947 brought a new procedure to the planning system by putting almost all development under control by making it subject to planning permission (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). For a few decades later, the town and country planning law continued the reverence for the basic elements of the system as introduced in 1947. However, the law has become more complex and considerably more disparate in its application. Taking into account all political, social and economic changes that happened in that period that affected the planning system and led to the amendment of the law commensurate with these changes (Moore, 2010; Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). A reasonable effort has been made to gather all the laws and legislation relating to the town and country planning system, and the first consolidation was in 1962, and then again in 1971. However, this consolidation legislation continued to be subject to frequent amendments, and the planning system underwent a number of alterations, which were consolidated in the Town and Country Planning Act 1990 and after that in the planning and compensation Act 1991 (Moore, 2010). The next big turning point in the planning system in the UK was the advent of the planning and compulsory purchase Act 2004 and its counterpart in Scotland (Scottish Planning Act 2006). A deep study of the planning system laws and regulations will be covered in a later section of this chapter see 5.3.2.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter (see administrative system 5.2.1), since the devolution in 1997-1999, the devolution agenda gives each country a set of devolved powers to manage and control several competences. In Scotland, the Scottish government is responsible for a number of competences (see Table 5.2), including planning. Hence, although Scotland shares the same planning history as the UK until 1997, this study concentrates on the planning system in Scotland in terms of policies and regulations after devolution.

5.3.1 Policies

In the United Kingdom, there are no policies or plans prepared for spatial planning for the whole country. However, some other national UK policy documents (UK Strategy for Sustainable Development, UK Biodiversity Action Plan) have important guidance for planning. After the devolution in 1997, each nation (England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) has separated sub-strategies and programs, even where there is a UK strategy (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). The use of the words 'national' and 'regional' has become very difficult to define what each word refers to in the UK. But it is preferred to use 'regional' when describing one of the four nations in the UK. Also, there is a hierarchy of policies for each nation, starting with the national level through the regional

level to reach the bottom of the scale with the local level; below is a detailed explanation of Scotland's spatial planning policies.

The planning system in Scotland is based on the development plan system, which was adopted after the enforcement of the Planning Act (the planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006), which is the amendment of the previous Act (the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act 1997) (Cullingworth et al., 2014). On 25 July 2019, the new planning Act, "Planning (Scotland) Act 2019" the 2019 Act, received Royal assent to become the new Planning Act for Scotland. Yet, in November 2020, the Scottish government published the Transitional Guidance Document, which indicates the expected date when the new Act will be put into force. "The new development planning system is expected to commence around June 2022, to co-ordinate with the publication of National Planning Framework 4 (NPF4)[50]" (The Scottish Government, 2020, p.5). The Scottish Government explained that the "current intention is to make transitional provisions so that where a planning authority has published its proposed local development plan [...] before June 2022, they will be able to proceed to adoption under the existing provisions and procedures in the 1997 Act (introduced by the 2006 Act)" (The Scottish Government, 2020). Accordingly, and despite the fact that the new Act "The Planning (Scotland) Act 2019" was ratified, planning authorities are still using the planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 and NPF3 is the current National Planning Framework until NPF4 is published (The Scottish Government, 2020).

In this regard, the author conducted this research before the new 2019 Act was approved, and the whole study was based on the planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 and NPF3 as they were the main law and policy studied in this research. In a later section of this chapter (see 5.3.2), the researcher will shed light on the changes brought by the new Act, "The Planning (Scotland) Act 2019", and, most notably for this research, the proposed changes and improvements in "the 2019 Act" to enhance public participation within the Scottish planning system. The planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 is considered a fundamental and comprehensive reform of the planning system in Scotland in Sixty years. It improves community involvement, supports the economy and helps it grow in a sustainable way (The Scottish Government, 2014b; Cullingworth et al., 2014). A detailed study of the

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[50] "Work is well underway on (NPF4) which will incorporate Scottish Planning Policy (SPP). [...] NPF4 is expected to be laid before the Scottish Parliament in draft (for scrutiny and consultation) in September 2021. Subject to Parliamentary timetabling, we anticipate this resulting in the Scottish Ministers adopting NPF4 in spring / summer of 2022" (The Scottish Government, 2020, p.1).

planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 will be addressed in a later section of this chapter see 5.3.2. The policies, instruments, and institutions at various levels (national, regional and local) governing the planning system in Scotland are reviewed below.

National

In Scotland, at the national level, two central policies manage and control the planning activities all over the country, these policies are the **Scottish Planning Policy** (SPP) and **National Planning Framework** (NPF) (The Scottish Government, 2014a; Cullingworth et al., 2014; The Scottish Government, 2017b). "The purpose of the SPP is to set out national planning policies which reflect Scottish Ministers' priorities for operation of the planning system and the development and use of land" (The Scottish Government, 2014c: p. 02). On the other hand, The National Planning Framework (NPF) is a long-term spatial Economic Strategy for Scotland that sets the context for development planning and identifies national developments and other strategically important development opportunities in Scotland. It provides a framework for the spatial development of Scotland as a whole (The Scottish Government, 2014a; The Scottish Government, 2017b). In addition to these two key policies, the Scottish Government provides advice and information on technical planning matters by publishing a **Planning Advice Note (PAN)**. e.g. PAN 3/2010 Community Engagement and PAN 81 Community Engagement "Planning with People" and **Circulars** which contain Scottish Government policy on the implementation of legislation or procedures (The Scottish Government, 2017b; The Scottish Government, 2010).

Scottish Planning Policy (SPP) and National Planning Framework (NPF)

The current Scottish planning policy (SPP 2014, revised in 2020) replaces SPP 2010 and Designing Places (2001). Although the SPP is a non-statutory policy, it fosters consistency in applying policy all over the country whilst allowing reasonable flexibility in addressing local circumstances (The Scottish Government, 2014c). The SPP is directly related to:

- the preparation of development plans;
- the design of the development, from initial concept through to delivery; and
- the determination of planning applications and appeals.

The Scottish planning policy (SPP 2014) and the third National Planning Framework (NPF3) share a single vision for the planning System in Scotland:

"We live in a Scotland with a growing, low-carbon economy with progressively narrowing disparities in wellbeing and opportunity. It is growth that can be achieved whilst reducing emissions and which respects the quality of environment, place and life which makes our country so special. It is growth which increases solidarity – reducing inequalities between our regions. We live in sustainable, well-designed places and homes which meet our needs. We enjoy excellent transport and digital connections, internally and with the rest of the world" (The Scottish Government, 2014c, p. 6).

The SPP and NPF3 illustrate that the Planning system supports this single vision by setting up four key planning outcomes as follows:

- A successful, sustainable place,
- A low carbon place,
- A natural, resilient place, and
- A connected place.

More information in (The Scottish Government, 2014c; The Scottish Government, 2014a)

Regional and Local
Scotland's need for structure plans was due to the different administrative structure and the large geographical and planning areas. The key functions of the structure plan were to specify policies and proposals relating to the scale and location of major developments (Cullingworth et al., 2014). The two-tier system of the structure and local plans was in force until 2001 when the Scottish Office initiated a review of strategic planning in Scotland and suggested there was no real need for a second higher tier of development plans for much of Scotland (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006). Instead, structure plans were required for the four major cities in Scotland (Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee and Aberdeen) (Cullingworth et al., 2014). It is important to note that the new planning Act 2019 abolished strategic development plans (SDPs) and introduced a new requirement for all authorities to work together to prepare regional spatial strategies (RSS).

In 2006, the framework of the planning system in Scotland underwent a radical transformation through the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 and its accompanying regulations, which came into force in 2009 (A detailed study of the law and its regulations is presented in 5.3.2.). The Act ends the work of structure and local plans to introduce a new system for the main four city-regions and the rest of Scotland. In addition to its

emphasis on national objectives within the national planning framework (as mentioned earlier in this chapter). It requires the main four city-regions (Figure 5.8) to prepare their Strategic development plans, which deal with issues of land use planning that exceed the boundaries of local Authorities or involve strategic infrastructure (Cullingworth et al., 2014).

At the local level, the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 requires each of the thirty-two Unitary Local Authorities and the two national parks to prepare their

Figure 5.8: Strategic development plan areas
Source: (Planning skills, 2017, p. 7)

local development plans accompanying supplementary planning documents and guidance. Figure 5.9 shows the planning policy framework in Scotland.

Figure 5.9: Planning policy framework in Scotland According to the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006. Source: (Cullingworth et al., 2014, p.124).

Policy institutions and organisations:

Many governmental institutions, departments, and agencies are involved in town and country planning. In Scotland, the ministry for local government and housing, with the support of the cabinet secretary for communities, social security and equalities, is responsible for the planning acts (The Scottish Government, 2017a). Since the planning system defines the future vision of the country in different political, economic, environmental, social and other aspects; Of course, there are many planning functions that fall under the responsibilities of various departments like (Agriculture, trade and industry, nature conservation etc.), some of these functions have been transferred from governmental departments to agencies and 'arm's length' bodies (Cullingworth et al., 2014). Table 5.6 shows the vital institutional organisations, bodies and agencies in Scotland.

Table 5.6: The organisations of the Scottish government for planning.

Type of organisation	Planning Organisations/bodies
Governmental departments	- Scottish Government - Ministry for Local Government and Housing, and - Ministry for Communities, Social Security and Equalities
Executive agencies	Historic Environment Scotland
Non-departmental public bodies	- Scottish Enterprise - Scottish Environment Protection Agency - Scottish National Heritage - Highland and Islands Enterprise - Royal Commission on the Ancient and Historical Monuments of Scotland

Source: Author's Original, based on (Cullingworth et al., 2014; The Scottish Government, 2017a).

Moreover, as illustrated below, the researcher has classified planning organisations/departments and their tools, instruments, and documents according to their related levels.

Table 5.7 Overview of policy, instruments and organisations of planning in Scotland.

Level	Bodies/Organisations	Documents/ Plans
National	• Scottish Government (Scottish Executive)	• National Planning Framework (NPF) • Scottish Planning Policy (SPP) • Planning Advice Notes
Regional	• Strategic Development Planning Authorities (SDPAs)	• Strategic Development Plan (SDP)
Local	• Local Planning Authorities (LPAs)	• Local Development Plan (LDP) and its documents

Source: Author's Original, based on (The Scottish Government, 2014a; Cullingworth et al., 2014)

5.3.2 Acts and regulations

In Scotland, when this PhD study was conducted, the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 was the main Act that controls, manages and regulates the development process in the country. In tandem with other Acts and regulations such as Environmental Assessment (Scotland) Act 2005, Flood Risk Management (Scotland) Act 2009, Climate Change (Scotland) Act 2009, Community Empowerment (Scotland) Act 2015, and other more (The Scottish Government, 2017b). In 2015, the Scottish Ministers appointed an independent panel to review the Scottish planning system. The report of the panel "Empowering Planning to Deliver Great Places" urged for a behavioural change of all stakeholders with a role and interest in the system as they outlined that legislation alone cannot enable planning to meet its potential to deliver great places (Beveridge et al., 2016; Planning skills, 2017). However, the report emphasises that the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 was still in force, as the authors of the report "believe that the vision that underpinned the 2006 act remains valid – planning should be an enabler of sustainable development, rather than a regulator" (Beveridge et al., 2016, p.3). Hence, a brief study of the Act 2006 provides a good understanding of the mechanism of the planning process.

Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006
The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 is considered the essence of the comprehensive and fundamental reform of the planning system in sixty years in Scotland. The Act sought to provide a more inclusive and efficient planning system in terms of improving

community engagement and involvement in the decision-making process, supporting sustainable economic growth and managing the comprehensive development process in the country (Beveridge et al., 2016; The Scottish Government, 2017b). The Act consisted of 10 parts. The first part sets out the arrangements for preparing and publishing the **national planning framework** (NPF). The second part sets out several provisions under which the planning authorities prepare, examine and publish **strategic development plans** (SDPs) and **local developments plans** (LDPs) (Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 asp 17, 2006). For more illustration, the researcher created Figure 5.10, which summarises all procedures taken to prepare and publish NPF, SDPs and LDPs listed in the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006.

The third part of the 2006 Act starts with defining the **meaning of development**. Section 5 describes the three categories in the hierarchy of development: national development, major development, and local development. The fourth part is about **enforcement** introducing a set of provisions to ensure that development is carried out correctly. In the case of unauthorised development, temporary stop notices can be applied.

The other parts of the 2006 Act introduce a set of provisions for the **protection of trees** through Tree Preservation Orders, introducing new powers for the Scottish Ministers to **assess the performance** of planning authorities and allowing local businesses to invest collectively in improvements to the area in which they operate. And other provisions that concern **financial matters** and the **correction of errors** in official decision letters.

Planning (Scotland) Act 2019
The Scottish Government (2019) deems that "The Planning (Scotland) Act 2019" is an essential part of broader planning reforms. It comes as a response to the suggestions of the independent review of the planning system, which was reported in May 2016, 'Empowering planning to deliver great places'. According to the Scottish Government (2019, p.1), The main motives for the review were:

- "deliver more good quality homes
- improve the experience and influence of communities
- effective development planning leading to positive change
- more proactive management of development
- strong leadership coupled with management of skills, resources and performance".
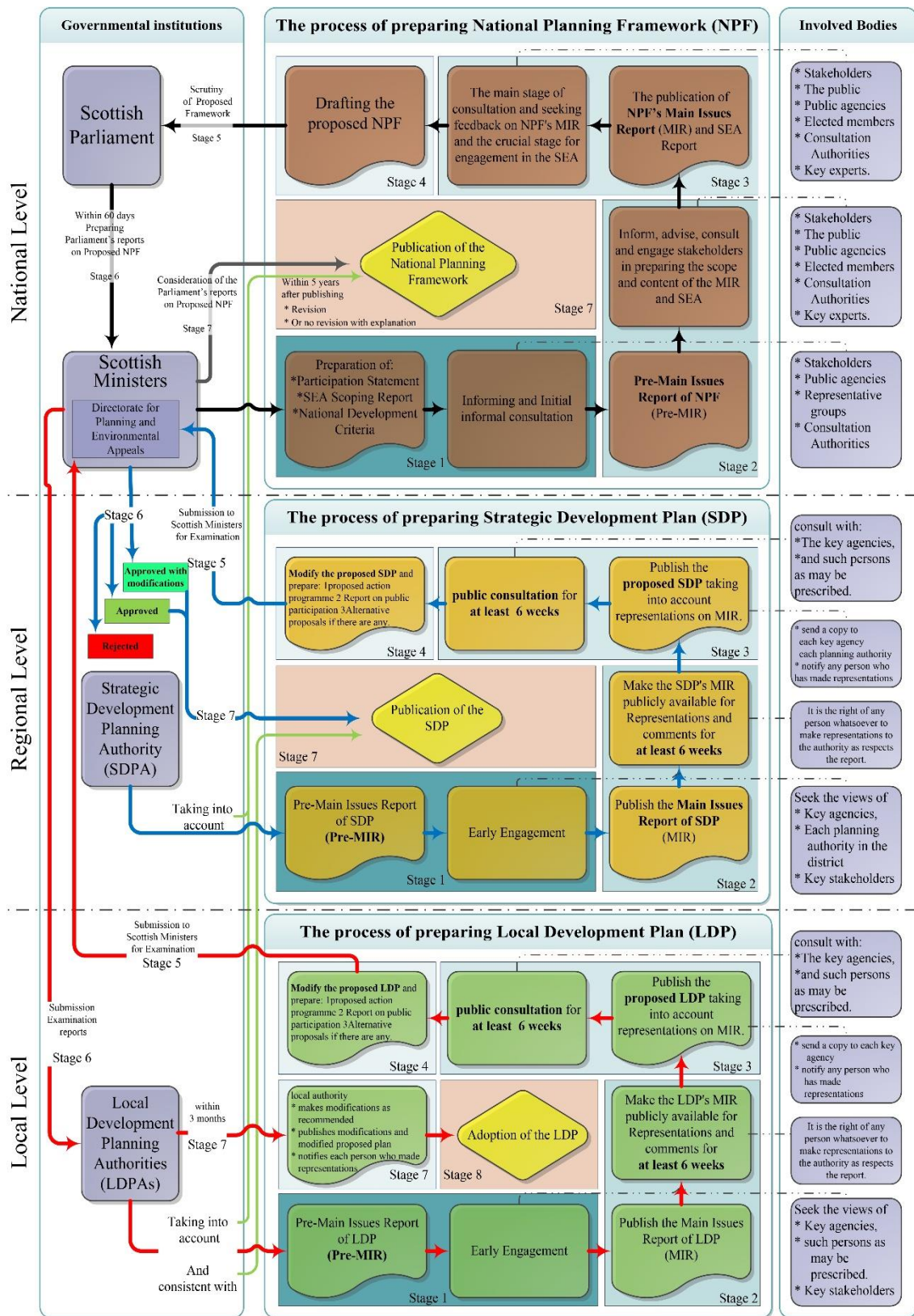
Figure 5.10: Decision-making process in the Scottish planning system, planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006. Source: Author's Original, based on (Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 asp 17, 2006)

The Planning (Scotland) Act 2019 Amended the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act 1997. The new Act 2019 brought many changes and reforms to the previous Planning Act (The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006). The researcher tried to summarise the fundamental changes as follows:

National Planning Framework (NPF): The new NPF will incorporate Scottish Planning Policy (SPP) and will have enhanced status as part of the statutory development plan. The new NPF will seek to align with national economic development, infrastructure and transport strategies and planning. Early work has already begun on preparing the fourth National Planning Framework (NPF4), the long-term spatial strategy for Scotland to 2050. Moreover, The Act requires reviewing the framework at least once every ten years, beginning with the most recent date (The Scottish Government, 2019; Maciver, 2019).

Regional Spatial Strategies (RSS): The Act abolished Strategic development plans (SDPs) in the four largest city regions and introduced a new requirement for all authorities, working together as they see fit, to prepare regional spatial strategies (RSS), a new, long-term spatial strategy document that is designed to address the need, outcomes and priorities for strategic development and identify the proposed locations for development. Both NPF and LDPs will be required to have regard to RSS when authorities formally adopt them (The Scottish Government, 2019; Maciver, 2019).

Local Development Plans (LDPs): The Act makes significant changes and reforms to the process of preparing local development plans (LDPs), including a move from a five to a ten year plan cycle, where the law permits interim reviews of the plan to ensure it remains up to date. the changes aim to make the LDPs more effective, with greater community involvement and more focus on delivery (The Scottish Government, 2019; Maciver, 2019). "However, any gain from the extended plan period will be offset against new and revised duties including 'a gatecheck process', a draft plan stage replacing the existing Main Issues Report stage; support and incorporation of Local Place Plans, open space audit requirements, register of self-build housing land; aligning housing land supply and housing targets, and increased plan participation by specified groups and interests. A Local Development Plan (LDP) must now take into account matters including the housing needs of the area's population; the availability of housing land; the health and educational needs of the local population; and the desirability of maintaining cultural venues" (Maciver, 2019, Para 5.7).

Local Place Plan (LPP): The new 2019 Act requires planning authorities before preparing their local development plans to invite local communities in their districts to prepare local place plans. The LPPs set out their priorities for developing or using land in their local area. The LPP will not form part of the development plan but must be "taken into account" by the planning authority in the preparation of the LDP.

In addition to the reforms and changes mentioned above, the Planning (Scotland) Act 2019 dealt with many other topics, such as Housing for older and disabled people, Open space strategy, masterplan consent Areas, development management, permitted development rights, digital planning, etc. And most importantly, for this research, the new Act promotes participation in the planning process by a range of groups, including children and young people, disabled groups and other specified groups, including young people, elderly, gipsy travellers, etc. More details about promoting public participation within 'the 2019 Act' will be addressed in a later subsection (see 5.4.2)

Other regulations and circulars
The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 introduced a new statutory basis for development planning in Scotland. It articulates in detailed provisions the procedures to be followed in preparing development plans. It also gives the Scottish Government powers to prepare regulations concerning a range of detailed aspects of the development planning system. The main three principal secondary legislations on development planning are[51]:

- The Town and Country Planning (Development Planning) (Scotland) Regulations 2008 (gives more detailed procedures which to be followed during preparing developments plans).
- The Town and Country Planning (Grounds for declining to follow recommendations) (Scotland) Regulations 2009
- The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 (Development Planning) (Saving, Transitional and Consequential Provisions) Order 2008

The Scottish Government (2013) published the planning Circular 6, which explains how the multiple legislative requirements in the above-mentioned planning laws and regulations fit together.

The Scottish Government is taking forward a programme of secondary legislation to enable the implementation of the new Act, "the Planning (Scotland) Act 2019" a full list

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[51] All secondary legislations are accessible through the following URL: http://www.legislation.gov.uk/all

of related regulations can be accessed at:

5.4 The Contribution of Public Participation within the Planning Process:

According to Cullingworth and Nadin (2006), there was a clear impact of the Second World War on the urban planning system in the UK, where the war provided many incentives to modernize the system. They argue that the havoc caused by the bombing give transformed 'the rebuilding of Britain' from the sociable desirable into a practical and clear necessity.

The social climate of the war and the early years of the post-war gave the motivation and the determination to undertake 'social reconstruction' (i.e., activating the role of the public sector). The UK planning legislation from 1947 explained that social welfare was paramount, but land-use matters should be a priority. However, discretion for action and policy formulation by individual planning authorities was built into the planning system and played a significant role (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2006).

Looking back over the post-war practice in the UK, researchers found that the interest in public participation in planning owes to general trends in the society and concerns of government (ODPM, 2004). The planning profession's history of working with communities dates back to the late 1960s. As mentioned earlier in this research (see 2.3.3), the publication of Skeffington's report 'people and planning' is considered the first official document that seriously addresses public engagement in urban planning (Townsend and Tully, 2004). During the 1970s and 1980s, publicity and consultation became an essential element of statutory planning, giving local people the opportunity to comment on and appeal to development plans (Cullingworth et al., 2014).

In order to make local government more accountable, successive UK governments have pursued a policy of modernising local government, which in turn reflected an increased emphasis on public participation since the 1990s (Townsend and Tully, 2004). In the same vein, Cullingworth and Nadin (2006) argue that by the mid of, 1990s government at all levels sought to establish more direct linkages with the citizens as a part of its general commitment to decentralisation and democratic renewal.

In 2004 as a step to reform planning policy, the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister (ODPM) presented a publication that emphasis on the importance of engaging the public in planning "community involvement in planning: The government's objectives"

(ODPM, 2004). It presents explicit principles about public engagement set out in planning policy. In the same year (2004), a new reform of the planning system ended up issuing the 'Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act 2004', which emphasises community involvement in planning. While in 2006, the twin and equivalent Act of this Act was published in Scotland 'The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006'.

After critically reviewing the main planning Acts, laws and regulations in the UK that control and regulate the urban planning system, the researcher has designed a diagram (Figure 5.11) showing the chronological development of public participation within the urban planning system—starting from land-use discretion in the 1947 Act, passing through the subsequent Acts which have considered public participation as a statutory element of the planning system where publicity and consultation were mandatory procedures of local plan preparation. Up to the Planning etc. (Scotland), Act 2006 and its equivalent Act in England have asked to raise the level of participation to involvement rather than just consultation.
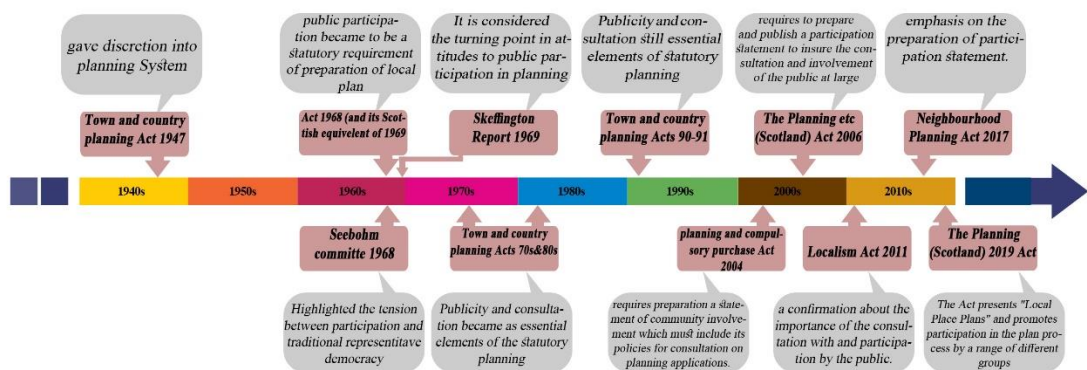
Figure 5.11: The timeline of public participation evolution within the urban planning system in the UK. Source: Author's Original, based on British laws, Acts and regulations, http://www.legislation.gov.uk .

5.4.1 Public participation within 'the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006.'

According to the illustration Figure 5.10 of 'the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006', it is clearly shown that there is a statutory requirement for consultation and the involvement of the public at large in the formation process of planning documents at all levels (National, Regional and Local). The Act states clearly in paragraphs (3C_2_a, 10_3_b_ii and 18_4_a_i) the statutory requirement of preparing a report of Participation Statements (PSs) which illustrates the extent to which the authority's actions with regard to consultation and participation of the public in the formulation process of the plans.

Figure 5.12: Public participation level within the planning system in Scotland.
Source: Author's Original, based on 'the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006.'

It is concluded that within all levels, the participation process goes through three main phases (Using Arnstein's ladder to assess the level of public participation) as follows:

- Early Engagement

- Informing, publicity and representations

- Public consultation

Hence, the involved bodies in the early engagement phase are more focused on specialists than the public, such as key agencies, key stakeholders, experts, and consultation authorities and those affected. In the other two phases, the public is heavily involved side by side with the governmental bodies, key agencies, key stakeholders, and those affected. Table 5.8 shows the public's participation in the formulation of planning documents according to the level of participation previously identified in the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006.

Table 5.8: How early is the public involved in the formulation process (Act 2006)?

Level	Early Engagement	Informing and representation	Consultation
National (NPF)	No	Yes	Yes
Regional (SDPs)	No	Yes	Yes
Local (LDPs)	Affected	Yes	Yes

Source: Author's Original informed by 'the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006'.

5.4.2 Public participation within 'the Planning (Scotland) 2019 Act.'

One of the most important motives to reform the Scottish planning system was to improve community engagement and enhance the participation of the public at large (The Scottish Government, 2019). The Planning (Scotland) Act 2019 stressed that it is essential and vital that people have the opportunity to engage effectively and meaningfully to have a positive influence in the future planning of development of their areas. The new 2019 Act has many aspects which focus particularly on the role of communities and local people in the planning system, such as providing guidance on effective community engagement in LDPs, guidance on the promotion and use of mediation in planning, and Changes to pre-application consultation with local communities in relation to major developments.

At the local level, before preparing a local development plan, the new 2019 Act requires the planning authorities to invite local communities in their districts to prepare a Local Place Plan (LPP). The LPP "is a proposal as to the development or use of land [...] It may also identify land and buildings that the community body considers to be of particular significance to the local area" (Planning (Scotland) Act 2019, p.119). The Act provides regulations on the form and content of a LPP and steps to be taken before it is submitted, on the register which local authorities are to keep, and guidance for community bodies, planning authorities and the Scottish Ministers on preparing, supporting and registering LPPs. In addition, the Act requires planning authorities to facilitate the participation of children and young people (a person aged 25 or under) in the preparation of the local development plan. In general, the 2019 Act requires a planning authority to prepare an evidence report for the preparation of a local development plan by seeking the views of and having regard to any opinions expressed by different stakeholders, key agencies, children and young people and the public at large. It includes the views of older and disabled persons, Gypsies and Travellers, children and young people. The new Act seems to be more inclusive in its strategy to reach, discuss and consult with different community groups (especially those hard to reach) to prepare the local development plan.

The evaluation of the public participation level in the preparation process of the local development plan is based on the approaches adopted in this research (Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation and IAP2 Spectrum). The LDP seeks to involve local people effectively in the planning process. According to Arnstein's Ladder, participation reaches the higher rung of Tokenism (placation) and the first rung of Citizen power (partnership). On the other hand, assessing the LPP based on the IAP2 spectrum indicates that the level of public participation reaches an involvement level where the authorities work directly

with the public throughout the process to ensure that public concerns and aspirations are consistently understood and considered. Theoretically speaking, the level of public participation within the new 2019 Act at the local level is "involvement level", which still needs to be verified in practice.

At the national level, the 2019 Act requires the Scottish Ministers to prepare or revise the National Planning Framework to consult with planning authorities, key agencies, advisory bodies, experts and the public at large. The new Act requires the Scottish Ministers to prepare a report on how the planning system operates to help ensure the housing needs of older people and disabled people. In preparing the report, the Scottish Ministers must consult with older and disabled people and their families, any bodies or organisations that work with or represent older and disabled people, Carers, planning authorities, etc.

At the regional level, A planning authority, or two or more such authorities acting jointly, are to prepare and adopt a regional spatial strategy (RSS). The Act did not require the public to participate in the (RSS) preparation process. It is entirely for the planning authority (or authorities) to consider whom to consult and engage.

Table 5.9: How early is the public involved in the formulation process (2019 Act)?

Level	Early Engagement	Informing and representation	Consultation	Involvement
National (NPF)	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Regional (RSS)	No	No	No	No
Local (LDPs)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Source: Author's Original, based on 'the Planning (Scotland) 2019 Act'.

The researcher created Table 5.9, which shows the participation of the public at large in the formulation and preparation of planning documents at the national, regional and local levels according to the level of participation discussed in the "planning (Scotland) 2019 Act".

5.5 Conclusion:

Planning reforms in the UK through the last three decades can be understood as the 'shift from Government to Governance' this shift in the structure of governing process can be referred to the changes of successive political parties who assumed the power in the UK in that period, each party has its own agenda to rule the country. Of course, these changes

in the political elite led to reform processes which in turn affected the planning system. These reform processes can be addressed through many approaches and theories adopted by each party, including neo-liberalism, new public management, the third way associated with New Labour and the ideology of localism associated with the Coalition government (Clifford and Tewdwr-Jones, 2013).

This chapter has provided a detailed study of the main forces of British society which influence the planning practice in the country. This critical review responds to question 2.1 of the second objective, 'What are the main factors that affect public participation in the urban planning process?'. After reviewing, studying and analysing the main three spheres of British society forces (State, market and civil society). The researcher concludes that the *UK is a state ruled by a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarchy. Its economy is based on Capitalism, where its market is partially regulated-oriented, and the British population is heavily affected by excessive individualism*. See the figure below (Figure 5.13) for a more visual illustration. These national settings form the main environment of planning practice in the country and give a good indicator of the level to which the public can participate in the decision-making process in general and in the urban planning system in particular.

The national settings of the country directly affect the urban planning environment, and to evaluate this impact and in response to question 2.2 of the second objective, a critical review of policies, Acts and regulations that control the urban planning system in the country has been conducted. The review shows the hierarchy of the planning system in the country. It starts with setting up the national planning framework "NPF" and its supporting documents as the primary document that draws the future of the country. Then it leads to preparing and creating the strategic development plans and local development plans for regional and local levels, respectively, in the light of the main objectives of NPF.

However, the planning system in Scotland is based on a long-term spatial economic strategy; within its light, strategic and local development plans will be created. A critical evaluation of the current planning system uses the diagram created by the researcher (Table 3.2). It shows that the current planning system falls within the third paradigm where there is no fixed vision of planning's nature and great flexibility in changing national goals to suit new necessities. Accordingly, the planning system in Scotland is based on the relativism approach. It falls under the pluralistic planning model, which involves government, the private sector, and civil society forming planning decisions.
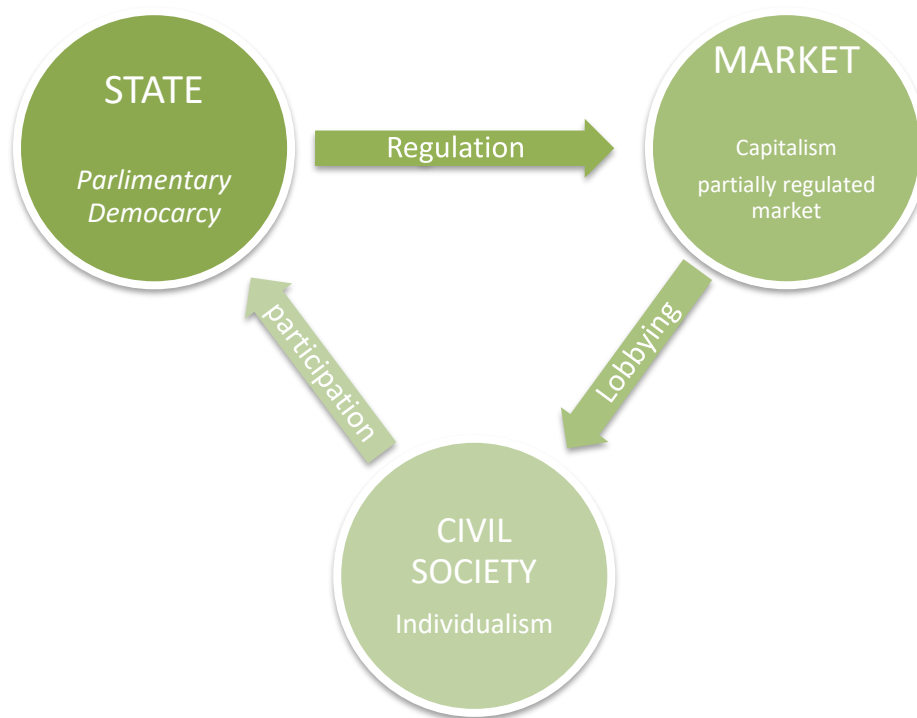
Figure 5.13: The main characteristics of the British main society forces.
Source: Author's Original, based on Figure 3.1.

In terms of public participation, the pluralistic planning model seeks to reach the level of placation where the consultation level is already achieved. Here and in comparison, with the level of public participation in 'the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006', the researcher finds that the Act achieves the level of consultation (see Figure 5.12). In brief, *the Scottish planning system is based on the relativism approach. It falls under the pluralistic planning model, where the level of public participation achieves the consultation level and seeks the placation and involvement level*. This conclusion comes as an answer to the third question of the second objective of this study, 'What is the level of public participation within the planning process?'.

In the next chapter and according to the analytical framework adopted for this research (Figure 4.5) and based on Yin's (2009) 'replication approach to multiple-case studies'. The researcher will address the urban planning system within the Syrian context and examine the national settings (State, Economy and Society) and planning structure in the country as it has been addressed in this chapter.

Chapter Six: Urban Planning System within the Syrian Context

6.1 Introduction

As mentioned earlier in the previous chapter, this chapter seeks to address the national settings and planning structure within the Syrian case. The study of the Syrian context comes in response to finding answers to questions raised by the second objective of this research: *Critically assess the current effect of public participation within programmes, policies, and laws of the urban planning system with reference to the political, economic, and social forces that affect the culture of planning.*

> 2.1. What are the main factors that affect public participation in the urban planning process?
>
> 2.2. What are the main policies, laws and regulations that seek to regulate and control the urban planning process?
>
> 2.3. What is the level and scope of public participation within the planning process?

Following Yin's (2009) 'replication approach to multiple-case studies', this chapter will follow the same structure of the previous chapter used to study the British-Scottish context and apply it to explore the Syrian context. Thus, the first part of this chapter covers the first dimension (National settings) of the conceptual framework adopted in this research (Figure 3.6). Therefore, a detailed study of the main societal forces (State, economy, and society) that form the urban governance process within the Syrian context is undertaken to understand the visible and invisible national influence on the urban development decision-making process.

In the second part of this chapter, and in order to cover the second dimension in the adopted conceptual framework (planning structure), a critical review of the Syrian main planning policies and fundamental planning laws from the 1940s onward is undertaken. Then after, A critical analysis will be undertaken to investigate the extent to which local people participate in the decision-making process regarding land-use planning.

6.2 National Settings

6.2.1 The state

Physical size

The current geographical region of Syria is only a small portion of the ancient geographical Syrian landmass. According to the Sykes-Picot Agreement[52], a region situated at the eastern bank of the Mediterranean Sea from which the western countries have created the current states of Syria, Lebanon, Jordan and Palestine. The total area of Syria is approximately 185,180 square kilometres. The country is located in the southwestern part of Asia, at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea; Syria shares borders with Turkey in the north, Iraq in the east, Jordan in the south, Palestine in the south-west, and Lebanon in the west (see Figure 6.1) (Library of Congress, 2005).

Syria is the homeland of 24,504,000[53] people; this number was estimated for people who lived in Syria in 2011. However, because of the ongoing crisis in the country and according to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), over 5.4 million people have fled Syria since 2011. The estimated number of the population still living in Syria is around 19 million.
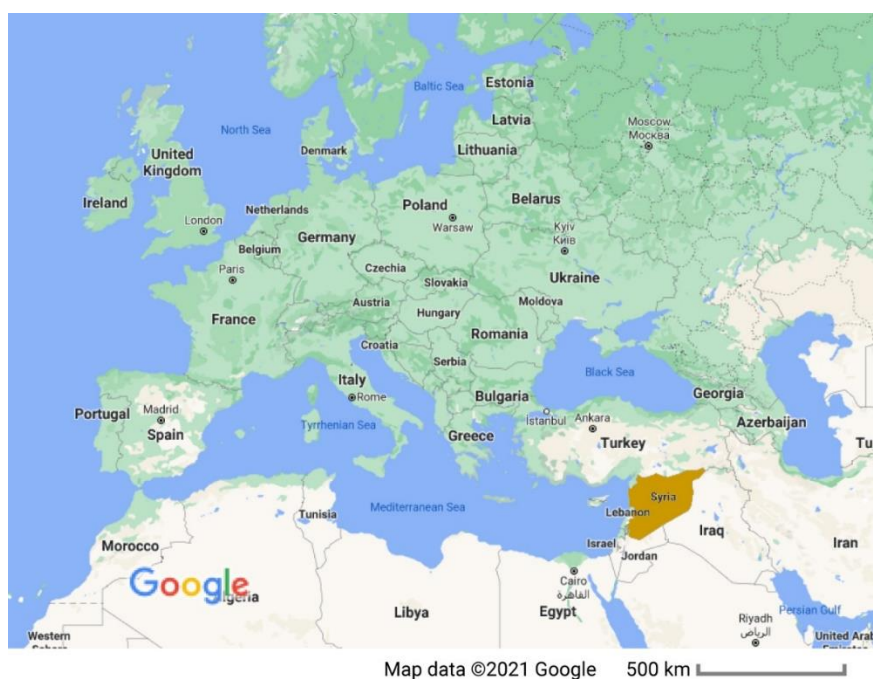
Figure 6.1: The location of Syria within the Middle East and from Europe.
Source: Author's Original, based on Google Maps.

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[52] also called Asia Minor Agreement, (May 1916), secret convention made during World War I between Great Britain and France, with the assent of imperial Russia, for the dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire.
[53] This information has been derived from Central Bureau of Statistics in Syria, http://www.cbssyr.sy/index-EN.htm

Government structure

In its second article, the Syrian Constitution (2012) stipulates that the system of government in Syria is republican, where the President of the Republic shall have vast executive and procedural powers. The system is classified as a semi-presidential or dual executive system. The elected president, alongside the appointed prime minister and her/his cabinet appointed by the president, are partners in the conduct of State affairs (Duverger, 1980). According to the current constitution, the president-elect holds many positions in the state and has many responsibilities:

- Head of Supreme Judicial Council (Article 133)
- Head of the executive branch of the government (Articles 83,97 and 98)
- Commander-in-chief of the Army and Armed Forces (Article 105)
- An integral part of the legislature (Article 112 and 113)
- The President of the Republic may decide to dismiss the People's Council by a justified decision by her/him (Article 111).

The Syrian constitution (2012) gives the president-elect extensive powers that empower her/him to be the supreme authority in the state (Figure 6.2). In addition to the constitutional fact that the president is the head of the executive and judicial branches of the state, if the president-elect is chosen from the dominant political party in the country, "The Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party"[54]. The president could have direct effective power over the legislative branch of the state as she/he usually is the leader of the dominant party, which won the majority seats of the people's council. **Very briefly, the president has broad influence over all power branches of the state.**

For a deeper understanding of the political system in Syria, it is necessary to refer to the political parties in the country and their mechanism of action. The Syrian Constitution (1973), in its eighth article, stipulated that Ba'ath Party leads the state and society. Thus, Ba'ath Party controlled the state's political life until issuing the new Syrian constitution of 2012, which introduced a multi-party system based on the principle of political pluralism without guaranteed leadership of any political party (Syrian Constitution, 2012, art. 8). Although The Ba'ath Party is no longer 'Syria's ruling party' according to the

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[54] The al-Ba'ath Arab Socialist Party is a political party founded upon the Arab political philosophy known as Ba'athism, which promotes secular Arab nationalism, Arab socialism, pan-Arabism, and militarism.
The Ba'ath Party was officially founded in Damascus in 1947. A 1963 Ba'athist coup established the Ba'ath Party as the only legal political party in Syria.

Syrian constitution, it is the largest party of the National Progressive Front (NPF) (The National Progressive Front, 2018).
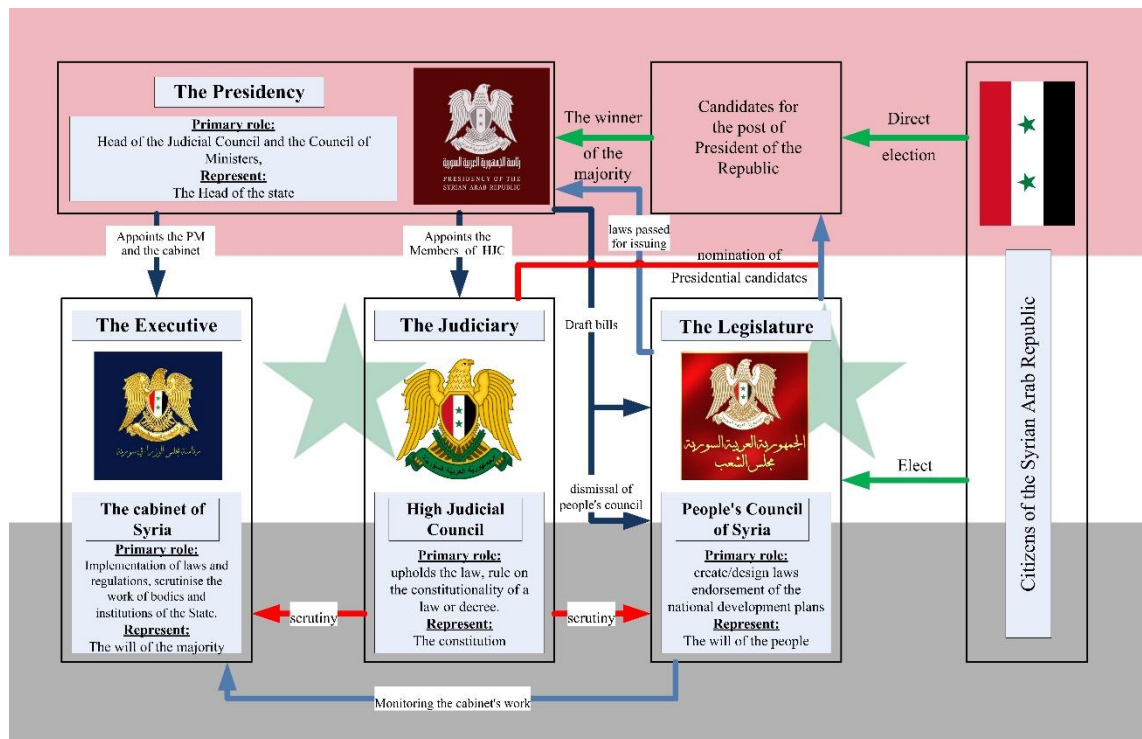
Figure 6.2: The structure of the political system in Syria.
Source: Author's Original, based on the Syrian constitution 2012.

The NPF is a political coalition composed of a group of national, socialist and communist parties in Syria led by the Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party. Given that most of the political parties recognised by the Syrian authority are members of the NPF[55], this leads to the fact that the Ba'ath party still dominates the political life in the country. In addition to the political parties recognised in the Syrian state, there are many other unrepresented parties or those banned or prevented[56] (Hanna, 2011). Legislative Decree No. 100 (2011) sets the basic rules for the recognition of any political party in Syria. Article 5/ paragraph 4 states that "the party must not be established on a religious, sectarian, tribal or regional basis or based on discrimination on the grounds of race, sex or colour" (Legislative Decree No.

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[55] The NPF is composed of ten political parties: Ba'ath Arab Socialist party, Arab Socialist Union party, Syrian Communist Party (Khalid Bakdash faction), Syrian Communist Party (Yusuf Faisal faction), Socialist Unionists party, Arab Socialist Movement, Democratic Socialist Unionist Party, Arab Democratic Unionist Party, Syrian Social Nationalist Party and National Covenant Party in addition to The General Federation of Trade Unions and General Union of Peasants (The National Progressive Front, 2018).
[56] There are many Arab, Turkmen, Kurdish and Assyrian parties that are not represented in the Syrian state, in addition to banned Islamist parties like Muslim brotherhood party. For more about Syrian parties see (Hanna, 2011).

100, 2011, art.5 (4)). Thus, based on the parties Act (Legislative Decree 100 of 2011), political parties in Syria are recognized or banned.

Figure 6.2 illustrates the political structure of the state in Syria. This structure is consistent with the classical political theory of democracy, where there are three main branches of the state (executive, legislature and judiciary). The following sections will explain in detail each of these branches.

The Executive:
Syrian Constitution (2012, art.118) states that "The Council of Ministers is the State's supreme executive and administrative body. It consists of the Prime Minister, his deputies and the ministers. The council supervises the implementation of Acts and regulations and supervises the state's bodies and institutions".

The executive power in Syria is exercised by the president and the government. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the president of the state is the head of the executive power in the country (Syrian Constitution, 2012; Legislative Decree No. 20, 2017). The president appoints the Prime Minister and all other ministers of the cabinet; the current government was appointed on 30 August 2020 by decree No. 221; it consists of 29 ministers in addition to the prime minister. There is no specific number of ministers who form the government, and in general, the total number of ministers in most previous governments ranges from 25 to 40 ministers (Presidency of the Council of Ministers, 2021).

The Legislature:
 The Syrian People's Assembly (People's Council) is the body that holds the legislative authority in the country. Under the Syrian Constitution (2012, art. 55), the People's Assembly is the legislative authority of the country. Still, the elected President of the Republic shares power by issuing legislative decrees and suggesting bills. Syrian people's Assembly is unicameral and consists of 250 members elected for four years fixed term in 15 multi-seat constituencies[57] (People's Assembly of Syria, 2018b). The last parliamentary elections were held in July 2020 after being postponed twice due to the Coronavirus pandemic (Figure 6.3). The National Progressive Front (NPF) won 177 seats out of 250 (a majority of 167 seats won by the Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party), and the rest of the seats (73) were for independents (People's Assembly of Syria, 2020).

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[57] Each Governorate is a constituency apart of Aleppo it has two constituencies.

Figure 6.3: Syrian Parliamentary elections of 2020.
Source: Author's Original, based on (People's Assembly of Syria, 2020).

According to the Syrian Constitution (2012, art. 57), the People's Assembly is elected by "the public, secret, direct and equal vote" for four calendar years (the next elections are due in or before July 2024). The assembly has the authority to approve the general budget, declare war and peace, ratify foreign treaties, have supervisory authority over the government through the ministers' accountability, and perform a vote of no-confidence on the cabinet or a minister (Syrian Constitution, 2012, art. 75).

The Judiciary:

The Syrian Constitution (2012, art. 50) stipulates that "the rule of law shall be the basis of governance in the state". It also provides that "the judicial authority is independent; and the President of the Republic insures this independence assisted by the Supreme Judicial Council" (Syrian Constitution, 2012, art. 132). It also stipulates in article 135 that "the Act regulates the different branches, categories and degrees of the judicial system. It also states the rules for the mandates of different courts" (Syrian Constitution, 2012). The bulk of the judiciary is reflected in the courts established by the Judicial Authority Act (Decree No. 98 of 1961) (El_Masry, 2018). The judicial bodies in Syria are three:

- The ordinary judiciary;
- The administrative judiciary;
- The exceptional judiciary.

Each of these bodies includes types and degrees of courts regulated by special laws. Their jurisdictions are determined by either the laws of their organisation or by other independent laws (El_Masry, 2018; Law Encyclopedia, 2018).

The Supreme Constitutional Court comes at the top of the judiciary, which includes the ordinary, administrative and extraordinary judiciary. This court adjudicates electoral disputes and rules on the constitutionality of laws and decrees (Law Encyclopedia, 2018).

The ordinary judiciary is the body competent to consider all disputes whatsoever, and according to the Judicial Authority Act (Decree No. 98 of 1961, art. 32), this body consists of the following courts:

- Magistrate Court: This court shall adjudicate all civil, commercial and criminal proceedings within its jurisdiction following the laws of due process and other laws (El_Masry, 2018; Law Encyclopedia, 2018).

- Court of First Instance: This court considers all civil and commercial proceedings that are not within the jurisdiction of another court and in urgent matters as well as in certain misdemeanours pursuant to the specific penalties (Ibid).

- Court of Appeals: It adjudicates court cases that accept appeals under the laws in force (Ibid).

- Court of Cassation: It oversees the proper implementation of the law. For example, it considers the judgments of the Court of Appeal, which is subject to appeal by way of cassation if these judgments are based on a violation of the law or error in the implementation or interpretation (Ibid).

- Sharia Court: It has general and special competence. (general) includes all Syrians of different doctrines and beliefs. (special) includes just Muslims. This court adjudicates personal status matters (Law Encyclopedia, 2018).

- Spiritual Courts: These courts adjudicate personal status matters for the Christian communities and the Jewish community (Ibid).

- Doctrinal Court: This court adjudicates personal status matters for the Druze[58] community (Ibid).

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[58] One of the religious sects that exists mainly in Syria and Lebanon.

In terms of administrative law, the Council of State[59] shall decide on administrative disputes (El_Masry, 2018). At the same time, the exceptional judiciary includes a group of courts that do not fall under any of the ordinary or administrative courts, for example, military courts, juvenile courts, anti-terrorism court, etc. (El_Masry, 2018; Law Encyclopedia, 2018).

Constitutional law

Since the 19th century, Syria has known the constitution of the Ottomans, where some sultans were forced to grant primitive constitutions that gave nationals certain guarantees (Habash, 2006; Idrak Center for Studies and Consultations, 2017). The Syrian elites gained a constitutional culture that enabled them to establish multiple constitutions of the country later in the first 50 years of the last century (Idrak Center for Studies and Consultations, 2017).

The history of the Syrian constitution began with the appearance of the first constitution in 1839 by the Ottomans, followed by the Constitution of 1856. According to historians, both constitutions were primitive and provided only some general guarantees to the nationals (Habash, 2006; Idrak Center for Studies and Consultations, 2017). However, the first modern Ottoman constitution is the constitution adopted by Sultan Abdul Hamid II[60] in 1876 at the beginning of his rule, which included the transformation of the Sultanate into a constitutional monarchy and a parliamentary state, but Sultan Abdul Hamid II suspended this constitution since the beginning of 1878 (Habash, 2006; Ashour, 2010).

The first actual constitution of the Syrian state in its modern sense is the Constitution of 1920, followed by the 1928 constitution during the French mandate. The third constitution came during the phase of military coups in the middle of the last century; it was passed in 1950. When Ba'ath Party came to power, the 1973 constitution was passed (Habash, 2006), which remained in place until the current constitution was passed in 2012.

The current constitution of 2012 came in response to demands for political and economic reforms in the country against the backdrop of the protests that began in 2011[61]. The new

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[59] Is an independent body attached to the Presidency of the Council of Ministers, which carries out judicial supervision over the work of the administration and verifies the administration's respect for the principle of legality (Law Encyclopedia, 2018).

[60] (21 September 1842 – 10 February 1918) was the 34th Sultan of the Ottoman Empire and the last Sultan to exert effective control over the fracturing Ottoman state.

[61] Instability and war in Syria began in March 2011 when the so called "Arab Spring" waves hit the Arab region.

constitution has received a great deal of criticism. Critics say the new constitution has not made any significant changes to the previous constitution (Idrak Center for Studies and Consultations, 2017; Massad et al., 2018). Although the constitution of 2012 stipulates the principle of 'separation of powers', the main issue of dispute around this constitution is granting the president-elect broad powers (legislative and executive), leading to the concentration of powers in the hands of one body represented by the presidency.

However, the constitution of 2012 is the one in force in Syria today. Still, a Russian draft to create a new constitution seeks to find a solution for the most controversial points that have stirred arguments in the current constitution (Massad et al., 2018; Atwan, 2016). The new draft gives the 'Parliament' "People's Council" greater power and minimises the power in the hands of the president-elect, which leads to turning Syria from a presidential to a parliamentary republic, in addition to addressing other issues related to the ethnic and sectarian diversity in the country (Atwan, 2016). In fact, the Russian 'constitution' draft is still just a draft, and the constitutional legitimacy in Syria is derived from the 2012 constitution.

