

DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES

**ANALYSIS OF URBAN PARTICIPATION IN
DESIGN AND PLANNING PROCESSES,
HOUSING EXAMPLES OF FRANCE AND
TÜRKİYE**

by
Miray Melisa YÖRÜK

December, 2023

İZMİR

ANALYSIS OF URBAN PARTICIPATION IN DESIGN AND PLANNING PROCESSES, HOUSING EXAMPLES OF FRANCE AND TÜRKİYE

**A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences of Dokuz Eylül University
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Master of Science in
Department of Architecture, Architectural Design Program**

by

Miray Melisa YÖRÜK

December, 2023

İZMİR

THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

We have read the thesis entitled “**ANALYSIS OF URBAN PARTICIPATION IN DESIGN AND PLANNING PROCESSES, HOUSING EXAMPLES OF FRANCE AND TÜRKİYE**” completed by **MİRAY MELİSA YÖRÜK** under supervision of **ASSOC.PROF.DR. BURCU GÜLAY TAŞÇI** and we certify that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

.....
Assoc.Prof.Dr. Burcu Gülay TAŞÇI

Supervisor

.....
Prof. Dr. Deniz Güner

Jury Member

.....
Prof. Dr. Gaye Birol

Jury Member

Prof. Dr. Okan FISTIKOĞLU

Director

Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to take this opportunity to express my sincere gratitude to many people who have played a significant role in the completion of this thesis. My family and my friends have been my constant source of encouragement and support. Their love and understanding have sustained me through the challenges of this academic journey.

The biggest thank you comes to my thesis supervisor Assoc. Dr. Burcu Gülay Taşçı. I am deeply thankful for her unwavering support, guidance, patience, and invaluable insights throughout the entire process. Her mentorship has been instrumental in shaping the direction of this work.

Last but not least, I would like to express my sincere thanks to the people from France and Türkiye who participated in my research and generously shared their time and insights; without them, this work would not have been possible.

Without the cooperation and encouragement of all the people on my side during this journey, my thesis would not have been achievable. While this acknowledgment is an attempt to convey my gratitude, words alone cannot express the depth of my appreciation. I would like to thank you all for being part of this important academic milestone in my academic life.

Miray Melisa YÖRÜK

ANALYSIS OF URBAN PARTICIPATION IN DESIGN AND PLANNING PROCESSES, HOUSING EXAMPLES OF FRANCE AND TÜRKİYE

ABSTRACT

The individual emerges as the most significant component of society, which is a notion with multiple components and each individual in society becomes a part of the built environment even if they are not always aware of it. Understanding how society and the built environment interact is crucial to comprehend the function of architecture in everyday existence. This reciprocal interaction does not always produce beneficial results and is a major contributor to many societal issues. In this regard, one of the methods mentioned in this topic for reinforcing this dialogue is the participation of the individual in the design of the environment around them.

Considering these, society and the built environment have been examined from different perspectives and the study is focusing on the typology of housing because of its relevant place in this dual interaction. The study's selected focus point of participating in planning and design attempts to provide a theoretical basis for participation and move forward through comparison. In this sense, it is aimed to make a comparison between France –selected because of its significance in the history of participative initiatives in housing– and Türkiye. Case studies are analyzed to comprehend how this dialogue is influenced and how it might result under various parameters of various cultures. This research offers a unique opportunity to examine and critique, to go further into and comprehend the concept of participation from various viewpoints and through different geographical contexts as a tool for sustaining the dialogue between society and the built environment.

Keywords: Architecture and society dialogue, France, participation, participative planning and design, Türkiye

TASARIM VE PLANLAMA SÜREÇLERİNDE KENTLİ KATILIMININ İNCELENMESİ, FRANSA VE TÜRKİYE KONUT ÖRNEKLERİ

ÖZ

Toplum çok katmanlı bir kavramdır. Birey ise, bu karmaşıklığın içinde toplumun temel bileşeni olarak belirir ve bilinçli ya da bilinçsiz bir şekilde sürekli olarak yapıyı çevrenin bir parçası haline gelmektedir. Toplumun ve yapıyı çevrenin etkileşimini anlamak, mimarlığın günlük varoluşundaki işlevi anlamak adına kritik bir öneme sahiptir. Bu ikili arasındaki etkileşim her zaman olumlu sonuçlar doğurmamış, birçok sosyal sorunun ortaya çıkmasına neden olmuştur. Tarih boyunca, iki taraf arasındaki diyalog eksiklikleri detaylı bir şekilde incelenmiş ve bu diyalogsuzluğa yapıcı çözümler bulunmaya çalışılmıştır. Bu bağlamda, diyalogun güçlendirilmesi için bireyin çevresinin tasarım süreçlerinde söz sahibi olabilmesi, bu çalışmada bahsedilen yöntemlerden biridir.

Bunlar dikkate alınarak toplum ve yapıyı çevre farklı açılardan incelenmiş ve bu ikili etkileşimdeki önemi nedeniyle çalışmada konut tipolojisi üzerinde durulmuştur. Çalışmanın seçilen odak noktası planlama ve tasarıma katılım, katılım için kuramsal bir çerçeve çizerek karşılaştırmalı bir analiz üzerinden ilerlemektedir. Bu anlamda konutta katılımcı girişimler tarihindeki önemi nedeniyle seçilen Fransa ile Türkiye arasında bir karşılaştırma yapılması hedeflenmektedir. Bu diyalogun nasıl etkilendiğini ve farklı toplumların çeşitli parametreleri altında nasıl sonuçlanabileceğini anlamak için örnek çalışmalar analiz edilmektedir. Bu çalışma, toplum ve yapıyı çevre arasındaki diyalogu sürdürmenin bir aracı olarak katılım kavramını çeşitli bakış açılarından ve farklı coğrafi bağlamlar bakımından analiz etmek ve çözümlemek için bir fırsat sunmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Toplum mimarlık diyalogu, Fransa, katılım, katılımcı planlama ve tasarım, Türkiye

CONTENTS

	Page
THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENT.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZ	v
CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	x
ABBREVIATIONS	xi
 CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION	 1
1.1 Problem Statement.....	1
1.2 Aim and Scope of the Study	3
1.3 Methodology of the Study	6
1.4 Limitations of the Study	8
1.5 Assessment Criteria	9
 CHAPTER TWO - PARTICIPATION.....	 13
2.1 Overview of the Notion of Participation	13
2.2 Participation throughout Different Disciplines.....	14
2.3 Participation in Planning and Design Processes	19
2.3.1 History of Participation in Planning and Design Processes.....	20
2.3.2 Different Outlooks and Degrees of Participation.....	31
2.3.3 Roles of participants	47
 CHAPTER THREE - PARTICIPATION IN HOUSING	 59
3.1 Participation in Housing Around the World with Examples	60
3.2 Participative Housing in France and Türkiye	71

CHAPTER FOUR - COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATIVE HOUSING-THE EXAMPLES OF FRANCE AND TÜRKİYE	93
CHAPTER FIVE - CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS	110
REFERENCES.....	118



LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. 1 Geographical locations of the selected cases: France and Türkiye	9
Figure 1. 2 Presentation of the two ladders of participation used for the table.....	12
Figure 2. 1 Student uprisings in Paris, 1968.....	24
Figure 2. 2 The evolution of user engagement approaches in the architectural design process.....	26
Figure 2. 3 Participation System Model.....	29
Figure 2. 4 Ladder of Citizen Participation.....	39
Figure 2. 5 Representation of White's Ladder of Participation related to Arnstein's Ladder.....	41
Figure 2. 6 White's Participation: Form, Function, and Level of Interest	42
Figure 2. 7 Main Typologies of Participation	43
Figure 2. 8 Participation Process.....	45
Figure 2. 9 Ways we can learn from people and the levels of need -Toolkit	46
Figure 2. 10 Relationships between the actors of a participative process.....	49
Figure 2.11 Different profiles of architect comparison between Lemaire and Flecheux	53
Figure 2. 12 From individuality to collectivity	55
Figure 3. 1 New Gournia Village, Egypt by Fathy, 1973.....	61
Figure 3. 2 The Self-Build House, England by Segal, 1986.....	63
Figure 3. 3 Maison Médicale, Belgium by Kroll, 1971	64
Figure 3. 4 Byker Wall by Erskine, 1975	66
Figure 3. 5 Janet Square by Erskine, 1972	67
Figure 3. 6 Bauhausle, Germany by Sulzer and Hübner, 1983.....	67
Figure 3. 7 Quinta Monroy, Chile by Elemental, 2003	69
Figure 3. 8 Gando Teacher's Housing	70
Figure 3. 9 Villagers during the construction	70
Figure 3. 10 Le Mouvement des Castors, 1954.....	76
Figure 3. 11 Unité d'Habitation by Le Corbusier, 1952	77
Figure 3. 12 Architecture is revolutionizing" Paris, 31 May 1968.....	78

Figure 3. 13 “I participate, you participate, he participates, we participate, you participate, they profit” Atelier Populaires Poster. France, 24 May 1968	79
Figure 3. 14 Batıkent Housing Project in Ankara, 1986	88
Figure 3. 15 Aftermath of Kahramanmaraş earthquake, 2023	90
Figure 3. 16 Solidarity Architecture; (1) Başka Bir Atölye , (2) Herkes için Mimarlık, (3) Kuzguncuk Bostanı, (4) Mimar Meclisi, (5) Plankton Project, (6) Düzce Umut Atölyesi	91
Figure 4. 1 Development of participatory housing projects over the years.....	96
Figure 4. 2 Development of participatory housing projects over the years and foresight for future years	96
Figure 4. 3 Starting date of participatory housing projects and their development over the years.....	97
Figure 4. 4 Geographical overview of the participative housing projects in France .	98
Figure 4. 5 Legal status/situation of participative housing project	99
Figure 4. 6 Geographical overviews of the selected participative housing projects in France	100
Figure 4. 7 Geographical overview of the selected participative housing projects in Türkiye	101

LIST OF TABLES

Page

Table 4.1 Comparison of participative housing projects in Turkey and France.....	102
--	-----



ABBREVIATIONS

CIAM IX:	9th International Congresses of Modern Architecture
NGOS:	Non-Governmental Organizations
HLM:	Habitations à Loyer Modéré — Low Income Housing
MHGA:	Mouvement des Habitats Groupé Autogéré — Self-Managed Group Housing Movement
SRU:	Loi Solidarité et Renouvellement Urbain — Solidarity and Urban Renewal legislation
ALUR:	Loi pour l'Accès au Logement d'un Urbanisme Rénové — Law on Housing Access and Renewed Urban Planning
RAHP:	Le Réseau National des Acteurs Professionnels de l'Habitat Participatif-National Network of Professional Actors in Participatory Housing
CIAF:	Conseil à l'International des Architectes Français-The International Council of French Architects
RMA:	Réseau des Maisons de l'Architecture — Network of Chambers of Architects
MdBA:	Maison de Banlieue et de l'Architecture — Suburban and Architecture Association
CAUE:	Conseil d' Architecture, d'Urbanisme et de l' Environnement — Architecture, Urban Planning, and Environment Council
TMMOB:	Türk Mühendis ve Mimar Odaları Birliği — Union of Chambers of Turkish Engineers and Architects
MİV:	Mimarlık Vakfı — Foundation of Architecture
MİMED:	Mimarlık Eğitimi Derneği — Architectural Education Association
MİMAR:	Mimarlık Araştırma Merkezi — Architecture Research Center
İMO:	İnşaat Mühendisler Odası — Chamber of Civil Engineers
SCI:	Société Civile Immobilière-Real Estate Company
SCIA:	La Société Civile Immobilière d' Attribution-Real Estate Company of Attribution)
SCIAPP:	La Société Civile Immobilière d'Accession Progressive à la Propriété-The Civil Real Estate Company for Progressive Access to Ownership)

SCCC: La société civile coopérative de construction-Civil construction
cooperative society



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem Statement

Architecture has existed for centuries and traces the changes through different cultures and traditions. It is more than just the built environment; it is also a part of the culture. It stands as a representation of the human and the reflection of the world. The role of architecture is to create livable environments for human beings and the necessity of examining the interaction of humans with the environment where they live as a social being is crucial. Here the physical environment and the social environment play an active role together (Uzunoglu & Özer, 2014).

Although people have the freedom to make decisions in their lives, it is impossible to avoid being impacted by the built environment. This is due to the relationship that exists between the built environment-architecture, and society even if individuals are oblivious to it in daily life (Gutman, 1975). Unaware of it, everyone lives in an architectural environment that includes the physical surroundings of their bodies and the built environment around them. Those environments both determine and reflect the cultural levels and awareness of society. Buildings, squares, public spaces, and cities are formed by the contributions of those who live there and become the expression of the common cultural level of that region. The result of structuring reflects the cultural development level of the people who live or lived in that area. However, according to Saleh (2006), the community's cultural level is also significant in allowing the user to engage in the design process. It claims that spreading a high level of social, cultural, and political knowledge among individuals, or at least among community leaders who can influence decision-making, is a key component of community participation. As a result, raising cultural understanding of the relevance of architecture is critical, as is enhancing communities' desire to collaborate with architects and each other.

On the other hand, despite the importance of the dialogue between society and the built environment, several undesirable results emerged over time as the dissatisfaction of the user or different unexpected future scenarios. Consequently, various approaches have been tried throughout time to deal with these issues. In light of existing literature and global situations, tactics are put into practice to ensure that an individual integrates correctly with their surroundings. For example, formal or informal means of informing society about their living environment are employed. Direct public participation in the process is the other important tactic that has come to light. This strategy of ensuring the participation of the citizens in design processes can be defined as an important milestone for the dialogue between society and architecture.

With the involvement of the citizen in a planning and architectural design process different situation occurs and different techniques emerge. Participation is a means of reorienting architectural culture as well as a way of more effectively including people in the construction of space (Blundell-Jones, Petrescu & Till, 2013). Customers, as service consumers and payers, should engage in everything that affects them, according to Saleh (2006), because they are the first to be influenced by designer decisions concerning their environment. Housing project participation, in particular, is critical for empowering community people to participate in the wider political process and have a say in choices that form society (Davidson, Johnson, Lizarralde, Dikmen & Sliwinski, 2007).

The milestone situation of this strategy is the reason for the selection of this subject as a focal point for this study. The importance of the participation of the individual in his built environment will be examined in this thesis, and it will be further elaborated. The thesis seeks to draw a comparison between France -a developed nation- and Türkiye -a developing nation- to highlight differences and similarities, opportunities and issues, and to emphasize repeatable or visible peculiarities. France, a Western European nation, is selected because it underwent a social upheaval, particularly during the May 1968 protests, and has achieved tremendous progress in terms of participation in planning and architectural design

processes in recent years. The society and built environment have been explored from many viewpoints, with the research focused on the typology of housing due to its important role in this dual interaction.

In light of all of this, a case study analysis is conducted to discover how the dialogue between society and built environment is influenced under varied conditions of different geographical contexts. Thus, the thesis is based on the hypothesis that the built environment is an embodied product of sociality and that through the context of participation, the relationship between society and architecture develops at different levels in each society.

1.2 Aim and Scope of the Study

The term "participatory design" or "participation in architecture" refers to the user's involvement in the design process (Jones, Petrescu & Till, 2013). The design of Hassan Fathy's New Gurna in 1945 is the earliest known example of participatory architecture, yet the concept did not emerge in architectural discourse until the late 1960s. Since then, the user has joined architectural discourse as an agent, transforming the architect's function from expert to professional assistance in the context of participatory design. At this point, the thesis focuses on participatory processes, which refers to a type of alternative design, architectural, and planning practice that includes different perspectives such as the social face of the action, the economic situation, or even the political situation of the approach.

The purpose is to highlight the significance of the participatory design approach, to provide information about the emergence of participatory design, its definition in the context of the user and the designer, its methods, and techniques and to examine different examples having different backgrounds. Two societies are selected to be able to make a comparison: one developed nation as France and one developing nation as Türkiye. In this context, it is planned to investigate the user's relationship with the living space through the notion of participation and participative design methodologies. Related ideas were reviewed, knowledge regarding participatory

approach methods in housing design was provided, and the problems of two societies with two distinct parameters were compared using various case study examples.

The research aims to answer the following question:

“How is the dialogue between society and the built environment changing according to different nations - especially focusing on housing?”

Going from a more general overview to a narrower context, when it comes to the case study it is trying to find an answer to the following question:

“How is the dialogue changing focusing on the typology of housing in the comparison of the cases of Türkiye and France?”

To answer these main questions, the research has to construct the literature review as an investigation of different outlooks about participation looking from different perspectives. Consequently, several related conceptual terminologies were established and discussed within the scope of this study.

The study offers a narrative that moves from a global level to a local level while addressing these questions. By focusing on Türkiye and contrasting it to another country selected as France, the research seeks to promote the notion of citizen participation in their living environment and encourages us to reconsider our approaches to managing this issue as compared with the example of a different nation. The study’s main goal is to accentuate the significance of participation in housing in general and shed light on Türkiye’s circumstances in this instance and take inspiration from France, a “role model nation”. As outlined above, the compared case is consciously selected because of its importance in its social revolution throughout history and its relevance in participative architecture in recent years.

Within the scope of this study, first of all the relationship between society and architecture is examined in the context of this subject in a variety of ways. Here, it is

intended to examine the history of this dual connection and assess the flaws that have developed through time. The approach described in this thesis is referred to as “participation in housing” to deepen this discourse. In this sense, participation is one of the strategies suggested in the dialogue for integrating people with the built environment. Users’ ability to influence the built environment, which has been the focus of several studies in the literature, is truly their most basic right and civic duty (Towards the Architectural Policy of Türkiye, 2007, Law of ALUR, 2014 & the European Urban Charter, 1992). Given the significance of a citizen’s participation in housing decisions and how closely it relates to democratic practices, it is imperative to lay out a course for the future. To put it in another way, the study aims to act as a springboard for the creation of an action plan for future initiatives encouraging participatory housing in Türkiye.

This study is organized into five chapters and consists of two main parts. The first one is the theoretical part and the second one is the case of the thesis. The first part starts with a general introduction in the first chapter and the study proceeds with a more general perspective on participation and how it can be connected and integrated with architectural design and planning. After that, its historical background and the different outlooks and degrees of participation are examined and subsequently, the roles of the participants are examined. In the following chapter, the participative process is analyzed especially focusing on the typology selected: housing. The study is proceeding with an investigation of the participative housing initiatives in terms of different geographical locations focusing afterward about France and Türkiye. The case of the thesis is presented in the study's second part. Here, France and Türkiye are used as examples to compare.

Finally, the study describes how the practice analyses might be used to create a roadmap within the conceptual framework that has been defined. For this, different examples are investigated and compared. To conclude and be able to go forward, suggestions and forecasts for the future of the participation of the user in an architectural design and planning process are given by analyzing the findings resulting from the table produced.

1.3 Methodology of the Study

This study provides a unique opportunity to look and analyze, to go deeper and understand the notion of participation through different perspectives as a tool for reinforcing the dialogue society-built environment. The thesis was produced in response to a lack of literature on organizational models that emerge from the city's own will and occur in different relationships in terms of participation and living environment generation.

This study makes use of publications such as books, journals, conference papers, magazines, and internet sources to propose a theoretical framework regarding housing as a multidimensional architectural object and a phenomenological entity that arises via interaction with its occupant. These resources describe housing and its relationship with all its actors using discourses pertinent to respective fields and include a wide range of issues in addition to architecture. The review of literature is therefore conducted by looking at several fields. Instead of focusing solely on one discipline, viewpoints from other fields—such as architecture, society, culture, psychology, urban planning, politics, and so forth—were used to investigate participation. Taking these factors into account, the study's goal is to develop a theoretical framework for participation and then compare it the case of Türkiye to another nation.

With this document analysis, it is planned to investigate the user's relationship with the living space following the notion of participation and participative design methodologies. Besides primary and secondary research through literature review, related ideas were reviewed, data regarding participatory approach methods in living space design was provided, and the problems of two societies with two distinct characteristics were compared using various case study examples. Several related conceptual terminologies were established and discussed within the scope of this study. The thesis focuses on the dialogue between society and the built environment and attempts to prove the sustained change for cities and societies using participatory activities as catalysts. As a result, terminologies focusing on the concept of

participation with its history and its importance as a focal point in research are defined to clear the methodological requirements in total. To achieve its goals and construct the comparison between two different societies, this thesis employs qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. As qualitative methods, secondary research is made. Existing data in the form of text, images, and audio are collected.

Through analyzing different cases, the findings obtained from the theoretical background help to create a profound idea about the approach of participation in planning and architectural design processes especially focusing on the typology selected as housing and the variables that would improve integrate and reinforce the dialogue between the society and their built environment by making interact them.

Türkiye and France were compared in the context of variances in the society-architecture interactions processes and participation-oriented studies. Single-cross-sectional research was preferred in this study, which was carried out using a descriptive research technique. The process was examined as a temporal cross-section from the start of participation-oriented research in these countries to the present throughout the literature study.

To develop a graphic output with a concrete comparison, certain criteria are set and a table is constructed. For this, document analysis was employed as a method, and examples of projects from the literature as well as relevant publications were looked at in the comparison in the context of the interaction and engagement between society and planning and design processes.

This table lists many initiatives for participatory housing in France and Türkiye, albeit not all the participatory housing projects because required data on some of them were not possible to acquire. Although several studies in France and Türkiye may serve as illustrations of participatory housing development processes, they were not all completely accessible. Consequently, the investigation only includes the samples whose data could be completely collected; samples whose data were not

available were excluded. While there are 45 completely accessible projects overall in France, there are just 10 in Türkiye. As a result, owing to accessibility, the sample is restricted to 55 projects. The table created as part of the examination includes the following information to provide general knowledge: the name of the participation-oriented project, the year, the location and area of the project, the actors, the method of participation, the classification according to the participation step, and the legal regulations to which it is related. This table offers a clear comparison between Türkiye and France's approach to participatory housing and the findings are addressed after this graphical representation.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

Different limitations are defined for this study to present an organized and logical narrative. The first limitation is "housing" and the choice is not a coincidence. With the industrialization and growth of the urban population throughout the world, it is well known that the housing issue has begun to get prominence. Housing policies are genuinely determined by economic and demographic trends all over the world (Keleş, 1966). As a result, in nations that have an edge in this regard, participatory housing policies evolve quickly, and the community-architecture dialogue sees success. Recent research, in particular, demonstrates the critical role housing projects play in ensuring that residents of a community are part of the overall political process and have a say in the decisions that shape the community (Davidson, Johnson, Lizarralde, Dikmen & Sliwinski, 2007).

Today, when we look at the developed world countries, it is seen that the dialogue between society and architecture has an important place in almost all of them. However, although it is crucial to comprehend and enhance interactions between citizens and their living environments in developing nations, this relationship is still not taken into consideration. To be able to compare developed nations with the ones that are still developing, one of each category should be selected as representative. Consequently, the study additionally has a geographical limitation, which is why it concentrates on looking at two particular countries selected regarding one of the

criteria defined: one developed nation and one developing nation. Türkiye and France (Figure 1.1) have been selected as the developed and developing countries' respective representative cases.



Figure 1. 1 Geographical locations of the selected cases: France and Türkiye

To recapitulate, the second part of the thesis consists of the study's case study by comparing the geographies selected with an emphasis on participatory architecture in housing after completing the previous chapter with a global overview of participation in planning and design processes. To provide an understanding of the selection of these two geographies several reasons are clarified and explained. These explanations relate not just to the instances' current circumstances but also to the relationship between citizens and their living spaces throughout history.

1.5 Assessment Criteria

The case study of the thesis is the comparison between participative housing examples in France and Türkiye. This comparison is illustrated in a table that shows several housing projects considering many aspects as a general overview of the

project, sociopolitical and juridical aspects, users' profiles, and roles throughout the participative process to be able to answer the questions listed below:

- When was the project realized?
- Where is located the project?
- What is the capacity of the project?
- Who are the actors involved in the process?
- How were those actors involved in the process? What were the methods and techniques?
- When/In which stage the user was involved in the participatory process of the project?
- What is the legal process, the legal status, or which laws are considered for the project?
- What is the level or the type of participation according to different classifications of participation?

For the level of participation, Arnstein's (1969) and White's (1996) categorizations were utilized to categorize participation theory (Figure 4.2). The theoretical framework was purposefully drawn over these names, with White's model being used for developing countries and Arnstein's model being used for developed countries (Oskay & Barkul, 2022). For this selection, participation in developed and developing countries was considered respectively for France and Türkiye.

