

Erasmus+
KA220-HED - Cooperation partnerships
in higher education
(KA220-HED)

PROJECT NUMBER: 2023-1-EL01-KA220-HED-000164728

Project acronym: **DEMo4PPL**
Project full title: **Digital Education Modules 4 Participatory Planning**

**BASIC3: INTRODUCTION TO MANAGEMENT SKILLS AND
TECHNIQUES FOR PARTICIPATORY PLANNING**

1. Short description

Management is the integrating force in all organised activity. It ensures that all necessary resources - human, physical, material and financial - are effectively used, organised and coordinated to achieve objectives, achieve desired results and optimise outcomes. Management is primarily concerned with solving problems creatively and effectively.

Individuals are not naturally able to assess the risk of their choices, as they are influenced by a whole cognitive and cultural background that leads them to overestimate or underestimate the value of a possible decision. Complex decisions can benefit from a group approach, where elements that are not taken into account by the individual can be considered by the group and become possible barriers to predicting an error. However, working in a group can have positive effects, such as 'synergy', or negative effects, such as 'social loafing'. Good management is believed to have a positive effect on people's motivation and the development of creative solutions.

The Module aims to (i) introduce students and learners to the concept of participatory group dynamics; (ii) discuss the fundamental process of organisational management, specifically how to plan, organise, direct/lead, and control to achieve goals efficiently and effectively; (iii) explain the distinctive aspects of management in participatory planning, (iv) familiarize students and learners with the holistic skills needed to manage PPL processes and (v) equip students and learners with basic managerial techniques for PPL. The content focuses on the fundamentals of management and decision making, examines the behaviour of people in group settings and the emergence of group dynamics, and discusses the specific nature of participatory planning management and possible techniques for managing the process effectively.

2. Keywords

Management; Management Process; Decision-Making; Groups And Group Behaviour; Group Dynamics; Management Skills; Managerial Techniques For PPL

3. Content

3.1. Foundations of management and decision making

Management is the integrating force in all organized activity. It is essential wherever human efforts are undertaken collectively to achieve a common objective. Management is a universal necessity across all types of endeavours, including the business sector, as well as social and service-oriented institutions such as governments, hospitals, schools, and clubs.

Management is both an art and a science. It ensures that all necessary resources - human capital, machinery, materials, and finances - are effectively utilized, organized, and coordinated to achieve objectives, attain desired outcomes, and optimize results. Management is usually seen as a distinct activity characterized by the following key features: economic resource, goal oriented and distinct process, and a multi-disciplinary subject with universal application.

Management is a diverse and complex concept, that despite the efforts of experts has not yet gained a universal accepted definition. However, some definitions are most commonly referred as those of:

Henry Fayol ¹	To manage is to forecast and plan, to organize, to compound, to co-ordinate and to control.
J.N. Schulze	Management is the force which leads guides and directs an organization in the accomplishment of a pre-determined object.
Mary Parker Follett	Management is the art of getting things done through people.
Stanley Vance	Management is simply the process of decision-making and control over the actions of human beings for the express purpose of attaining pre-determined goals

The principles of management have long been categorized into the four major functions of management. They are often discussed using the P-O-L-C framework that stands for planning, organizing, leading and controlling and was originally suggested by Henri Fayol in 1916².

Fayol's seminal book "**Administration Industrielle et Générale**" (**General and Industrial Management**) was published in 1916. This work laid the foundation for modern management theory and introduced his famous 14 principles of management.

² The fundamental notion of principles of management was developed by French management theorist Henri Fayol (1841-1925).

Table 1 : Principles of management (source: Own elaboration from Fayol, 1916)

Function of management:	Definition (Bateman & Snell, 2022)	Concerned with:
Planning	specifying the goals to be achieved and deciding in advance the appropriate actions needed to achieve those goals.	1. Vision and Mission 2. Strategizing 3. Goals and objectives
Organizing	assembling and coordinating the human, financial, physical, informational, and other resources needed to achieve goals	1. Organizational design 2. Culture 3. Social Networks
Leading	stimulating people to be high performers.	1. Leadership 2. Decision making 3. Communications 4. Groups/ Teams 5. Motivation
Controlling	monitoring performance and making needed changes.	1. Systems/ Processes 2. Strategic Human Resources

Planning:

Planning is a key management function that involves setting goals and determining the actions required to achieve them.

It is a structured, step-by-step approach that begins with environmental scanning, where the management body (an individual or a collective body) need to understand external factors influencing their context. These factors can include economic and political conditions, legal requirements, market competition, and user or societal trends. Once these elements are analyzed, managers can forecast future conditions, providing a solid foundation for planning.

The next step is to establish clear objectives, which define what needs to be accomplished and by when. Managers then identify different strategies for achieving these objectives and evaluate the potential alternatives. After careful consideration, managers make decisions on the best course of action.

Once a strategy is chosen, the necessary actions are outlined, and efforts are directed toward its successful execution. Continuous monitoring of progress is essential, allowing for adjustments to ensure the plan's success and responsiveness to changing circumstances.

Organizing:

Organizing is a fundamental management function that involves establishing structures and allocating resources to achieve objectives effectively and efficiently. The structure created serves as a foundation for coordinating activities and

responsibilities and is often visually represented through charts that outline roles, authority, and accountability. Decisions related to structuring and organizing are commonly referred to as (organizational) design considerations.

This function also involves defining individual roles within the broader process or system. It includes identifying responsibilities and determining how tasks should be carried out to meet organizational or operational needs effectively.

At a broader level, organizing involves determining the most effective ways to group roles, activities, and functions into cohesive units, such as departments, teams, or operational clusters. This process, often referred to as grouping or departmentalization, can be based on various factors, including functional roles, areas of service, geographical regions, or key stakeholder groups.

At the individual level, organizing emphasizes designing roles that strike a balance between operational efficiency and individual satisfaction. Modern approaches to organizing and role design increasingly focus on principles such as collaboration, adaptability, and professional development, aiming to enhance both individual contributions and overall effectiveness.

Leading:

Leading is management function that involves utilizing various sources of influence to inspire and guide the actions of others toward achieving shared objectives.

Effective leadership fosters enthusiasm and commitment among individuals, motivating them to contribute to the achievement of attributed goals.

To lead successfully, it is essential to understand the values, attitudes, and emotions of those being guided. Effective leadership requires applying motivational methods to energize individuals for optimal performance, employing communication strategies to deliver clear, persuasive, and impactful messages, and adopting leadership styles appropriate to the context.

Controlling:

Controlling is a fundamental management function aimed at ensuring that performance aligns with established benchmarks or standards. This process generally involves three key steps: (1) setting performance standards, (2) evaluating actual performance against these standards, and (3) taking corrective action when necessary. Performance standards can be expressed in various forms, such as financial indicators (e.g., revenue, costs, or profits), operational metrics (e.g., production levels, defect rates, or quality measures), or service metrics (e.g., customer satisfaction).

Methods for measuring performance vary based on the type of standards and may include tools such as financial analyses, production reports, feedback mechanisms, or formal evaluations. Leaders and managers at all levels typically engage in some aspect of the controlling function.

It is crucial to distinguish the function of controlling from notions of behavioural or manipulative control. This management function does not involve influencing personal attributes, such as values or emotions. Instead, it is focused on ensuring that activities and processes align with objectives and contribute to overarching goals.

Effective controlling requires clear and well-defined plans that provide measurable benchmarks for performance assessment. It also demands clarity regarding accountability for deviations from expected outcomes. Common control mechanisms include budget audits, which examine financial adherence to planned allocations, and performance audits, which assess whether outcomes accurately reflect actual performance.

Although controlling often emphasizes financial oversight, its scope extends to various operational aspects, including process management, compliance with policies, service delivery procedures, and overall adherence to organizational standards. By incorporating robust control mechanisms, entities can ensure that activities align with strategic goals and contribute to desired outcomes across different contexts.