To sum up, the state in **Syria can be described as a state with presidential democracy where the president-elect has a significant amount of power over the government**. Along with the president, the people's Assembly plays an essential role in creating and formulating bills that will later form the main Acts and regulations that control and regulate the State's political, social, and economic life. With their cabinet, 'the Council of Ministers', the president works to implement these Acts under the supervision of the judiciary and the latter works to enforce the constitution.

Administrative system
Syria is a centralised unitary state, and for administrative purposes, it is divided into fourteen administrative units called "governorates". Syrian Constitution (2012) stipulates in its article No.130 that "The Syrian Arab Republic consists of administrative units; and the law states their number, boundaries, authorities and the extent to which they enjoy the status of a legal entity, financial and administrative independence". Accordingly, the legislative decree No. 107 (2011) (the local administration Act) sets the administrative division of Syria and all matters related to this division. According to the local administration Act, Syria is divided into 14 governorates (provinces). The governorates are divided into 61 districts, with their centres being the major cities (Figure 6.4). Then the districts are further divided into smaller administrative units called subdistricts,

including towns, villages, farms, or neighbourhoods (The Humanitarian Data Exchange, 2016).
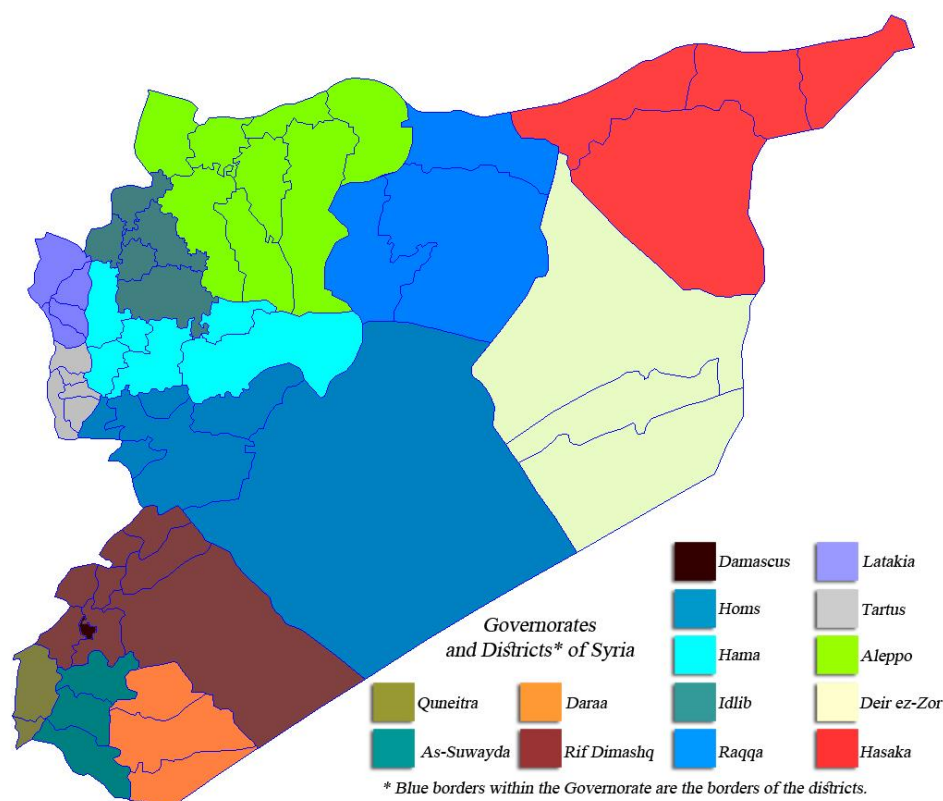
Figure 6.4: Administrative division of Syria (Governorates and districts).
Source: Rarelibra: *https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Syria_districts.png*, modified by the Author.

In Syria, there are two types of administrative units. Firstly, the administrative units that have an independent legal entity, such as (governorates - cities – towns and municipalities). Secondly, the administrative units that do not have an independent legal entity, such as (districts, subdistricts and neighbourhoods). The number of inhabitants determines the type of administrative unit; more information is in Appendix 6-1. All administrative units with independent legal entities have an elected council (provincial council, city council, town council, and municipality council) with financial and administrative independence. All of whose members are popularly elected for four-year terms. In addition, each council elects from among its member an executive bureau that administers all local affairs within the unit.

The structure of the administrative system within Syria consists of two primary levels. Firstly, at the national level, Syria is described as a centralised unitary state where the central government manages all the affairs in the country. Secondly, at the local level, fourteen governorates are responsible for local governance within their administrative

borders; more details are in Figure 6.5. Each governorate is headed by a governor appointed by the president and represents the central authority; the governor is assisted by the elected local council and its executive bureau in managing the governorate's affairs.
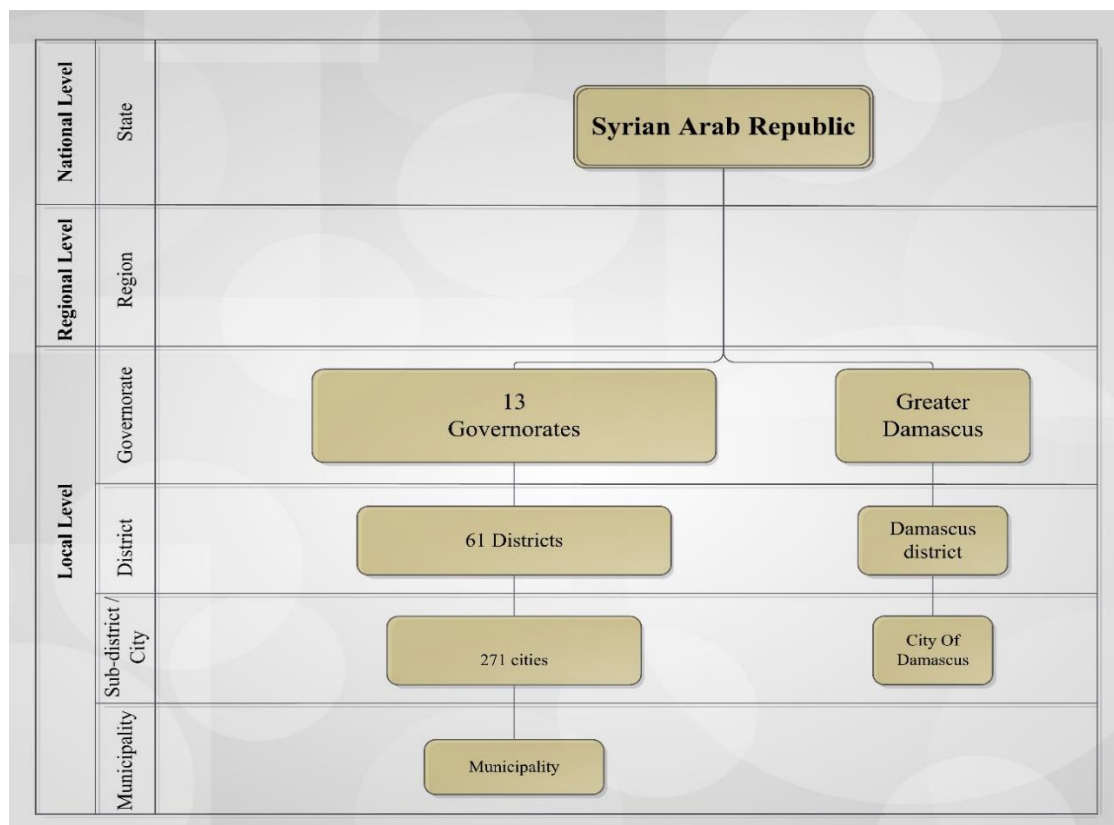
Figure 6.5: The administrative and geographical division in Syria.
Source: Author's Original, based on The Humanitarian Data Exchange, 2016.

Although Syria is classified as a centralised unitary country, the local administration Act (2011) emphasises decentralisation and the necessity to transfer some powers from the central authority to local ones through a national plan of decentralisation. Under the general policy framework of the state, local councils shall be competent in the conduct of local administration and all activities leading to the development of the administrative unit "economically, socially, culturally and urbanely" in line with sustainable and balanced development. Local councils, within the scope of the general policy, plans, programs and laws of the State, shall exercise their functions within the following competences: Spatial Planning, Industry, Agriculture, Supply and Internal Trade, Education, Culture, Tourism, Highways and Transport, Public Works, Water Resources, Health Affairs, Social Affairs, Labour and Employment, Services and public utilities, Housing, Fire and Civil Defence; in addition to these competences all local councils have

to coordinate with each other in planning and implementing joint projects (legislative decree No. 107, 2011).

6.2.2 The economy

Historically, at independence in 1946, Syria had a relatively well-developed agricultural and industrial base, but following independence, the Syrian economy underwent widespread structural change (Library of Congress, 2005; Salibi et al., 2018). When the Ba'ath party took power in the country in the 1960s, Syria's economic orientation and development strategy were transformed, and Socialism "Arab Socialism" became the official economic policy of the country. This was evident through the government-sponsored land reform and the nationalisation of major industries and foreign investments (Library of Congress, 2005; Salibi et al., 2018). In order to distinguish the Arab socialist ideology from the international socialist, Michel Aflaq[62] - the principal founder of Ba'athism and the Arab Socialist Ba'ath Party in Syria - coined the term "Arab socialism". Using this term, "Aflaq was not referring to the internationalist strain of socialism; his conception resolved socialism with Arab nationalism" (Devlin, 1976, p.32). He further noted that "the social economic question is the issue of prime importance in our life, but it is directly related to the wider issue of nationalism" and "we want socialism to serve our nationalism" (Devlin, 1976, p.33). The essence of the economic thought of Arab socialism was contained in the party's 1947 constitution; the party called for a 'just redistribution of wealth', state ownership of public utilities, natural resources, large industry, and transport. Moreover, they believed in state control over foreign and domestic trade, limiting the agricultural holdings of owners to the amount the owner could cultivate, an economy under some state supervision, workers' participation in management and profit sharing, respected inheritance and the rights of private property (Devlin, 1976).

In the 1970s, with the emergence of neoliberalism and because of the high oil prices at that time, the Syrian Economy experienced a shift away from its agrarian sector base to become dominated by the services, industrial, and commercial sectors. Still, this transformation did not last long as the government had to respond to a series of crises in

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[62] (9 January 1910 – 23 June 1989) was a Syrian philosopher, sociologist and Arab nationalist. His ideas played a significant role in the development of Ba'athism and its political movement; he is considered by several Ba'athists to be the principal founder of Ba'athist thought.

the 1980s, shifting the Syrian economy to a more austere time (Library of Congress, 2005; Salibi et al., 2018).

The Syrian economy is described as a centralised economy where the state controls the most vital sectors of the country's economy and regulates private business. During the first decade of the twenty-first century, the Syrian government sought to reform the country's economy. It took serious steps to increase the role of the private sector and attract foreign direct investment. The Syrian economy has gradually moved from centrally planned to a much more liberal system (Syrian Enterprise and Business Centre, 2010; Salibi et al., 2018). The Syrian economy was coming out of its isolation, especially to be more open to the west. In 2003 Syria showed a clear interest in the negotiations to sign the partnership agreement with the EU. In 2010, negotiations started to join the WTO (Fanack.com, 2018). However, all initiatives to reform the Syrian economy were hampered by the outbreak of war in Syria in 2011. The ongoing conflict in Syria has damaged the Syrian economy. It has declined by more than 70% from 2010 to 2017 (The World Factbook, 2018).

Table 6.1 shows that in 2010 Syria's largest sector was mining, quarrying and manufacturing, which accounts for some 34% of GDP. This is followed by the agriculture sector, representing some 15% of GDP. Notably, after the conflict outbreak in 2011, the mining and manufacturing sector fell significantly by 16.5% in 2013 and 11.7% in 2016; the agriculture sector for the same years, respectively, increased by 8.4% and 9.5%. Taking into account that the GDP of 2013 and 2016 has fallen by 44% and 47%, respectively, compared to 2010. Based on the statistics, the Syrian economy heavily depends on the mining & manufacturing and agriculture sectors.

Table 6.1: Gross production at producer's price 2010-2016.

YEAR	2010*		2013 **		2016 ***	
SECTOR	In Million S.P.	in %	In Million S.P.	in %	In Million S.P.	in %
Agriculture, forests & livestock	365425	14.4%	321560.8	22.8%	321624.5	23.9%
Mining, quarrying & manufacturing	877059	34.7%	257095.3	18.2%	309096.9	23.0%
Building & construction	148310	5.9%	103060.2	7.3%	83771	6.2%

wholesale, retail trade & repair	386490	15.3%	107697.7	7.6%	60742.91	4.5%
Transport, storage & communication services	279564	11.1%	216442.1	15.4%	228237.9	17.0%
Finance, insurance & real estate	94429	3.7%	99272.1	7.0%	28294	2.1%
Social and personal services	110843	4.4%	72855	5.2%	71766.77	5.3%
Government services	266073	10.5%	229798	16.3%	239010	17.8%
Non-profit institutions	1522	0.1%	1360	0.1%	3264.639	0.2%
TOTAL	2529715	100%	1409141	100%	1345810	100%

Source: Author's Original, based on information derived from Central Bureau of Statistics 2017.
* Processed data | ** Estimated data. | *** Primary data.

In summary, **the Syrian economy is based on socialism,** where the state controls all sectors of the country's economy. The Syrian Economy can be described **as a centralised state-run economy.**

6.2.3 The society

Syrian society is perceived as a mosaic of various social groups that differ in terms of many factors (religion, ethnicity, language, region, and way of life). All these factors contribute to creating a fragmented society where each social group is marked by internal solid loyalty and solidarity (Collelo, 1987). The majority of Syrians are Arab, approximately 90 % of the population, while the 10 % remaining include many other ethnicities like Kurds, Turkomans, Armenians and Circassians (Library of Congress, 2005; Salibi et al., 2018). As a matter of fact, Arabic is the official language and mother tongue of 90 % of the population, whereas minorities' languages are Kurdish, Circassian, Armenian and Aramaic (Collelo, 1987; Library of Congress, 2005). In terms of religion, Islam (in its all sects and subsects) is the largest religious group in Syria, with approximately 85 % of the population; Christianity made up around 7 % to be the second largest religious group in the country (Library of Congress, 2005; Salibi et al., 2018). for more information about ethnicity, religion and language in Syria, see Appendix 6-2.

Syrian Society is divided by vertical (religion and ethnicity) and horizontal (socioeconomic and class) cleavages. Traditionally, Syrian society was divided between landlords and peasants, urban dwellers and rural peasants (Collelo, 1987; Evason, 2016). Within the second half of the last century, when Ba'ath Party took power in Syria, The Agrarian Reform Act of 1963 was passed; this law ended the rule of Feudalism and gave farms to peasants under the slogan "land is for those who work in it". In addition, the larger financial, commercial, and industrial establishments in the country were nationalised (Collelo, 1987). All these political and economic changes led to the end of the dominance of the old minority elite (Feudal and Bourgeois) and, at the same time, a change in the structure of Syrian society and the emergence of a new elite that comprised the upper stratum of civilian and military leaders (Collelo, 1987).

The social, political and economic changes in Syria during the last three decades of the 20th century and by virtue of the technical and secular education, a new upper-middle class that consists of men and women who rose from the lower and middle classes emerged. The new technocrat class comprises doctors, engineers, teachers, lawyers, scientists and other professionals (Collelo, 1987; Evason, 2016). The new structure of Syrian society imposed a new class division where the main class indicators are a person's wealth, education and profession (Evason, 2016). Jobs that need physical labour are viewed as low-class positions. In contrast, people who have received a university degree and their professions need a higher education are viewed as higher-class positions (Evason, 2016). However, the elite remains for those who are from the upper echelon of civilian and military leaders (Collelo, 1987).

Despite the class division in Syria, many researchers (Collelo, 1987; Evason, 2016; Salibi et al., 2018) emphasise the collective nature of Syrian society, where strong family ties are the common feature of Syrian people regardless of their ethnic or religious affiliation. This is possibly due to two key reasons. Firstly, most of Syrian society (97%) is religiously affiliated, and all religions urge kinship and maintain strong family ties. Over time, these religious rules have become a fundamental part of Syrian culture (Evason, 2016; Salibi et al., 2018). Secondly, the socialist economic system in the country has a significant impact on the lifestyle of the Syrian people. Since socialism is based on the notion that "the means of production (including wealth) are socially and collectively owned" (Busky, 2000, P.07), the *collective* nature of Syrian society has been increased by implementing this economic system. What an individual owns is shared by the

members of her/his family, and what the family owns is shared by all its members (Collelo, 1987; Evason, 2016).

Given the above, Syrian society was and still is in a state of flux; the political and economic changes in the 70s and 80s of the last century brought some social and cultural changes to the structure of Syrian society (Collelo, 1987; Evason, 2016). Although successive Syrian governments tried to eliminate sectarianism within Syrian society, loyalty to sects and religious and ethnic groups was strongest. There is a high degree of integration and homogeneity within each social group (ethnic or religious). This leads to the creation of a fragmented society demographically and regionally (Collelo, 1987).

To sum up, Syrian society is a **fragmented society** composed of social groups that differ both religiously and ethnically, with a great internal homogeneity. However, **collectivism** seems to be the feature that all these different groups share. In other words, Syrian society is a **fragmented society with high internal collectivism.**

6.3 Planning Structure

An overview of the history of the modern planning system and land law in Syria

The history of structured planning that follows given policies and regulations in Syria dates back to the publication of the first five-year plan (FYP) in the sixties (Collelo, 1987). Before that date, Master Plans for some Syrian cities like Aleppo and Damascus were developed by French architects and planners, the Danger brothers and Michel Ecochard[63], during the French mandate. Those plans were understood as reflecting broader strategies needed for regenerating socio-economic and cultural life in these cities in line with all changes in terms of transport, housing, and technology at that time (Hastaoglou-Martinidis, 2011). Although the regularised planning in Syria emerged in the second half of the last century, some resolutions and legislative decrees were issued during the first half of the 20th century to organise real estate transactions and ownership rights; such as, (the system of locating and editing (surveying): resolution No. 186 of 1926; executive regulations of land registry law: resolution No. 189 of 1926; and Law of real estate improvement processes: legislative decree No. 153 of 1949) (Safadi, 2008). It should be noted that at that time, the general planning policy of the country was based solely on the

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[63] Michel Ecochard (1905-1985) is a well-known architect and planner of colonial planning in Syria, Lebanon and Morocco at the end of the French colonial era (Verdeil, 2012).

approval of the general budget. Where priority sectors for development are identified, and the planned expenditure is allocated to them from the general budget. (Collelo, 1987).

The Agrarian Reform Act (Law 161 of 1958) and its executive regulations, approved by Legislative Decree No. 1109 of 1963, constitute a turning point in Syrian legislation at the level of determination of land ownership and its upper limits. It is considered one of the first laws that have worked on the division, distribution and ownership of land in the country (Collelo, 1987; Safadi, 2008). In terms of land planning, organising, division and acquisition, there are many laws dealing with land division and its acquisition and construction (other regulations and laws under 6.3.2).

With regard to creating local development plans, there was no Act or law defining the legal basis and procedures to be followed for the establishment of local development and master plans in the country until the advent of legislative decree No. 5 of 1982, as amended by Law No. 41 of 2002 (McAuslan and Safadi, 2007; Safadi, 2008). Legislation No. 5 provides in detail the procedures and rules to be followed to establish local development and master plans in the country, and it is still in place to date. A detailed study of this regulation will be undertaken in a later section within this chapter (See 6.3.2). The followed sections shed light on the key policies and organisations that regulate and control the planning system in Syria.

6.3.1 Policies

The planning system in Syria is based on the concept of a five-year plan (FYP) prepared by the Planning and International Cooperation Commission (PICC) of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers (PCM). This plan is a nationwide economic and social development plan that sets out the overall development goals of the country (Prime Ministry, 2018). In fact, there is no specific law that spells out the mechanism for setting up the five-year plan, but the whole matter is governed by the Syrian government, represented by the PICC, to prepare and complete the plan (Ibid). As for the preparation of local development plans and master plans, as mentioned earlier, Decree No. 5 of 1982 is the fundamental law governing the process of preparing local plans in line with the key goals of the National Development Plan (McAuslan and Safadi, 2007). The policies, instruments, and institutions at various levels (national, regional and local) governing the planning system in Syria are reviewed below.

National

The FYP is the core document that sets out the country's general and comprehensive planning policy. It sets out the country's economic and social development policy through its long, medium and short-term development plans. Each FYP adopts a comprehensive development vision for the country and sets its long-term national goals (State Planning Commission, 2009). Because of the ongoing war for several years, Syria stopped issuing the FYPs, the last of which was the tenth FYP (2006-2010). Since 2011, successive governments[64] in Syria have adopted short-term goals that prioritise the current situation in the country. However, FYP remains the legal and legislative framework for creating national development plans. Thus, it is helpful to shed light on the mechanism in which these plans are created. For this purpose, the report "*Guide to Preparing the National Vision and the Eleventh Five-Year Plan*" issued by the State Planning Commission[65]outlines the procedures followed in formulating the Eleventh FYP (2011-2015) and will be addressed.

The State Planning Commission (2009) notes in its report that the development approach is based on different planning levels, which are as follows:

1- National Vision,
2- Development strategy,
3- Five-year Plan.

The **National Vision (NV)** "represents the desired image of the Syrian society, where all human, economic and natural resources will be harnessed to achieve it, and answer the question (where the Syrian society want to be)" (State Planning Commission, 2009, P.03). Considering and in line with the National Vision, long-term goals are set. These goals constitute a **Development Strategy (DS)** that extends over a period covering three five-year plans at least. The policies of these plans (**Five-year Plans**) are defined to achieve several sub-goals derived from long-term goals (State Planning Commission, 2009). When the FYP is confirmed, an annual program is prepared, which includes the annual indicators, programs, and projects to be implemented in each year of the FYP, in accordance with their priority in the plan, the financial execution schedule and the bodies involved in the implementation process (State Planning Commission, 2009).

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[64] Since the beginning of instability in Syria in 2011 the Syrian government (Prime Minister and the cabinet) has been changed six times.
[65] The name and tasks of the Commission were updated by Law No. 1 of 2011 to became (Planning and International Cooperation Commission).

The SPC report outlines the steps to be followed to create NV, DS and FYP documents. Figure 6.6 shows all procedures taken to create the NV document, and these procedures are very similar to those taken to establish and formulate the FYP.
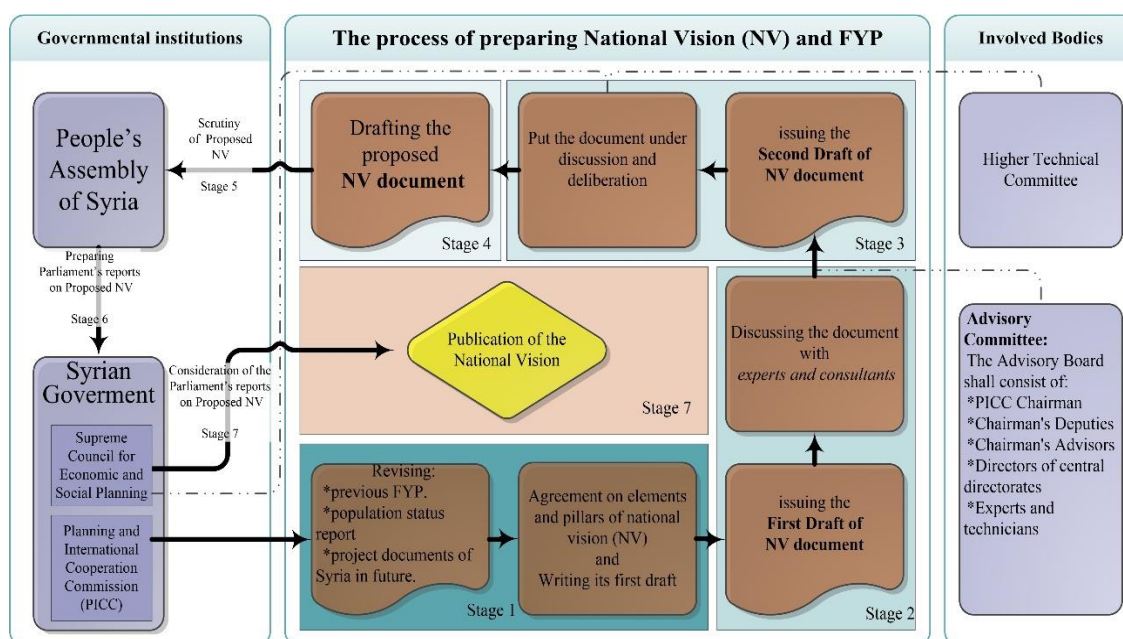
Figure 6.6: The methodology of preparing the National Vision (NV) in Syria.
Source: Author's Original, based on information derived from State Planning Commission, 2009.

Regional and local

In Syria, there was no legislative or legal framework defining regional planning frameworks until the advent of Law No. 26 of 2010. This law defines in its first article the importance of regional planning in "organising planning process and regional spatial development throughout the Syrian Arab Republic" (Law No. 26, 2010, Art 1). Under this law, a specialised body was established to study regional planning in Syria called the 'Regional Planning Commission' (RPC); the RPC is directly linked to the Council of Ministers. The main tasks of RPC are to prepare the national framework for regional planning (NFRP) and regional plans (RPs) emanating from it. Since its establishment in 2010, RPC has worked on creating NFRP. In 2012, the first draft of this framework was announced, and an executive summary of the plan was issued (RPC, 2012). Law No. 26 (2010, Art 17) specifies the procedures which must be followed to create the NFRP; see Figure 6.7 below. The New NFRP defines a set of key pillars of regional development in Syria which seek to address the growing spatial development imbalances over the past decades and preserve and sustain the current gains through a balanced and sustainable spatial vision of economic and social development (RPC, 2012).
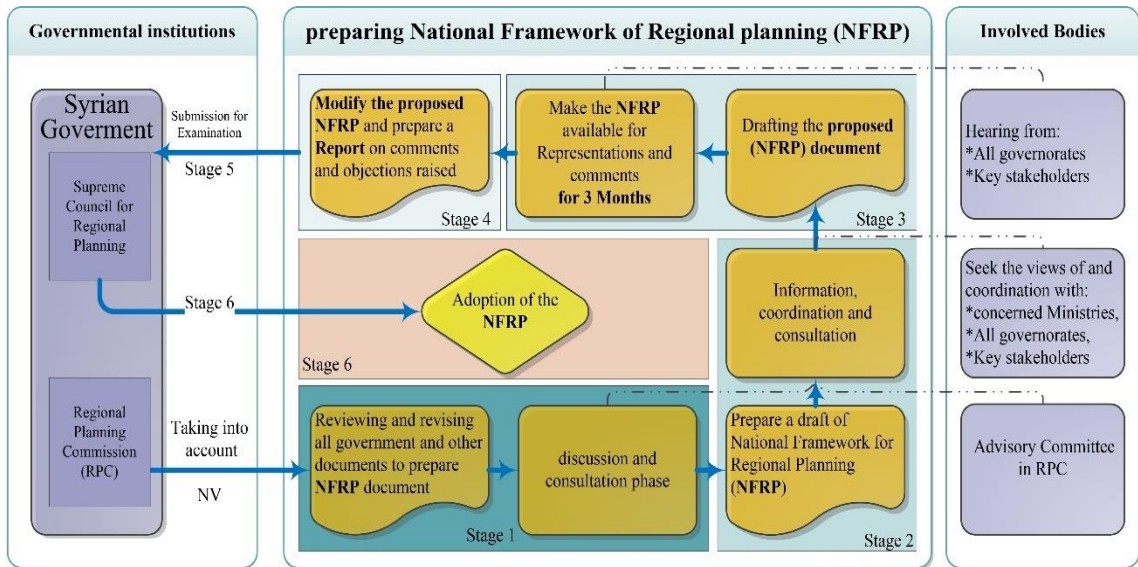
Figure 6.7: The methodology of preparing the National Framework for Regional Planning.
Source: Author's Original, based on information derived from Law No. 26, 2010, Art 17.

One of the essential elements of the NFRP is the division of Syria into seven main planning regions Figure 6.8. This is considered a turning point in the history of the Syrian planning system as, for the first time, the concept of 'planning regions' was adopted (RPC, 2012).
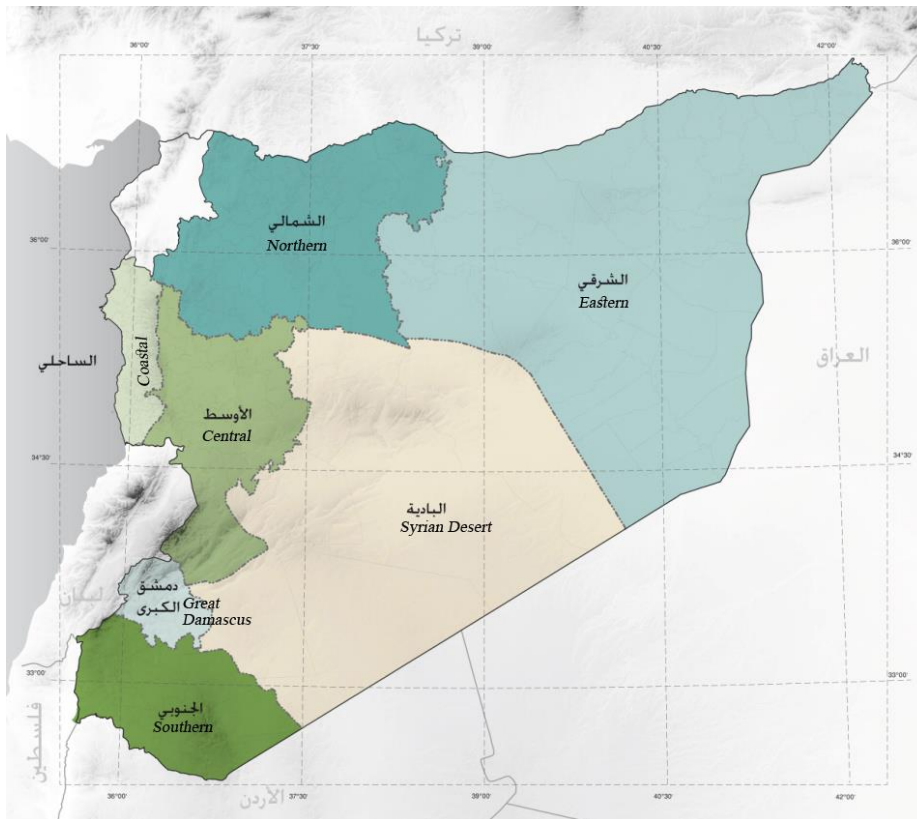
Figure 6.8: The seven planning regions in Syria
Source: The Executive Summary of the National Framework for regional planning (RPC, 2012, P. 16).

At the local level, Legislative decree No.5 requires each governorate and its administrative bodies to prepare the following documents for each urban agglomeration within their administrative border:

- Planning program Report: This program determines the current and future needs of an urban agglomeration according to the foundations of urban planning. The program identifies the population, density, type, and enumeration of required services and public buildings.

- Land-Use Plan (Structure plan): This plan shows the future vision of an urban area and its expansion by defining the physical urban boundaries, the main road network and the land use of all lands within it and its building system in line with the general foundations of the urban planning system and building system.

- General detailed plan (Master Plan): This plan specifies all planned details of the main and subsidiary roads network, pedestrian paths, public spaces and all the physical urban details of each land according to the use allocated in the master plan in a way that does not conflict with the Land-Use plan and building system.

Figure 6.9 illustrates the planning policy framework in Syria at different levels.
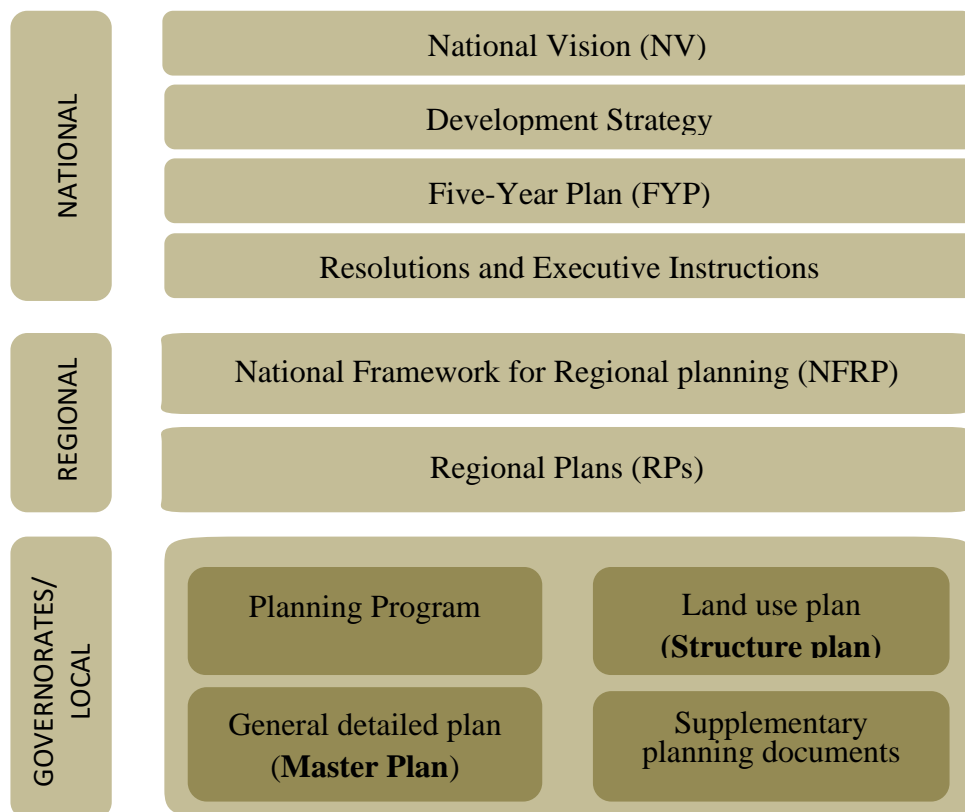
Figure 6.9: The planning policy framework in Syria.
Source: Author's Original, based on Law No. 26, 2010; legislative decree No.5,1982; State Planning Commission, 2009.

In Syria, the Ministry of Public Works and Housing, with support from the Ministry of Local Administration and Environment and Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, are responsible for town and city planning activities. Since the planning system determines the future vision of the country's political, social, economic, and environmental aspects, many different departments are involved in the planning functions (Agriculture, Tourism, Trade, Industry, etc.). In general, most of the bodies engaged in urban planning activities are public bodies and institutions or private agencies that have been contracted to accomplish works belonging to public bodies. A review of the bodies that make up the Supreme Council for Economic and Social Planning (see Appendix 6-3) and the Supreme Council for Regional Planning shows that these bodies include ministries of government, various federations, trade unions and popular organisations (Prime Ministry, 2018). In other words, all urban planning activities are in the hands of governmental organisations. Table 6.2 shows the classification by level of planning organisations and their tools, instruments and documents in Syria.

Table 6.2: Overview of policy, instruments and organisations of planning in Syria.

Level	Bodies/Organisations	Documents/ Plans
National	• Syrian Government • PICC	• National Vision (NV) • Five Year Plan (FYP)
Regional	• Regional Planning Commission (RPC)	• National Framework for Regional planning (NFRP) • Regional Plans (RPs)
Local	• Governorate (Executive office of Governorate council)	• Planning Program • Structure Plan • Master Plan

Source: Author's Original, based on (State Planning Commission, 2009; Law No. 26, 2010 & legislative decree No.5).

6.3.2 Acts and Regulations:

The key legislation that controls and regulates urban development planning in Syria is Legislative Decree No.5/82 and its amendment Law 41/02. This Legislative lay down the main procedures to be followed for establishing and issuing structure and master plans and building systems adopted by administrative authorities in the country and

determining the level of power of both central and local authorities. In 2011, the Syrian government appointed a committee to study and amend Legislative Decree No. 5/82. According to the DP-News (2011), quoting the Chairman of the Committee that the most significant amendments proposed are "the engagement of the local community in the preparation process of the Master Plans, and give the localities a significant role to study it" (DP-News, 2011, Para. 3). Although the Committee has been in operation since 2011, Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982 remains the fundamental law of urban planning in Syria and is still in force; below is a detailed study of the law.

Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982:
Legislative Decree No. 5 (1982) consists of 13 articles highlighting essential procedures necessary for issuing Planning program Reports, Structure/Master Plans and building regulations adopted by administrative authorities in the country, specifying the role of the central and local authorities in this regard. Some articles of this legislation have been amended by Law No. 41 of 2002 (the amendment included Articles 5,7,8, and 10). In Article II, the law requires the Ministry of Public Works and Housing to set up and adopt **urban planning foundations** within the country's comprehensive national and regional planning framework and be issued by decree. Article III illustrates the steps to be followed to create the **planning program** report. Each administrative authority must set up a planning program for each urban agglomeration in line with urban planning foundations. Then, the program is submitted to the ministry for approval or amendment within 20 days. Pursuant to Articles (4-5-6-7) of the decree, the draft of **Structure/Master Plans** goes through several stages, from its formulation and creation to the announcement, notification, amendment and ratification. For a more visual illustration of the process, see Figure 6.10. The remaining articles of the Decree, some of which discuss the administrative procedures to be taken in case of amendments to the ratified plans, while other Articles are concerned with administrative, legal and financial matters governing the work of the Decree.

Other regulations and Laws:
McAuslan and Safadi (2007), in their study on urban planning in Syria, have cited that there is a substantial list of legal instruments, regulations and laws directly or indirectly relevant to urban planning. They differentiate between laws that concern urban management and those related to urban planning. For the purpose of their study, they have limited the scope of laws under investigation to those related to urban planning as follows:

- Law on Urban Planning No. 5 of 1982 as amended by Law 41 of 2002;

- Law on Partitioning, Organisation and Construction of Cities No. 9 of 1974;

- Law on Expropriation, No. 20 of 1983;

- Law on Expropriation of Urban Extension Regions except in the City of Damascus, No.60 of 1979 as amended by Law 26 of 2000;

- Law on Illegal Buildings No. 1 of 2003;

- Law on Building on Plots No. 14 of 1974 as amended by Law 59 of 1979;

- Decree on imposition of improvement charge on real estates No. 98 of 1965

Safadi (2008) indicates that Law No. 9 of 1974 has established the legal basis to regulate the urbanisation process in the country; Law No.14 of 1974, as amended by Law 59 of 1979, for the reconstruction of all lands located inside the master plan borders; and Law No. 60 of 1979 as amended by Law No. 26 of 2000 for Expansion areas. In addition to all laws mentioned above, Law No. 20 of 1974 sets up the legal procedure for the compulsory purchase of properties and real estate for public benefit (People's Assembly of Syria, 2018a). All these laws have been preceded by the Administrative Order No. 9/25/13 of 1965, which obligates that all those who wish to build any property must obtain building permission to keep urban sprawl under control (Safadi, 2008).

In 2015, Law No. 23 on implementing planning and urbanisation was issued. The promulgation of this law led to the repeal of Law No. 9 of 1974 and its amendments and Law No. 60 of 1979 and its amendment by Law No. 26 of 2000 because Law No. 23 of 2015 effectively supersedes both laws (People's Assembly of Syria, 2015).

For the purpose of this thesis, the researcher has presented a detailed study of the primary urban planning law (Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982 as amended by Law 41 of 2002) as the main law defines the procedures for establishing local Master Plans and more importantly to identify all stakeholders, bodies and participants in their preparation process.

In addition, and to shed light on the planning process at different national, regional, and local levels, the researcher has created Figure 6.10. It illustrates all procedures needed and organisations and bodies involved in establishing all planning documents at all levels and explains the linkage and cooperation between all these levels. This figure presents a proposal to develop a comprehensive Act and legislation for the urban planning process in Syria.
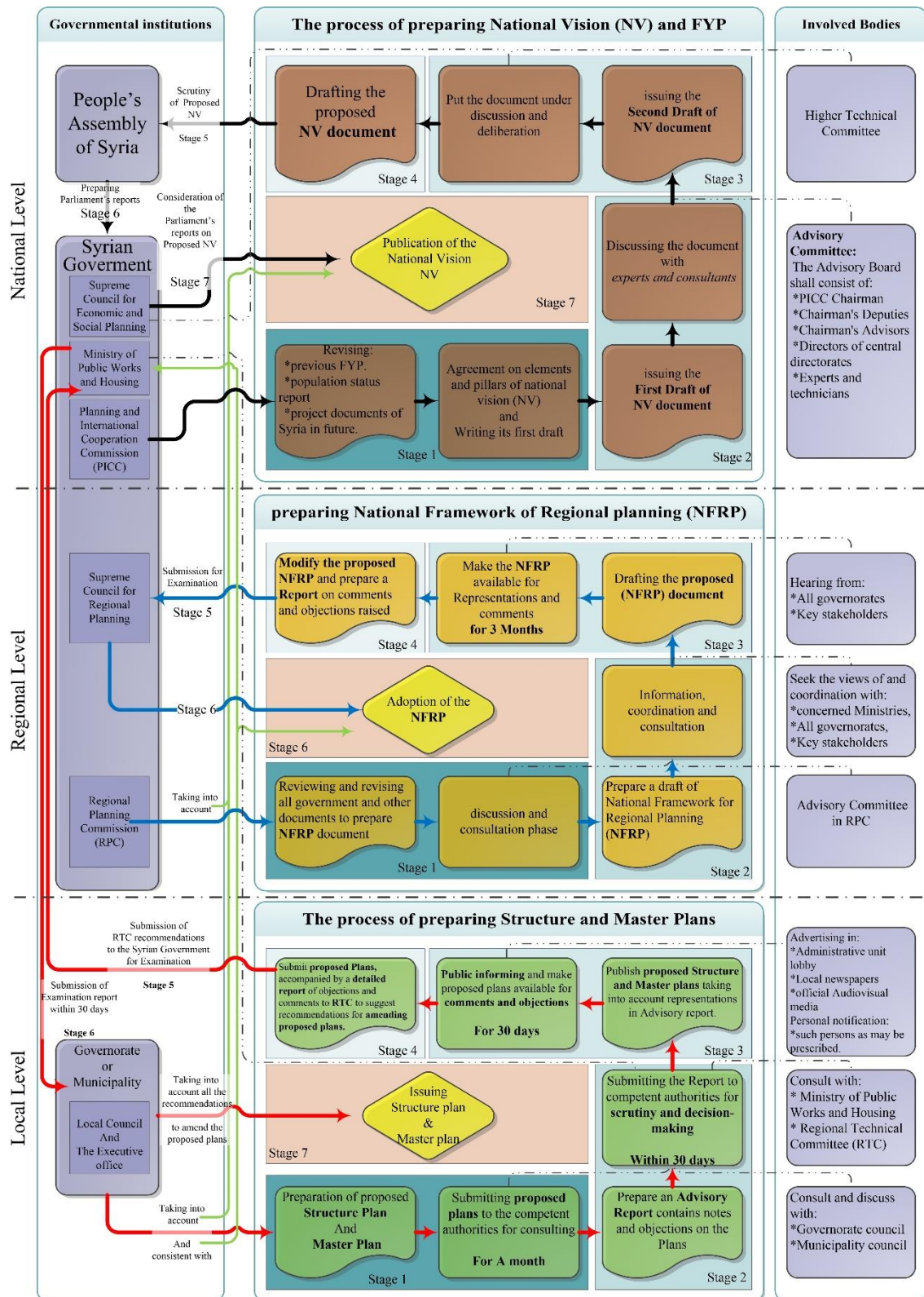
Figure 6.10: Decision-making process in the Syrian urban planning system.
Source: Author's Original, based on (Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982; Law No. 26, 2010 and State Planning Commission, 2009).

6.4 The Contribution of Public Participation Within the Planning Process

As mentioned earlier in this research, see the administrative system under 6.2.1. Syria is described as a centralised unitary state where the central government manages all

country's affairs. Thus, public participation in decision-making tends to be at its lowest levels (McAuslan and Safadi, 2007). Many researchers (McAuslan and Safadi, 2007; Mehchy and Kabbani, 2007; Mitchell, 2010; Hassan, 2010; Hasan, 2012) stressed the importance of activating the role of public participation as it helps the country overcome decades of heavy central planning in which development authority is mainly in the hands of a strong central government. On the other hand, public participation is considered a core point to achieving good urban governance that leads to good local planning, which accelerates the development process (Graham et al., 2003; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), 2009).

However, in the first decade of the twenty-first century, Syria has tried to achieve an essential shift in its policies and procedures to implement the concept of public participation in different sectors and was determined to move toward more decentralization. That was its clear policy in the 10th FYP by adopting the "human-development-first principle […] which allows Syrian citizens to stand up for their economic, political and social rights. That will also lend support to democratic and popular participation of all effective social forces and other diverse groups from all walks of life" (State Planning Commission, 2005, p.6). The intention for more participatory policies was evident in the 10th FYP, followed by the issuing of legislative decree No. 107 (2011), the Local Administration Act (2011), which makes decentralisation a legislative and legal requirement by issuing a national plan of decentralisation.

The 10th FYP, *the last plan implemented in Syria before the war,* came with a different vision based on the abandonment of the centralised and compulsory planning process and the adoption of the indicative planning policy instead, "This means that the state will orchestrate investment and market activities rather than dominate or control them."(State Planning Commission, 2005, P. 3). In addition, the plan emphasised that the achievement of high growth rates at the expense of any social or environmental cost must not be tolerated; thus, It has put up the slogan of "Human development First" as a priority.

The adopted approach of the 10th plan, "indicative planning policy", shows that the state was working to strengthen both spheres of the society and the market. This entails that "development process responsibilities should not be limited to the central government with the blame put on the state for planning implementation tasks. Responsibility must be multilateral and will have to include the private sector, provincial governments, NGOs and civil society groups." (State Planning Commission, 2005, P. 13). Accordingly, The

10th FYP defined the responsibilities of each player (Central government, Governorate, private sector, non-governmental sectors and civil society organizations) in the plan implementation; for more details about each player's role, see State Planning Commission (2005)).

At this stage of the research, after browsing and critically reviewing the main laws, legislations, orders, legislative decrees, and Acts that control and affect the urban planning system in Syria, the researcher has designed Figure 6.11, which shows the chronological evolution of public participation in the planning process. The beginning was with the advent of the Agrarian Reform Law, which emphasised the distribution of land and granting individuals property rights, followed by the administrative order, which engaged individuals in urban sprawl control by gaining building permission. Then, Legislative Decree No. 5 made public notification of development plans a statutory element of the planning system and granted individuals the right to comment and object to the proposed plans. The latest of these laws is the Local Administration Act (2011) which presented a national strategy for decentralisation in the country.
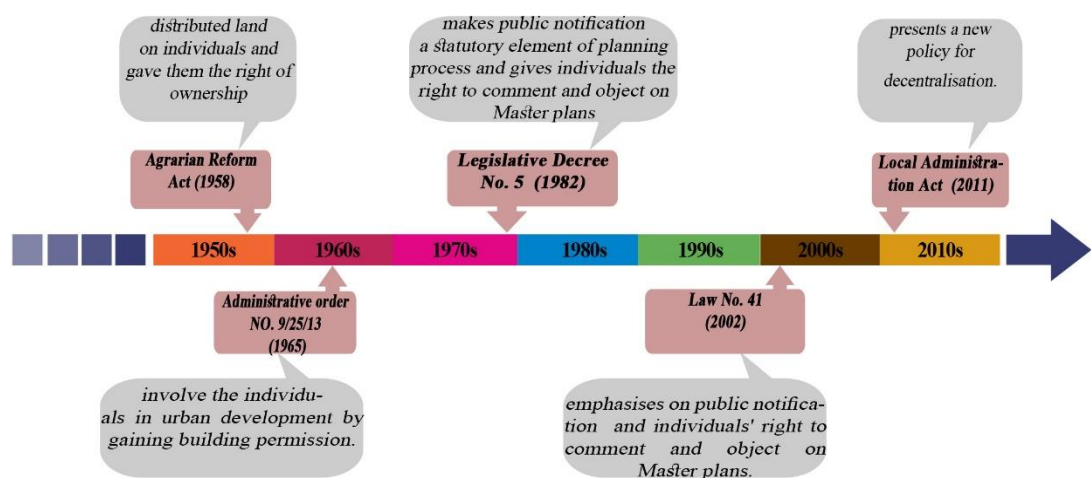
Figure 6.11: The Timeline of public participation evolution within the urban planning system in Syria. Source: Author's Original, based on Syrian laws, Acts and regulations.

6.4.1 Public Participation within the Legislative Decree No.5 of 1982

The critical review of law No.5 by the researcher, illustrated in Figure 6.10, shows two main phases of participation within the Master Plan formulation process.

- Firstly, the early engagement phase is limited to administrative units' councils (Governorate or Municipality council) and experts nominated by the government.

At this phase, the members of local councils give their views and comments on proposed plans. Then a specialised committee (Regional Technical Committee (RTC))[66], under the supervision of the Ministry of Housing, will consider all the comments and reviews submitted in the advisory report.

- Secondly, informing, publicity and representation phase, at this stage, proposed plans will be publicly available for comments and objections. Then RTC will study all the objections raised and submit its report to the Ministry of Housing for scrutiny, which will provide its final recommendations to local councils for the modification of proposed plans.

According to Arnstein's ladder, the public participation level within the primary Syrian planning law reaches to informing level; Figure 6.12 illustrates it.
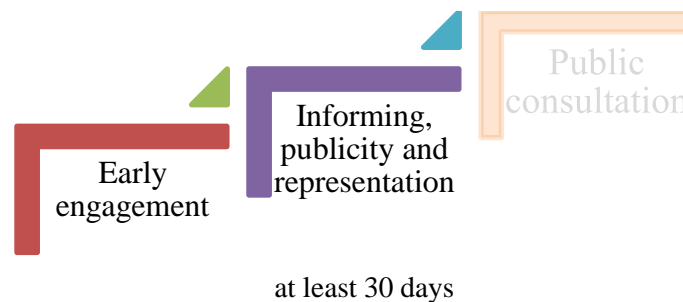
Figure 6.12: Public participation level within the planning system in Syria.
Source: Author's Original, based on the Legislative Decree No.5 of 1982.

In addition to the local level, Figure 6.10 illustrates the process of formulation of planning documents at regional and national levels. Through critical scrutiny of the Figure, the researcher notes and concludes that public participation in the formulation and creation of planning documents at regional and national levels does not exist. Yet, it is limited to governmental organisations and other experts nominated by the government. Table 6.3 shows the opportunity for the public's participation at all different levels.

Table 6.3: How early is the public involved in the formulation of planning documents?

Level	Early Engagement	Informing and representation
National	No	No
Regional	No	No
Local	No	Yes

Source: Author's Original, based on Figure 6.10.

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[66] Because of the importance of RTC to study the objections submitted by both the council representatives and local people, a detailed explanation of its structure is in Appendix 6-4.

6.5 Conclusion

This conclusion summarises the most important points that have been reviewed, addressed and discussed in this chapter.

Firstly, this chapter has provided a critical review of the main forces (i.e. political, economic and social/cultural) of Syrian society that affect the planning process in the country and comes as an answer to question 2.1 of the second objective of this study.

After critically reviewing, studying and analysing the main three spheres of the Syrian society (state, market and society), the researcher concludes that *Syria is governed by Semi-presidential democracy with broad executive and procedural powers in the president's hands. Its Economy is based on Socialism, where the market is heavily state-run controlled, and The Syrian population is perceived as a fragmented society with high internal collectivism*. Figure 6.13 gives a detailed visual illustration of all Syrian society forces.

Secondly, considering national settings constitute the incubator environment for planning practice and influence it through policies, Acts and regulations. Thus, an in-depth review of all policies, Acts and regulations that control the planning system in the country has been conducted in this chapter as a response to question 2.2 of the second objective of this study. This review illustrates the hierarchy of the planning system in the country, starting from the national level by setting up the National Vision (NV) and the FYPs, to preparing and creating NFRP and development plans at regional and local levels, respectively.

Here is noted that the planning system in Syria is based on a long-term spatial economic vision where its long-term and short-term goals are outlined by DS and FYP documents. It is implemented at the local level by Structure and Master Plans. Using the diagram created by the researcher (Table 3.2), a critical evaluation of the current planning system in Syria falls within the second paradigm. The nature of the planning system is a flexible vision with specific actions, and the main planning techniques include structural plans, action plans and special development areas.