Participation, according to Arnstein (1969), is the right of individuals to contribute to their well-being. The eight-level typology of Arnstein's categorization divides the participation process into stages, each of which employs a distinct level of power of participation. These eight degrees of participation are mainly defined for developed nations. Those are;

1. Citizen Control
2. Delegated
3. Partnership
4. Placation
5. Consultation
6. Informing
7. Therapy
8. Manipulation

These degrees are grouped into the three main categories of degrees listed below that will be the classification used for the study:

1. Degrees of citizen power
2. Degrees of tokenism
3. Degrees of manipulation

On the other hand, according to White (1996), there are 4 types of participation defined mainly for developing nations. Those are;

1. Nominal
2. Instrumental
3. Representative
4. Transformative

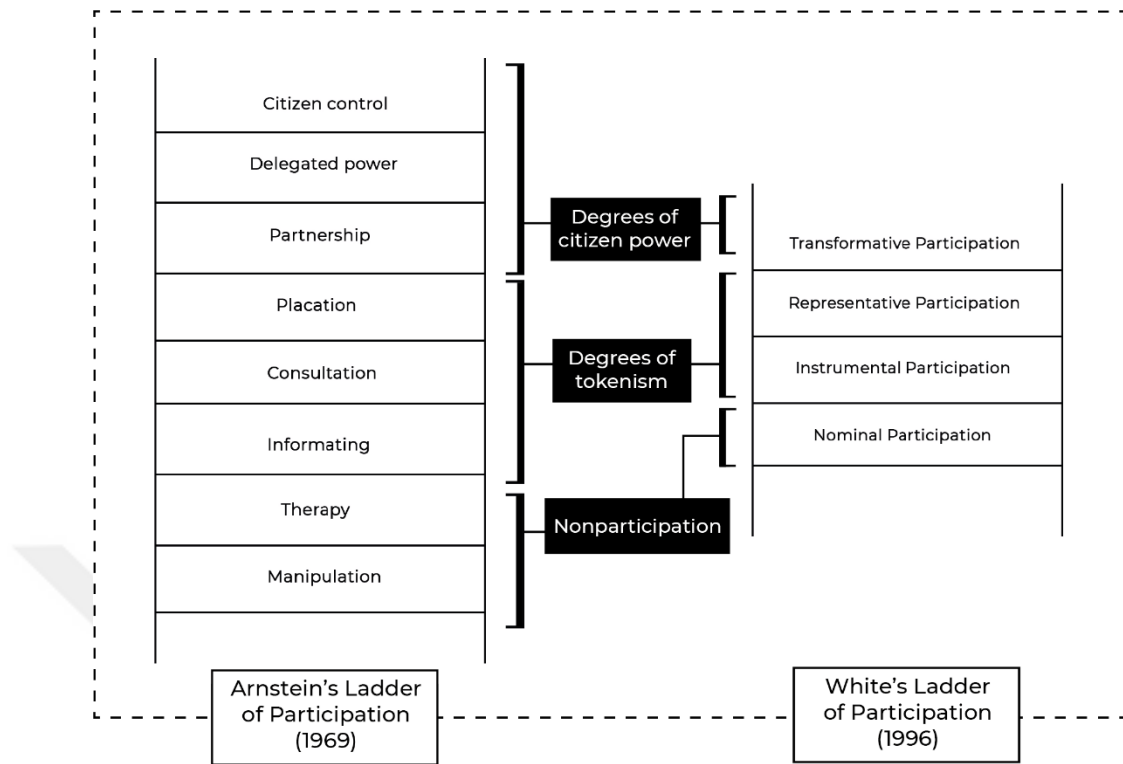


Figure 1. 2 Presentation of the two ladders of participation used for the table.

These inquiries enable the presentation of a basic overview of the selected projects, and the results of the participatory housing projects in France and Türkiye offer quantitative guidance to carry out this study further. A few inferences are drawn based on the data provided in this table, and these are assessed along with Türkiye's and France's respective backgrounds and participatory process approaches.

CHAPTER TWO

PARTICIPATION

2.1 Overview of the Notion of Participation

The word “participation” is defined in the Great Larousse Encyclopedia (1986) as “an act, a job, an activity, etc. to participate, to take part in it; referred to as “participation”. In the Dictionary of the Turkish Language Association (Türk Dil Kurumu Sözlük, n.d.), the word participation is specified with the meanings of being a partner, partnership, jointly and taking part in a business. In the Merriam-Webster dictionary (2022), the definition of “to participate” is to possess some of the attributes of a person, thing, or quality, to take part, and to have a part or share in something.

The definition from the social sciences dictionary might be included to continue with various dictionary meanings where it is defined as “contributing to one, some, or all of the stages of a choice's preparation, maturity, taking, and failure to be executed, in proportion to the power of people who will be directly or indirectly impacted by that decision” (Demir & Acar, 1992). Looking at more informal definitions; participation can be defined as the everyday activity of individuals and groups, ranging from solitary behaviors like seeing an event and looking at something to social institutions and non- governmental organizations (Bilgin & Göregenli, 1996). Moreover, the American writer Ann Richardson (1999) defines participation as "an activity" that brings together people who have never participated in a decision-making process before as well as those who are currently active regularly.

Participation, according to the architect Sanoff (2000), is an in-person exchange between people who have similar ideals. He contends that although just a few people are responsible for creating the environment, the general public is greatly affected by it. Participation also presents the community with a chance to form and affect the constructed environment in which it lives.

The American sociologist Arnstein discusses the voluntary and willing redistribution of power by administrators to powerless and excluded persons in the process of economic and political planning in her paper "A Ladder of Citizen Participation" from 1969. She defined participation as giving citizens the right to take part (Arnstein, 1969). Moreover, participation is defined as giving the administrator the chance to influence their own recommended choices and be involved in their decision-making processes (Maier, 2001).

Depending on the context in which it is employed, the notion of participation has several facets and might change its connotations. In general, the term "participation" refers to people actively taking part in various processes, activities, or decision-making. Consequently, the definition, discourse, and instrumentalization of participation differ depending on how it is understood, how it is perceived, and who the participants are.

Participation, with its method that subjectivizes the individual, has been stressed in individual-centered disciplines such as management, sociology, architecture, planning, and visual arts, especially in political science and politics, in the axis of the societal transformations seen in the 1960s. The multidimensionality of the notion leads us to go deeper by focusing on the different layers of the notion because the term itself has recently gained popularity and today it is a common usage area. Consequently, to be able to understand the notion of participation from different perspectives and disciplines it is necessary to examine it through different definitions from different sources in the literature. The following part includes a series of various aspects of participation to allow an overall look at the term.

2.2 Participation throughout Different Disciplines

Participation has been explored in the literature using numerous definitions, by various theorists, such as democratic participation, community engagement, citizen involvement, and public participation (Habraken, 1985). To examine the multidimensionality of the notion different perspectives in which participation is

used in social, literature, education, economic, political, and art fields had to be understood. Such as the Dutch architect Habraken, Sanoff (2000) also note that the idea of participation has been defined in a variety of ways across the literature. Participation comes in a variety of sorts, impacts, breadth, and frequency depending on the situation. The features of the parties, the characteristics of the situation necessitating involvement, and the diversity of the participants are the primary causes of this variety.

Primarily, the world of literature is a significant arena in which the notion of participation is crucial. There, the reader-response theory gained popularity in the late 1960s. The common tenet is that the reader's role as an interpreter is crucial and that the reader's position as an interpreter is given priority in the face of the author's prevailing meaning in the text (Hirvela, 1996). This theory asserts that while the text is generated by the author, it is the reader who gives it meaning and produces it, in contrast to the conventional notion of the reader as a passive observer (Siu, 2003).

As well as in the literature, participation in the field of environmental behavioral sciences remains as significant. According to the German psychologist Wandersman (1984), the definition of participation in this field is the involvement of people in decisions made at the level of their physical environments, programs, and institutions that affect them, or collaborating with them to design and plan a specific environment. Churchman (1987) emphasizes that by using the term "person" in terms of Wandersman's definition, it should apply to individuals who are not technically participating in the decision-making processes since they are neither elected nor appointed.

On the other hand, according to the political scientist Pateman (1970), the concept of participation in political science became a prominent term in the policy lexicon in the late 1960s. This idea has been interpreted as an investigation into fundamental freedoms and rights, the demand for some rights that already exist in theory and the applicability of some rights in practice, as well as the growing power and demand regarding the role of participation in modern and current democratic theory. In terms

of social sciences, participation is the ability of society to have a say in political, economic, and administrative decision-making processes through various mechanisms. Additionally, the American social theorist and political philosopher Bookchin (1980) defines participation as "the social analog of biological symbiosis" based on social ecology theory. While discussing the two evolutionary processes that interact with one another—biological evolution and social evolution—the concept of social ecology, which first gained recognition as an alternative theory in the field of sociology, falls short of an approach that does not separate or impede one from the other. Participation is the act of contributing to one, many, or all phases of a decision's preparation, maturity, and implementation in proportion to the performance of those who will be directly or indirectly affected by that choice (Demir & Acar, 1992).

Essentially, one of the most important outlooks in the social field is the one of the American sociologist Arnstein (1969) whose contribution to the theory of participation is undeniable. She emphasizes the distribution and decentralization of power while defining participation and interprets participation as the distribution of power in such a way that deprived citizens who are currently excluded from political and economic processes will be able to participate deliberately in the future.

The terms "influence" and "power" are linked with the notion of participation in a definition taken from the domains of political science and sociology, as it is observed in many definitions by many theorists. According to the relationship and intimacy that they establish with participation, it is believed that these two notions affect the quality of participation. There, the "power-participation" connection is utilized for taking the initiative and being decisive, but the "influence-participation" relationship is employed when the outcome or decision is not directly determined. Partial involvement is defined in this context as taking part in the process and making decisions without influencing the outcome and full participation is defined as taking part in activities where participants influence the outcome (Açıkgöz, 1987). People's participation is defined as having roles in politics and administration that include balancing the power of central and local governments, socializing the power, and

redistributing power and power resources by releasing the government from centralized control (Esengil, 2009).

Within the realm of political science, particularly at the local government level, the concept of governance as “management in interaction and cooperation” holds significant weight when discussing citizen participation. This framing transcends the traditional top-down approach to governance, emphasizing instead a dynamic interplay between public authorities and diverse stakeholders, fostering collaboration and shared responsibility. By eliminating the division that exists between the governor and the governed -a division that is fundamental to the idea of management- it is feasible to argue that the boundaries are being stretched in this instance (Aydınlı & Memiş, 2015). In this sense, participation can take the form of citizens being informed during policy implementation or providing input afterward, or it can take the form of management’s decision-making being affected by the proposal of a non-governmental organization. In any case, participation is a fundamental instrument for enhancing and expanding managerial capability no matter how it is applied (Arıbaş, 2015). To put in other words, by placing a high priority on good governance, an atmosphere that encourages participation can be fostered and a more resilient and democratic communities can be built.

In the sphere of visual arts, participation is also evident in disciplines like sculpture, painting, and drawing that produce primarily visual works. Looking deeply into it, the field of visual arts is focusing on the subject-object relationship. In contrast to the traditional approach's result-product-oriented passive and static object perception, the object displayed in current ways has evolved into a position that communicates with the audience. Consequently, the subject-object relationship has gained as much attention as the completed product since this interaction changed how the public and art interact. The subject is said to participate in the process of evaluating and interrogating the object in such approaches (Yavaşoğlu, 2007). It is also feasible to discuss types of participation in which the audience is physically and actively involved in artistic activity, in addition to mental engagement through interpretation. The transition of the spectator into a participant referred to as an

“event” or a “happening” is considered a series of experiences in which art is integrated into everyday life through the concept of participation.

When it comes to the existence of participatory approaches in the field of education, the concept of participation has been noted in recent years in the search for new educational models as a more active education system in which the student participates in the learning process. Citizen participation is of great importance in terms of education policies. Accordingly, students are seen as active participants in the educational process while using this participatory technique, which considers individual differences and convergence. The concept of participation has established this communication-based relationship between the student and the teacher. Moreover, the right of children to participate is crucial so that they can develop into active citizens, find their place in society, become informed, and democratically express themselves. The right to participate is the ability to partake in the making of decisions that have an impact on one’s life and the community in which they are produced. Children have the right to participate in decisions that affect them, and this is known as their right to participate (Alderson, 2000; Marchant & Kirby, 2004, Sinclair, 2004). For this project- based learning was proposed. While participatory education is a wider educational concept that incorporates a variety of techniques meant to increase student participation, voice, and agency in their education, project-based learning is a specific instructional strategy. It also aids in developing and enhancing students’ critical thinking abilities and students can create their ideas and show their viewpoints by actively participating in the process of the project (Saracaloğlu, Akamca & Yeşildere, 2006). This strategy is a useful technique for fostering a more collaborative and student-centered learning environment.

On the other hand, a cooperative method known as “citizen science” involves the public actively participating in scientific studies alongside trained researchers. Active participation in the research process is equally as important as observation and data collection; this includes developing research questions, processing data, and disseminating findings. This field has a lengthy history spanning numerous fields, such as public health, astronomy, biology, geology, archeology, biodiversity,

monitoring, and architecture. These efforts lead to collaboration between different scientific, medical, technical, and social science sectors (Hecker et al, 2018). A better informed and involved society results from citizen science, which cultivates a sense of ownership and responsibility for scientific advancement. By bridging various societal divides, citizen science generates important scientific discoveries. This relatively new approach is seen as the potential next phase of the participatory shift, bringing the public into the scientific method itself and potentially addressing the shortcomings of the democratic system (Özden & Velibeyoğlu, 2023).

Participation is essential for encouraging a sense of empowerment and agency among individuals in all these disciplines. It helps individuals to advocate for their rights and interests, have a say in how societies can evolve, and make a constructive difference in their future. By fostering social and political responsibility and providing a voice to other points of view, participation frequently results in a more inclusive and egalitarian society. Even though many evaluation areas and definitions of the idea of participation exist, all of them may be summed using common concepts when viewed from a holistic perspective and using a generalizing method and its importance in the design and planning process should not be overlooked. “Reaction”, “interaction”, “communication”, “community”, “individuality”, and “individual-environmental relations” can all be represented as common facts and values of all disciplines when explaining the nature of the idea of participation (Macaire, 2012). In broad terms, participation in the literary, social, educative, art, and political spheres is crucial for influencing a society's environment and enabling people to take an active role in their communities.

2.3 Participation in Planning and Design Processes

As for various fields, planning, and design is also relevant field in which the notion of participation was quite used throughout history. The term “participation in planning and design processes” refers to involving stakeholders, such as community members, residents, experts, and pertinent organizations, in the decision-making and creation of different projects, policies, or urban designs. It is an effective approach to

develop projects, policies, and surroundings that are more responsive, sustainable, and socially equitable. It strengthens decision-making, gives communities more power, and ensures that development meets the needs and ambitions of those it interacts with. Participative initiatives in this field can be encouraged by different techniques and approaches. In addition, it involves numerous variations and levels of participation that must be investigated. Consequently, this chapter is devoted to the notion of participation especially focusing on the design and planning processes.

2.3.1 History of Participation in Planning and Design Processes

The history of the concept of participation has been theoretically examined by many politicians, writers, and designers. Regarding these researches, it is thought that the intellectual starting point of the concept extends to the public forums in Ancient Greek Civilization in 1050-330 BCE (Baheshti, 1985). Participation was seen as part of the dream of an ideal state where equality prevails. Although participation took place in the life of humanity as a dream at that time, various ideas were formed on it, but they could not be implemented. However, it is proved that the participation of individuals in society goes back to the ancient Greek philosopher Plato (427-347 BCE). Plato's statements about freedoms of speech, assembly, voting, and equal rights have been debated over the years in many different countries (Grube, 1992) such as the foundation of the United States in 1776 where in this period participation came to the fore particularly at the municipal level, to give citizen contribution to local concerns (Hansen and Prosperi, 2005). There, Plato's statements were discussed since historians believe that Americans have always desired to be involved in decisions that influence their lives.

According to the American historian Billington (1974), the formative factor in people's right to participate was freedom and the right to make decisions on the early American frontier. As the population of many frontier communities rose in the 1700s, it became increasingly impossible for every person to actively participate in all communal decisions. To fill the hole in decision-making, individuals began to delegate their engagement to a representative, which evolved into the system of

selecting officials through public elections and the growth of volunteer associations and organizations (de Tocqueville & Mayer, 1959). Although public involvement may be addressed and characterized in a variety of ways, this discussion focuses on participation directed at issues requiring communal decision-making (Sanoff, 2011).

Conceptually, participation is the act of taking part in decisions made at the level of programs and institutions in the environment in which individuals interact or cooperate with them in the design or development of any setting (Yalçındağ, 1996). In terms of an environmental design approach, the Austrian architect Fredrik Wulz (1986) defines participation as allowing residents to influence their surroundings and developing an alternative procedure that avoids "alienation between planners and users", in other words, to familiarize the users with their living environment. To give an illustration, established in 1909, the London Town Planning Act was therefore a way of improving inhabitants' housing and quality life by enhancing the dialogue between users and their living environment. There, decisions such as re-evaluating the historical region, and rectifying incorrect urban decisions in tandem with rapid development was made. While the legislation did not officially compel citizen participation in town planning, it did have numerous implications for public participation in the planning process. For instance, the Act gave the Local Government Board the authority to hold open discussions to evaluate proposed town planning projects. This meant that during these inquiries, residents and interested parties may express their ideas and concerns about planned proposals. This initiative was the first in Europe to use this planning approach (Baba, 2009).

After decades of being used with diverse techniques, the notion of participation first entered the international literature in 1912, when the urban planner and sociologist Patrick Geddes raised the topic of where the public takes place in urban scale projects. Some other authors also expound on participation by underscoring democratic institutions and decision-making methodologies, while other elucidate it as involvement in design or environmental contexts. However, in his study "Survey of Edinburgh" Geddes started the debate about where people should be in urban layouts with the help of the local government and designers (Turner, 1978). Geddes

used his holistic and multidisciplinary approach to urban planning in this project, which he dubbed “civic sociology”. He proposed that local governments hold public forums to solicit public input, and this suggestion was brought up for consideration on the agendas of local governments. To properly plan and create cities, he felt that planners needed to comprehend not just the physical features of a place, but also its social, cultural, and historical components. Geddes’ planning approach, which prioritized community input and participation, was revolutionary for its time and paved the way for later advancements in community-based planning and participatory urban planning. In the decades that followed, planners and academics were influenced by his work in Edinburgh and his more general views on civic participation, leaving a lasting impression about urban planning.

Scientific-based theoretical research and participatory approach were also discussed in the early 1950s because of the work of a group of Dutch scientists (Habraken, 1985). The term derived from the Dutch words “inspraak,” which means “to have a voice,” and “zeggenschap,” which means “the right to elect and participate in governance” are potent reminders that architecture is about more than just building structures; it is also about designing areas that enable people to take control of their surroundings. They are important instruments in the toolkit of participatory architecture, opening doors to more sustainable, democratic, and meaningful built environments. The Dutch architect Habraken described user participation at the time as “the link between the professional platform users in daily life” (Habraken, 1985). This participation approach highly related to the concept of democracy is a starting point for the society to be involved in public decisions. There some writers describe participation by stressing democratic institutions and decision-making methods, whilst others define it as engagement in design or environment. Given that it upholds democratic ideals and ideas in the fields of design and decision- making, participatory design is strongly associated with democratic efforts and movements. Those initiatives aim for societal change, as participatory design that is used to change the status quo in terms of who makes design decisions and how they are applied.

At the same period, emerging in Europe at the beginning of the 1950s a new way of practicing architecture was implemented called “participatory architecture” with the CIAM IX (9th International Congresses of Modern Architecture). Instead of forcing the occupants to accept their living conditions in the architecture of standardized buildings, it was possible to have a discussion with them and let them be involved in the design of their living space. During this time, the architect was viewed differently and developed into a person who could support social causes alongside the community.

Essentially, participation in planning and design processes became popular in the 1960s and 1970s due to an increase in social responsibility and consciousness in societies (Driskell, 2002). Questions like "What is the role of the user?" "Where is the user located?" and "What is his duty?" were posed throughout the 1960s, a time when socially relevant queries were prevalent. Several decisions regarding the user, such as the location of the user, have begun to be considered in several initiatives, and it has been widely acknowledged that the development of space is continuous and not static, accessible to all data originating from its surroundings. (Mutman, 1994). Participation was associated with the creation of an extroverted debate ground in which the individual expresses his inner criticisms, and it is also the primary means by which the individual expresses his inner criticisms. The individual characterized as “Flaneur” by Baudelaire (1964), is defined as the participant of the city. The observation made integrated with emotions, ideas, and thoughts is the most natural reaction toward the city. This reaction is the most basic tool for communication between individuals.

However, in the second half of the 1960s, the term "participation" began to be employed because of a heated and more politicized argument (Habraken, 1985). A new, open, utopian, and optimistic approach to architecture sprang from suspicion of control and functionalism. The phenomenon of user engagement emerged throughout historical eras of centralized authority shift or even collapse since participation implies democratic principles. For instance, at this time, the idea of civic initiative

and engagement in America was built on political fights for social equality and civil rights.

Another historical milestone contributing to the development of user participation in the design process is that it may be linked to a series of philosophical shifts that affected architecture in the 1960s and 1970s, with the international student protests of 1968 acting as a social and political turning point. There, several social and political groups, mainly in Europe and the United States, were sparked by the 1968 uprisings and spread throughout different nations. The emphasis on causes like civil rights, anti-war activity, student movements, and calls for more social and political participation characterized these protests. Despite not being primarily about architecture or urban planning, the protests had a significant impact on participatory architecture and urban design processes. Particularly the worldwide student demonstrations that began in Paris in May 1968 (Figure 2.1) marked a social and political turning point in architecture, advocating for a greater emphasis on free thought and the individual, as well as allowing the political and ideological concept of participation to be addressed (Jones, Petrescu & Till, 2005).



Figure 2. 1 Student uprisings in Paris, 1968 (May, 1968: Workers and Students Together | International Socialist Review, n.d.)

These protests were among the biggest and most turbulent social movements in French history, with repercussions that felt widely in the fields of politics, culture, and society and are today remembered as the fight for human rights, social justice, and democratic principles. Moreover, these protests made contributions to the broader discourse on community involvement in neighborhood planning and development through architecture and urban design, which sparked ongoing initiatives in this area. The necessity of hearing the voices and integrating the people who live in and use spaces being planned has been highlighted by the increasing integration of participatory concepts into the practice of architecture and urban planning over time.

Following this, with the Scandinavian labor movements (Figure 2.2) in the early 1970s, in Norway, computer specialists and union officials campaigned to empower people to have more say over computer systems in the workplace, and the notion of participation began to move from a business to a design approach (Winograd, 1996). The participatory design was recognizing that places are social and cultural institutions in addition to being physical objects; nonetheless, this multidimensionality of the space sparked several discussions concerning the concepts of "power," "freedom," and "control." Complex system theories, planning, and architecture are all expressions of debates concerning freedom and control concerning space. In this regard, in modern urban and architectural theories, control concerning spatial boundaries is frequently discussed.

In this period, the perception of space and the creation of space were both altered. The idea of space began to be described as a social phenomenon rather than just a physical thing (Lefebvre, 1991). Regarding the literature, in the 1970s, Lefebvre developed the terms "concrete space" and "abstract space", referring to the contrast between the "space" of everyday life takes place, where the user lives and experiences, and the "space" where the designer produces his work (Lefebvre, 2003) (Figure 2.2).

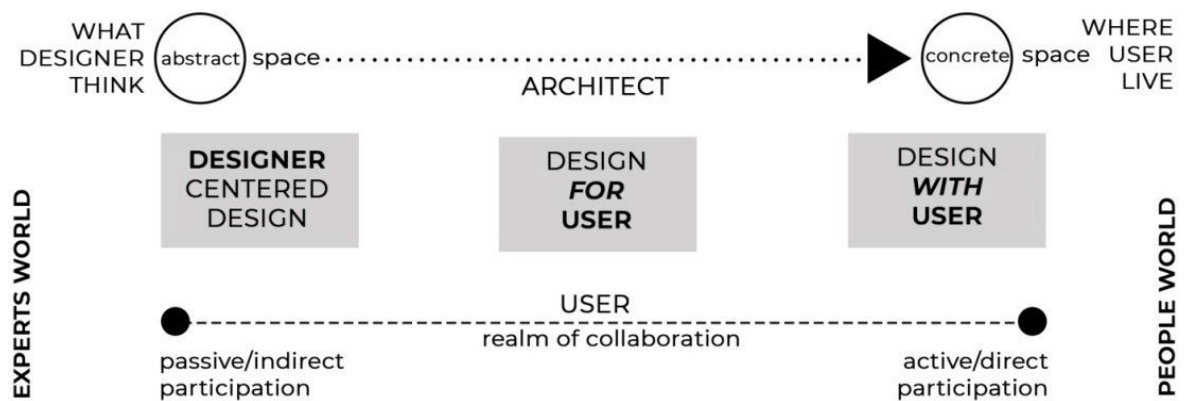


Figure 2. 2 The evolution of user engagement approaches in the architectural design process (Lefebvre, 1970)

The participatory design acknowledges that a lot of built environments are influenced by abstract space, where decisions are taken by institutions, planners, and architects. Lefebvre's criticism of abstract space is based on this insight. Moreover, Lefebvre highlights that individuals fill areas with their own cultural, social, and personal meanings, adding to the diversity of concrete space. This emphasis on the user's perspective corresponds with Lefebvre's concept of concrete space. Consequently, it provides a framework for comprehending the social-political aspects of space and emphasizes the significance of considering how various social actors make, experience, and modify space. Moreover, the dialectical relationship between the design of spaces (abstract space) and the experiences of people who use and inhabit those spaces (concrete space) provide a theoretical basis for understanding the dynamics of power in the creation of places and the significance of people's lived experiences inside such spaces.

The basic purpose of 'design for the user' is to understand the user's wants and create a product that meets them. The researcher learns the user's requirements and then interprets those using sketches and scenarios to create designs. The designer and the researcher collaborate on a design for the user; the user is not a member of the team, but the researcher communicates with the user. The topic was previously known as "design for the user," but it was later renamed "participatory design" so to put in other words it became "design with the user" (Sanders, 2002). The concept of

“design for the user” was directed under the essence of the design, with the thought of providing the most benefit to the person who will use the design, and “design with the user” went one step beyond the design for the user, and brought the designer, the researcher, and the user together. It is seen as a method that allows them to collaborate on designs by bringing them together as a group.

Related with the concrete space idea of Lefebvre, the issue of "Participation in Design" was explored at the Manchester Conference in England in 1971; it was first published as a theoretical book on this subject and then conveyed to the world (Baba, 2009). Following that, researchers discussed "Participation in Design" for the first time on a wide scale at the Manchester Conference in 1971 and designers also attempted to express their ideas on user engagement in the design process at this conference (Baheshti, 1985).

