บทบาทของนักผังเมืองกับการมีส่วนร่วมในกระบวนการวางผัง
ของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสีย
The Role of Urban Planners in Relation to
Stakeholder Involvement in Planning Process

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บทคัดย่อ

  บทความนี้กล่าวถึงบทบาทการแข่งขันของนักผังเมืองและการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสียใน
กระบวนการวางแผนพัฒนาเมือง ผ่านการทบทวนเอกสารอย่างเป็นระบบ เพื่อศึกษาโอกาสและระดับการมีส่วนร่วม
ของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสียที่เกี่ยวข้อง กับการเปลี่ยนแปลงบทบาทหน้าที่ของนักผังเมืองตั้งแต่ช่วงกลางศตวรรษที่ 1800
เป็นต้นไป โดยนำเสนอนัยสำคัญของระดับของการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสียในกระบวนการวางผังซึ่งถูกกำหนด
โดยนักผังเมืองเป็นสำคัญ ในขณะที่มุมมองทางด้านกายภาพและการออกแบบพบว่า ลักษณะเช่นนี้คือการปกครอง
แบบรวมศูนย์ ซึ่งนักผังเมืองน่าจะทราบดีที่สุดว่า สิ่งใดเหมาะหรือไม่เหมาะกับสภาพแวดล้อมทางกายภาพ เพื่อรองรับ
ชีวิตความเป็นอยู่ของผู้คนในชุมชน แต่ไม่มีการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสียในกระบวนการวางผัง ในทางตรงกัน
ข้าม ตั้งแต่ปีค.ศ. 1960 เป็นต้นมา การมีส่วนร่วมของชุมชนและผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสีย ได้เข้ามามีส่วนเกี่ยวข้องและอยู่ใน
ระบบของกระบวนการการวางผังเป็นครั้งแรก ถึงแม้ว่านักผังเมืองเป็นผู้มีบทบาทสำคัญ ในฐานะผู้ควบคุมการเติบโต
ของกลุ่มต่างๆ มากมาย ได้รับการยอมรับว่าเป็นนักวิเคราะห์นโยบายและผู้เชี่ยวชาญการวางผัง ซึ่งผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสีย
ที่เข้ามามีส่วนร่วมยังมีโอกาสในการให้ข้อมูลและความคิดเห็น แต่ยังไม่มีอำนาจในการตัดสินใจ เนื่องจากผู้มีส่วนได้
ส่วนเสียเป็นผู้ให้ข้อมูลมากกว่าการมีส่วนร่วมในกระบวนการตัดสินใจ นับตั้งแต่ปี ค.ศ. 1970 เป็นต้นมา การเติบโต
แบบล่างขึ้นบน การพัฒนาของการมีส่วนร่วมของประชาชน โดยมีนักผังเมืองเป็นผู้นำในการร่วมบูรณาการในประเด็น
ทางสังคม เศรษฐกิจและสิ่งแวดล้อม จึงเป็นการบังคับให้การวางผังเมือง ที่นักผังเมืองต้องมีส่วนร่วมและกระตุ้นให้
ผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสียทั้งหมดเข้ามาแสดงบทบาทในการมีส่วนร่วมในการตัดสินใจในกระบวนการวางแผนพัฒนาเมือง
บทความนี้จึงแสดงให้เห็นถึงความจำเป็นในการเพิ่มบทบาทของนักผังเมืองเพื่อพัฒนาเมือง ในแง่ของการตัดสินใจที่
เกิดขึ้นอย่างซับซ้อนและมีความเกี่ยวข้องกับการมีส่วนร่วมของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสียในกระบวนการวางแผน

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ABSTRACT

This paper addresses the competitive role of urban planner and stakeholder involvement in the urban planning process. The systematic review was conducted to figure out the opportunities and level of stakeholder involvement in relation to the change of the urban planner' functional roles from the mid-1800s onwards. In doing so, this paper presents that the significance and level of stakeholder involvement in the planning process are majorly determined by the planner and the nature of the planning model being taken. During physical and design-based view, as an absolute centralized regime, the professional planner could best know what sorts of unfit or fit physical environments for the living of people. As result, no stakeholder involvement was addressed in the planning process. On the other hand, since the early 1960s, community participation and stakeholder involvement were first noticed in the systems and rational process views of planning. Though the urban planners also played a key role as a helmsman of the growing multitude of parties, the planners were acknowledged as the objective policy analyst and professional planners. With the dominant view of the professional planner, the stakeholder involvement was acknowledged as tokenism level since the stakeholder was consulted rather than involved in the process of decision-making. From the 1970s onwards, the growth of bottom-up, people-led participatory development together with the integration of social, economic and environmental issues in the planning forced the planners to involve and encourage all stakeholders with broadening the range of actors to participate in decision-making in processes of urban planning. The paper thus contributes to the need for additional roles of urban planners in terms of the contemporaneous complex decision-making in relation to stakeholder involvement in the planning process.