Based on the above and the adopted scale in Table 3.2, the Syrian planning system is based on the Rationalism approach. It is classified as the Synoptic planning model, mainly involving the government and the private sector in creating planning documents.
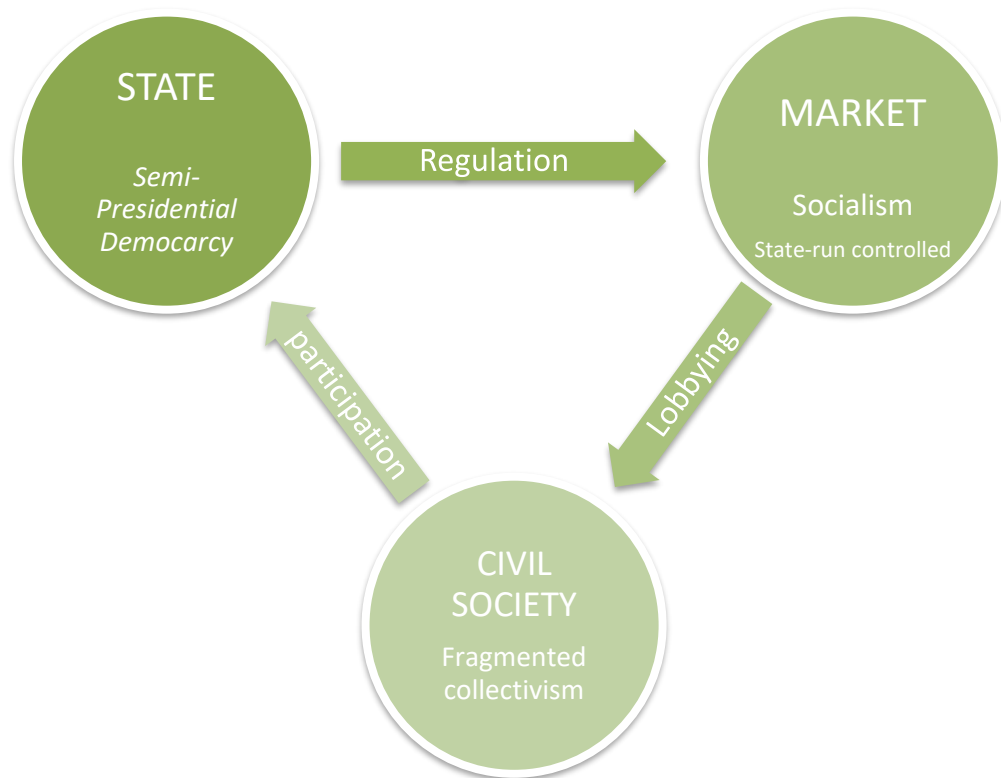
Figure 6.13: The main characteristics of the Syrian main society forces.
Source: Author's Original based on Figure 3.1.

Thirdly, in terms of public participation, the Synoptic planning model ensures the public is informed and emphasises the importance of unitary public interest. Here and with the comparison with the level of public participation within the primary urban planning law in Syria (Legislative Decree No. 5), the study concludes that the Law achieves the level of informing (See Figure 6.12). Overall, ***the planning System in Syria is based on the Rationalism approach and falls under the Synoptic planning model where the level of public participation merely reaches the informing level.*** This conclusion comes with an answer to question 2.3 of the second objective of this research.

At this point of the research, and according to the adopted analytical framework Figure4.5, the first two dimensions (National settings and planning structure) in both chosen countries (UK-Scotland and Syria) have been critically addressed, studied and analysed. By following the adopted analytical framework and covering the third dimension of this study (planning practice), The next chapter will put Edinburgh Local Development Plan under study to investigate and analyse the level of public participation within the Scottish planning system in practice.

Chapter Seven: Edinburgh Local Development Plan under Study

7.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates planning practice in the selected case study in Edinburgh, Scotland, the UK. Considering the positionality and reflexivity in this research (see 4.6.2), the researcher was interested in studying the experience of Edinburgh's new Local Development Plan (LDP) not just because he resides in the city but due to the importance of the new LDP. The new LDP is the first plan in over 30 years that covers the whole of the council area, and it provides a clear and consistent planning framework and sets out policies and proposals relating to the development and use of land in the Edinburgh area (The City of Edinburgh Council, 2016a). By studying Edinburgh's LDP, the researcher investigates whether the legal procedures mentioned in 'the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006' regarding public participation have been observed and applied in practice. This chapter seeks to find answers to all questions raised by the third objective of this research: *Critically assess the effectiveness of public participation in urban planning in practice within the Scottish planning context.*

3.1. Who is engaged in the urban planning process in the UK-Scotland?

3.2. What opportunities exist for participants to:

- obtain relevant information;
- express their views;
- and make sure that their needs have been fully heard and will be addressed?

3.3. When and at what stage of the urban planning process does public participation occur? How early does it take place?

3.4. How does the public participation process occur? What approaches and methods are used to encourage groups and individuals to participate?

3.5. What is the level of public participation in urban planning in practice?

Chapter Seven begins with a brief background introducing the city of Edinburgh geographically, demographically, and economically. Then, a deep study of the process and methods used to create and formulate the Local Development Plan of Edinburgh City will be undertaken.

In a later section of this chapter, the results of the analysis of primary data collected in Edinburgh will be presented in order to find answers to all questions raised by the third

objective of this research. A summary of the final results will be presented at the end of this chapter under the conclusion.

7.2 A Brief Background of the City of Edinburgh

Edinburgh is Scotland's capital city; it is situated in Scotland's Central Belt to the southeast of Scotland and lies on the Firth of Forth's southern shore (see Figure 7.1). According to National Records of Scotland (2018), the City of Edinburgh is the home to a population of 513,210. This makes Edinburgh the second largest city in Scotland after Glasgow (598,830 inhabitants) and the Seventh in the UK (Office for National Statistics, 2013a). Edinburgh has a great diversity in terms of ethnicities, languages and religions. It is considered one of the multicultural cities in the UK. According to the National Records of Scotland (2013), 91.7% of Edinburgh's population are white (70.2% are Scottish), while the remaining 8.2% include non-white of different ethnicities as Asian, African, Caribbean-Black and others. In terms of religion, Edinburgh has a higher proportion with no religious conviction than any other major city in the UK, where 45% of the population say that they have no religion while 43% of them say that they are Christian believers, other religions make up 5% where Islam is the second largest religion in Edinburgh (National Records of Scotland, 2013). Most of Edinburgh's residents speak English, while a small proportion of the population, 1.9%, cannot. Census statistics show that "13% of the city population speak a language other than English at home, at least part of the time. Polish is a second language for 2.4% of the population" (National Records of Scotland, 2013, P.04)

Edinburgh's economy is the second strongest economy in the UK after London, according to The City of Edinburgh Council (2018). Edinburgh had the highest gross value added per capita in major UK cities in 2016 after London; also, it has the highest percentage of professionals in the UK, with 43% of the population holding a degree-level or professional qualification (The City of Edinburgh Council, 2018). Edinburgh's economy is largely based on the services sectors of banking, financial services, higher education, and tourism.

Based on the above, Edinburgh is a thriving, growing city; it is driven by its assets, which include its citizens, its centres of employment and learning, and its quality of life. This growth needs to be managed, guided and planned for in order to contribute to the development and improvement of the city; that is what the local development plan (LDP) is for.
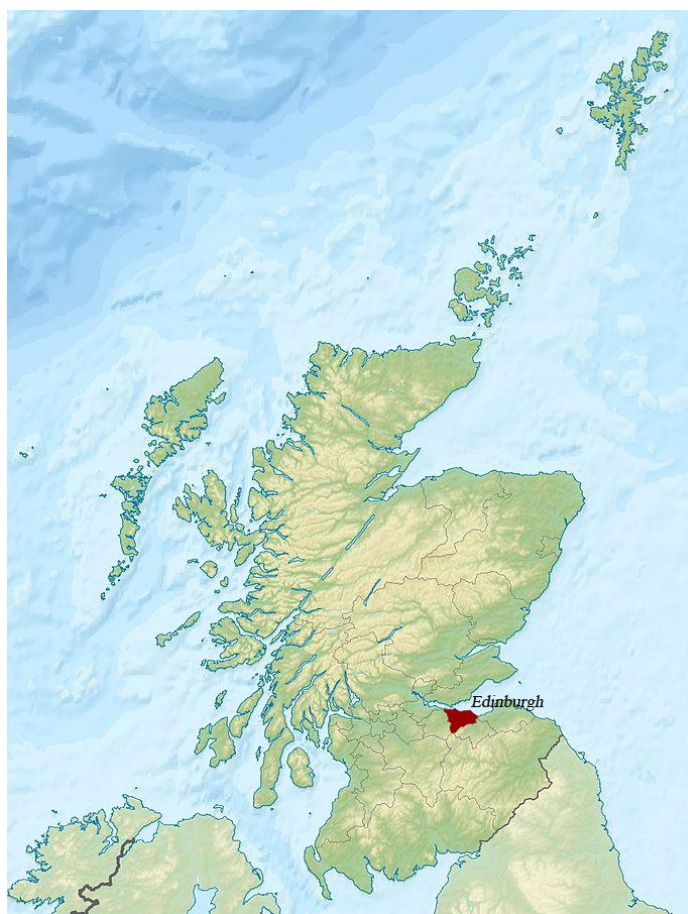
Figure 7.1: Edinburgh Location within Scotland.
Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Edinburgh#/media/File:Scotland_relief_location_map.jpg

7.3 Edinburgh Local Development Plan Under Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006

The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 requires each local council in the country to prepare its own Local Development Plan (LDP), which will establish the basis for decision making on planning applications and lead the development in the area it covers. As discussed and explained earlier in this research (see 5.3.2), the Planning etc. Act 2006 sets out the main procedures and stages to be followed in creating the LDP. According to the Act, The First stage of preparing the LDP is issuing the Main Issues Report (MIR), which seeks views and opinions around policy and development options included in the LDP. This is followed by a statutory period of at least six weeks to discuss and seek views on the issued MIR. The proposed local development plan is then prepared and announced for representations and objections for a statutory period of not less than six weeks. At the final stages of the preparation process of the LDP, the proposed plan is amended in proportion to finding solutions to the representations raised. Then after, it will be submitted to the competent authorities for examination and issuance.

The current and first LDP of Edinburgh was adopted in November 2016. It was planned to be adopted at the end of 2014, but when the Scottish government approved the Strategic Development Plan (SDP) of South East Scotland (SESplan), the new changes in the SESplan necessitated changes in the LDP of Edinburgh, which in turn led to the preparation of second proposed LDP of Edinburgh (The City of Edinburgh Council, 2016a). Figure 7.2 shows the stages of the preparation process of Edinburgh LDP before and after the adoption of the SESplan.
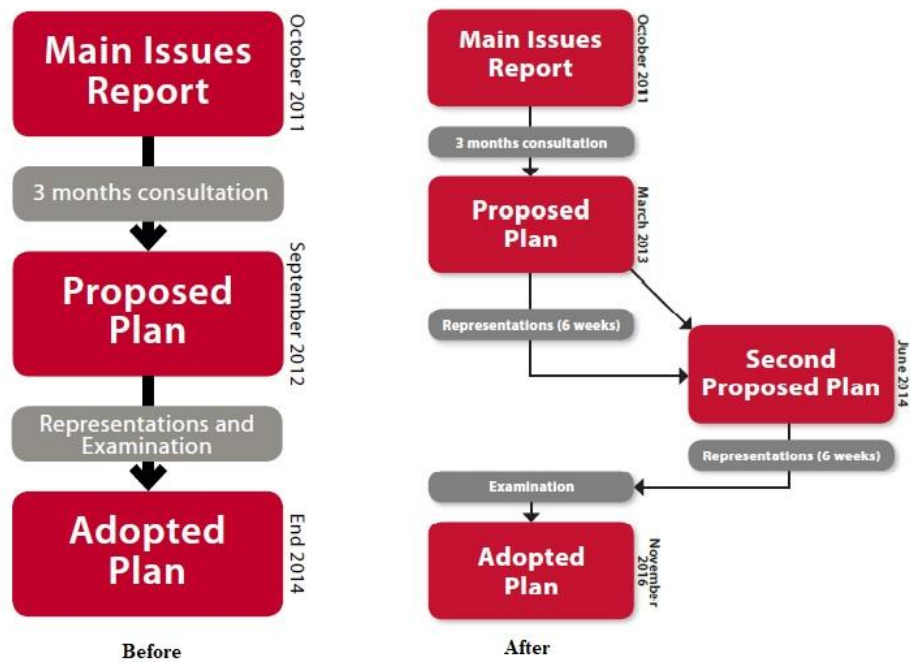
Figure 7.2: Stages of preparation process of the LDP before and after the adoption of SESplan.
Source: Main Issues Report 2011 and Edinburgh Local Development Plan 2016.

The main challenge for the new LDP is to help make Edinburgh the best place for everyone, now and in the future. as cited in The City of Edinburgh Council (2016a, P.07) and in facing this challenge, the LDP aims to:

1. support the growth of the city economy
2. help increase the number and improve the quality of new homes being built
3. help ensure that the citizens of Edinburgh can get around easily by sustainable transport modes to access jobs and services,
4. look after and improve our environment for future generations in a changing climate and

5. help create strong, sustainable and healthier communities, enabling all residents to enjoy a high quality of life.

Figure 7.3 below shows the Spatial Strategy Summary of Edinburgh's LDP.
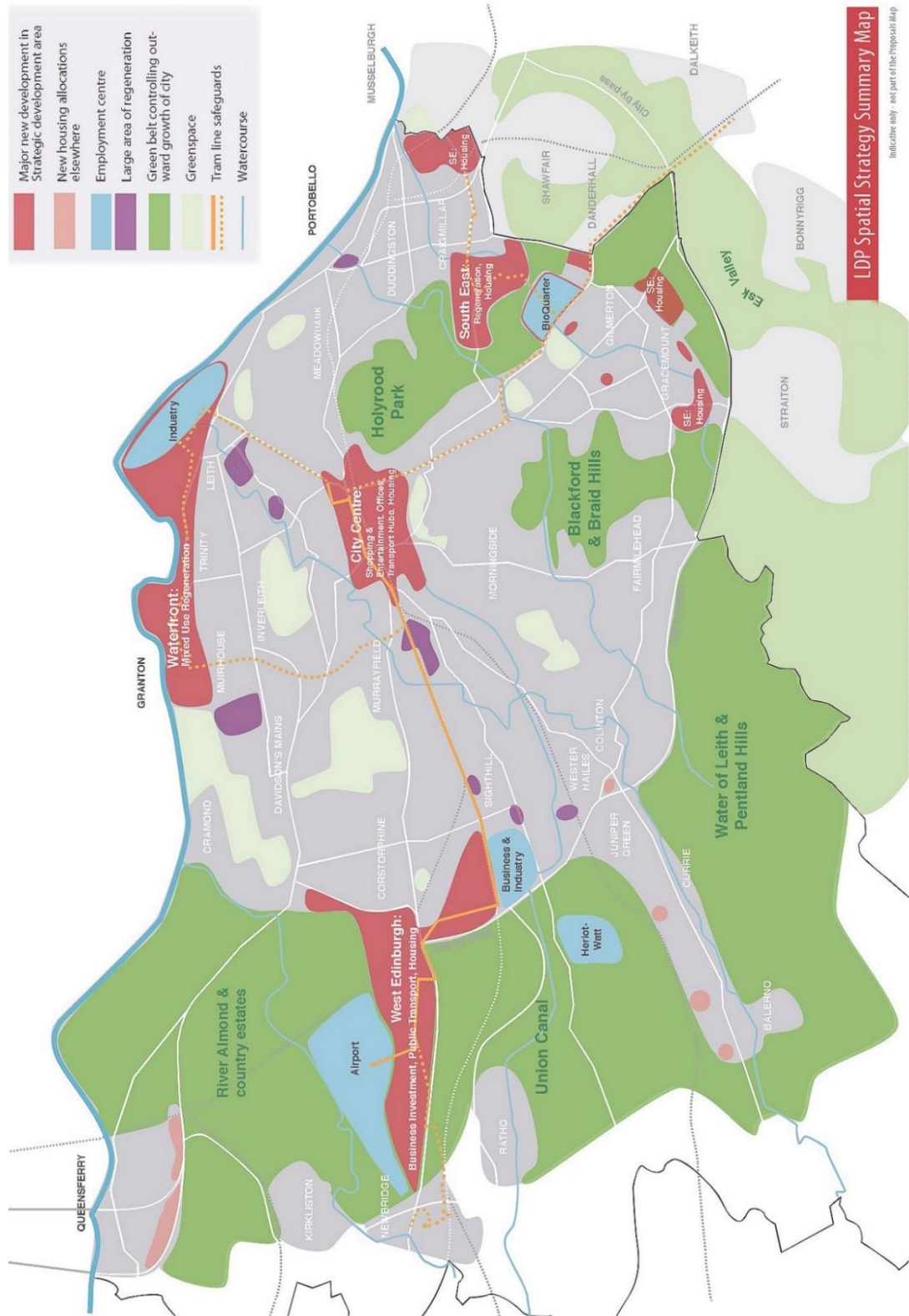
Figure 7.3: Edinburgh's LDP Spatial Strategy Summary Map.
Source: Edinburgh Local Development Plan 2016, P.06.

Since the new Edinburgh's LDP is consistent with the SDP and its Supplementary Guidance on Housing Land and has a key role in helping to meet its aims and deliver its strategy; a summary of the South East Scotland plan (SESplan) will be reviewed in the following section.

7.3.1 The Strategic development plan of South East Scotland (SESplan)

The SESplan members' authorities (City of Edinburgh, East Lothian, Fife, Midlothian, Scottish Borders and West Lothian) are required by the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 to prepare SDP for their area[67] (see Figure 7.4). The current SESplan was approved with modification in June 2013; it consists of three main sections as follows:

- The vision: The Strategic Development Planning Authority of the South and East of Scotland defined the vision of SESplan as "By 2032, the Edinburgh City Region is a healthier, more prosperous and sustainable place which continues to be internationally recognised as an outstanding area in which to live, work and do business." (The Strategic Development Planning Authority, 2013, P.04). To achieve this vision, several aims have been set, which include enabling growth in the economy, enabling delivery of housing requirements, activating sustainable modes of transport, conserving and enhancing the natural and built environment, promoting improved infrastructure, and contributing to the response to climate change.
- The Spatial Strategy: it sets out a structured framework to deliver the vision and the Aims of the SESplan; it defines the future growth in specific local areas within the plan, named Strategic Development Areas (SDAs). The Spatial Strategy focuses on the key components of the economy, housing and infrastructure.
- Framework for Delivery: this framework sets out the means and tools to implement the Spatial Strategy. These means include LDPs and other plans and programs.

The three sections of the SESplan, including the plan's policies, are complementary and must be considered when proposing the new development plans for the six members authorities. In the case of Edinburgh city, its new LDP, which was first proposed in March 2013, was re-proposed again in June 2014 according to the approved SESplan. Under the terms of the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006, Local development plans go through a

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[67] Planning (Scotland) 2019 Act abolished Strategic development plans (SDPs) and introduced a new requirement for all authorities to prepare regional spatial strategies (RSS).

number of key stages during the preparation process until they are ratified (see Figure 5.10). The following section summarises all the key stages of Edinburgh's LDP.

Figure 7.4: Members Authorities of South East Scotland Strategic Development Plan.
Source: SESplan Main Issues Report 2015.

7.3.2 The key stages in preparing Edinburgh's LDP

Main issues report (MIR)
Preparation of Edinburgh's LDP began by producing the Main Issues Report (MIR) in October 2011; the MIR focused on where change is needed, and there is a choice of how to do so and set out the main priorities for the new Plan. The document has identified six main issues to help meet the key aims of LDP, which have been mentioned earlier in this chapter (see 7.3); these issues have been listed in MIR (2011, P.06) as follows:

- Housing
- Infrastructure Provision
- Economic Growth
- Shopping and Leisure
- Quality of Place
- Climate change and Environmental Resources.

In the preparation of the MIR, the Edinburgh council has met with representatives from Key agencies and other stakeholders. After that, the MIR consultation ran from the end

of October 2011 to the end of January 2012, asking for feedback and comments on the MIR.

Proposed plan

The first proposed plan was prepared based on the comments and feedback (more details in 7.4.1) received on the MIR. The proposed plan sets out the required new policies and proposals agreed by the planning committee considering the comments on the MIR. The plan was approved in March 2013 and firstly published in May 2013; then, it was followed by a legislative period of 6 weeks to allow anyone to submit their representations.

Second proposed plan

As mentioned earlier, the proposed plan went through some amendments after the Scottish government approved the SDP of South East Scotland. The approved SDP required Edinburgh's LDP to allocate more housing land; this led to the preparation of the second proposed plan. The plan was approved in June 2014 and published in August 2014, considering all responses and representations received on the first proposed plan with a further opportunity to submit representations before submission to the Scottish Ministers.

Submission to Scottish Ministers

The Second proposed plan, accompanied by a summary of all unsolved representations received, was submitted to the Scottish Ministers at the end of May 2015 for examination. The Examination concluded in June 2016 by publishing the examination report, which suggested several recommendations for changes to the Plan. Edinburgh council published the modified Plan in September 2016 and formally adopted it on 24 November 2016.

7.4 Participation Intentions and Activities Undertaken During Edinburgh's LDP Preparation Process

The Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 Requires Edinburgh's local authority to prepare Participation Statements (PSs) during the preparation process of Edinburgh's LDP (See 5.4.1). Participation Statements set out the range of opportunities for engagement in the key stages of Edinburgh's Local Development Plan preparation and form a crucial part of each of the Development Plan Schemes published during the preparation process. The city of Edinburgh Council (2015) published a Report of Conformity with Participation Statement, which highlighted all planned activities in the PSs and the tools used to achieve them at each stage of the LDP. Below is a review of all these activities covered in the conformity report in each Stage of Edinburgh's LDP.

7.4.1 Main issues report

The consultation phase during the MIR is the main stage in preparing the proposed LDP. The consultations took place from the end of October 2011 to the end of January 2012, during which comments and views were received on all the key issues raised in the report addressing the main policy and development options that could be included in the LDP.

The city of Edinburgh council worked to meet all the engagement intentions which were listed in the participation statement of the MIR; below is a table of engagement intentions and the actions used to meet them as reported in the Report of Conformity (2015):

Table 7.1: Engagement intentions during MIR and the subsequent actions taken to meet them.

Engagement Intention	Engagement Activity
Provide paper copies of all documents at all public libraries and the Council offices.	• Provided paper copies of the MIR, Monitoring Statement and Environmental Report at all public libraries and the Council planning office • Distributed over 1,000 copies of the Main Issues Report.
Post all the documents available on the Council website.	• The council website was used to post the MIR and all documents available, in addition to the details of consultation events and other supporting information. • A slide show video presentation of the MIR was available on the council's website and on screens in planning office receptions and public libraries
Send information out via e-mail and letters	• Copies of the MIR and all associated documents were sent out to statutory stakeholders. • Notification letters and emails were sent out to the engagement database
Send information out through Community Councils and other local networks.	• Copies of the MIR and all associated documents were sent to all Community Council • The Planning team attended meetings of the Edinburgh Civic Forum and individual community council/

	neighbourhood partnership meetings on request
Share information at Staffed exhibitions at public events, markets and shopping centres.	• Staffed exhibitions at shopping centres across the city.
Hold workshops where appropriate	• Consultation workshops and awareness raising events were held in West Edinburgh, South East Edinburgh and Leith. • Retailing and Infrastructure provision: two topic-based workshops involving a range of invited stakeholders. • Met with Key Agencies, Scottish Government and developer/landowners of housing site options. • Edinburgh Youth Issues Forum – presentation and discussion groups.
Use the media to raise awareness	• Statutory advert and articles in Evening News and Planning Newsletter. • Used Twitter (@planningedin) to provide regular updates and raise awareness of consultation events.
Online and freepost questionnaire	• Main Issues Report written with 20 questions included within the document. Opportunity to submit comments online or by post.

Source: Report of Conformity (2015, P. 02).

The consultation period on the MIR concluded with 486 written responses submitted by organisations (e.g. universities, supermarkets, community councils, transport companies etc.) and individuals. All these responses were summarised, recorded, and published in the Summary of Responses to Main Issues Report April 2012. Respondents were notified of this and invited to inform the council if they think the Summary is inaccurate. In addition, all those who have attended consultation and awareness raising events were asked to provide feedback about their participation which will help the planning authority to make improvements for future engagement activities.

All the responses to the MIR were taken into consideration in the formulation process of the proposed LDP.

7.4.2 Proposed plan

The first proposed LDP of Edinburgh, which was published in May 2013, was subject to a statutory period for representations from the 1st of May until the 14th of June 2013; during this period, the planning authority at the City of Edinburgh Council sought to meet the engagement intentions, listed in the participation statement of Edinburgh's LDP, by a number of actions and activities. All these actions and events were recorded in the Report of Conformity (2015); the actions taken are detailed below.

Table 7.2: Engagement intentions during LDP preparation and the actions taken to meet them

Engagement Intention	Engagement Activity
Notify all those who submitted responses to the MIR and others on Mailing list about the proposed Plan.	• Send Notifications
Notify people who live close to new proposed sites	• Send Notifications
Send copies of proposed plan and supporting documents to community council and other groups and place them in public libraries and the Council's Planning Reception.	• Provided paper copies of proposed plan and other supporting documents to community councils and other groups • Place proposed plan and supporting documents in public libraries and the Council's Planning Reception
All documents will be published online.	• All documents were published online on council website along with details of drop-in events.
Drop-in sessions to help the public understand the Proposed LDP and how they can make representations if they wish.	A few drop-in sessions were held to help the public understand the Proposed LDP and how could they make representation in they wished; these were: • South East Edinburgh, Faith Mission Hall, Gilmerton May 9th, 4-7pm • West Edinburgh, Drumbrae Library Hub, May 15th, 4-7pm • General session, Urban Room, Waverley Court, East Market Street,

	• Statutory advert in Evening News and an article in the Council's Planning News.
Use the media to raise awareness	• Slide show video presentation on website.
	• Use of Twitter to provide updates and raise awareness of consultation events.

Source: Report of Conformity (2015, P. 04).

After the consultation period, there were about 2226 representations to the proposed plan submitted by individuals and organisations, most of which sought a change to the proposed plan, and these representations were made available online on the council website.

7.4.3 Second proposed plan

Following the ratification of the SESplan, there was a need to provide more housing land; this requirement led to changes to the first proposed LDP of Edinburgh. Accordingly, the Second Proposed LDP, informed by responses received on the first Proposed Plan and consistent with SESplan, has been prepared.

During the second proposed LDP preparation process, all representations to the first proposed plan with a summary by issue and a map of additional housing were available online on the council website. In addition, focused engagement sessions with Community Council and community groups were held to discuss the reasons and process for the Second Proposed Plan.

Following the publishing of the Second Proposed Plan in August 2014, the planning Authority at Edinburgh council sought to meet all engagement intentions listed in the participation statement in June 2014 through actions and events as listed below:

Table 7.3: Engagement intentions during Second LDP and the actions taken to meet them.

Engagement Intention	Engagement Activity
Everyone who submitted representation or response to Proposed LDP, or MIR will be notified.	• Send Notifications Mailshot involved over 500 letters and 1,700 emails.
Notifying people living next to proposed sites	• Send Notification

	Notification mailshot involved over 12,500 letters.
Send copies of Second LDP and supporting documents to community council and other groups and place them in public libraries and the Council's Planning Reception.	• Provided paper copies of Second LDP and other supporting documents to community councils and other groups • Place Second LDP and supporting documents in public libraries and the Council's Planning Reception
All documents will be published online.	• All documents were published online on council website along with details of drop-in events by 23 August 2014.
Use the media to raise awareness	• Statutory advert in Evening News and an article in the Council's Planning News. • Slide show video presentation on website. • Use of Twitter to provide updates and raise awareness of consultation events.
Drop-in sessions to help the public understand the Second LDP and how they can make representations if they wish.	A few Drop-in session were held: • North West Edinburgh, Rosebery Hall, Queensferry, 26 August, • West Edinburgh, Drumbrae Library Hub, 28 August, 4 - 7pm • South East Edinburgh, Kings Manor Hotel, Milton Road, 1st September • South West Edinburgh, Gibson Craig Hall, Currie, 3 September, 4-7pm • South East Edinburgh, Faith Mission Hall, Gilmerton, 4 September • General session, Urban Room, Waverley Court, East Market Street, 22 September, 4-7 pm

Source: Report of Conformity (2015, P. 05-06).

At the end of the representations' statutory period, representations were received from 2500 individuals and organisations; most of these sought a change to the second proposed plan.

7.4.4 Summary of participation actions

In general, and by reviewing the activities and events undertaken by the Planning Authority in Edinburgh Council to engage the public in the preparation process of the LDP, it was found that the Planning Authority sought to engage and inform the public at each stage of the preparation process of the plan. The most important actions taken by the Authority can be summarised as follows:

1. Make all documents available either as hardcopies or digital copies to the general public and community councils.
2. Use the media to raise awareness about the plan
3. Send the information out via community council, Email or post to:
   - Everyone who might be affected by the new proposed development
   - Everyone who has made a response or representation
4. Drop-in sessions and workshops to help the public understand the Proposed LDP.
5. Online and Freepost questionnaire.

In addition to the above, feedback surveys were collected at each Drop-in session and workshop; a total of 137 responses were received see Figure 7.5 (The city of Edinburgh Council, 2015). Some of the key findings are as follows:
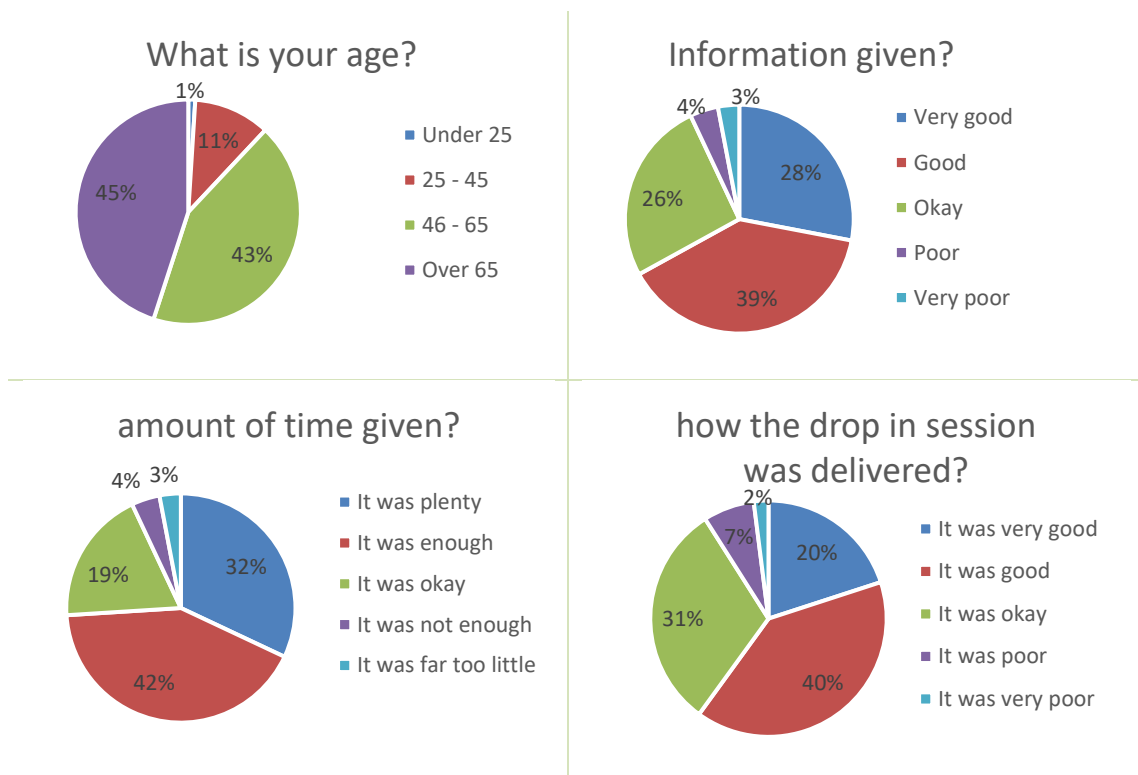
Figure 7.5: Results of Drop-in session surveys (n = 137).
Source: Report of Conformity (2015, P. 06-07).

- Over 85% of respondents were aged 46 and above.
- Over 70% found the information given "very good" or "good."
- Around 74% thought that the time given was adequate and enough.
- Over 60% thought the drop-in sessions were delivered "very good" or "good".

7.5 An Analysis of Public Participation in Practice During the Preparation and Adoption Process of Edinburgh LDP

This section of the study presents the key results of primary data analysis obtained by research questionnaires and interviews in Edinburgh from summer 2013 until summer 2014. One hundred fifty-one questionnaire responses and nine interviews were under study and analysis (for designing, conducting and analysing primary data, see 4.4 & 4.5).

7.5.1 Questionnaire analysis

Questionnaire data analysis shows that the sample involved -all of them- are residents of Edinburgh or nearby villages. Over 70% of participants are aged 45 years old and over, and around a quarter of participants are aged 65 years old and above. Most of the respondents, 85%, own their homes, and the remaining percentage are tenants.
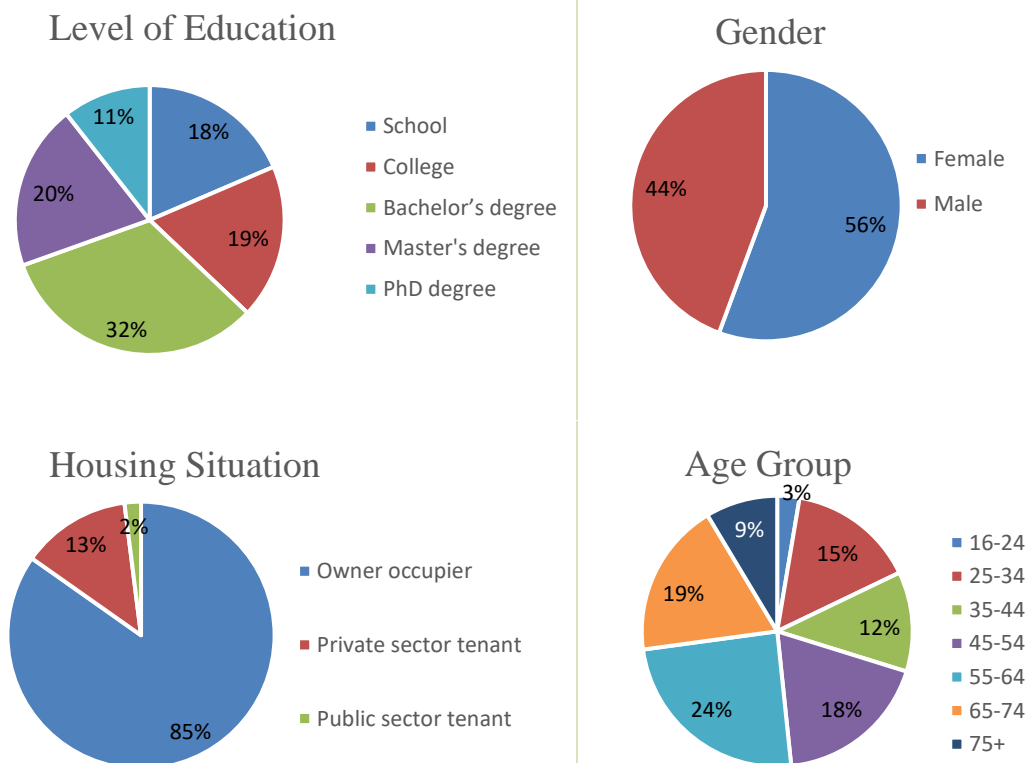
Figure 7.6: Personal information of questionnaire participants in Edinburgh (n = 151).
Source: Author's Original.

The proportion of female respondents was slightly higher than males, 56% and 44%, respectively. In terms of education level, around two-thirds of participants hold a university degree, bachelor's degree and above (more illustration in Figure 7.6).

Most questionnaire responses came from areas close to housing proposals, such as Cammo EH4, Gilmerton EH17 and Maybury EH12, with 35, 34 and 30 responses, respectively, which is a reasonable distribution as the researcher has mainly targeted areas close to new proposals in the new LDP during the distribution of the postal questionnaire. Figure 7.7 shows the distribution of all responses according to the postcode area in Edinburgh.
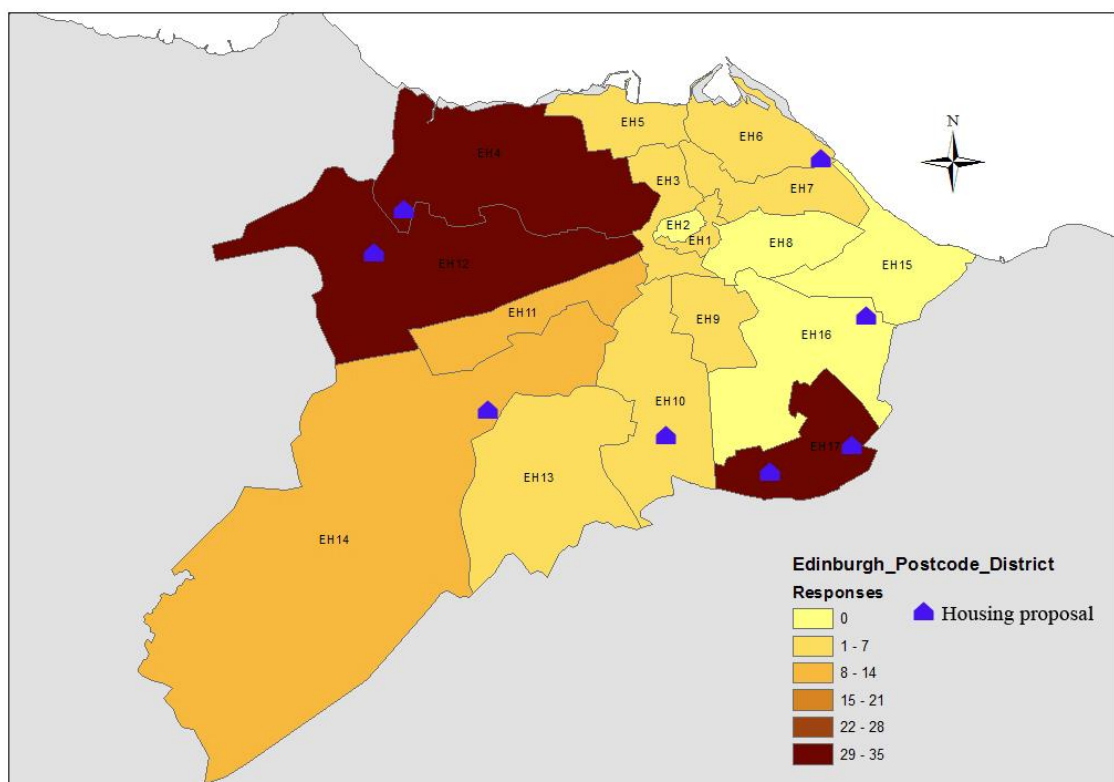
Figure 7.7: The distribution of questionnaire responses according to the postcode area (n = 151).
Source: Author's Original.

In response, how long has the participant lived in Edinburgh? More than three-quarters of participants indicate that they have lived in Edinburgh for more than ten years, and only 10 per cent of participants indicate that they have lived in Edinburgh for three years or less. Therefore, depending on the time the respondents have lived in Edinburgh, the data collected suggests that the participating sample might know the city well. Figure 7.8 illustrates the distribution of participants' ratios according to the time period they lived in Edinburgh and the nature of their work.

Figure 7.8: Respondents' distribution according to living time and work.
Source: Author's Original.

It is clearly shown the majority of respondents had lived in Edinburgh for more than ten years, 34% were retired, and 38% were working.

About one-third of participants indicated that they had previously participated in some planning activities. Most of them (43%) have submitted representation/objections. Others indicated that their career is in planning, and others indicated other planning activities; for more, see (Figure 7.9).
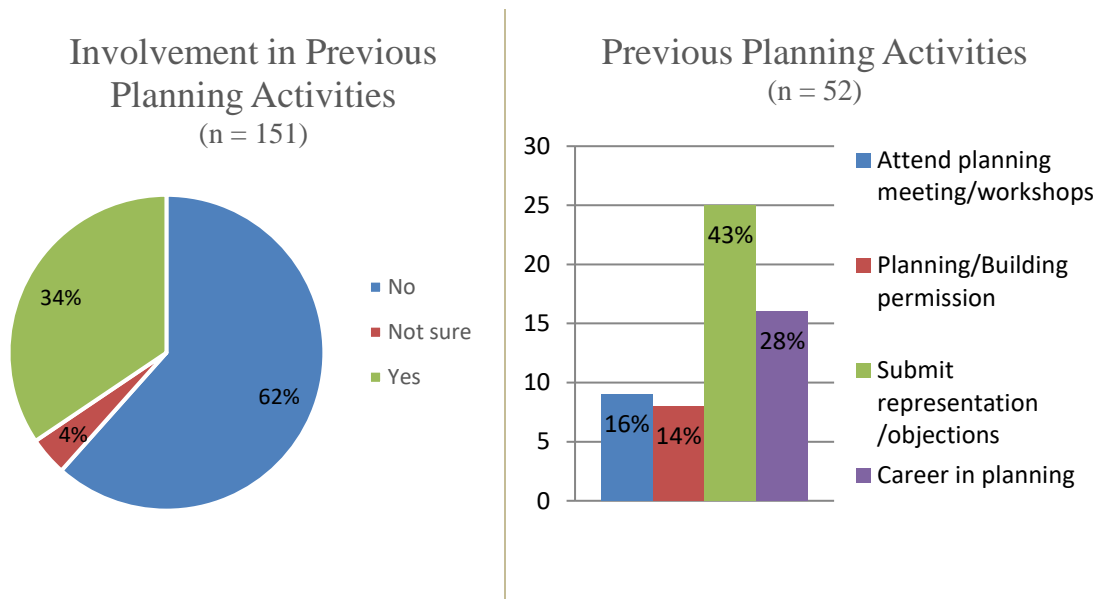
Figure 7.9: Involvement in previous planning activities.
Source: Author's Original.

In order to verify the extent to which the public has been involved in the plan formulation process, the researcher asked all participants, who learned about the new LDP of Edinburgh, a few questions to measure the level of public participation.

About two-thirds of respondents (64%, 96 out of 151 respondents) said they were aware of the new LDP of Edinburgh before (See the adjacent Figure). Most of them got to know about the new plan through the city council either by a letter by post, by attending a meeting or by browsing the council website; other respondents got to know about the plan by other means. Figure 7.10 illustrates all the methods the respondents got to know about the new LDP of Edinburgh.

Have you learned about Edinburgh's new LDP before?
(n = 151)
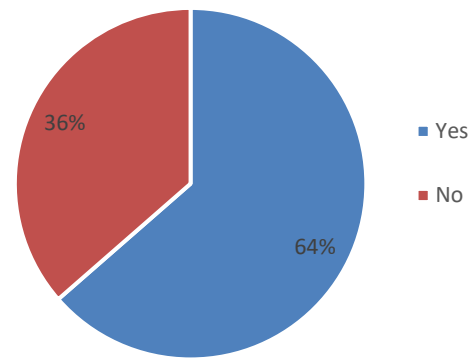
Figure 7.10: People who learned about the new LDP of Edinburgh.
Source: Author's Original.

These figures indicate that the plan's publicity was good, where around two-thirds of participants got to learn about the plan through the council's measures. This result is consistent with what was mentioned before about the methods used to inform and publish the new LDP in the report of conformity published by the council.
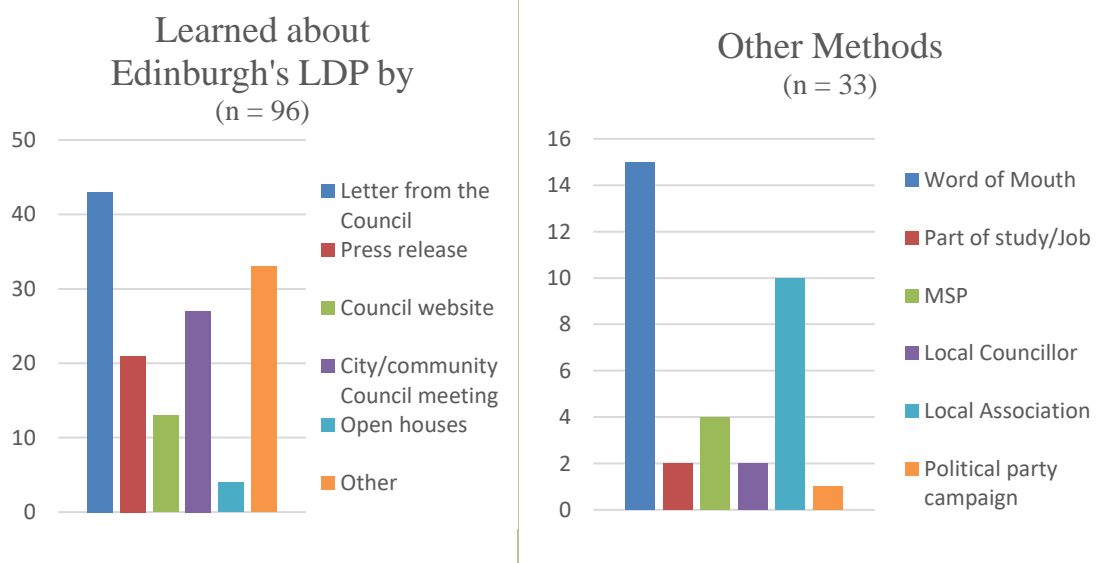
Figure 7.11: How did the respondents know about the LDP.
Source: Author's Original.

Questions 6 to 12 were directed to those who had learned about the new LDP of Edinburgh before filling out the questionnaire. Therefore, the following results represent the views of 96 participants (n = 96). Here, to find out the percentage of the results of the sample of those who knew the plan in advance (96 participants) from the total sample (151 participants), a simple arithmetic operation can be performed as follows:

$$Total\ Ratio = Sample\ Ratio * 0.64$$

Figure 7.11 shows that 64% of respondents indicate that they have been consulted about the new LDP of Edinburgh. Most of them were consulted by residents' meetings, public hearings with 37% and 24% respectively, and other methods. More information is illustrated in Figure 7.11.
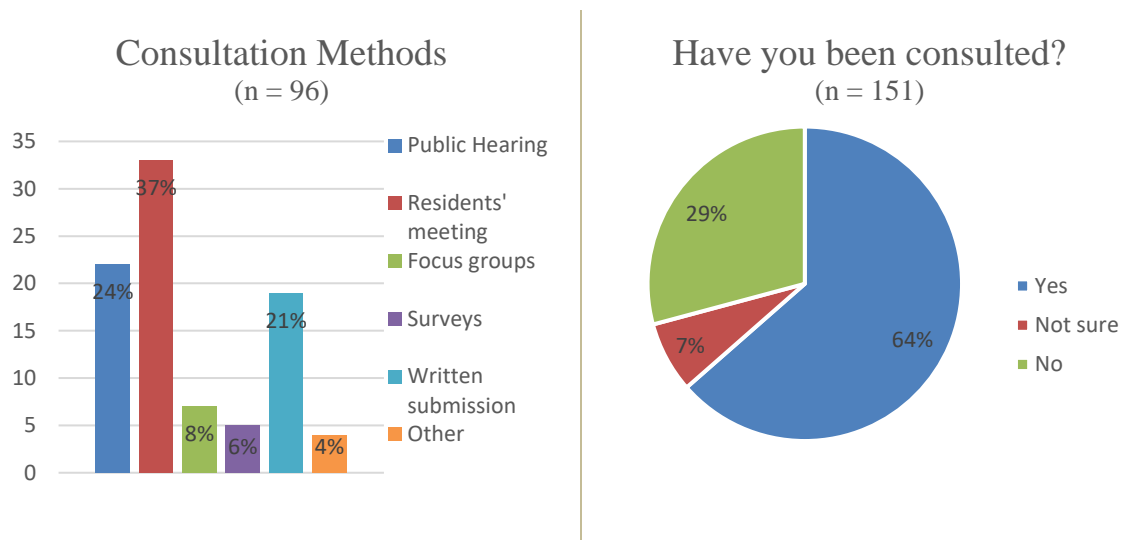
Figure 7.12: Consultation about Edinburgh's new LDP.
Source: Author's Original.

When respondents were asked whether they had been involved in the new LDP preparation process or not, the majority, 81%, responded with 'No', and just 12% (which are 11 participants out of 96) answered with 'Yes'. All those involved in the LDP preparation process indicated that workshops held by the council were their method of participation. More information is in Figure 7.12.

Despite the low involvement ratio in the LDP preparation process, most participants (73%) were either dissatisfied or neutral about their involvement. Interestingly, all participants who were satisfied with their participation (three participants) are/were community/district councillors.
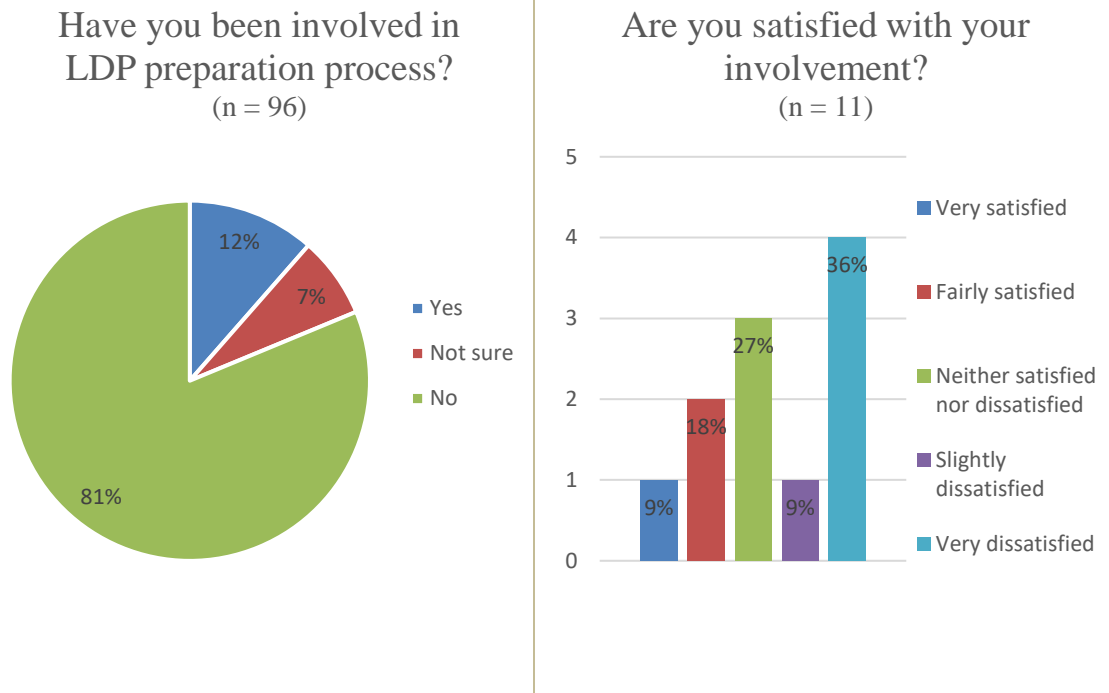
Figure 7.13: Involvement in the LDP preparation process.
Source: Author's Original.

Based on the results above and compared with the IAP2 spectrum of public participation (see 2.3.3), the comparison concludes that public participation in Scottish urban planning in practice reaches the consult level. This finding is in line with what has been concluded by studying and analysing the level of participation in Scotland's Planning Act 2006 (see 5.4.1). Accordingly, *the level of public participation in the Scottish urban planning system reaches the level of consultation in both statutory and practice alike*.

In response to the question as to whether there were barriers that prevented respondents from participating in the preparation process of the LDP or not. 57% of respondents indicated that there were barriers, and only 12% thought there were no barriers, and the remaining proportion was unsure. To analyse the data collected for this question, the researcher has used 'grounded theory', which starts with coding the main concepts in the text and then group-up all similar ideas into one category (for more explanation, see 4.5.1)

Most of those who said there were barriers to participation believe that there are technical problems such as poor information, lack of knowledge or lack of finance, etc. Others believe there are statutory or educational obstacles, more details in Figure 7.13.

Barriers to Participate (n = 96)

- Yes — 57%
- No — 12%
- Not sure — 31%

Main Barriers to Participate (n = 55)

- Technical — 54%
- Statutory — 43%
- Educational — 3%

Barriers to Participate (n = 55)

Barrier	Value
Low public awareness	3 (Educational)
Poor communications	8 (Statutory)
Short Notice	8 (Statutory)
Lack of early participation	14 (Statutory)
Lack of trust	10 (Statutory)
Complexity of planning process	5 (Technical)
Shortage of consultation tools and techniques	8 (Technical)
Poor publicity/ advertising	17 (Technical)
Poor information	20 (Technical)

■ Technical ■ Statutory ■ Educational

Figure 7.14: Main barriers to participating in the formulation process of the new LDP.
Source: Author's Original.

The researcher used Nvivo 12 plus software to run some queries to analyse qualitative data collected in open-ended questions. One of these queries is a word frequency query to investigate the most frequently used words and terms in respondents' answers. Figure 7.14 is the result of running the query on respondents' answers about the barriers they believe exist and prevent them from participating. The figure shows clearly the keywords repeated, such as (Lack, Time, Information, Consultation etc.). The word frequency query confirms the same result that the researcher reached using the grounded theory technique. Both results indicate a lack of information and poor consultation and publicity as the main barriers that prevented the respondents' participation.