At this meeting, the first methodologies and proposals on the issue were developed, and participatory approaches were then scientifically conveyed to the rest of the globe through Open House and SAR publications (Baba, 2009). Following these discussions, it was claimed that participatory architecture arose because of the occupant's commitment to conserving what he had created and to taking responsibility for his surroundings. Participation might be interpreted in this sense as an ally of environmentally friendly, sustainable construction and this way of conceiving and occupying a place encourages collectivity, and the community to communicate and makes urban life more convivial (Lemaire, 2013). According to that, participation is not only a way to involve users more effectively in the production of space, but also a way to reorient architectural culture (Jones, Petrescu & Till, 2005).

Considering the planning processes, user-oriented design was introduced in the 1980s (Sanders, 2002) where it is defined as a process that determines how users can better participate in the design process while also gathering inputs from fields of expertise that research sociology and cultural models of anthropological origin (Abban, Ayata, Gurel & Ozen, 1982). Urban research is recognized as a multi-actor

decision-making process in which residents participate in planning and design and individuals share social decisions that form their lives with their surroundings (Sanoff, 2000). Individuals began to respond to new difficulties as society grew and to resolve these concerns. Besides, architects have attempted to predict the changes that follow societal transitions and to offer better environments for people. Considering the multidimensional manifestation of community participation, its definitions cannot be assessed by quantitative means as the urban scale participation can be seen on many different scales as an entire city, a neighborhood, or even on a smaller scale by only involving a dwelling (Sameh, 2011).

Individual participation in decisions made at the level of physical environments, programs, and institutions about and affecting them, or collaborating with them in the design and planning of a particular environment, according to the definition given by Wandersman (1984) from the field of environmental behavioral sciences. By stating that the term "individual" in Wandersman's definition should mean "persons who are not elected or appointed and thus are not formal parts of said decision-making processes," Churchman (1987) emphasizes that it should mean "persons who are not elected or appointed and thus are not formal parts of said decision-making processes". There, with the desire to express himself and his active direct participation in the processes, the participant is no longer defined as a customer, consumer, and user where hierarchies prevail, but as an individual who acts collectively to create an impact on issues such as products and interfaces. Moreover participation in an urban level is defined as a form of social control by the French planner Coit (1984) and alternatively, Papila (1992) defined it as removing doubts caused by encounters with the unknown, creating a physical design based on a creative action and wishes, creating a new environment, obtaining information about the design process, clarifying one's thoughts, and providing a logical framework in which people respect each other.

Consequently, professionals have conducted many types of research to develop regulations on how participation will be implemented in the cities such as Afrassiabi (1985) who provided an approach as a potential system for participation and has been

proposed in two phases. The first phase includes the relationships between the three groups, defined as users, designers, and local administrators, who are involved in the decision-making process and their roles in this system; in the second one, the relationships between the three groups, which are defined as users, designers, and local administrators, who are involved in the participation system process and their roles in this system. This strategy, which attempts to guarantee healthy communication between parties involved in decision-making, has been implemented in several cities (Figure 2.3).

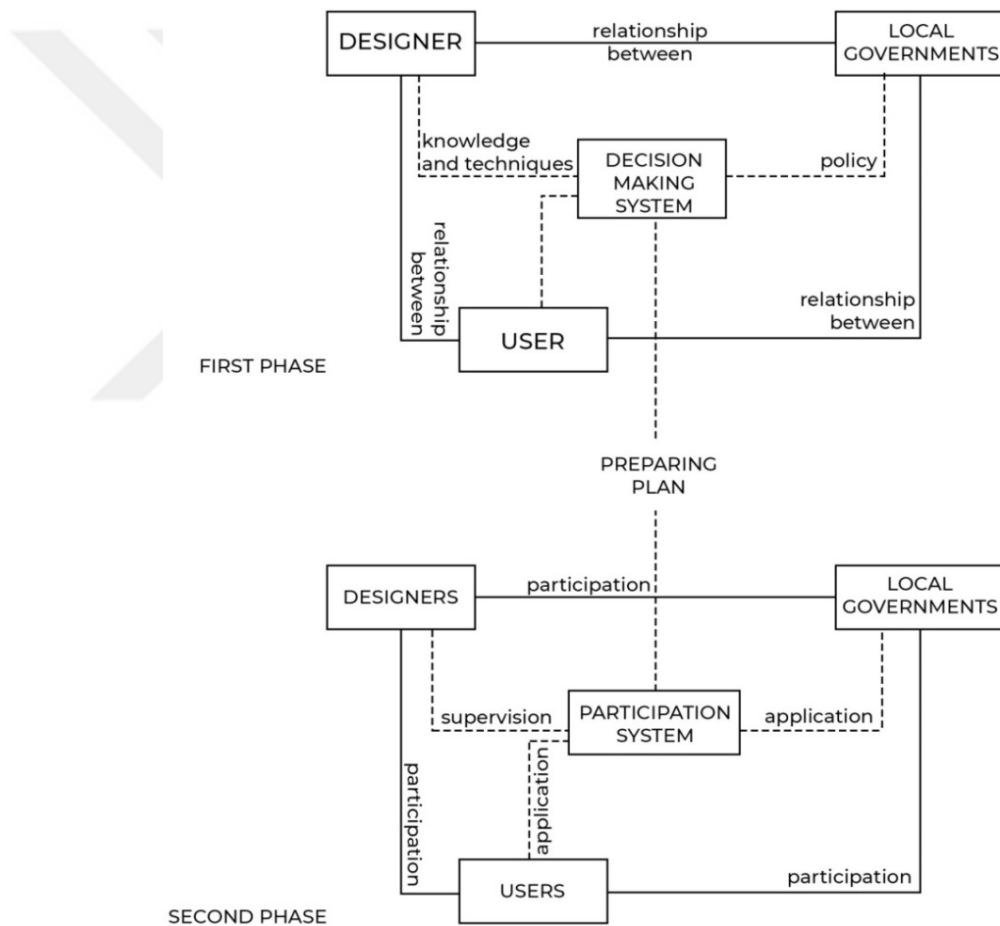


Figure 2. 3 Participation System Model (Afrassiabi, 1985)

Accordingly, since 1985, regarding diverse fields, user participation has been on the agenda in many cities with a democratic mindset, and it has begun to emerge into city statutes through various application techniques. At the United Nations Habitat

conferences in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 and Istanbul in 1996, it was agreed upon that local governments and citizens' involvement in raising public awareness is key (Malbert, 1998). For instance, at the United Nations Conferences in 1992, it was concluded that a sustainable society could be accomplished through the notion of locality and local governments, resulting in the world-famous "Agenda 21" proclamation. With this proclamation, particularly in Scandinavian nations where democratic principles are swiftly accepted, localization, user engagement, and the relevance of local governments have begun to permeate the local governments of many countries throughout the world through legislation (Mazé, 2007).

On the other hand, since the end of the 1990s, new municipal governments, particularly in England and other European countries, have made user participation mandatory. Today, national, and international regulations are progressively supporting the notion of participation as an essential component of contemporary urban plans. Following this decision, the cities of the member states adopted community-based participatory methods and incorporated them into local government statutes. Scandinavian nations where democratic movements have strong reflections, have adopted user participation, and encouraged their citizens to participate as it is claimed at United Nations Conferences in 1992. In this regard, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, and Denmark are legal pioneers in the field of participatory methods.

Participatory design has changed how architecture is practiced, moving it away from a top-down, expert-driven method and toward a process that is more collaborative and community-focused. Architectural design, which had previously been an authoritarian act, was turned into a more user-oriented act. Rather than prioritizing those in power, it prioritized empowering regular citizens/users. In another words, this critical shift in history made participatory architecture a highly popular notion up until the 1970s, but with a drastic change, there were almost none until the 2000s since many modern municipal governments in Europe legislated and made mandatory the subject of user participation in the late 1990s and early 2000s (Day & Parnell, 2003). It is for approximately 15 years today that the participative

project has come back and become a trend now for the architectural world. This trend relies on the idea that in times of crisis, people want to become the main actors in their lives; the basis for this is to reappropriate homes. It is a way of being a master of himself and a way to find again meaning (Lang, Carriou & Czischke, 2020). Today in terms of participation in planning and design processes, the word “participation” has recently been used as excessively as the other slogan of contemporary politics is “sustainability.”

2.3.2 Different Outlooks and Degrees of Participation

Participation is a broad notion that encompasses many sorts of decision-making by a variety of concerned parties (Wulz, 1986). When there is an accepted need to include community members, participation may be addressed successfully if the work of participation is conceived of in terms of what is to be done. The process of conceptualizing an issue entail asking simple questions such as who, what, where, how, and when.

- Who will be involved in the participation?
- What should the participation program accomplish?
- Where should the participation path take you?
- People should be involved in what ways?
- When is participation required in the planning process?

To be able to answer these questions the process of participation has been addressed at numerous levels and has been attempted to be described with many aspects by classifying it in the context of these discussions. This condition, in which the level and quality of participation are highlighted, is crucial for a correct understanding of user participation as well as for displaying the diversity of participation. At this point, it would be beneficial to refer to the approaches that analyze and interpret the concept of participation at various levels and dimensions.

Firstly, Saleh (2006) states that the idea of participation can be explained by the concept of democracy, where customers, as service recipients and payers, should participate in everything that affects them, as they are the first to be affected by designer decisions about their environment. However, Saleh (2006) argues that the cultural level of the community is also important so that the user can participate in the design process. It states that the dissemination of high social, cultural, and political awareness among individuals, or at least among leaders who will influence decision-making within the community, is an influential factor for community engagement. It is therefore essential to raise cultural awareness of the importance of architecture, maximizing communities' interest in working with architects. Referring to the views of Reeves (2005) the true specialists are the people who will live in and manage the housing, not the architects. In true participation, the architect should no longer see himself as the project's master, but rather as one of the participants (Petrescu, 2005).

As stated, according to Saleh (2006), the community's cultural level is also significant in allowing the user to engage in the design process. As a result, raising cultural understanding of the relevance of architecture is critical, as is enhancing communities' desire to collaborate with architects; but the uniqueness of the product is important. Habraken (1985) argues that standard mass housing products limit users' freedom and uniformity has negative consequences for individuals and recommends a new alternative that involves the user in the design process of his living environment as a solution to the housing problem and standardization. Habraken advocates including the user in the design of his own living space. The living environment is created by the combination of the support and filling systems and the homes. Supports and infills are used by Habraken to create the dwelling unit. Expertly designed carrier systems make up support systems. Fillers, on the other hand, are defined as dividing components that the user may easily alter and update. User choices over the dwelling units whose carrier system is determined are used to generate alternatives because users are characterized as a power that participates in the process of producing the built environment (Habraken, 1972).

Similarly, the Self-help approach by John Turner (1978) is a method proposed as a solution to the housing crisis. Turner saw the enormous potential of self-help' in people's spontaneous actions of creation in their own houses. He stated that “when dwellers control the major decisions and are free to make their contribution to the design, construction or management of their housing, both the process and the environment produced stimulate individual and social well-being.” People and local governments can be involved in the design or the administration of housing by giving individuals the opportunity to make decisions about their own living spaces. The most crucial help, according to Turner, is to equip them with the materials they need to create their own home. Turner (1978) considers people's desire to create their own homes as a form of liberation more than a financial need. In terms of involvement in housing creation, it is believed that regional self-government is more suitable than central government and that participants should be allowed to acquire the required resources in the process. These resources are described as providing the user with land and credit, delivering construction equipment and supplies, and bringing together specialists for project management and builders in the construction of the house with the user (Turner, 1978).

Building more inclusive, user-centered, and socially responsible environments is the main goal of participative initiatives. The needs and objectives of participatory processes can change according to the desired outcome. For example, for Bjorn-Andersen and Hedberg (1977) there are three categories under which user participation needs should be listed;

- Increasing people's understanding of the system's design,
- Lowering the rise in reasonable expectations and the unwillingness of individuals to change
- Giving employees the ability to engage will increase democracy where they live or work.

In contrast to Bjorn-Andersen and Hedberg, Sanoff (2000) the main objectives of participative architecture are listed as;

- Integrating society in the process and fostering appropriate organizational trust
- To enhance planning, choices, and service delivery, encourage individuals to participate in the design and decision-making processes.
- Bringing together individuals with similar interests to develop a feeling of community and belonging.

As Sanoff (2000), Wates (2008) came up with a similar idea that the following objectives may be achieved in large part by community planning activities:

- To create a shared vision and plans for the short and long-term
- To promote community movement by reducing socio-cultural impediments to growth
- Organize a meeting to address complicated issues and foster consensus among the attendees.
- To assist these local agencies in strengthening their local networks and improving their urban design abilities
- Increasing community knowledge and cooperating results in beneficial psychological consequences

Various strategies are used to guarantee that the participation approaches used in the design process are successful. These approaches are established precisely by the conditions of the process in question and are designed following the demands and resources of the built environment. Those include users in the process at various levels of participation.

According to Burns (1979), the efficacy of participation techniques should be judged by the amount of involvement they give, and the level of participation should

be evaluated based on the experiences of the users in the process. These experiences were studied in four separate categories:

- Awareness: An experience achieved through studying or re-examining the reality of a certain area is referred to as awareness. Individuals participating in the participation process begin to speak the same language as a result of their "awareness experience" in the intended study region.
- Perception: After being aware of a situation or environment, perception necessitates comprehending its social, cultural, and economic components. "Perception experience" enhances participant sharing. Thus, the participants' understandings, goals, and expectations serve as a resource for the design, and hidden difficulties are kept from causing misunderstanding in the project's later phases.
- Decision-making: Working on the suggested environment or circumstance for change is part of decision-making. Participants create tangible designs based on their priorities. These designs serve as a reference for experts in developing alternate layouts as well as the final plan.
- Application: Burns identifies this phase as a necessary phase in the success of a participative approach. Many of the initiatives that take part fail after the first three encounters. This is because, in many procedures, the participants' obligations are deemed complete at this point. It is noted, however, that during the implementation phase, the participants should be active in the project and observe the project's results alongside the specialists. To accomplish this, it is underlined that sharing what participants desire is not enough and that participants must also take this responsibility by selecting how, when, and by whom the project should be carried out.

Furthermore, Pateman (1970) claims that the level of participation employed is limited to that which does not jeopardize the stability of a democratic system, implying that its sole purpose is to defend. Following Pateman's classification, participation can be divided into three categories of level:

- Pseudo-participation
- Partial participation
- Complete participation

Such as Pateman, Till (2005), stated that the basis of the problem of participation in architecture is the democratic philosophy from which it originates. The transformation of participation's traditional transformative character into its contemporary form of protection is reflected in architectural instances where users' participation is utilized as a type of passive inclusion but true decision-making is left to professionals. As a result, participation can be separated into two levels:

- Transformative
- Placatory

According to Wulz (1986), there are two types of participation in design processes:

- Passive participation
- Active participation.

The extreme point of passive participation relates to circumstances in which users' opinions are not examined by experts, whereas the extreme point of active involvement refers to situations in which users' opinions are more or less removed by professionals. These two extremes must be reconciled, consensus must be reached, and the responsibilities of experts and users must be clearly defined throughout the process. The tiers, according to Wulz, start with expert autonomous architecture and progress to user- autonomous architecture (Fox, 2000).

The level of representational architecture, in which the architect gives his subjective interpretations of the user, questionnaire architecture, which arises concerning generalized data of anonymous users, and regional architecture, which arises about the historical and cultural assumptions of certain locations and collects data primarily related to symbols, forms, and spatial behavior, are the levels with the

most dominant professional autonomy (Fox, 2000). The following levels of user participation and autonomy are graded according to the user autonomy (Toker, 2007):

- A dialog based on non-formal conversations between users and experts
- An alternative in which users have the option of selecting prepared architectural variants
- A co-decision in which users and experts participate equally
- The level of self-decision in which the user controls the overall design and construction process

Similarly, Bayazıt (1982) distinguished between passive and active involvement and said that the tactics utilized were connected to the intended degree of participation. The types of participation put forward in this context are:

- By representation: In circumstances when the population is substantial, representative participation entails incorporating user groups in the process with their selected community leaders. The greatest risk of representative participation is that these leaders, who are appointed to protect the rights of users, become involved in the process later.
- By education: Participation through education includes providing users with instruction on technical and social concerns relating to the subject for them to undertake the act of joining. The primary reason for opposing this sort of participation is that the training offered can deceive users and guarantee that their opinions are made following the decisions of the professionals who guide the process.
- By consultation: Consultative participation is a sort of participation that is used to offer consumers a sense of participation, but when experts make the choice ahead of time or how the consultant impacts the decision is not always explicitly explained. This form of participation is also frequently utilized to learn about potential public reactions in public opinion surveys.

- By discussion: Experts exchange information with users and attempt to address concerns and problems with them in the conversation style of participation. Experts choose the public because of these debates.
- By voting: Participation through voting entails transferring users' preferences and decisions to the process via a referendum-style voting mechanism. The voting mechanism must be dependable, and minorities must be represented after the voting process.
- By action: In the form of participation by action, user groups, non-governmental organizations, or associations are expected to hold meetings, open exhibitions, and produce various publications. Citizens' active participation in these efforts will also provide an opportunity to increase participation.

Deshler and Sock (1985) took a similar approach, dividing participation into two categories:

- Pseudo participation
- Real participation

Training and counseling, which involves information, therapy, and manipulation, and pacification, which includes persuasion, are handled in two different ways. Similarly, “real participation” has been expressed in two ways: cooperation in terms of partnership and authority distribution, and citizen control in terms of authorization (Sanoff, 2000).

In addition, Arnstein discusses the willingly and voluntary redistribution of power by rulers to the powerless and excluded citizens in the economic and political planning process in her 1969 paper titled "A Ladder of Citizen Participation." Arnstein defines participation as the right to contribute to the well-being of people (Arnstein, 1969) (Figure 2.4). In light of her belief, she defines a ladder of citizen empowerment that is the most often used metric for measuring public engagement in developed countries. The participation process in this ladder consists of an eight-

point typology with each stage employing a different level of participation power. Manipulation and treatment, the first two parts of non-participation, are used to educate people and deflect their focus away from real issues (Ines & Booher, 2003). The second step, tokenism, allows participants to have a say in decision-making but does not guarantee that their views will be considered completely. The ultimate possibility involves citizens having real decision- making power.

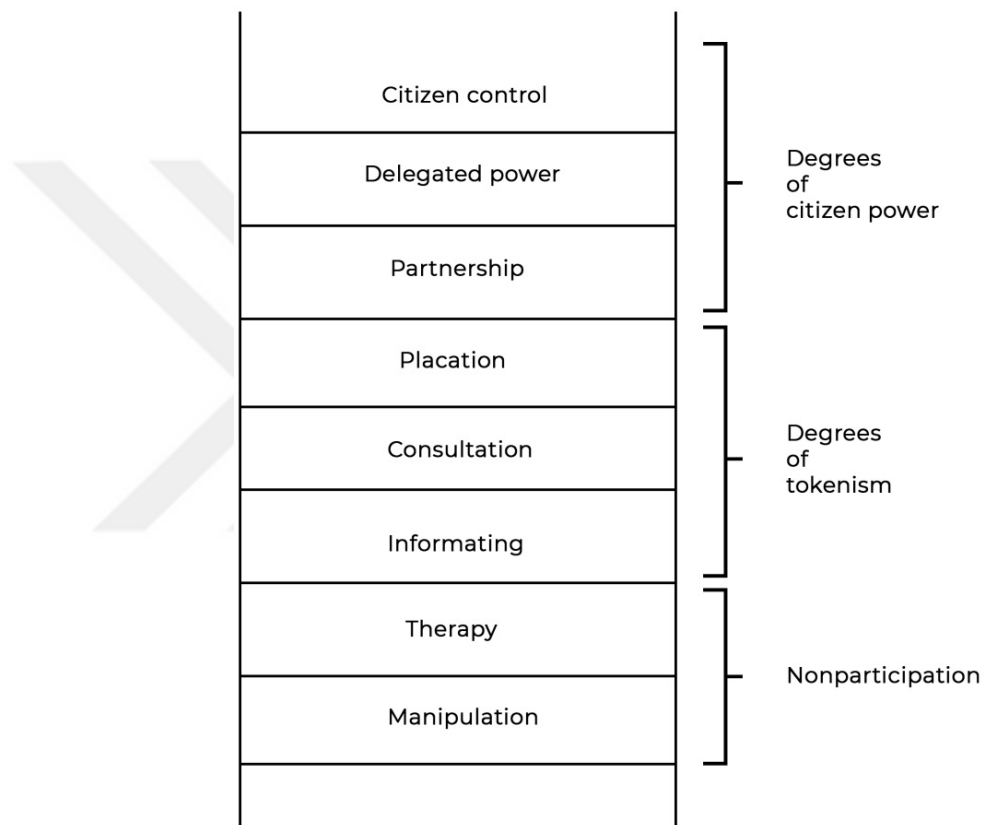


Figure 2. 4 Ladder of Citizen Participation (Arnstein, 1969)

Tokenism remaining as the second step in the ladder of Arnstein is also known as pseudo-participation in the literature. Looking at the definitions of tokenism is defined as “the fact of doing something only to do what the law requires or to satisfy a particular group of people, but not in a way that is sincere” (Oxford Dictionary, 2022). In the Merriam-Webster dictionary (2022) the definition is “the policy or practice of making only a symbolic effort (as desegregate)”. While the ultimate goal is to get beyond formalities, tokenism refers to inviting and involving members of

minority groups simply in appearance. It is also a politically correct manner of acting. When seen in numerical terms, the attempt to establish false token values is typically inclusive, and as a result, it becomes a tool to deny any claims of discrimination (Hogg & Vaughan, 2011). Power holders frequently assert that both sides are considered to participate. There is a claim that both the interests of the strong and the weak citizens are taken into account. However, in practice, those in positions of authority make sure that just a few of these groups participate in the accession procedure and view the citizen as an individual representative as a misleading token.

Like Arnstein, White (1996) proposed that participatory processes can be investigated at four different levels in other words at different four forms:

- Nominal Participation
- Instrumental Participation
- Representative Participation
- Transformative Participation

White contends that each form serves a particular purpose and that actors “at the top” are the ones that are more powerful and the actors “at the grassroots” so the ones that have the less powerful view and are interested in the participated object in each different form. More powerful parties frequently employ nominal participation to give development initiatives credibility. Due to their desire to be involved in the process, less powerful individuals get involved in it. However, it only serves as a display and has no real impact. The second type is instrumental participation, and it sees the participation as an instrument for achieving a predetermined goal frequently the effective application of community members’ talents and expertise in project implementation. Giving voice to individuals in society in the formulation and execution of plans and laws that affect them is known as representative participation. Representative participation improves the likelihood that the more powerful will be able to continue their intervention; for the less powerful it may create a possibility for leverage. Finally, the last type of participation is transformative participation, and

it empowers people participating, which changes the organizations and systems that promote marginalization and exclusion.

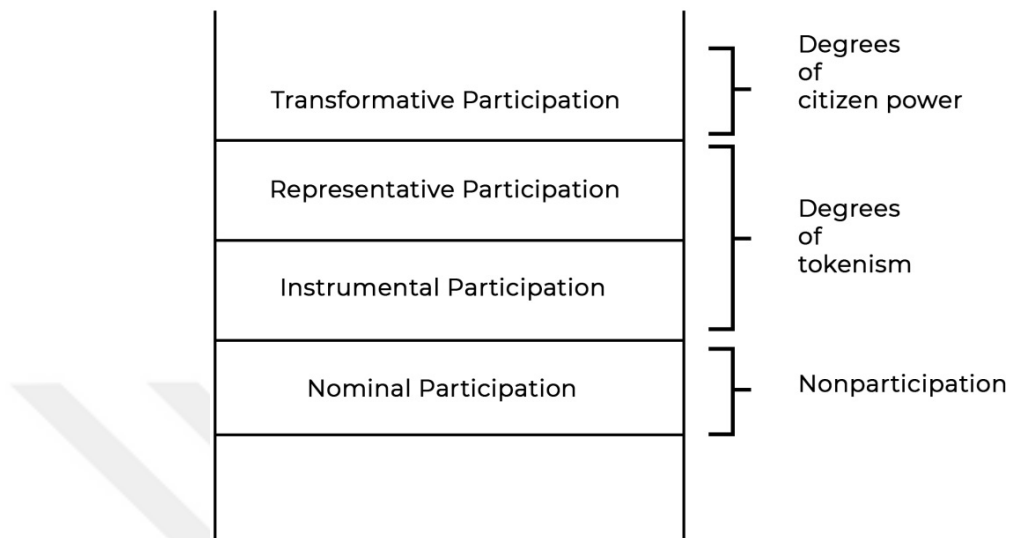


Figure 2. 5 Representation of White's Ladder of Participation related to Arnstein's Ladder (White, 1996)

White's (1996) participation categorization asserts that the levels of participation that Arnstein (1969) claimed will vary even during a single process. Regarding the ladder of Arnstein (1969), the forms of participation proposed by White can be categorized into 3 categories that define the degree of participation of the citizen. Considering the rise looking at the degree of participation of the citizen from nominal to transformative participation it is classified as non-participation, degrees of tokenism, and finally the degrees of citizen power which is the level where the citizen is involved the most. According to this, nominal participation is taking place as non-participation, instrumental participation and representative participation as a degree of tokenism, and finally transformative participation as a degree of citizen power (Figure 2.5). Participation, in White's opinion, is not just regarded as the distribution of power but also as a dynamic ground of conflict for countries that are developing. As a result, during the decision-making processes, the manager's or political power's role may vary, and the type of public participation may also alter. Each level of involvement in this situation produces distinct results for managers and the general public.

White's categorization focuses on the dynamic relationships between different actors having different degrees of power (Figure 2.6). There, understanding the politics of participation is improved by talking about how bottom-up and top-down interests contrast or work together. Despite their promises of participation, the powerful actors want to keep things as they are. Only via "transformative participation" can power holders work in solidarity with the less powerful to make decisions.