คำสำคัญ: สำนักการวางผัง การมีส่วนร่วมของผู้มีส่วนได้ส่วนเสีย การมีส่วนร่วมในการวางแผน ทฤษฎีการวางผัง
Keywords: Planning School, Involvement of Stakeholders, Participatory Planning, Planning Theories

1. Introduction

Different planning theories were invented over time by different scholars and authors. Different theories endeavored to refine the process of planning in order to yield better plans (Planning Tank, 2015). Participation has been raised up since the Post-Second War planning by the criticism of Town Planning as Physical Planning and Design. It has become a popular term used in advocacy and communicative or collaborative planning. The participation in the planning model or approach is associated with the stakeholders involved in the planning process. A stakeholder is any individual, community, group or organization with an interest in a program or policy, either as a result of being affected by it positively or negatively or by being able to influence the activity in a positive or negative way (Dearden et al., 2002). The stakeholder can be organisations, individuals

and groups who hold an interest or concern and influence in a particular planning area, system or outcome (Kumar & Paddison, 2000). The relationship among planners in terms of the professional bodies and the state confirms that planners are not "free agents" (Allmendinger, 2002). The planners were positioned and considered as part of the larger governmental bureaucracy and state power, rather than, they were acknowledged as independent technocratic professionals who directly served the public interest (Fainstein and Campbell, 2003). The urban planners have tried to make a claim as apolitical and the technical expert or specialist. However, about 80 percent of them has been being employed by the governmental agencies for helping in the public sectors and charged by the central and local government (Allmendinger, 2002). Most planners work for local governments (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2000). 81 percent of planners were employed by government agencies including 68 percent in local government, 11 percent in state government and 2 percent in the federal government (CollegeGrad, n.d). The employment of planners in governmental and non-governmental sectors increases 19 percent from 2008 to 2018 because State and local governments need to provide public services and the need for professional, scientific and technical services for private sectors to assist them with broader issues (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010).

The battleground problems associated with a loss of power, status and dominant of planners and experts have presently been debated in the planning theory. The contested battles are over the knowledgeable and theoretical creation, the distribution and utilisation of power and the theory translating into practice (Allmendinger, 2002). With such changes of the nature and thoughts of the planning, there were inevitable changes in views about the specialist skills that the urban planners require (Taylor, 1998). After the Second World War, the concept of participation has been emphasized in urban development because of the withdrawal from the technocratic approach to spatial planning and the transformation of the role of the all-knowing architect to participative urbanism (Cerar, 2014). In urban planning and development field, the public participation has been widely used as the process seeking to enable better decision-making and allows stakeholders to shape the policies that affect their lives and can strengthen the service delivery (Mallery et al., 2012; Davies et al., 2012). However, the citizen participation occurs when all the stakeholders cooperate to implement changes (Holdar et al., 2002). In addition, diverse approaches are integrated by requiring directly and centrally involving the citizens, NGOs and social movements in the development and implementation of policies (Beck, 1992). Reversely, inappropriate identification of stakeholders can make the project and plan face problems of overlooking or under-prioritizing the important issues, significant opposition, designing a scheme with lacking addressing the concerns and priorities of everyone affected by the project, and lack of stakeholder's ownership. Subsequently, stakeholders may resent decisions made and even stop the project from being implemented (Guidemaps, 2004).

Practically, the range of stakeholders and the roles of the urban planner are dynamic notion (Mayers, 2005). This paper addresses a competitive role of urban planner and stakeholder involvement in the urban planning process. In doing so, the systematic review is conducted to figure out the opportunities and level of stakeholder involvement in relation to the change of the urban planner' functional roles from 3 different planning schools with their planning models being taken from mid 1800s-mid 1960s, mid 1960s -early 19070s, and early 1970s onwards. The stakeholders of a project will be changed due to the change of planner's roles in the organisation (UK Essays, 2015). Although voluminous stakeholders have been recognised and served in current planning approaches, the recognition of opportunities for stakeholder involvement has been put in different status by the planners based on the conceptions of the planning being undertaken.

2. Conceptions of the planning

Planning can be viewed as an approach to problem-solving. It provides a systematic way of viewing problems and developing short- and long-term solutions. It can also be viewed as a decision-making process used to help to guide decisions concerning future needs (MeasureEvaluation, 2018). The planning process is a fundamental function of management and should result in the best possible degree of need satisfaction given the resources available (BusinessDictionary, 2018). Urban planning is mostly focused on land use, spatial order, transport, housing, land development, and the environment in the tradition of urban politics and planning. On the hand, in terms of the politics, urban planning is also addressed to the living conditions and the design of functional everyday living spaces (Pl∅ger, 2006). Recently, there may have different stages in the planning process; however, in general, the planning process consists of the definition of planning problems or objectives, identification of alternative plans or policies including the analysis of existing situations modelling and projection, development of planning options, selection of planning options, plan implementation, and monitoring of effects of plan such as plan evaluation, monitoring, and feedback (Yeh, 1999 and Taylor, 1998). Furthermore, the planning ideology can be categorised as traditional planning, school of planning and planning model (Lane, 2005). The term 'school' is commonly referred to a planning approach with a single or in a particular discipline, which specific methods or models of planning are often derived. In this context, the schools consist of the physical and design-based view (blueprint planning), the systems and rational process views (synoptic planning) and the participatory planning (theoretical pluralism). A planning model contains a set of principles and assumptions concerning the process of planning in which they are brought together to form the fundamental of planning practice (Lane, 2005).

2.1 Town Planning as Physical Planning and Design (Mid 1800s - mid 1960s)

During past centuries, human society was largely organized by a dominant framework of centralized regimes. Kings, monarchs, chieftains, religious gurus and rulers of other formats and

faiths attempted to organize human habitats, economies and societies from the top down. There have been widespread practices rooted in this type of mentality in the political and administrative restructuring of human communities throughout the world. Most rulers and kings have been obsessed with the need for maintaining and preserving this centralized control over communities (Tandon, 2008). In addition, between 1945 and 1951, a new political agenda that focused on an expansion of the state's responsibilities was established and known as the welfare in which the state provided universal education, health care and social security etc. The increasing of state's roles in town and country planning was a part and parcel of the new post-war politics and planning legislation. The town and country planning were addressed on the physical planning and design of human settlement which was appropriately carried out by architects (and engineers) (Taylor, 1998). This top down approach was related to reconstruction and planning. With the war over, there was a need for social and economic reconstruction. Governments were given the task to rebuild cities that had been afflicted by the damage left behind from the war. Moreover, the physical planning and design were essentially exercised as the description of the town and country planning during the pre and post-war period. However, town planning as physical planning and design can be distinguished as three categories including (1) town planning as physical planning, (2) design as central to town planning and (3) town plans as detailed blueprints or 'master' plans (Taylor, 1998). Lewis B. Keeble (as cited in Taylor, 1998: 6) defined the term of town and country planning as:

> "the art and science of ordering the use of land and the character and siting of buildings and communicative routes, primarily concerned about dealing with land, but not economic and social or political planning though it could greatly assist in the realisation of the aims of these other kinds of planning."