Figure 7.15: Main barriers to participating, Word Frequency Query Result (n = 55).
Source: Author's Original, using NVivo 12 Plus.

Most respondents (65%) indicated that they oppose the new LDP, while 17% support it. Most of those who opposed were concerned about green-belt erosion and traffic and infrastructure problems. On the other hand, the supporters indicated that the new LDP is essential to guide and plan the future growth of the city. Figure 7.15 shows the percentage of opponents and supporters of the new LDP and another chart showing the reasons for supporting the new LDP.

Figure 7.16: Respondents' attitude towards the new LDP (n = 96).
Source: Author's Original.

Figure 7.16 has two charts illustrating why 65% of respondents oppose and strongly oppose the new LDP. The first chart (created using word frequency query on Nvivo) clearly shows that green-belt, infrastructure, traffic, and development issues are the main issues of concern, which is precisely the same result of data analysis using the grounded theory on the data in Excel (second chart).

Figure 7.17: Reasons why respondents oppose and strongly oppose the new LDP (n = 62).
Source: Author's Original.

The last two questions about the new LDP were investigating the extent to which the plan has met the current and future needs of the city and the participants' overall impression of the plan. Data analysis shows that 43% thought the plan did not meet the future needs of the city, and 50% believed it is a 'poor' or 'very poor' plan. On the other side, 23%

thought the plan considers the current and future needs of the city, and 17% believed it is a good and very good plan. Figure 7.17 provides more information.

Does LDP take into account the current and future needs of the city? (n = 96)

- No — 43%
- Not sure — 34%
- Yes — 23%

Overall impression of the new LDP of Edinburgh (n = 96)

- Very poor — 26%
- Poor — 24%
- Neither good nor poor — 33%
- Good — 15%
- Very good — 2%
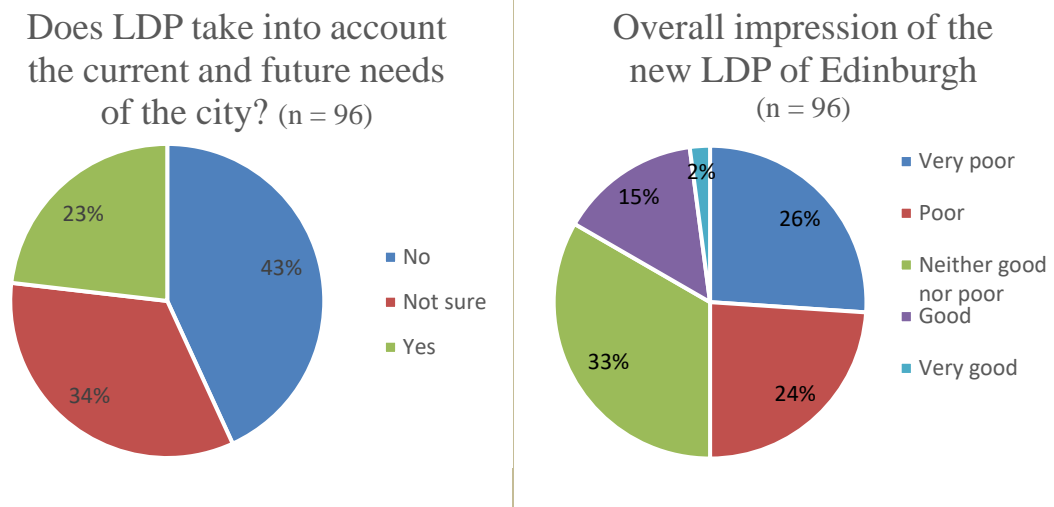
Figure 7.18: Respondents' overall impression of the new LDP.
Source: Author's Original.

Investigate whether respondents who believe the new LDP is 'good' and 'very good' believe that there were barriers to participation in the formulation process of the plan. The results come up as 14 respondents believed the plan is good, and just two thought it is very good; six of them did not believe there were barriers to participation in the formulation process of the plan. While five believed there were barriers (more details in Figure 7.18). Interestingly, the two participants who believed the plan is very good. One of them said there were barriers while the other was unsure; both have governmental jobs in planning.

Overall Impression of New LDP & Barriers (n = 16)

Barriers to participate
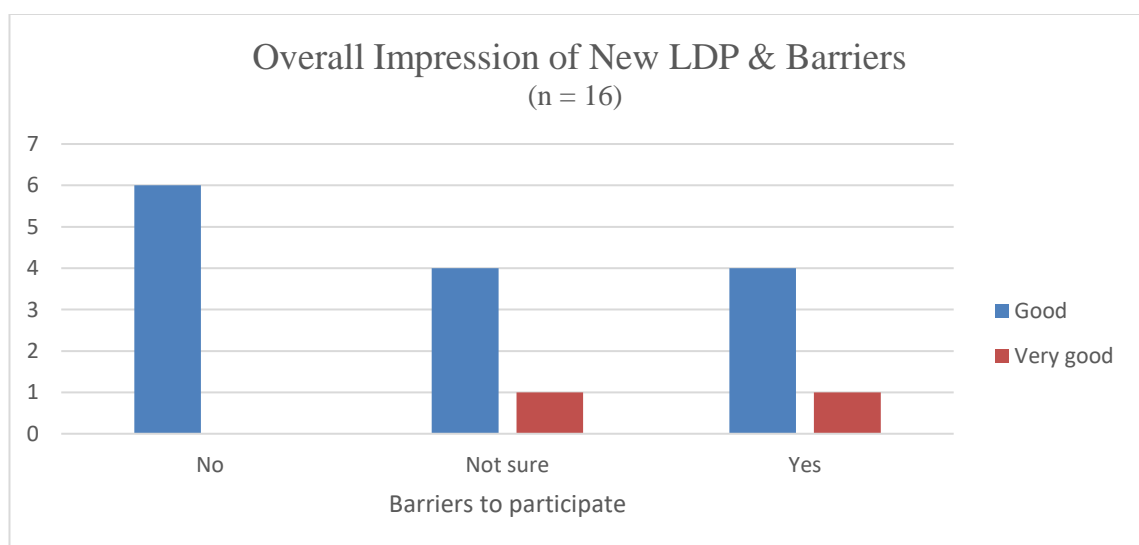
- Good
- Very good

Figure 7.19: Barriers to participating from the perspective of those who think the LDP is Good.
Source: Author's Original.

209

The following results are for questions directed to all participants in general (n =151). The analysis shows that 53% said they were willing to involve in planning activities that would take place in their city, 22% were uninterested, while the rest were unsure (see Figure 7.19). In another question about ways to improve public participation in the local plan formulation process, the results were very close. Participants noted that direct face-to-face meetings with planners and information supplied by the Council would help to improve the participation process (more details in Figure 7.19).
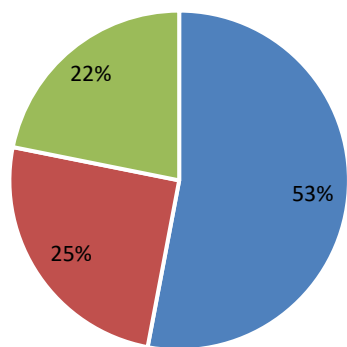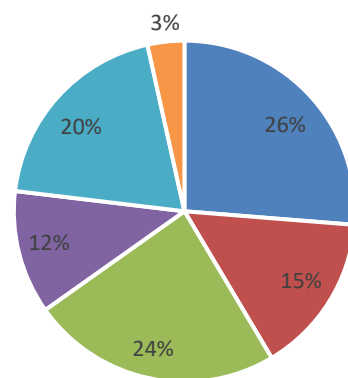
Figure 7.20: Willingness to participate in planning events and ways to improve participation (n = 151). Source: Author's Original.

The Figure above clearly illustrates that more than half of the sample involved are interested and willing to participate in planning events to take place in their area. In contrast, the other half were either uninterested or unsure and here lies the challenge in making people interested in participating in local planning issues. In the other part of the Figure, the results show that people would like to participate through techniques and methods that rely on human and personal communication (meetings, workshops, face-to-face) more than those that depend on the Internet and social networks.

Nearly three-quarters of respondents believe that fostering public participation in planning would improve the quality of local development plans. They are convinced that

local people are aware of the needs and concerns of their area better than planners (More details in Figure 7.20).

If fostering public participation would improve the quality of the LDP?
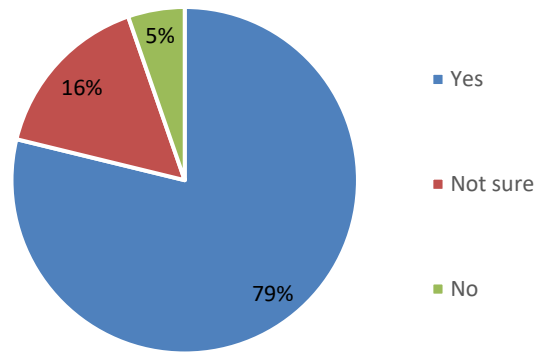
Fostering public participation would improve the quality of the plan because
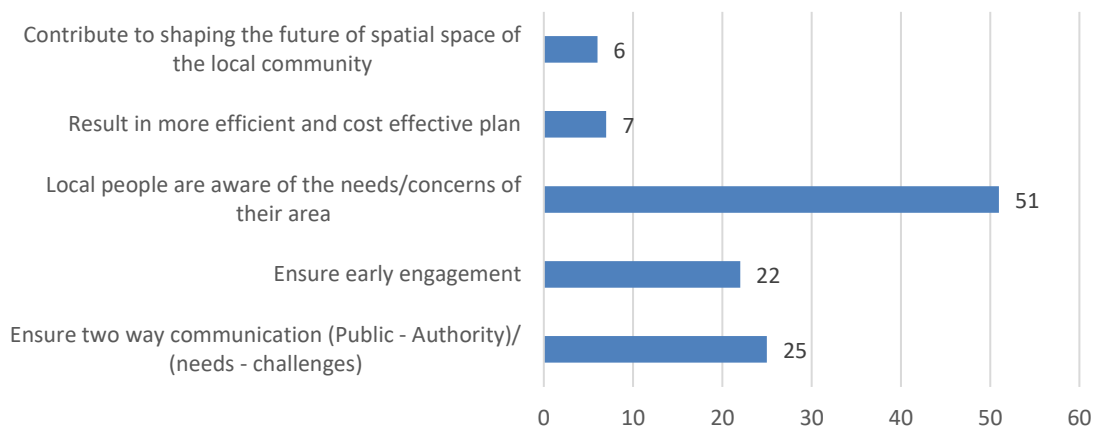
Figure 7.21: Would fostering public participation improve the quality of the plan? (n = 151). Source: Author's Original.

By reviewing Figure 7.21, an exciting result shows by comparing data collected from questions 13 and 14; some respondents indicated that they are uninterested in participating in any planning activities that would take place in their area. Later on, the same respondents pointed out that fostering public participation would improve the plan's quality. Here appears the following question: Why would some people not like to participate in the preparation process of the local development plan of their areas, although they believe that their participation would improve the quality of the plan?
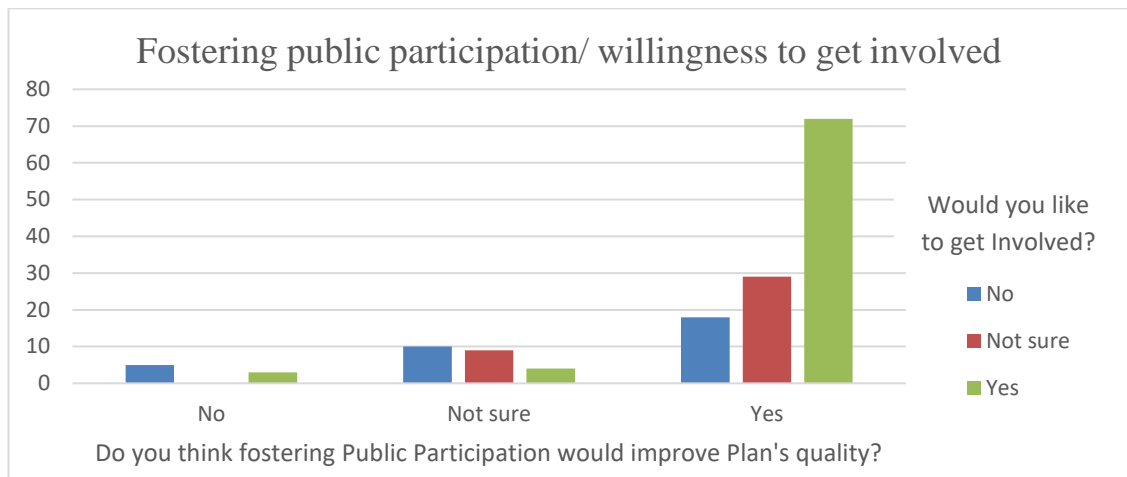
Figure 7.22: Fostering Public participation Vs willingness to get involved (n = 151).
Source: Author's Original.

Probably the following comments from some respondents have the answer to the previous question:

Subject 31
*"There is a level of general apathy and feeling of helplessness to be overcome. '**Even if I get involved it won't make any difference'**"*

Subject 101
*"There have been meetings between planners and local residents, but **we all felt they were listening to our concerns, but no action would be taken**!"*

subject 147
*"**Only if public opinion is taken into consideration in decision making**."*

Lack of Trust

The quotations above for some respondents provide an answer to why they do not want to participate! *The problem lies in the public's lack of trust in planning authorities.* In line with this result, the lack of trust in the local council was the most frequent comment when the participants were asked if they would like to add any comments about the local planning in Edinburgh. The researcher has categorised all comments mentioned in question 16 using an open-coding method based on grounded theory (see 4.5). As mentioned before, the public's biggest concern is the trust in local authorities and transparency. There are a few other concerns like the erosion of the green belt, simplifying

planning procedures, etc. Figure 7.22 provides a good illustration of all participants' concerns.
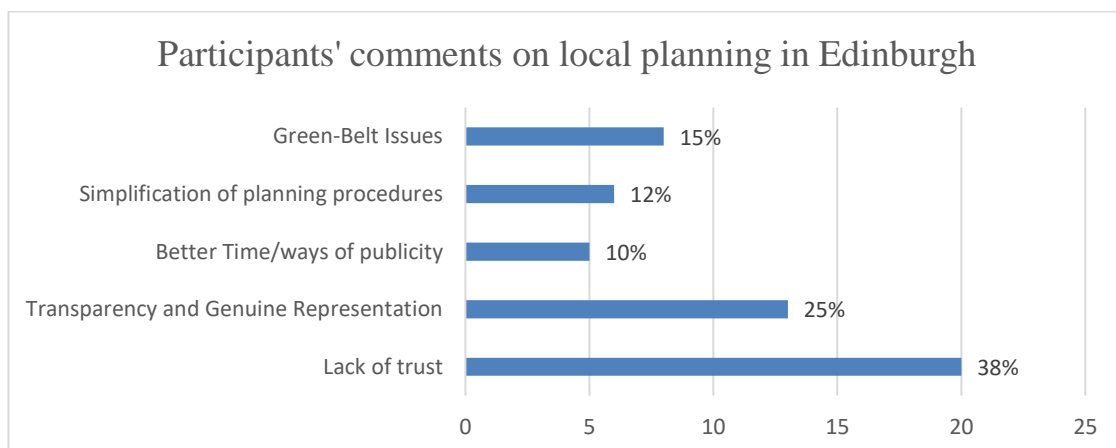
Figure 7.23: Participants' main concerns about Edinburgh's local planning issues (n = 52). Source: Author's Original.

The key findings of the questionnaire analysis:
The key results obtained from the questionnaire analysis are as follows:

- 70% are aged 45 years old and over.

- 85% own their homes.

- 63% hold a bachelor's degree and above.

- 77% have lived in Edinburgh for more than ten years.

- 64% were aware of the new LDP of Edinburgh before.

This result indicates that the publicity and informing about the new LDP was good, as around two-thirds of participants had learned about the plan before distributing the questionnaire. Below are the results of the data analysis for those who have already learned about the plan (96 out of 151). All percentages were measured based on this sample.

- 64% have been consulted about the new LDP.

- 81% did not get involved in the preparation process of LDP.

- 57% believed there were barriers to participating.

- 54% and 43% think there are technical and statutory barriers, respectively.

- 65% oppose and strongly oppose the new LDP.

- The public's main concerns are lack of trust, the erosion of the green belt, and infrastructure problems.

- 50% believe the new LDP is poor and very poor.

The previous results suggest that *public participation in practice in the urban planning process reaches the level of consultation.*

In the next section, the results of data analysis for all participants (151 participants) are displayed as follows:

- 53 % expressed willingness to participate in planning activities in their city.
- 79% believe that fostering community participation in planning would improve the quality of the LDP.
- Lack of trust in planning authority is the primary concern of the public.

7.5.2 Interview analysis

All interviews were conducted at the end of 2013 and the first half of 2014. The interviewees were chosen to represent the different stakeholders in the urban planning process. The distribution was as follows: two architects, two city planners, two community councillors, an urban designer, a partnership manager in the neighbourhood and a Member of the Scottish Parliament. Most of the interviewees (8 out of 9) were familiar with urban planning matters either through their study and obtaining a qualification in planning or through the exercise of their work; their planning experience ranges from 4 to 30 years. To ensure the privacy, confidentiality and anonymisation of all interviewees, the researcher used pseudonyms (P1, P2 .etc) to refer to each one of the interviewees.

There was a variation in defining the concept of public participation; some interviewees consider it as just government legislation, others see it as a manipulation of the public, while others consider it as an added value, but the majority believe that the concept of participation is the way in which local population are given an opportunity to have their voice listened to. Below are some quotations of how interviewees define public participation:

P5
*"**It is a con** it is smoke and mirrors **they are giving you something which at the end of the day if they don't like what you say they ignore it** – it is not right it is a con.,"* ⟶ *Manipulation*
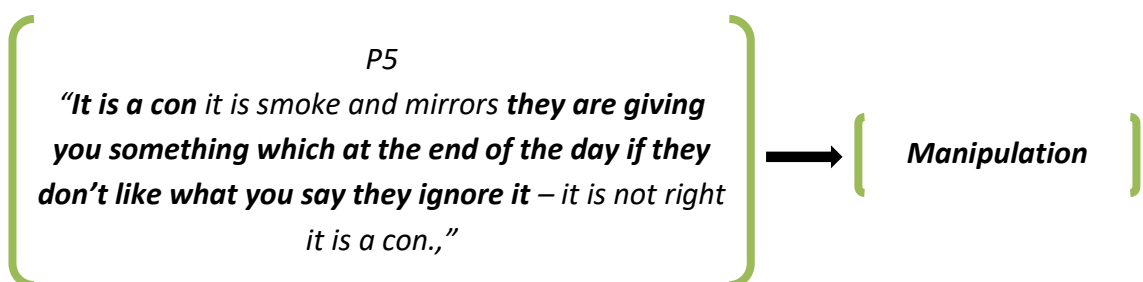
P4

*"Because **community engagement is very much what the government now wants to happen** and the reason for this is we have the **new planning act**,"*

→ *Government Legislation*

P9

***it is added value** its value isn't always calculable in terms of its – its add value to design process it can cost money and it can take time, but I believe one, **end up with a better project** because of it and two, you **end up with a faster and more efficient process** and three, you **end up potentially developing a project more quickly** and more swiftly as well.*

→ *Added Value*

P3

*It is **enabling small groups of people to get involved with events**, circumstances that affect their area and community*

P4

*I can describe it as **inviting local people to public meetings to discuss the proposals** usually in the broad sense of the term to outline planning*

P6

*I think it is **giving local people an opportunity to have their voice heard** at its most summarised*

→ *raise awareness and opportunity to have public's voice listened to.*

P8

*if people are aware, it is them either **having their opinion listened** to or engagement could be **people leading something themselves** whether it is trying to lead a community led development.*

P2

***if you do consultation, you should always be going at raising awareness first then engage people in consultation**.*

The majority of interviewees agreed that the meaning of the public participation concept has changed over time. Some of them went more specific and described it as "it has evolved". P2 says, *"When I first started, it was absolute tick box exercise and an advert in the local paper that nobody would understand it [...] I think so it has changed vastly"*. In the same vein, P6 says, *"Previously there has been a tendency for local decisions to be made by council staff or other organisations without necessary taking into account the views of local people [...] I think that culture has developed [...] to be far more aware of the rights and benefits of having a local say in how things are developed"*. On the other hand, P5 (community councillor) believes that the concept of public participation has never changed. It is just a kind of manipulation, he said, *"it is not a right, it is a con"*.

There was consensus among all interviewees that the key stakeholders in the urban planning process are local authorities, community councils and developers. P8 says, *"Private sector developers, landowners, as stakeholders the agencies, the government agencies, Historic Scotland, community groups of course and specifically community councils"*. Some other interviewees mentioned that the community in general (Local people) are one of the key stakeholders. P1 said, *"the local authority planning team, the community council [...] Other organisations (Civic Trust and others), local people [...] are the key stakeholders"*. Other interviewees do not believe that local people have the opportunity to involve in the planning process. In response to who should be encouraged to engage and participate, the majority agreed that the community council and community, in general, are the stakeholders who should be encouraged to participate. Figure 7.23 gives more details about key stakeholders.
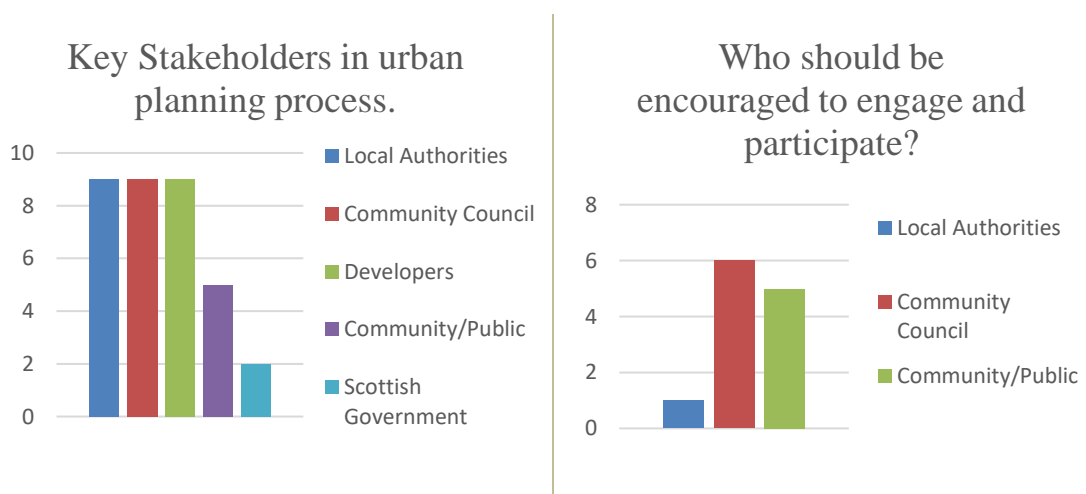
Figure 7.24: Key Stakeholders in the urban planning process according to interviewees' viewpoints. Source: Author's Original.

Some interviewees believe that the local authority is the most crucial group to participate in the urban planning process. P1 says, *"Local authority is the main stakeholder [...] They are the ones who have the clout and make the decision"*. In the same vein, P4 also believes that *"The key people that hold the process together really is the local authority [...] because it is through the local authority planning committees that decisions are made"*. Other participants believe that the community council should be encouraged the most to participate and reinforce its role. P7 says, *"what is needed is reinforcement for the community council"*. The majority of interviewees tend to believe that the community and the public at large are the most important in participating in the urban planning process. Here, P2 emphasises the fact that participants from the public should be educated and informed about the urban planning process. She said, *"all what we got of encouraging more public is comments, and they are the same comments over and over and over again, and if they are not informed then they still of a limited value to the whole process. If you can get even just a small amount of the public that are aware of what planning is? A little bit more understanding than better then you can get comments that actually can help the process in a far better way"*. Figure 7.24 illustrates the key stakeholders who should participate in the urban planning process and the reasons, according to the interviewees' viewpoints.
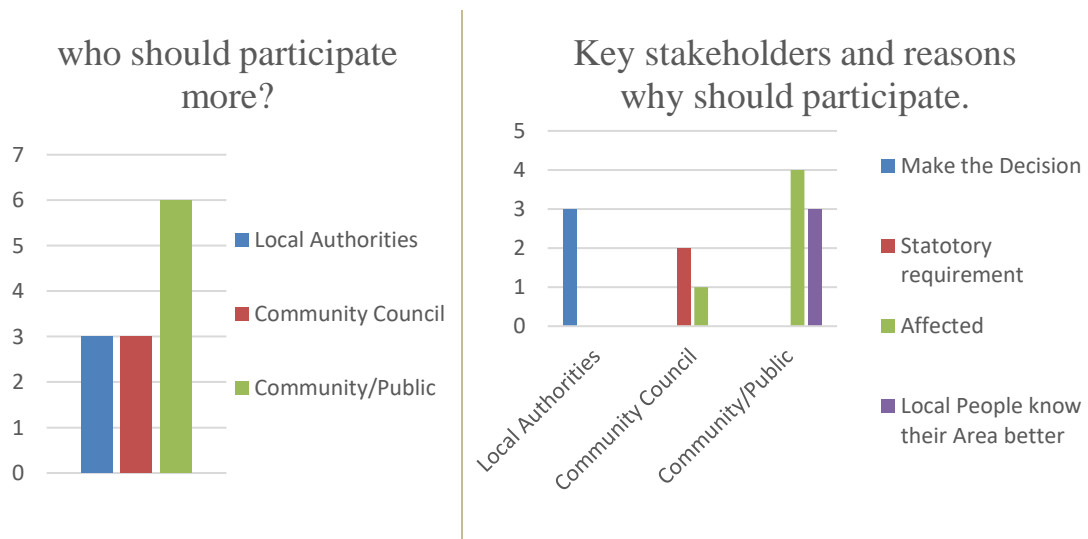
Figure 7.25: Key stakeholders to participate and the participation reasons.
Source: Author's Original.

There is a consensus among all interviewees about the level of public participation within the Scottish planning system (Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006). All of them tend to think it is at the consult level. However, some participants commented that the Act does do some education and informing, but it still tries to consult. The following quotations give a deeper look at what the interviewees think:

> **P1**
> ***it is variable across the country*** *[...] But theoretically I can say **consultation**.*
>
> **P2**
> ***it does do some educating*** *[...] for the participation Statement! It will say when there is **an opportunity to consult**, not make that clear.*
>
> **P4**
> ***The system tries to consult**, it tries and how effective it is? you know that is another thing.*
>
> **P5**
> ***They consult*** *but if at the end of the day **they don't listen to that consultation** [...] what the point of consultation is?*
>
> **P7**
> *The planning is top down, it's informing, it is not really consulting [...] **I can describe it as "nominal consultation".***
>
> **P8**
> ***there is definitely consultation going on*** *which is probably I think that is the widest level we would be at in Scotland.*
>
> **P9**
> *I don't think we have reached involvement point; **I would try and think information given, consultation and engagement.***

→ **Level of consultation**

All quotations above illustrate clearly that the Scottish planning system tries to consult. Still, the level of consultation and its effectiveness remains controversial, and some have described it as nominal consultation.

Once again, there is a consensus around the level at which the public participation process should take place in the planning process. All participants emphasise the necessity of public participation at all levels (national, regional and local) and at the early stage of the

process. However, most of them expressed concern about the public's ability to understand and grasp the national and even regional levels. Below are some interviewees' quotations that question the public's ability to understand higher levels:

P3
"At all levels but it will be difficult for them to understand the national level"

P7
"Theoretically they should be able to participate. But National level is too big for people to understand."

P2
"Lay people cannot participate in decisions at higher level. It is too difficult; it's very difficult to put that across. To put across even the strategic level."

Nevertheless, other interviewees believe that the public needs to know the hierarchy of the planning system to grasp the whole process. In this matter, P9 says, *"I think there should be a level of engagement across the board; I think it is important for people to understand the hierarchy and the big picture at the end of the day"*.

In terms of the main techniques used to ensure public participation in planning activities, exhibitions, workshops, and drop-in sessions were the most common methods used by participants, followed by publicity and advertising. Figure 7.25 shows all techniques used by interviewees.
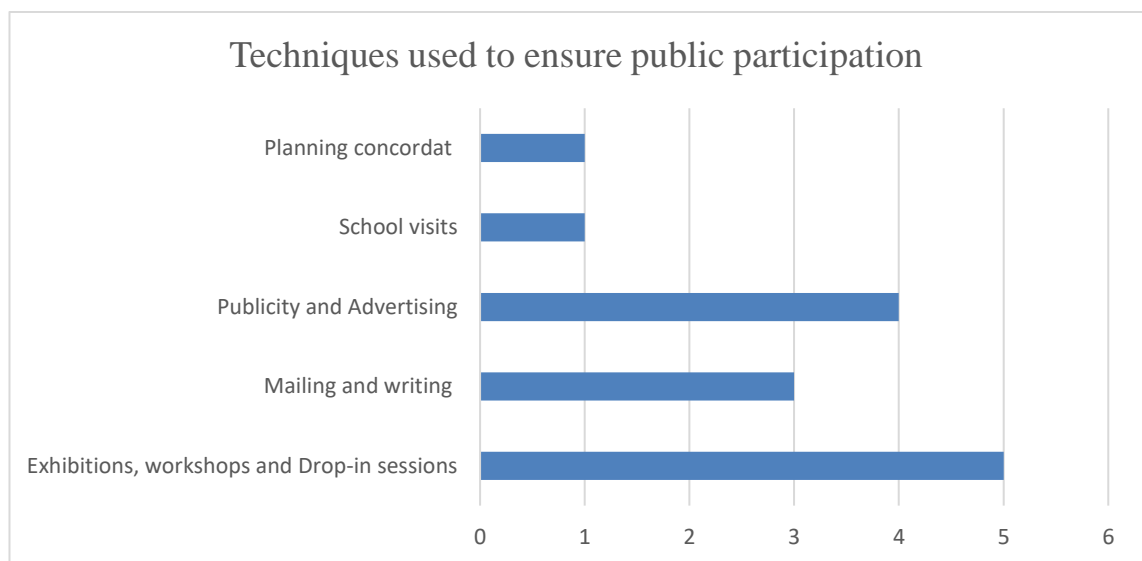
Figure 7.26: Public participation main techniques used by interviewees.
Source: Author's Original.

P1 mentioned the "*Edinburgh Planning Concordat*", which "is essentially a way that developers, community councils and the Council can work together when a major development is proposed." (The city of Edinburgh Council, 2016b, P.02). He believes this document *"will force the developer to follow the procedure which means that the pre-application consultation will be done properly",* and he goes further and says, *"By making planning concordat compulsory, I think everything will work out but what I am hopeful is that equal community councillors and others will respond in a positive way not negative."*

According to his words, one of the interviewees' experiences in engaging with the public to create a regeneration master plan for their area was extraordinarily successful. P9 says, *"we took a very engagement focus, and engagement led to our methodology to try and put people in the core of what we were doing".* in terms of techniques used to engage with the public; he adds, "*creating <u>a fold out postcard</u> which introduced the project [...] also provided a blank space where we <u>asked people to draw a map from their house to their favourite place in town</u> and what they might see on the way [...] we then spent a weekend up there <u>carrying out interviews</u> [...] <u>we set up a gazebo in the town, and we spoke to a whole range of people,</u> and we moved the gazebo about the town, [...] we spoke to people, and <u>we recorded what they wanted</u> [...], and we then <u>created a slide show file</u> with some of our early drawings and thoughts and ideas, and we had a local historian who did a bit of a narrative and told us about the history of the town, and we overlaid that with what people told us with their images".* This experience lives up to the level of involvement where the planners work with the public to ensure that their concerns and aspirations are directly reflected in the alternatives developed.

Apart from the experience of P9, all interviewees said that all techniques used to engage with the public were not evaluated very well; the only method used for this purpose was the feedback form. While in P9's experience, he says, *"we were working to a <u>steering group</u> which was made up of regeneration officers from the council, planning officers from the council, local councillors and community council members we were all in that steering group [...] the reporting we were getting back from the steering group was that the community appreciated what was going on."*

In regard to the question "to what extent did the public participate in the preparation process of the LDP of Edinburgh?" Four interviewees believed that the participation was sufficient, the other four considered it insufficient, and one of them did not express any

opinion. P2, who believes that the public has been involved enough in the process, says, *"whether you are going to view numbers which I do not see the point of viewing in numbers! Did we gather all the issues? And yeah, we felt we gathered all the issue that we needed to gather [...] So the most important thing is to get to cover all the issues in the area rather than the number of people"*. On the other hand, P4, who believes participation was not enough, says, *"taking it back to the start [...] the Main Issues Report that is the start of the process and if city-wide and a city of half a million people can only get 300 odd replies! So, people have not been engaged enough."*

Most of the interviewees were not sure whether the participation in the preparation process of the LDP was evaluated or not. P2, who is the only participant who believes that the participation process has been evaluated by filling a feedback form, says, *"We sent to all influential people a feedback form and a link survey as well to get their feedback on the process, nothing to do with the contents, just asking them "did they read the documents we shared online? How useful to define any of the events they attended?"*. More details about the participation process during the preparation of LDP are in Figure 7.26.
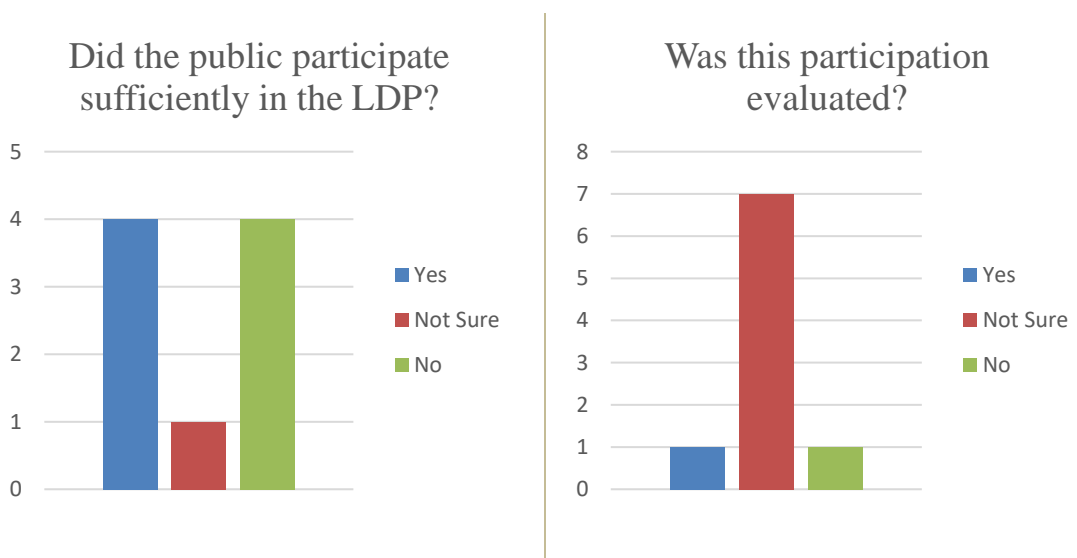
Figure 7.27: Public Participation in the preparation process of the LDP of Edinburgh. Source: Author's Original.

In discussing NIMBYISM, all interviewees agreed that there is an effect of NIMBY on the public's views which leads them to object to the plan. The majority attributes the public's reaction to the dislike of change. Below are some of the interviewees' quotations addressing NIMBY issues.

P2
*"Because if it is having a **personal impact on you** then immediately you have a concern over it [...]It is the **dislike of change** in society really!"* → **dislike of change**

P7
*"Rightly or wrongly, **there will always be a NIMBY effect** where people don't like something that is proposed [...] **People in general don't like change**!"* → **dislike of change**

P3
*"We are human beings we **don't like change** – we like what we are comfortable with and what we get used to"* → **dislike of chanae**

On the other hand, some interviewees believe that some people object to the plan not because of NIMBY but because of environmental, transport, infrastructure, and other sustainability reasons.

P5
*"Beyond NIMBY there are people for example who care passionately about **the fact that farmland is being lost and therefore how do we feed the people** .... there are also people who are very concerned about **traffic for example and the pollution**"* → **Sustainability** → **Environment**
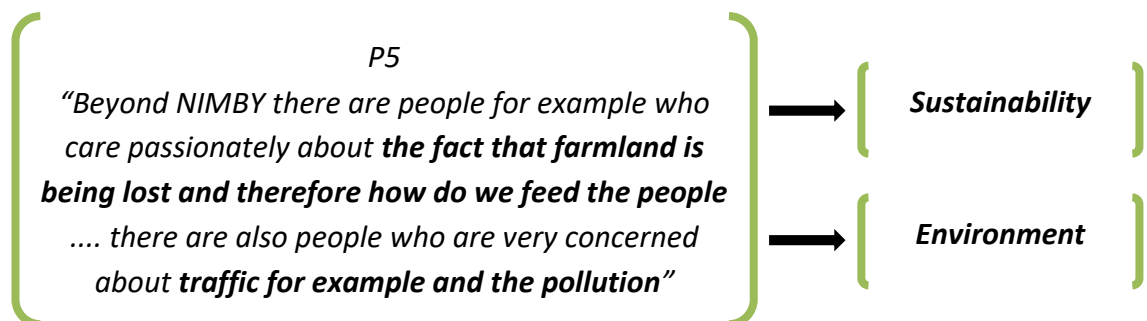
To investigate whether the compulsory purchase could be one of the reasons that prompt people to object to the plan, the researcher asked the interviewees about the effect of compulsory purchase on people and if it leads them to object to the proposed plan. Most interviewees did not have enough information about it. P1 says, *"compulsory purchase is very important otherwise havoc will take place in a sensitive area .... so the compulsory purchase is something that exists but doesn't often happen in my experience"*. P3 believes that what may prompt people to object is not the owners' loss of property but the evaluation value of their properties that will be seized through compulsory purchase. He says, "*I don't think people would be happy, and the thing about the compulsory purchase*

is the evaluation given to the property, which I assume can be appealed at tribunal's court".

Regarding the main barriers which hinder the public participation process, the researcher has mentioned these barriers before as an example of how he handles and analyses the main data collected from interviews (see 4.5.2). All interviewees' quotations were coded into main codes, which have been gathered into main categories (see Table 4.3). Figure 7.27 shows the main barriers to the public participation process from the interviewees' view of point.
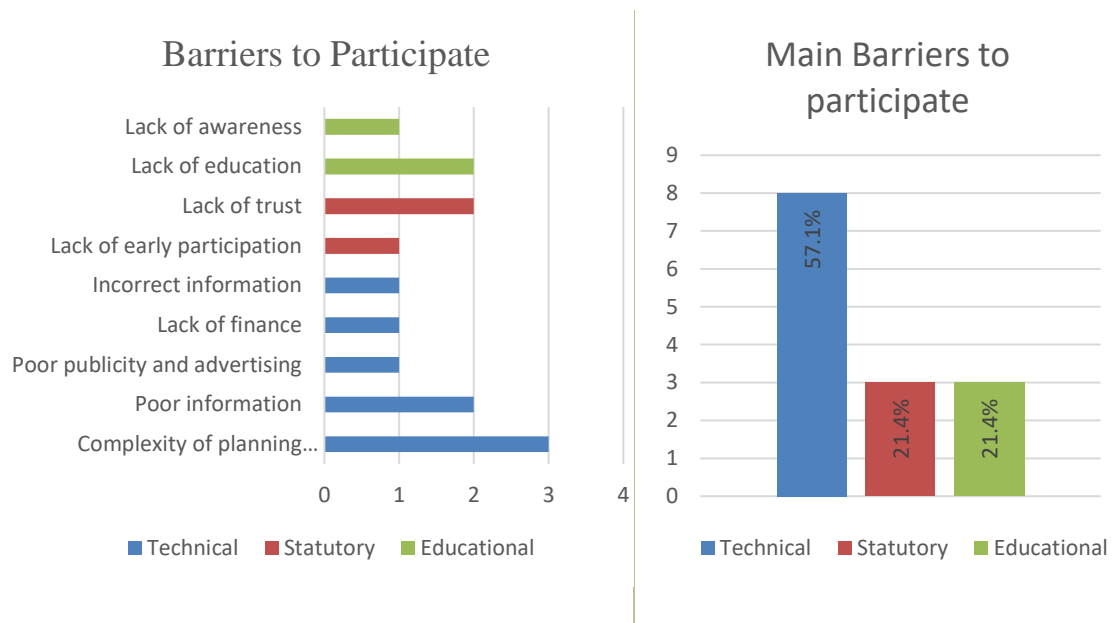
Figure 7.28: The main barriers to participating in the new LDP formulation process.
Source: Author's Original.

The researcher asked all interviewees about the factors which could contribute to the success of the public participation process and what changes could be made to enhance this process. Table 7.4 shows these factors and required changes.

Table 7.4: Factors that contribute to the success of the public participation process and changes needed.

Pseudonym	Factors that could contribute to the success of the public participation process.	Change needed
P1	The virtual partnership between the community council and the developers	Make planning concordat a statutory requirement of the planning system
P2	More one-to-one conversations with key people	Enhance the communication with people
P3	Enhance the current resource and funds	More money and funds

P4	Managing the expectations	Proper consultation and deeper engagement
P5	Negotiation with the developers, public and community council	Proper consultation and deeper engagement
P6	Make the process as easy as possible for everybody to understand	Simplification of the planning process
P7	Support Third Party Right of Appeal	Decisions to be made locally
P8	Understanding the whole picture of planning form (economically, politically and socially)	Make local plans part of the community councils remit
P9	Support planning education	Planning education in schools

Source: Author's Original depending on Interviewees' responses.

By categorising the changes needed according to Table 4.3, it is clear that the most significant changes required are technical and statutory changes. Figure 7.28 shows the percentage of required changes.
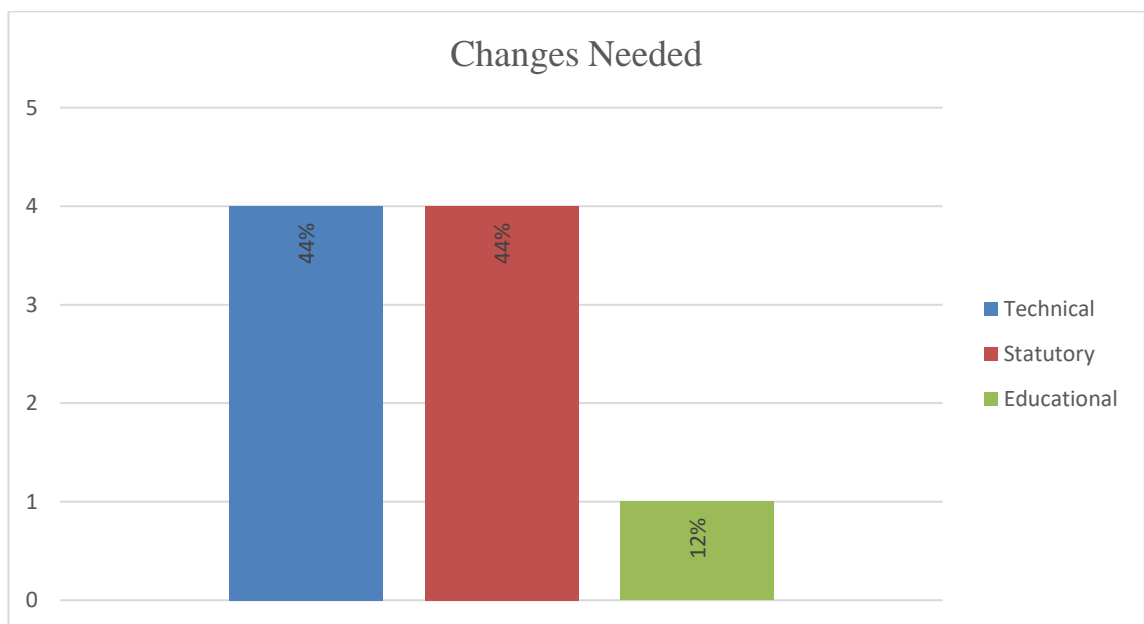
Figure 7.29: Key changes needed to ensure better public participation.
Source: Author's Original.

Most of the interviewees stressed the importance of public participation in enhancing and modernising the planning system in Scotland. P5 says, *"I think it is vital; otherwise you will get disaffected communities they become dysfunctional, and it won't work perfectly everywhere"*. Two-thirds of interviewees believe that the public participation process will

improve over the next ten years, while less than a quarter of those interviewed think it will not change. P5 says, *"I suspect the public participation will not go any better if Edinburgh is forced to build on its green belt; there will be a great deal of anger amongst the people of Edinburgh"*. More information is in Figure 7.29.
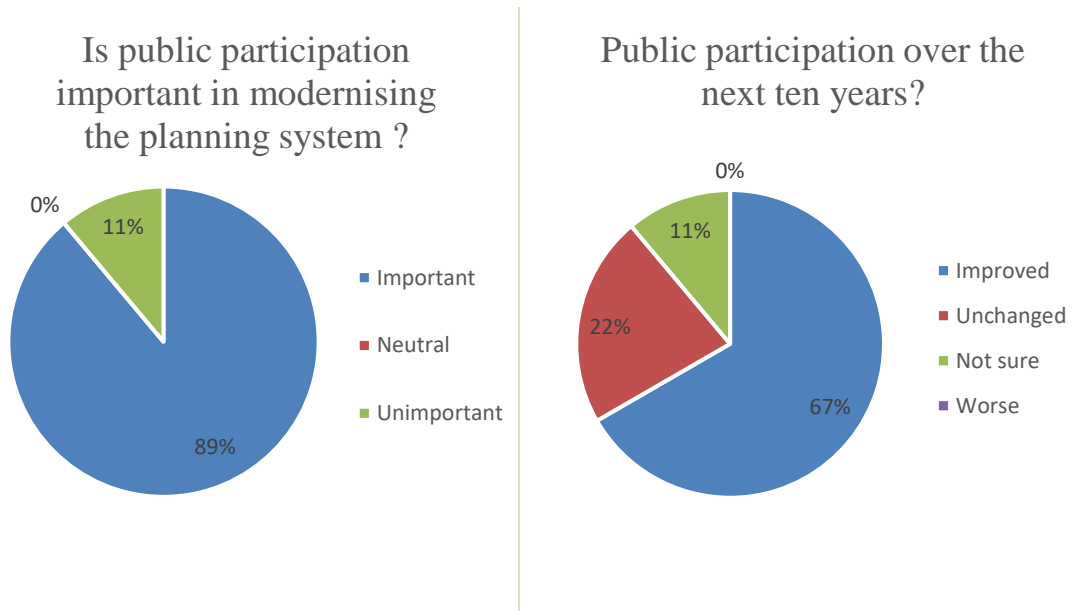
Figure 7.30: Public participation and planning reform | the future of public participation
Source: Author's Original.

All interviewees expressed their wish to change something about the public participation process in planning so that it could be more improved and developed. Figure 7.30 shows all changes mentioned by participants. Bear in mind that each interviewee can mention as many changes as they want.
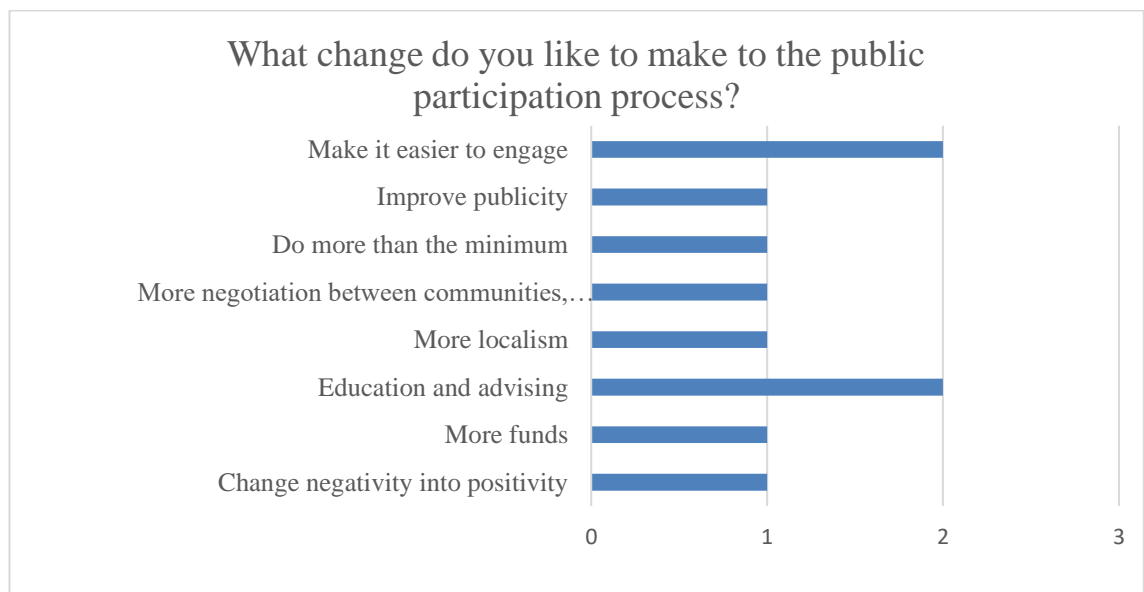
Figure 7.31: Changes to public participation in planning.
Source: Author's Original.

Explaining "change negativity to positivity", P1 says, *"There is a lot of very sore people that the plan has obviously gone ahead, so you know I feel this is not going to bode well with future schemes in the city because they are going to either say that we are objecting to it on principle because they just don't take our opinions into account [...] This is what I mean by the negativity."*

At the end of the interview, many interviewees expressed their viewpoints on how to improve the public participation process. P1, P7, and P8 emphasise the importance of bringing communities, developers, and local councils together. That could be achieved by making planning concordat a statutory requirement of the planning system, as P1 mentioned before. Emphasising the same point, P7 believes that providing an effective Third-Party Right of Appeal to help level up the playing field between the developer and local people would improve the public participation process.

Other interviewees shed light on the importance of enhancing the current resources and securing greater financial support for local communities and local councils to improve the techniques and tools used to inform, consult, and involve local people. P9 believes that education is very important, especially at an early age. He suggests working in schools and working with kids to a point where they have some background understanding of planning system mechanisms. In the same context, P2 stressed the importance of education and dealing with pre-empt all issues which concern the public.

All the comments and suggestions proposed by interviewees to develop and improve the public participation process came within the framework of finding solutions to eliminate the barriers that hinder public participation. As mentioned earlier (see Figure 7.27), the main obstacles were categorised into three main categories (Technical, Statutory and Educational). All suggestions to improve the public participation process came in line with this classification. Below are some of the interviewees' quotations:

P9
"It also comes down to working in schools and working with kids [...] it is important to understand on that level and engaging with children and schools from that sort of age through to a point where they have a background and have some background understanding of what strategic planning is" ⟹ *Education*

⟹ *Early engagement*

P2

"More money and It would be to educate and deal with to pre-empt what issues could be [...] and if we have this kind of education then I do not think we would end up with as many angry people"

→ *Finance*

→ *Education*

"If you have something like citizen panel across the city and geographically split as well as all different aspects of community in the city"

→ *citizen panel*

P1

"Making planning concordat compulsory, I think everything will work out but what I am hopeful is that equal community councillors and others will respond in a positive way not negative [...] we need something called third party right of appeal"

→ *planning concordat*

→ *Third Party Right of Appeal*

P7

"Give more authority to community councils on planning matters; provide an effective Third Party Right of Appeal to help level up the playing field between the developer and local people."