Form Level of participation	Top-down Interests of the powerful and relevant institutions	Bottom-up Interest of individuals and communities	Function Aim of participation
Nominal	Legitimation	Inclusion	Display
Instrumental	Efficiency	Cost	Means
Representative	Sustainability	Leverage	Voice
Transformative	Empowerment	Empowerment	Means/Ends

Figure 2. 6 White's Participation: Form, Function, and Level of Interest (1996)

The different typologies (Figure 2.7) proposed by Pretty (1995) speak more to the user of participatory ways especially comparing Arnstein's ladder which examines participation from the viewpoint of people on the receiving end.

Typology	Characteristics
Manipulative Participation	Participation is simply pretence
Passive Participation	People participate by being told what has been decided or has already happened. Information belongs only to external professionals.
Participation by Consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions. No room for shared decision making between the stakeholders and the professionals. People's needs and priorities are ignored.
Participation for Material Incentives	People participate in "work for food" arrangements. They may also participate for cash, or other material incentives. The activities and the participation end when the material incentive stops.
Functional Participation	Participation is seen by the external agencies as a means to achieve project goals, especially reduced costs. People may participate by forming groups to meet predetermined project objectives.
Interactive Participation	People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation or strengthening of local groups or institutions that determine how available resources are used. Learning methods are used to seek multiple viewpoints.
Self Mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions for resources and technical advice but retain control over how resources are used.

Figure 2. 7 Main Typologies of Participation (Pretty, 1995)

His categorization consists of seven different types of participation, also normative, moving from negative forms of participation such as the inclusion of ineffective token representatives. He refers to manipulative participation and passive participation after decisions have already been made to positive forms, like participation through consultation and in exchange for financial rewards. The term "functional participation" describes the type of participation that is most frequently linked to efficiency defenses: people participate after the major choices have been made by external actors to better accomplish project objectives and cut costs. On the other hand, participation and consultation are two different things. Top-down consultation, in which individuals are asked to contribute information or viewpoints,

typically regarding initiatives or proposals created by others, tends to be demoralizing and rarely provides access to the full range of information available. Participation refers to people and groups actively getting involved in developing proposals, determining needs, and carrying out and overseeing initiatives.

Similar to the approach of Pretty, Hamid Shrivani, a city planner, distinguishes between two sorts of participation (1985):

- Supportive: Provide users with insights into feasible alternatives through various tactics such as training, graphic communication, and polling.
- Political activist: Advocacy is the second technique, which aims to organize and mobilize certain groups and include them in the planning process.

The methodology applied in the process of participation, which is carried out jointly by the designer and the stakeholders, who are not designers but take an active role in the process, is defined as collaborative design. In the approach, which is a different application of participatory design, the designer uses different methods, techniques, and tools to access the participant's knowledge of the use case (Figure 2.8).

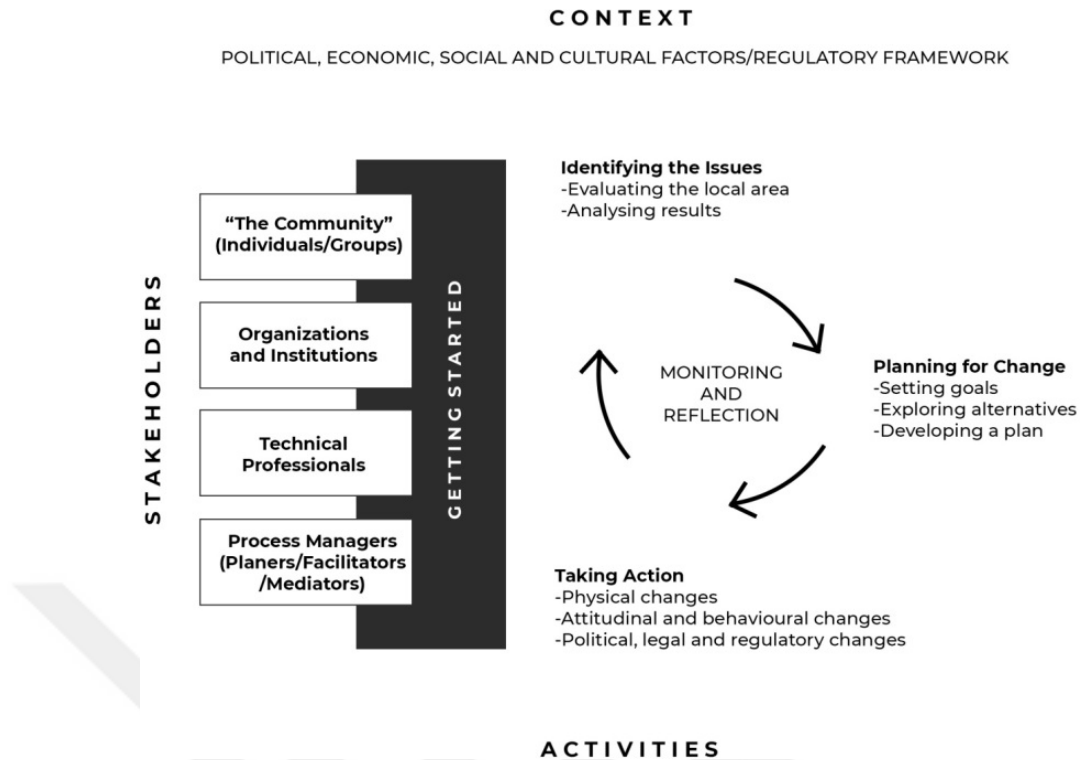


Figure 2. 8 Participation Process (Driskell, 2002)

Because, according to Sanders (2002), use cases and experiences that form the focus of design are constructive actions. Only real communication occurs in the area formed by the overlap of what the situation brings and what the experience brings. This communication is not only in a structure that can be expressed in words, it is layered and can only be achieved through participatory methods that investigate the use and cognition situations, thus both providing data to the experience design and improving the ability to empathize with the user (Sanders, 2002). These participatory methods have affected the development trajectory of participatory design about the concerns of private organizations in the context of the product, and in this practice, political concerns have been replaced by economic and theoretical concerns.

For the efficiency of the process of participation, different approaches and techniques are defined. Henry Sanoff's design games technique may be characterized as a set of workshops that allow groups of up to nine individuals to participate in the alternative creation and decision-making process alongside experts. The location of activities on the planned plane is decided with the use of symbols that identify spatial

activities for non-professionals to convey their views. Working groups determine the options, assess them, and make decisions based on their findings. The architect converts the schematic project developed on the planned plane into a final project in a workshop with the participation of the users (Sanoff, 2000).

On the other hand, in the Make Tools (Figure 2.9) approach by Sanders (2002), the method focuses on creating tools that allow people to express their dreams, thoughts, and feelings about design, and it is suggested that empathy with users will help achieve the proper outcome when what people do, say, and make is found at the same time.

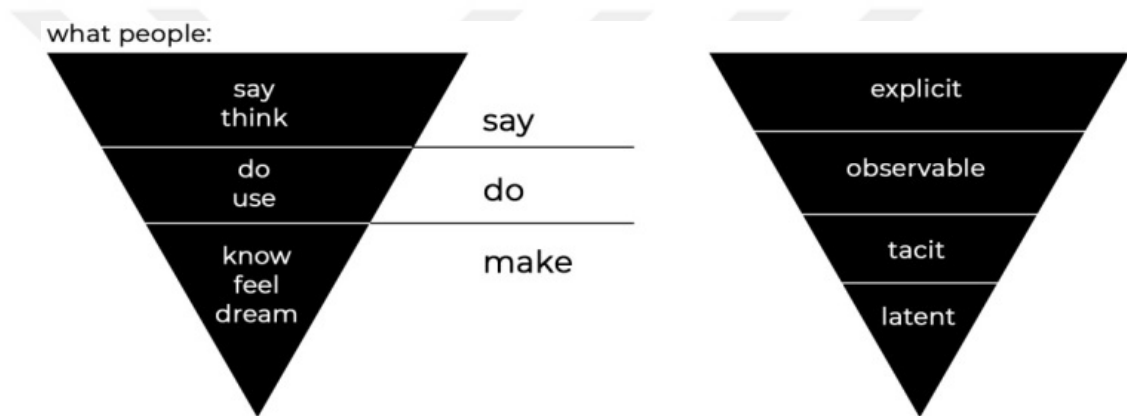


Figure 2. 9 Ways we can learn from people and the levels of need -Toolkit (Sanders, 2002)

With the survey and interview methodology applied to a specific population, conventional design methodologies prioritized what people said. Cognitive and emotional tools produced by designers for users to reveal their experiences form the basis of the "Toolmaking" method. Cognitive tools consist of maps, three-dimensional models, and function diagrams, and emotional tools consist of written data in which users tell their dreams (Sanders, 2002). A preliminary interview, a field analysis meeting, a workbook creation, home research sessions, a participatory analysis workshop, and a design finalization workshop comprise the participatory design process, which is affected by the tools generated (Liem & Sanders, 2013). Considering all the methods and degree of the participation process the simple question of "Who?" remains as significant in each aspect of participation. To answer the question of "Who will

be involved in the participation process?” the following part focuses on the different actors of the process and their roles.

2.3.3 Roles of participants

Participation is a broad term that encompasses a variety of decision-making processes involving several participants (Wulz, 1986). The target groups guide or even determine the analysis, planning, implementation, and evaluation of the current situation to resolve problems, and participation is defined as a communication process between the population living in the planning field and the experts who design development activities. Responsibility for planning, regulatory measures, resources, and choices was not shared during this process, and one of the fundamental notions of participation was to act cooperatively (Saltik, 1997).

Furthermore, participation in the process can only be possible if all the actors are fulfilling their roles. All the actors have important roles in the process and all the process needs to be assisted by professionals. With the advent of the notion that space is a "made" entity, the concept of space in the classical sense, which has defined borders and exists as an object on its own, has been a source of much discussion in the contemporary age. During the debates, it became clear that space is not only a physical entity, and it cannot be recognized as a wholly abstract idea at the same time. Space, in all its dimensions and shapes, is a set of relations and forms that is both a notion and a reality.

According to Avar (2009), space is living, changeable, and fluid, extending and returning to other places, merging or conflicting with them at different moments, and finally producing the actual space. A social space is a social product, and space is a product (Lefebvre, 1991). The space's creation process is shaped in tandem with social life. It's worth noting that with the Renaissance, the people who created, built, and lived in the space delegated these chores to professionals and became figures who just began to use it. Today, space is developed and produced by a professional who treats it as a job, and the person who used to take care of every detail will now

take the space from someone else and begin using it. The othering began with this divide between the individual and the space. On the other hand, the Industrial Revolution's standardization has strengthened the individual's position as a producer and shaper of the environment in which he will live, rather than just as a "consumer."

Practitioners of participatory design believe that each participant is an expert on how they live their lives, and those design ideas come from the input of people from all walks of life (Sanoff, 2011). The involvement of residents in the construction of the city is a political and citizenship issue. Architects have worked for a long time for politicians or even for the royal family in the old regime and have been detached from the inhabitants. The participation of inhabitants in projects, therefore, modifies radically the usual hardworking methods of architects like the change of the tools, the representation keys, or the design methods; but that is seen as a necessary step in a democracy. According to Roger Hart (1992), a key expert on children's involvement, participation is a process in which individuals collaboratively make decisions that affect them or their surroundings. For either method, participation entails including every person in choices that pertain to them.

Moreover, the approach of Sanoff (2000), states that the interaction is made with the engagement of persons sharing significant values, participation appears to be a chance to shape the community and affect the constructed environment in which it lives. Involvement in democratic decision-making processes should benefit many elements of society and to achieve this clarity, rather than a linear procedure between actors, it is vital to create a continually changing and evolving communication process.

In the traditionally described design process, the design is formed solely by the architect's interaction with the investor or client. The client conveys his wishes to the architect, the architect consults the client, and occasionally specialists from various professions during the process of developing the design in accord with these demands, and the user may only be involved in the process by communicating with the completed result (Figure 2.10).

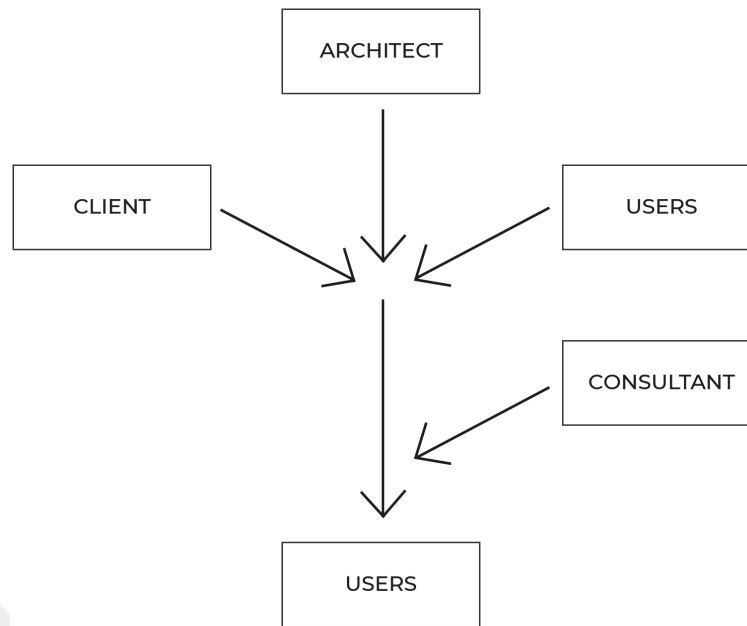


Figure 2. 10 Relationships between the actors of a participative process (Day & Parnell, 2003)

Different strategies are used in the design processes to achieve the participation kinds and degrees. These strategies include everything from informing groups who would be using the proposed environment to empowering these user communities. People involved in a participatory process are not a certain defined group of individuals. The user profile is a variable factor that changes according to the needs and the future situation of the process and different categorizations are made according to different researchers who worked on this issue. Even though the main actors of this dialogue are the architect and the citizen these are elaborated and, in some cases, different actors are involved in the process.

According to Afrassiabi (1985), participants in architectural projects are generally divided into three main groups:

- **Designers:** All professionals involved in the process, are architects, urban planners, engineers, sociologists, or financial professionals. The relationship between these actors follows a technical process that includes planning, research, and control phases according to Afrassiabi (1985). Only the deployment of the horizontal system in the offices by the horizontal divisions

allows for the optimal completion of all planned components and ensures member participation.

- Public and local governments: The municipalities, urban land organizers, and housing and city planning offices are part of this category. During the project's duration, it will be effective for local government institutions to adopt the required modifications to their programs, budgets, and rules in a way that does not contradict central government policies.
- Users: Neighborhood residents at various economic and social levels or with different perspectives and individual needs are the users of the process. The way that people interact with architectural projects is a significant issue that has an impact on many facets of the citizens. Throughout the architectural process, the players' workloads may change, but the participatory process should continue, and each actor should be well-informed about the entire process. The procedure should incorporate all participants and interested parties. In the absence of such an approach, participation will not be different than pseudo-participation.

As stated by Afrassiabi (1985), the architect who is one of the most important actors must embrace learner-centered approaches in the profession of architecture; it is critical to be at the forefront of developing ways that will permit and promote participation in the process. By acting as a bridge between management, investor, and user, the architect is the only actor who can control the process. The architect's creative and introspective role is to understand the notion of architecture and its components, as well as the evolution and changes in history and their interrelationships, and to turn this interpretation into a synthesis through design procedures (Aksoy, 1975). Architects, designers, and planners have a considerable deal of responsibility since their designs and activities have a huge impact on society and individual lives. Their goals are to create the appropriate outcome and, as a result, to secure people's pleasure via the use of the proper designs. Architects believed they were carrying the built environment's future on their shoulders. "If the architects had created the correct cities, there would have been no war," Habraken (1985) once stated.

In this century, where some utopias such as "designing the right thing for society, designing a lifestyle" are no longer valid; when making a design for the public space; the designer has an important role and responsibility, as do local governments and some related authorities. This role should comprise complete tactics, in addition to meetings with the user during the project process; correct techniques for dealing with the participant should be learned. No matter how skilled the designer is, he or she must be open-minded regarding the user's views, priorities, values, and tastes, realizing that the person living anywhere (Cabannes, 2004).

Rather than attempting to achieve utopias, designers have preferred to create designs that allow individuals to live their lives how they like. With the rise of the participatory method, the architect's position in the design process has been called into question. Issues like the architect's role in the process and how he instructs the users have started to be considered. In the process of participative architecture, the architect is mostly charged with deciding the program with the project manager; he takes generally the role of a programmer and the assistant to the contracting authority, the project manager. He is the pilot of the project; he is responsible for the design process and therefore for the way of leading the involvement of partners. The architect must know how to implement participation in the project. This act is not learned in the school of architecture, so it is a lot of extra work for the architect. It is therefore a militant act on the part of the architect. There is not a determined period in which the architect takes place during the project including the participation of the citizens. There is no legal framework; the architect can be present from the first thoughts on the program until the start of the life of the inhabitants in the place (Personal Archive, 2021).

Today, the architect can have different roles in a participatory process (Figure 2.11). According to Lemaire, in a participatory project, the architect adapts himself to the project and can have different postures like the role of a master, a pedagogue, or a co-builder. The architect as a master shares his knowledge and imposes it. It is the only jury of the project and works in an environment that does not accept any sharing and participation. The others are standardized humans without any

particularities for him. Besides, the pedagogs are for the idea of sharing ideas; they think that it is not only about a combination of different information but also about a common idea of different parts of society. Lastly, the co-builder architect thinks that knowledge and projects are born in experienced environments. They put themselves at the service of others by maintaining legality. Their projects are tangible and intangible at the same time. Finally, the architect is a co-builder who is an activist to create socially responsible architecture. In this case, its role is not the function or the aesthetic; it is the creation of a special community (Lemaire, 2013).

Like Lemaire, Flecheux also defines 3 different profiles of the architect involved in a participatory process (Flecheux, 2015). Here, different from the role of “master” of Lemaire Flecheux he defines a profile of an activist architect. These architects are those who are interested in the context of self-promotion. The ideology of these architects’ dialogues perfectly with that of the inhabitants. An immediate relationship is established between them, and it is not difficult for the architect to appropriate the values carried by the group: to promote exchanges and solidarity, promote diversity, promote experimentation, and reject related speculation in the housing market. The current development of cooperative or self-promoting housing is at a critical point. There is, therefore, for architects as for all partners of currently emerging initiatives, a particular issue of demonstrativeness associated with real risk-taking. As a result, the architects who invest in these operations have a profile of activists: their investment is much more important for this type of project than for an “ordinary” operation, especially about the working time. They also agree, in addition to the risk of being wrong paid, the effort to engage with the client, to imagine different working methods, often voluntarily bypassing the mission of traditional designer (Biau, 2012).

The two other profiles are like the categorization of Lemaire. The second profile is the architect as a future inhabitant of the project. In this situation, the architect is one of the members of the group who come together to create a project by participation. Only valid for participatory housing projects, the architect in this case

generally participates as much as any future inhabitants. This profile can be defined as similar to the profile of the co-builder of Lemaire.

Finally, Flecheux defined the role of a mediator that is similar to the role of a pedagogue. The architects of a shared, grouped habitat give importance to the participation of the future inhabitants in the conception of their living space. The role of the mediator is to resolve the problems and is seen as an intermediary which means that he is between two different parties. However, the architect must not be an intermediary, he must be a connection. The architect organizes the meetings between the different parts and should be an interlocutor who interacts with various actors. He is the essential actor who gives keys to discussion to each of the actors to defend their interests in the negotiation scene. The mediator architects generally offer a more modest architecture that prioritizes user satisfaction. They are attentive to the emergence of new demands and quickly adapt their working methods to societal and technical developments in their sector of activity.

Lemaire, 2013	Flecheux, 2015
MASTER Share it knowledge and imposes it. It is the only jury of the project and works in a environment that not accept any sharing and participation. The others are standardized humans without any particularities for him.	ACTIVIST ARCHITECTURE Interested in the context of self-promotion. The effort to engage in a sometimes collaboration with the collective-client, to imagine different working methods, often voluntarily bypassing the missions traditional designer (Biau, 2012).
PEDAGOGUE Sharing ideas, they think that it is not only about a combination of different information but also with a common idea of different parts of the society	MEDIATOR The architect organize the meetings between the different parts and should be an interlocutor which interact with various actors. He is the essential actor who give keys to discussion to each of the actors to defend their interests on the negotiation scene.
CO-BUILDER Thinks that the knowledge and the projects born in experienced environments. They put themselves at the service of others by maintaining the equality.	FUTURE INHABITANT One of the member of the group who come together to create a project inwhich they will live in by participation.

Figure 2. 11 Different profiles of architect comparison between Lemaire (2013) and Flecheux (2015)

Users and other stakeholders collaborate with designers during the design process in participatory design (Sanders, Brandt, & Binder, 2010). The users in this situation are each individual of the society and their participation ought to be a regular part of everyday life and not require any exceptional circumstances. The citizen must participate in all phases of the process, not just the decision-making stage. As part of the citizen involvement process, which is not simply limited to projects that are accessible to the general public, citizens must be included in the public discussion regarding planning and design.

In principle, the citizen is associated with all the phases of the project, from the first studies to the realization, even beyond when the project is carried out, and the inhabitants continue to develop the project by inhabiting it. The presence of the citizen during the process of the project can therefore be more important for citizens than for an architect (Personal Archive, 2021). Among the situations contributing to the dialogue between society and architecture, the participation of inhabitants has been the subject of numerous experiments. Citizens are the most important sociocultural actors for the development of a society, and they must be present as key actors in the process, accept participation, consider it a basic right, and demand it to enable a healthy establishment of a participatory approach in the architectural design process.

Other actors in the process might facilitate the user's absorption of involvement by demonstrating, yet in a pleasant manner. To preserve the participation processes, the user must also adopt an approach that supports community over collectivity rather than individuality (Figure 2.12).

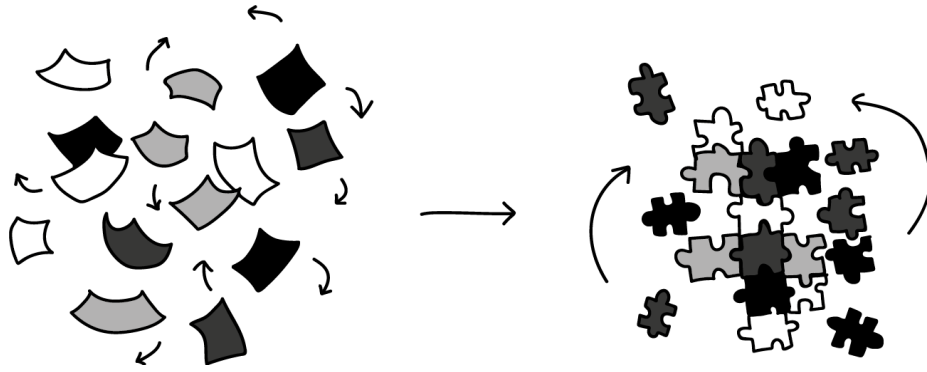


Figure 2. 12 From individuality to collectivity (Reproduction from Riou, 2021)

In addition, participation needs to be supported by different organizations, municipalities, and other governmental institutions. The process of a participative project begins with identifying participants, which creates a thorough organizational structure. The community plan theory is based on an interdisciplinary collaborative framework that enables the involvement of all actors and stakeholders in the planning and design process. Wates (2008) lists the coordinator, director, organizer group, local interest groups as individuals or organizations, international, national, and regional organizations, and facilitators in the context of a comprehensive organization that follows a standard structure as the project's actors.

For example, local governments are institutions that serve the common needs of persons in a community, provide public goods and services, and are led by bodies elected by the people (Ulusoy & Akdemir, 2010). The principles of democracy and public involvement are intertwined in the study of municipal governance. Democracy is self-government by the people in the traditional meaning. People engage in the administration through representative democracy in civilizations where the population is concentrated and geographical boundaries are growing (Geray, 1995). However, decentralization movements have emerged as a result of increasing representation crises, abuse of administrative power, and a lack of respect for minorities' rights and freedoms, and representative democracy has begun to give way to democratic local institutions that are compatible with the concept of decentralization (Eroğlu, 1991).

Local governments are now often regarded as the foundational institutions of the above-mentioned definition of democracy. When looking at examples of democracy around the world, it is clear that democracy and consequently participation flourish in countries with strong local governments. According to Mill (2009), who stated that the relationship between democracy and local governments is unavoidable, this is because people's participation in local governments acts as a school for the formation and settling of democracy. Not just the people, but future politicians and statesmen will be able to be trained as a result of the existence of democratic local governments (Pustu, 2005). Because of their proximity to the people, local governments are viewed as the most democratic institutions. In this environment, a participatory local government benefits the people significantly, but it also has some drawbacks. Lack of coordination in local governments, limited control of local decision-making mechanisms, structural issues in understanding service delivery, inefficient management of the process with stakeholders and a lack of dialogue, citizens' lack of awareness of participation, and local governments' skills in making policy with the central government are just a few of the issues. The benefits acquired by local governments through participatory procedures in the administrative environment, as well as the issues they face, appear in participatory design processes for open public urban areas. Local people and local government representatives are brought together through participatory design processes, ensuring that the people's demands and aspirations are addressed and met by local power. Local governments should communicate and work effectively with other stakeholders and local people in the participatory design process, represent the wishes and views of the people in the decisions to be made, and tell the public about potential obstacles and constraints (Bayazit, 1982).

Other than local governments, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are also important. Similar to local governments, there are a variety of perspectives on what constitutes a non-governmental organization (NGO). NGOs are institutions and organizations that perform civil administration in general (Talas, 2011). NGOs are also considered groups that provide an organized involvement phenomenon to address issues with individual engagement in local government operations (Okutan,

2021). In this perspective, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are groups that enable individuals to have an organized voice and make decisions on matters that affect the public, involve them in the administration, and play a role in sustaining the public-state relationship in the public's favor.