Management is primary focused on solving problems creatively and effectively. Thus, the entire management process is based on **making decisions at various levels**. Decision making is a process of making a choice from a number of alternatives to achieve a desired result (Eisenfuhr, 2011). Three key elements in this definition need attention. First, decision making involves making a choice from a number of options, resources, opportunities; second, decision making is dynamic, involves a number of factors and sub-processes; thirdly, the “desired result” involves a purpose or target resulting from the mental activity that the decision maker engages in to perform the choice. (Savioni, 2023)

Decisions are needed both for tackling the problems as well as for taking maximum advantages of the opportunities available. There is, however, a certain difference between deciding and solving a problem. In problem solving, the decision making act is always linked to the objective we want to achieve, while in decision making, the decision making act is represented by a reasoning of choice of the most suitable alternative—within a series of options (Andreis, 2010). In most cases, decision making means thinking in conditions of uncertainty: we cannot predict with certainty the future outcome of the available alternatives, but in the best of cases we can only estimate the probability of these outcomes (Savioni, 2023).

Effective decision-making requires consideration of two key factors: the purpose it serves and the context in which it is made. Even the most accurate and well-thought-out decision can fail if these factors are overlooked, as decision-making involves numerous internal and external chains of unavoidable reactions.

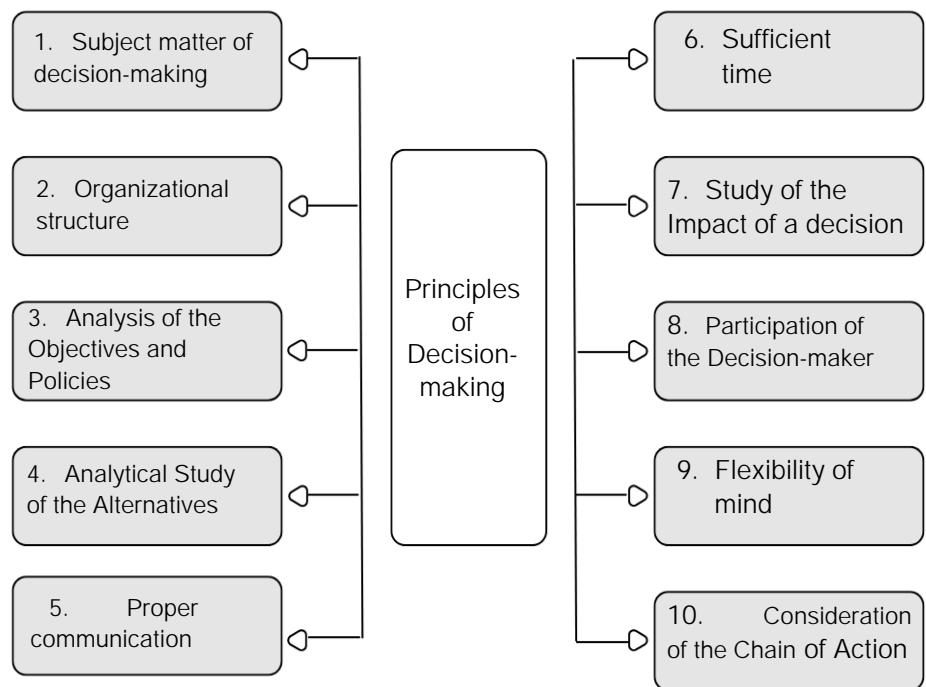


Fig 1: Principles of decision making

With regard to theoretical models in the field of decision making there are two different approaches - a normative approach **that** focuses on rational choice theory and a descriptive approach (Andreis, 2010).

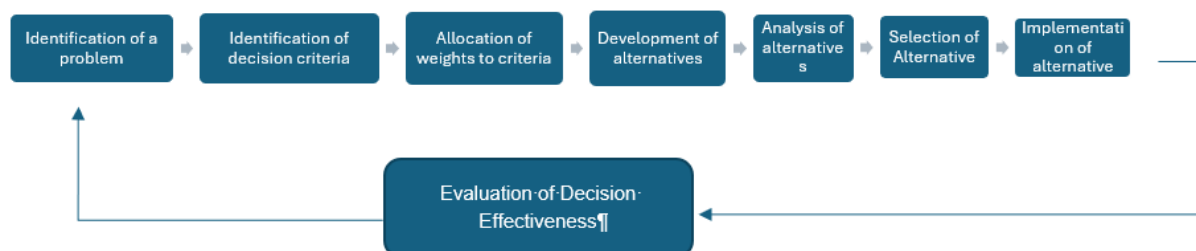


Figure 2: The decision making process according to the rational model (source: Adapted from (Paramaguru, 2015))

The descriptive approach assumes that people's choices are often in contrast with each other, suggesting some empirical generalizations that characterize people's decisions (Savioni, 2023).

To avoid limitations associated with rational-decision making models, decision-makers often combine elements from multiple models depending on the complexity and context of the situation.

Historically scientists have emphasized different models of decision making suited for specific scenarios (Table 2).

Table 2: Models of decision making

	Rational Decision-Making Model	Bounded Rationality Model (Herbert Simon)	Intuitive Decision-Making Model	Creative Decision-Making Model	Garbage Can Model	Incremental Decision-Making Model	Political Model	Prospect Theory (Behavioral Decision-Making Model)	Participative Decision-Making Model	Heuristic Decision-Making Model
Focus:	Logical, step-by-step process to achieve optimal outcomes.	Recognizes cognitive and resource limitations in decision-making	Relies on experience, instincts, and gut feelings.	Encourages innovation and brainstorming to generate unique solutions.	Describes decision-making in chaotic or ambiguous environments.	Decisions are made through small, incremental steps rather than sweeping changes.	Recognizes that decisions are influenced by competing interests and power dynamics.	Explains how people perceive risks and rewards, emphasizing loss aversion.	Involves multiple stakeholders or team members in the decision process.	Relies on rules of thumb or shortcuts for quick decisions.
Process:	Comprised of 6-8 steps	Decision-makers "satisfice" rather than optimize—selecting an option that meets minimum requirements.	Decisions are made quickly without detailed analysis, often in uncertain or high-pressure situations.	Comprised of defined steps focusing on problem identification, data analysis, incubation of ideas, discovering creative solutions, verification and implementation	Solutions, problems, and decision-makers interact randomly, leading to decisions when they "happen to align."	Gradually implement changes and evaluate the results before proceeding further.	Decisions result from negotiation, compromise, and coalition-building.	People tend to avoid risks when seeking gains but take risks to avoid losses.	Encourages collaboration and shared input to reach a consensus.	Simplifies complex decisions but may introduce biases.
Best for:	Complex decisions with clear data and criteria.	Situations with limited information or time constraints.	Situations requiring rapid responses, where expertise or experience is critical.	Novel problems requiring out-of-the-box solutions.	Organizations with high uncertainty or fluid processes.	Risk-averse environments or complex, evolving issues	Organizations or contexts with conflicting stakeholder interests.	Understanding decision-making under uncertainty	Situations requiring buy-in from diverse groups.	Routine or repetitive decisions with predictable outcomes.

3.2. Understanding individual and group behaviour

Individuals are constantly interacting with others. Based on these interactions, individuals fall into different formations or groups - family, work team, friends, interest groups, etc. A **Group** is a collection of personalities (formation of at least two people) with different characteristics, needs, and influences who come together in a given purpose, communicate with each other, affect each other and are dependent on each other. According to researches, an individual behaves in a group differently than being alone (Gençer, 2019).

To be a group, a crowd should have common objectives and norms, but also they should be feeling themselves as a group (R. Kreitner, 2010) (Gençer, 2019). Small groups reflect society as a whole (Gençer, 2019).