→ *Localism*

→ *Third Party Right of Appeal*

The researcher has coded and organised all suggestions mentioned in the Figure below:
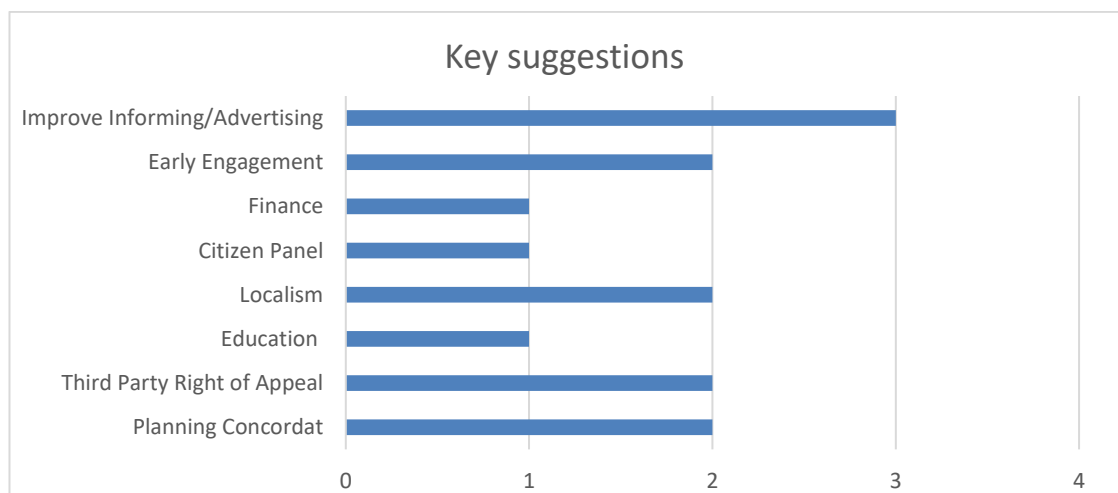
Figure 7.32: Key Suggestions to improve public participation in urban planning.
Source: Author's Original

By categorising the key coded concept of interviewees' suggestions based on Table 4.3, Figure 7.32 shows the main categories and their percentage based on interviewees' key suggestions.
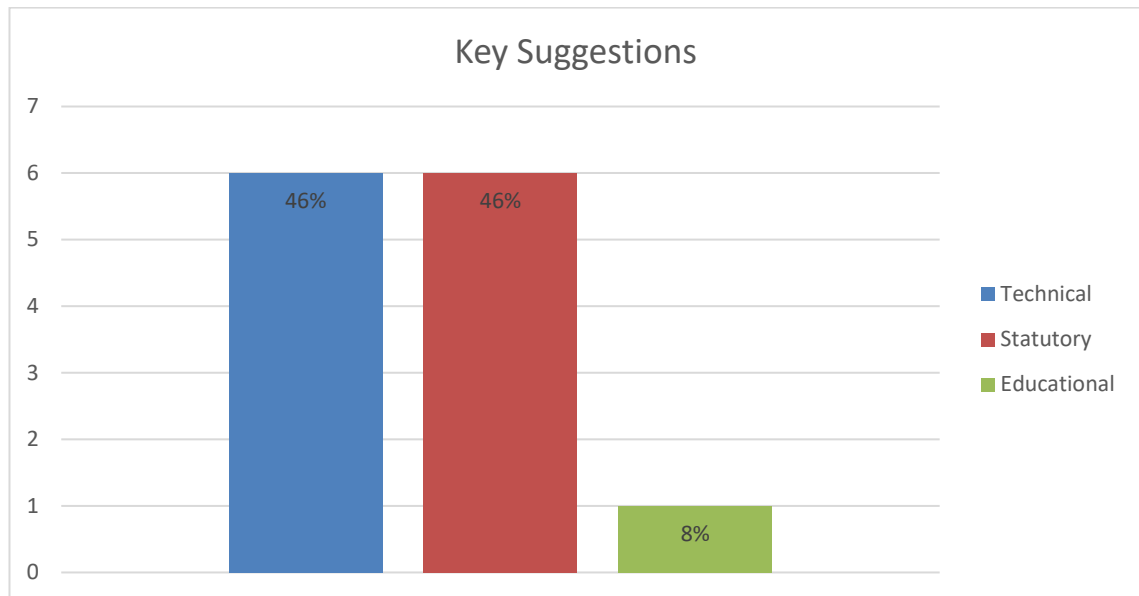
Figure 7.33: Key Suggestions mentioned to improve Public Participation in Planning.
Source: Author's Original.

The key findings of the interview analysis:
The interviewee's sample was chosen to represent the most critical stakeholders in the planning process (Decision-makers, specialists, developers, community councillors and public representatives). Below are the main findings of the interview:

- 89% were familiar with urban planning issues.
- Most interviewees define the public participation concept as "the way in which local population are given an opportunity to have their voice listened to".
- 67% believe that the concept of public participation has changed 'evolved' over time.
- All interviewees agreed that the critical stakeholders in the urban planning process are local authorities, community councils and developers.
- 50% believe that the community council should be encouraged more to participate, while 42% believe the community/the public should be encouraged more.
- 50% believe that the community/ the public at large are the most important to participate because they are affected, and they know their area better.

- All interviewees agreed that the public participation level within the Scottish planning Act 2006 reaches the "consultation level" theoretically.

- All participants emphasise the necessity of public participation at all levels (national, regional and local) and at an early stage of the process.

- Exhibitions, workshops and drop-in sessions were the most common methods used by participants to ensure public participation in planning activities.

- The percentages were equal on whether the public participated sufficiently in the preparation process of the LDP or not. 44% believed it was sufficient, and 44% believed it was insufficient.

- 78% believe there was no evaluation for public participation in the LDP process.

- All interviewees agreed that there is an effect of NIMBY on the public's views; this is due to the dislike of change.

- 57% believe there are technical barriers that restrain the public participation process.

- Most interviewees believe that technical (44%) and statutory (44%) factors contribute to the success of the public participation process.

- 89 % stressed the importance of public participation in enhancing and modernising the planning system in Scotland, and 67% believe that the public participation process will improve over the next ten years.

- Most interviewees stressed the importance of making technical (48%) and statutory (48%) changes to improve and activate the public participation process. This result comes in line with the result of the main factors that contribute to the public participation process's success.

7.6 Critical Discussion

This section provides a critical discussion of the strengths, weaknesses and limitations of participatory approaches through the preparation and adoption of LDP in Edinburgh. Based on the main data analysis above and the analysis of all reports and information provided by the Edinburgh Council, the researcher examines and evaluates the participation approaches used through the LDP process in Edinburgh. The researcher adopted the IAP2 Spectrum of Public Participation (see Figure 2.3) to evaluate the level of public participation in practice. The evaluation process will be based on the main five different levels of participation 'inform, consult, involve, collaborate and empower' presented in the spectrum. This is to answer question five of the third research objective.

Informing the public

The main question to be answered here is: Have the people of Edinburgh been adequately informed about the new LDP?

The analysis of the questionnaire data indicates that about two-thirds (64%) of the participating sample were informed about the new LDP. Most of them were informed about the plan through the council's measures (written letters, council website, council meetings. etc.). Report of Conformity published by Edinburgh council in 2015 supports these findings.

It should be noted here that the remaining third of the participating sample did not know about the new LDP; maybe they were not interested and not directly affected by the proposed developments. Usually, there is a notable impact of NIMBYISM in planning issues (people are most likely to get involved if they believe they are affected).

And here lies another challenge, How could planners and planning officials encourage laypeople to engage and participate in the process?

Some questionnaire respondents show no interest in participating in planning issues in their area, although they believe that effective public participation would improve the plan's quality. Most of them attributed their unwillingness to participate because they were convinced that their participation has no 'added value' as decision-makers will not listen to them. On the same point, P5 argues that public participation is just a kind of manipulation and a government tool; he says, "it is not a right, it is a con".

The lack of trust seems to be the cornerstone in this dilemma. Here, the planners and planning officials firstly should find genuine techniques to build trust with the public; then, the public could effectively engage in the planning process.

In assessing the level of informing, the data analysis clearly shows that the Edinburgh council tried to reach the largest possible segment of the city's population through the procedures it followed to announce the new LDP. Thus, *the level of informing was good*.

Consulting with the public

Data analysis of the questionnaire revealed that around 64% of those who were aware of the new LDP of Edinburgh were consulted about the new plan through public hearings, residents' meetings and other methods. On the other hand, around 45% of the interviewees indicated that public participation was sufficient in the preparation process of the plan.

In addition, official documents and reports published by the Edinburgh council (the participation statement of the MIR and the report of conformity) indicated that the council sought to consult with the public during the preparation process of the new LDP. In each stage of the preparation process (MIR report, proposed plan and second proposed plan), The council tried to consult with the public. The council claimed that all the responses were taken into consideration in the formulation process of the new LDP.

All in all, the primary data analysis and the official documents and reports indicated there was *a good level of consultation* during the preparation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh.

Involving the public
Involvement is to work with the public (not for the public) to ensure that their aspirations and concerns are directly reflected in the proposed development plans. The primary data analysis revealed that more than 80% of questionnaire respondents indicated that they were not involved in the preparation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh. They were informed and consulted about the proposed plan, which was already drafted and prepared by the council without involving them in the process. The main data analysis revealed that many barriers prevented the public from getting involved in the preparation process of the LDP in Edinburgh. There were mainly technical and statutory barriers such as lack of trust, lack of early engagement, poor information and poor publicity.

Regarding the statutory barriers, the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 clearly shows a statutory requirement for consultation with the public in the formation process of planning documents at all levels (National, Regional and Local). Yet, there is hardly any genuine involvement of the public at large in the preparation process of the LDPs. On the other hand, before preparing the local development plan, the Planning (Scotland) 2019 Act requires the planning authorities to invite local communities in their districts to prepare a local place plan (LPP), which "is a proposal as to the development or use of land". The Act establishes a statutory requirement to work with the public and involve them in the process at an early stage. Moreover, the new 2019 Act is more inclusive in its strategy to reach, discuss, consult, and involve different community groups (older and disabled persons, Gypsies and Travellers, and children and young people). Theoretically, the new 2019 Act requires the locals' involvement in the LDP preparation process, yet it still needs to be verified in practice.

According to the primary data analysis, ***there was hardly any involvement of the public*** at large in the process of the new LDP of Edinburgh.

Collaboration and empowerment
At these higher levels of the IAP2 spectrum, the public at large will be a genuine partner in the process of preparing and adopting future development plans. The authorities will collaborate with the public for advice and innovation in formulating solutions and alternatives. They will incorporate the advice and recommendations of the public into the decisions to the maximum extent possible.

Currently, the Planning (Scotland) 2019 Act mints statutory requirements for more involvement with the public at large in the planning process; This involvement requires raising public awareness of planning issues through education and enhancing publicity.

7.7 Conclusion
This chapter provides answers to the questions raised in the third objective of this research. After analysing the primary data collected and comparing the results with main regulations and the efforts done by the local council to engage the public in the urban planning process, the researcher concludes with answers to the asked questions as follows:

- Who is engaged in the urban planning process in the UK-Scotland?

According to the main planning Act, those who should engage and participate in the urban planning process are *Key agencies, key stakeholders and the affected public*. The main results of the interview revealed that the primary vital stakeholders are *local authorities, community councils and developers*. The results show that 50% of interviewees believe that community/ public is the most important to participate. On the other hand, the questionnaire results show that 64% were aware of the new LDP.

In summary, those who participate in the urban planning process are key agencies, local authorities, community councils, developers, and local people.

- What opportunities exist for participants to:
  obtain relevant information;

According to the report of conformity, the local authority provided relevant information through paper copies of all documents at all public libraries and the council offices. It made all documents available online and sent information via e-mail, letters, community

council and other local networks. In addition to that, they used media to raise awareness. Questionnaire results show that around two-thirds of participants have heard of the new LDP of Edinburgh, and they obtain information through a letter from the council, community council meetings, press releases and others (see Figure 7.10)

express their views;

As mentioned in the report of conformity, all participants had the chance to express their views to planners and officials by attending workshops/ drop-in sessions and making representations if they wished. In addition, they had the opportunity to express their opinions online and through the Freepost questionnaire. In line with this, questionnaire results show that 64% have participated in the preparation process of the LDP. On the other hand, just 44% of interviewees believe the public has sufficiently participated in LDP's preparation process.

Make sure that their needs have been heard and will be addressed by officials.

According to the Report of conformity, all those who expressed their views about the proposed LDP; responses were summarised, recorded and published in the Summary of Responses; all respondents were notified of this and were invited to inform the council if they thought the Summary was inaccurate. Everyone who submitted representation or response to the proposed LDP or MIR was notified. In addition, all those living next to proposed development sites were notified.

- When and at what stage of the urban planning process does public participation occur? How early?

The main planning Act (planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006) clearly shows that public participation takes place at all levels (National, Regional and Local) (see Figure 5.10). Here, it is worth noting that the public (lay people) participate at an early stage of the process at the local level, while it is difficult for them to involve at an early stage at the regional or national level (More information in Table 5.8). This issue is precisely what all interviewees expressed that public participation is essential at all levels and at an early stage. However, most interviewees expressed concern about the public's ability to understand and grasp the national and regional levels.

- How does the public participation process occur? What approaches and methods are used to encourage groups and individuals to participate?

As it has mentioned earlier in the report of conformity, the primary methods used to ensure public participation in the planning process are as follows:

- Drop-in sessions and workshops to help the public understand the proposed LDP,
- Send the information out via community council, email or post,
- Use the media to raise awareness about the plan,
- And online and Freepost questionnaires.

Interviewees and questionnaire respondents mentioned the same methods (see Figure 7.10 and Figure 7.25).

- What is the level of public participation in urban planning in practice?

The researcher concluded in chapter five that the level of public participation within the main planning Act hits the level of consultation. In this chapter, and after analysing the primary data, the results show that 64% of questionnaire respondents have been consulted about the new LDP. In comparison, just 7% of them indicated that they had been involved. In the same vein, all interviewees indicated that the level of public participation in the planning process hits the consultation level. In sum, public participation in practice in the Scottish urban planning system hits the ***consultation level.***

In addition to the above, the results of primary data analysis indicate the existence of some barriers impeding the good implementation of public participation within the Scottish Planning System; those barriers are mainly Technical and Statutory ones (see Figure 7.17 and Figure 7.27). Most interviewees emphasised the importance of technical and statutory factors to the success of the public participation process and stressed the need for such changes (see Table 7.4). Planning concordat, Third Party Right of Appeal and localisation of decision-making process were the most statutory changes suggested. On the other hand, the most technical changes suggested were enhancing funds and resources, more effective communication, and simplifying the planning process.

The next chapter will put Latakia's structure and master plans under study in order to examine and evaluate the level of public participation within the Syrian planning system in practice.

Chapter Eight: Latakia Structure and Master Plans under Study

8.1 Introduction

Since this research is built on a 'replication approach to multiple-case studies' by Yin 2009 (see 4.3.2), this chapter presents an analytical study of the chosen case of Latakia city-Syria. This analytical study is very similar to the one conducted in the city of Edinburgh (previous chapter). This chapter tries to answer all questions raised by the third objective of this study: *Critically assess the effectiveness of public participation in urban planning in practice within the Syrian planning context.*

Who is engaged in the urban planning process? How early? What opportunities exist for participants to gain relevant information, express their viewpoints and make sure their voice has been heard? And to check the level of public participation in urban planning in practice.

As mentioned earlier in this research, and because of the unrest (ongoing war) in Syria, the researcher has faced several serious challenges in collecting the primary data needed (see 4.4). The main technique used to collect needed data was an online questionnaire and relying on carefully chosen grey literature and other academic research similar to the research subject and its case study.

This chapter starts with a brief overview of Latakia city that provides geographic, demographic, and economic context and information about the city. Then, a detailed study of the Structure and Master Plans of the city will be undertaken.

In a later section of this chapter, the key findings of primary and secondary data analysis will be presented and critically discussed to find answers to all questions raised by the third objective of this study. At the end of this chapter, a brief conclusion of the main findings will be presented.

8.2 A Brief Background of Latakia City

The city of Latakia is the main city in the Latakia governorate; it is situated in northwestern Syria, overlooking the Mediterranean Sea (see Figure 8.1). According to National statistics published by the central bureau of statistics in Syria, the population of the Latakia governorate in 2009 was 975,000, while this number increased to 1,453,000 in 2016[68] (CBS, 2017). According to the Central Bureau of statistics, Latakia Governorate

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[68] This sudden increase in population is due to forced internal migration and the displacement of people who have fled places of unrest to relatively safe areas due to the war in Syria.

is the sixth most populous Governorate. At the same time, Latakia city is the fifth largest city in Syria, with a population of 645,000 (More details in Appendix 8-1).

With regards to the ethnic distribution of the population in the city, the majority of the population are Syrian Arabs, and there are few percentages of ethnic groups such as Turkmen, Kurds, Assyrians, and Armenians (Winckler, 1999). In the aftermath of the 1948 Palestinian exodus (Nakba in Arabic), a Palestinian refugee camp was established in the city, which still exists to date; it has a population of more than 10,000 registered refugees (UNRWA, 2019). After the city's expansion, the camp became part of the city's neighbourhoods, and it is considered one of the informal settlements in the city that needs attention and regulation.
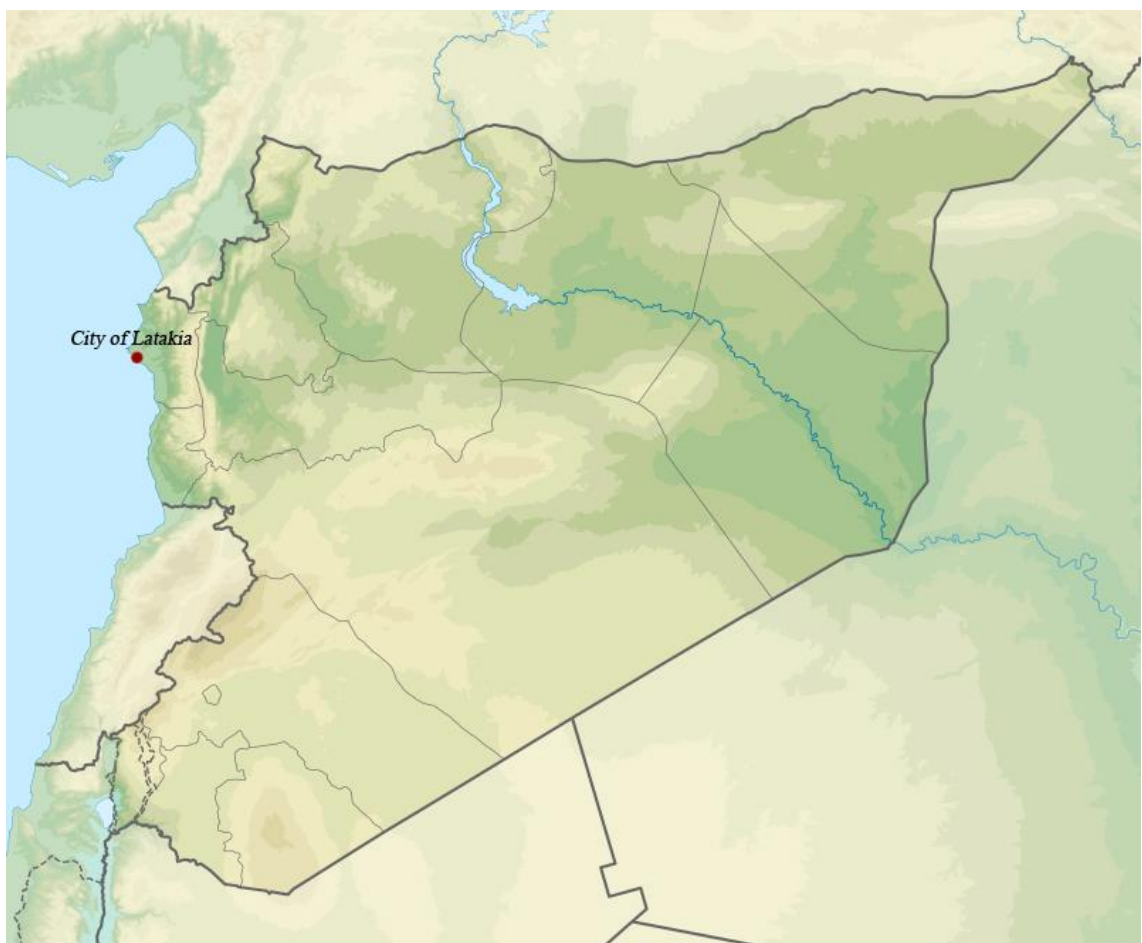
Figure 8.1: Location of the city of Latakia within Syria.
Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Syria_physical_location_map.svg

Regarding the religious distribution of the population in Latakia, there are no accurate statistics at present. The only census that observed the sectarian distribution dates back to 1932 by the French mandate at the time. However, some studies (Mannheim, 2001;

Balanche, 2015) indicate that Muslims make up the majority of the Latakia population, with around 82% - 88 % of the total population. The sectarian distribution statistics for the city are as follows, Sunni Muslims are between 57% -59%, Alawites between 24% - 26% and Christians between 13% -15%. According to Mannheim (2001), the approximate sectarian distribution rates of Latakia Governorate are as follows, 70% for the Alawite sect, while Christians 14% and Sunnis 12%, where Sunnis are concentrated on the coast and Alawite in the mountains, while other Muslim minorities such as Ismailis about 2%.

The economy of Latakia is primarily based on agriculture, tourism, and trade; Latakia is considered the central port city in Syria; through its harbour, most imports and exports are carried out to Syria and some neighbouring countries (Salibi et al., 2009). Agriculture is widespread in the plains surrounding the city, especially the cultivation of olives, citrus, and tobacco; these crops constitute a basic source of the city's economy. In addition to the above, Latakia is one of the most important tourist cities in Syria; where the city has many beaches and recreation sites; in addition to its historical heritage and the fact that it has many archaeological sites; the city of Ugarit is the oldest (Salibi et al., 2009).

Based on the above, the city of Latakia is characterised by its inhabitants' ethnic and sectarian diversity and has geographical and historical advantages that make it a very important centre for tourism; moreover, it is one of the most important agricultural governorates in Syria. All these advantages of having natural, human, and economic assets in the city need to be guided and planned in order to control the city's growth and contribute to its development; here comes the importance of preparing development plans and master plans for the city.

8.3 Latakia Master Plan under Legislative Decree No.5/82.

Legislative Decree No.5 of 1982 requires all governorates in Syria to study and prepare Master Plans and related documents for any urban area within their administrative boundaries (main cities, towns, and villages), as mentioned earlier in this research (see 6.3.1). The Decree provides a set of legal procedures to be followed to study and create any master plan (MP). These procedures are (planning program report, structure plan and master plan) and give the governorate the right to choose any company to study the MP project, whether from the Governmental or private sector (Legislative Decree No. 5, 1982; Hassan, 2010).

Regarding the Latakia MP, the contract signed with the General Company for Engineering Studies and Consulting (GCESC) includes preparing and studying the general MP of the city to contain the housing expansion of the city during the coming 20 years. The contract was signed in 2001 to complete the required studies within 38 months through three phases. In each phase, the company presents the work achieved to monitor progress in the studying process. in addition, another contract was signed with the Office of Architecture and Urban Planning at Tishreen University to follow up and check the achieved work (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2013).
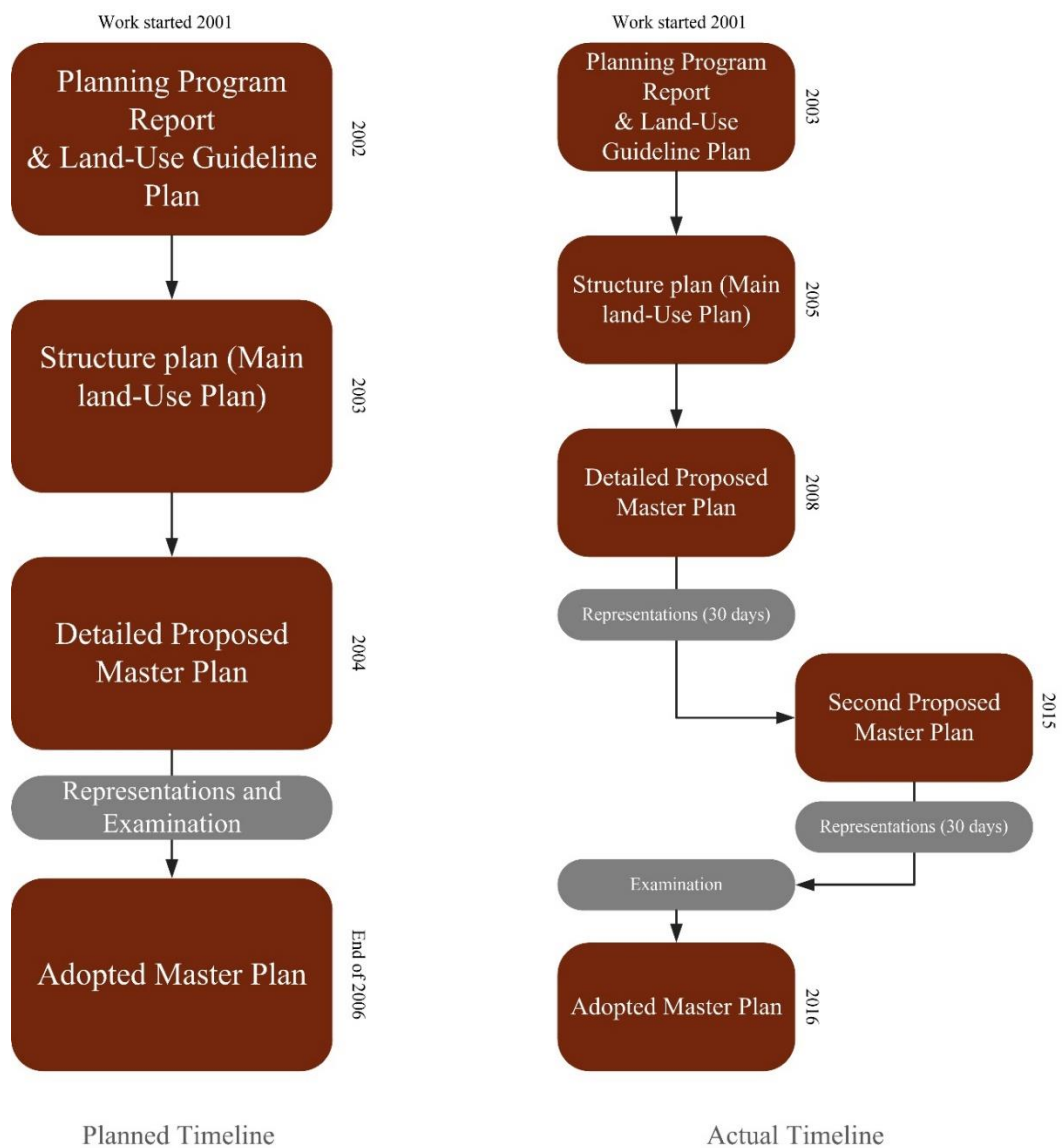
Figure 8.2: The Timeline of Latakia Master Plan (Planned/Actual).
Source: Author's Original.

The current MP of latakia was adopted in August 2016 after several years from the proposed date, which was initially planned in 2006. The study of the plan was completed four years after the scheduled date, and the plan was announced in 2008. The proposed

master plan was not welcomed by the residents of Latakia, where objections to the plan exceeded 13 thousand from individuals and institutions (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2013). Figure 8.2 illustrates the planned and actual timeline of the adopted MP.

The previous figure clearly shows the long delay (more than ten years) in the adoption of the new MP, and the consequence of this delay was the emergence of new problems such as the expansion of informal settlements around the city and the emergence of many urban violations within the city. However, the main objective of the MP, as included in the planning program, is to promote housing development in the city and enhance its tourism role. In addition to the main objective, there are a few sub-objectives at different levels as follows:

- National level: make the city a growth pole that attracts events and investments to achieve a balanced growth with the rest of the Syrian cities.
- Governorate level: make the city polarised for human activities and achieve a high level of services in both countryside and the city.
- City-level: provide different levels of housing, provide services to the population and adopt the sectoral approach in achieving development, considering tourism as the most important sector in the city (Abdin et al., 2013).

As mentioned above, preparing and studying the general MP of Latakia has gone through a number of main stages, which are addressed in detail in the following section.

8.3.1 The key stages in preparing the general Master Plan of Latakia

Following the requirements of the Legislative decree No. 5 of 1982, any general MP should go through several stages, from preparing and studying until ratification. In the case of the Latakia MP, Abdin et al. (2013) addressed all stages as follows:

Planning program report and structure plan
The work in this stage was divided into two main parts; the first part was the collection of information and statistics related to the governorate and the evaluation of the 1984 plan, which was ratified without the existence of updated topographic plans. In addition, a general Structure Plan guideline consisting of eighteen plans and reports covering the status quo of the governorate was prepared. The second part dealt with the analysis of collected data and preparing the planning program according to the basics of urban planning laid down in Decree No. 5 of 1982, in addition to preparing a coding zones plan which divides the city into a number of studying zones (see Figure 8.3), housing program and alternatives of the structure plan.

Detailed land-use plan

The work in this stage included the preparation of a detailed Land-Use Plan according to the planning program report prepared in the first stage; the work addressed the following topics:

- Planning program for the coding zones of the city, including the identification of empty land, brownfields, and informal settlements.
- Planning program for urban expansion areas, which includes proposals based on the first stage data.
- The city-wide planning program includes the general roads network plan and planning standards of streets and provides illustrations of planning ideas.
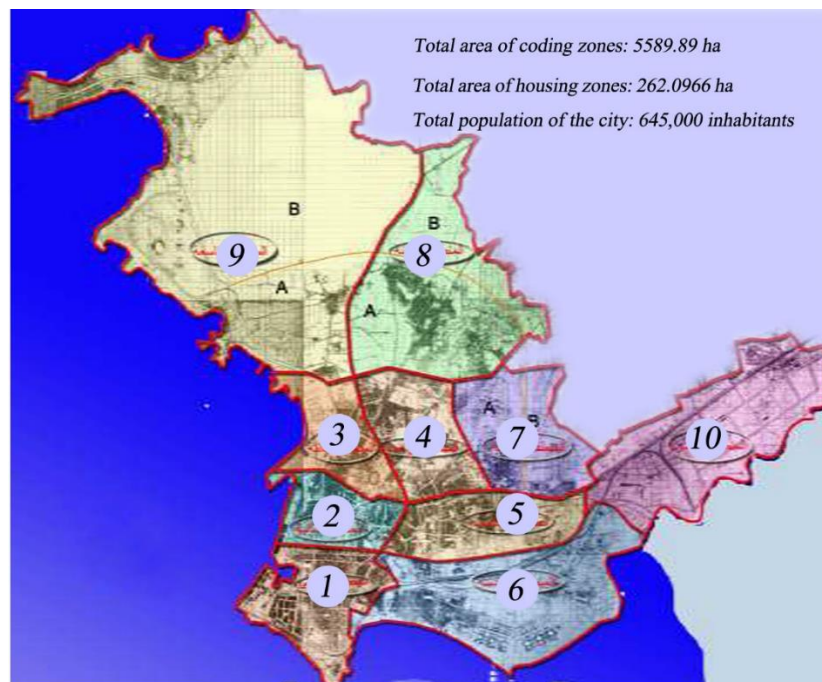
Figure 8.3: Coding Zones for areas studied within the general plan.
Source: (Abdin et al., 2013, P.125)

Proposed detailed Master Plan

This stage was devoted to preparing and creating detailed Master Plans and determining the implementation phase for the first ten years of the general MP of the city. The work included creating programs and development plans for all coding zones and determining the priorities for implementing the general MP and its mechanisms.

The preparation of the proposed MP was completed in 2008 (see Figure 8.4), four years later than initially scheduled; the proposed plan was announced in August 2008 to the public for representation and comments during a statutory period of 30 days. As a step to publicise and raise awareness about the proposed MP, the Latakia council then held a

public hearing event on 31st August 2008 about the plan; at that time, the researcher attended the event. The public crowds were very upset with the proposed plan, and the organisers were unable to complete the presentation of the proposed plan because of the tension in the hall. In general, the proposed plan was not welcomed either by public institutions in the city or by the inhabitants. More than thirteen thousand objections and representations were registered against the proposed plan from organisations, institutions (e.g. Farmers Union, Firms, Universities, Trading Companies, .etc.) and individuals (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2014). This massive number of complaints about the proposed plan called on the local authorities and all study bodies to reconsider the proposed plan and amend it after considering the objections raised against it.
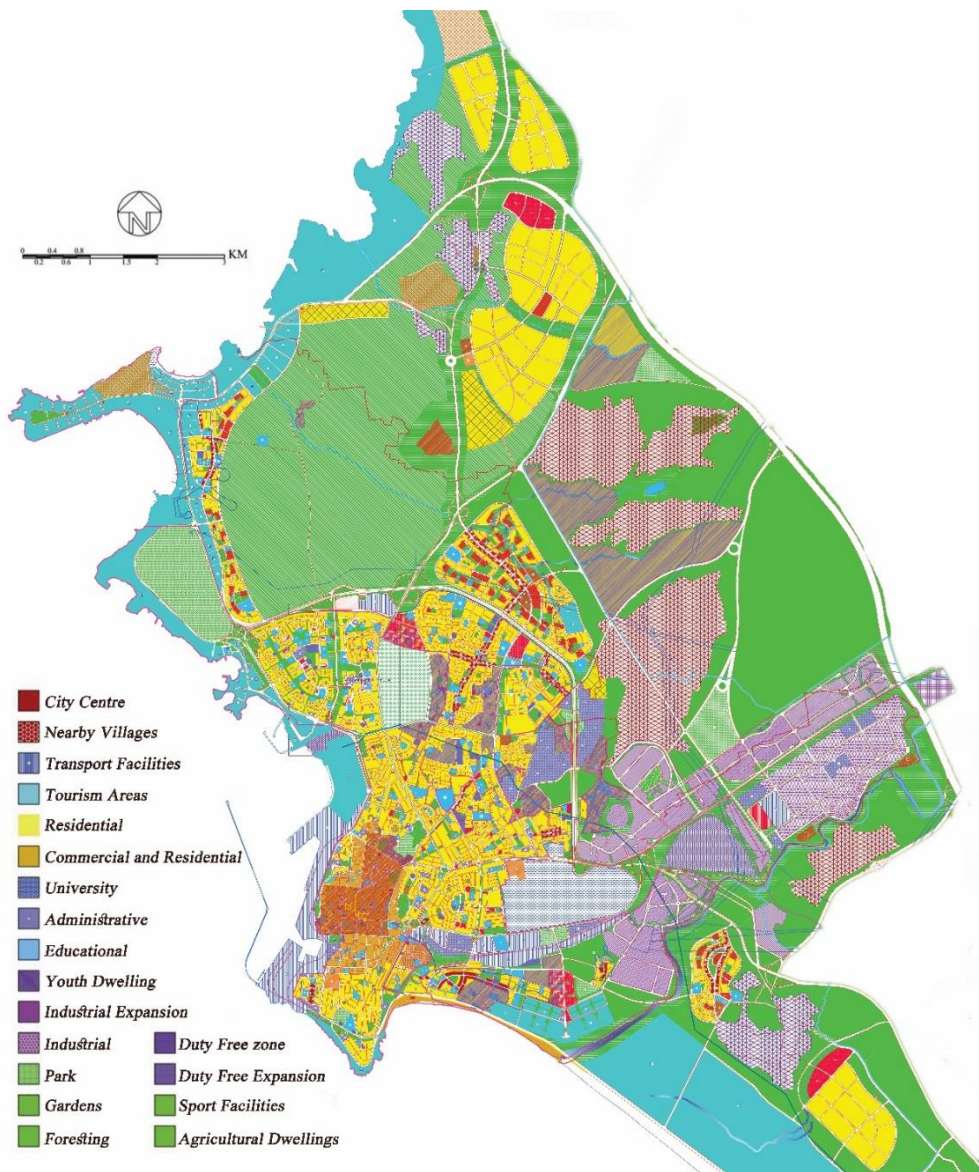
Figure 8.4: Proposed detailed Master Plan of Latakia 2008.
Source: Latakia City Council

The second proposed detailed Master Plan
At this stage, the city council of Latakia established and assigned a committee to tabulate and sort out all objections raised against the plan (Hassan, 2010); the committee concluded that the percentages of the objections were as follow:

- 62% informal settlements (settlements' inhabitants opposed the plan)
- 22% expansion at the expense of agricultural land (mainly farmers' objections)
- 16% other issues (routes creation, changing the regulatory capacity, etc.)

After mid-2009, the folder of objections was referred to the Regional Technical Committee (RTC) in the governorate headed by the governor for consideration and suggesting recommendations to amend the proposed MP. It took about three years for the RTC to comment on the objections and suggest recommendations to amend the proposed plan. A committee was formed in 2012 by resolution No. 513 to deal with the recommendations proposed by RTC. The minutes were sent to the ministry in 2013, and it was ratified and forwarded to Latakia Council on 22/9/2013. Subsequently, a contract was signed with the General Company for Studies in 2014 to address the recommendations of the minutes and then ratification[69]. On 9/12/2015, the second proposed MP was announced. There was a statutory period of 30 days for the public and any institution to present their comments and representations on the second proposed plan.

Adoption of Latakia Master Plan
The second proposed MP of Latakia, combined with a report of representations submitted against it, was submitted to the Ministry of Public Works and Housing for examination at the beginning of 2016. After 30 days, the Ministry published the examination report, which included recommendations for amending the second proposed MP. The report, combined with the second proposed plan, was submitted to Latakia city council for amendment consideration according to the recommendations suggested. Subsequently, the general MP of the city was announced and adopted in August 2016.

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[69] This information was given by the deputy of Latakia city council (Samer Esreb), at a presentation for Alwehda online newspaper, 28th October, 2015, a review of the presentation is available on:
http://www.alwehdaonline.sy/index.php/tahkekat/11916-2015-10-28-15-29-33#comment-148

8.4 Participation Intentions During the Preparation Process of Latakia Master Plan

By studying the fundamental urban planning law in Syria (Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982) (see 6.3.2 and Figure 6.10), the researcher did not observe that the term "public participation" or any synonym has been mentioned in the body of the law. Most of the terms mentioned in the law, referring in some way to 'participation', are limited to the following terms, *displays for review*; *displays for approval*; *those who have an interest are called to view it*, and *the objection shall be submitted by a special form in which the objector shall indicate his/her observations*. In the following section, the researcher tries to shed light on the bodies/Actors that were called to participate in the preparing process of the general MP of Latakia at all stages to find answers to the first and second questions of the third objective of this study.

8.4.1 Preparing the first proposed detailed Master Plan and its documents

From 2001, the start date of studying the Latakia MP project, until 2008, the date of announcing the proposed plan, The General Company for Engineering studies and consulting (GCESC) worked on preparing the general MP of Latakia and all its related studies, documents, and plans (Planning program report and Structure plan) (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2014). During that period, the GCESC was consulting and discussing with official public authorities and bodies (the City Council, The Governorate Council, and competent Ministries). There was no involvement of the local people or informing the public about what was happening inside the corridors of the authorities studying and supervising the Plan. The Plan remained shrouded in secrecy and ambiguity as it was being prepared (Hassan, 2010).

The researcher in a previous study (Hassan, 2010) explained the process when the members of the city council object to the first draft of the proposed MP; it is called the blue cycle (see Figure 8.5). When the Latakia city council members, who the people of Latakia elect to represent them, object to the first draft of the proposed MP, they refer their objections and recommendations to RTC to consider them in amending the proposed plan. If RTC deems the objections and recommendations appropriate and do not contradict the foundations of urban planning, it gives its decision to amend the proposed plan accordingly. If the Committee does not reach a decision by majority, it refers the matter to the ministry concerned (the Ministry of Public Works and Housing). Within 30 days, the Ministry sends back the final decision to the RTC, which then sends it to the Executive Office to make the necessary amendments (Safadi, 2008; Hassan, 2010).
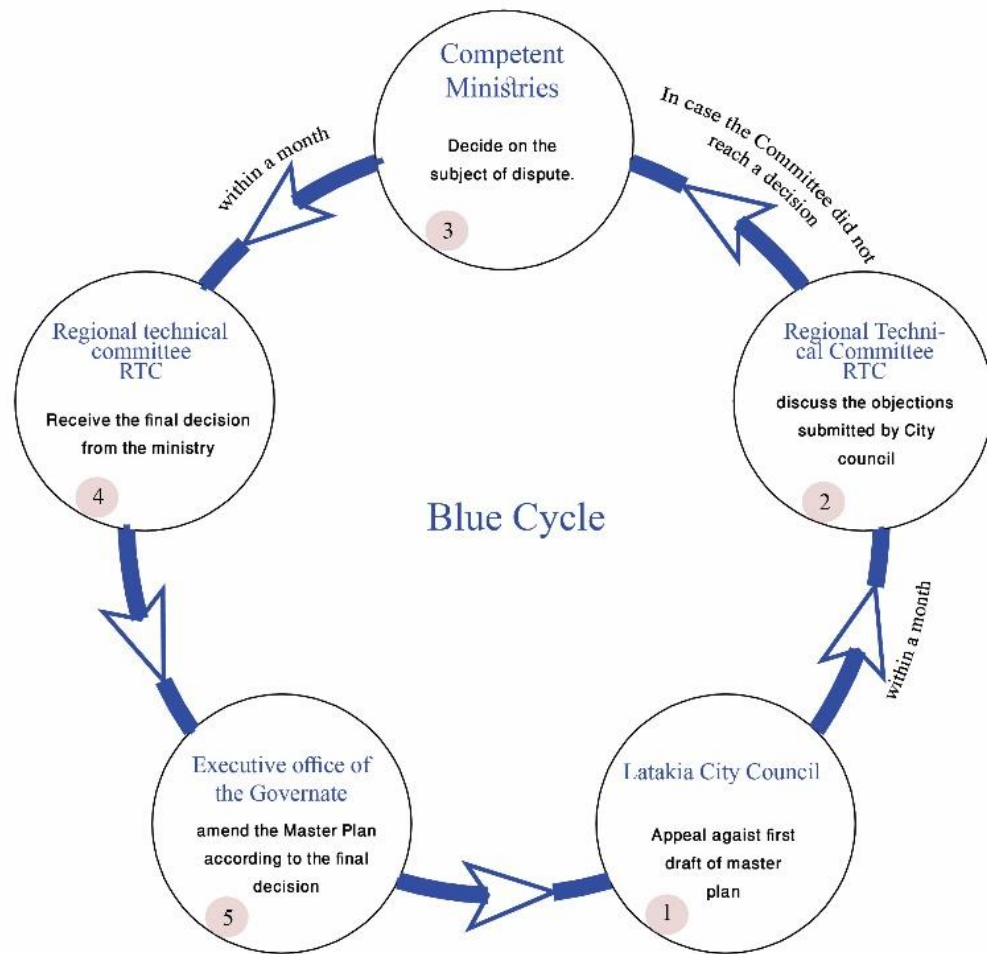
Figure 8.5: Blue Cycle, Members of the city council object to the proposed plan.
Source: (Hassan, 2010, P.27).

8.4.2 The first proposed Master Plan of Latakia

The First Proposed MP of Latakia, announced in August 2008, was subject to a statutory period for receiving objections and notes 30 days. In an attempt, considered the first of its kind in Syria, the city council, in cooperation with the authorities studying and supervising the MP, held a public hearing event on the 31st of August 2008 in the Arab Cultural Centre in Latakia, the hall was packed, and the attendance was immense (over 1000 people) (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2014). The event aimed to publicise and present the new MP of the city to demonstrate its importance in the development and modernisation of the city. Most of the public attended were very upset with the proposed MP, and the organisers could not finish the presentation because of the tension and anger that prevailed in the room. The researcher attended that event and witnessed the public discontent and anger at the proposed MP, which made him interested to know whether

the public was involved in the preparation process of the plan from the beginning or not. This event prompted the researcher to be very interested in public participation in planning.

In addition to the only public hearing event, pursuant to the provisions of Legislative Decree No. 5, the city council announced the plan in the lobby of the council headquarter and the city's official gazette. This is to allow anyone interested to see the proposed plan and submit a written objection explaining the reason for the objection during the legal period of 30 days from the date of the announcement of the proposed plan.

Unsurprisingly, the result of the statutory period to object to the plan ended up with thousands of objections (more than 13 thousand) which elaborate the general discontent with the proposed plan (Hassan, 2010; Abdin et al., 2014) for a sample of objection form please see Appendix 8-2.
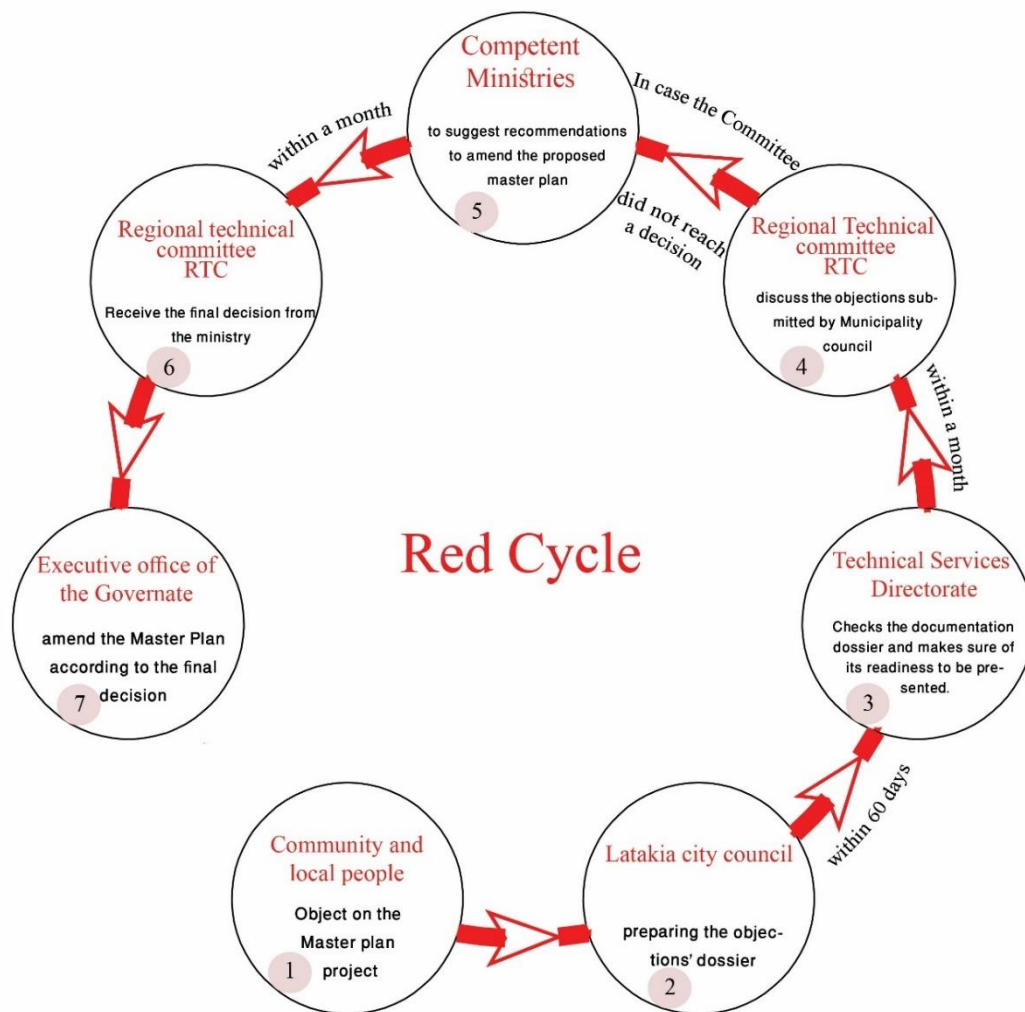
Figure 8.6: Red Cycle, The Public object to the proposed plan.
Source: (Hassan, 2010, P.28)

In October 2008, the Technical Services Directorate of the City Council prepared the file of objections to be submitted to the RTC for discussion and suggested recommendations to amend the plan. Abdin et al. (2014) pointed out that RTC suggested a set of 17 recommendations regarding the general structure plan, which were submitted to the Ministry of Housing and Construction (Now, the Ministry of Public Works and Housing) for approval in mid of 2012, but without involving or even informing the public about those recommendations. A ministerial committee was assigned to study all submitted recommendations, and it raised its final report on the necessary amendments to the proposed plan. The report then was sent to the RTC for action. Hassan (2010) created an illustration of the process when the public object to the proposed plan, called Red Cycle, see Figure 8.6.

8.4.3 The second proposed Master Plan of Latakia

The second proposed MP of Latakia was announced on 9/12/2015, after years of the first proposed plan. The second proposed plan came after the amendment to the first plan according to the recommendations of the Ministry of Public Works and Housing. The proposed plan was subject to a statutory period of 30 days (extended to 60 days) to allow anyone to review the plan and submit objections if there are any. During the period between the submission of objections and the plan's ratification, there was no transparency in announcing the raised objections or what was done in the corridors of the city council and the RTC to deal with those objections. After a few months, the New MP of Latakia was ratified on 14/8/2016, ten years later than initially planned.

8.4.4 Summary of participation actions

The previous review of the Master plan preparation process has been prepared to investigate the public participation in the process in response to some questions raised by the third objective of this study. *Who is engaged in the urban planning process?; What opportunities exist for participants to gain relevant information, express their viewpoints and make sure their voice has been heard?*

After reviewing and studying the main stages of the preparation process of the Latakia MP, the researcher concludes that the actors who effectively participated in the MP preparation process were mainly the governmental agencies and their experts. They had a good opportunity to gain and obtain sufficient information about the plan. In contrast, the public (local people) was largely excluded from the preparation process. The only method the city council used to involve the public (lay people) in the preparation process

of the MP was submitting a written objection form. This method is stipulated in Legislative Decree No. 5, (1982, art.5) according to the following quotation "Submit their objections during this period by requesting a written objection to be submitted to the administrative authority, in which the objector shall indicate his/her observations". Even the other methods used to inform the public about the new MP were limited to the announcement of the proposed plan in the lobby of the council headquarter and in the official gazette.

Even though the city council tried to hold a public hearing event to explain the proposed plan, the researcher believes the initiative was too late. The public should have been involved and informed at the early stages of the preparation process.

Summing up, the analysis and the critical review of the different stages of the preparation process of the MP of Latakia concluded that the urban planning activities are heavily controlled by the government as the main actors in the process are the governmental agencies and their experts. On the other hand, the participation of the local people was minimal; even the actions used by authorities to engage the public in the MP preparation process were limited to:

- Inform the public using methods that may not achieve the desired information propagation.
- Object to the plan by submitting a written objection form.

8.5 Primary Data Analysis and the Key Findings

The following section of this research presents the key results of primary data analysis collected by an online questionnaire survey and mainly targeted people who live in Latakia. A total of 100 responses collected were under study and analysis (for more details about designing the questionnaire and analysing the data collected, see 4.4). This analysis seeks answers to all questions raised by the third objective of this study to fulfil it.

8.5.1 Questionnaire analysis

The analysis results show that most of the sample involved are residents of Latakia city, 78% live in the city, and 17% live in nearby villages; the rest are residents of adjacent cities. 4% of respondents indicated that they are interested in Latakia as developers, local business owners, and investors. Regarding personal information about the participating sample, 73% of participants are aged 34 years old and younger, and the rest are aged between 35 and 54. No one aged 55 years old or older has participated (it might be because

the questionnaire was conducted online). 87% of participants hold a university degree, Bachelor's degree, or higher.

Regarding gender distribution of the sample, the male proportion was higher at 59%, while the female percentage was 41%. Most of the participants, 79%, indicated that they own their houses while 21% rent them. Figure 8.7 gives more illustration of the personal information of the sample's participants.
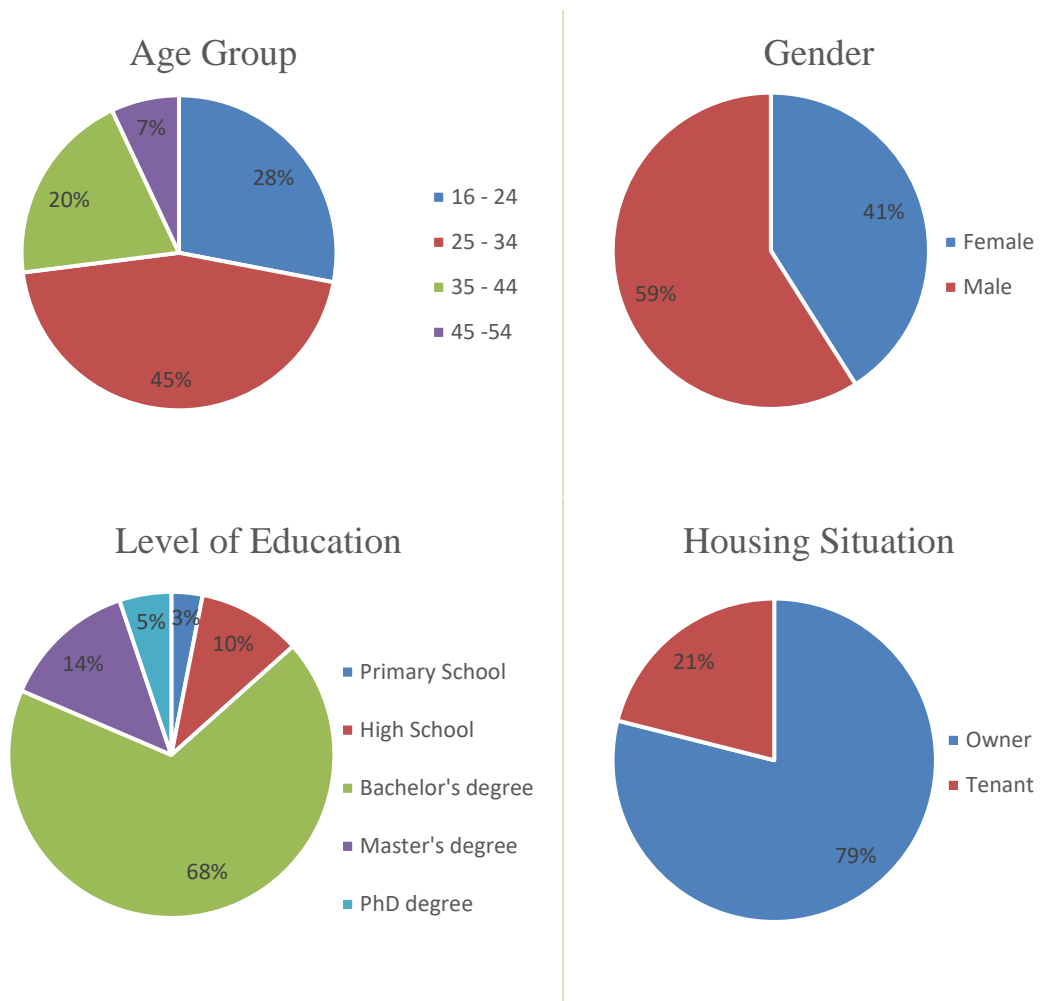
Figure 8.7: Personal information of questionnaire participants in Latakia (n = 100).
Source: Author's Original.