Considering all the different categorizations of actors and their roles the most important key between these actors is always the same: communication. This is important to have proper communication in the relationship between those during the whole process of a participatory architecture and planning design project. If mutual communication does not remain an important element in all the phases by all the actors, the process results in different unexpected outcomes. According to Maier (2001), in situations where actors cooperate, individuals may occasionally choose to hide their interest in participating or "not participate" for a variety of intricately related reasons.

By way of summary, this chapter started with a broad review of the idea of participation and concluded with an exploration of the term's many connotations. The aim of the chapter was to be able to answer questions such as;

- What is participation?
- In what contexts and fields does it typically occur, and what does it signify there?
- How participation is taking place in planning and design processes?
- Who is involved in the process and how?

As the chapter is outlining, depending on the context, participation's precise definition may take on different nuances. Overall, participation promotes cooperation, advances good change, and improves both individual and societal well-being. It enables people to participate in their communities make significant decisions, and influence their surroundings; but the idea of participation may undoubtedly vary across many disciplines and facets of life.

This recapitulation of the notion of “participation” defined and presented in different aspects serves as a base to continue with the following chapter focusing on the specific typology selected for participatory projects. The study offers a general-to-specific approach to ensure that every aspect is understood withing a larger and particulat framework specifically on housing. Hence, the chapter will exhibit many instances across the world by moving to specific cases such as France and Türkiye.



CHAPTER THREE

PARTICIPATION IN HOUSING

The concept of user participation has been discussed across a wide variety of scales, from housing to urban, from practical and experienced examples to utopian design examples, and has been seen as a significant phenomenon in the architectural design process. The notion of "participatory design" has evolved into one in which the designer and researcher remain in the background while the user is brought to the foreground. In the newly established cooperation, the interaction between the designer, researcher, and user is built through network communication rather than hierarchy. This new sort of user-designer cooperation may be found in a variety of examples throughout the world.

Numerous perspectives, including behavioral, cultural, historical, social, structural, industrial, political, and economic, have been used to address dwelling environments (Altman & Werner, 1985). The arguments, however, were limited by their points of view and were unable to give an accurate analysis of the house as both an architectural piece and a product of its inhabitants. Even while how a house is organized is a socially and culturally specific act of its occupants, it is also a physical creation that makes use of modern building methods and technologies. As a result, several types of research (Korosec-Serfaty, 1985) were centered on the subjective experience of the house and the positive behavior of the users that communicate significance between their house and the perceptual world they belong to. Moreover, participation is a means of reorienting architectural culture as well as a way of more effectively including people in the construction of space (Jones, Petrescu & Till, 2013). Housing project participation, in particular, is critical for empowering community people to participate in the wider political process and have a say in choices that form society (Davidson, Johnson, Lizarralde, Dikmen & Sliwinski, 2007). Subsequently, the housing serves as a physical conduit for the manifestation of its residents' intangible characteristics and it is important to understand the relationship between the user and the living environment.

Prior studies indicate that participation in housing projects, in particular, plays an important role in empowering community members to be part of the overall political process and to have a say in decisions that shape society (Davidson, Johnson, Lizarralde, Dikmen & Sliwinski, 2007).

This part is followed by an overview of the examples listed considering the relevant housing projects all around the world to present the main approaches to the concept of participation in different regions by focusing later on the case of France and Türkiye. Furthermore, the projects are evaluated in light of the Arnstein (1969) and White (1996) ladders. This evaluation makes it abundantly evident that comprehension of the participatory method's efficacy is essential. Each project provides a different set of lessons on involvement tactics. By examining those examples a more nuanced understanding of participative design and drawbacks are developed. Assessing the degree of participation enables to go beyond merely providing "things" for people to co-creating environments with and for people. More purposeful and socially conscious architecture results from this movement toward empowerment and collaboration.

3.1 Participation in Housing Around the World with Examples

One of the first and most famous attempts at participation in housing is the New Gurna (Figure 3.1). Located in Luxor on the West Bank of the Nile River, this is the earliest documented example of participatory architecture the architect thought that a participative mass production strategy may improve the poor's standard of living and culture.



Figure 3. 1 New Gurna Village, Egypt by Fathy, 1973 (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, n.d)

This village was built between 1946 and 1952 by Hassan Fathy. The architect was for the idea that improved modern technology has given us several things, such as current production materials and procedures, as well as the requirement for a professional architecture capable of generating millions of comparable features. He stated that the professional architect has removed all the pleasure of making such dwellings away from the eyes of individuals who are capable of advancing technologies at a rapid pace (Fathy, 1969). Thanks to user participation, the living conditions and cultures of the world's poorest communities can be improved (Fathy, 1969). Additionally, it is noted that user involvement in the construction process indicates a fresh approach to the issue of rural housing, and this approach goes beyond the cultural and economic issues that attract architects.

Hassan Fathy conducted interviews with people and collected data at the beginning of the study. This phase is falling under “Consultation” looking at the ladder of Arnstein (1969). This can be placed in the representative participation category of White (1996) He wanted to create a design that could correspond with the way of life of the inhabitants. The strategy developed by Hassan Fathy aims to economize project costs and include villagers in construction activities so that they may develop a career. The utilization of historic ranch buildings, construction methods, local materials, and plan types in this model has boosted user satisfaction and a sense of belonging. Fathy’s emphasis on economy and villager involvement in building is consistent with the ladder of “Delegated Power” or even with “Citizen Power” that takes place in the ladder of Arnstein (1969). Locals benefit from this by

gaining new skills and opportunities for employment, as well as by being less dependent on outside resources.

The project certainly demonstrates components of going beyond non-participation and tokenism towards more citizen power and control, even though it may not exactly map onto the ladder of Participation. Fathy's methodology places a high value on comprehending the needs of the villagers and giving them the tools they need through skill development and design decisions that complement their way of life and culture. Even though this comes before the formal model, it is consistent with the overall intent of Arnstein's later framework and other defined levels of participation.

The British architect Walter Segal, who created the self-built home system, was another pioneer of participatory design (Figure 3.2). The method that he proposed was a complicated approach to social design and self-help in the construction of social dwellings that was developed in the 1960s and 1970s (Broome & Richardson, 1995). The major goal was to simplify building design and construction so that even untrained builders and people could build houses at a reasonable cost. Houses are tailored to the requirements and abilities of each individual. As a result, Segal became the architect, co- designer, construction teacher, and advisor for two communities in London's Lewisham district: Walters Way and Segal Close. The Segal approach is part of a larger architectural style that began in the 1960s and 1970s. It emphasized users' subjectivity, but even against this backdrop, it may be defined by the wide involvement and social significance of the building process, as well as the intricacy and realism of the process.

Arnstein's (1969) concept emphasized citizen participation in decision-making within the framework of pre-existing power structures, whereas Segal's project sought to completely alter power dynamics by giving citizens direct authority over design and construction. The fundamental idea behind the project is to give individual inhabitants more influence over decision-making instead of architects and planners. They have considerable influence over the design of their homes and the

general growth of the community because they selected the plot, layout and the construction schedule. The design encourages user interaction, with the premise that users create and modify the environment in which they live. In addition to learning new skills and developing a thorough grasp of their living areas, residents actively engage in building their own homes. This supports a feeling of ownership, which is consistent with the higher rungs of the ladder's empowerment objectives.

After the Segal House, different projects were defined as important in the history of participation in architecture.

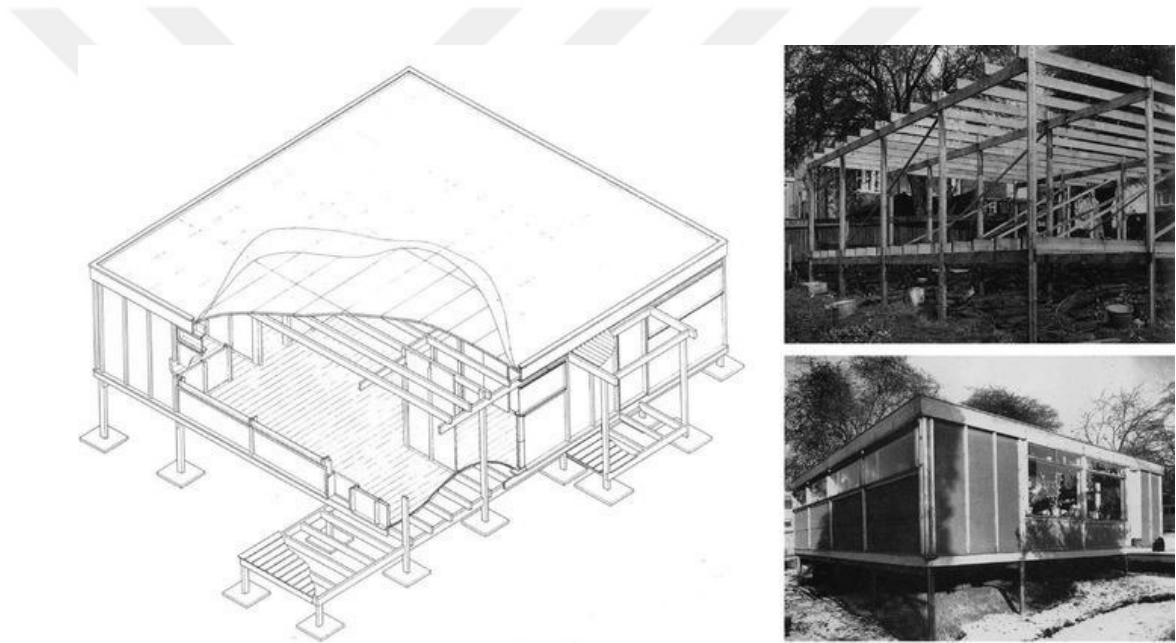


Figure 3. 2 The Self-Build House, England by Segal, 1986 (Zhouhang, 2015)

Like Fathy, Walter Segal was concerned with cost control and construction procedures, as well as meeting societal demands. Segal similarly used local materials in his self-build project, but unlike New Gourna, each family in the Walters Way project was responsible for building their own house according to their own needs and at their own pace.

In terms of interpreting the idea of user participation in this spectrum, the Maison Médicale is another important project to consider built between 1969 and 1972 in Brussels (Figure 3.3). The comprehensive proposal of the architect Lucien Kroll included a big social center with student housing, restaurants, shopping, social services, and an underground metro station; but the students, on the other hand, revolted against the mechanical and repetitive manner that had been recommended for their living quarters, an approach that ran counter to the democratic spirit of 1968, the year of rebellion and protest. Given that the producing approaches of those large and rigid buildings were exclusively technical and ignored the community, the students' strong emotions towards homogeneity and simplification were unavoidable for Kroll. Kroll made the most of the situation by establishing a participatory medium through which he could build a "self-generating" architecture (Jones & Canniffe, 2012).



Figure 3. 3 Maison Médicale, Belgium by Kroll, 1971 (Redaktion, 2018)

Kroll's architecture, which is the outcome of a collaborative effort, does not arise from a single person's ideological design, but rather from an attitude based on the concept that architecture only validates itself via the will of those for whom it is produced (Pehnt, 1988). In this context, his idea was to encourage the interaction between students and their living environment with a participatory attitude (Patel,

2016). Lucien Kroll in this project does not accept the idea of the central ordering of the architect and he wanted that the users can reappropriate space, which may appear to be a disadvantage, but it allows them to change the decisions made by the previous users. Kroll's first task was to determine the needs and goals of the students through in-depth consultations. This fits in with the "Partnership" rung of the ladder of Arnstein (1969), implying a step up from merely informing or consulting stakeholders. Being a self-managed social organization, the Maison Médicale allows the community to have some say over the services it provides. This could move the project closer to the ladder's "Citizen Power" that can be interpreted as "Delegated Power" from the ladder of Arnstein (1969) or the "Transformative Participation" from the ladder of White (1996).

Individuals may and do regularly meddle with already-built settings in such a way that social interactions are primarily on their terms, allowing individuals to discover, develop, and embrace constantly changing parts of identity (De Certeau, 1984). Furthermore, Kroll believes that making decisions based on human experience is always preferable to making decisions based on an architect's idealization.

The image of Maison Médical became associated with a particular kind of architecture, inspiring others to use participatory tactics in their work. The Byker Wall of Ralph Erskine is another important milestone in the history of the dialogue between the public and the architecture processes looking at the typology of housing (Figure 3.4). Erskine was concerned about rehousing the residents of the Byker Wall "without destroying family ties and other important affiliations or pattern of life," as Fathy was concerned about the residents of the New Gourni (Egelius, 1980).



Figure 3. 4 Byker Wall by Erskine, 1975 (Berry, 2021)

This social housing built in 1969-1975 had the goal to rehouse workers in the United Kingdom. Erskine established a community office in the area, which was housed in a decommissioned funeral home and had an open-door policy, inviting residents to come in and voice their thoughts. This sparked a discussion on everything from vandalism to leaking pipes, as well as the ultimate project's design. Janet Square (Figure 3.5) was created as a trial project in 1972, with forty-seven households volunteering to be a part of it. Residents were extensively consulted during the design and building phases, suggesting a shift from the “Informing” rung to “Consultation” and “Partnership” that fall in the “Citizen Power” level. Aspects including community areas, landscaping, and apartment layouts were shaped by resident input.

Erskine's grassroots approach to involvement necessitated a long-term commitment from the architect, who became a permanent fixture in the community. The Byker Wall estate's conception and application of his Swedish-inspired democratic architecture showed the democratic issue of participatory planning and its unclear relationship to community design.



Figure 3. 5 Janet Square by Erskine, 1972 (Colin, 2005)

Between 1981 and 1983, students at the Technical University of Stuttgart planned and built Bauhäusle (Figure 3.6), a self-build student housing complex under the supervision of Peter Sulzer and Peter Hübner. The project was made feasible by several circumstances, including strong University backing and a long-running first-year project in which students constructed their quarters. Due to a dearth of housing in Stuttgart at the time, the students inquired if they could build their plans.



Figure 3. 6 Bauhausle, Germany by Sulzer and Hübner, 1983 (Spatial Agency: Bauhäusle, n.d.)

The project, which was part of the teaching curriculum, consisted of a single community building surrounded by several smaller houses with three to four beds

apiece. In total, the Bauhäusle can accommodate roughly 30 students in rooms ranging in size from 15 to 28 m². Walter Segal's timber self-build method was also used in this project to construct the structures. Students experienced the benefits of integrating users in the design of their structures, as well as learning hands-on the design, technical, and constructional components involved, thanks to their full participation in the creation of their buildings.

Throughout the planning and building phases, students had in-depth discussions with residents to ensure transparency and give them a chance to express their wants and preferences. This corresponds to the Arnstein ladder's "Informing" and "Consultation" rungs. Using resources that were readily available in the area, students instructed locals in innovative building techniques. This encourages a sense of ownership over the project and gave people the ability to actively engage in the development process. This takes "Delegated Power" a step beyond simple consultation, giving residents an important influence in how their living area is designed. The Bauhausle's continuous care and maintenance are the responsibility of the residents. Due to this, they have a stake in its long-term viability and can modify the area to suit their changing demands. This component corresponds to "Citizen Control", the highest level of participation where residents have the greatest control over their living conditions.

Another important example is the Quinta Monroy by Elemental completed in 2003 (Figure 3.7). Quinta Monroy is an informal town located in the heart of Iquique in Chile. The idea was to construct dwellings for a low-income community with a limited budget. The solution of Aravena was to construct only half of the house to allow the user to complete the other half when he has enough budget (Skene Catling, 2014). During the process, to learn about the requirements and preferences of the locals, Elemental held in-depth discussions with them. Residents selected their own plots and took part in workshops to help shape the layout and design of their homes and this fall into the "Informing" and "Consultation" ladders of Arnstein (1969). Additionally, residents helped built their houses through a mutual aid method, fostering a sense of belonging by also providing control over their living

environment because the project allowed for future expansion and customization. Consequently, the project can be interpreted as “Citizen Power” regarding the ladders of Arnstein (1969) and White (1996).



Figure 3. 7 Quinta Monroy, Chile by Elemental, 2003 (Fracalossi, 2023)

With this approach, Elemental allowed them to shape their home depending on their needs and budgets over time. It has become one of the instances of how design can be used to address issues such as poverty and a lack of housing. Quinta Monroy has become a role model for future initiatives by creating these benefits.

Being among the most important exemplars of socially conscious architecture today, the Burkinabé architect Francis Kéré is encouraging the local community to engage in shared labor processes with the generated space that fosters a feeling of community and supports local development by implementing collaborative construction. In his project Gando Teacher’s Housing constructed in 2004 he was aiming to produce architecture that interacts with user’s lives and strengthen communities (Figure 3.8). The housing project is realized with the same techniques of the Gando Primary School completed in 2001. There, the entire local community worked together as it is the case in rural Burkina Faso where construction and maintenance of homes are traditionally done by collaborative processes. To enable the Gando villagers to take part in the process, low-tech and sustainable approaches were devised and enhanced to correspond with this cultural practice.



Figure 3. 8 Gando Teacher's Housing ("Kéré | Work" 2023)

Different tasks were defined for each group of people regarding their abilities. For instance, children collected stones to build the foundation and mothers brought water to make bricks (Figure 3.9).



Figure 3. 9 Villagers during the construction ("Kéré | Work" 2023)

Through not in a strictly linear way, Kéré's project masterfully captures the spirit of the ladders of participation. His method incorporates multiple levels of engagement into the project's overall structure, going beyond individual rungs. "Consultation" and "Informing" are the primary approaches used in the process of the Gando Teacher's Housing such as the Primary School of Gando. For this, Kéré had long conversations with the Gando locals during the planning and building phases. This ensured transparency and gave the villagers a chance to express their wants and needs. Moreover he made a concerted effort to find and use the locals' traditional

building methods and supplies. As a consequence, their cultural legacy was maintained and a more sustainable and contextually suitable design was produced. Analyzing the level of “Partnership” and “Delegated Power”, workshops for developing skill were organized. Kéré taught the locals new building methods that made use of soil and clay that were readily available in the area. This gave community the confidence to take an active role in the construction process and encouraged a feeling of ownership in the institution. Teams of skilled masons to lead groups of villagers in construction projects were also organized. Thanks to that, decision-making was decentralized, and the villages had direct control over the design. Under the level of “Citizen Control”, it is possible to say that the fact that the villagers are in charge of the continuous maintenance and upkeep of the project developed a strong sense of ownership and pride in the project. Its meticulous preservation and use as an essential community hub are the result of this.

Stating that “I am convinced that participation can lead to a happier society” (Kéré, 2017) involving the neighborhood in the project’s creation was one of its main goals. The model is easily adoptable and adaptable by community members who wish to build or extend their own homes due to its simple design and minimum use of purchased materials. He develops a looping, iterative process in which the design is influenced by involvement, which it turn inspires more participation. This ongoing cycle promotes a sense of co-creation. With this approach, the architectural world foreshadows a radical change in the way participative architecture is discussed in the years to come.

3.2 Participative Housing in France and Türkiye

Like other nations, participatory housing that incorporates communities and end-users in the design and decision-making processes has been implemented in both Türkiye and France. These initiatives seek to provide housing that more effectively satisfies people’s needs and goals while encouraging a sense of ownership and community participation. To draw a reasonable comparison, the historical context of the compared nations and their method for participation in housing processes should

be outlined as a presentation of the participatory housing projects of France and Türkiye.

Essentially, looking at the socio-political aspect of the two regions both Türkiye and France have administrative institutions (Loughlin & Peters, 1997). France made significant modifications to its constitution affecting municipal and regional administrations in 2003 as part of the local government reform that began in the 1980s and continues to this day. Following the French Revolution, much nationalism arose across Europe, resulting in the development of citizenship as is the case for Türkiye.

Today, the current concept of citizenship in Türkiye has its origins in the French Revolution. For the French concept of citizenship, Turner (1992) situates it within the revolutionary tradition of involvement in the private realm, including family and religion. When examined in terms of this classification, Türkiye's conception of modern citizenship appears to be similar to the revolutionary French tradition, because there is an intervention in the private sphere that incorporates religion in the family home. In modern Republican Türkiye, there is talk of a "state seeking a nation" that prioritizes the nation and nationalist emotion (Kadioglu, 2008). As a result, the Turkish nation-constitutive state's ingredient is a state-oriented political union. Turkish national identity is founded on the inseparability of the Turkish state from its nation and the immutability of its borders. Correspondingly, Turkish citizenship has arisen as a concept that is not recognized by state officials from the top down. There, the concept of citizenship differs from the French concept in that it is defined from above, making it a passive term. The definition of modern citizenship in terms of Türkiye evokes French citizenship understanding because citizenship in Türkiye is defined as an exaggerated public sphere that suffocates the individual and occupies the private space where family and religion occur and because citizenship in Türkiye is defined passively. Moreover, civil, political, and social rights in Türkiye are provided from above, not as a result of demands and battles from below (T.H. Marshall's approach to citizenship based on rights is covered, 1963).

As stated, while Türkiye has a top-down understanding France has a bottom-up one. While the people at the bottom express themselves with a bottom-up model, the top-down approach, on the contrary, is the direction and organization of the people by an authority. The two different viewpoints on how citizens interact with the government and take part in politics vary in their focus, where initiatives come from, and how citizens are involved.

Bottom-up citizenship highlights the significance of local initiatives and activities taken by individuals to impact policy and society. Citizens themselves can initiate bottom-up collaboration between governments and the people. This approach considers citizens as proactive agents who take the initiative in figuring out problems, banding together, and driving change from the bottom-up. According to White (1996), bottom-up approaches enable citizens to participate effectively and be empowered. Thus, France have a republican/communitarian approach that encourages participative initiatives ever since the nation's citizenship approach was established.

The focus of top-down citizenship, in contrast, is on institutional and governmental entities as the main focus behind citizen engagement. Facilitating and regulating citizen interaction frequently relies on government policies, initiatives, and institutions. There, governments or institutions set the agenda for public engagement, which can be regarded as a more centralized and hierarchical approach. Due to urbanization, the local bourgeoisies, and efforts to create citizens before the individuals were formed civil, political, and social rights were largely determined and granted from above during both the last periods of the Ottoman Empire and the Republic's modernization process, in contrast to France. As a result, the phenomenon of citizenship has become controversial over time (Okutan, 2006). To sum up, in nations where citizenship evolved as a result of a revolutionary struggle, like France and America, a radical and active understanding of citizenship that involves participation emerges, whereas, in nations where citizenship is granted from the top down, such as Türkiye, there is a passive and passive understanding in terms of participation.

Although the developments in Türkiye are currently very similar to the republican French mode, in the French model, the active participation of citizens in collective decision-making processes is the essence of citizenship rights and freedoms. In the Turkish approach to citizenship, citizens have a passive, approving attitude toward national integrity rather than their active participation. The participation of the citizens in the Turkish approach was anticipated (Keyman, 2008).

Notably, civil society organizations remain significant institutions in a participative housing project. Eventually, the evolution of Türkiye's approach to the phenomena of participation is thought to be strongly tied to the autonomy of local governments. However, unlike in the West, the efficiency of local governments in our country is relatively new; these institutions originated as an extension of the central government that legitimizes decisions made in the nineteenth century, and they have not been able to acquire full autonomy until today. When the historical process is investigated, it becomes clear that the development of local government institutions in Türkiye, as in the West, was based on modernization. Municipalities, which arose at the end of the nineteenth century as a response to foreign state pressure to decide the political status and rights of minorities, were the first local government entities in the West (Keleş, 2012).

In the mid-nineteenth century, separate provincial administrations began to emerge as a result of reform movements and the formation of municipal organizations. These two-way administrations, which are viewed as a local extension of the central administration, are administration structures in which the local people have a say in the administration while being led by a governor selected by the center (Gözübüyük, 2006). Centralism hindered local governments from adopting an autonomous structure throughout the Republican period, as a result of the nation-state understanding adopted during the single-party period, which lasted until 1950. Local governments were still considered extensions of the central government, and they continued to operate primarily as auxiliary and supportive institutions with the idea that the country's unity and solidarity would be jeopardized (Koçak & Ekşi,

2010). With the end of the single- party era and the adoption of the 1961 constitution, democratic rights were attempted to be enlarged, and it was determined that the mayor would be elected by a majority vote. Most of the privileges provided to local governments were revoked with the 1982 constitution, which came into effect after the 1980 coup, and a strong and centralized management approach prevailed, putting pressure on local governments. Following this process, the dominance of the centralist tendency declined in comparison to the past, and the transformation of local administrations into autonomous organizations began. Many local governments are now attempting to develop their work by a participatory management model, and hence in the historical process, as a result of these policies. It attempts to remedy a problem with participation that cannot be assimilated.

On the other hand, when there was a severe housing scarcity in France following World War II, “Le Mouvement des Castors” (The Beaver Movement) (Figure 3.10) got its beginnings. A group of people who intended to alleviate the housing shortage by pooling their labor, finances, and abilities to build their housing founded it in 1948. This movement is typically built on cooperative principles. The group’s members collaborate to design, fund, and build their houses. Gardens, communal kitchens, and recreational areas are just a few examples of the facilities they frequently share (MHGA, 1983).



Figure 3. 10 Le Mouvement des Castors, 1954 (Wikimedia Commons, 2003)

The focus on self-building is a significant aspect of this movement where the members actively participate in the building process, which might encompass jobs like landscaping, plumbing, electrical labor, and carpentry. With this method, a strong sense of ownership and satisfaction was present in the project while also assisting in cost reduction.

The Castor Movement played a pioneering role in the development of participative housing models in France. It proved that cooperative, group-based housing strategies were not only workable but also effective financially. The continuous global acceptance and growth of cooperative and co-housing structures are evidence of this effect.