Scientists propose different categories of groups based on various criteria:

- Primary and secondary groups - The primary group is usually fairly small and is made up of individuals who generally engage face-to-face in long-term, emotionally significant ways. The best example of a primary group is the family. Secondary groups are often larger and impersonal. They may also be task-focused and time-limited. These groups serve **an** instrumental function **rather** than an expressive one, meaning that their role is more goal- or task-oriented than emotional. One's fellow students or co-workers can be examples of a secondary group. Neither primary nor secondary groups are bound by strict definitions or set limits.
- Formal groups and informal groups - Formal groups who are structured to pursue a specific task and are characterized by a defined organization, designated positions, clear rules of interaction, and a leader. Informal groups emerge naturally in response to organizational or member interests. Unlike formal groups, they lack specific organization, designated positions, formal rules, and a defined leader.
- Real and Conditional Groups - Real Groups are formed to achieve common goals and produce tangible results through collaborative activities. Conditional Groups share a common, recognized characteristic that connects them, but in reality, the members do not interact with one another and do not feel a sense of belonging to the group.

Team is most common form of a formal group, while in some contexts community may be an example of informal group. There are some differences between informal and formal groups (Table 3).

Table 3: Differences between formal and informal group

Comparison criterion	Formal Groups	Informal Groups
Goal	Defined by the organization or institution; aligned with formal objectives and policies.	Emerges from shared personal interests, needs, or social connections; goals are often flexible.
Participation	Participation is assigned or mandated based on roles and responsibilities.	Participation is voluntary and based on shared interests or relationships.
Role structure	Clearly defined roles with a hierarchical or structured framework	Roles are fluid and evolve based on group dynamics or personal relationships.
Management	Managed through formal leadership, policies, and procedures.	Self-managed or organically coordinated by influential members without formal leadership.
Decision-making	Follows structured processes, such as voting or hierarchical approval systems.	Decisions are made informally, often through consensus or influential individuals' input.
Conflicts resolution	Handled through formal mechanisms, such as mediation, arbitration, or policies.	Resolved through negotiation, personal relationships, or group consensus.
Interaction	Interaction is task-oriented and occurs in professional or structured settings.	Interaction is relationship-oriented and happens in casual or social contexts.
Communications	Formal communication channels, such as meetings, emails, or reports.	Informal communication, such as casual conversations, social media, or word-of-mouth.
Creativity	Creativity may be constrained by rules, structure, or organizational goals.	Encourages spontaneous and innovative ideas due to flexibility and lack of formal constraints.

3.3. Group dynamics and its implication for PPL

The appointment of individuals to a group based on their compatibility, diversity, or expertise does not assure effectiveness in achieving group goals.

Organizational experts and practitioners have noted that new groups progress through several stages before reaching peak performance. Each stage brings unique challenges that members must address to advance to the next phase. These stages are known as forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning.



Figure 3: Stages in group progress

Kurt Lewin stated that groups are dynamic and powerful beings which have power to influence individuals and communities (Gençer, 2019). The social process by which people interact and behave in a group environment is called **group dynamics**. Group dynamics involves the influence of personality, power, and behaviour on the group process and can be seen in all stages in group progress.

Lewin describes groups as open and complex systems and characterize as internal and external forces that affect the behaviour of the group. Contemporarily, according to the needs and developments, new items are participating in these forces. Nevertheless, recent studies also investigate interaction of these forces with themselves and each other (Gençer, 2019).

Group dynamics encompass various **elements** such as group roles, norms, status, cohesiveness, communication patterns, and decision-making processes. These elements influence how groups form, interact, and perform.

Characteristics of group dynamics include group structure, group cohesion, social influence, group development stages, and intergroup relationships. These characteristics help determine how effectively a group functions and achieves its goals.

The four **key elements** of group dynamics are roles, norms, relationships, and communication. Roles define individual responsibilities, norms set behavioural expectations, relationships build connections, and communication ensures effective information exchange.

The effectiveness and productivity of groups are influenced by task functions, maintenance functions, and self-interest function.

Task Functions - This is the primary reason for the establishment of a group. To achieve the task, they must have members that fulfil some or all of the following roles (ibid):

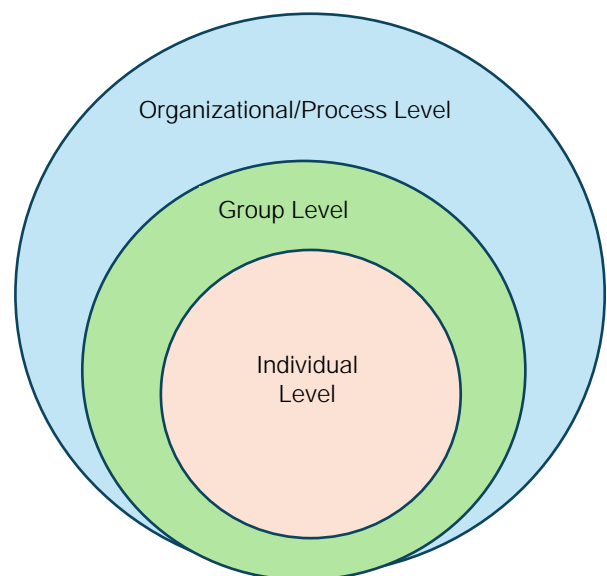
Initiating:	by proposing tasks or goals, defining problems and suggesting procedures for a solution
Information seeking:	by requesting facts, seeking relevant information, and asking for suggestions or ideas;
Information giving	by offering facts, providing information, stating beliefs, and giving suggestions or ideas;
Clarifying ideas:	by interpreting and clarifying input, indicating alternatives and giving examples;
Bringing closure:	by summarizing, restating, and offering solutions;
Consensus testing:	by checking for agreements and sending up 'trial balloons'.

Maintenance Behaviour - Each group needs social-emotional support to be effective. Some members of the group will take the lead in providing this support which consists of the following (ibid):

Encouraging:	by showing regard for other members and providing positive response to their contributions;
Improving group atmosphere:	by expressing group feelings, sensing moods and relationships, and sharing feelings;
Harmonizing:	by reconciling differences and reducing group tension;
Compromising:	by admitting errors and looking for alternatives;
Gate-keeping:	by attempting to keep communications flowing, facilitating the participation of others, and suggesting procedures for sharing discussion;
Standard setting:	by reminding members of group norms, rules, and roles.

Self-interest Behaviour - This third function displayed by some individuals, members generally takes away from group performance and affects task achievement at the expense of the group. Activities that identify self-interest behaviour are as follows (ibid):

Dominating and controlling:	by displaying lack of respect for others, cutting them off, not listening, and restating other members' suggestions with a different meaning;;
Blocking:	by stifling a line of thought, and changing the topic either away from the point of view or back to his or her own interest;
Manipulating:	by providing self-serving information, or a single point of view designed to achieve a decision that is consistent with their position;
Belittling:	through put-downs, sneering at other's point of view, or making jokes about another member's contribution;
Splitting hairs:	by nit-picking, searching for insignificant details that delay a solution, or undermining another person's point of view.



Group dynamics play a vital role in the success of teams, processes and organizations. In processes and organizations, group dynamics impact performance by shaping teamwork, communication, and productivity. Healthy dynamics promote collaboration and innovation, while unhealthy dynamics can result in conflicts, inefficiencies, and lowered morale.

By understanding group dynamics, collaboration can be strengthened, conflicts resolved, decision-making improved, and group performance and satisfaction enhanced.

Effective group performance depends to a large extent, on the size and composition of the group.

Participatory planning involves both formal and informal groups, depending on the context, goals, and stakeholders involved. In fact, participatory planning is most effective when both types of groups are engaged, as formal groups bring legitimacy, resources, and procedural frameworks, while informal groups contribute creativity and insights derived from community voices, local knowledge, and diverse perspectives. Therefore, participatory planning often involves larger groups that are more susceptible to conflicts due to the variety of viewpoints, limited opportunities for developing social relationships, decreased participation levels, and lack of opportunities for individual recognition.