The distribution of the participating sample was as follows, 85% of responses came from areas inside the city border, while the remaining 17% came from nearby villages and towns. The highest percentage of responses within the city came from the city centre with 14%. Figure 8.8 illustrates the distribution of collected responses from different areas in the city and around.
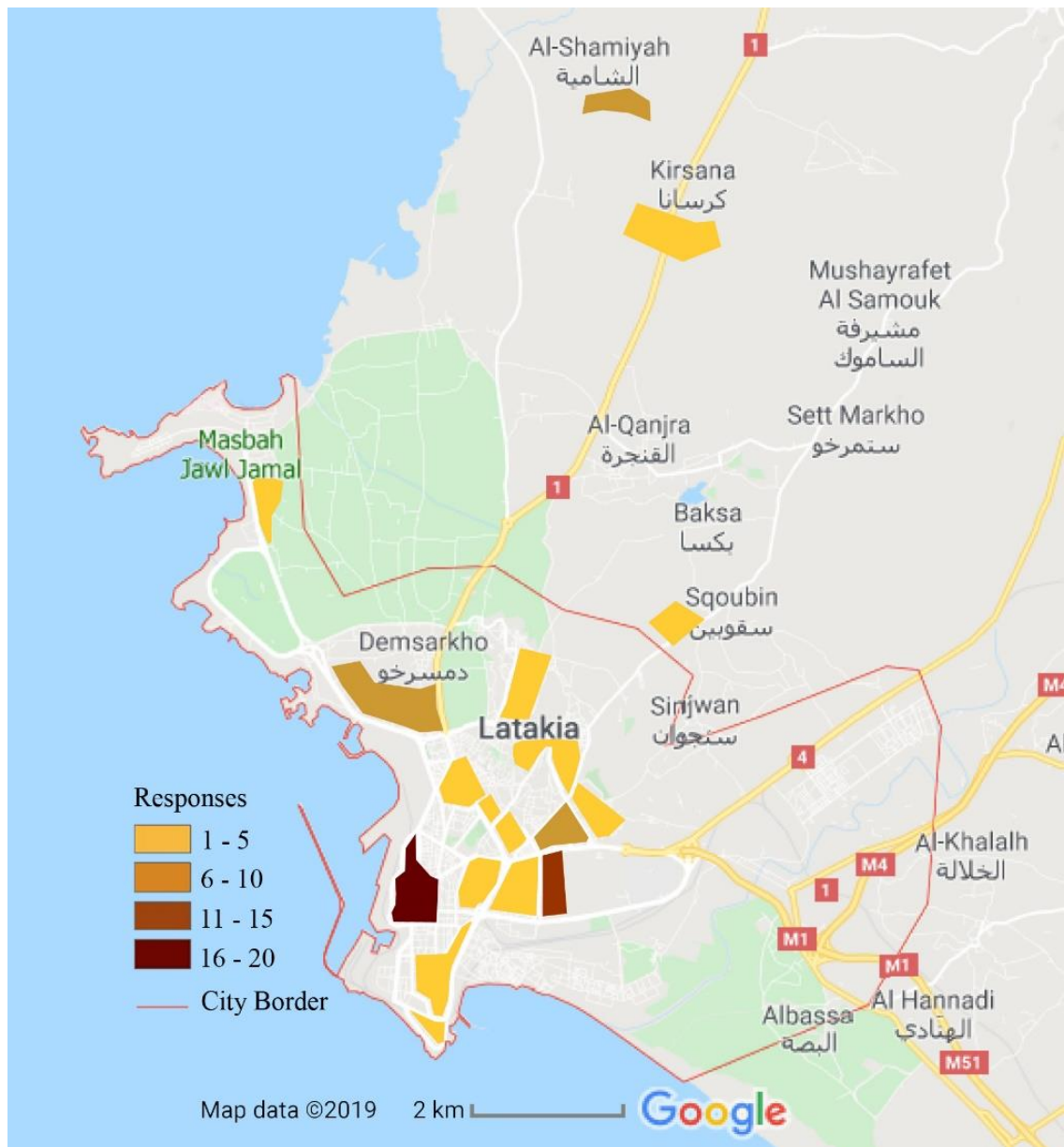
Figure 8.8: The distribution of questionnaire responses in Latakia (n = 100).
Source: Author's Original, based on Google Map.

The majority of participants, 81%, indicated that they have lived in Latakia for more than ten years, and only 3% said they have lived there for less than one year. This result indicates that the participating sample might have a good understanding of the city's needs and flaws; thus, their opinion would help enrich the research. The researcher conducted a test to find out the employment situation of the majority who have lived in the city for more than ten years; the highest category was for working people, followed by students; more information is in Figure 8.9.

249

Figure 8.9: The distribution of respondents according to living time and employment.
Source: Author's Original.

In response to the question 'if the participant has ever participated in any previous planning activities'. Around one-third indicated that they have participated in planning activities, 40% of them applied for planning/building permission, 25% stated that it was a part of their study, and some others referred to their career in planning; more information is in Figure 8.10.
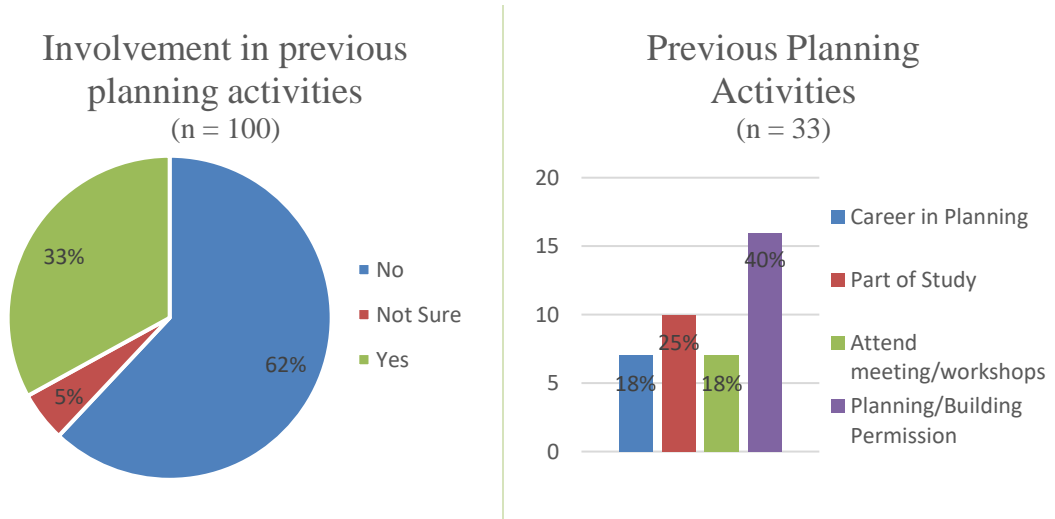
Figure 8.10: Involvement in previous planning activities.
Source: Author's Original

More than two-thirds of respondents (68%, 68 out of 100, the sample size) said they were aware of the Latakia new MP before filling out the questionnaire. Most of whom knew about the new MP of the city through word of mouth and local press, while the methods used by the city council to inform the public were not popular as just 10% indicated they had learned about the plan by attending the council meetings. Only 3% of them got to know by a letter from the council. Other participants indicated that they heard of the new MP by other methods mainly as a part of their job or study (5 and 11 respondents, respectively). More information about these methods is in Figure 8.11.
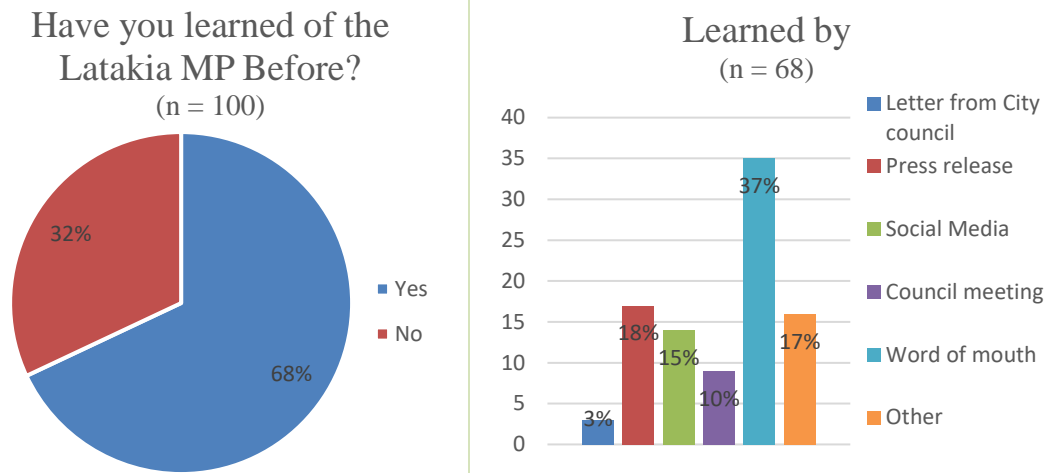
Figure 8.11: How did the respondents know of the new master plan of Latakia?
Source: Author's Original

The figure above shows that 68% of respondents have heard of the new MP of the city before, which indicates that the publicity of the plan was good, yet the highest percentage of respondents indicated that they heard of the new plan by word of mouth, and not through the council measures. This opens the door for inaccurate information about the new plan, which might contribute more to the objection to the plan. The second highest percentage was using the local press to inform the public about the plan. In general, the publicity and informing the public was fair, but this publicity essentially needs to be through the channels and measures of the city council for credibility and transparency.

In order to measure the extent to which the public has participated in the formulation process of the new MP of Latakia, the researcher asked the participants, who indicated that they had learned of the plan before, a few questions to measure the level of public participation. Thus, questions 6 to 12 were directed to those who knew about the new MP of Latakia before filling out the questionnaire. Therefore, the following results reflect the views of 68 respondents (size of the sample which already knew about the MP). Here, to find out the percentage of the results of the sample of those who knew the plan in advance (68 participants) from the total sample (100 participants), a simple arithmetic operation can be performed as follows:

$$Total\ Ratio = Sample\ Ratio * 0.68$$

Figure 8.12 clearly shows that the public has not been consulted about the new MP; 87% of the respondents indicated that they were not consulted about the plan. Just 10% (7 Participants) indicated that they were consulted by submitting a written objection, filling out a questionnaire, or attending a meeting with the city council.
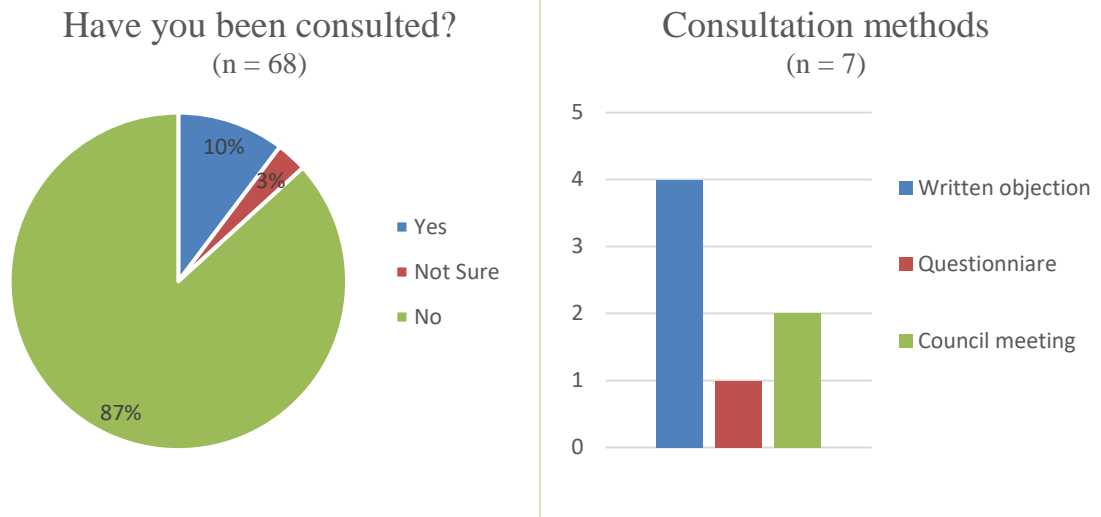
Figure 8.12: Consultation about Latakia's master plan.
Source: Author's Original

In response to whether the participant has been involved in the preparation process of the new MP of Latakia or not? The majority of 94% indicated that they were not involved in the preparation process of the new MP; only 3% (2 participants out of 68) indicated that they were involved in the preparation process of the new MP through workshops about the plan. One of them was fairly satisfied with his/her involvement, while the other participant was slightly dissatisfied. Interestingly, both participants involved in the preparation process of the new MP are planners at the city council. This result confirms the previous findings of the research that government institutions, through their officials, are the ones who actively participate in the planning process. More information is in Figure 8.13
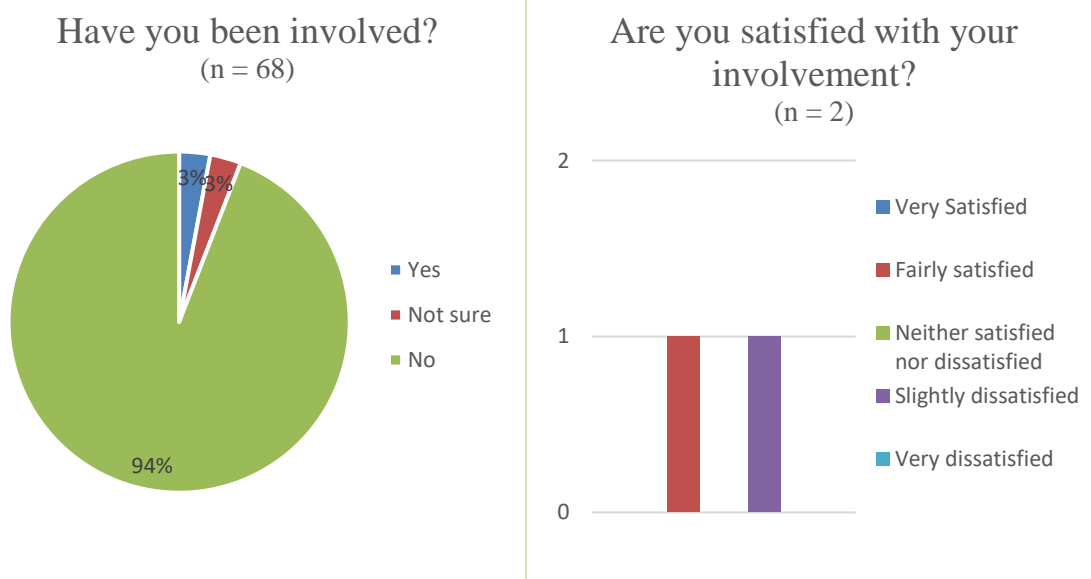
Figure 8.13: Involvement in the Latakia Master Plan preparation process.
Source: Author's Original.

Depending on the results above, the public has been

- informed 68%
- consulted 10%
- and involved 2%

Based on the above, and compared with the IPA2 spectrum of public participation, the questionnaire analysis reveals that public participation in Syrian urban planning in practice is levelled at the 'inform level'. This result emphasises the study findings of the Syrian fundamental planning law analysis that the level of public participation within the law reaches the level of informing. All in all, the level of public participation within Syrian urban planning is at a low level (***informing level)*** at both statutory and practice levels alike.

34% of respondents believe some obstacles prevented them from participating in the formulation process of the new MP, while 29% think there are no barriers. The researcher used the same method in the Edinburgh case study to analyse the data collected for this question. The researcher relied on 'grounded theory' (see 4.5.1 for more information).

A high proportion of participants, 42.4%, believe some technical barriers prevent them from being involved in the new MP formulation process, such as the secrecy of the plan preparation, poor publicity/advertising, and bureaucracy. Of other participants, 21.2% indicated that administrative corruption is a critical barrier to participating in the process; others believe there are statutory and educational barriers. More information is in Figure 8.14.

Many respondents indicated that the rampant administrative corruption in Syria's governmental and even private departments is a critical obstacle to public participation. Mousavi and Pourkiani (2013, p. 178) define *administrative corruption* as "Bribery and abusing one's position for private gain". Some of the responses mentioned some forms of this corruption as bribery and embezzlement, fraud, nepotism, blackmail, favouritism, etc. Subject 12 stated in their response mentioned the obstacles to participating as *"The Monopolising of the decision-making process by people in a position of responsibility, such as engineers, planners and influential people in the city council. In addition, the beneficiary people backed by money or authority (or both) direct this process for their benefit at the expense of the public interest"*. This response gives an idea of the state of administrative corruption in Syria
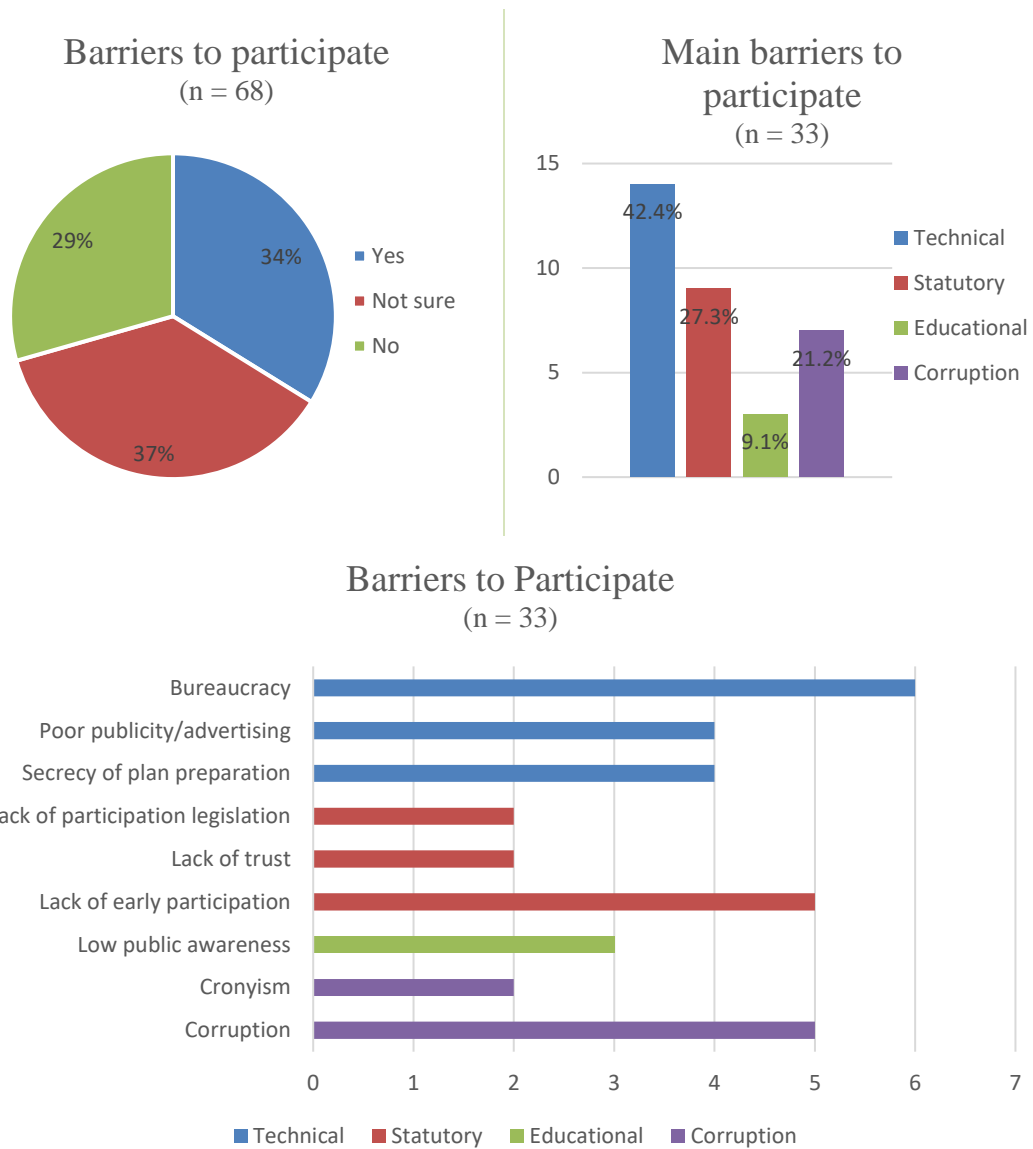
Figure 8.14: Main barriers to participating in the formulation process of the new Master Plan of Latakia. Source: Author's Original.

The percentages reflecting the participants' attitude towards the new MP were very close; one-third expressed their objection, one-third expressed their support, while the remaining third were neutral. Those who support the new MP explain the important role of the plan in guiding and planning the growth of the city and controlling the informal settlements. On the other hand, those who oppose the plan believe the plan does not meet the needs of local people and does meet some people's needs (developers, investors, and other beneficiaries). Figure 8.15 shows more information about the respondents' attitude towards the new MP and why participants oppose or support it.

Your Attitude towards new master plan (n = 68)

- Strongly Support: 14%
- Support: 17%
- No Opinion: 35%
- Oppose: 28%
- Strongly Oppose: 6%

Support and strongly support, because (n = 20)

- Guiding and planning city growth
- improving the Aesthetic image of the city
- Tackling Informal Settlements

Oppose and strongly oppose because (n = 22)

- Compulsory expropriation is unfair
- it is out of date now
- does not meet local residents' needs
- does not stop Informal Settlements
- ruining Farmlands
- Nepotism

Figure 8.15: Respondents' attitude toward the new plan and their reasons for opposing or supporting it. Source: Author's Original.

The researcher has asked the respondents if they think the new MP considers the current and future needs of the city; more than half of them said no, and only 4% (3 respondents) believe it does. In response to the overall impression of the new MP, 14% thought it was good and very good, while 34% thought it was poor and very poor; the remaining percentage were neutral; more information is in Figure 8.16.

Meeting the current and future needs (n = 68)

- No: 54%
- Not sure: 42%
- Yes: 4%

Overall impression of the new MP (n = 68)

- Very good: 5%
- Good: 9%
- Neithr good nor poor: 52%
- Poor: 22%
- Very poor: 12%
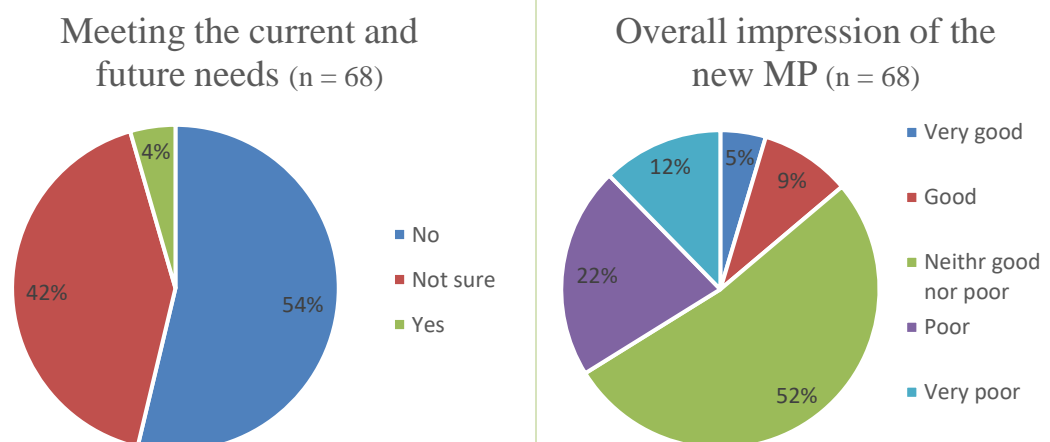
Figure 8.16: Respondents' overall impression of the new master plan. Source: Author's Original.

The researcher conducted a pivot test in Excel to find out the opinion of those who support and strongly support the plan if it meets the city's needs and their overall impression of the plan; the results are shown in Figure 8.17. In total, 19 individuals support and strongly support the MP; only one of them thinks that the new MP is very good and meets the city's needs (*by investigating this respondent turns out he is a planner working for the city council*). Eleven of them think the plan does not meet the city's needs. Yet, two of these eleven think the plan is good (by investigating those two respondents, they are both students who might have filled in contradictory information).
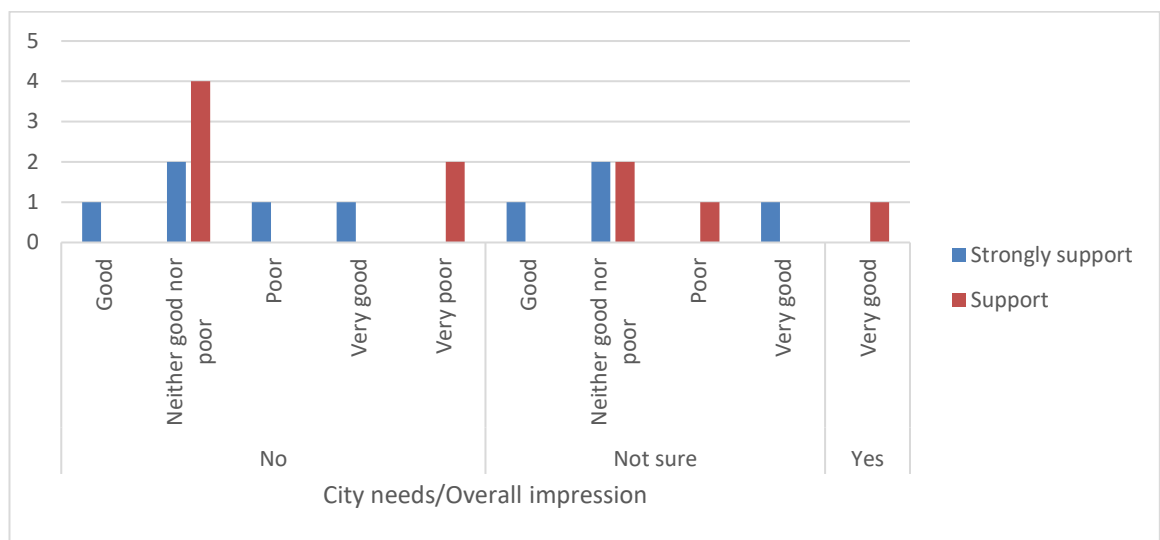
Figure 8.17: The opinion of the plan supporters on overall impression and meeting city needs (n = 19). Source: Author's Original

The researcher operated another test to investigate whether the respondents who support the plan think there are any barriers preventing the public from participating in the formulation process of the plan. The test concluded that five respondents support the plan and believe there are some barriers to participating; Figure 8.18 gives more information.
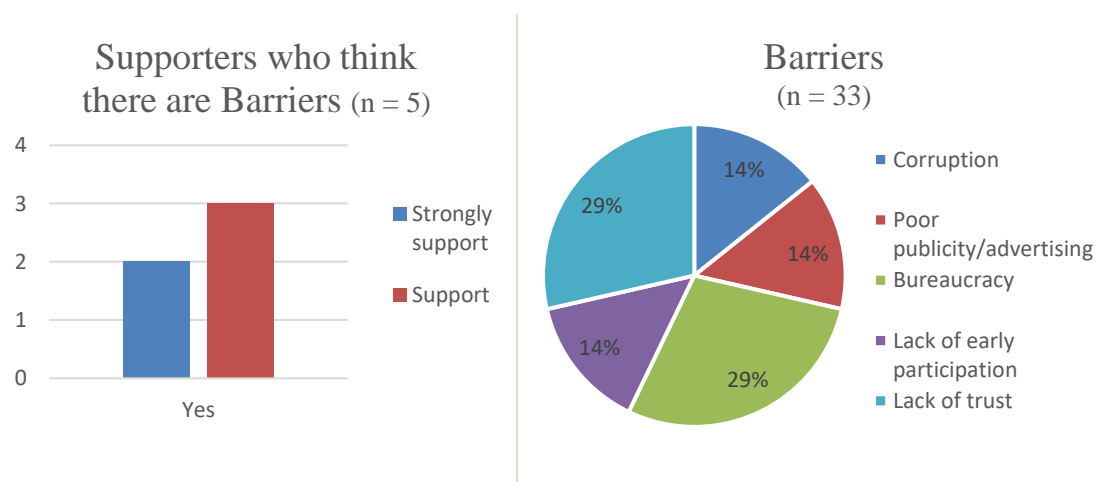
Figure 8.18: Barriers to participating according to the plan supporters' viewpoint. Source: Author's Original.

The upcoming results are for questions directed to all participants; the researcher asked questions about public participation in general and what the participants think about it. 90% of participants expressed interest in attending and participating in planning events that could take place in their area, and 79% of them said that fostering public participation would improve the quality of the plan; more illustration is in Figure 8.19.
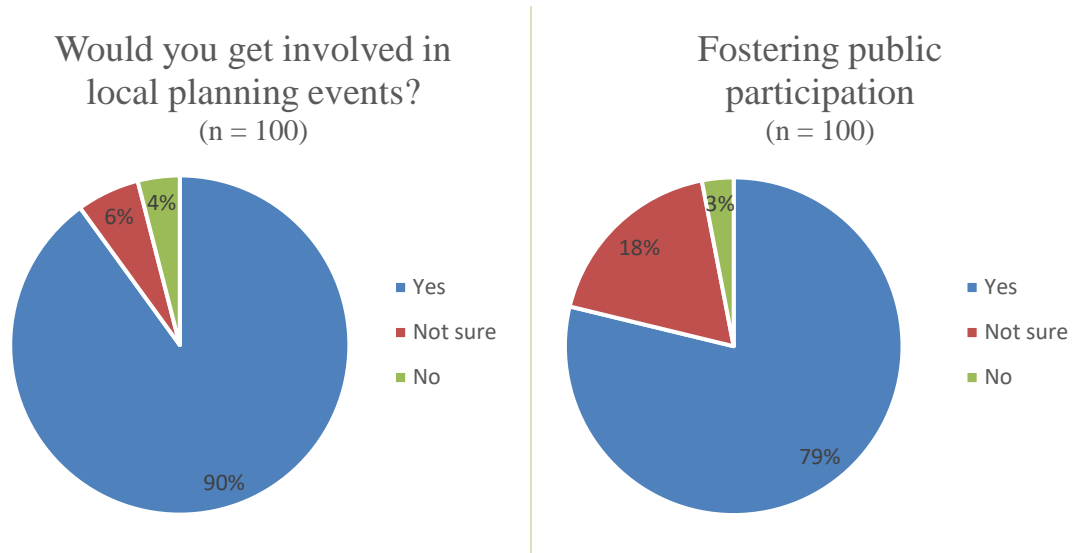
Figure 8.19: Participants' opinion on public participation.
Source: Author's Original.

The participants, who think that fostering public participation would improve the plan's quality, attribute this to many factors. Most of them indicate that local people are aware of the needs and concerns of their area better than anyone else. Others believe that engaging local people in the decision-making process would make them partners in the decisions taken, which leads to increasing acceptance. More information is in the Figure below.
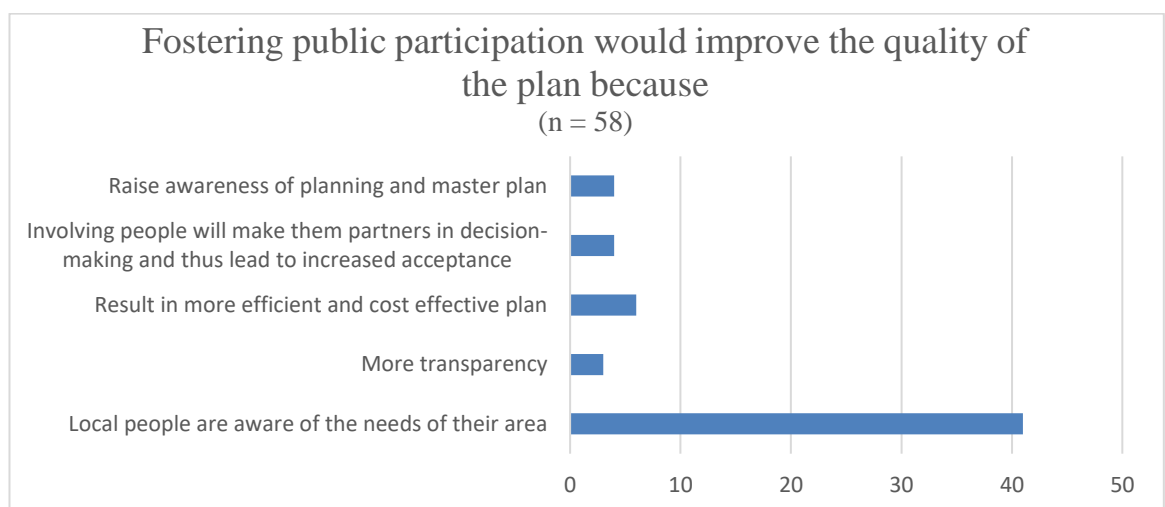
Figure 8.20: Reasons why fostering public participation would improve the plan's quality.
Source: Author's Original

The researcher conducted a pivot test to investigate whether the people who agreed on fostering public participation would like to participate in planning issues in their city. Figure 8.21 illustrates that 75% of participants are willing to be involved in planning events in their city, and they believe their involvement would improve the quality of the MP.
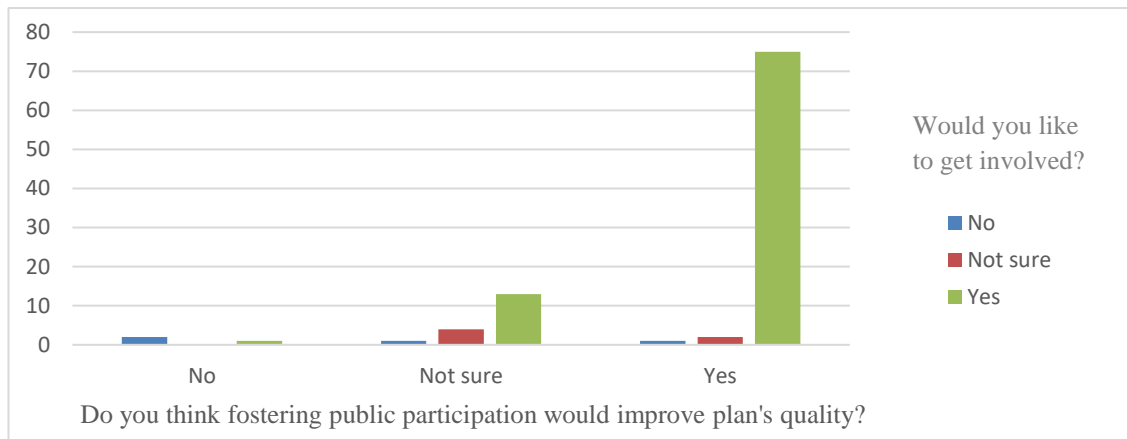
Figure 8.21: Fostering Public participation Vs willingness to get involved (n = 100).
Source: Author's Original.

In response to what ways would help improve public participation in the MP formulation process. 35% of participants believed that more face-to-face meetings between local people and the planners of the city council would give the public the chance to gain more information and express their needs and concerns. Others believed if governmental authorities, institutions, and bodies activated their websites and provided reliable information, that would give a good chance to obtain accurate information and participate accordingly. Figure 8.22 presents more ways.
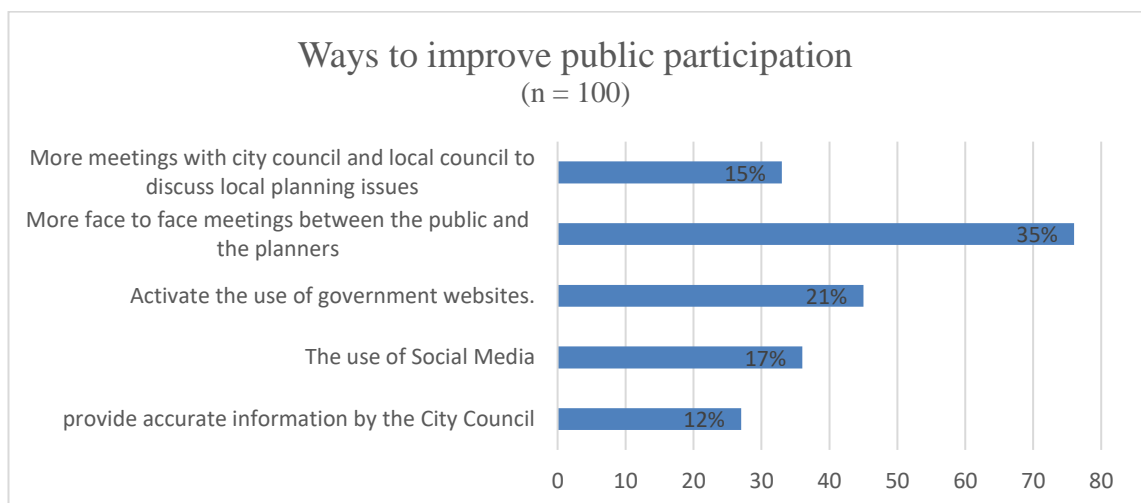
Figure 8.22: Ways to improve public participation in the Master Plan formulation process.
Source: Author's Original.

At the end of the questionnaire, the researcher asked all participants to add any comments about any planning issue concerning them in the city, and just a few of them responded. Most of the comments addressed the improvement of the city's MP. They stressed the importance of planning the city according to a long-term future vision rather than focusing on solutions for a temporary period. Combating administrative corruption was one of the main concerns of respondents, and tackling pollution and other issues related to the planning system and its laws. More information is in the figure below.
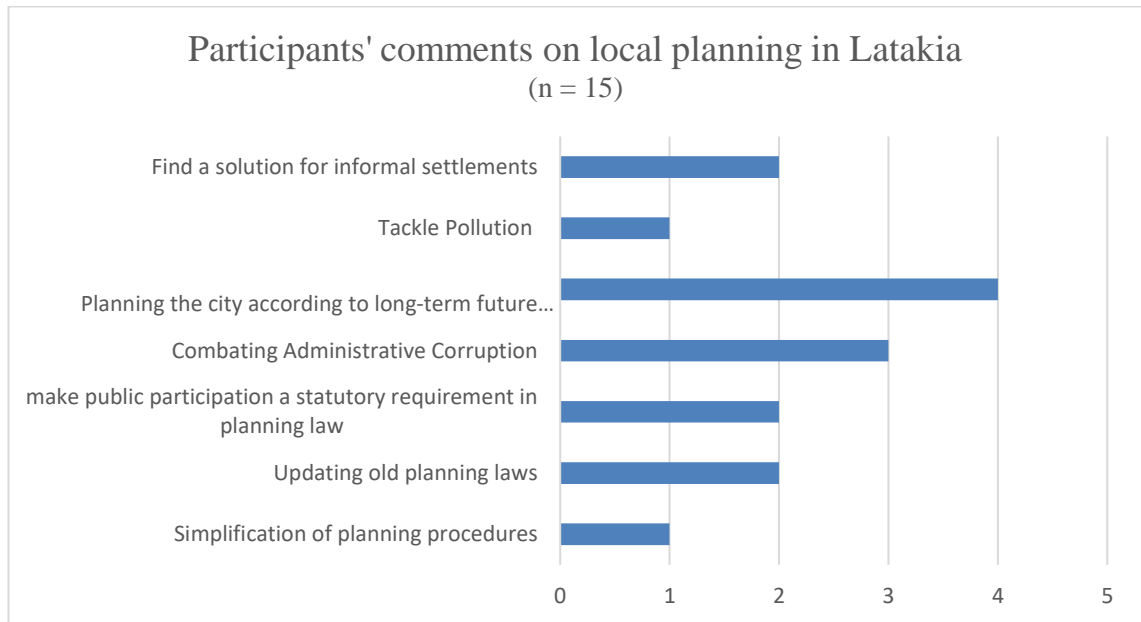
Figure 8.23: Participants' main concerns about Latakia local planning issues.
Source: Author's Original.

The key findings of the questionnaire:
Below are the main results of the questionnaire data analysis:

- 73% of participants are 34 years old and younger.
- 87% hold a University degree and above.
- 79% own their houses.
- 81% have lived in Latakia for more than ten years.
- 68% were aware of Latakia's new MP before filling out the questionnaire.

The results above indicate that most of the participating sample are young, educated, and working people who have lived in Latakia for more than ten years. This data suggests that the participating sample is supposed to know the city well and will contribute to valuable results. However, there is a weakness in the sample's structure as it only reflects the views of young educated people and excludes the views of the elderly and uneducated. This is

the main limitation and drawback of conducting an online survey, especially in a country like Syria, where the internet service is not widely spread, and its users are primarily young educated people.

Data analysis revealed that more than two-thirds of respondents indicated that they already knew about the new MP of latakia before filling out the questionnaire (68 out of 100). This means that the publicity and informing about the plan was reasonably good. The following results are for those who already knew about the plan; all percentages were measured based on the sample size of 68 participants.

- 87% have not been consulted about the new MP.
- 94% did not get involved in the preparation process of the new plan.
- 34% believed there were barriers to participating.
- The main barriers are Technical 42.4%, Statutory 27.3%, and Corruption 21.2%.
- 31% support the new plan, while 34% oppose it.
- The public's main concerns were that the plan ruins farmlands and does not meet the city's needs.
- 54% believed the plan does not meet the city's needs, and 34% think it is Poor/Very poor.

The findings above suggest that public participation in practice within the urban planning process in Syria is at *informing level*. There was barely any consultation, and local people were deliberatively excluded from participating in the MP preparation process. This result comes in line with what this thesis concluded in the previous chapters that *the level of public participation in the Syrian synoptic planning model is 'informing'*.

- 90% indicated their willingness to participate in planning events that would take place in their city.
- 79% believe that fostering public participation would improve the quality of the MP.
- Tackling administrative corruption and planning the city according to a long-term vision were the main concerns of respondents.

The questionnaire findings indicated a general tendency and volition of the people to get involved in the urban decision-making process, as 90% of the sample expressed their

willingness to participate because they believed their participation would improve the plan's quality.

8.6 Secondary Data Analysis and the Key findings

One of the leading research limitations was the researcher's inability to travel in person to Syria and collect the data needed for this research. Instead, he relied on the online questionnaire as the main technique to collect the primary data. For secondary data, he relied on some studies that addressed public participation in urban planning in Syria, specifically the Latakia MP. The first study is a Master's research the researcher submitted in 2010 (Hassan, 2010), and the second study is a journal paper published in 2014 (Abdin et al., 2014).

8.6.1 Secondary data analysis

In this section, the researcher will analyse the secondary data as follow:

- The telephone interviews were conducted for master's research (Hassan, 2010).
- The Questionnaire data was collected for the research paper (Abdin et al., 2014).

Telephone interview analysis
Two interviews were conducted on the 9th and 10th of August 2010 with two individuals who had participated in the formulation process of the new MP of Latakia, Dr O.K and Mr Z.M.

Dr O.K is a lecturer and assistant professor; he has worked in the field of planning for more than ten years. Mr Z.M is a councillor at the council of Latakia city. His position is Associate Director of technical affairs. He has worked in the field of planning since 1990. He was directly responsible for the Master Plan project from 1994 until the end of 2003.

Regarding how the interviewees define and understand the concept of public participation, both of them concur that public participation is a *"mechanism that ensures the match of the Master Plan project with the aspirations of members of the public who have the largest stake in that project"*. They defined the term "public" as *"the genuine users of the project [...] members of the public in all strata like farmers, workers, teachers, students, doctors, engineers, etc."*

The interviewees had different views on how interested the officials of local planning authorities are in the concept of public participation. Dr O.K said, *"there is no interest, or if it exists, it is very limited"*. On the other hand, Mr Z.M noted, *"there is a*

considerable interest in the concept of community participation, and local staff is working to enhance this concept through 1- pleasing members of the public and 2- modernising and developing planning tools". Here, the researcher tends to Dr O.K opinion. The interest in public participation from local authorities is minimal and virtually non-existent, yet there is a current attempt to strengthen it.

Both interviewees agreed that there is a lack of statutory requirements within the planning laws and regulations to involve the public in the planning process. Dr O.K indicated clearly that the limited participation of the public in the Latakia MP is mainly because of the lack of laws that support and encourage the public to participate. He said, *"all techniques' used to apply the community participation without clear regulation which allows to apply it in a legislative form' are a kind of manipulation"*. On the other hand, Mr Z.M thought that the public participation in Latakia MP was good. He said, *"The participation of local members was effective at the last stage of the Master plan process. It was good at the primary stages by bodies and committees representing the public"*. Dr O.K. specifically criticised this point when he said, *"community participation should be at the first stages of the planning process rather than at the last stage 'after making the decision'"*.

Discussing the high number of objections raised against the current MP of Latakia, Dr O.K ascribed that mainly to technical reasons. He said, *"the first draft was established depending on the topographic plan. Then the second draft was built on the first, third on the second […] and so on, in the end, we had a new plan which does not match reality"*, and he added, *"there was no clear or specific aim of the new plan"*. In the same vein, Mr Z.M believed that some technical reasons led to the high number of objections. He admitted that there were some faults in the new MP and people were right in their complaints, and he thought that declaring all controversial points on the plan at once was a technical mistake. In addition, he believes there is a lack of awareness among citizens about planning issues which was one of the critical reasons for the vast number of objections.

Regarding the obstacles that prevent the public from participating in the formulation process of the Latakia MP, both interviewees agreed that there were technical obstacles caused mainly because of the general economic situation, like lack of finance, which led to other problems like poor publicity and advertising and poor information. Both interviewees alike indicated a statutory obstacle to participating in the planning process.

They believe there is a lack of statutory requirements within current planning laws and regulations to engage and involve the public in the planning process. In addition to these obstacles, both interviewees agreed that there is an <u>educational obstacle</u> of lack of awareness among the public about planning issues and their importance.

Both interviewees agreed that fostering public participation would lead to effective reform of the planning system, enhancing the quality of the new plans to achieve the development wanted. At the end of the interviews, they gave their recommendations to improve the participation process in urban planning, and they stressed the importance of two main points:

- establishing a solid legislative base.
- increasing the awareness among citizens about the importance of planning issues.

Questionnaire data analysis
Abdin et al. (2014) conducted research on "Activating public participation as an essential tool for preparing more sustainable Master Plans". The chosen case study was the Latakia Master Plan, the primary tool used to collect data needed for the paper was the questionnaire. Below, the researcher will review and discuss the main results and outcome of the questionnaire.

A total of 100 responses were under study and analysing; all responses were received from participants who live within Latakia city borders, as the researchers focused on distributing the questionnaire inside the city. the majority of respondents, 68% aged between 18-39 while 24% aged between 40-50 and the rest are over 50 years old. 54% of the sample held a university degree and above (more information is in Figure 8.24).
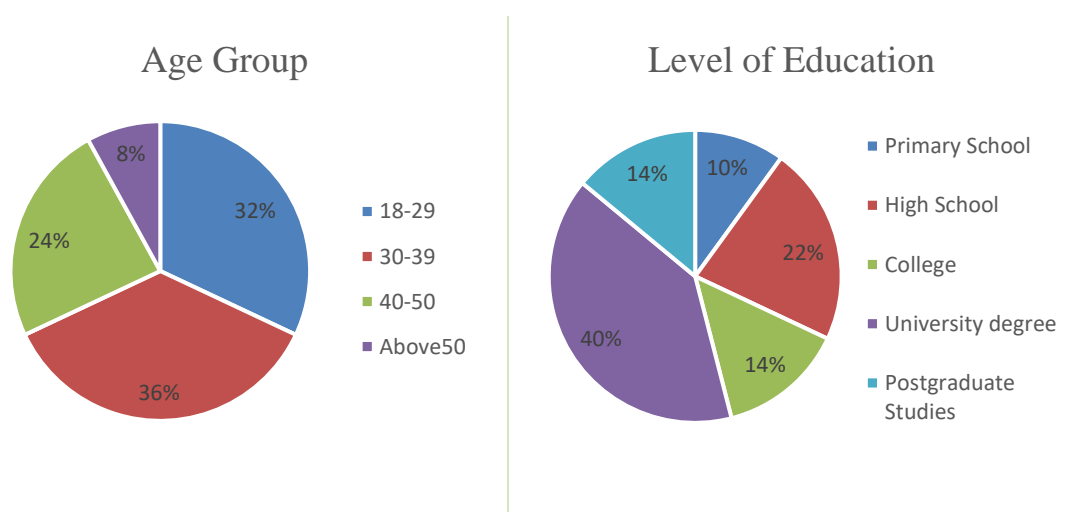
Figure 8.24: Personal information of participants (n = 100).
Source: (Abdin et al., 2014, P.230)

263

The majority of the sample indicated that they are working either for the government sector, private sector, or self-employed; 16% stated that they were unemployed. In responding to where does the participant work? 70% indicated they are working in the city centre and its suburban areas, 12% in informal settlements, and the rest in nearby villages.

Some questions related to the evaluation of the new MP were asked to investigate the extent of awareness and interest of the people during the preparation process of the new MP. 70 % of the respondents indicated that they had not seen the plan, although the majority were aware of it. Around 40% indicated that they have learned about the plan by coincidence, 20 by word of mouth, and only 14% have learned about the plan by official gazette; more information is in Figure 8.25.

How did you learn about the new Master Plan?
(n = 100)
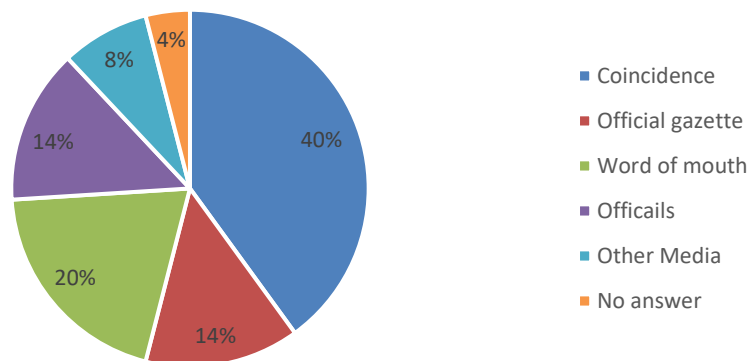
Figure 8.25: How did the respondents learn about the new Master Plan of Latakia.
Source: (Abdin et al., 2014, P.232)

The result above is consistent with the result from the findings of the questionnaire conducted by the researcher, as most of the people who knew about the new MP learned about it by coincidence or word of mouth (see Figure 8.11).

The majority of respondents, 81%, indicated that there was no public participation in the preparation process for the new MP. In comparison, according to the researchers, just 9% believed there was participation limited to the written objections. When the participants were asked whether a month period is enough as a statutory period to publicise the plan

and make it available to the public, the majority of 70% indicated it is not enough (more details are in Figure 8.26).

Participation in the preparation of MP

- Yes — 9%
- Not Sure — 10%
- No — 81%

Is statutory period of 30 days enough?

- Yes — 16%
- Not Sure — 14%
- NO — 70%
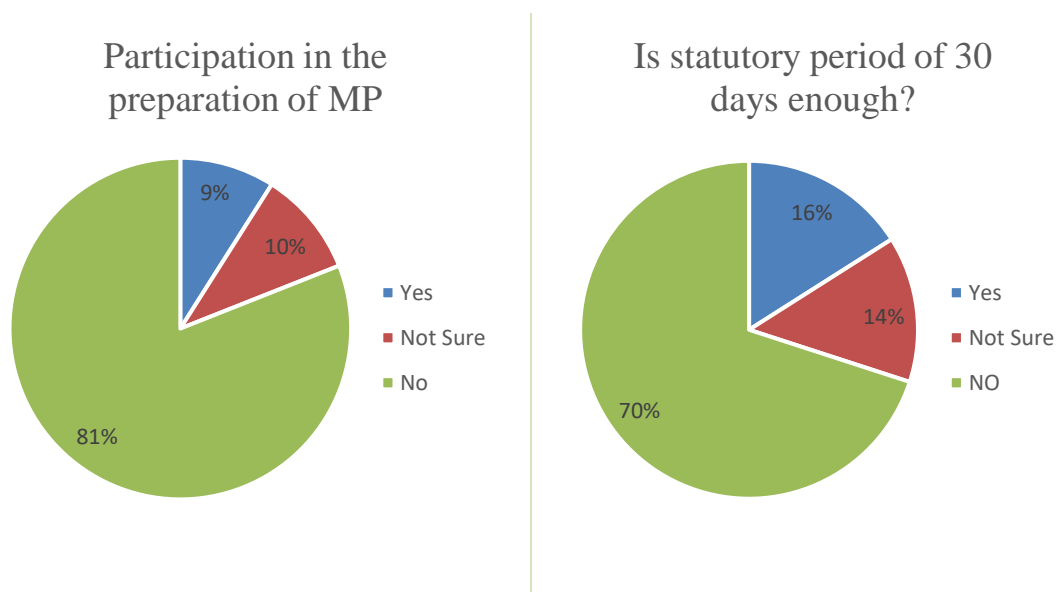
Figure 8.26: Public participation and Statutory Period of the new Master Plan of Latakia (n = 100). Source: (Abdin et al., 2014, P.232-233)

According to the questionnaire findings, most respondents (81%) expressed their interest in public participation and its importance during the preparation of development plans. Again, this result comes in line with the result of the questionnaire conducted by the researcher, where the majority of participants expressed the importance of public participation in the preparation process of the plan.