To find solutions to the problems of population different options were proposed. Another significant group for France that works to develop the relationship between society and the built environment using participative approaches is the cooperatives. This begins with a group of inhabitants often driven by social and environmental values and subject to the constraint of their real estate purchasing power. The cooperative movement of the 19th century gave rise to the first participatory housing

as we know it today. The first housing cooperative was founded in Paris in 1867 (Devaux, 2012), and it evolved following World War II with militant acts that encouraged self-construction and became organized over time (Vilandrau, 2002). The fundamental concept is to construct a shared living area that is customized according to the requirements of the participants. This concept led to the passage of the Siegfried Law in France in 1894. Following the passage of this law, HLM (Habitations à Loyer Moderé—Low Income Housing) productions started to appear and HBM (Habitations à Bon Marché—Affordable Housing) became a recognized government policy. After the Second World War, the French government strongly supported the concept of communal housing, which was created in the 1950s to meet the housing deficit (Aubrée, 2006).

France came to the forefront of the participative project literature with Le Corbusier's Unité d'Habitation and it is still seen as one of the best operating examples of his work (Figure 3.11). However, the social housing authorities adopted inexpensive, high-density blocks inspired by Le Corbusier's designs in the 1950s and 1960s and produced projects with shoddy construction and uninteresting designs.



Figure 3. 11 Unité d'Habitation by Le Corbusier, 1952 (Arkitektuel, 2018)

HLM housing is now subject to criticism, including the fact that living conditions are significantly lower than the national average, the majority of its users are socially excluded, and the majority of these housing locations have high crime rates. Today, in France the term "HLM" is frequently used to refer to unremarkable, unsightly

high-rise apartment buildings (Parent, 2006). Parent (2006), contends that these residential neighborhoods, where individuals appeared to be hoarding, had a significant influence on the 2005 Paris riots, making the following points:

"The lack of industry in the suburbs, minimal trade, subpar transit to the center, and the paucity of locations where people may spend their spare time in the Paris region have all served as the major propellant for this rise. In essence, suburbs are desolate places where the drab housing boxes have been heaped up to the highest point and where there is no possibility of sharing a community with the city core. The eruption was caused by the sensation of social exclusion, confinement in a ghetto, and imprisonment behind an impenetrable wall."

Besides that, the May 68 movement and the global social movements of the 1960s are known to have coincided with the pinnacle of the participatory housing method in France (Figure 3.12). Following this period, participatory knowledge with its self-management principles came to the fore (Bonnin, Reynaud, 1981; Bonnin, 1983; Bacqué, Vermeersch, 2007).



Figure 3. 12 Architecture is revolutionizing” Paris, 31 May 1968 (De Villepin, 2021)

It carried on from the global student uprisings that began in Paris, and by bringing about a social and political turning point in the area of architecture, it made it possible to approach the concept of participation on a political and intellectual level (Figure 3.13).



Figure 3. 13 “I participate, you participate, he participates, we participate, you participate, they profit” Atelier Populaires Poster. France, 24 May 1968 (Biffbang, 2016)

Following that, programs like the Cergy Pontoise Community Workshops and others were launched in 1974 to enhance living conditions through resident-built proposals. This was followed by the emergence of organizations like the MHGA (Mouvement des Habitats Groupé Autogéré—Self-Managed Group Housing Movement), which helped develop the participatory housing concept and create the participatory infrastructure for many projects that are still in existence today (D'Orazio, 2017).

According to the literature, the participatory housing strategy was mostly used in the 1980s in France, which demonstrated the political involvement of the participants in the process. In this context, the Aarhus Convention, which was signed in 1998 and came into effect in 2001, gave inhabitants of 46 member states of the European Union, including France, the right to participate in decision-making. This convention is a crucial legal framework for the growth of environmental democracy and has sparked

significant changes, including citizens' access to environmental information, increased environmental sensitivity, and the transparent disclosure of public administrations' decisions (La Convention d'Aarhus, 2014).

Another example for France is the SRU legislation, which was passed in December 2000 and is legally known as the Loi Solidarité et Renouvellement Urbain or Solidarity and Urban Renewal legislation. This law profoundly modifies town planning and housing law in France requires public consultations to be held perspicuously throughout the whole urban planning process (Macaire, 2009). The objectives of the law are developed around three requirements: greater solidarity, encouraging sustainable development, and strengthening democracy and decentralization (Loi Solidarité et Renouvellement Urbain (SRU), 2022). Moreover, in France, participation in renovation projects was mandated by law by the year 2002 (Querrien, 2005).

Associative structures are particularly important in the early stages of group formation. Habitat Groupé Autogéré employed this innovative strategy of associative structures for home development up to the 1990s, concentrating on mass housing and private suburban housing. As a third and intermediary option, new house manufacturing methods started to appear in the early 2000s (D'Orazio, 2017).

This innovative participatory housing production approach has acquired substantial support on the legal ground with the officialization of ALUR (Loi pour l'Accès au Logement d'un Urbanisme Rénové- Law on Housing Access and Renewed Urban Planning) on the 24th of March 2014 in France (Lefèvre, 2014). This law, also called the Duflo II Law, intends to increase housing access. People may participate in the design processes of housing developments according to this law, which is the most recent regulation to improve the dialogue between society and the built environment. Each person may thus actively participate in the procedures involved in for instance making financial choices as well as the development of their living spaces (Légifrance, 2014).

The law statute aimed to update and provide transparency for the public in zoning and urban planning regulations. Facilitating community engagement with local authorities and planners in the design and approval of such projects is helping the development of participatory housing initiatives. Tenants' rights are safeguarded by this law, which can be crucial in participatory housing initiatives where residents may have certain rights and obligations within their housing communities. Besides, the ALUR Law's and participatory housing's goals of promoting access to affordable housing might be complementary. Affordable housing alternatives and giving inhabitants influence over their living conditions are the shared objectives of participatory housing initiatives.

This legislation defines participatory housing as “A civic strategy that enables people to work together with legal entities, as needed, to define and design their homes and public spaces, construct or acquire one or more structures intended for their habitation, and, as necessary, ensure the management of those structures after they have been built or purchased.” (Légifrance, 2014). Additionally, this law encourages participatory housing, housing construction, and provision, as well as the development of collective spaces within the logic of sharing and solidarity among the inhabitants.

Today, from the point of view of the architects in France, participative architecture in housing is seen as a necessary step in a democracy. The participation of the inhabitants in the making of the city is a question of politics and citizenship. The architects worked for a long time for the elected officials, even for the king in the old regime, and were detached from the inhabitants but today the participation of the inhabitants in projects therefore profoundly modifies the working methods of the architects such as the tools used, the codes of representation or the design methods (Personal Archive, 2022).

Regarding that, to support participatory housing projects, RAHP (Le Réseau National des Acteurs Professionnels de l'Habitat Participatif- National Network of Professional Actors in Participatory Housing), an association for professional actors in the field, was founded in France in 2010. There have been initiatives to unite and

represent architects (Le Réseau National des Acteurs Professionnels de l'Habitat Participatif, nd.).

In France, it is believed that the link between society and architecture is determined by the society's shifting demands and goals as well as the need engendered by the nation's political, cultural, and economic ideals. According to France's educational program for architects, architecture is not just a profession taught at universities but also a culture that should permeate all levels of society. With this strategy, awareness campaigns are run throughout the nation to increase knowledge of architecture and the built environment, especially among children, teenagers, and the general public, beginning in the preschool years (Taşçı, 2014).

Numerous groups are attempting to increase awareness of architecture across various age groups and societal divisions in France. These organizations care about people having a say in their living areas and encourage participatory planning and design research in this context. They work to strengthen the relationship between society and architecture such as the example of CIAF (Conseil à l'International des Architectes Français-The International Council of French Architects), whose major objective is to support, assist, and represent French architects. The council also intends to foster professional and cultural exchanges among architects and professional organizations. This association, which promotes inter-architectural dialogue, researches cultural sustainability and environmental relations in the field of architecture, as well as the relationships of architects with other disciplines (Conseil à l'International des Architectes Français, nd.). Additionally, RMA (Réseau des Maisons de l'Architecture- Network of Chambers of Architects) can be considered as another example, which works on significant projects and initiatives in France and across the world intending to promote regional cultural development, offers national, public, and private sector connections. RMA is also concerned with fostering a culture of architecture and facilitating the dissemination of knowledge in society, to enhance civic engagement and peaceful cooperation in the incredibly complicated processes of architectural design that include concerns of urban scale and even landscape design. In this context, the center makes an effort to engage the community through informal

education by planning a variety of cultural activities, particularly geared at young people (Réseau des Maisons de l'Architecture, nd.).

Assistance specialists specialize in technological, economic, legal, and human support, based on their sensitivity or initial training. Another example of an organization that works with volunteer educators to create various thematic programs aimed at students, from kindergarten to high school, that help students better understand their surroundings and neighborhood is MdBA (Maison de Banlieue et de l'Architecture— Suburban and Architecture Association) (Maison de Banlieue et d'Architecture, nd.)

A similar organization called CAUE (Conseil d' Architecture, d'Urbanisme et de l' Environnement—Architecture, Urban Planning, and Environment Council) suggests events to raise young people's knowledge of architecture. Instead of using a didactic or formal approach, this organization, whose goal is to expand young people's architectural knowledge in schools, encourages everyone to be an actor and to consider the significance of their relationships with architecture. By examining the society, its cultural and social contexts, meanings, and democratic facets, this organization also seeks to obtain a critical viewpoint (Conseils d'Architecture, d'Urbanisme, et de l'Urbanisme, nd.).

As it can be observed, France has a large number of comparable organizations that strive to educate various age groups and social classes about architecture and built environment, and in a participative approach, non-governmental organizations are specifically mentioned as significant actors (Bacqué, Rey & Sintomer, 2005).

Looking at the situation in Türkiye, to enhance the dialogue between society and architecture there is no specific legislation governing participatory architecture. Participatory procedures may, however, be used for some projects, such as public projects, as required by laws and rules governing procurement. Additionally, non-governmental and professional groups like the Turkish Chamber of Architects promote inclusive architectural principles. The sustainability and applicability of initiatives to

community needs are factors that these organizations consider while developing various methodologies for evaluating public participation and opinions.

Like other professional organizations that represent architects, the Chamber of Architects generally works to promote public understanding and involvement in problems about the built environment while also campaigning for architectural and urban planning concerns. For example, The Chamber of Architects Branch of Izmir uses posters with various social themes on the importance of architecture and architects used at bus stops to emphasize their point. These posters were inspired by a work previously made in France and for both cases increasing societal awareness of the built environment was the goal (Personal Archive, 2022).

In the late 1980s civil society started to emerge in Türkiye due in part to some foreign political developments. The country reflected the outcomes of the Habitat II Istanbul Summit in 1996, which were conducted after the 1992 Rio conference by officially using the term Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) (Çopur, 2009). It was the first time that the notion was used and after that, events such as Local Agenda 21 started to highlight civil society in the case of Türkiye. The approach of Local Agenda 21 is a participatory framework for putting sustainable development into practice locally. It places a strong emphasis on working together to solve social, economic and environmental issues through community-driven action. For instance, the establishment of the city councils -a model of local governance- in 2005 served as the example for implementing the Local Agenda 21. This program's fundamental strategy is to gather the society under the Local Agenda 21 roof for solutions at a local level (Güneş, 2004).

The city councils, an entity that encourages participatory understanding, are responsible for the majority of the work about enhancing the dialogue between society and built environment. These are democratic institutions that serve as role models by uniting the community in setting local vision and objectives, addressing specific issues within the framework of citizenship legislation, and acting in a way that supports sustainable development (Özdemir, 2011). City councils are defined in the most

thorough way in Article 76 of the Municipality Law No. 5393 implemented in 2005. There, city council are defined as “organizations that develop mechanisms that will ensure public participation and control in governance within the framework of tolerance, respect and understanding, based on governance-oriented participatory democracy and prioritization of civil society”. The idea behind the objective of this initiative is to raise awareness of urbanity and improve local participation in city decision-making. Additionally, the city's historical character may be seen in the preservation of its cultural history and rising environmental consciousness. It is accessible to all individuals and serves as a forum where representatives from the national government, local governments, universities, non- governmental groups, and ordinary residents may interact.

Participatory democracy and sustainable urbanization are the driving forces behind the creation of city councils; but Türkiye has adopted the idea of city councils to ensure local participation, in line with the conditions created by the European Union for the development of local government policies within the framework of a more democratic structuring. Moreover, Şentek (2021) claims that the city council's work cannot be merged with the municipal administrations and that the government is reluctant to delegate power to the populace. The absence of structure and a goal-oriented understanding among individuals who attend the councils is a significant drawback as well.

Another study that supports the development of the relationship between architecture and society in Türkiye is the text called "Towards the Architecture Policy of Türkiye", which was created by the working group of the Architecture and Education Congress established in 2017. Following these preliminary studies, architecture is described as "a social right, a resource, some knowledge, and a part of our cultural and artistic lives" in the "Türkiye Architectural Education Policy" (TMMOB Chamber of Architects, 2020), which was published by the Chamber of Architects on February 20, 2019.

The Finnish Architectural Policy of 1988 served as the basis for this study, which aims to include not only the technical and scientific facets of architectural education but also notions like environmental sensitivity, protecting cultural heritage, preserving collective memory, and professional ethics. Here, it is advocated that architectural education should begin before primary education and offer a life-long education. The "Turkish Architectural Education Board" intends to develop a platform using this material that is accessible to professional engagement. Additionally, it aims to make significant educational strides and organize worldwide academic programs.

Raising social consciousness is one of the Architectural Policy's main objectives. Its goals are to increase societal awareness, disseminate the architectural culture, and accept each member of society as a user. The following issues should be taken into account in terms of society architecture out of the ones listed in the draft of this text from 2017;

- “First and foremost, the right of citizens to live in a safe and healthy environment is a right guaranteed by the Constitution. The society will demand a qualified built assurance of the Policy once it is realized that a qualified built environment will result in a quality living.”
- “A key component of creating a citizen-centered society is the decision-making process and the opportunities provided for citizen interaction. Information and open decision-making mechanisms are necessary for this. Citizens’ participation in these procedures is becoming more important, particularly in urban issues that affect the nearby environment.”

Consequently, this policy expresses citizen participation as a crucial notion for further research.

Additionally (TMMOB, 2020) as in France numerous associations councils, and foundations have been established to support discussions gatherings of upcoming research, and participatory understanding in the fields of architecture and education including MİV (Mimarlık Vakfı-Foundation of Architecture), MiMED (Mimarlık

Eğitimi Derneği-Architectural Education Association) and MİMAR (Mimarlık Araştırma Merkezi-Architecture Research Center).

Examining participatory projects reveals that they initially became well-known in Türkiye in the 1970s when it came to user satisfaction and design participation. First, studies were carried out to collaborate with social housing cooperatives, which were founded by the social democratic municipalities established throughout the nation with the 1973 local elections (Karasu, 2005).

Housing initiatives like Batıkent, Ege-Kent, Evka, and Doğukent come within the purview of the "producer municipality model," which sees municipalities actively participate in the creation of housing alongside cooperatives (Karasu, 2005). One of the fundamental methods that allow the user to take part in the process is the cooperative model, which incorporates mutual aid while working towards a common objective. The first instance of social housing where the user actively participates in the manufacturing process is the Batıkent project in Ankara (Figure 3.14), which is recognized as one of the participation models (Sander, 2009). For the sake of completing the project, almost the whole city of Batıkent has been expropriated. Since the application was made in a democratic, participatory way, Kent-Koop was created in response to this request in 1979, and it immediately began carrying out its objective. This project won the World Habitat Award in 1986 and it provides 50,000 cooperative housing units to low and middle-income populations by working with NGOs, the private sector, local government, and national government. It exemplifies how sizable new towns may be developed quickly and successfully utilizing the people's initiatives and the government's helpful assistance. It offers a workable substitute for the haphazard squatter settlements that keep growing in and around so many cities around the world, and it serves as an illustration of how such results can be quickly attained if all facets of the community, including the young people, are involved in their implementation (Batıkent Project, Ankara - World Habitat, 2018).



Figure 3. 14 Batıkent Housing Project in Ankara, 1986 (Batikent Project, Ankara - World Habitat, 2018)

When we examine Türkiye's legal framework concerning housing, since there is no direct law related to participatory housing, we can find that legislation No. 2487, introduced in 1981, was acknowledged as the country's first comprehensive housing legislation during the Republican era. It is well known that Law No. 2982, passed in 1984, encouraged the development of social housing (Pulat, 1992). The issue of society- architecture dialogue in the realm of law and participation is perceived to be handled mostly along the trajectory of mass housing development in Türkiye. The Metropolitan Municipality Law No.5216, which went into implementation in 2004, and the Municipality Law No. 5393, which went into implementation in 2005, must be mentioned for this reason. These laws helped to nationalize entrepreneurial municipalism, and with Law No. 4966 in 2003, TOKİ's authority was increased because of changes made to the Mass Housing legislation (Aksoy, 2008; TBMM, 2010); but with these operations, a participatory approach has been avoided in practices.

After the earthquakes, participatory housing concepts were investigated in Türkiye as part of disaster recovery and reconstruction initiatives. Especially after the Izmit earthquake in 1999 and the earthquake in Van in 2011, there has been an increased awareness of the need for housing alternatives. The basic idea of participative housing projects in post-earthquake scenarios in Türkiye can fulfill numerous objectives such as (Arslan & Unlu, 2006):

- Emergency shelter: Following an intense earthquake, there is frequently an immediate demand for temporary shelters for displaced individuals. Participatory housing concepts allow impacted communities to be involved in the design and building of these shelters, ensuring the cultural relevancy, safety, and urgent requirements of each victim.
- Society participation: The participation of the society has the potential to enable earthquake-affected communities to actively participate in the planning and the design of their housing. With this approach, the resident is fulfilling their specific needs and developing a sense of ownership and social togetherness.
- Psychological encouragement: For victims, post-earthquake situations can be frightening and stressful, and participatory housing can improve psychological well-being by giving opportunities for interaction and support.

Concerning this situation, Law No.6306 on “Transformation of Areas Under Disaster Risk” was enacted in 2012 but was met with a lot of criticism following the devastating earthquakes of 1999 and 2011. The issue of social participation is one of the primary complaints about how the law has been implemented. Urban participation was brought up on the agenda due to concerns that the locals were not informed properly, and that the participation procedure was not fully supplied. Furthermore, this law provided the federal government with broad authority and led to the abolition of ideas related to law enforcement oversight, accountability, and transparency (Dükkancı, 2013). Additionally, this law solely takes into consideration the economic and physical aspects of urban development, ignoring the social issues it would engender. Another critique, according to Genç (2014), is that the risk of earthquakes is used to justify urban transformation projects. The Chamber of Civil Engineers (İMO, 2019) also predicts that this law, a healthy urban renewal will not occur and the whole country, especially the metropolises, will turn into an area of rent.

After the devastating Kahramanmaraş earthquake (Figure 3.15) on February 6, 2023, the housing regulations have recently come up for debate once more to find more lasting answers. However, no long-lasting and definite legal regulation has been formed in this regard.



Figure 3. 15 Aftermath of Kahramanmaraş earthquake, 2023 (Medyascope, 2023)

While waiting for the central and local government's action plans on the subject, some non-governmental organizations supported the social needs of users, such as different groups under the name of Solidarity Architecture (Dayanışma Mimarlığı) (Figure 3.16). Some of them are Başka bir Atölye, Herkes için Mimarlık, Düzce Umut Atölyesi, Kuzguncuk Bostanı, Mimarlar Meclisi, Plankton Project and Yedikule Bostanları. Those groups functioned as civil societies, drawing attention to the importance of social participation in the aftermath of the earthquakes and responding rapidly to this issue.

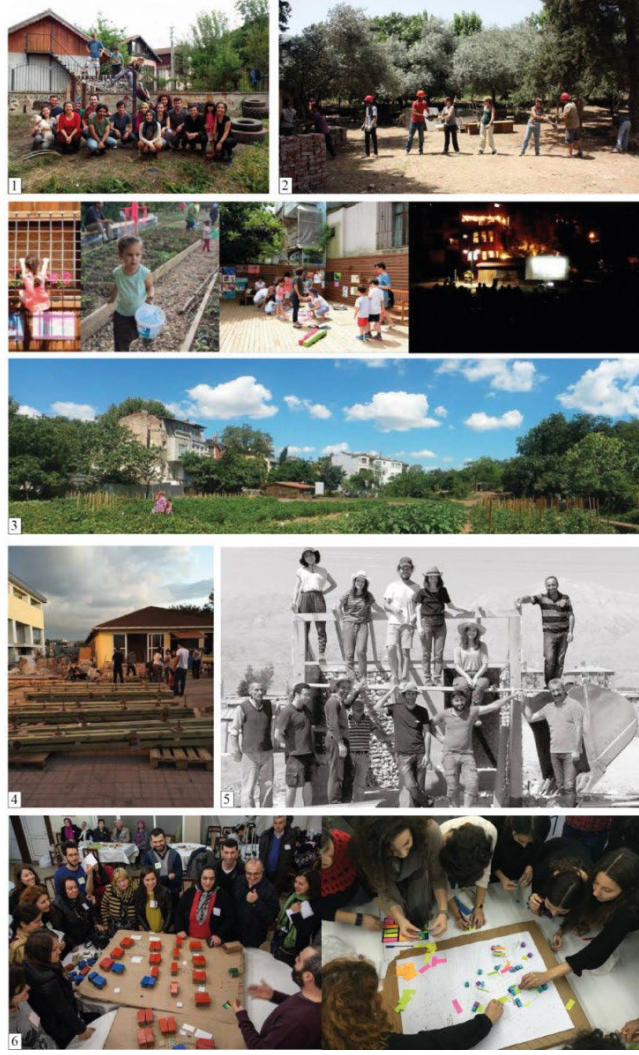


Figure 3. 16 Solidarity Architecture; (1) Başka Bir Atölye , (2) Herkes için Mimarlık, (3) Kuzguncuk Bostanı, (4) Mimar Meclisi, (5) Plankton Project, (6) Düzce Umut Atölyesi (Dayanışma Mimarlığı, 2017)

In conclusion, participation in housing refers to the engagement of individuals, communities and key stakeholders in housing design planning, development, management and policy-making choices, procedures and activities. This notion highlights the necessity of taking into account the opinions, needs, and preferences of individuals who will be immediately affected by housing decisions, as well as those of the larger community.

This chapter of the thesis contains a general brief introduction regarding participation in housing initiatives and is followed by an overview of the examples provided, taking into account significant housing projects from across the world.

This aims is aims to highlight the major approaches to the notion of participation in various locations. Looking at all these examples it is possible to say that participative processes in housing are seen in many parts of the world. Starting in Egypt, followed by England and different countries such as France, the users were involved in the planning and design processes of their living environment.

Comparing diverse examples of participatory housing, in essence, broadens the understanding of the idea of participation, fosters cross-cultural learning, and aids in the development of more effective and adaptive solutions for establishing more liveable environments. In addition, it is crucial to remember that participatory housing initiatives have evolved and assumed numerous characteristics in different cultural, social, and economic circumstances. After the examination of several examples from all around the world and then focusing on the participation in housing in France and Türkiye, this analysis from a broader framework serves as an initial basis for the comparison that will take place in the thesis's case study. Consequently, the following chapter compares the approaches of housing initiative participation in France and Türkiye throughout time examining the outcomes of the table created.

CHAPTER FOUR

COMPARISON OF PARTICIPATIVE HOUSING-THE EXAMPLES OF FRANCE AND TÜRKİYE

Looking at the investigation of the many meanings of participation throughout history; it is possible to say that it concentrates on the effects of societal changes on an individual's relationship with space, and hence on architecture. Parallel to the shift in architectural ideas, the actors participating in the architectural design process are questioned while talking about participation in housing. Moreover, in this study, numerous perspectives on society and the built environment have been investigated, especially focusing on housing typology because of its crucial role in this dual interaction. Participation in housing is particularly important for enabling community members to take part in the larger political process and influence decisions that shape society (Davidson, Johnson Lizarralde, Dikmen & Sliwinski, 2007). In the previous chapter, after giving general definitions of participatory housing a discussion of different project examples from across the world and especially France and Türkiye, to understand how the "user participation" technique in the architectural design process concentrated upon housing design is conducted.

For this chapter, analyzing selected cases while keeping in mind the first chapter of the thesis will allow an understanding of how the discourse of participative housing is impacted in addition to what may occur to it under various circumstances in looking at the examples of France and Türkiye. Consequently, to be able to draw a reasonable comparison between , the historical context of the compared nations and their method for participation in housing processes is outlined as a presentation of the participatory housing projects of France and Türkiye in the previous chapter.

Examining the larger social and political circumstances in which such housing projects function is important when analyzing the socio-political dimensions of participatory housing in France and Türkiye. Although the two nations may share similar objectives in the promotion of participatory housing, there are unique

cultural, political, and economic aspects in each country that affect how these initiatives are carried out and welcomed.

One of the most important points for this comparison is that France had a bottom-up approach to citizenship and Türkiye had a top-down one, as previously stated. A radical and active understanding of citizenship that involves participation emerges in countries where citizenship was established through a revolutionary struggle such as France. In contrast, there is a passive and passive concept of participation in countries where citizenship is given from the top-down, such as Türkiye. The two opposing perspectives on how individuals engage with the government and participate in politics differ in their areas of interest, the origin of initiatives, and the methods through which citizens are involved.

While the importance of local efforts and actions performed by individuals to influence policy and society is highlighted by bottom-up citizenship, institutional and political institutions are primary foci of citizen participation in the top-down citizenship approach. Government policies programs and institutions are regularly used to facilitate and regulate citizen interactions. Bottom-up strategies, in accordance with White (1996), empower and enable individuals to engage successfully. As a result, ever since the nation's citizenship concept was created, France has had a communitarian approach that supports participatory efforts.