Each of these groups consists of individuals with their own characteristics, skills, knowledge, experience, attitudes, and influence. Diverse groups typically take longer to reach peak performance. Different roles and functions are assigned to various members within each group, leading to the establishment of distinct norms and rules, which can make it challenging to achieve full group cohesion required for effectiveness of the process.

Given this complexity and the intricate intra-group connections, participatory planning processes are inherently relational and contingent, where "needs emerge, design objects change, designers evolve, and the design process is continually reconstructed by all interested publics" (Gottlieb, 2024).

Research (and real-life practice) has shown that such heterogeneous and dynamic systems are exposed to challenging group dynamics, that may include (a non-exhaustive list):

Social loafing	The individual behaves differently in a group. According to many psychologists, the presence of others increases the motivation and activity level of an individual, leading to the "synergy effect," meaning that the total productivity of the group is greater than the sum of the productivity of its members. However, in practice, it is more common
----------------	--

Figure 4: Levels of Organizational Behavior including Individual & Group Aspects (source: Apapted from (Hakiki, Anggraini, Fahmi, Putra, & Adinugroho, 2023))

	<p>for an individual to exert less effort when in a group than they would individually, due to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - absence of communication and clear coordination of actions; - lack of a sense of responsibility towards the outcomes of the group; - feeling of helplessness/apathy or a perception that their own contribution cannot influence the final outcome. <p>This group dynamic occurs due to the presence of conditions that create anonymity and a lack of opportunity for self-identification (establishing one's own contribution).</p> <p>Free riding is a specific form of social loafing where group members opt to let others contribute and choose not to fully engage. In participatory planning, loafing behaviors like free riding can lead to diminished performance or ineffective decisions since not everyone is offering ideas to their fullest capacity. Additionally, loafing can generate tensions and conflicts among participants because it diminishes feelings of satisfaction, and those group members who don't engage in loafing feel that they have been taken advantage of.</p>
Unequal power	<p>Some co-design/ co-decision-making groups quite openly follow the opinions and ideas of a dominant or charismatic group member. Such a leading member enjoys a higher status in the group and can exert tremendous influence on the group process, either positively or negatively. This type of power is referred to in literature as personal power and in co-decision-making usually results from liking, respect, and admiration of other group members and/or the belief that one holds credibility or expertise. Individuals with high personal power have a higher likelihood of swaying any final decision by direct or indirect pressure as well as through the time they are allotted for discussion. By misusing their personal power, they can capitalize on the situation and impose their ideas on the group. This makes it difficult for less vocal participants to express their opinions, limiting their influence on the group and thus undermining process effectiveness.</p>
Dysfunctional conflict	<p>Different types of conflicts may arise during participatory planning. While some conflicts stem from personal incompatibilities, others are task-oriented (disagreements about 'what' should be done) or process-oriented (disagreements about 'how' it should be done). For example, some individuals might struggle to let go of their initially chosen ideas (task conflict). This can complicate negotiations with other team members and lead to disagreements about 'how' to select ideas after ideation (process conflict). People themselves are not always capable of managing such conflicts or differing voices productively, resulting in polarization within the group. Although moderate amounts of process and task conflict may be essential for moving groups towards creative breakthroughs, it must be managed. Otherwise, conflict can easily become destructive, causing defensive behavior, inflexibility, contempt, a lack of trust, and an</p>

	unwillingness to work together.
Laughing out loud	Sometimes, groups involved in participatory planning processes come together around a task. They feel good and interact well, but they don't want to take the task seriously. In such groups, the atmosphere tends to be more destructive than constructive. This can be attributed to a lack of internal motivation and engagement with the problem, as participants cannot identify a problem space that they believe is worth solving as a group. This tendency toward a unserious atmosphere often develops gradually. At the beginning of a joint decision-making session, only one or two group members might start giggling and suggesting rather silly and inappropriate ideas. Over time, this behaviour becomes contagious and affects the rest of the team members. Eventually, the group finds itself in a state of "full immersion" in unserious behaviour, shifting its priorities from finding a project solution to having a good time.
Apart together	In some groups, individuals do not build upon each other's ideas and instead pursue their idiosyncratic interests. Rather than working toward one integrated decision, they only combine their individual ideas superficially at the end. Consequently, the group's proposals are a disconnected mix of individual ideas, lacking an overall holistic vision. In such groups, collaboration often falters due to a lack of cohesion. People may experience a lack of commitment to the group goal (task cohesion) or a lack of affection towards team members (social cohesion), and therefore decide to work individually rather than collaborate and make decisions together. Another cause of the "apart together" dynamic is a lack of interpersonal and group skills necessary for high-quality cooperation in co-decision making.
Groupthink	The groupthink dynamic typically occurs in teams with high group cohesiveness. When everyone gets along, members often perceive the group as more effective than it actually is. Groupthink refers to a phenomenon where the collective intelligence of the group is lower than that of its individual members. In co-decision making, people may sometimes hesitate to criticize the ideas of others to maintain a positive atmosphere. As a result, they continue to add features or functionalities to please every group member, ultimately ending up with a plan or design overloaded with features. This focus on seeking concurrence rather than thoroughly exploring alternative choices leads to poor decision-making. To foster creative breakthroughs, more effort should be directed towards sharing diverse information and viewpoints, shifting the group from groupthink to group genius.

Facilitating group dynamics is believed to have a positive impact on people's motivation as well as on the development of creative solutions.

3.4. The specific nature of management in PPL

One of the core principles of good governance is to facilitate public participation in the decision-making process. Public participation increases the likelihood that actions taken or services provided by public agencies more adequately reflect the needs of people and that the benefits of development are more equitably shared. Equitable sharing of resources and benefits is also an issue of sustainable development. As such, public participation has been recognized as one of the core principles of sustainable development. Here, participation means contributing to development, benefiting from development and taking part in decision-making about development, which could be realized through activities facilitated by authorities as well as activities initiated or generated by the people themselves. (United Nations, 2023)

Two approaches to planning can be identified: top-down and bottom-up. **Typically**, top-down planning involves engaging people without truly facilitating their participation in decision-making for their development activities. This approach also tends to make people dependent on the government. The second planning approach is bottom-up, which has two scenarios: In the first scenario, people use participatory tools to determine priorities based on predetermined interventions. This also reinforces dependency. In the second scenario, people take the lead and make decisions in the planning process, fostering a sense of ownership.

Participatory planning is a process whereby stakeholders are involved in the process of problem identification, analysis, choosing appropriate remedies from a range of options, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of their plans. In the process of analysis and planning, the community is facilitated to discuss and consult each other on their development issues. Participatory planning is people centred action oriented and holistic (Haule, 2011).

Participatory planning has the following benefits (Haule, 2011):

- (i) facilitates the process of local empowerment by creating opportunities for specific disadvantaged groups, such as women or the landless, to have access to external resources (training, credits) or to mobilize their own resources organization, knowledge, skills).
- (ii) allows the integration of local knowledge systems into local project planning and implementation.
- (iii) facilitates a two-way learning process between the local community and the project.
- (iv) enhance political commitment and institutional support for local planning by building a common understanding between institutions and local groups.

The International Association for Public Participation (IAP2) has described five levels of communication and public impact in natural resource decision making: Informing, Consulting, Involving, Collaborating, and Empowering (Dawodu, Sharifi, Cheshmehzangi, & Oladejo, 2021) (Nasr-Azadani, Wardrop, & Brooks, 2022)

Informing represents a one-way dissemination of information from experts and decision-makers to the public and stakeholders. At this level of participatory process, people are informed about the plan but do not contribute to decision-making; public

education also takes place at this stage. This one-way flow of information fails to promote public trust in the planning process.

In consulting, there is a two-way exchange of information, involving public feedback on a set of pre-existing alternative plans. This allows stakeholders to express their general preferences and assessments regarding a project.