As the supposition, town planning necessarily involved the production of master plan or degree of precision in the spatial configuration. The view of town planning, as an exercise in physical design, relied on the architectural design model where town planner's principal task was to generate the production of plans such as town plans, regional plans, and plans for village extension (Taylor, 1998). In addition, the planning model was much concerned with the good design method (Adam, 1994). With the belief of that the comprehensive design of new settlements and the reconstruction of existing ones could best achieve amenity, convenience, safety and public health in urban form, and reinforce the onward march of social progress; the planner was considered as the manager of urban areas or the master-designer because they oversaw, designed and mastered the quality of development including the built environment, arranging land-uses to produce balance and order throughout the city (Adam, 1994). However, this view was contested because the planning agency and urban planners were not entirely responsible for development outcomes. Likewise, the traditional approach that relied on physical design was gradually unproductive and the productions

of plans also created problems such as rigid, non-flexible, easily outdated, deterministic, and problem-oriented production of a plan that did not assist the planning process with new information (McLoughlin, 1969; Adam, 1994).

As result of the negative impacts of this planning model, the emergence of criticism of postwar urban development in the 1950s was the quality of the design of new development and the emphasis on physical planning in which the criticisms were mainly concerned with social blindness, physical determinism and lack of consultation. In short, the traditional physical design view of town planning failed and was unproductive because it was addressed only physical and aesthetic qualities of the environment, lacked the understanding of urban life's complication and inter-relatedness in traditional town planning theory and was inflexibility of the master plan in traditional planning theory (Taylor, 1998). The traditional physical design view of town planning was called the social blindness because the planners concern only the physical environment rather than the non-physical environment in which people were living in (Taylor, 1998). Moreover, according to Thomas (2012), he explained that the societies were in the first stage of the civil rights era (1954–1959) that was an actively visible years of the civil rights era in which the race, ethnicity, and social justice issues were largely ignored by planning scholarship (Grooms & Frimpong Boamah, 2018). In addition, during the immediate post-war era, the town planners presumed that they could best know what sorts of unfit or fit physical environments for the living of people could be. This led the planners ignored even consulting the residents about how they would intend to see their surroundings planned. The planners simply ignored what the wishes of the local community were because the planners were based on their physicalist conception of planning together with their professional judgments. The stakeholder discrimination from planners prevented some urban dwellers from benefiting from an equitable share of the services and opportunities that cities have to offer (Social Development Department, 2008). Moreover, this consultation ignorance of people's environments demonstrated the planners' failure to appreciate an elementary theoretical distinction between matters of fact and matters of value. The planners were therefore criticised for not respecting the value-laden from different stakeholders and the public as general. The public value-lade and social cohesion are important element of quality of urban society since this social integration refers to the internal bonding of a social system as it concerns the need of any group for social contacts, feelings of belonging through a common identity and a strong bonding with the place where one lives (Vranken, 2010). It indicated that the door for stakeholders to involve in the planning processes was closed or nonparticipation in the planning process, based on Arnstein (1969). The public effectively has no say or power at all in the planning procedures. However, the focus of urban planning shifted from a prominently physical design exercise to the rational procedure of producing plans for the urban area in which it is a starting light of stakeholder involvement in the planning.

2.2 The systems and rational process views of planning (mid 1960s - early 1970s)

It began to become clear that the dominant model of top-down, expert-led development created issues related to inappropriateness, sustainability, local ownership and leftovers of resources. At the same time, the micro-experiments in community participation and stakeholder involvement were first noticed by policy-makers and development experts (Tandon, 2008). In addition, in the mid-late 1960s, the fundamental view of planning was also changed from "What is a good design method?" to "What is a good plan? It widely believed that the physically led-urban plan which ignored the social and economic considerations should be redesigned and redeveloped (Adams, 1994). However, comprehensive redevelopment within cities was also debated and considered as destructive of social and economic life. In addition, the 1960s was the high tide of the social democratic planning among the social theorists who spoke of the end of ideology (Taylor, 1998). For instance, from 1960–1966, it was the second stage of the civil rights era that intended to cure the social ills by the federal government that enacted legislation and funded programs to promote the public awareness of civil right. Similarly, the third stage of civil rights era (1967–1974) that began to consider the social disorder and political retrenchment was an introduction to an era of bureaucracies and professionalism (Grooms & Frimpong Boamah, 2018). Correspondingly, in term of urban planning, there was another debate of "What is the good planning process?" that considered the planning process as the application of reason to collective decision-making. In this planning school, the urban planners played a key role as a helmsman of the growing multitude of parties involved, the objective policy analyst, and planner-centric (professional planners). On the other, the community participation and stakeholder involvement were first noticed and introduced by policy-makers and development experts in the planning process. However, there was a limitation of the inclusion of stakeholder involvement and the stakeholder was involved as information givers and consulted rather than contributed to any decision-making in the planning process. In addition, the level of stakeholder involvement is considered as tokenism level. For making easy to understand to role of planner and stakeholder involvement in this planning school; four planning models such as systems process view, synoptic rationality/ rational comprehensive planning, incrementalism, and mixed scanning are described as follows.
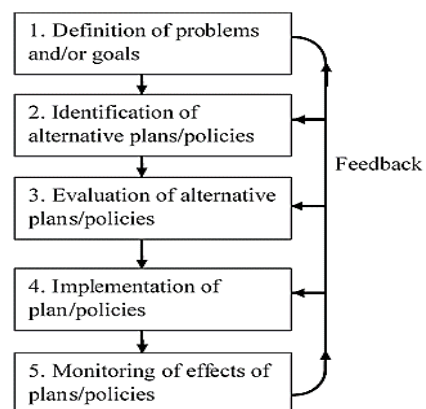
2.2.1 The system view of planning