Besides that, entities from civil society continue to play a big role in participatory housing projects. Local government autonomy is seen to have had a significant influence on how Türkiye has approached the phenomenon of participation. The effectiveness of those local governments in Türkiye is new compared to France.

Looking at the historical journey of participative housing in France it is visible that it has some origins from the Post-World War II period. It started with the “Le Mouvement des Castors” who were the pioneers of the concept. After this, this movement gained momentum in the 1950s and 1960s with numerous groups forming across France. The French government recognized the value of participative housing

and provided it in the form of legal frameworks. With this assistance, the movement was able to grow and become more accessible to a wider range of people. Participatory housing developed into a variety of formats in France over time, including cooperatives, co-housing, and self-managed housing organizations. These ideas adjusted the cooperative and shared responsibility concepts to fit various housing requirements and preferences. After May 1968, the involvement of the inhabitant was re-questioned and urban projects and housing cooperatives were incorporated into participatory housing, in addition to single- family housing.

Participatory housing has seen a resurgence in popularity in France during the past few decades. Modern projects frequently emphasize community and cooperation while focusing on sustainability, energy efficiency, and creative architectural design. Moreover, the legislative framework “Loi Alur” approved in 2014 supporting projects for participatory housing built in France covers cooperatives and self-managed housing developments.

The research's findings indicate that participatory studies in France place a greater emphasis on the typology of housing; because in France, for the public to experience a different way of life, participation in the housing production process is desired (Bruneau, 2016 & Ministères écologie énergie territoires, 2020).

In terms of numbers, “Habitat Participatif France” (France Participatory Housing official website, 2021) reports that since 2009, there has been an average yearly growth of 18% in the number of participatory housing in France. While this number was 44 annually in 2009, it has increased to 270 participative projects annually in 2020-2021 (Figure 4.1) and has increased to 300 in recent years. While the number of participatory housing projects completed in 2018 was 576, this number increased to 900 housing projects, which corresponds to approximately 9,000 flats, according to the statistics for 2021.

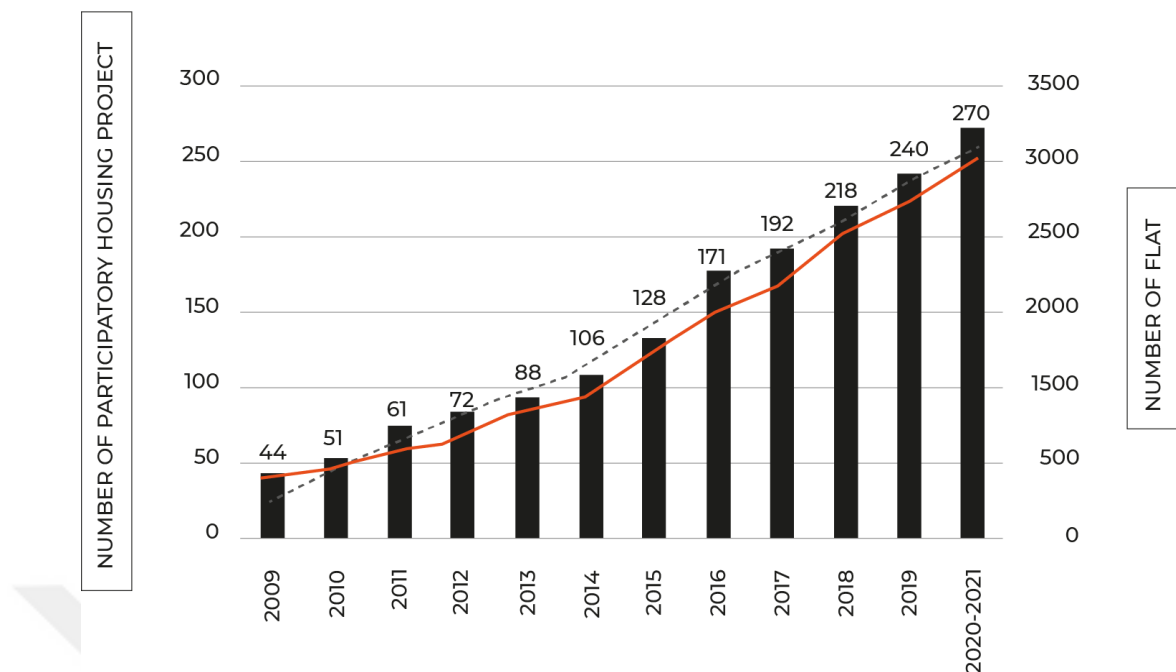


Figure 4. 1 Development of participatory housing projects over the years (reproduction from L'Habitat Participatif, n.d.)

Based on the increase rates between 2009 and 2021, it is intended to construct an average of 2400 flats per year and a total of 15,000 participatory residential flats in France until 2030 (Figure 4.2).

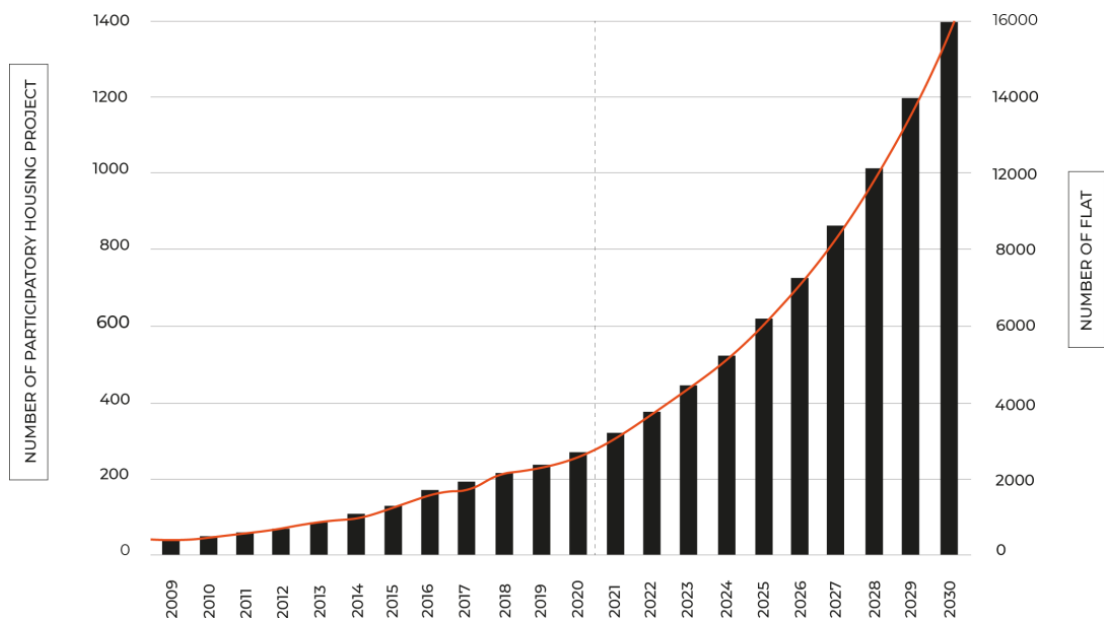


Figure 4. 2 Development of participatory housing projects over the years and foresight for future years (Reproduction from L'Habitat Participatif, n.d.)

Participatory housing projects have shown a rising attitude when measured statistically through time, with the first consistent increase particularly visible in the early 2000s (Figure 4.3). A second major rise started in 2014 as a result of the ALUR Law, which went into effect in 2014. Finally, the number of participatory housing projects in 2020-2021 was determined as 120-140 per year.

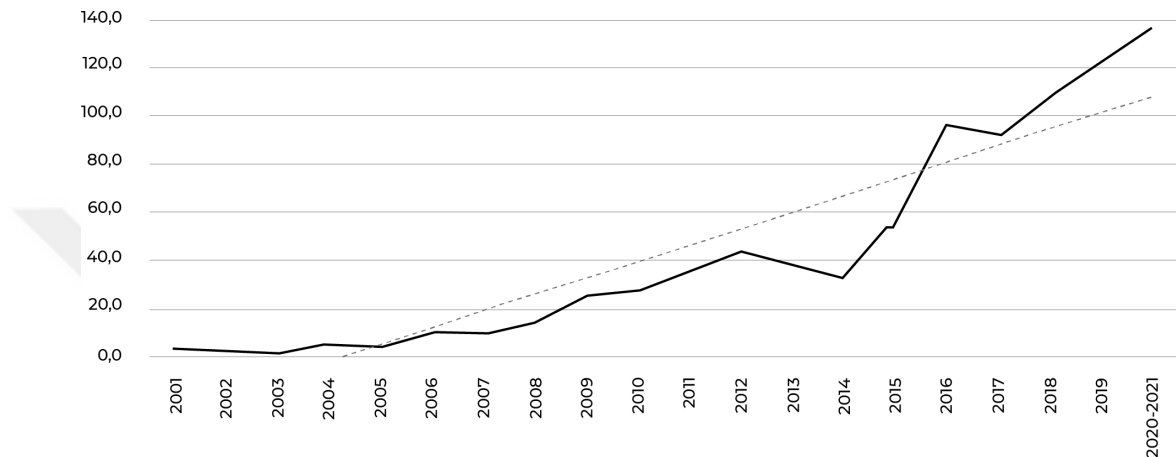


Figure 4. 3 Starting date of participatory housing projects and their development over the years (Reproduction from L'Habitat Participatif, n.d.)

In France, it is challenging to generalize and say that the majority of participatory housing projects are situated in a certain region since the projects are present in urban areas, in rural and also in semi-rural areas. An examination of the projects' locations reveals that they are dispersed throughout the country. In those years, there was greater growth in rural areas and city centers such as Paris, Rennes, and Lyon.

Urban centers are more likely to host such projects due to the abundance of resources, amenities, and a greater number of people who are interested in alternative housing solutions. Diverse groups of individuals are drawn to urban surroundings by alternate housing types and collaborative living arrangements. However, this does not imply that rural regions lack participatory participative housing. There are several instances of these initiatives in rural France, where communities are eager to build self-sufficient and sustainable living spaces. These initiatives frequently emphasize sustainable techniques and shared resources.

To have a representation of the current distribution of housing projects in France, a regional map is illustrated below (Figure 4.4) with almost 1,000 participative housing projects. The databases of participatory housing in France on the official website, with my personal additions, serve as the source for the way of getting the maps. This database taking place on several websites is created by and in consultation with all stakeholders in the topic to avoid multiple censuses and to allow updating of the data. It has been determined to be accurate by my research.

Looking at the areas where the participative housings are located, there are 336 participative housing projects in rural areas (rural area, center of rural area, and isolated rural area), 419 in urban areas (urban areas and peri-urban areas) and 18 in them are non-defined.

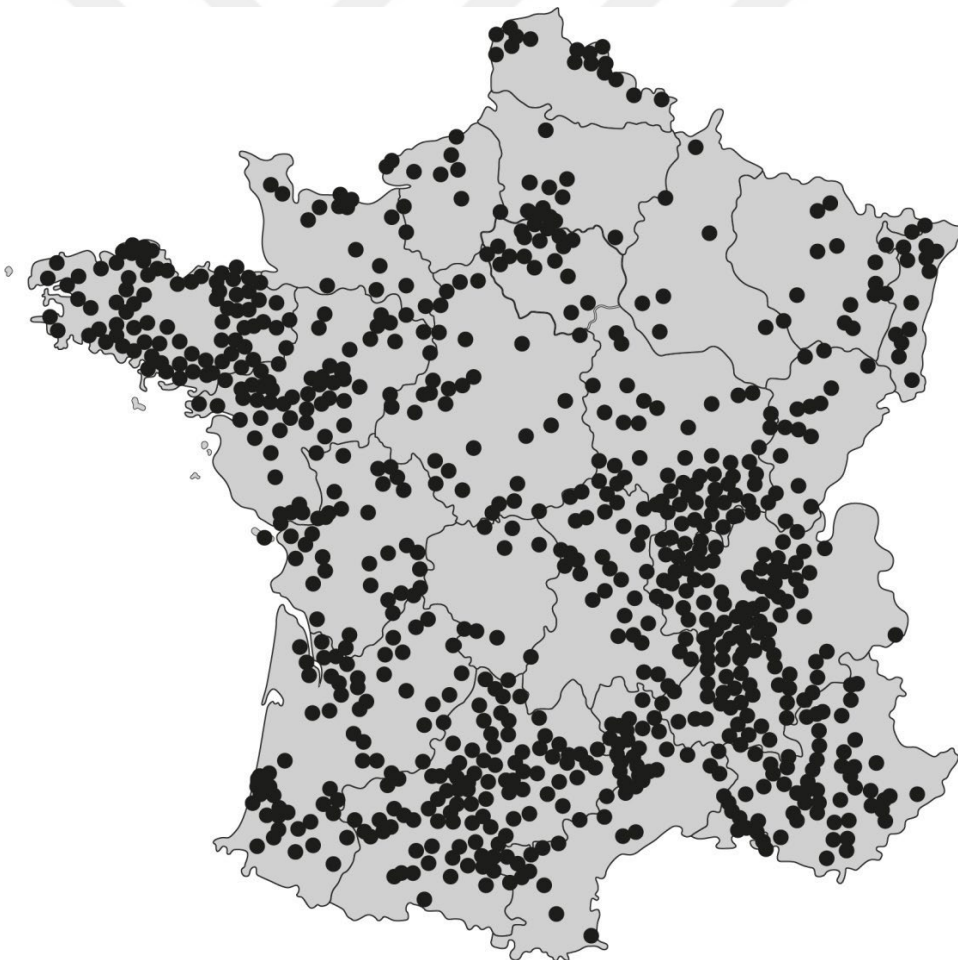


Figure 4. 4 Geographical overview of the participative housing projects in France (Personal archive, 2023 and data from Vue Sur L'ensemble Des Lieux, n.d.)

In France, there are many legal situations within the scope of participatory housing projects (Figure 4.5). To summarize these, this status, which we encounter mainly as SCI (Société Civile Immobilière-Real Estate Company) and SCIA (La Société Civile Immobilière d' Attribution-Real Estate Company of Attribution), and its purpose is to divide into shares intended to be allocated to partners in ownership or use. SCIAPP (La Société Civile Immobilière d'Accession Progressive à la Propriété- The Civil Real Estate Company for Progressive Access to Ownership) aims to hold, manage, and maintain buildings contributed by a moderate rental housing organization to divide them into fractions that are intended to be leased to natural persons under certain resource conditions and that can be given as property to partners. In addition, SCCC (La société civile coopérative de construction-Civil construction cooperative society) was established by the Chalandon Law in 1971 to replace the old allocation cooperatives. The purpose of SCCC is the construction, management, and maintenance of one or more buildings for sale or allocation to partners. Since the core of the cooperative idea is to eliminate economic intermediaries, it can only operate with its members, which has the effect of reducing the cost of construction.

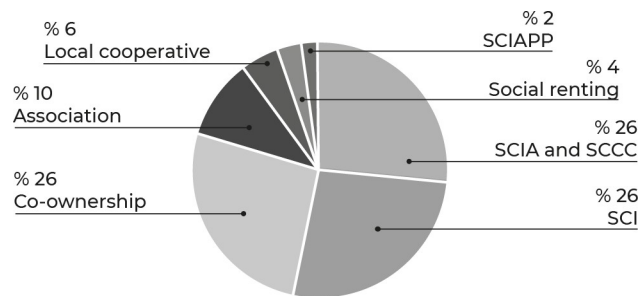


Figure 4. 5 Legal status/situation of participative housing projects (Reproduction from L'Habitat Participatif, n.d)

The 45 projects in the table are selected considering different criteria. Most of the selected projects are located in big cities and in the surroundings of the capital, which is a significant point to analyze the importance of addressing the high expense of housing in metropolitan areas (Figure 4.6).

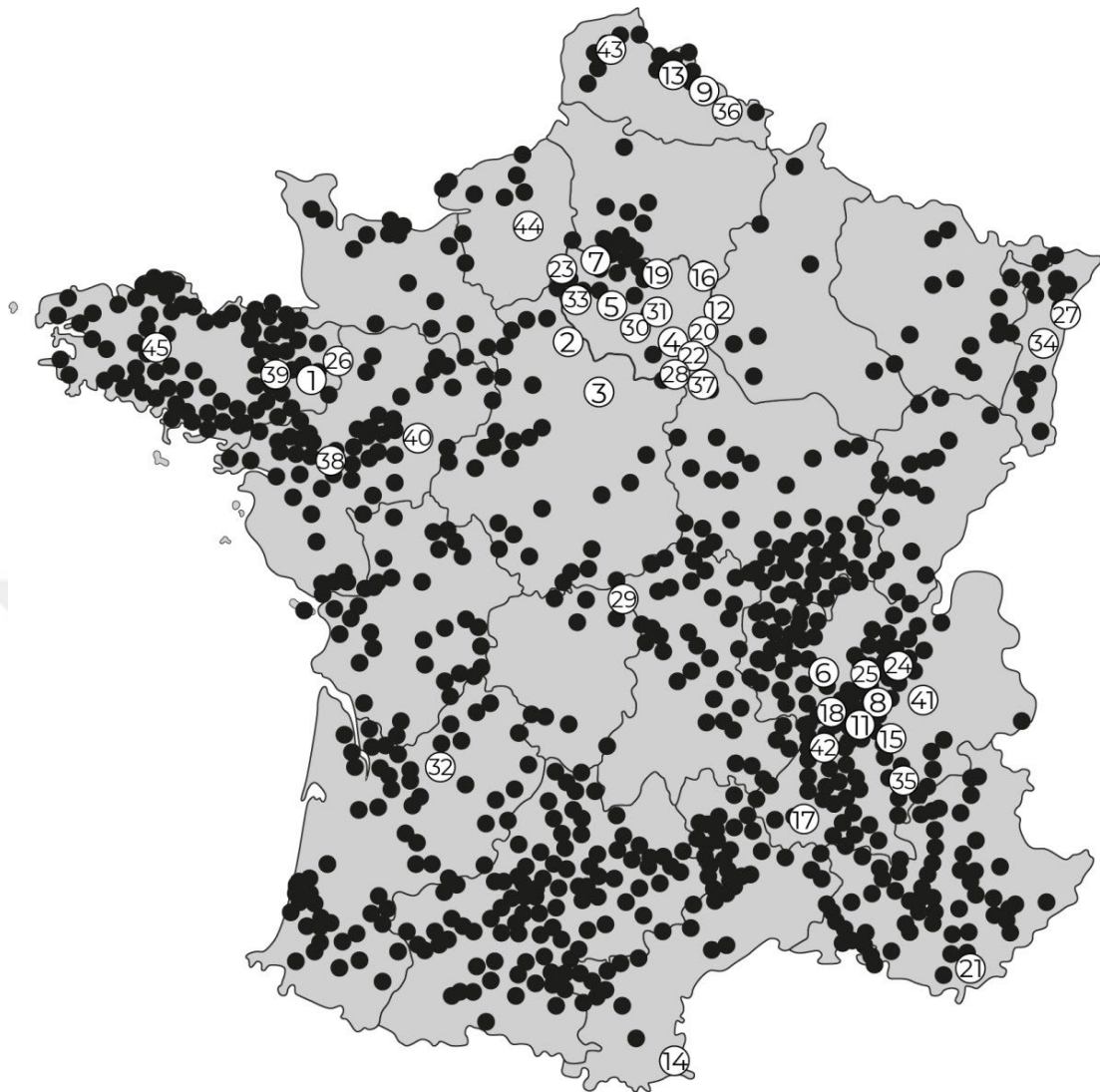


Figure 4. 6 Geographical overviews of the selected participative housing projects in France

For example, the city of Lyon is known for its active participatory movement. Numerous cooperative and co-housing initiatives in the city emphasize resource sharing, sustainable living, and civic involvement. Some of these initiatives are made especially to accommodate households and people looking for alternate housing.

One of the projects selected (32) in Bordeaux is also important because it is the representation of a different alternative for participatory housing initiatives. Bordeaux is known for participatory initiatives that encourage intergenerational living and environmentally friendly practices.

While concrete steps are being taken in France to further the society-architecture dialogue, studies are not yet carried out at the same pace in Türkiye. In France, there are almost 1,000 participative housing initiatives, but this number is approximately 10 for Türkiye in total (Figure 4.9). Since the data used for the table is restricted only 45 projects for France and 10 projects for Türkiye were investigated.

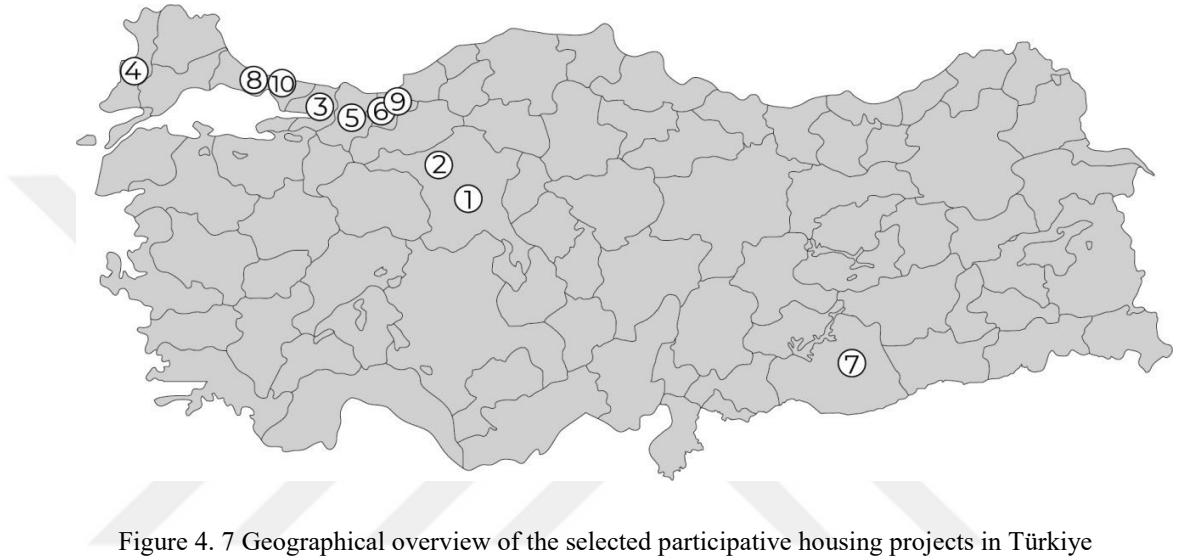


Figure 4. 7 Geographical overview of the selected participative housing projects in Türkiye

Table 4.1 Comparison of participative housing projects in Türkiye and France

[illegible]

The findings obtained when the table is evaluated are diverse and it is believed that it is crucial to take the theoretical background described in the previous part of the two compared cases to present a valuable comparison.

Since the data used for the tale is restricted, considering the numbers reached through the research it is evident that there are quantitatively more projects developed employing a participatory housing approach in France compared to Türkiye.

For the geographical comparison, it is challenging to draw broad conclusions about France from the geographical distribution of the projects because participatory housing projects may be found in both large cities and small rural. For Türkiye, along with the aforementioned 6306 law, the participatory approach is focused on earthquake zones such as Beriköy Housing, Beyciler Houses Social Housing or Düzce Hope Homes and urban transformation areas such as Edirne Cumhuriyet Mahallesi or Sulukule Alternative Project.

In France, community participation studies have evolved into a lifestyle, whereas they first appeared in Türkiye as problem-focused initiatives following different crises such as urbanization challenges or natural disasters like earthquakes. In France, society's input and participation in planning and design processes are encouraged the opposite of Türkiye's. Today, regarding the projects examined it is clear that participative housing is still developing and innovating in France. New initiatives investigate cutting-edge funding strategies, combine eco-friendly technology, and handle social demand including intergenerational living and aging in situ. Moreover, the participative housing experience in France has a global impact, being an inspiration for similar groups and efforts abroad.

One of the first participative housing projects was conducted in 1966 in Türkiye and in 1972 in France. Once more, the most current participative housing project was developed in Türkiye in 2016 in İstanbul, while in France the date is more recent and a project constructed in 2022 is found. Moreover, while citizen participation is often

encouraged in small-scale projects in France, it has come to the fore more in mass housing in Türkiye. While there are legal frameworks for participatory housing in France and studies are conducted within a legal framework, there are no legislative regulations to enhance community-architecture discussion and boost involvement in Türkiye. With the legal support of the ALUR Law in 2014, the number of projects created with the concept of participatory housing has increased in France. This shows that the ALUR Law is a milestone for participative architecture in housing since it formalized users' right to have a say in their housing in France but there is no similar law and subsequent implementation in Türkiye.

During the process, different actors such as the future inhabitants, the architect, municipalities, and other institutions are involved. In participative housing projects in France, the architect as future inhabitant and co-builder is present in general as explained in Figure 2.1. In Türkiye, since the projects are generally conducted as a response to the earthquakes different charity foundations and cooperatives are taking their place as actors besides municipalities and inhabitants. Moreover, in projects in Türkiye, the architect is more in the role of “master” (figure 2.11) which causes the process to produce tokenistic results.

Regarding the projects analyzed, it is evident that both in France and Türkiye different methods and techniques are proposed such as meetings, interviews, questionnaires, making models, and different ateliers or workshops. For this, there is not a clear difference between the two selected cases. Similar methods or techniques are used in both nations. Therefore, the point that is differing can be defined as the level of application of these methods. In some cases, the methods proposed are not completely applied due to different problems of coordination. Additionally, the subsequent step is crucial: How are the outcomes of these methods used? There, in the case of Türkiye, tokenistic approaches are seen. For instance, meetings or discussions with future users are conducted but their opinions are not taken into account. The meetings are just held as a formality.

It is also quite challenging to put a concrete difference between the stages of participation of the users when comparing the projects in France and the ones in Türkiye. The user can be involved before the project starts –the consultation, during the project, and even after the project is completed. In addition to engaging during the process, participation is also apparent in the projects in France once they are ready to be lived. Since participative and collaborative living is seen as a lifestyle in France, it is evident that the participation of the users in the maintenance and management of common spaces is a normalized action.