Involving, allows stakeholders to collaborate directly with decision-makers, ensuring that their concerns and aspirations are acknowledged and incorporated into the development of alternatives.

In the collaborating level, there is a deeper partnership with stakeholders in every aspect of planning, including developing alternatives and identifying preferred solutions. The public is also more actively involved in the implementation of plans.

At the highest level, empowering, nearly all aspects of the project—from defining the problem to proposing solutions to implementing the chosen plan—are carried out in collaboration with stakeholders. This also encompasses referendums, where stakeholders participate in the core democratic process. In essence, the ultimate decisions are placed in the hands of the public.

Management in participatory planning involves unique aspects that differentiate it from traditional management approaches. These include:

- **Inclusivity and Collaboration** : Participatory planning emphasizes the active involvement of all stakeholders, including community members, local authorities, and organizations. This collaborative approach ensures diverse perspectives and fosters shared ownership of the planning process.
- **Empowerment and Capacity Building** : A key aspect is empowering community members by building their capacity to identify problems, prioritize needs, and propose solutions. This promotes self-reliance and strengthens community leadership.
- **Transparency and Accountability** : Decision-making in participatory planning is characterized by openness and clarity. Regular updates, clear communication, and shared responsibility create trust and accountability among participants.
- **Context-Sensitivity** : Management must adapt to the unique cultural, social, economic, and environmental conditions of the community. Local knowledge and practices are integrated into planning to ensure relevance and sustainability.
- **Problem Identification and Diagnosis** : Participatory planning prioritizes thorough problem identification and analysis using tools like mapping, focus groups, and participatory assessments. These activities involve community members directly in identifying challenges and their root causes.
- **Iterative and Flexible Processes** : Unlike rigid top-down approaches, participatory planning relies on iterative processes. Feedback loops allow for

adjustments based on community input, evolving needs, and unforeseen challenges.

- **Facilitation over Command:** Managers act as facilitators, guiding discussions, mediating conflicts, and ensuring inclusive participation rather than imposing solutions.
- **Sustainability Focus:** Solutions developed through participatory planning are typically designed for long-term impact, ensuring they align with the community's goals and available resources.

By prioritizing these distinctive aspects, participatory planning fosters a sense of ownership, enhances community engagement, and results in solutions that are both effective and sustainable.

3.5. What skills are needed to perform management functions?

Good management skills are vital for any process or organization to succeed and achieve its goals and objectives. According to American social and organizational psychologist Robert Katz, the three basic types of management skills include: technical skills, conceptual skills and human or interpersonal skills.

Technical Skills provide individuals with the knowledge and ability to apply specialized techniques to achieve their objectives. These skills include operating tools, equipment, and software, as well as designing and implementing solutions, managing resources, and effectively delivering services in various contexts.

In the context of participatory planning, the technical skills required by the responsible manager or facilitator include: proficiency in financial modelling and accounting software, effective use of project management tools such as MS Project and Trello, expertise in data analysis and visualization using tools like Excel, Tableau, and Power BI, as well as competence in laboratory techniques and statistical analysis.

Conceptual Skills reflect an individual's capacity for abstract thinking and idea formulation. They enable a person to understand complex concepts, analyse and diagnose problems, and develop creative solutions. This ability supports effective anticipation of potential challenges that an organization, team, process or project might encounter.

In the context of participatory planning, the key conceptual skills required by the responsible manager or facilitator include:

- (i) Planning skills broadly referring to the ability to forecast future environmental trends and to choosing strategies that will help in attaining process/ project /organizational objectives with respect to future trends,
- (ii) Organising skills referring to the ability to effectively analyse the needed and available resources, to define working relationships and delegate tasks and authority as well as to time and resource management;

(iii) Problem solving and decision making skills whether it is a routine or non-routine decision managers have to identify and define the problem, develop alternative decision, select the decision which will solve the problem and implement that decision.

(iv) Analyzing complex data and scenarios.

Human or Interpersonal skills are the skills that present the managers' ability to interact, work or relate effectively with people. These skills enable the managers to make use of human potential in the company and motivate the employees for better results.

In the context of participatory planning, the technical skills required by the responsible manager or facilitator include: communication skills that ensures a clearly established flow of information between all involved stakeholders; motivating skills that helps bring forth a desired behaviour or response from the employees or certain stakeholders and negotiation skills that empower the manager to prevent conflicts, and resolve issues as they arise.

Important managerial skills in participatory planning

- Excellent communication skills to convey information in a clear and meaningful way to all stakeholders;
- Advanced persuasive and motivational skills to build effective and productive groups and to encourage the involvement of all stakeholders in the process;
- Special ability to communicate with and lead people, including disadvantaged groups who tend to be more sensitive, emotional and less vocal about their needs, and anti-establishment groups who are more strident and judgmental in their expressions;
- Skilled facilitation is needed to achieve consensus and to ensure that communication is maintained between all stakeholders;
- Flexibility and the ability to strike a balance between the available legal framework, policies and strategies and the ideas and needs of local people;
- Ability to use a range of planning, management and communication tools, especially digital ones;
- Ability to manage several projects simultaneously;
- Ability to make quick decisions and accept criticism.

3.6. Dealing with change

Change is an integral part of planning, no matter what the area and the reasons are (e.g., new leadership, shifting priorities, policy updates, economic shifts, etc.). However, any change to established patterns, practices or settings can be threatening to results, as change usually generates fear of the unknown combined with resistance from all levels of stakeholders. Intentional change often elicits a variety of responses

from local residents, users and the wider urban stakeholder community, including mistrust and fear of change.

Planning practitioners need to be aware of a number of reasons that may underlie individual resistance to change:

- Level of satisfaction with current settings/conditions/processes;
- Perceptions of overall goals and outcomes;
- Perception of potential risks;
- Perception of impact on personal life;
- Cultural differences in personal attitudes towards change;
- Cultural differences in perceptions of uncertain future;
- Fear of loss of comfort, income or personal security;
- Personal biases and prejudices.

Overcoming resistance to change requires adequate planning and coordination but first of all, it is building trust and confidence that will encourage active involvement of all participants in the process for creating an atmosphere of cooperation and acceptability. For this to happen, the following principles must be respected:

(i) Equality: all stakeholders are equal and have the right to express their ideas and be heard;

(ii) Democracy: all decisions must be made by the stakeholders themselves, without being directed or suppressed. Consensus decision-making is key;

(iii) Logic: Ideas should be tested by the logical reasoning or common sense of the participants;

(iv) Empiricism: Ideas should be tested by empirical experience, especially by the experience or feelings of the participants;

(v) Focus on the problems or needs of the participants, NOT the needs of the project;

(vi) Open to critical/analytical thinking.

Coping with the pressure of change requires greater flexibility and deeper attention to decision making at all levels.

Change management is commonly viewed as the application of a structured process and the use of leadership instruments for motivating and engaging people with the process of change and adopting new work approaches towards the desired outcomes. Change management may require a shift in priorities, strategies, approaches and communication tools.

3.7. Management techniques for PPL

Participatory planning involves engaging stakeholders, fostering collaboration, and ensuring inclusivity in decision-making. To manage this process effectively, several management techniques can be employed:

(i) Stakeholder Mapping and Analysis

This technique identifies all relevant stakeholders and analyzes their roles, interests, influence, and potential impact on the planning process. Understanding stakeholders' perspectives ensures inclusivity and helps address conflicts of interest early on.

(ii) Participatory Assessments

This involves using tools to gather information directly from community members to identify needs, resources, and challenges. It ensures that planning is grounded in the real experiences and priorities of stakeholders.

(iii) Collaborative Decision-Making

Engaging stakeholders in the decision-making process ensures shared ownership and commitment to outcomes. Consensus-building techniques are often used to align diverse views.

(iv) SWOT Analysis

A SWOT analysis evaluates strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats related to the planning initiative. It helps create strategies that leverage strengths and opportunities while addressing weaknesses and threats.