Systems theory has strongly impacted on the contemporary planning that this theory relied on the modeling and the interrelated nature of towns and cities. Currently, the practical implementation of planning techniques such as Retail Impact Analysis, Traffic Impact Analysis and Environmental Impact Analysis is the approach of the systems view planning. Systems approach concerned with the alternative generation and evaluation prior to the choice-making (Faludi, 1985). In fact, systems are dynamic through the competitive manners of those who involved acting in

optimizing ways; for instance, an attempt is for earning more money, getting to work quicker, moving to a bigger house etc. However, other individuals and the actions within the systems were also impacted by the actions of those stakeholders who involved in the planning system (Allmendinger, 2002). Moreover, multitudes of individuals and groups made very large numbers of decisions in order to respond to the consequences of decisions made by others. The emphasis of a systems view of the world is complexity. Likewise, the planning was to seek for regulating or controlling the activity of individuals and groups in attempting for minimizing the bad effects and promoting better performance of the physical environment by complying with a set of broad ambitions and more specific objectives in the plan (McLoughlin, 1969 and Allmendinger, 2002). The planners were also acknowledged as the objective policy analyst (Allmendinger, 2002). The urban planners were viewed as the helmsman who played a key role in controlling and directing the process of change throughout the urban system and overseeing the multitude of parties involved (Adams, 1994). Faludi Andreas (1985) regards the legacy that the systems left for planning as a profession. The systems planning gave planners about eventually being able to achieve something parallel to the understanding and control. Planner-centric was highly regarded within a systems perspective that it placed a great deal of the emphasis of the professional opinion in an abstracted and technical process. The approach that relied on the modeling and calculation generally required the quantitative information and revolution in the social science in which the involvement of stakeholders could contribute to the sharing and giving necessary input for urban planning decision-making. In the systems approach, it believed that the plan-making was a continuous process and was not a single event anymore.

2.2.2 The rational process view of planning

In the 1960s and early 1970s, though the systems approach valued the multitude of interest parties into the continuous plan-making, it was criticized by rational process view of planning that this approach reinforced the existing social order because it crucially relied on the information availability that was often difficult or expensive to collect and neglected the political and bureaucratic realities (Adams, 1994). Unlike the systems approach, the rational decision-making model is referred as a process of logically sound decision-making.

The logical multi-step models are an orderly path from problem identification towards problems solving (Planning Tank, 2015). In this planning model, all possible options or approaches to solving the problem in terms of the costs and benefits of each option are assessed and compared with each other. The option that promises to yield the greatest net benefit is selected

(Johnson, 2005). Moreover, the rational planning is recognised as the most mutual approach in urban development and planning (Hudson et al., 1979). A variety of steps in the rational planning process may be addressed ways of style differently due to dissimilar authors (Lew, 2007). In fact, the rational process of planning is thus an ongoing or continuous process or no final end-state; as Nigel Taylor (1998: 68) stated:

> "The process of planning does not end when a decision has been made, for the chosen policy or plan then needs to be implemented. It is thus more accurate to describe the rational process of planning as a theory or model or rational action, rather than decision-making."

The rational planning reinforced with 'scientific' and 'objective' methods that applicably applied to all features of planning practice. The rational model is referred to the process used for logically sound decision-making in policy making of the public sector (Lew, 2007). However, the significant series of assumptions in the model rely on a stable system, rational and unitary actor of rational choices of the government, and unambiguous policy problem (Drake, 2002). However, the rational-comprehensive approach is often very costly in terms of time and other resources gathering the relevant information (Johnson, 2005). In addition, there was the lack of guidance on involving stakeholders and the community affected by the planning. The notion of a unitary public interest and homogeneity of interest has still adhered to synoptic ideal (comprehensive view) (Faludi, 1973 cited in Lane, 2005). The unitary public interest model was significantly believed that the planning goals are fundamentally shared and rise above any special and sectional interests (Kiernan, 1983). Nevertheless, this notion has importantly relied on its consensual and societal image which can be obscure for the planning practice profoundly distributing both costs and benefits of planning interventions that may inexplicably be generated to all relevant classes and groups in society (Kiernan, 1983). It can clearly indicate that the significance of stakeholder involvement in the planning processes was seen and given by planners who believed the logical multi-step models to reach the logically sound decision-making. However, the involvement of various types of stakeholder involvement that is very helpful to seek for the mutual final-end state to the planning system was not really given by the planners because they still adhered to the unitary public interest and homogeneity of interest groups rather than inclusive stakeholders in their planning model.