8.6.2 The key findings of secondary data analysis

- Both interviewees have worked in the preparation process of the new MP of Latakia.

- Interviewees defined public participation as a "*mechanism that ensures the match of the MP project with the aspirations of members of the public who have the largest stake in that project.*"

- Both interviewees agreed that there is a lack of statutory requirements within the planning laws and regulations to involve the public in the planning process.

- The interviewees agreed that there were technical reasons behind the high number of objections to the new MP and some other reasons concerning the level of awareness about planning issues among the public.

- The interviewees ascribed the low public participation in the preparation process of the new MP to technical, statutory, and educational reasons.

- The interviewees stressed the importance of fostering public participation in planning and how this could improve the plan's quality; they emphasised the establishment of a robust legislative base that would support and stimulate public participation and raise public awareness of planning issues.

- Most questionnaire respondents were from the youth group with a university degree, and most were employed.

- 81 % have heard about the new MP, yet 70% of respondents did not see it.

- 60 % heard about the new MP by coincidence or word of mouth.

- The majority of respondents, 81%, indicated that there was no public participation in the preparation process of the new master.

- 70% indicated that the statutory period of 30 days to publicise the plan and open it to objections is not enough.

- 81% believe in the importance of public participation during the formulation process of the development plans.

8.7 Critical Discussion

After analysing the primary and secondary data collected and all official documents of the new MP of Latakia, this section will evaluate the level of public participation in the preparation and adoption process of the new plan based on the IAP2 approach adopted (see Figure 2.3). This section provides a critical discussion of the strengths, weaknesses, success, failure, and limitations of participatory approaches used in the preparation and adoption process of the new MP of Latakia. This is to answer the last question of the third objective of this study, '*What is the level of public participation in urban planning in practice?*'

Informing the public
The question asked here: Has the public at large been adequately informed about the new Master Plan?

The primary data analysis revealed that 68% of the questionnaire participants were aware of the new MP of Latakia. Yet, the highest proportion, 37% of them, indicated that they heard about the new plan from word of mouth, and only 13% of them knew about the plan through the city council measures. On the other hand, the secondary data analysis concluded the same result where 81 % had heard about the new MP, and around 60 % of them heard about the new MP by coincidence or word of mouth.

By evaluating the level of 'informing' carried out by the relevant authorities in the city council, it was found that the city council was not successful to the degree required to announce and publicise the new plan. However, the publicity and **informing the public was reasonably good.** Although, this publicity essentially needs to be through the channels and measures of the city council for credibility and transparency.

Consulting with the public
The main Act of urban planning in Syria (Legislative Decree No.5 of 1982) does not have any statutory requirements to consult with the public at large during the preparation of the MP and its related documents. This point was explicitly emphasised in the interviewees' responses. They stressed the need for fundamental amendments to the basic planning law to include a legal requirement for public participation and involvement. As mentioned earlier in a previous chapter (see 6.4.1), the consultation is limited to administrative units' councils (governorate or municipality council) and experts nominated by the government. At this phase, the members of local councils give their views and comments on proposed draft plans but not the local people. Once again, these findings emphasise the results concluded by evaluating the current planning system in Syria. Synoptic planning is the model of the Syrian planning system where the government, through the planners, are the main actors who are effectively engaged in the planning process.

In the same vein, the questionnaire data analysis revealed that 87% of the respondents indicated that they were not consulted about the plan. Only 10% (7 Participants) indicated that they were consulted by submitting a written objection, filling out a questionnaire, or attending a meeting with the city council.

In short, **the consultation process is limited to the experts** and governmental bodies, whereas the public at large does not have any direct impact on the process.

Involving, collaborating, and empowering the public
The analysis of primary and secondary data and all related official documents indicate that the Syrian urban planning system in theory and practice is levelled up to the informing level. The public at large can obtain information about the new master plans at the latest stage of the preparation process, and their participation is limited to submitting a written objection. At the higher levels of the IAP2 Spectrum, consultation and involvement are limited to experts and governmental agencies where the influence of the public at large is excluded.

To reach the highest levels of the IAP2 Spectrum, ensuring collaborating and empowering the public requires fundamental amendments and reform to the main laws and regulations that rule and control the Syrian planning system, combined with a fundamental change to the current planning culture. The updated regulations and laws should effectively foster and encourage the public at large to participate and engage in the planning process from the early stages and emphasise the role of the public as a key stakeholder in the process. In addition, updated laws should be accompanied by action plans and techniques to ensure the effective participation of the general public.

8.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher sought to provide answers to the questions raised by the third objective of this study. After studying and analysing the main data collected and comparing its results with the results of secondary data and the theoretical information obtained by analysing the main laws and regulations that control and regulate the urban planning process in Syria, the researcher concludes with the following answers:

- Who is engaged in the urban planning process in Syria?

According to the principal Act of urban planning in Syria (Legislative Decree No.5 of 1982), those who engage and participate in the urban planning process are competent Ministries, Higher Technical committees, Governorate councils, Local Authority Councils, and Representatives of different unions. At the same time, the participation of the public at large and local people is limited to the submission of written objections. The telephone interview results indicated that the main actors in the urban planning process in the country are the governmental agencies.

In other words, to sum it up, those who participate effectively in the urban planning process in Syria are mainly the governmental agencies. At the same time, the participation of local/laypeople is still limited to written objections.

- What opportunities exist for participants to:
- ➢ obtain relevant information;

The government agencies involved in the planning process have an excellent opportunity to gain and obtain sufficient information about the plans under preparation. In contrast, the public is entirely excluded from the process; they will not be informed of what is happening inside the corridors of the authorities that are studying and supervising the plan. Hence, the plan remains shrouded in secrecy and ambiguity. When the first proposed plan is ready, the city council announces the plan in the lobby of the headquarter of the

council and the city's official gazette; then, it gives the public the chance to see the plan. The questionnaire results indicated that 68% of respondents have heard about the new MP of Latakia, yet the majority heard about it by word of mouth (see Figure 8.11). In their paper, Abdin et al. (2014) concluded that 70% had not seen the plan, although the majority were aware of it, and 60% indicated that they heard about the plan either by coincidence or word of mouth (see Figure 8.25). It is clear that the methods used by the council to inform the people of the new MP, whether it was published in the lobby of the council headquarter or in the official newspaper, were insufficient.

➤ express their views;

According to the primary urban planning law in Syria, the members of local authority councils can discuss the draft of the MP and raise their concerns about it and suggest some amendments (See Blue Cycle, Figure 8.5). As for the public (local people), they can express their opinion on the proposed plan (not the draft) by submitting a written objection explaining the reason for the complaint, which is the only way the law mentioned to obtain the views of the public (see the Red Cycle, Figure 8.6).

➤ make sure that their needs have been heard and will be addressed by officials.

In the Blue cycle (Figure 8.5), when the members of local authority councils discuss the draft of the MP, they have the chance to review the plan after the amendments, so they can see whether their concerns have been addressed or not. On the other side, in the Red Cycle (Figure 8.6), when the local people submit their written objections, their objections will be tabulated and analysed. Then these complaints are presented to the Regional planning committee (RTC) for consideration and suggesting recommendations to amend the plan. Usually, this process is done without referring to or informing the public or allowing them to know if the issues they raised were addressed or not. Here, more transparency is needed.

• When and at what stage of the urban planning process does public participation occur? How early?

By reviewing Figure 6.10, it becomes evident that public participation (participation of the local public, not government agencies) is limited to the local level, where all plans and schemes are prepared at national and regional levels without consulting or even informing the public. Although the public participation process takes place at the local level, it occurs at a late stage of the preparation process of the MP, and the public is not involved at an early stage at all.

- How does the public participation process occur? What approaches and methods are used to encourage groups and individuals to participate?

As mentioned in the paragraph above, public participation occurs at the local level at a late stage of the MP preparation process. The only methods used to engage the public are submitting written objections and announcing the plan in the official gazette.

- What is the level of public participation in urban planning in practice?

The researcher concluded in chapter six that the level of public participation within the urban planning laws and regulations in Syria reaches the level of 'inform' (see 6.5). In this chapter and after analysing primary and secondary data. The questionnaire results show that 68% of respondents were aware of the new MP of Latakia, and 87% of them had not been consulted about the new MP. This result comes in line with the outcome of secondary data collected by (Abdin et al., 2014), where 81% of respondents indicated there was no public participation in the preparation process of the plan. Moreover, both interviewees indicated that the public participation in the preparation process of the plan was low, and they mainly ascribed it to statutory reasons. In sum, the level of public participation within the Syrian urban planning system reaches the 'inform' level.

In the next chapter, a critical comparison between the UK-Scotland and Syria is presented to identify the differences and 'similarities' (if they exist) in the urban development decision-making process in both countries in theory and practice.

Chapter Nine: A Critical Comparison of the British and Syrian Contexts

9.1 Introduction

At this stage of the research, and after studying the progress achieved in public participation in the urban development decision-making process in both countries 'the UK-Scotland and Syria' separately, This chapter presents a summary of the research purpose and a critical comparison between the British and Syrian contexts. This chapter comes to fulfil the first part of the fourth objective of this research which is *"Critically analyse the differences and 'similarities' within the urban development decision-making process between the UK-Scotland and Syria both in theory and practice, in order to propose recommendations that are designed to improve the quality of public participation in urban planning, with a view to promote and achieve changes in local urban governance in Syria"*.

Therefore, this chapter summarises the research purpose and then presents a critical comparison of all the results reached in the previous chapters (5,6,7 and 8) to identify the differences and 'similarities' in the urban development decision-making process in both countries in theory and practice. The comparison is conducted based on the analytical framework approved for this research (see Figure 4.5). The comparison findings are presented through the three dimensions studied by both countries (national settings, planning structure, and planning practice).

9.2 Research Purpose

Since 2011, Syria has been in turmoil and instability due to the ongoing war there, resulting in drastic social, economic, and political changes in the country. All these changes need to be considered carefully after the war and during the rebuilding phase of the country. In terms of the planning system, reforming and modernising the current planning system to ensure more public participation in the decision-making process is an urgent need that could foster the contribution of the public in the post-conflict planning and reconstruction phase. Before the war and during the first decade of the 21st century, Syria, under the influence and help of the UNDP, sought to make some social and economic changes in the country. Those change attempts were noted within the 10th FYP, where the concepts of 'civil society', 'participation', and 'governance' were introduced. This has affected the urban planning context within the country, where a new approach to decision-making within the land-use planning system was introduced. However, the

efficiency of the new approach to achieving better outcomes for development plans is still questionable.

Thus, as a cross-national comparative study, this research analysed the urban development decision-making process as a form of urban governance with emphasis on the progress achieved in public participation within the urban British and Syrian contexts alike. This study was conducted based on the contextual approach and relying on the planning cultures model developed by Steinhauer (2011) as a conceptual framework to analyse the national planning cultures in both countries under study. Accordingly, the urban development context of both countries was studied through three key dimensions as follows:

- National settings: addressing the main society forces spheres in each country (State, Economy, and Society).
- Planning Structure: addressing the main policies, institutions, and regulations ruling the urban planning process in both countries, with emphasise on the opportunities that exist for the public to participate in the urban development decision-making process.
- Planning Practice: analysing the data collected for chosen case studies in both countries to investigate the level of public participation in the urban development decision-making process in practice.

The following sub-section presents a comparative summary and evaluation of the British and Syrian contexts of the urban development decision-making process.

9.3 Comparison of the Contexts

A cross-national comparative study of urban planning in two countries with dissimilar political frameworks, physical sizes, development levels, and cultural contexts needs a comprehensive understanding of the contexts as the pre-condition in setting up the comparative analysis. Thus, understanding the differences and similarities in the political, economic, and social contexts of the two countries and investigating the urban planning systems' similarities and differences as to their normative, methodological and institutional dimensions constitutes the cornerstone for knowing the strengths and weaknesses within the urban development decision-making process in both countries. The following sub-section will summarise the differences and 'similarities' in both countries at different dimensions as studied in the previous chapters (see chapters 5,6,7 and 8).

9.3.1 Political, economic, and social contexts

Depending on the analytical framework designed for this research (see Figure 4.5), a detailed study of both chosen countries has been presented in chapters Five, Six, Seven, and Eight. Chapter five concluded that the UK is a state ruled by a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarchy. Its economy is based on Capitalism, where its market is partially regulated-oriented, and the British population is heavily affected by excessive individualism. While chapter six recapitulated that Syria is governed by Semi-presidential democracy with broad executive and procedural powers in the president's hands. Its Economy is based on Socialism, where the market is heavily state-run controlled; the Syrian population is perceived as a fragmented society with high internal collectivism.

Comparing the national settings (State, Market, and society) between the two countries shows that the total geographical area of Syria is equivalent to approximately three-quarters of the area of the United Kingdom, and the population of Syria is estimated at 39% of the British population. The system of the government in Britain is a "monarchy with parliamentary democracy", while the system of the government in Syria is "republican with a presidential democracy". According to the law and constitution, theoretically, Both the Monarch and the President in the UK and Syria, respectively, hold very similar positions and responsibilities, such as (the head of the executive branch, an integral part of the legislature, and the commander-in-chief of all armed forces). While that sounds like a great deal of responsibility for the head of the state in both countries, the real power in the hands of the Monarch in the UK has been steadily reduced over the years, and she/he acts only on the advice of her/his ministers. In contrast, the president in Syria has extensive executive powers granted by the constitution, making the president the country's supreme authority. The differences between the two systems are demonstrated by a critical comparison between two Figures 5.3 and 6.2. Table 9.1 illustrates the comparison of the national settings between the UK and Syria.

The economy in the United Kingdom is based on capitalism (remarketized and responsible). Within this form of the economic system, the public sector provides the general economic framework in the form of plans and policies, while the private sector initiates the development process. In Syria, the economy is based on a Socialism policy. It is centrally planned and state-run, where the government controls the most vital sectors of the country's economy and regulates private business.

Table 9.1:The comparison of national settings between the UK and Syria.

National Settings			UK	Syria
State	Physical Size	Area	243.610 km²	185,180 km²
		Population	63,182,178	24,504,000
	Government Structure	Democracy	Monarchy with parliamentary democracy	Republican with Semi-presidential democracy
		The Executive	The Monarch and her Government	The President and his government
		The Legislature	The Monarch and Bicameral Parliament	The President and People's Assembly
		The Judiciary	Three separate legal systems/UK supreme court	Three judicial bodies/ The Supreme Constitutional Court
	Administrative System		Decentralised unitary country	Centralised unitary state
	Constitutional Law		Unwritten constitution\ respect for individual liberty and democracy (separation of powers).	Written constitution\ granting the president-elect broad powers
Economy	Economic system		Capitalism (Remarketized capitalism)	Socialism
	Market Type		Partially regulated market	State-run market
Society	Social Structure		class-divided society	Religiously/class-divided Society
	Social Culture		Excessive Individualism	Fragmented Collectivism

Source: Author's Original.

Historically, British society is classified as a class-divided society with social inequality. During the last decades of the last century, British society witnessed substantial economic, political, social, and cultural transformations. The neo-liberalism era brought privatisation to British society not just as an economic Act but also as a cultural and social Act that contributed to creating a new individual lifestyle that strengthened individualism in society since then. After the Second World War, the waves of immigration in the Kingdom at that time led to the introduction of new cultures to British society, which was later characterised by a multi-cultural society. In the case of Syria, the Syrian society is a fragmented society, composed of social groups that differ both religiously and ethnically, which have a solid internal homogeneity. However, collectivism seems to be the feature that all these different groups share. In other words, Syrian society is a fragmented society with high internal collectivism.

9.3.2 Planning structure

Based on the conceptual framework of this research, the planning structure in both countries is compared in terms of the main policies, institutions, and regulations that rule and control the urban development decision-making process in both countries. Table 9.2 summarises the leading institutions of urban development planning and their documents as studied in previous chapters (see 5.3.1 and 6.3.1). Through a critical comparison between the two countries illustrated in the table below, the researcher concludes that both countries have planning institutions at all national, regional, and local levels. Each of these institutions issues plans and programs to guide and improve the development process. The comparison concluded that the planning policies in place at all national, regional, and local levels in both countries are very similar, as well as the planning plans and documents issued at each level.

Table 9.2: Comparing planning policies and institutions in both Scotland and Syria.

| Level | UK-Scotland | | Syria | |
	Bodies/ Organisations	Documents/ Plans	Bodies/ Organisations	Documents/ Plans
National	Scottish Government (Scottish Executive)	National Planning Framework (NPF) Scottish Planning Policy (SPP) Planning Advice Notes	Syrian Government PICC	National Vision (NV) Five-Year Plan (FYP)
Regional*	Strategic Development Planning Authorities (SDPAs)	Strategic Development Plan (SDP)	Regional Planning Commission (RPC)	National Framework for Regional planning (NFRP) Regional Plans (RPs)
Local	Local Planning Authorities (LPAs)	Local Development Plan (LDP) and its documents	Governorate (Executive office of Governorate council)	Planning Program Structure Plan Master Plan

Source: Author's Original depending on Table 5.7 and Table 6.2.
* Regional bodies and documents as required by Planning Etc. (Scotland) Act 2006.

In terms of the primary laws and regulations that control and guide the urban development process in Scotland and Syria, the Planning, etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 was considered the primary and key law to be followed when creating new development plans for any urban agglomeration in Scotland. What distinguishes the Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 is that it is considered a comprehensive law that sets out all procedures to be followed at all levels (national, regional, and local) to guide and improve the development process in the country. In the case of Syria, there is no unified law that specifies all the procedures that must be followed to guide and improve the development process in the country. However, several laws and regulations set out the procedures to be followed at each level separately. PICC sets up the National Vision (NV) and Five Year Plan (FYP) at the national level, while at the regional level, Law No. 26 of 2010 sets out all procedures to be followed to create the NFRP. As for the local level, Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982 is considered the fundamental law that defines the procedures to be followed when establishing local development plans (Master Plan).

Based on the above, a critical comparison of the official urban development decision-making process within the Scottish and Syrian contexts (comparing between Figure 5.10 and Figure 6.10) shows that both countries have very similar institutions and procedures. There is centralisation in taking the final decisions (the government at the national level takes the final decision). Yet, there is a fundamental difference that the planning process emphasises public participation much more effectively in the Scottish context than in the Syrian context. The following subsection compares the level and effect of public participation in the urban development planning process in both countries.

Public participation within the planning process
To compare the evolution of the concept of public participation in the planning process between the UK-Scotland and Syria, a critical comparison of Figures 5.11 and 6.11 was undertaken. The comparison shows that the interest in public participation in British urban planning goes back to 1947 when individual planning authorities' discretion for action and policy formulation was built into the planning system. During the late 1960s, the publication of Skeffington's report 'people and planning' is considered the first official document to address the issue of public participation in urban planning. Then during the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, publicity and consultation became an essential element of statutory planning. At the early time of the twenty-first century, a new reform of the planning system ended up with new regulations that emphasised community involvement in planning and raised the level of public participation from consultation to

involvement 'theoretically'. As for Syria, the beginnings of interest in public participation in the urban planning system date back to the late 1950s when the Law of Agrarian Reform was issued, which emphasised the distribution of land and granting individuals property rights. Later in the 1960s, some laws were passed that affirmed the participation of individuals in controlling urban sprawl by obtaining a building permit. In 1982, Legislative Decree No.5 made a public notification about master plans a statutory element of the planning system and granted individuals the right to comment and object to the proposed plans. Until today, these procedures are still in effect without any significant change.

By investigating the level of public participation within the fundamental planning laws in both countries, the researcher has concluded in chapters five and six that public participation within the Planning, etc. (Scotland) Act 2006 reaches *consultation* level and seeks placation (involve). While the level of public participation within the Legislative Decree No. 5 (Syria) is merely at the level of *informing*. The researcher created Table 9.3 to compare the Scottish and Syrian contexts and investigated how early it is for the laypeople to participate in the formulation process of planning documents at various levels.

Table 9.3: How early can the local people participate in the formulation process of planning documents?

Level	UK-Scotland			Syria	
	Early engagement	Informing and representation	Consultation	Early engagement	Informing and representation
National	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Regional	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Local	Affected	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

Source: Author's Original depending on Table 5.8 and Table 6.3.

Based on Table 3.2 and after reviewing the conclusions of the fifth and sixth chapters, a general comparison of the Scottish and Syrian planning structures is presented in Table 9.4. The Syrian planning system is based on the *Synoptic approach,* where the state, through its planners, controls and manages the process without the need for any form of public involvement. On the other hand, the Scottish planning system is based on the *pluralistic approach* where the state, through its planners, plays an essential role as a mediator in managing latent conflict between all stakeholders in the planning process.

Table 9.4: General comparison of planning structure in the UK-Scotland and Syria.

	Nature of planning	Division of power	Planning Model	Level of public participation	Philosophy
UK-Scotland	No fixed vision	Government, private sector, and civil society	Advocacy or 'pluralistic' model	Tokenism (placation)	Relativism
Syria	Flexible vision and specific action	Government with the private sector	Synoptic planning model	Tokenism (Informing)	Rationalism

Source: Author's Original

It is clearly shown that the planning system in UK-Scotland is more advanced than the planning system in Syria. This study revealed that the Syrian planning system is based on old concepts, philosophy, and laws. Thus, it urgently needs renewal and reform.

9.3.3 Planning practice

At this dimension, the planning practice was studied in both countries at the local level, "one of the key reasons to consider the local level is because it serves as the practical implications of the effects of higher levels of planning and government policymaking. It is the physical manifestation of continuous policy concerns and the theatre within which actors are supporting or opposing projects of varying degrees lock horns about land-use change" (Tewdwr-Jones, 2012, P. 183).

The procedures and documents to create the local development plan and master plan in Edinburgh and Latakia were addressed in detail in the seventh and eighth chapters. Through a critical comparison, the researcher concluded that the procedures and documents used to create the development plans in both cities are similar; Table 9.5 sums up and compares all steps followed to create the development plan and master plan in both cities.

As mentioned before in this chapter (see 9.3.2), the planning process in terms of procedures, documents, and plans is somewhat similar in both countries (UK-Scotland and Syria), with a fundamental difference in terms of engaging the public in the process. The comparison at the dimension of 'planning structure' concluded that public participation in the urban development decision-making process is as follows. In Scotland, it operates at the consultation level and seeks the placation level, while in Syria, it is merely at the informing level.

Table 9.5: Comparison of the main stages of preparing the Local Development Plan and Master Plan.

Stage	Edinburgh	Latakia
1st	Main Issues Report (MIR)	Planning Program Report and Structure Plan
2nd	MIR consultation period (3 Months)	Detailed Land-Use Plan
3rd	Proposed Plan	Proposed Detailed Master Plan
4th	Representations (6 weeks)	Representations (30 days)
5th	Second Proposed Plan	Second Proposed Detailed Master Plan
6th	Representations (6 weeks)	Representations (30 days)
7th	Examination	Examination
8th	Adoption of the Plan	Adoption of the Plan

Source: Author's Original

Table 9.6 below compares the main engagement activities taken during the preparation process of Edinburgh LDP and Latakia MP at all different stages of the process. It clearly shows the considerable difference between the activities taken to prepare the two plans.

Table 9.6 Comparison of the engagement activities taken in Edinburgh and Latakia.

	Stage	Statutory Period	Engagement Activities
Edinburgh	Main Issues Report (MIR)	3 Months	• Provide paper copies of all documents at all public libraries and the Council offices. • Post all the documents available on the Council website. • Send the information out via e-mail and letters • Send the information out through Community Councils and other local networks. • Share information at Staffed exhibitions at public events, markets, and shopping centres. • Hold workshops where appropriate • Use the media to raise awareness • Online and Freepost questionnaire

	Proposed Plan	Six weeks	• Notify all those who submitted responses to the MIR and others on the Mailing list about the proposed Plan. • Notify people who live close to new proposed sites • Send copies of the proposed plan and supporting documents to the community council and other groups and place them in public libraries and the Council's Planning Reception. • All documents are to be published online. • Drop-in sessions to help the public understand the Proposed LDP. • Use the media to raise awareness
	Second Proposed plan	Six weeks	• Same all activities are taken at the first proposed plan
Latakia	Planning Program Report and Structure Plan	Not Applicable	• None
	Detailed Land-Use Plan	Not Applicable	• None
	Proposed Detailed MP	30 days	• Public hearing event • The plan was announced in the lobby of the council headquarter and the city's official gazette.
	Second Proposed Detailed MP	30 days, extended to 60 days	• The plan was announced in the lobby of the council headquarter and the city's official gazette.

Source: Author's Original

In the early stages of preparing the MP of Latakia (Planning Program Report, Structure Plan, and Detailed Land-Use Plan), there were no engagement activities with the public at all, not even to inform the public about what the studying authorities of the plan were working on. At later stages, the engagement activities were limited to announcing the plan in the official gazette and making it available in the lobby of the city council to be within reach of the local people. And local people and any interested body have 30 days to submit written objections if they have any concerns about the plan.

To summarise and compare all the answers to questions raised by this study's third objective, which is to " Critically assess the effectiveness of public participation in urban planning in practice within the Syrian and Scottish planning context alike.". Table 9.7 presents this comparison.

Table 9.7: Public participation in urban planning in practice in Scotland and Syria

Question	Scotland/Edinburgh	Syria/Latakia
Who is engaged?	Key agencies, local authorities, community councils, developers, and ordinary local people.	Mainly governmental institutions and agencies and their experts.
Access to relevant information	Two-thirds of participants obtain information through a <u>letter from the council, community council meeting, press release</u>	More than two-thirds of participants heard of the new MP, yet the majority heard by <u>word of mouth</u>!
Can participants express their views?	all participants had the chance to express their views to planners and officials through (<u>workshops/ drop-in sessions, online and Freepost questionnaires, and make representations</u>)	The public can express their opinion on the proposed plan (not the draft) by submitting <u>a written objection</u> explaining the reason for the objection.
Make sure that participants' needs have been heard and will be addressed?	All responses were summarised and recorded and published in <u>Summary of Responses</u>, and <u>the public has been informed</u> about it	all <u>objections usually are tabulated and analysed</u> to be presented to RTC for consideration and suggestion; usually, this process is done <u>without referring or informing the public</u>
How early does the ordinary public participate?	At the local level, early engagement for those who are affected and all public can participate at all later stages (for more, see Table 9.3)	At the local level, there is no early engagement; then, engagement is limited to late-stage, (For more, see Table 9.3)
Methods used to participate	Drop-in sessions and workshops send information out via community council, email, or post; use the media to raise awareness, online and freepost questionnaires.	informing the public by announcing the plan in the <u>official gazette</u>, submitting <u>written objections</u> .
Level of public participation	<u>Consultation level</u>	<u>Informing level</u>

Source: Author's Original

9.4 Conclusion and Critical Discussion

In cross-national comparative research, a comprehensive understanding of the contexts in different countries should be the pre-condition in setting up the comparative analysis. In this research, the similarities and differences of the socio-economic and political contexts have been addressed in the previous chapters. In addition to discussing the similarities and differences in the structure of the planning system, theoretically and practically. This chapter summarized and presented the main results and conclusions of the previous chapters. These results were compared to elicit similarities (if any) and differences between the British/Scottish and Syrian contexts.

The above comparison shows some formalistic theoretical similarities between Syria and the UK-Scotland. Both countries rely on the principle of classic democracy to determine

the structure of the state, and there is some similarity in terms of administrative and geographical division, the structure of state institutions and the laws and regulations governing. The fundamental difference lies in the practical implementation of the concept of democracy on the ground. As discussed earlier, public participation in the urban development decision-making process in Syria is primitive and limited to informing only; even the methods used to inform the public are ineffective enough and do not achieve the required propagation. Whereas in the case of UK-Scotland, the public participation in the urban development decision-making process is more developed. The public is engaged and consulted during the formulation of the decision. Yet this engagement is still at the level of consulting with the public, not involving them effectively.

In the same vein, and according to the Economist Intelligence Unit (2010) Report regarding the democracy index, which provides a snapshot of the state of democracy worldwide for 165 independent states and two territories, the ranking of the United Kingdom was 19th with an overall score of 8.16, while Syria was at 152nd place with an overall score of 2.31. After nine years, during which Syria witnessed and still a war that consumed its economy and people, Syria fell to 164th place on the Democracy Index in (2019) with an overall score of 1.43, while the United Kingdom rose to 14th place with an overall score of 8.52.

However, although there is a slight theoretical similarity between the UK-Scotland and Syria in terms of the structure of the state institutions, laws, regulations, and some procedures, the practical implementation of democracy on the ground shows a fundamental difference between the two countries. This fact is confirmed by the Democracy Index Report and the results of the field research on the level of public participation in the decision-making process in both countries. This conclusion confirms that public participation in the decision-making process can effectively indicate good governance and democracy criteria.

The following chapter provides a summary of the key research results, a summary of the answers to the research objectives and their related key questions and how these led to the fulfilment of the research aim. Furthermore, the following chapter suggests and introduces a set of recommendations in the broader sphere of urban governance literature and policy in the Syrian context.

Chapter Ten: Research Conclusions and Recommendations

10.1 Introduction:

This chapter summarises the research conclusions and how they answered the research objectives and related questions. The chapter then, and based on the research findings, presents a series of recommendations that have been developed to improve the practice of public participation in the urban development decision-making process and achieve reformatory changes to the urban governance in Syria at the level of legislation and practice. The research contributions to theory, method and knowledge are then presented, followed by a summary of the research challenges and limitations. The chapter concludes with an agenda for relevant future research.

10.2 Research Conclusions

The research conclusions presented in this chapter summarise the answers to the primary research objectives and their related questions.

Table 10.1 presents the first objective of this study and its related research questions. These have been answered in chapters two and three.

Table 10.1: The first objective and its research questions

The Objective	*First objective:* To shed light on the importance of public participation in urban planning and its relation to the concept of governance in order to build a solid theoretical background for this research. This, in turn, contributes to the adoption of a conceptual framework to identify the scope and the track of this study.
The related research questions	1.1. What is governance, and how it is associated with the concept of public participation? 1.2. What is the concept of public participation? - The meaning and evolution of the concept, - Public participation in planning and its main theories, - The purpose of public participation and its positive and negative aspects. 1.3. To investigate whether there was a role for promoting the concept of public participation within urban planning in reforming planning theories and introducing new urban planning models?

Source: Author's Original

In response to research question 1.1, chapter two has provided a brief history of the concept of governance and presented the different viewpoints on defining the concept, which vary depending on the contexts and disciplines of issues under study. The brief concluded by determining the scope of the governance used in this research under urban governance and, more specifically, addressing the relation and interaction between the government and citizens (State, Civil Society) within the planning system. Therefore, this research considers urban planning a form of governance and evaluates how good the governance process is? Public participation is used as an indicator for this purpose.

Regarding answering research question 1.2, chapter two has provided a literature review of different approaches to define the concept of public participation. The literature review identified the meaning of 'public' used in this research as "ordinary people in general; the community". And it referred to the meaning of community used in this study from two aspects 'spatially based' and 'stake based', in other words (people in general who live in a country/city targeted by national/local development). Moreover, the chapter has identified the purpose of public participation as a means for promoting better urban development and as an end to enhancing society's capacity building. Then the chapter provided a review of some public participation approaches in planning and concluded by adopting Arnstein's approach to evaluate the level of participation theoretically and its updated version 'IAP2 approach' to assess the level of participation in practice.

In order to respond to research question 1.3, chapter three reviewed the emergence of modern urban planning and its successive models 'of good planning practice' in a chronological narrative. The review revealed that 'as each new planning model emerges, it seeks to achieve more public participation and engagement with the public'. The researcher created Table 2.3 to illustrate that the evolution of planning theories/models was coupled with strengthening the role of public participation in the planning process. The need for more public participation in urban planning practices has contributed to the reformation of existing planning theories. Based on the preceding, and in a clear and explicit response to question 1.3, *there has been a significant role in promoting the concept of public participation in reforming urban planning systems* and contributing to the emergence of new planning models.

In response to the fulfilment of the first objective in adopting a general conceptual framework for this study, chapter three has reviewed a few models of contextual approach

which have been used to study planning comparatively. In spite of the fact that the main two models discussed in this study (institutional model and culturised model) are very similar, the author adopted the culturised model by Steinhauer (2011). The selected model with its three dimensions is suggested to understand better the structure, processes and results of planning practices and the relations between these phenomena by introducing a more comprehensive analysis. Accordingly, urban planning in both countries (United Kingdom (Scotland) and Syria) has been studied through three dimensions (National settings, planning structure and planning practice). The first and overall dimension deals with the main society forces (state, economy, and society), while the other two dimensions deal with planning aspects (policies, regulations, institutions, and practices).

In answering these three research questions and by adopting a general conceptual framework for this study, the first objective of the research was fulfilled. Table 10.2 below presents the second objective of this thesis and its related research questions. These are answered in chapters five, six and nine.

Table 10.2: The second objective and its research questions

The Objective	*Second objective:* Critically assess the current effect of public participation within programs, policies, and laws of the urban planning system with reference to the political, economic, and social forces that affect the culture of planning in Syria and the UK-Scotland alike.
The related research questions	2.1. What are the main factors that affect public participation in the urban planning process? 2.2. What are the main policies, laws and regulations that seek to regulate and control the urban planning process? 2.3. What is the level and scope of public participation within the planning process?

Source: Author's Original

To answer research question 2.1, chapters five and six (see 5.2 and 6.2) addressed the main societal forces (The state, the market and civil society) in the British and Syrian contexts. According to the conceptual framework adopted for this study (see Figure 3.6), it is essential to address and examine the national settings that constitute the incubating environment for the planning process. These national settings (political, economic and social) influence the planning process through visible and invisible factors. The analytical

framework adopted (see Figure 4.5) identified some of those variables in this study. Therefore, to examine public participation in the urban development decision-making process, it was necessary to critically discuss the political, economic, and social contexts to form a general background to understand the mechanism of action of the urban planning system within the British and Syrian contexts alike. The researcher concluded that the *UK is a state ruled by a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarchy. Its economy is based on capitalism, where its market is partially regulated-oriented, and the British population is heavily affected by excessive individualism*. On the other hand, *Syria is governed by semi-presidential democracy with broad executive and procedural powers in the president's hands. Its economy is based on socialism, where the market is heavily state-run controlled, and the Syrian population is perceived as a fragmented society with high internal collectivism.* for a more in-depth comparison (see 9.3.1).

In answering question 2.2, chapters five and six (see 5.3 and 6.3) reviewed the structure of the institutions, policies, and laws in force in both countries (The UK-Scotland and Syria) that control and regulate the urban development planning process. The review revealed that both countries share a formalistic similarity in the structure of the institutions and policies for the urban development planning process. In both countries, similar institutions and governmental bodies at different levels (National, regional and local) control and regulate the planning process. Table 9.2 presents an in-depth comparison of those institutions and their documents.

When answering research question 2.3, chapter five concluded that the Scottish planning system is based on the relativism approach. It falls under the pluralistic planning model, *where public participation within the system achieves the consultation level and seeks the placation and involvement level*. On the other hand, chapter six concluded that the planning system in Syria is based on the rationalism approach and falls under the Synoptic planning model, *where the level of public participation within the system merely achieves the informing level*. For further comparison between the planning systems in Syria and the UK-Scotland, and to verify how early the lay public can participate in the formulation process of planning documents, see Tables 9.3 and 9.4.

Answering those three research questions has contributed to fulfilling the second objective of this thesis. The third objective and its related research questions are presented in Table 10.3. The answers to these questions have been provided in chapters seven and eight.

Table 10.3: The third objective and its research questions

The Objective	*Third objective:* Critically assess the effectiveness of public participation in urban planning in practice within the Syrian and Scottish planning context alike.

The related research questions	3.1. Who is engaged in the urban planning process in the UK-Scotland and Syria?
	 3.2. What opportunities exist for participants to:
	   - obtain relevant information,
	   - express their views,
	   - and make sure that their views have been adequately heard and will be fully addressed by officials.
	 3.3. When and at what stage of the urban planning process does public participation occur? How early does it take place?
	 3.4. How does the public participation process occur? What are the key approaches and methods to encourage groups and individuals to participate?
	 3.5. What is the level of public participation in urban planning in practice?

Source: Author's Original

In contributing to the fulfilment of the third objective of this study, the researcher conducted field trips in each of the chosen study cases (Edinburgh/Scotland and Latakia/Syria) to collect the needed data and information. Chapters seven and eight provided a brief overview of the two selected study cases, Edinburgh and Latakia, respectively. The collected data were processed and analysed to answer all questions related to the third research objective. (For more information, Table 9.7 compared all answers to the research questions related to this objective within the Scottish and Syrian contexts).

In response to questions 3.1 and 3.2, chapters seven and eight analysed the data collected and provided a critical discussion of the findings to answer those questions.

In the case of the Edinburgh LDP, data analysis revealed that the key actors involved in the preparation process of the new LDP are the Key agencies, local authorities, community councils, developers, and local people. Data analysis indicated that all those actors (more importantly for this study are local people) had a fair opportunity to access relevant information about the proposed LDP. They had the right to express their

viewpoints through attending workshops, drop-in sessions and making representations. Moreover, and for more transparency, the authorities summarised, recorded and published all responses to the proposed LDP in the Summary of Responses Report and notified everyone who submitted a representation or response.

On the other hand, in the case of the Latakia MP, data analysis indicated that the main actors who effectively participated in the preparation process of the Latakia MP were mainly the governmental agencies or their experts. Those governmental agencies had an excellent opportunity to gain and obtain sufficient information about the plan under preparation, while the public at large was wholly excluded from the preparation process. Concerning expressing an opinion on the proposed plan, data analysis revealed that the governmental agencies and especially the local council members had the chance to discuss the draft of the MP and raise their concerns about it and suggest some amendments. At the same time, the public (local people) expressed their opinion on the proposed plan (not the draft) by only submitting a written objection explaining the reason for the complaint.

To discuss whether the demands and needs raised about the proposed plan were listened to and addressed, the results of the data analysis showed that the governmental bodies had the chance to review the plan after the amendments, so they could see whether their concerns had been addressed or not. In contrast, the representations to the proposed plan submitted by local people were analysed by RTC for consideration and suggesting recommendations to amend the proposed plan. This process was completed without referring to or informing the public or allowing them to know if their concerns were effectively addressed or not. Here, more transparency is needed.

Regarding answering research question 3.3, The research results showed that public participation in the Scottish urban development planning process occurs at all levels (National, Regional and Local). The public at large (lay people) sufficiently participate at an early stage of the process at the local level (creating LDPs), while they participate at later stages at the regional and national levels. In comparison, public participation (participation of the local people, not governmental agencies) in the Syrian urban development planning process is limited to the local level and at a late stage. At the same time, all plans and schemes are prepared at the national and regional levels without consulting or even informing the public.

The conclusions of chapters seven and eight contributed **to answering research question 3.4.** In the case of the Edinburgh LDP, the research results indicated that the authorities used a set of methods and approaches to ensure public participation in the preparation process of the plan. These approaches included sending information out via community council, email or post, using the media to raise awareness about the plan, conducting online and Freepost questionnaires, and holding drop-in sessions and workshops to help the public understand the proposed LDP. In comparison, in the case of the Latakia MP, the only methods used to inform and engage the public are submitting written objections and announcing the plan in the official gazette and the lobby of the local council headquarters.

Regarding answering research question 3.5, research findings in chapters seven and eight revealed the level of public participation in practice within the urban development planning process in the Scottish and Syrian contexts. Chapters five and seven concluded that public participation within the main Scottish planning Act 2006 achieves the level of consultation. This result was in line with the findings of the primary data analysis of the questionnaires and interviews, which showed that the level of public participation in practice within the planning process reaches the level of consultation.

On the other hand, chapters six and eight concluded that public participation within the urban planning laws and regulations in Syria merely achieves the level of informing. The primary and secondary data analysis findings confirmed that public participation in practice within the Syrian urban planning system reaches the level of informing.

In order to fulfil the fourth objective of this thesis, *Critically analyse the differences and "similarities" within the urban development decision-making process between the UK-Scotland and Syria, both in theory and practice, in order to propose recommendations that are designed to improve the quality of public participation in urban planning, with a view to promote and achieve changes in local urban governance in Syria.*

Chapter nine provided a critical comparison of all research findings presented in the previous chapters in order to elicit similarities (if any) and differences between the British and Syrian contexts within the urban development decision-making process. The research concluded that there is some theoretical similarity between UK-Scotland and Syrian when addressing classic democracy (structure of the state, administrative and geographical division, the structure of state institutions, and the laws and regulations governing).

However, the empirical analysis found that the fundamental differences lie in the practical implementation of the concept of democracy on the ground.

Moreover, this chapter contributed to the fulfilment of the fourth objective of this study by introducing a series of recommendations to improve the practice of public participation in the urban development decision-making process and achieve reformatory changes to urban governance in Syria at the level of legislation and practice.

Regarding the **research aim** of comparing the progress achieved in the field of public participation in the urban development decision-making process and how Syria could benefit from the British experience, this research concluded that Syria could benefit from the British experience. However, achieving this is a political matter that needs a political and societal will that involves restructuring the main forces of society (the state, the market, and the society) and reforming the structure of the planning system in theory and practice alike.

The following section summarises the main suggested research recommendations.

10.3 Summary of Research Recommendations

At this stage of the research and after studying, analysing and comparing the British and Syrian contexts alike, the researcher would like to present some recommendations learnt from the British experience. Those recommendations might contribute to improving the practice of public participation in the urban development decision-making process and achieving reformatory changes to urban governance in Syria. Thus, to enhance the practice and the level of public participation within the urban development decision-making process in Syria, this research suggests institutional reforms to target all dimensions studied (National settings, planning structure and planning practice). Consequently, the recommendations will be listed according to these dimensions.

10.3.1 National settings

At the 'national settings' dimension, the research has addressed the relationship between the main three spheres of the society forces (The state, the market and civil society) see Figure 3.1. As discussed before, this process seems to be an endless cycle, yet the research argues that civil society has become a key ruler in the new relationships of State-Market. The relationships between civil society and the state and market can be understood within the framework of the Structuration theory, which explains the relationships that the human "agency" has with institutions or "structure". Giddens, in his theory, argues that

"social structure is seen as being drawn on by human agents in their actions, while the actions of humans in social contexts serve to produce, and reproduce the social structure. The structure is not simply a straitjacket but is also a resource to be deployed by humans in their actions. it is enabling as well as disabling." (Currie and Galliers, 1999, P104). In other words, our social situation is shaped by us, and we actively shape it. Therefore, giving the importance of the civil society as a critical ruler in the society forces cycle. Reforming society would be the first step in the reforming process, followed by political and economic reforms. The following section presents all recommendations suggested by the researcher for Syrian society forces reforms.

The society
The ethnic and religious diversity in the Syrian society can be seen as an opportunity and a threat at the same time. It is an opportunity to enrich the diversity of Syrian society and promote the concepts of coexistence, tolerance and acceptance of the other and achieve a multicultural society. On the other hand, it is a threat to disintegrate society and create ethnic and sectarian groups that divide society and contribute to establishing a demographically fragmented state. Unfortunately, that is the situation in Syrian society nowadays, as this research concluded that the Syrian society is a fragmented society with high internal collectivism. The following recommendations could contribute to making some changes for a more robust and cohesive Syrian community.

1. For a more robust Syrian society, the structure of society needs a methodical reform based on creating a consistent stratification system linking all different social groups together. This system contributes to creating a set of shared values and loyalties that unite all social groups under the banner of one nation to remain loyal to the Syrian nation rather than allegiance to any religious or ethnic group.

2. Build a modern Syrian society by easing the conflict between tradition and modern values. Here we can benefit from the British experience when Tony Blair's government introduced the concept of 'The Third Way' to reform society. "The resolution of this conflict lies in applying traditional values to the modern world; to leave outdated attitudes behind; but rediscover the essence of traditional values and then let them guide us in managing change." (Blair, 2000, p. 3). This concept can be applicable by reuniting faith and reason.

3. Raising awareness through education in schools and universities about all forms of sectarian, ethnic and racial discrimination issues. And work to emphasise the

importance of ethnic and religious diversity in Syria in order to enrich and unite the multicultural society.

4. Working to affirm and solidify the concept of equality and citizenship guaranteed by the Syrian constitution by enacting laws and legislations that strictly criminalise all acts that express racial discrimination or any action intended to incite sectarian or racial strife to incite conflict between different sects and the various components of the nation.

5. Activating the role of civil society associations to play a more significant role in raising awareness in society on various issues that contribute to social, economic and political development in the country.

The state and the economy

The issue of political and administrative reform in Syria is not new. President Al-Assad, in his inauguration speech in 2000 when he assumed power in the country, focused on the importance of administrative and political reform in the country. The political situation witnessed a breakthrough at the beginning of his reign, known as the "Damascus Spring[70]". However, the political breakthrough in the country was short-lived, and reforms were stumbled upon at the time. In terms of economic reforms, in the same period, the Syrian government sought to change the country's economic system from a centrally planned to a much more liberal one. Still, the ongoing war in the country halted all reform initiatives.

In understanding the relationship between the three societal forces spheres (the state, the Economy and the Society). This thesis mainly focused on the effect of society as the broader and incubator sphere of the other two spheres. The relation between all three spheres is understood in the sense of influential and affected forces; any positive or negative effect of one of them has the same effect on the others. In this sense, and taking into account the main purpose of this research (public participation in the decision-making process), the process of making the decision and who takes it is the cornerstone of this process. It is a political matter that needs a political and societal will to initiate a change.

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[70] "The "Damascus Spring" is the name given to the period of intense opposition activism and tentative political liberalisation that followed President Al-Assad's rule in the country in 2000. It was characterised by demands for political, legal, and economic reforms, some of which were tentatively introduced before being withdrawn". The Damascus Spring - Carnegie Middle East Center https://carnegie-mec.org/publications/?fa=48516

In this thesis, the researcher affirms that in order to activate the role of public participation in the urban development decision-making process, there is a necessity for social, political and economic reform to establish a solid and stable ground for a participatory and inclusive culture for all society components. Nevertheless, suggesting some recommendations for political and economic reform goes beyond the goal of this research, which focuses more on the issue of public participation in the urban development decision-making process.

10.3.2 Planning structure

The comparative study presented in this research concluded that the structure of Syrian planning relies on rationalism with flexible vision and specific action. The state, through its institutions, is the main actor in the planning process, with minor participation from the private sector and a complete absence of civil society. However, the comparison of the planning structure between the UK-Scotland and Syria concluded that both countries have similar institutions, plans, procedures and documents, but the Syrian planning system relies on old concepts, philosophy and laws and urgently needs renewal and reform. Therefore, this research recommends updating and reforming the key planning laws and regulations as follows:

1. Update and reform the main planning law in Syria, "Legislative Decree No. 5 of 1982", by enacting a more inclusive and comprehensive Act. This matter could be achieved by combining many of the current planning laws at various levels (national, regional and local) in one Act to be the primary and comprehensive reference for the process of urban planning in Syria.

2. Ensure that public participation is a statutory requirement within the updated comprehensive planning law. Make a participation statement a compulsory document to be prepared by all local authorities when they prepare their local development plans.

3. Introduce culture change among state organisations to accept partners in the decision-making process from civil society instead of the long tradition of the process being exclusively held by the state.

4. Make an effort to engage the public at an early stage of the formulation process of all planning plans and documents at different levels (national, regional and local).

10.3.3 Planning practice

The comparative study of planning practice in Scotland and Syria concluded that both countries have similar documents, procedures, and plans for creating local development and master plan. However, the fundamental difference between the two practices is how to engage the public in the planning process effectively. This study concluded that the level of public participation within the planning process in the Syrian context does not exceed the level of informing. In contrast, the level of public participation in the Scottish planning context reaches the level of consultation. Building on the Scottish experience, the researcher suggests a set of recommendations that might improve the process of public participation in practice within the Syrian planning system as follow:

1. Improve the level of informing by:

- Provide paper copies of all documents at the city council and all local councils (Municipalities) concerned about the Plan.

- Make all the documents available on the City Council website.

- Send information via E-mail and SMS when it is necessary.

- Send information out through Community Councils and other local networks.

- Notify all those who submitted representations about the outcome of their objections. (publishing a report of objections' summary and all answers to it)

2. Engage the public in the preparation process by:

- Holding workshops where appropriate

- Holding drop-in sessions to help the public understand the plan and how they can make representations if they wish (especially in areas nearby major developments)

- Seeking public opinion by using online and hardcopy questionnaires.

3. Raise public awareness by:

- Using the media in general and activating the role of social media in raising awareness about planning issues

- Introducing the concept of public participation in planning in the dynamic environment of education.

In conclusion, the researcher would like to emphasise that the active involvement of the public in the decision-making process should be the essence of future policy and practice in Syria in order to achieve effective changes in local urban governance.

10.4 Research Contribution

As a cross-national comparative study, this research examined the urban development decision-making process as a form of urban governance. It addressed public participation as an indicator of good governance; the higher the level of involvement in the decision-making process, the more democratic and decentralised the country (Newman et al., 2004; Taylor, 2007; Bevir, 2012). In this regard, this thesis investigated how the need for more public participation in the urban development planning process contributed to the reform of the urban planning system in theory and practice.

At this stage of the research and after reviewing, analysing and discussing the research findings and suggesting some recommendations that the researcher believes may contribute to reforming, modernising and developing local urban governance in Syria. The following section presents the contribution of this research to the theory, method and knowledge.

To theory

This research supports a participatory approach to urban development decision-making. As mentioned earlier in this thesis, the proponents of more public participation in planning justify their point that more public engagement will help in building institutional capacity and social and political capital and enhance community cohesion (Healey, 1997; Innes and Booher, 2004; Taylor, 2007). This thesis examined the possibility of a theoretical link between the need for more participatory approaches in urban planning and its impact on the evolution and modernisation of urban planning models and theories during the last century and the beginning of this century.

This research developed criteria for describing and evaluating public participation within planning models (see Table 3.2). These criteria developed depending on combining the work of Jenkins and Smith (2001) 'paradigms of planning' (see Table 3.1) with the typology suggested by Arnstein in her study 'The Ladder of Citizen Participation' (see Figure 2.2).

The proposed criteria classify planning models according to the level of public participation and vice versa. This conclusion is in line with what Lane (2005) believes was found that the planning model is the essential factor in determining the role of the public.

The developed criteria have been used in this thesis to determine the planning model and its level of public participation in both the Scottish and Syrian contexts.

To method

This research is a comparative study based on a case study approach where mixed methods of data collection and analysis are applied. This study developed a detailed analytical framework (see Figure 4.5) to determine the main aspects and variables related to the research topic that could contribute to fulfiling the main aim and research objectives of this study. In order to create the analytical framework for this study, a critical review of some contextual approaches that have been used to study planning comparatively (the institutional and culturised models) was presented. This thesis adopted the culturised planning model as a conceptual framework for this study. The selected model with its three dimensions (national settings, planning structure and planning practice) "is suggested as a contribution to a better understanding of the structure, processes and results of planning practices and the relations between these phenomena by introducing a more comprehensive analysis" (Othengrafen, 2010, p.105).

The case study approach is used as the primary research method. This research adopted Yin's (2009) replication approach to multiple-case studies. This approach is commonly used when the researcher wishes to define and determine the prevalence of the subject of interest (Yin, 2009). The case study approach and related primary data collection methods used in this research played a complemental yet essential role in providing reliable statistics related to the research topic, especially in the case of Syria.

The detailed analytical framework created for this study is the result of the theoretical combining of the culturised planning model as a conceptual framework with the replication approach to multiple-case studies as the primary research method. Therefore, the detailed analytical framework developed for this research could be applicable to similar studies that are based on a comparative urban governance approach.