(v) Logical Framework Approach (LFA)

LFA organizes project components into a structured framework, defining goals, outputs, activities, and indicators for monitoring progress. It is particularly useful for complex, multi-stakeholder projects.

(vi) Scenario Planning

This involves developing multiple future scenarios to anticipate potential challenges and opportunities. It helps in preparing flexible strategies that can adapt to changes.

(vii) Facilitation Techniques

Facilitation ensures effective discussions, resolves conflicts, and fosters active participation. Tools such as brainstorming, small group discussions, and decision trees can be used.

(viii) Resource Mapping

This technique identifies and evaluates local resources, including human, natural, and financial assets. It ensures that planning is realistic and leverages available resources effectively.

(ix) Monitoring and Evaluation

This technique tracks progress toward goals, assesses the effectiveness of actions, and enables adjustments based on feedback. Participatory monitoring and evaluation involves stakeholders in the evaluation process.

(x) Conflict Resolution and Consensus Building

Managing conflicts and building consensus among diverse stakeholders ensures smooth collaboration. Mediation, negotiation, and dialogue are common techniques.

(xi) Use of Technology and Digital Tools

Technology facilitates data collection, communication, and visualization. Tools such as GIS mapping, online surveys, and project management software enhance efficiency.

(xi) Capacity Building

Training and empowering community members and stakeholders enhance their ability to participate effectively in the planning process.

4. Classroom discussion topics

- What is the role of planning in the overall management process? To what extent can stakeholder involvement positively influence the correct formulation of objectives, strategy and desired outcomes?
- How does participatory decision-making influence the effectiveness of different stakeholders? What are the benefits and challenges for the management process of involving stakeholders?
- Why do people tend to reduce their effectiveness in group settings? How can the management process address this? What management techniques can be successfully used for tackling this challenge?
- Why do people tend to resist change and how can participative planning help to overcome this resistance?
- How do participatory planning influence stakeholders to increase sustainability, accountability and transparency of decision making?

5. Summary of Learning

Q1: What are the main functions of management, and what do they involve?

A: The four major functions of management are planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. Planning involves defining the goals to be achieved and determining the actions required in advance to accomplish them. Organizing focuses on assembling and coordinating human, financial, physical, informational, and other resources necessary to achieve these goals. Leading is about motivating and inspiring people to perform at their best. Controlling entails monitoring performance and implementing changes as needed to ensure the desired outcomes are achieved.

Q2: What are the main stages of a new group's progress and what do they refer to ?

A: These stages are known as forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Each stage brings unique challenges that members must address to advance to the next phase.

Forming, characterised by uncertainty, orientation to task and searching for common grounds. During the second stage, known as Storming, group members become more competitive and reluctant to cooperate, which can be overcome at the next stage of Norming when the individual members feel more willing to cooperate and group norms are more easily established. At the Performing stage the group morale is raising, people develop a feeling of belonging to the group and conflicts and problems get solved successfully. The final Adjourning stage is a time to evaluate performance group results and to debrief and acknowledge individual contribution.

Q3: What is social loafing, and why is it important in participatory planning?

A: Social loafing refers to the tendency of individuals to put in less effort when working in a group compared to when working alone. This phenomenon is significant in participatory planning because it can undermine the effectiveness and fairness of collective efforts. Addressing social loafing is crucial to ensure active engagement and equal contribution from all participants, fostering a sense of ownership and accountability, which are essential for the success of participatory initiatives.

Q4: What is the difference between organizational management and management in participatory planning?

A: The two approaches differ in scope, priorities, and the degree of stakeholder engagement. Organizational management focuses on achieving goals within a structured framework, emphasizing efficiency, hierarchy, and centralized decision-making. In contrast, management in participatory planning emphasizes inclusivity, collaboration, and community involvement, with decision-making shared among stakeholders. While organizational management often prioritizes productivity and profitability, participatory planning centers on addressing collective needs, fostering empowerment, and creating sustainable, community-driven outcomes.

Q5: What is change management?

A: Change management is commonly viewed as the application of a structured process and the use of leadership instruments for motivating and engaging people with the process of change and adopting new work approaches towards the desired outcomes. Change management may require a shift in priorities, strategies, approaches and communication tools.

Quiz

Q1: Which of the following statements about management is not correct?

- a) Management is a group activity

- b) Management is a static activity that follows specific steps;
- c) Management is universal activity,
- d) Management is a Science as well as an Art

A: b

Q2: What key factors should be considered for effective decision-making?

- a) the time-constraints and available finances;
- b) the decision-maker's personal values and perception;
- c) the purpose it serves and the context in which it is made;
- d) the level of uncertainty and the possibility of risks avoidance.

A: c

Q3: Which of the following statements about decision-making is not correct?

- a) Decision making implies that there are various alternatives and the most desirable alternative is chosen to solve the problem or to arrive at expected results;
- b) Decision-making is goal-oriented;
- c) Any decision-making is could be software programmed, as the process is based on assessing and weighting statistical data;
- d) Choosing from among the alternative courses of operation implies uncertainty about the final result of each possible course of operation.

A: c

Q4: In which stage of group evolution, the group morale is raising and people develop a feeling of belonging to the group:

- a) Forming
- b) Storming
- c) Norming
- d) Performing
- e) Adjourning

A: d

Q5: Understanding group dynamics supports managers to (which of the following statements is not correct):

- a) Strengthen collaboration;
- b) Prioritize group idea and opinions;
- c) Improve group performance;
- d) Resolve conflicts;

A: b

Q6: Which of the below statements is not a benefit of participatory planning:

- a) allows the integration of local knowledge systems into local project planning and implementation;
- b) facilitates a two-way learning process between the local community and the project;
- c) enhance political commitment and institutional support for local planning by building a common understanding between institutions and local groups;
- d) provides authority and avoids any resistance to change.

A: d

Q7: (True or False): Planning skills includes ability to forecast future environmental trends affecting the organization or process?

A: True

Q8: Match the following skills to the right group.

1. Technical skills	2. Human/ Interpersonal skills	3. Conceptual skills

- a) Expertise in using different equipment
- b) Providing regular feedback
- c) Attention to detail and quality
- d) Estimating costs
- e) Using social media for advertising
- f) Effective communication
- g) Making prompt decisions
- h) Critical thinking

A: 1 - a ;2-b, e, f;3 - c, d, g, h

Q9: Match the levels of communication with the correct description:

level of communication	Definition
1. Informing	(a) allows stakeholders to collaborate directly with decision-makers, ensuring that their concerns and aspirations are acknowledged and incorporated into the development of alternatives
2. consulting	(b) nearly all aspects of the project—from defining the

	problem to proposing solutions to implementing the chosen plan—are carried out in collaboration with stakeholders
3. Involving	(c) there is a deeper partnership with stakeholders in every aspect of planning, including developing alternatives and identifying preferred solutions
4. collaborating	(d) a two-way exchange of information, involving public feedback on a set of pre-existing alternative plans
5. empowering	(e) one-way dissemination of information from experts and decision-makers to the public and stakeholders.

A: 1- e; 2- d; 3- a; 4-c; 5-b

Q10: Which of the following is not an appropriate management technique for participatory planning?