2.2.3 Incrementalism

The emergence of incrementalism planning, during the late 1950s and early 1960s, was related to the critiques of the rational paradigm. The critiques of the rational decision-making were on its contentless (Thomas, 1982); being abstract by not saying anything about how planning in practice operated or what its effects were" (Taylor, 1998); much relying on the interests of the privileged by ignoring both the poor and nature (Campbell & Fainstein, 2003); and decision-making

relied strictly on planner's professional expertise and objectivity that based on scientific and technical knowledge rather than experiences, intuition, and local knowledge of the public (Sandercock, 1998). This incrementalism planning model believed that the planning of city was muddling through that the decision of practical planning was incrementally required or made by layer although the solution was not organised. The concept of muddling through was described by Charles E. Lindblom (1959) that:

> "Agencies will want among their own personnel two types of diversification: administrators whose thinking is organised by reference to policy chains other than those familiar to most members of the organisation and, even more commonly, administrators whose professional or personal values or interests create diversity of view… so that, even within a single agency, decision-making can be fragmented."

Policy approaches such as adjusting the objectives of the planning process and multiple analysis and evaluations fundamentally relied on the incremental approach (Lindblom, 1959). However, the incremental mode was majorly viewed as the tactical level which required the needs of a form of a broader and more strategic image (Alexander, 1986). Though it is the tactical level, this planning also acknowledged the public interest and a plurality of interests rather than a unitary interest. This view of the incrementalism planning was not only to address the information sharing, experience and intuition of planners but promote the decentralisation in the planning process and integrate the voices from public involvement. Plans are the product of this driven push and pull movement, particularly the political movement. However, some criticisms of incrementalism were addressed related to the limitation of the alternatives and their respective analyses, the lack of a formal evaluation process in incrementalism, and lack of visionary goals that offer small solutions to the larger more complex problems. In addition, in practical implementation, the public may only be allowed to involve in the minimal piece and displayed in the reactive rather than proactive way. It can indicate that both conceptions of public participation and planning are alarmed and importantly shifted (Lane, 2005).

The role of planner was to simplify the complex world to an easier model, try to find a satisfactory solution rather than the best one, and to determine the type of problem to be solved and to mediate between different views and interests to reach a consensus because the planner did know the right problem in which the planner was not able to determine a clear definition of goals and measures (Malsh and Mitchell, 2002). According to Kinyashi (2006), the civil society played a crucial role to the planning as the information provider who contributed to making strategic or functional information generation, relieve administration, and increase social acceptance (Kinyashi, 2006). Consequently, it can indicate that the planner was considered as less as the export or professional-based. With this less professional supremacy, the involvement of different stakeholders became more important in the planning process.

2.2.4 Mixed scan

The mixed scanning approach was correlated with a dissimilarity from rigid applications of the synoptic model. The mixed scanning approach was developed by Etzioni who advocated that decision-making was possibly made at both the tactical and strategic levels, developed this model (Healey et al., 1982). It believed that the fundamental changes, for example cumulative effect, was led by many incremental decisions (Kinyashi, 2006). The operational tactical and strategic choices based on the fundamental decision-making environments often scanned by an organisation (Alexander, 1986). This planning was more viewed as the decentralization principle, departing from the centralization of other planning processes such as traditional physical-design based and rational planning. In addition, the planning was considered as a mixture of scientific technique, intuition, and experience which both the population and more agencies were involved in planning, while the planner was to reduce the complexity of the world to an easier model and oversee the whole situations for few solutions in detail. With this principle, the civil society and stakeholders played an active role during a consensus-building process, particularly for setting objectives and fundament decision-making. These incremental decisions were made under the consultation with relevant stakeholders and agencies (Kinyashi, 2006; Malsh and Mitchell, 2002). However, the consensus, within the planning community on the planning goals or objectives, with the relevant actors, was not really much addressed in the view of the mixed scanning though the communities consist of multiple voices. Consequently, the marginalized voices from stakeholders were typically excluded because the planners were not capable to determine the interests. In addition, the planning was in the form of the centric planner which, as result, limited the role of citizen participation (Hall, 1983). Hence, the level of stakeholder involvement was still limited because they were involved in the processes of decision-making in the form of consensus or consultation while the planners still took over the approach to planning.

2.3 Participatory Planning (Early 1970s onwards)

It is the fact that the socio-economic conditions can determine participation of people in project planning and implementation. For instance, the poorer sections of the population are often excluded from consultations; this may be related to their low levels of education and civic competence (Kakumba & Nsingo, 2008). From the 1970s onwards, there has been seen a sudden increase in writings related to bottom-up, people-led participatory development. These perspectives and practices became the foundation of the movement of participatory research by the late 1970s. In addition, by the early 1980s, a wide range of methods in project planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation had incorporated such participatory principles. By early 1990s, many international agencies (especially Sida, USAID, and World Bank) formally adopted policies and procedures for mainstreaming participation (and empowerment too) in all the development programs

that they supported worldwide (Tandon, 2008). Therefore, the opportunity for public participation has been more clearly seen since the growth of participatory planning theoretical philosophy in the 1990s. For instance, the 2003 New Charter of Athens addressed the spatial planning as the key component of the sustainable urban development that relied on the integration of social, economic and environmental issues (Stouten, 2012). The participatory planning as an urban planning paradigm has been used to address the involvement of the stakeholders in processes of the strategic and management decision-making for the community, rural and urban or city planning (Lefevre et al., 2001). The integration of views from all relevant stakeholders is the core principle to avoid the conflict (McTague & Jakubowski, 2013). In addition, the marginalised groups are offered more opportunities to participate in the planning processes (McTague & Jakubowski, 2013). Accordingly, four common participatory planning paradigms, including transactive, advocate, bargaining and communicative, are discussed to determine the role of urban planners and stakeholder involvement in the planning.