To knowledge

In addition to the contribution to the theory and method mentioned above, This research, as a cross-national comparative study, looks at the public participation in the urban development decision-making process as an essential indicator of good governance in the countries under comparison. This thesis relied on a pragmatic approach to undertake the comparative study between the UK-Scotland and Syria. This approach gave the researcher the freedom of choice to select methods, techniques and procedures that are useful and convenient to the research purpose (Creswell, 2013). The research used a comparative cultural analysis of the urban development context in the UK-Scotland and Syria to identify patterns and factors affecting the quality and the level of public

participation in the urban development decision-making process in terms of land-use planning. A critical comparison between both contexts contributed to generating ideas and recommendations to develop the concept of public participation in the Syrian governance context, especially in terms of land-use planning. However, the outcomes of this research are not suitable to be generalised on the international level of urban development theories. Yet, it is beneficial for studies that address a similar urban governance context to those addressed in this study.

Here it is worth noting that this thesis is considered to be an important contribution to the body of knowledge available about the comparative urban development research in the British and Syrian contexts. Most importantly, this thesis contributes significantly to bringing a new focus to research on public participation and urban development governance in the Syrian context. Moreover, an essential contribution of this research is providing qualitative and quantitative in-depth analysis of the urban development decision-making process in the British and Syrian contexts.

In the case of this research, public participation in urban development planning in Syria is a newly studied topic (see Hassan, 2010; Hasan, 2012; Abdin et al., 2014; Hasan and McWilliams, 2014). This research is another step towards researching and analysing this concept and enhancing it theoretically and practically within the Syrian context, taking into account the lessons learned from the British experience.

10.5 Research Challenges and Limitations

Few major challenges obstructed the journey of this research; probably one of the key challenges was the drastic change in the research. The research was intended to be an empirical study to examine the contribution of public participation within the urban planning system in Syria, theoretically and practically. The researcher attended the progress review meeting held by the research panel in the School of Built Environment (now part of the School of Environment, Geoscience, Infrastructure and Society) on 10th January 2012. Then after, a letter from the research panel was received on 13th February 2012, informing the researcher of the panel's decision to make fundamental changes to the research, which they attributed to the unstable security situation in Syria and the inability of the researcher to conduct fieldwork. The panel suggested refocussing the research to *emphasise a comparative planning study between the UK-Scotland and Syria*. These changes in the research structure entailed drastic modifications regarding the main

aim and the overall objectives of the research. All in all, these changes took around 12 months to reposition the research structure again.

The second key challenge the researcher faced was a deterioration in his health condition. Since this PhD research began in 2011, the researcher was suffering from different symptoms (headache, blurry vision, abdominal ache, freezing hands, burning sensation in feet, rash ...etc.), which had a negative effect on productivity in general and on the overall progress of this PhD program. After suffering for five years and in August 2016, the doctors discovered the condition that caused all these problems (a blood condition that needs urgent treatment). Therefore, in 2017, the researcher started the continuous treatment program for that chronic disease which required him to suspend this PhD program for one full year.

In addition to these challenges above, the researcher faced some other difficulties collecting the data needed for this research, especially in the case of Latakia city due to the remoteness of the case study and the researcher's inability to travel to Latakia because of the travel ban on Syria due to the ongoing war there. Moreover, the lack of online resources and references for the Latakia case study posed a significant challenge to collecting the required data. Among the other challenges that the researcher faced, collecting and analysing data in Arabic and then translating the main findings into English imposed the challenges of language differences. (For more details on data collection and analysis challenges, see 4.4 and 4.5).

However, despite all these challenges, with the desire and determination of the researcher to finish this research, this research has been prepared and completed. The researcher hopes that this research has provided an academic vision that contributes to the development and modernisation of the urban governance in the Syrian context in general and, more particularly, to reform and modernise the urban planning system.

10.6 Future Research

Through this research, it has become clear that public participation in the decision-making process is one of the essential indicators of good governance. The more the public participates in the decision-making process, the higher the level of democracy and the higher the level of good governance. The researcher studied the British and Syrian contexts and noted that several factors might affect the level and quality of public participation in the decision-making process. Studying these factors and their impact

opens the door to future research. The following questions could be of interest to future research:

- How does individualism affect the quality of the public participation process?
- What political, economic and social factors affected the evolution of public participation in the UK?
- What is the impact of fragmented collectivism of Syrian society on political, economic and social life and the quality of the public participation process in Syria? How does individualism affect the quality of the public participation process?
- How increasing the credibility and authenticity of digital participatory methods could enhance the trust in the effectiveness of these methods on the one hand and the trust of planners and decision-makers in the quality of data provided by these methods on the other hand?

Within the Syrian context, the conclusions presented in this thesis are valid. However, more verification through empirical research is required for more reliable results. Thus, an in-depth study of each of the three key spheres of society forces (State, market and society) forming urban governance can be undertaken to understand the structure of each of them and the interactive relationship between them. However, building on the recommendations suggested in this thesis, more research on Syrian society should be conducted to reach a practical mechanism for creating a consistent stratification system with shared values that unites all the different social groups in Syria under the banner of the Syrian nation. Moreover, further research on Syrian society's cultural change is required to build a modern Syrian society characterised by civilization and modernity while preserving heritage and inherited values.

However, by understanding the interactive relationship between the three societal forces, it becomes clear that there is a need to develop the society first, as it is the most influential sphere in that relationship. And to develop it, there must be an administrative and political will to prioritise developing and modernising the society, which contributes to the development of both the state and the economy later.

Appendices

Appendix 2-1: Definitions of governance.

Table A2. 1: Definitions of governance

Publication	Definition
(UNDP, 1997,p. 04)	"Governance can be seen as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences".
(Asian Development Bank, 2000)	"Governance is the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's social and economic resources for development".
(Kaufmann et al., 2002, p. 07)	"We define Governance as the process and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised. Specifically, governance is: (i) the process by which governments are selected, held accountable, monitored, and replaced; (ii) the capacity of governments to manage resources efficiently, and to formulate, implement, and enforce sound policies and regulations; and, (iii) the respect for the institutions that govern economic and social interactions among them".
(UN-ESCAP, 2009, p. 01)	"Governance means: the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented)".

Source: Author's Original.

Appendix2-2: Rowe's nine 'meanings' of participation

Table A2. 2: Rowe's nine 'meanings' of participation.

Rowe's nine 'meanings' of participation
• passively listening to the exposition of other people's plans which affect the community;
• actively helping directly in the making of such plans;
• helping by proxy or through representatives in the making of plans;
• actively helping in the execution of such plans, however made;
• helping indirectly in the execution of plans;
• commenting upon the execution of plans;
• exercising power to obtain changes in plans (especially for resource allocation) made by others;
• allocating resources; and
• allocating and expending resources.

Source: Rowe (1975, p. 8).

Appendix 2-3: Patterns of participation at local level.

Table A2. 3: Patterns of participation at local level.

Pattern	Description
Paternalism	In this model, decision-making is highly centralised, and advice given by citizens is either discouraged, or closely managed by local government officials.
Conflict	The notable feature of this model is that centralised decision-making is dominant; residents and consumer groups struggle openly to wrest control over certain resources allocation or policy decisions from elected officials. Conflict may be used as a long-term strategy by local and activist groups or as a short-term tactic, staging protests or protesting counter proposals.
Coproduction	This model involves decision-making through face-to-face negotiation between decision-makers and local people who claim a major stake in particular decisions. The coproduction model is characterised by involvement in non-elected groups that are interested in being active players in the operation of the governance. It is notable that the tensions among all actors in the coproduction model (local government, local people and business groups) will always exist. But the key advantage of the coproduction model is that all local people and residents have a say in how resources are allocated and expended. This seriously expands their 'advisory' role.

Source: Susskind and Elliott (1983, p. 6).

Appendix 2-4: Explanation the Wheel of Participation

Table A2. 4: The Explanation of the Wheel of Participation.

Stage		Stage
Information:	Minimal communication	Council deciding on all matters itself, without community consultation (except when legally required to do so), i.e. Where professional judgement is used or a political decision is made and the public hear of it after the event, e.g. via the minutes of committee meetings.
	Limited information	Telling the public only what you want to tell them, not what the public wants to know.
	Good quality information	Providing information that the community wants and/or needs, e.g. promotional campaigns about uptake of welfare benefits, discussion papers/exhibitions for development plans, guidance notes for conservation area development/upgrading.
Consultation:	Limited consultation	Providing information in a limited manner with the onus often placed on the community to respond, e.g. placing a notice in the press regarding planning/licensing applications.
	Customer care	Having a customer-oriented service, e.g. introducing a customer care policy, and providing a complaints/comments scheme.
	Genuine consultation	The Council actively discussing issues with communities regarding what it is thinking of doing prior to taking action, or what they think of existing services, e.g. housing services liaising with tenants' groups, and customer satisfaction surveys.
Participation:	Effective advisory body	Inviting communities to draw up proposals for council consideration, e.g. Planning for Real, citizens' juries, disability forums, Plain English Campaign.
	Partnership	Solving problems in partnership with communities, e.g. Hamilton Ahead (a formal partnership), Larkhall Joint Neighbourhood Project, and Douglas Valley Partnership.
	Limited decentralised decision-making	Allowing different communities to make their own decisions on some issues, e.g. non-statutory traffic signs for Neighbourhood Watch Schemes, the powers of Divisional Roads Engineers and Tenant Participation Officers to involve the community.
Empowerment:	Delegated control	Delegating limited decision-making powers in a particular area or project, e.g. Tenant Management Organisations, Shopmobility and school boards.
	Interdependent control	The Council may be obliged to provide a service but chooses to do so by facilitating community groups

		and/or other agencies which provide that service on their behalf, e.g. the delivery of care services contracts by the voluntary sector, Tenant Management Organisations.
	Entrusted control	Devolving substantial decision-making powers to communities, e.g. Tenant Management Organisations.

Source: based on (Davidson, 1998).

Appendix 3-1: The potential cultural categories of the 'culturised planning model'.

Table A3. 1: The potential cultural categories of the 'culturised planning model'.

Specifications	
Planning artefacts Visible planning products; structures and processes	Urban design and structures; urban plans; urban and regional development strategies; statistical data, planning institutions; planning law, decision-making processes; communication and participation; planning instruments and procedures; etc.
Planning environment Shared assumptions; values and cognitive frames that are taken for granted by members of the planning profession	Planning semiotics and semantics; instruments and procedures; content of planning: objectives and principles planning is aiming at; traditions and history of spatial planning; scope and range of spatial planning; formalised layers of norms and rules; political; administrative; economic and organisational structures; etc.
Societal environment Underlying and unconscious; taken-for-granted beliefs; perceptions; thoughts and feelings which are affecting planning	Self-conception of planning; people's respect for and acceptance of plans; significance of planning: social justice; social efficiency or moral responsibility; consideration of nature; socio-economic or socio-political societal models; concepts of justice: egalitarianism; utilitarianism or communitarism; fundamental philosophy of life; etc.

Source: Othengrafen (2010, p. 93).

Appendix 4-1: the differences between positivism and relativism in research.

The positivism approach in research

Methodology — Positivism
Positivism — Systems
Positivism — Actions
Actions — Reality
Reality — Objectivity
Reality — Methods
Objectivity — Methods
Objectivity — Reliability
Methods — Facts
Objectivity — Facts
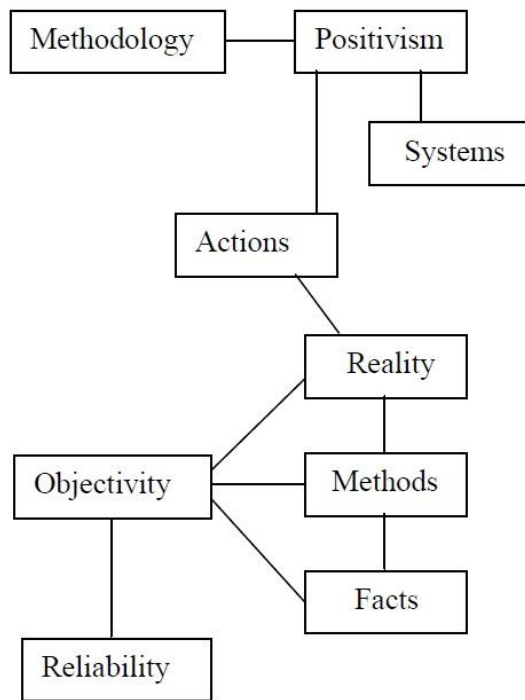
The relativist approach in research

Interpretivism — Actions
Actions → consciousness ↔ actions ↔ Unpredictability
Interpretivism — Subjectivity
Subjectivity — Meaning
Subjectivity — Reality
Meaning — Reality
Reality — Facts
Reality — Methods
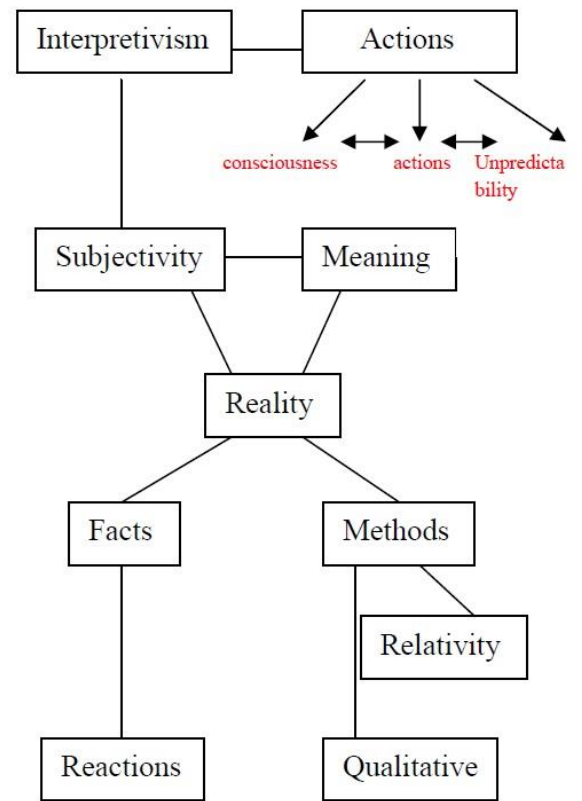Facts — Reactions
Methods — Relativity
Methods — Qualitative

Figure A4. 1: positivism and interpretivism metatheories in research.
Source: Livesey's 2006 study (cited in Hasan, 2012, p. 330).

Appendix 4-2: Characteristics of major research metatheories.

Table A4. 1: The main characteristics of major research metatheories

Dimension	Metatheories		
	Positivism	**Postpositivism**	**Interpretivism**
Sociological	Single paradigm Risk of cultural bias Asymmetrical multinational projects		Multiple paradigms Cultural relativism Symmetrical multinational projects
Teleological (Purpose)	Prediction/control/ explanation Framing of general laws.	Prediction/control/ explanation Generalizations.	Understanding/ reconstruction Transfer of findings.
Ontological	'Realism' Belief in a tangible social reality, existing independently of those 'creating' the reality. Social reality can exist just as a natural reality exists.	'Critical realism' Belief in a social reality but acceptance that knowing this reality will always be inhibited by imperfections as a result of human fallibility.	Belief in multiple constructed realities that cannot exist outside the social contexts that creates them. Realities are time and context bound.
Epistemological	Objectivist/dualist Investigator and investigated are independent of each other.	Modified dualist/ objectivist Acceptance that independence is not possible, but objectivity is seen as the goal and demonstrated by external verification.	Transactional/subjectivist The results of the investigation are a product of interaction between the subject and the investigator. What can be known is the result of the interaction.
Ethical	Sharp distinction between investigator and subjects General ethical principles	Intermediate position, with emphasis on general ethical principles.	Immersion of investigator in the life-world of subjects can present ethical challenges. Ethics more situational and culturally determined.
Methodological	Experimental/ Manipulative Hypothesis testing, variables identified before the investigation. Empirical testing is conducted in order to establish the 'truth' of a proposition. Predominantly quantitative. Analysis by variables.	Modified experimental/ Manipulative Hypothesis testing but more emphasis placed on context. Quantitative and qualitative. Analysis by variables.	Empathetic interaction Investigator interacts with the object of the investigation. Each construction of reality is investigated in its own right and is interpreted by the investigator. Qualitative, including hermeneutics and dialectic interchanges. Analysis by case.

Source: Pickard's 2007 study (cited in Lor, 2011, chapter 3- p.5-6).

Appendix 4-3: A sample of questionnaire survey and cover letter.

I am a PhD student at Heriot-Watt University. I am conducting this questionnaire to explore the extent to which the public have participated in the preparation process of the new Local Development Plan (LDP) of Edinburgh city. If you want to know more about the new LDP of Edinburgh you can visit: http://www.edinburgh.gov.uk/localdevelopmentplan .

All information will be kept confidential. The questionnaire should take 5 minutes to complete. Please answer the following questions and return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelop as soon as possible.

YOUR PARTICIPATION IS HIGHLY APPRECIATED.

1. **Which would best describe your interest in Edinburgh? Please tick all that apply.**
   ☐ Resident   ☐ Resident of nearby village   ☐ Visitor
   ☐ Investor   ☐ Developer   ☐ Retailer
   ☐ Local business ☐ Brand business/ retailer   ☐ Other (please state)

   If √ other, please specify

2. **Which area in Edinburgh do you live in? (Please supply your postcode)**

3. **How long have you been living in Edinburgh?**
   ☐ Less than one year   ☐ 1-3 years   ☐ 4-10 Years   ☐ More than 10 years

4. **Have you ever been involved in any planning activities in Edinburgh or anywhere else?**
   ☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not sure

   If YES, please specify

5. **Is this the first time you have heard about the new LDP of Edinburgh?**
   ☐ Yes (please go to question 13)   ☐ No
   If No, how did you hear about the Edinburgh local development plan?

   ☐ Letter from the Council   ☐ Press release   ☐ Council website
   ☐ Council meeting   ☐ Open houses   ☐ Other (Please state)

   If √ other, please specify

1

306

6. **Have you been consulted about the new LDP of Edinburgh?**

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not sure

If Yes, which way would best describe your consultation?

☐ Public hearing   ☐ Resident meeting   ☐ Focus groups

☐ Surveys   ☐ Written submission   ☐ Other (Please state)

> If √ other, please specify

7. **Have you been involved in the preparation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh?**

☐ Yes   ☐ No (please go to question 9)   ☐ Not sure (please go to question 9)

If Yes, which way would best describe your involvement?

☐ Workshops   ☐ Planning for Real Exercises   ☐ Other (Please state)

> If √ other, please specify

8. **Are you satisfied with your participation in the preparation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh?**

☐ Very satisfied   ☐ Fairly satisfied   ☐ Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied   ☐ Slightly dissatisfied   ☐ Very dissatisfied

9. **Do you think there were barriers to participate in the preparation process of the new LDP of Edinburgh?**

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not sure

> If √ yes, please indicate what are they?

10. **Which would best describe your attitude towards the new LDP of Edinburgh?**

☐ Strongly support   ☐ Support   ☐ No opinion   ☐ Oppose   ☐ Strongly oppose

> If you support or oppose, please indicate why?

11. **Do you think the new LDP of Edinburgh takes into account the current and future needs of the city (Housing, Infrastructure Provision, Economic Growth, etc)**

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not sure

12. **What is your overall impression of the new LDP of Edinburgh?**

☐ Very good   ☐ Good   ☐ Neither good nor poor   ☐ Poor   ☐ Very poor

13. **Would you like to get involved in the planning issue that would take place in your city?**

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not sure

2

14. Do you think fostering community participation in planning would improve the quality of the local development plan?

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not sure

If √ YES, please indicate why?

15. What do you think would help improve participation in local plan formulation?

☐ More local planning meetings
☐ Information supplied by community council
☐ More face to face meeting with council planners
☐ Internet
☐ Use of new media (e.g. Twitter, Facebook, etc)
☐ Other (Please state)

If √ other, please specify

16. Please feel free to add any further comments that you wish to express about local planning in Edinburgh.

<u>**Personal information**</u>

17. Are you...?   ☐ Male   ☐ Female

18. What age group do you fall into?

☐ Under 16   ☐ 16-24   ☐ 25-34
☐ 35-44   ☐ 45-54   ☐ 55-64
☐ 65-74   ☐ 75+

19. Are you currently...?

☐ Working   ☐ Unemployed   ☐ Student   ☐ Retired   ☐ Other

If √ other, please specify

20. What is your level of education?

☐ School   ☐ College   ☐ Bachelor's degree   ☐ Master degree   ☐ PhD degree

21. What of the following best describes your housing situation?

☐ Owner occupier   ☐ Public sector tenant   ☐ Private sector tenant

Thank you for participating in this questionnaire

3

It is intended that the outcome of this questionnaire will be used for the purposes of the research thesis only.

If you request any further information about the study please do not hesitate to contact me on: ah280@hw.ac.uk

PLEASE RETURN THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

10 June 2013

Dear Sir/Madam

Name:	Mr Alaa Hassan
Enrolment No:	H00055999
Course of Study:	PhD (Urban Studies)
School/Institute:	School of the Built Environment/Institute for Housing, Urban and Real Estate Research
Period of Study:	36 months from 08 November 2010
Mode	Full-time On Campus (Edinburgh)
Supervisors	Dr Chris McWilliams, Professor Paul Jenkins

I can confirm that the above named has enrolled as a postgraduate research student of this University for the academic year 2012/13 as detailed above.

The topic of Mr Hassan's research programme is '*Public participation in local plan formulation in the UK and Syria*' and as part of his PhD research, he is expected to question and interview members of the public. As his PhD Supervisor I would be very grateful if you could assist him by answering any questions he may ask of you.

Can I thank you for your cooperation in this matter and confirm that all answers and responses will be treated with the strictest confidence.

If you have any questions regarding the above please do not hesitate to contact me.

Dr Chris McWilliams
Lecturer in Urban Studies
Room WA 3.27
School of the Built Environment
Heriot Watt University
T: +44 (0) 131 451 4625
E: c.mcwilliams@hw.ac.uk
http://www.sbe.hw.ac.uk/research/ihurer.htm

Issued on behalf of the
1 0 JUN 2013
ACADEMIC REGISTRY

Copy: Professor Paul Jenkins, Secondary Supervisor, School of the Built Environment

Appendix 4-4: Mailing list of people in charge in Edinburgh community councils.

Table A4.2: The mailing list of community council office-bearers in Edinburgh.
Source: Author's Original based on information provided by Email, Sender: Eileen Hewitt
Eileen.Hewitt@edinburgh.gov.uk .

ID	First Name	Last name	Email Address
1	Ian	Hynd	I.hynd@blueyonder.co.uk
2	David	Salton	Pennysalton@mac.com
3	Giacomo	Modica	modicag@hotmail.co.uk
4	Eddie	Thorn	chair@craigleithblackhall.info
5	Alan	Dickson	idal@ukgateway.net
6	Jan	Myerthall	Janharry.ozscot@blueyonder.co.uk
7	Andrew	Mather	iamather@blueyonder.co.uk
8	Allister	McKillop	allistermkillop@hotmail.com
9	Tom	Conway	Tomconway3@gmail.com
10	Alex	Dale	alex.dale@blueyonder.co.uk
11	Dennis	Williams	Chair@fairmileheadcc.org.uk
12	Heather	Levy	heatherlevy@hotmail.co.uk
13	Harry	Sutherland	h.sutherland@sky.com
14	Cliff	Beevers	chair@junipergreencc.org.uk
15	Stephen	Lee	Steevee_boy@hotmail.com
16	Jim	Scanlon	Jim.annie@btinternet.com
17	Jim	Henry	jamesjhenry@yahoo.co.uk
18	Arne	Strid	chair@morningside.org.uk
19	Roy	Douglas	douglasroy@blueyonder.co.uk
20	Hamish	Ross	chair@murrayfieldcc.org.uk
21	Ian	Mowat	mowats@blueyonder.co.uk
22	Julie	Logan	julzinedin@yahoo.com
23	Betty	Milton	ccouncilinfo@yahoo.co.uk
24	Pat	Carr	pat_carr24@hotmail.com
25	Paul	Beswick	phbeswick@btinternet.com
26	Richard	Scott	Richard.xscott@virginmedia.com
27	Frances	Durie	fjdurie@yahoo.co.uk
28	Kirsti	Brown	gorgiedalrycc@hotmail.com
29	Sue	Tritton	secretary@grangeprestonfieldcc.org.uk
30	Izzy	Macdonald	grantonanddistrictcc@aol.com
31	Charlotte	Encombe	encombe@btinternet.com
32	Grace	Hughes	grannygrace@blueyonder.co.uk
33	Alastair	Philp	Marchmontsciennes.commcouncil@googlemail.com
34	Alison	Edelston	secretary@merchistoncc.org.uk
35	Sean	Watters	secretary@portobellocc.org
36	Terry	Airlie	info@queensferrycommunitycouncil.org
37	Judy	Wightman	Judywightman@hotmail.com
38	Ien		lenhavard@tiscali.co.uk
39	Gordon	Renton	weccedin@gmail.com
40	Kasia	Banaszewska	westerhailescc@gmail.com

Appendix 4-5: Questions used in the Semi-structured interview.

Semi-structured interview

To help me with my interpretation of the answers, I would like to ask you some personal questions.

1. Can you tell me what your job title is/was?

2. Can you tell me what your position in the organization is/was?

3. Have you ever worked in the field of planning? If yes, How long have you been working in planning?

4. What are/were your main responsibilities in your current/previous position?

In order to assess the current level of public participation in the spatial planning system, I would like to take the opportunity to ask you some related questions.

5. Public participation is a vast notion; what does this concept mean to you? How would you define it? To what extent has the meaning of this concept changed over time?

6. Who, in your opinion, are the key Stakeholders in the current planning process? Who, in your opinion, should be encouraged to engage and participate in the urban planning process?

7. In your opinion, which group do you think is the most important in participating in the urban planning process among the key stakeholders? Why? Do you think this, please explain?

8. During the last major reform of the Scottish planning system, which ended up by publishing the "Planning etc. (Scotland) Act 2006". There is a firm commitment of the government to the importance of public participation in the planning process; how would you describe the current status of public participation within the Scottish planning system? by assessing the current level of public participation (inform, consult, involve, collaborate or empower).

9. In your opinion at any level (national, regional or local), should the public participation process take place in the planning process? How early? Can all stakeholders participate at all levels?

10. To ensure that the public participation process is put into force, can you describe the main techniques you used to achieve this? How effective do you think they are? Have they been fully evaluated?

11. To what extent was the public involved in the preparation and formulation process of the new local development plan of Edinburgh? Was this participation evaluated? And if so, how? And how effective was the participation?

12. What about the effects of NIMBY as an influence on the participation process? Does this notion push people to submit representations against the new local development plan of Edinburgh, whom would otherwise not? If yes, what are the main reasons behind that? What about the compulsory purchase act?

13. In your opinion, what are the main barriers that obstruct the implementation of public participation within the Scottish planning system at any level?

14. In your opinion, what factors could contribute to the success of public participation in the planning system in Scotland and enhance the decision-making process? What changes are needed to take place to improve/foster current participation/engagement in planning?

15. How important is public participation to reform and modernise the planning system in Scotland?

16. Where do you see public participation in planning in Scotland over the next ten years?

17. If you could change one thing about public participation in planning, what would that be?

18. Do you have any further comments that may help me to make useful recommendations at the end of the research?

Thank you very much for your time and the information you gave us. Your answers will be treated in the strictest of confidence.

Appendix 4-6: List of participants who participated in the interviews

Table A4. 2: List of participants who participated in the interviews

Date	Pseudonym	Job Title	Organisation	Time/minutes
18 November 2013	P1	principal architect	Historical Scotland	95
19 November 2013	P2	senior planner within the planning service	Edinburgh City Council	47
27 November 2013	P3	Chairman of the community council	Corstorphine community council	30
09 January 2014	P4	Member of the Scottish parliament	Scottish Parliament	47
31 January 2014	P5	Professor/ community councillor	Juniper Green community council	49
04 February 2014	P6	Partnership and information manager for west neighbourhoods	Almond and West Edinburgh neighbourhoods	26
13 March 2014	P7	Architect/ Health and Safety Advisor	Associate in a Company	57
2 April 2014	P8	Manager planning and policy	Planning Aid of Scotland	65
22 April 2014	P9	Associate Urban designer/ consultant	Barton Willmore company Private sector	48

Appendix 5-1: Ethnicity, Religion and Language in the UK.

Ethnic groups:

In 2011the majority of the UK population (87.1%) reported themselves as belonging to the White ethnic group. The remaining 12.9 per cent reported themselves as belonging to a minority ethnic group, where their percentage is as follows: Asian (Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese and Other Asian) accounted for 7% of the UK population, Black / African / Caribbean /Black British 3%, Mixed 2% and Gypsy / Traveller / Irish Traveller / Other groups 0.9% (Office for National Statistics, 2013a). Figure A5-1 shows the proportion of each ethnic group.
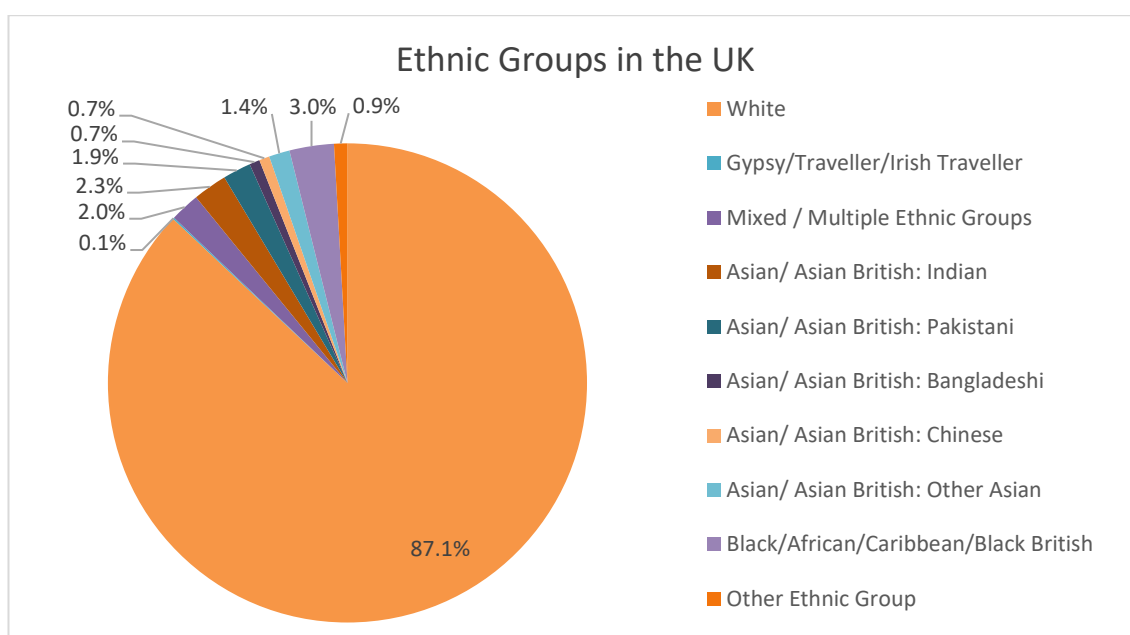

Figure A5- 1: Ethnic groups in the UK.
Source: Author's Original, based on data derived from (Office for National Statistics, 2013a)

Religion:

Despite the decrease in the ratio of people who identify themselves as Christians in the UK, Christianity remains the largest religion in the country, with 58.8 per cent of the population. Islam made up 4.5 per cent to be the second-largest religion in the country. The proportion of people who are unaffiliated to any religion made up the second largest ratio with 26.1 per cent, while the other main religious groups (Hindu, Sikh, Jewish, Buddhist and other religions) came with a proportion of 3.4 per cent, and 7.2 per cent of the population did not answer the religion's question (Office for National Statistics, 2012; Scotland's Census, 2017). Figure A5-2 shows the proportion of each religious group.
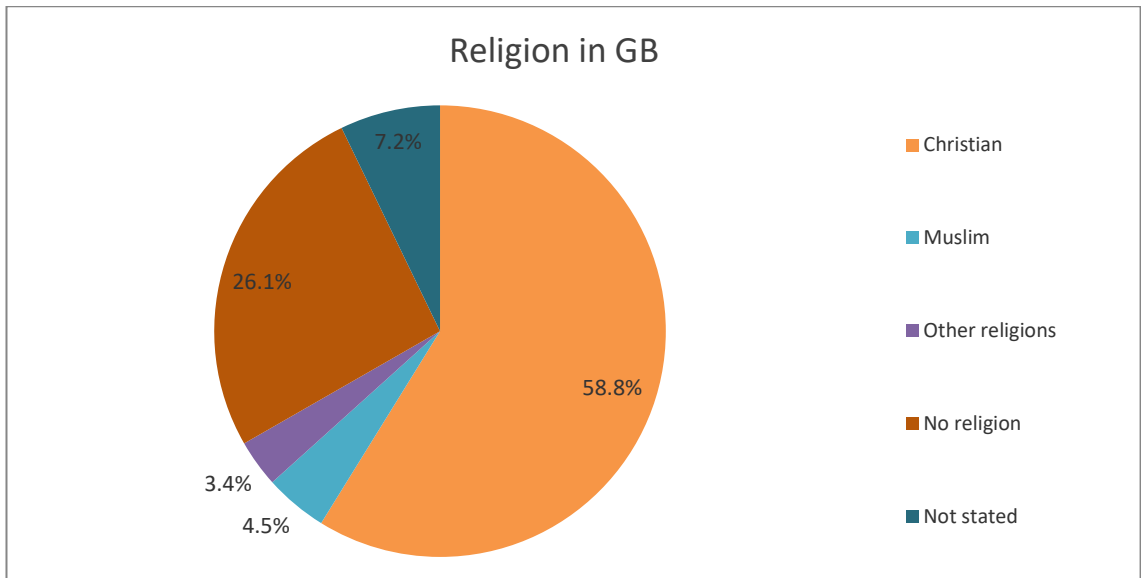
Figure A5- 2: Religion in Great Britain.
Source: Author's Original, based on data derived from (Office for National Statistics, 2012; Scotland's Census, 2017)

Figure A5-3 shows more details about different religious groups and their proportions in England and Wales, while Figure A5-4 shows the proportions of religious groups in Scotland.
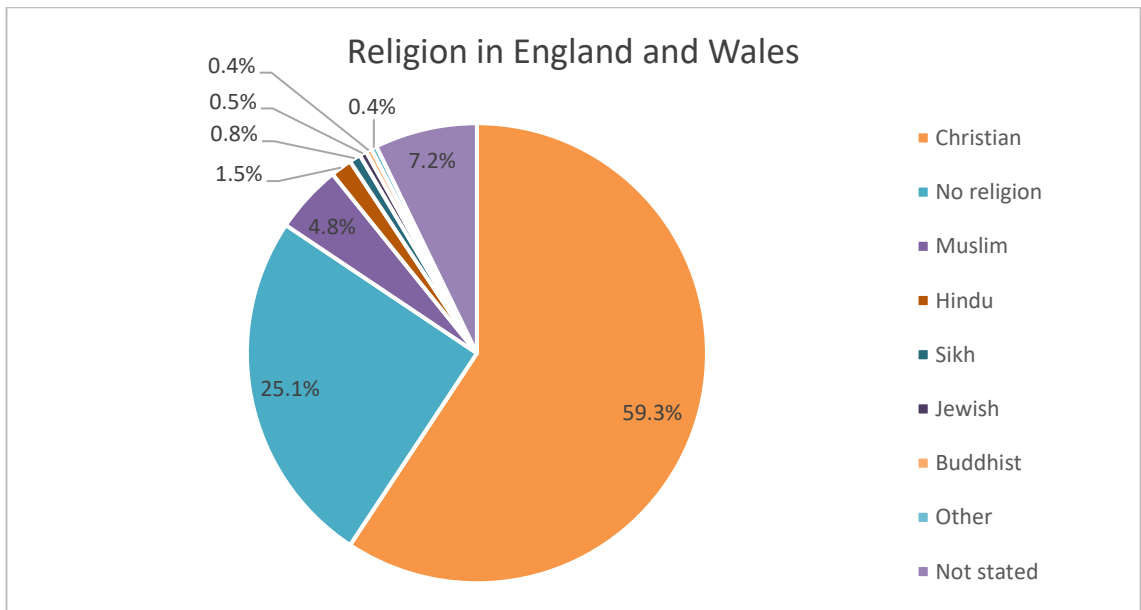

Figure A5- 3: Religion in England and Wales.
Source: Author's Original, based on data derived from (Office for National Statistics, 2012)
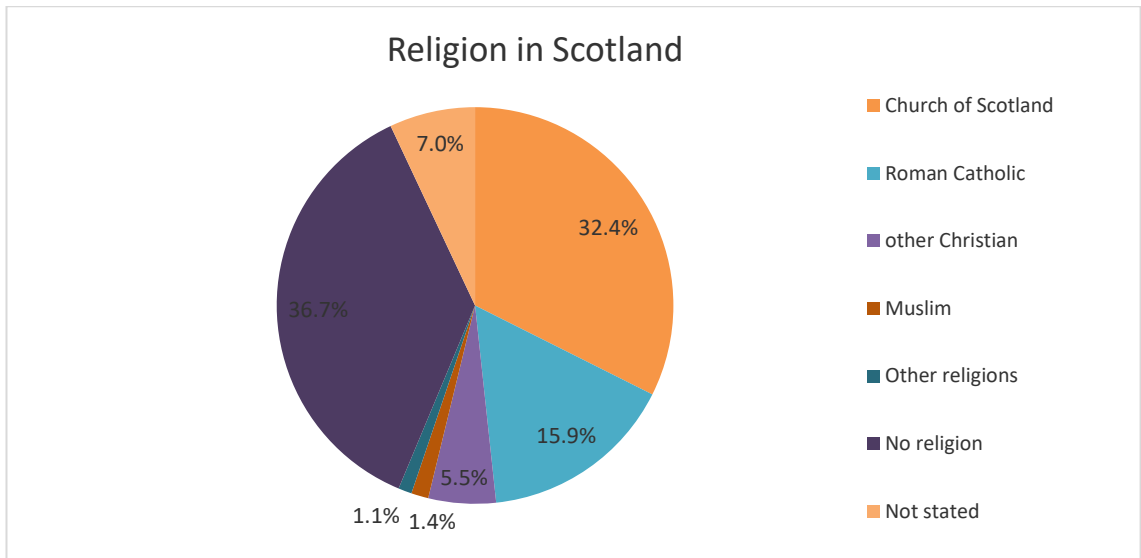
Figure A5- 4: Religion in Scotland.
Source: Author's Original, based on data derived from (Scotland's Census, 2017)

Language:

In March 2011, the census shows that more than 49 million people who live in England and Wales reported English as their main language with 92.3 %, while the remaining 7.7 % of the population reported another language as their main language See Figure A5-5 for more details. At the same time, in Scotland, the 2011 census shows that 92.6 per cent of the population speak English as their main language while the remaining proportion of 7.4 % speaks another language; see Figure A5-6 for more details.
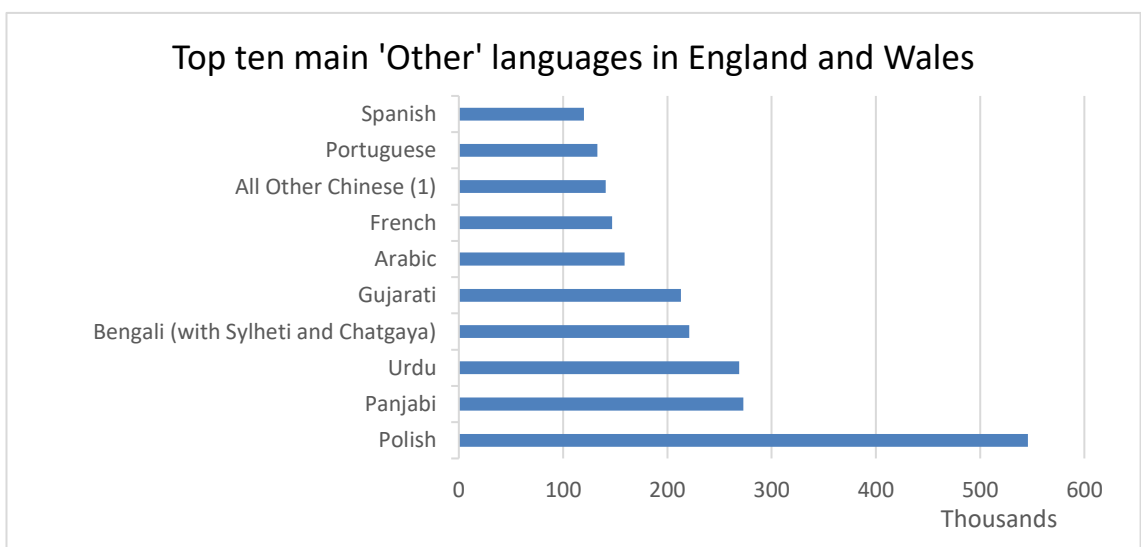

Figure A5- 5: Top ten main 'Other' languages in England and Wales, 2011.
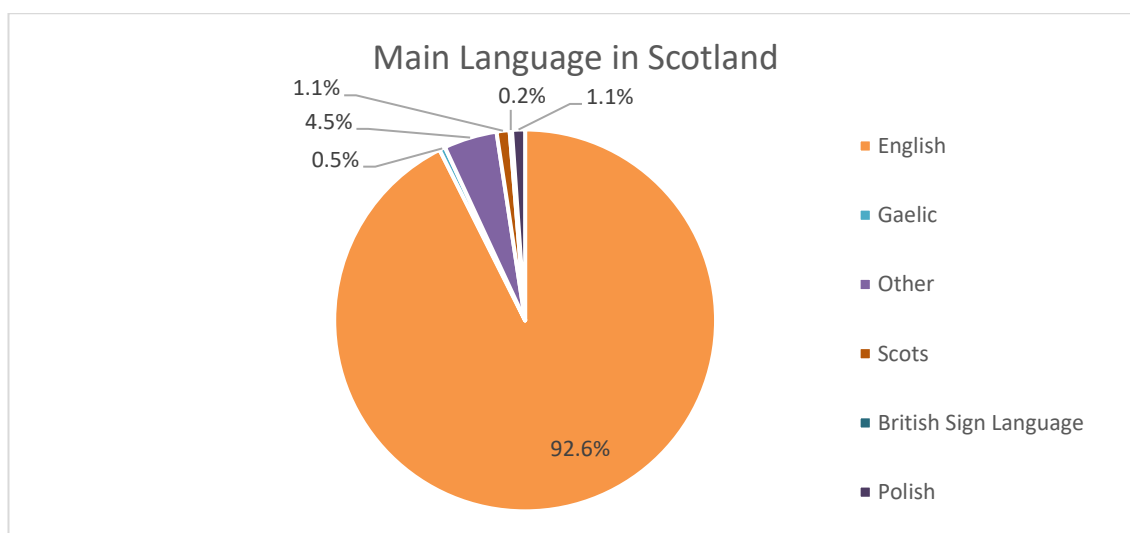Source: (Office for National Statistics, 2013b: p.03)

Figure A5- 6: Main language in Scotland.
Source: Author's Original, based on data derived from (Scotland's Census, 2017)

Appendix 6-1: Administrative divisions in Syria according to population.

Table A6- 1: Types of administrative divisions in Syria according to population.

Administrative Units		Population	Definition
With independent legal entity	Governorate	No specific number	a geographical space includes several cities, towns, municipalities, villages and farms. The governorate can be a single city.
	City	> 50000	the centre of the governorate or district, or any urban agglomeration.
	Town	10001 - 50000	the centre of subdistrict or any urban agglomeration.
	Municipality	5001 - 10000	any urban agglomeration.
Without an independent legal entity	District	> 60000	a sector of the governorate includes at least two subdistricts.
	Subdistrict	> 25000	a sector of the district
	Neighbourhood	In city > 10000	A sector of a city, town or municipality
		In town > 5000	
		In municipality > 4000	

Source: Author's Original depending on the legislative decree No. 107 of 2011 (the local administrative Act).

Appendix 6-2: Ethnicity, Religion and Language in Syria.

Ethnic and linguistic groups:

Historically speaking, the Syrian people have evolved from many various origins. The Semitic peoples of Arabia and Mesopotamia (Aramaeans, Assyrians, Chaldeans, and Canaanites) had a notable ethnic influence on old Syria. Despite the fact that Syria had undergone the occupation of Greeks, Romans, and Turks, they failed to change the dominant Arab character of the Syrian people (Salibi et al., 2018). Figure A6-1 articulates the percentage of each ethnic group in Syria.

There is a solid relationship between Ethnicity and language. In fact, the Arabic language is the most spoken language in Syria since the majority are Arab, and Kurdish is the second most spoken language in Syria. Other languages spoken in Syria include Armenian, Turkish, Circassian and Aramaic. English and French are understood in urban areas and among educated people (Salibi et al., 2018; The World Factbook, 2018).
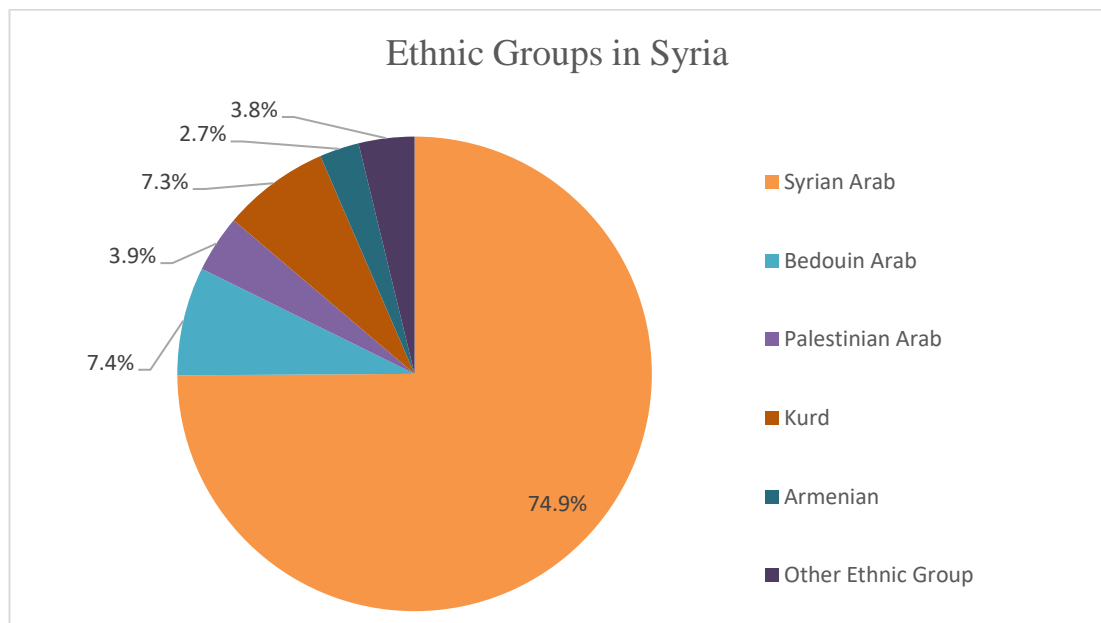
Figure A6- 1: Ethnic groups in Syria.
Source: Encyclopædia Britannica available on: *https://www.britannica.com/place/Syria/The-winds/media/578856/225952*

Religion:

Syria is a Muslim country with a Muslim population of over 85 per cent, the majority are Sunni Muslims with, 74 per cent, and about 11 per cent are Alawites. Christians make up

7 per cent of Syria's population; they are divided into several churches (Orthodox, Catholic, Apostolic, Maronite, Protestant, Nestorian, Latin, and Chaldean) (Evason, 2016; Salibi et al., 2018). In addition to the denominations mentioned above, there are other minority sects in Syria like Druze, Isma'ilism, Yazidis and others. Figure A6-2 shows the percentage of each religious group in Syria.

Figure A6- 2: Religious groups in Syria.
Source: Encyclopædia Britannica available on: https://www.britannica.com/place/Syria/The-winds/media/578856/225952

Appendix 6-3: The Supreme Council for Economic and Social Planning.
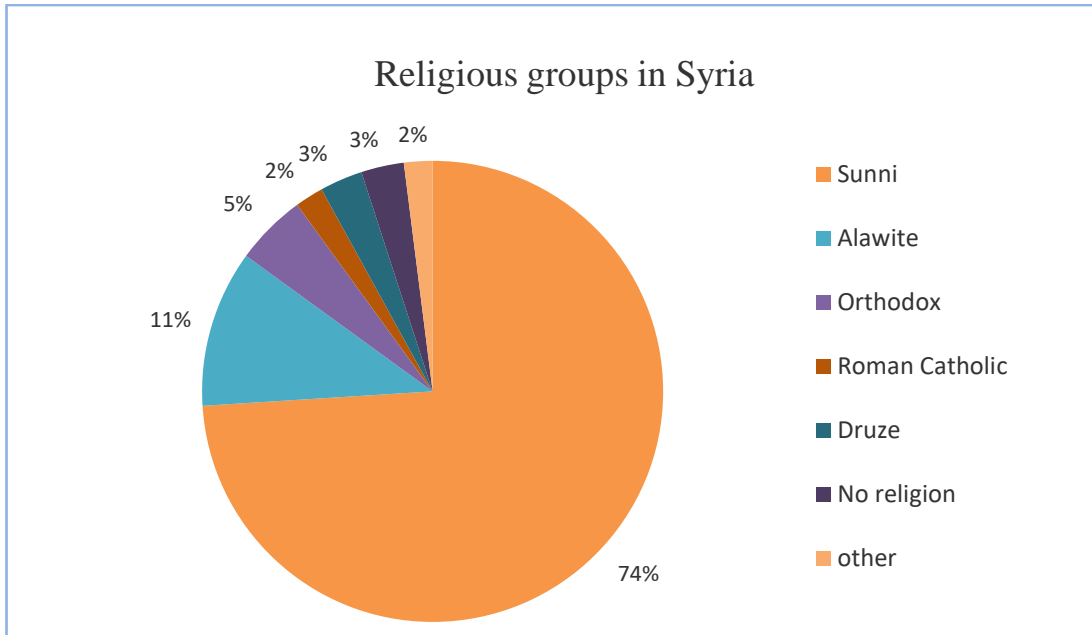
Prime Ministry (2018) illustrates that The Supreme Council of Planning consists of:

- Prime Minister: Chairman
- Deputy Prime Minister for Economic Affairs: Chairman's deputy
- Members with the right to vote: All involved ministers in the Cabinet, Governor of the Central Bank of Syria, Chairman of RPC, Chief of Federation of Peasants, Chief of the labour union, Chief of Craftsmen Union, Chief of Lawyers Syndicate, Chief of Doctors Syndicate, Chief of Engineers Syndicate, Chief of Agricultural Engineers, Chief of Pharmacists Syndicate, Chief of the Federation of Syrian Commerce Chambers, Chief of the Federation of Syrian Industry Chambers, Chief of the Federation of Syrian Agriculture Chambers, Chief of the Federation of Syrian Tourism Chambers and General Manager of the Syrian Investment Authority.
- Members without the right to vote are the General Manager of the Central Bureau of Statistics and Experts nominated by a decision of the Prime Minister.

Appendix 6-4: Legislative Decree No. 5 (1982) states that RTC consists of several members as follows:

1- The Governor (the head of the committee)
2- Member of the related executive office.
3- Director of the technical services.
4- Director of ruins in the Governorate.
5- A person is responsible for urban planning in the Technical Services Directorate.
6- The housing minister nominates two expert engineers in urban planning.
7- An expert engineer in urban planning and an expert lawyer in real estate affairs nominated by Governor.
8- The head of a related council or municipality.

The Governor invites representatives on behalf of the following bodies: „General Union of Farmers, General union of residential cooperation, Union of craftsman, Syndicate of Engineers, Ministry of Defence, Ministry of Transportation, Ministry of Irrigation and the Ministry of Tourism‟ if any of them has a direct relation to the objections presented.

Each of the former members has the right to vote except the head of the related municipality. The final decision is taken by the majority vote.

Appendix 8-1: Estimated population in Syria by Governorate in 2016 (Thousands).

Table A8- 1: Estimated population in Syria by Governorate in 2016 (Thousands).

POP. & DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS

تقدير عدد السكان المتواجدين في سورية حسب المحافظات لعام 2016(بالألف)

ESTIMATE OF THE POPULATION IN SYRIA BY GOVERNORATES 2016 (000)

TABLE 4/2		جدول 4/2
GOVERNORATES	**عدد السكان** **Number of populations**	**المحافظات**
Damascus	2011	دمشــق
Aleppo	3734	حلــب
Rural Damascus	2957	ريف دمشق
Homs	1573	حمــص
Hama	1976	حمــاة
Lattakia	1453	اللاذقيـة
Idleb	1445	إدلــب
AL-Hasakeh	1621	الحسـكة
Deir-ez-Zor	1124	دير الزور
Tartous	1114	طرطـوس
AL-Rakka	853	الرقــة
Daraa	845	درعــا
AL-Sweida	509	السـويداء
AL-Quneitra	81	القنيطـرة
TOTAL	**21296**	**المجموع**

Source: Statistical Encyclopaedia 2017, Demographic indicators chapter, Table 4/2. (CBS, 2017).

Appendix 8-2: Objection form to appeal to the proposed master plan.

Objection form on Master Plan

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