- (a) Scenario-planning
- (b) Conflict resolution and consensus Building
- (c) Use of Digital Tools
- (d) Delegation of functions and autonomy

A: d

6. Bibliography

- Academy of European Law. (2024). *Public Participation in Decision-Making*. Retrieved from Access to Justice : https://www.era-comm.eu/Access_to_Justice/index.html
- Andreis, F. (2010). A Theoretical Approach to the Effective Decision-Making Process. *Open Journal of Applied Sciences*, 287-304. doi:10.4236/ojapps.2020.106022
- Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *AIP Journal*.
- Bächtiger, A., Dryzek, J., Mansbridge, J., & Warren, M. (2018). *The Oxford handbook of deliberative democracy (First edition)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Banister, D. (2008). The sustainable mobility paradigm. *Transport Policy*, 15(2008), 73-80.
- Bateman, T. S., & Snell, S. A. (2022). *Management: Leading & Collaborating in a Competitive World*. NY.
- Behrens, W., & Hawranek, P. (1991). *Manual for the preparation of industrial feasibility studies*. Vienna: UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION. Retrieved from https://www.unido.org/sites/default/files/files/2021-02/manual_for_the_preparation_of_industrial_feasibility_studies.pdf

- Bianchi Alves, B., Bou Mjahed, L., & Moody, J. (2023). *Decarbonizing urban transport for development. Mobility and Transport Connectivity Series*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Bickerstaff, K., Tolley, R., & Walker, G. (2002). Transport planning and participation: The rhetoric and realities of public involvement. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 10(1).
- Bryson, J., Quick, K., Slotterback, C., & Crosby, B. (2013). Designing Public Participation Processes. *Public Administration Review*, 73(1), 23-34. doi:DOI:10.2307/23355431
- Council of Ministers of the Republic of Bulgaria. (2019). The National Spatial Development Concept 2013-2025.
- Dawodu, A., Sharifi, A., Cheshmehzangi, A., & Oladejo, J. (2021). The illusion of participation: Are participatory indicators truly effective in neighborhood sustainability assessment tools. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.127538>
- Eisenfuhr, F. (2011). *Decision making*. New York: NY: Springer.
- Enserink, B., Patel, M., Kranz, N., & Maestu, J. (2007). Cultural Factors as Co-Determinants of Participation in River Basin Management. *Ecology and Society*, 12(2). Retrieved from <https://www.ecologyandsociety.org/vol12/iss2/art24/>
- Escobar, O. (2020). *Transforming Lives, Communities and Systems? Co-production Through Participatory* (1 ed., Vol. 1). (E. Loeffler, & T. Bovaird, Eds.) Palgrave Macmillan. Retrieved from <https://ebin.pub/the-palgrave-handbook-of-co-production-of-public-services-and-outcomes-1st-ed-9783030537043-9783030537050.html>
- European Commission-Directorate General for Mobility and Transport. (2023). *EU transport in figures - Statistical pocketbook 2023*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- European Committee of the Regions: Commission for Territorial Cohesion Policy and EU Budget. (2022). *The New Urban Mobility Initiative - Can it deliver inclusive local mobility needs and European decarbonisation goals at the same time?* Brussels: European Committee of the Regions.
- European Economic and Social Committee. (2024). Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee Enhancing Fiscal Transparency through Participatory Budgeting in the EU. Retrieved from https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=OJ:C_202500101
- European Union. (2016). *Consolidated version of the Treaty on European Union*. Brussels.
- Follet, M. P. (n.d.).
- Gavanas, N. (2025). Intra-city clean smart and sustainable mobility. In E. Medeiros, *Self-Sufficiency and Sustainable Cities and Regions. Planning for Sustainable, Circular and Carbon-Neutral Development*. Oxfordshire: Routledge.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *This file is part of HyperGeertz©WorldCatalogue(HTM)*. New York, USA: Basic Books. Retrieved from <http://hypergeertz.jku.at/GeertzTexts/Geertz%20Interpretation%20of%20Cultures%201973.pdf>
- Gençer, H. (2019). Group Dynamics and Behaviour. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 223-229. doi:10.13189/ujer.2019.070128
- Giering, S. (2011). *Public participation strategies for transit: A synthesis of transit practice. TCPR Synthesis 69*. Washington D.C.: Transportation Research Board.
- Goodwin, H., & Santilli, R. (2009). Community-Based Tourism: a success? Community-Based Tourism: a success? *ICRT Occasional Paper 11*.

- Gottlieb, L. (2024). Relational sensitivity in participatory design. *International Journal of CoCreation in Design and the Arts*, 20, 440-460.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/15710882.2024.2317943>
- Government of Newfoundland and Labrador. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.gov.nl.ca/iet/files/CCB_GroupDynamicsGuide.pdf
- Hakiki, M. S., Anggraini, D. A., Fahmi, N. F., Putra, R. S., & Adinugroho, M. (2023). Individual, Group Dynamics, and Organizational Processes in the workplace: Factors for Better Performance and Organizational Success. *Journal on Education*, 3401-3430. Retrieved from <http://jonedu.org/index.php/joe>
- Haule, L. (2011). Module 1: Participatory Planning, Stakeholder. *Training of Facilitation Team of Integrated Water Resources Management*. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and PBWB, Moshi, Tanzania. Retrieved from <https://portals.iucn.org/library/sites/library/files/documents/2011-040.pdf>
- Heck, B. v. (2003). *Participatory Development: Guidelines on Beneficiary participation in Agricultural and Rural development* (2 ed.). Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.fao.org/server/api/core/bitstreams/03e79b8f-e05d-47cd-87f6-199b4ad2a26f/content>
- Hillier, J. (1997). Values, Images, Identities: Cultural Influences in Public Participation. *Geography Research Forum*, 17, 18-36.
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in Context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1). doi:<https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014>
- Hoiland, S. (n.d.). Retrieved from Lumen Learning: <https://courses.lumenlearning.com/wm-introductiontosociology/chapter/types-of-groups/>
- Hofstede, G. (n.d.). *The 6-D model of national culture*. Retrieved December 20, 2024, from Geert Hofstede: <https://geerthofstede.com/culture-geert-hofstede-geert-jan-hofstede/6d-model-of-national-culture/>
- International Transport Forum. (2023). *ITF Transport Outlook 2023*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Jain, S., & Polman, W. (2003). Training module on participatory planning and management. In *A Handbook for Trainers on Participatory Local Development*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/docrep/pdf/007/AE536e/AE536E00.pdf>
- Jovicic, D. (2016). Key issues in the conceptualization of tourism destinations. *Tourism Geographies*, 18(4), 445–457. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2016.1183144>
- Kennell, J. (2014). Carrying capacity. In *Encyclopedia of Tourism* (pp. 133-135). Springer International Publishing.
- Kotanidis, S., & Recchia, C. (2024). Briefing: "Participatory budgeting: A pathway to inclusive and transparent governance". European Parliament.
doi:[https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2024/762412/EPRS_BRI\(2024\)762412_EN.pdf](https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2024/762412/EPRS_BRI(2024)762412_EN.pdf)
- Krastev, V., & Umnikova, B. (2019). *Типичнически ресурси [Tourism Resources]*. Sofia: Direct services.
- Le Pira, M., Ignaccolo, M., Inturri, G., Pluchino, A., & Rapisarda, A. (2016). Modelling stakeholder participation in transport planning. *Case Studies on Transport Policy*, 4(3), 230-238.