2.3.1 Transactive planning

More than just giving the training, the transactive planning has encouraged the public to take an active role in the policy setting process (Lane, 2005). The interpersonal dialogue is the key principle of transactive planning for developing ideas and turning the ideas into action. The mutual learning generated from the interpersonal dialogue is one of the other goals of this planning (Friedmann, 1973; Lane, 2005; Kinyashi, 2006). With this ideology, the information and knowledge are transferred between the planners and community. The planners need the information from the community while the community and citizens require the given training and education about planning issues (Friedmann, 1973). In addition, the approach of this planning is to give emphasis to the integral experience of people's lives. Consequently, this does not only refer to the unspecified target community of beneficiaries, but it uses face-to-face communication to arrive the decision making with the stakeholders of the planning. This planning is likely considered as the qualitative decision-making since it often relies on the interpersonal dialogue addressed by a process of mutual learning rather than merely depends on the field surveys and data analysis (Hudson et al., 1979).

Transactive planning, relied on communicative rationality, often indicates the development of institutional planning decentralisation to support people for the social processes. (Friedmann, 1978). The interpersonal dialogue thus has become the triggers of a mutual learning process leading to an intensive communication about measures[1]. Moreover, this planning is underpinned by key assumptions that a variety of interests in the social movement and the interpersonal dialogue promotes the processes of the mutual learning that leads to an intensive

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[1]   http://www.geo.fu-berlin.de/en/v/geolearning/watershed_management/introduction_wm/natural_resource_management_planning/how_to_plan/planning_models/transactive_planning/index.html (accessed October 20, 2018)

communication tool. According to Lane (2005), the planners of this planning model play the key role as a distributor of information and a feedback source (Lane, 2005). Likewise, planners play role as supporters and act as participants among many stakeholders, mediate between different interests and communicate information between the actors in the planning process. As result, they also become the centre of systematic knowledge. Consequently, the planners are required not only their technical knowledge but also communicative and group-psychological skills in order to reduce the disparities between the participants and reach mutual result (Kinyashi, 2006; Malsh and Mitchell, 2002). The stakeholders are a central contribution to the planning process with their traditional knowledge and experiences (Kinyashi, 2006). With these assumptions, the planners of this transactive planning become decentric-planner who oversees to support and empower the stakeholders to reduce the disparities between the participants and technical experts to reach the satisfied result.

2.3.2 Advocacy Planning

In the realm of planning theory, advocacy is normally linked to the work of Paul Davidoff. His understanding was mainly contrasted with apolitical, technical and bureaucratic perspectives and the systems and rational planning approaches (Allmendinger, 2002). The advocacy planning approach appeared in the 1960s in the challenging (adversarial) approach in the legitimate profession (Lew, 2007). In terms of advocacy planning approach, Davidoff highlighted the category of organisations as the political parties, special interest groups and ad hoc associations involved. The advocacy is essential to make certain that voices of unheard or invisible interests 'have-nots stakeholders' are heard and put up in decision-making as mentioned by Lane (2005) that:

> "Implicit in the approach is the rejection of the notion of a unitary public interest. Beginning with the assumption of political plurality, advocacy planners are essentially facilitators whose central task is to either catalyse the participation of inarticulate actors or, alternatively, advocate their interests directly."

In addition, the advocacy planners play a key role in protecting the weak (the poor, the disqualified) in a community who face with conflicting to the strong party. These communities are empowered by the technical knowledge of planners while the approach weights on the development of plural plans - alternative plan scenarios representing the values of different sectors of the community (Lew, 2007). Also, getting along with the role of protecting the weak conflicting to the strong in a community, the planners play different key roles of (1) helping the weak in preparing plans whose views match his own, (2) providing the opportunity to endorse the plan, (3) assisting the clients to articulate their thoughts in a comprehensible language to stakeholders and the decision makers and (4) making the stakeholders aware of the various institutions and processes involved in planning. Public participation as a plurality of public interests becomes the core component of this model in which the urban planners turn into a facilitator who does not

only directly advocate for unheard or weak groups (the have-nots stakeholders), but the planners also need to encourage such groups to have a stake in part of the process of decision-making. It can indicate that the advocacy planning attempts to promote equity planning, social and mutual and transactive learning, and community-based planning. With such roles mentioned previously, the planner seems departing from government bodies or state agencies but does not really belong to the community. The planner plays another role the third party among different stakeholders and public sector. Therefore, communities (have-nots stakeholders) become the main client or planner's service user. The advocacy also addresses that, in real practice, not all stakeholders are equally represented and involved in the planning process. It can be said it is always that the interests of larger public institutions or private companies have been considered or got more impacts on the decision-making by ignoring voices and views from groups of lower socioeconomic status. This may cause from the planners could not follow the equal value principle as the neutral technician since the planners were highly influenced by political climate and patronage system.

2.3.3 Bargaining Planning

The view of bargaining planning attempts to address and compromise between the giver and the taker in the process. This planning is to negotiate and get agreement among relevant two or more parties (actors) that attempt to reach the agreement on each site should give (giver) and take (taker) in a transaction between them (Dorcey, 1986). Similarly, the final decisions of the planning are the product of bargaining or negotiating between active stakeholders both the givers and takers in the planning process (Lane, 2005). The bargaining in this model is often conducted within the parameters created by the legal and political institutions, especially the decision made within the context of mixed economies (McDonald, 1989; Dorcey, 1986). The public participation has become an integral part of this theory of this planning since the participation is the central dynamic in the decision-making process in which, first and foremost, the decisions are generally made by the public. This has led to the minor role of planners in the planning (Lane, 2005). The bargaining planners play a comparable role to the advocacy planners since the distribution of the power has been recognised and delivered by the bargaining school in order to make all stakeholders have the capacity to bargain and have influence on decisions by means of voting, embarrassing, information provision, demonstrating and rejecting the decisions (McDonald, 1989). The active stakeholders can affect the product of planning. The involvement of actors and stakeholders has become the principal ingredient of decision-making in the bargaining planning thought (Lane, 2005). Therefore, the plan can be made or implemented unless all stakeholders (both takers and givers) reach the accepted level. Also, it can indicate that the citizens (stakeholders) have right to participate in and have some power to influence decisions; in terms of voting, embarrassing, providing information, and even blocking decisions; rather than just be informed the decision made by the central authority.