- Logan, P. (2012, July). *On Culture: Edward B. Tylor's Primitive Culture, 1871*. Retrieved from BRANCH: Britain, Representation and Nineteenth-Century History. Ed. Dino Franco Felluga. Extension of Romanticism and Victorianism on the Net. Web: https://branchcollective.org/?ps_articles=peter-logan-on-culture-edward-b-tylors-primitive-culture-1871
- Lunenburg, F. C. (2010). THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS. *NATIONAL FORUM OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION JOURNAL*, 27. Retrieved from <https://www.nationalforum.com/Electronic%20Journal%20Volumes/Lunenburg,%20Fred%20C.%20The%20Decision%20Making%20Process%20NFEASJ%20V27%20N4%202010.pdf>
- Maleki, A., & Bots, P. (2013). A Framework for Operationalizing the Effect of National Culture on Participatory Policy Analysis. *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis: Research and Practice*, 15(5), 371–394.
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/13876988.2013.846959>
- March, J. G. (2010). *Primer on decision making: How decisions happen*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Mechelen, M. V., Laenen, A., & Abeele, V. V. (2015). Challenging Group Dynamics in Participatory Design with. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/2771839.2771862>
- Minkov, M. (2007). *What makes us different and similar: A new interpretation of the World Values Survey and other cross-cultural data*. Sofia: Klasika y Stil Publishing House.
- Minkov, M., & Kaasa, A. (2022). Do dimensions of culture exist objectively? A validation of the revised Minkov-Hofstede model of culture with World Values Survey items and scores for 102 countries. *Journal of International Management*, 28(4).
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intman.2022.100971>.
- Musyoki, B. M., Kisimbii, J., & Kyalo, D. N. (2020). Participatory Project Planning Approaches: Reflections from Community Development Initiatives in Low Resourced Countries. *Journal of Entrepreneurship & Project management*, 4(5), 51-67.
- Nabil, N. A. (2011). Towards Enhancing Values of Accountability and Transparency for Activating Participatory Planning. *Journal of Engineering Sciences*, 1213-1238. Retrieved from https://jesaun.journals.ekb.eg/article_129398_723db150e3f4b4fcbc7c64c67d2a5d84.pdf
- Nasr-Azadani, E., Wardrop, D., & Brooks, R. (2022). Is the rapid development of visualization techniques enhancing the quality of of public participation in natural resource policy and management? A systematic review. *Landscape and Urban Planning*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landurbplan.2022.104586>
- OECD. (2012). Tourism Governance in OECD Countries. In *OECD Tourism Trends and Policies* (pp. 13-54). Paris: OECD Publishing. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1787/tour-2012-en>
- Othengrafen, F., & Reimer, M. (2018). Planning culture. Retrieved from <https://nbn-resolving.org/urn:nbn:de:0156-559916025>
- PAP/RAC. (1997). *Guidelines for Carrying Capacity Assessment for Tourism in Mediterranean Coastal Areas*. Split: PAP/RAC.
- Paramaguru, D. (2015, Feb 15). *SCRIBD*. Retrieved from SCRIBD: <https://www.scribd.com/document/255826547/Introduction-To-Management-Foundation-of-Decision-Making>

- Pinel, D. (2003). *Create a Good Fit: A Community-based Tourism Planning*.
- Pratiwi, R. I., Haliah, & Kusumawati, A. (2024). The Influence of Transparency, Governance, and Financial Accountability in Managing Financial Reporting in the Public Sector. *International Journal of Education and Life Sciences*, 1165-1180.
doi:10.59890/ijels.v2i10.2571
- R. Kreitner, A. K. (2010). *Organizational Behavior*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Rahmafitria, F., Pearce, P., Oktadiana, H., & Putro, H. (2020). Tourism planning and planning theory: Historical roots and contemporary alignment. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 35. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100703
- Rungchavalnont, P. (2022). Community-Based Tourism: Empowering Local Champions For Sustainable Tourism In Thailand . UNDP.
- Rupprecht Consult (ed.). (2019). *Guidelines for developing and implementing a Sustainable Urban Mobility Plan, second edition*.
- Santos, X., & Anzaldúa-Soule, K. (2024). Community-based Tourism in Europe. In *Green Italy. Esperienze, media e culture per un turismo sostenibile* (pp. 203-214). VITA E PENSIERO.
- Savioni, L. T. (2023). How to make big decisions: A cross-sectional study on the decision making process in life choices. *Current Psychology* 42.
doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-02792-x
- Sharma, P. (n.d.). *Your Article Library*. Retrieved from
<https://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/management/decision-making-management/decision-making-definition-importance-and-principles-management/70038>
- Slivar, I. (2018). Stakeholders in a Tourist Destination – Matrix of Possible Relationships Towards Sustainability. *Open Journal for Research in Economics*, 1(1), 1-10.
doi:https://doi.org/10.32591/coas.ojre.0101.01001s
- Soares, A., Farhangmehr, M., & Shoham, A. (2007). Hofstede's dimensions of culture in international marketing studies. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(3), 277-284.
doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.10.018
- Sondergaard, M. (1994). Research note: Hofstede's consequences: a study of reviews, citations and replications. *Organization Studies*, 15(3), 447-456.
doi:10.1177/017084069401500307
- Svoboda, D., Rušarová, K., Chaloupková, P., & Banout, J. (2018). *Handbook on Project Cycle Management of Development Projects*. Prague: Czech University of Life Sciences Prague. Retrieved from http://www.dww.cz/docs/pcm_handbook_2018.pdf
- Terkenli, T. (2021). Research Advances in Tourism-Landscape Interrelations: An Editorial. *Land*, 10(944). doi:https://doi.org/
- U.S. Department of Transportation. (2018). *Promising Practices for Meaningful Public Involvement in Transportation Decision Making*. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Transportation.
- UN Habitat. (2022). *Envisaging the future of cities. World Cities Report 2022*. United Nations.
- UNECE. (2020). *A handbook on sustainable urban mobility and spatial planning promoting active mobility*. Geneva: United Nations.
- UNESCO. (2024). *About the Culture Sector*. Retrieved from UNESCO:
<https://www.unesco.org/en/culture/about>

- United Nations. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. A/RES/70/1.
- United Nations. (2016). *Mobilizing sustainable transport for development. Summary of the Report by the United Nations Secretary-General's High-Level Advisory Group on Sustainable Transport*.
- United Nations, E. a. (2023). *A guide to the application of public participation in planning and policy formulation towards sustainable transport development*. Retrieved from https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/pub_2308.pdf
- United States Environmental Protection Agency. (n.d.). *EPA public participation guide*. Retrieved from EPA: <https://www.epa.gov/international-cooperation/public-participation-guide-tools>
- UNTWO. (2010). *International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008*. United Nations.
- UNTWO. (n.d.). *Glossary of tourism terms*. Retrieved from UN tourism: <https://www.unwto.org/glossary-tourism-terms>
- Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and Decision-Making*. University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Wagener, N. (2020). *UN ESCAP*. Retrieved from United Nations ESCAP: <https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/Learning%20Material-Project%20Management.pdf>
- Wale, H. (2023, January 23). *Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory*. Retrieved from Corporate Finance Institute: <https://corporatefinanceinstitute.com/resources/management/hofstedes-cultural-dimensions-theory/>
- Wanner, A., Seier, G., & Pröbstl-Haider, U. (2020). Policies related to sustainable tourism – An assessment and comparison of European policies, frameworks and plans. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 29. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jort.2019.100275>
- Wegener, M., & Furst, F. (1999). *Land-Use Transport Interaction: State-of-the-art. Deliverable 2a of the project TRANSLAND*. Dortmund: Institut für Raumplanung, Universität Dortmund, Fakultät Raumplanung.
- Wilcox, D. (1994). *The Guide to Effective Participation*. Retrieved from <https://www.partnerships.org.uk/guide/index.htm>
- Wilcox, D. (1994). *The Guide to Effective Participation*. Joseph Rowntree Foundation. Retrieved from <https://www.partnerships.org.uk/guide/index.htm>

7. Glossary

Strategic planning involves setting long-term goals and typically spans a time frame of three years or more. It encompasses broad objectives and is often based on a guiding mission or purpose, which defines the fundamental reason for undertaking the initiative (or the mission of organization). Strategic planning focuses on establishing overarching goals and is typically conducted by individuals or groups responsible for high-level management and decision-making.

Tactical planning covers an intermediate time frame, usually one to three years. It translates strategic plans into more concrete and specific actions, outlining how to

achieve the broader objectives. Those involved in tactical planning are often responsible for bridging the gap between long-term goals and short-term execution, ensuring that strategies are practical and actionable (i.e. middle-level managers in an organization).

Operational planning assumes the existence of overarching goals and objectives and focuses on detailing the specific actions required to achieve them. It is short-term in nature, typically spanning less than a year, and aims to develop precise, actionable steps that directly support strategic and tactical plans.

Group norms can be defined as rules that specify what kind of behavior is appropriate or unwanted within the group. These rules provide guidance for the behavior of group members and are adopted by them.