2.3.4 Communicative or collaborative planning

The communicative or collaborative planning relies on the term of communication and collaboration from different groups involving in the decision-making of the planning processes. However, these terms are defined differently. The communicative is the willingness to talk to people and give them information while 'collaborative' is referred to the involvement of two or more people working together for a special purpose (Miller, 2009). The communicative approach focuses on the use of the communication to assist different interests to come to have the conversation, understand each other, and share their concerned ideas and own subjective experiences in mind in the debate forum in order to reach the shared goals and possibilities as a common bargain (Lane, 2005). The fundamental assumption of the communicative planning theory is the acceptance that knowledge is socially constructed where the individuals are capable to learn and meet their preferences through the interaction with others who hold a stake in a given place (Healey, 1997).

The foundation of the planning as a redistributive activity has been accepted that the planners are regarded as apolitical arbiters among different interest groups and participatory processes of the planning. In this model view, no planning can be made if there is no the involvement of concerned stakeholders who are the key component of the process of planning (Lane, 2005). Presently, a one-way communication process from the planner to politician and the public was slightly shifted to an interpersonal activity of a dialogue, debate and negotiation (Taylor, 1998). That the involvement of all stakeholders in the planning processes for achieving consensual policy outcomes through the means of a debate under the conditions of the communicative action is basically acknowledged as the all-inclusive of the collaborative planning. The independent of the dialogue's outcome cannot define a collective action (Sager, 2005). Therefore, the dialogue of the communicative planning requires validity of communication which depends on at least four claims that convey the validity of communication including rightness, truthfulness (sincerity), truth and comprehensibility (Habermas, 1984; Low, 1991). As result, the major role of planner include (1) the planners often see their role as balancing within discourses (Allmendinger, 2002); (2) in the communicative planning, a town planner is required both communicating and negotiating skills with others and specialist knowledge in order to bring all relevant stakeholders come to the communicating table and assist them to reach the planning decision (Taylor, 1998); (3) the planners are not the ultimate decision-maker but are in charge of giving advice to the elected councilors to make the decision. In this context, the planners are viewed as the adviser to the decision-maker of the effort. Besides the roles mentioned above, other roles and responsibilities of the urban planners consist of cultivating community networks of liaisons and contacts, notifying less-organised interests in the planning process, listening and educating citizens and community organisations to make sure relevant stakeholders can access to documents and information, supplying technical and political information,

reviewing the community-based projects and anticipating political/economic pressure (Allmendinger, 2002); and (4) the planners are to actively include all those who have a stake in particular issues and, recognizing and preserving their cultural differences, to build new shared systems of meaning in order to facilitate spatial co-existence.

From the 1970s onwards, there has been seen a sudden increase in writings related to bottom-up, people-led participatory development. In addition, stakeholder engagement and public participation have been utilized to reach the participatory democracy, transparency, community empowerment and support over the decisions between decision-makers and groups or between different groups of stakeholders within the planning life (Yee, 2010). All-inclusive stakeholders, including the unheard or invisible interests (have-nots stakeholders), have put as the core of the planning process the participatory planning as mentioned previously. According to Arnstein (1969) and Mostert (2003), it can be indicated that the power of co-designing, co-decision-making as well as decision-making has been delegated to the citizens (stakeholders). In another word, as the principle of participatory planning, the planning process or the plan is under the citizen control. On the other hand, while there are numerous advantages associated with stakeholder involvement or public participation in planning and decision-making processes, the stakeholder involvement creates disadvantages for both stakeholders (citizens) and government. The stakeholder involvement can be a time-consuming process, pointless if the decision is ignored, and worse policy decision if heavily influenced by opposing interest groups. Similarly, it is also considered as the time consuming and costly process, loss of decision-making control, the possibility of bad decision that is politically impossible to ignore, and less budget for implementation of actual projects (Irvin and Stansbury, 2004). Currently, an additional challenge for urban planning is how to incorporate citizens into the decision-making process because very often citizens do not understand their rights and responsibilities. In the practical implementation, some developing countries have been facing this issue. In Thailand, for example, based on the 1997 Constitution, adoption of Sufficiency Economy Philosophy, and the 1999 Decentralization Plan and Procedures Act, the concept of participation has been accepted and flourished in the process of development for reaching the participatory democracy. However, there are some anti-participation characteristics among the Thai people, including the belief in Kamma, patron-client relationship, Kengchai (consideration), the weakening of villagers (communities), and Thai bureaucracy (Heim, 1990; Tassniyom, 1997).

By studying different models in each planning school, the key figure role of urban planners and stakeholder involvement in the planning process in the realm of planning thoughts can be addressed as in table 1.

Table 1 Involvement of stakeholders and planner role in planning thoughts

Time	Planning School	Planning Model	Dominated thought/ Socio-economic inclusion	Stakeholder/Level of Stakeholder involvement	Role of urban planner
Mid 1800s - mid 1960s	Traditional Planning: Physical and Design based view	• Town planning as physical planning • Design as central to town planning • Town plans as detailed blueprints or 'master' plans	• Human society dominated by centralized regimes (absolute top-down) • Dominate by" What is a good method?" • Concern only the physical environment rather than the non-physical environment	• Decision-maker • Specialist (engineer and architect planner) • There is no stakeholder involvement (nonparticipation)	• Professional, specialist, expertise (aesthetic and urban design) • Managers of urban areas and were in charge in the quality of the development • The town planners could best know what sorts of unfit or fit physical environments for the living of people could be.
Mid 1960s - early 1970s	The systems and Rational Process Views of Planning	• Systems process view • Synoptic rationality/ rational comprehensive planning • Incrementalism • Mixed scanning	• Community participation and stakeholder involvement were first noticed by policy-makers and development experts • The view of planning changed from "What is a good design method?" to "What is a good plan? and What is the good planning process?	• Multitudes of individuals • Unitary public interest and homogeneity of interest • plurality of interests rather than a unitary interest • Inclusion of special, sectional interests • Level of stakeholder involvement as tokenism (informing and consultation)	• The urban planners played a key role as a helmsman of the growing multitude of parties involved • The planners were also acknowledged as the objective policy analyst • Planner-centric (Professional planners) • A part in the relationship with the public in terms of consultation
Early 1970s onwards	Pluralism/ Participatory theoretical planning	• Transactive • Advocate • Bargaining • Communicative	• Decentralized, bottom-up, people-led participatory development • Focus on strategic planning model • Integration of social, economic and environmental issues • The integration of views from all relevant stakeholders is the core principle to avoid the conflict	• Political parties, special interest groups and ad hoc associations and other groups, organisations or individuals • All stakeholders with broadening the range of actors • Level of stakeholder involvement as citizen control as partnership (co-designing), delegated power (co-decision-making) and citizen control (decision-making)	• Supporters and sometimes acting as participants among stakeholders. • Supporters, communicator, adviser, negotiator, advocate, facilitator and, some cases, act as participants among stakeholders involved • Apolitical arbiters between different interests

Source: Adapted from Taylor, 1998; Faludi, 1985; McLoughlin, 1969; Allmendinger, 2002; Lane, 2005; Kiernan, 1983; Lindblom, 1959; Hall, 1983; Friedmann, 1973; Hudson et al., 1979; Davidoff, 1965; Planning Tank, 2015; McDonald, 1989; Miller, 2009; Lew, 2007; Alexander, 1986; McTague & Jakubowski, 2013; Yee, 2010; Kinyashi, 2006; Malsh and Mitchell, 2002; Adams, 1994.

Based on table 1, the more stakeholder involvement in the planning process made the change of the traditional perception of planners who were positioned as the planner-centric or professional planners to multi-functional roles of planners. Additionally, from the early 1970s onwards, the planners of the participatory urban planning are not able to act only as the professional planner and technical expert, but they require having other additional roles such as an initiator, communicator, advocate, facilitator, negotiator, supporter, presenter and apolitical arbiters between different stakeholders in the planning process. The change of planner's roles is consistent to Taylor (1998) who claimed that with such changes of the nature and thoughts of the planning, there were inevitable changes in views about the specialist skills that the urban planners require (Taylor, 1998).

In addition, in the participatory planning principle, the power of co-designing, co-decision-making as well as decision-making has been delegated to the citizens (stakeholders). This indicated that the planning process or the plan is under the citizen control. However, the battleground of power between stakeholders and urban planners in the process of decision-making still exists in practical practice.

3. Conclusion

Involving stakeholders in the planning model has been recognised after the collapse of traditional planning school. However, the significance and level of stakeholder involvement in the planning process are majorly determined by the planner and the nature of the planning model being taken. During physical and design-based view, as an absolute centralized regime, the stakeholders and their roles in planning were ignored because this traditional planning believed that professional planner (aesthetic and urban design) could best know what sorts of unfit or fit physical environments for the living of people. With the social blindness and lack of consultation, no stakeholder involvement was addressed in the planning process. On the other hand, since the early 1960s, community participation and stakeholder involvement were first noticed in the systems and rational process views of planning in which the urban planners played a key role as a helmsman of the growing multitude of parties involved and were acknowledged as the objective policy analyst and professional planners (planner-centric). With the dominant view of the professional planner, the stakeholder involvement was acknowledged as tokenism level because the stakeholders were involved in the process of informing and consultation (consensus) rather than in the process of decision-making. From the 1970s onwards, the growth of bottom-up, people-led participatory development together with the integration of social, economic and environmental issues in the planning forced the planners to involve and encourage all stakeholders with broadening range of actors to participate in decision-making in processes of urban planning. Presently, the stakeholders have more opportunities to take parts in co-designing, co-decision-making and, even decision-making.

In addition, the involvement of comprehensive stakeholders has inevitably led to the change of the roles of the planners. This designates that the planners do not act only as the professional planner and technical expert, but they need to have other additional roles including an initiator, communicator, advocate, facilitator, negotiator, supporter, presenter and apolitical arbiters between different stakeholders in the planning process. With this regard, it clearly indicates the role of the planner is correlated with the nature and pattern of stakeholder involvement in the issue. Under the complex context of the decision-making for contemporary and future emergence of the planning era, the involvement of stakeholders in the planning will become the challenges and potential opportunities for the urban planners to generate the meaningful outcomes. Furthermore, it is widely acknowledged that ICT will help planners to engage comprehensive stakeholders if they know how to use it effectively. Reversely, it will be a challenge for the planners if they meet the lack of ICT literacy. Therefore, the further research on the use of ICT in the participatory theoretical planning should be conducted to seek for the role, opportunity and challenge of planners in relation to the upcoming involvement of stakeholders in their general and specific planning areas.

Acknowledgment

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