On the other hand, while there are different legal statuses in France such as cooperative status, association status, SCIA, SCI, and SCIAPP in Türkiye there is no specific status except the status of a cooperative. Moreover, since cooperatives are the primary starting point for community participation studies in France, the majority of projects also function as cooperatives. The cooperative and the project work directly together, and the project typically develop from the cooperative. Türkiye's circumstance is completely the contrary in this regard.

When taking into account the level of participation, it has been shown that Türkiye experiences mostly the type of participation defined as tokenism or pseudo-participation. The level of participation is higher regarding participative housing projects in France. In the case of many projects in Türkiye, inhabitants who were supposed to participate in the process of housing are encouraged to take part in meetings and discussions, but their opinions are frequently ignored. As a result, participants are frustrated and disappointed. Also, those tokenistic housing projects in Türkiye include engaging just a few people in the community or organizations, frequently excluding others who have opposing ideas or are a part of marginalized or minority groups. In addition, being used for the comparison, Arnstein's and White's degrees of participation clearly show that the categorization of a developed nation and a developing nation varies. In some situations, the categorization is differing and for instance for some projects in the table, while the highest level of participation (Citizen Power) is employed for Arnstein, a lower level (Tokenism) is defined

regarding the categorization of White. The categorization can therefore change according to the level of development of a nation.

To sum up it is possible to list the differences regarding different factors between France and Türkiye:

Participative housing in France:

- **Legislative conditions:** Participatory housing initiatives in France are supported by an adequate legal system. Participative housing generally working as collective housing initiatives has legal legitimacy and assistance thanks to the ALUR Law, which was approved in 2014. This has enabled it more accessible for these initiatives to spread throughout the country.
- **Different models:** Different models of participative housing in France can be found such as co-housing communities, eco-villages, and urban cooperative housing.
- **Location:** Participatory housing initiatives are present in France's urban and rural regions. Repurposing existing structures or creating new ones with shared amenities and social areas is common in urban development and regeneration.
- **Societal approach:** Since France adopted a bottom-up approach in the past this attitude has persisted to the present day and gives importance to the right of decision, right of collaboration, and to community engagement. This attitude is a milestone for the participation in housing projects in France. Furthermore, French participatory housing projects place a high emphasis on community participation, unity in society, and collaborative decision-making which is why the residents are actively involved in the process of planning, design, and administration of their living environments.
- **Trend:** Participating in the process is more than a housing arrangement. Participative housing is considered a lifestyle in French

society.

- **Degree of participation:** The degrees of participation used in the process of participative housing projects in France are generally situated under the main title of “degrees of citizen power” looking at the Ladder of Arnstein (1969) and White (1996). This means that the inhabitants are actively engaged in planning, designing, and administrating their environments. The opinions of the users are valued and influence the decisions that define their living space. This generates a high level of user satisfaction, helps to develop community cohesion, and creates a more responsive solution that adjusts to the needs and desires of the users.

Participative housing in Türkiye:

- **Legislative conditions:** Participatory housing is not covered by Türkiye’s legislation, which influences the legitimacy and legal standing of participative housing initiatives. This lack of legal status is resulting in a paucity of participative housing projects in Türkiye.
- **Trend:** Although co-housing and other alternative housing models are becoming more popular, participatory housing initiatives are not as widely popular in Türkiye as they are in France.
- **Degree of participation:** Looking at the data collected, tokenism is a popular approach in participative housing projects in Türkiye that is highly problematic; because it is a superficial effort to involve users without giving them meaningful decision-making power. This can cause different negative results such as several missed opportunities, disempowerment, damaging trust because of dishonesty, loss of reputation, or even different negative effects on mental health that can cause feelings of frustration in the user.
- **Location - Facing the crisis:** Following the earthquakes, participatory housing strategies have been investigated in Türkiye as part of the recovery and reconstruction process, and according to the table,

most of the participative housing projects are located in post-earthquake areas. There has been an understanding of the necessity for housing options that satisfy both urgent shelter requirements and long-term community resilience in the wake of significant earthquakes, such as the 1999 Izmit earthquake and the 2011 Van earthquake.

- **Societal approach:** In the past in Türkiye, centralization and top-down approaches were present. Urban planning and housing policies have historically been heavily influenced by institutional and governmental authorities, with minimal involvement from local populations. Currently, the advantages of integrating society in decision-making processes are becoming more widely acknowledged and, since it is a minimal step, the importance of society in influencing urban development and housing policy, as well as participatory housing projects, has drawn growing interest in Türkiye. Türkiye is still trying to progress in these terms; but in recent years, there have been initiatives to incorporate communities and individuals in housing and urban planning decision-making processes.

In this chapter, in light of differences in the relationships between society and architecture and participation-oriented research, Türkiye was compared to France after purposefully selecting the two nations. Various criteria and the pertinent details of each project were listed and displayed on a table along with a selection of participatory housing projects from both nations. All the projects are detailed according to their name, execution date, locations, capacity, the actors involved, the way that they are involved in the process in which stage they are involved and the legal process and status.

In addition thanks to the chapter where the levels and degrees of participation are examined the table presents a comparison of different levels and degrees of each project to be able to understand the main approach to participative housing projects in Türkiye and France. The most important point is that, France's participatory housing projects profit from a strong legal foundation and a long history of

grassroots initiatives. While these initiatives are still in the initial stages, there is significant interest in Türkiye in looking into alternate housing options to solve the challenges associated with urbanization and disaster recovery. The creation and execution of participatory housing projects are also impacted by the cultural and legal differences between the two societies.

Ultimately, the following chapter covers the conclusion of the thesis and proposes several suggestions for the situation of Turkey to enhance the relationship between society and their living space by using the method of urban participation in design and planning processes.



CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Society and architecture are interwoven and have an impact on one another. Architecture adapts to societal change, and as a result, it helps define and form the society it serves. Because architecture extends beyond the walls and has a considerable influence on the social aspect of life, it is essential to understand the connection and conversation that exists between society and the built environment. Architecture is the reflection of a society and embraces the identity of the individual and the collective form that operates at different scales.

Churchill (1943) has remarked, "We build our walls, then our walls build us," and this illustrates how crucially important architecture is in the formation of social identity and personality. Architecture and society are inseparable and have evolved together over time. They are related not only on a social level but also politically and economically. Every person in society is a social being that is bound to space and the interaction between people and space is influenced by both the social and physical contexts. According to this discourse, it is believed that architects and planners have a tremendous deal of responsibility because their work significantly affects society and people's daily lives.

In the past, there have been societal issues brought on by the connection between society and architecture that have not always resulted in constructive development. Misunderstandings between the two sides of this bilateral relationship have persisted over time, leading to both negative development of the built environment and the inability of society to comprehend architecture. The users are defined as individuals who are affected in any way by the architectural design and disconnections between these people who make up society and architecture/architects are seen as a major lack of dialogue. In this sense, participation is one of the strategies suggested in this dialogue for integrating people into the built environment. Users' most fundamental right and civic duty is to have a say in the built environment, a topic of several

studies in the literature (Towards the Architectural Policy of Türkiye, 2007, the ALUR, 2014 the European Urban Charter, 1992).

Participation, the major topic of many studies today, has influenced the course of history in many domains, including social, political, and economic. However, due to its complicated structure, participation cannot be fully described. The ability to contribute to the design of one's living area might be considered a pivotal moment in the development of the built environment. When talking about the right to citizenship, it's important to take into account the fact that the user may discuss and have a say in the living area they've built. A democratic society should be open to including affected citizens in all activities since participation is a key component of democracy. Harvey (2006) defines "right to the city" as the ability of the populace to alter the built environment to fit their requirements. This is a social right originating from the shared characteristic of being an urbanite rather than a necessity, and in this situation, the common interest of the people is taken into consideration rather than the private interests of an individual. Based on this, this research discussed the topic of dialogue of society- architecture as well as the impact of participation on this discourse. One of the motivations for emphasizing participatory housing design in the sample selection is to use a participatory approach to find solutions to issues with the nation's housing stock.

The research sought to provide an answer to the question of how society and the built environment may interact, taking into account various national contexts and beginning at a general and global level. As a result, the study had a narrative structure and ended with a more condensed framework. By concentrating exclusively on two cases that were compared and one typology that was chosen due to its relevance in this particular scenario, the local scale and dwelling typology helped to better grasp how the discourse might differ. The user's participation was recommended as a way to improve the dialogue, and it is looked at throughout the thesis to determine how important it is for the particular dual interaction.

Many theorists who stated that allowing users to have a say in their environment is a positive idea have made and examined the concept of participation in many definitions in the literature, such as democratic participation, community participation, civic participation, and public participation. Even if the notion of participation includes several assessment metrics and definitions, when examined in its entirety, all of them may be distilled into a few basic ideas. "Reaction, interaction, communication, cooperation, and sharing" are the shared realities and ideals of all disciplines, according to the description of the notion of participation. The drive for innovative, democratic, and sociable designs has led to the active role of the architect currently emerging.

In this context, the paper discusses France, one of the first nations to industrialize, which has recently undergone a social revolution and achieved significant strides in its involvement in architectural society. Our nation has set an example in France in several different disciplines. The overall framework of the research is comprised of studies that have been done in France to enhance the communication between society and architecture, particularly the participatory housing construction processes.

With the industrialization and growth of the urban population throughout the world, it is well-known that the housing issue has begun to get attention. Housing policy is genuinely determined by economic and demographic trends, not only in France but in every other nation. As a result, in nations that have an edge in this regard, participatory housing policies evolve quickly, and the community-architecture dialogue sees success. Recent research, in particular, demonstrates the critical role housing projects play in ensuring that residents of a community are involved in the larger political process and have a voice in the choices that affect the neighborhood (Davidson, Johnson, Lizarralde, Dikmen & Sliwinski, 2007). In this regard, it is deemed crucial and imperative for our nation to address research in the area of participatory housing along the lines of the society-architecture discourse.

Looking at the comparison of these two nations, it is obvious that there are many variations between them in terms of **architectural policy and national education**

policies, starting with the evolution of **the notion of democracy**, when comparing the continuous interaction between society and architecture in Türkiye and France. As a result, the link between society and architecture was used to compare Türkiye and France in this study, and participation-oriented studies were examined within this framework. The example of France, which, unlike Türkiye, has developed with democracy from the bottom up, has been stressed in this study, which emphasizes the importance of participatory politics in the relationship between society and architecture. In Türkiye, civil, political, and social rights are secured by demands from above rather than through uprisings and demands from below. Thus, looking at the historical process, since the concept of citizenship is defined from above; it is different from the understanding of citizenship in France and becomes passive.

In summary, relating to **the societal approach**, France has a Bottom-up approach; whereas Türkiye has a Top-Down one and this impacts the relationship between society and architecture. While individuals at the bottom communicate from below, a top-down approach involves an authoritative figure directing and organizing people. Top-down understanding refers to the conventional approach of performing in-depth technical study based on plans that are centrally implemented and meticulously carried out by qualified personnel to meet centrally defined goals, just like with the planning and architectural procedures. To address numerous financial limitations and administrative inefficiencies in resolving citizen or community concerns, bottom-up understanding has been developed. Because of the past differences in how Türkiye and France have operated as societies, it should be remembered that these distinctions naturally produce different outcomes and have a direct impact on how society and architecture interact.

Although participative housing is **a trend** and has become a lifestyle for French people this is not that popular in Türkiye since it is possible to see several theoretical studies about it. Considering numerical data, it is evident that there are more participative housing projects in France than in Türkiye. This low number of projects in Türkiye shows that France has a longer and more serious history of participative housing.

Looking at **the geographical locations**, while it is possible to see projects spread all over the country this situation is not similar in Türkiye. Participative housing projects are mainly conducted in post-earthquake regions because this strategy has been investigated as part of the recovery and reconstruction process.

Looking at **local initiatives**, in France, several research have been undertaken, organizations and institutions have been set up, and numerous laws have been implemented to assist society in the process of participative housing. However, unlike France, the effectiveness of local governments in Türkiye is relatively new; these institutions emerged as an extension of the central government that legitimized the decisions taken in the 19th century and did not achieve complete autonomy until today. These attempts are still ongoing to enhance the interaction between society and architecture.

Since **the actors** involved in the process in Türkiye and France are quite similar, the architect in Türkiye tends to act more as a "master" in participatory initiatives. To provide a democratic ground the architect should act as a co-builder as in the case of many projects carried out in France. Therefore, in the case of Türkiye not only the society but even the architect needs to be informed about participatory procedures to prevent tokenistic situations. Instead of seeing himself as the project manager, the architect should see himself as one of the participants who are actively involved. Moreover, it might be advised for Türkiye to review theoretical studies and put the information into practice to propose housing projects where the user can be involved and where he can take decisions about his living space because the users, not the architects, are the true professionals.

Moreover, to keep people informed and involved throughout the many project phases of participative housing, user engagement should be a continuous activity. To do this, it is crucial to develop clear communication routes. Since both countries employ techniques that are relatively similar to one another, the applicability and results differ, and in some situations this lack of cooperation caused initiatives in

Türkiye to produce tokenistic results. Türkiye should suggest policies and put them into action during the participative process to counteract these tokenistic results.

In addition, it should be noted that informing the society is important when it comes to participative initiatives. By increasing public awareness and knowledge about their right to be involved in the creation of their surroundings a more informed and engaged society can be created as in the case of France. Regarding civic education, Türkiye is viewed as being underdeveloped. As a solution to this, Türkiye should include additional policies related to architecture and education. In general, efforts to inform society combine formal education with community activities, public awareness campaigns, and governmental initiatives. In creating and carrying out these educational efforts, governments, educational institutions, nonprofit organizations, and community groups frequently play crucial roles. Türkiye should thus prioritize these institutions more.

On the other hand, **the phases in which the user is involved** vary depending on the project and the procedure, but like in France, the maintenance and the management of common spaces can be done cooperatively in Türkiye. Participatory design may someday become a lifestyle in Türkiye if it is implemented in this manner.

Regarding **the legislative context** of the comparison; France has had an established legislative framework in place for approximately a decade; conversely, Türkiye has built new involvement mechanisms with new legal laws, particularly in recent years. There are still gaps in the strengthening and execution of these systems in both nations, but, certainly, France is still in the lead over Türkiye in this regard. Additionally, while more projects based on the idea of participatory housing have been developed in France, especially since the ALUR Law, which took effect in 2014 and formalized users' rights to have a say in their housing, there isn't a law like that in Türkiye, nor has it been put into practice. The majority of initiatives operate as cooperatives as they are the main starting point for community involvement

studies in France. The project and the cooperative collaborate closely, and they often grow out of the cooperative. The situation in Türkiye is the opposite in this sense.

To sum up, while France is taking proactive measures to advance the interaction between society and architecture, Türkiye is not yet moving forward with research at the same rate. While research is undertaken inside legal frameworks and participatory housing is subject to legal procedures in France, there are no legislative restrictions governing participative architecture in Türkiye. Looking at the table, community participatory studies began as problem-focused projects in Türkiye after the earthquakes, but they have become a way of life in France. In contrast to Türkiye, France encourages public input and participation in planning and design procedures.

Regarding participative housing initiatives on the table, **the level of participation** is mostly stronger in France. Türkiye has been observed to mostly engage in the degree of tokenism. In this regard, Türkiye could consider focusing more on participatory processes and not wait for a crisis to happen before finding answers, even if doing so would improve the dialogue between the user and the environment. To effect significant change and build genuine inclusion, it is necessary to move beyond tokenistic methods and stress authentic representation, democratic decision-making, and the active participation of all the actors involved in the process.

In many aspects, Türkiye lags behind France in terms of participatory housing. In Türkiye, participation is generally not an option in the creation of a space. Additionally, the engagement of the citizen in its social space does not receive sufficient attention. Even though much academic research has been carried out in this sense, finding a participatory project-based study is quite challenging. In this sense, it is considered very important and necessary for our country to deal with the studies in the field of participatory housing in the axis of the society-architecture dialogue.

As it is seen through the thesis, participation in housing projects is particularly important for citizens who are the ones who shape society. At this point, this is not an individual issue. It might begin on a lesser scale and develop into a way of life,

like in France. Since the past and the citizenship ideology of history cannot be altered, it is possible to imagine changing the distant future by starting to take part in the formation of one's living area and then having the ability to make decisions on a larger scale of one's surrounds or even of one's city. For this, France might be used as an example for Türkiye in this case and could strive to adhere to some guidelines to enhance the dialogue between society and architecture, especially looking at the necessity of having a legal framework for participatory housing that became clear throughout the study. Consequently, it might be a good initial point to start considering developing legislation of a similar kind in Türkiye to promote the dialogue between society and architecture.



REFERENCES

- Abban, Ç., Ayata, O., Gürel, A., Özen, A., & Özen, H. (1982). Katılımı Nasıl Ele Alıyoruz. *Mimarlık*,(1), 2-5.
- Açıkgöz, K. (1987). Katılmanın kuramsal temelleri ve katılma araştırmaları. *Ankara University Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences (JFES)*, 20 (1), 21-28. DOI: 10.1501/Egifak_0000001064
- Afrassiabi, A. H. (1985). Design Participation in the context of urban renewal. In Design Coalition Team: Proceedings of the International Design Participation Conference (pp. 22-24).
- Aksoy, E. (1975). Mimarlıkta Tasarım İletim ve Denetim [Design, Transmission and Control in Architecture], KT Ü. Yayınları, Trabzon.
- Aksoy, A. (2008). Tarlabası yenileme projesi: Küresel İstanbul'da yeni kent siyaseti, Voyvoda Caddesi Toplantıları 2008-2009. Osmanlı Bankası Arşiv ve Araştırma Merkezi, İstanbul.
- Alderson, P. (2008). Young children's rights: Exploring beliefs. Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Altman, I. & Werner, C. M. (1985). Home environments (Vol. 8). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Anonymous, (2004). "Portakal Çiçeği Vadisi Kentsel Gelişim Projesi, Portakal Çiçeği Vadisinin Kronolojik Gelişimi" , Portakal Çiçeği Vadisi Proje Geliştirme, İşletme ve Ticaret Anonim Şirketi, Dikmen Caddesi, Yeşil Vadi Sokak, 8/C, Ankara.
- Arıbaş, N. N. (2015). Kamuda stratejik planlamanın "katılımcılık" boyutu. *Akademik Yaklaşımlar Dergisi*, 4(1), 80-100.

Arkitektuel. (2018). Unite d'habitation / Le Corbusier - Arkitektuel. Arkitektuel. <https://www.arkitektuel.com/unite-dhabitation/>

Arnstein, S. R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. Journal of the American Institute of planners, 35(4), 216-224.

Arslan, H., & Unlu, A. (2006). The evaluation of community participation in housing reconstruction projects after Duzce earthquake. In Proceeding. International Conference and Student Competition on Post-disaster Reconstruction" Meeting stakeholder interests". Florence. Italy.

Aubrée, L. (2006). L'évolution du peuplement du parc HLM en France. Pensée plurielle, (1), 53-061.

Avar, A. A. (2009). Lefebvre'in Üçlü–Algılanan, Tasarlanan, Yaşanan Mekân–Diyalektiği. Mimarlık ve Mekan Algısı, 17, 7-16.

Aydınlı, H. İ., & Memiş, L. (2015). 1990'lerden günümüze Türkiye'de yönetim (governance): Literatüre dayalı bir inceleme. *Sosyal Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 15(29), 116-143.

Bacqué, M. H., & Vermeersch, S. (2007). Changer la vie: les classes moyennes et l'héritage de Mai 68. Éditions de l'Atelier.

Bacqué, M. H., Rey, H., & Sintomer, Y. (2005). Introduction. La démocratie participative, un nouveau paradigme de l'action publique?. In Gestion de proximité et démocratie participative (pp. 9-46). La découverte.

Batikent Project, Ankara - World Habitat. (2018). World Habitat. <https://world-habitat.org/world-habitat-awards/winners-and-finalists/batikent-project-ankara/>

Bayazıt, N. (1982). Tasarlama teori ve metotları: planlamaya ve tasarlamaya katılma.

İTÜ.

Baba, E.C. (2009). Küreselleşme sürecinde yüksek yapılaşmanın kullanıcı-çevre ilişki bağlamında irdelenmesi: İstanbul Levent İçin Kullanıcı Katılımlı Bir Yöntem Önerisi [Doctoral Dissertation] Mimar Sinan Güzel Sanatlar Üniversitesi, İstanbul.

Baudelaire, C. (1964). *The Painter of Modern Life*. New York: Da Capo Press.

Baheshti, M. R. (1985). Design coalition team: proceedings of the international design participation conference (DPC,'85), Eindhoven, 22-24 April 1985. Technische Universiteit Eindhoven.

Berry, C. (2021, December 10). A Home for All - Craig Berry - medium. Medium. <https://craigberry93.medium.com/a-home-for-all-e7b89a4ebe4d>

Biau, V. (2012). Les architectes de l'habitat participatif, entre militance et compétence. Métropolitiques. <http://www.metropolitiques.eu/Les-architectes-de-l-habitat.html>

Biffbang. (2016). Atelier Populaire – Page 2 – Documents from May 1968. Documents From May 1968. <https://mai68inenglish.com/category/atelier-populaire/page/2/>

Billington, R. A. (1974). *Americans Frontier Heritage*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Bilgin, N., & Göregenli, M. (1996), “Kentsel Katılım ve Çoğulculuk”. *Kentte Birlikte Yaşamak Üstüne*. İstanbul: Dünya Yerel Yönetim ve Demokrasi Akademisi (WALD) Yayınları.

- Bjorn-Andersen & B., Hedberg, N. (1977). Designing Information Systems in an Organizational Perspective, Studies in the Management Sciences Prescriptive Models of Organizations.
- Blundell-Jones, P., Petrescu, D., & Till, J. (2013). Architecture and participation. Routledge.
- Bonnin, P. & Reynaud, P. (1981). Une révolution paisible. L'habitat autogéré. Paris.
- Bonnin, P. (1983). Habitats autogérés: M.H.G.A. Paris: Édition Alternatives.
- Bookchin, M. (1980). Toward an ecological society. Black Rose Books Ltd.
- Broome, J., & Richardson, B. (1995). The self-build book. Green Earth Books.
- Bruneau, A. (2016). Commun village. 40 ans d'aventures en habitat participatif. Éditions Repas.
- Burns, J. (1979) 'Citizens take part in the process of urban design', Nation's Citizen's Weekly, Vol. 2, p.43.
- Cabannes, Y. (2004). Participatory budgeting: a significant contribution to participatory democracy. Environment and urbanization, 16(1), 27-46.
- Churchill, W. (1943). We shape our buildings, and afterwards our buildings shape us...In House of Commons. Meeting in the House of Lords (Vol. 28).
- Churchman, A. (1987), Can Resident Participation in Neighborhood Rehabilitation Programs Succeed, Altman, I. & Wandersman, A. (eds.) Neighborhood and Community Environment, Pleniom Press, New York, 113-158.

Coit, K. (1984). Participation, social movements and social change. *Cities*, 1(6), 585-591.

Colin. (2005). Janet Square, Pilot Scheme, c1970. Flickr.
<https://www.flickr.com/photos/visualadventurer/2441127681>

Çopur, H. (2009). Teoriden Pratiğe Sivil Toplum,
<http://www.ekopolitik.org/public/page.aspx?id=615>.

Davidson, C., Johnson, C. A., Lizarralde, G., Dikmen, N., & Sliwinski, A. (2007) Truths and myths about community participation in post-disaster housing projects. *Habitat International*, 31(1), 100–115.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2006.08.003>

Day, C., & Parnell, R. (2003). Consensus design: Socially inclusive process. Routledge.

Dayanışma mimarlığı. (n.d.). XXI. <https://xxi.com.tr/i/dayanisma-mimarligi>

De Certeau, M. (1984). *The Practice of Everyday Life*, trans., Steven Rendall, Berkeley: U.

de Tocqueville, A., & Mayer, J. P. (1959). Sur la démocratie en Amérique (Fragments inédits). *Revue Internationale de Philosophie*, 300-312.

Demir, Ö., & Acar, M. (1992). Sosyal bilimler sözlüğü (Vol. 1). Ağaç Yayıncılık.

Deshler, D. & Sock, D. (1985). Community development participation: a concept review of the international literature. Paper presented in conference “international league for social commitment in adult education”. Linungskile, Sweden, July, 22-26.

Devaux, C. (2012). De l'expérimentation à l'institutionnalisation: l'habitat participatif à un tournant?. Métropolitiques, January 23th. <http://www.metropolitiques.eu/De-l-experimentation-al.html>.

De Villepin, A. (2021). Enseigner l'histoire 2—3 | L'Architecture d'Aujourd'hui. L'Architecture D'Aujourd'hui. <https://www.larchitecturedaujourdhui.fr/archizoom-papers-enseigner-lhistoire-2-3/>

D'Orazio, A. (2017). S'associer pour habiter et faire la ville: de l'habitat groupé autogéré à l'habitat participatif en France (1977–2015): exploration d'un monde en construction [Doctoral Dissertation] Université Paris Nanterre, Paris.

Driskell, D. (2002). Creating better cities with children and youth: a manual for participation. UNESCO Publishing.

Dükkancı, U. (2013). Türkiye'de kentsel dönüşüm sürecinin gelişimi ve günümüzdeki yasal yönetsel boyutunun irdelenmesi [Master's dissertation], Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, İstanbul.

Egelius, M. (1980). Housing and human needs: the work of Ralph Erskine. Architecture for people: explorations in a new humane environment. B. Mikellides. London, Studio Vista, 135-148.

Eroğul, C. (1991). Devlet Yönetimine Katılma Hakkı, İmge Kitabevi, Ankara.

Esengil, Z. (2009). Planlama Ve Tasarım Sürecine Katılımın Kamusal Projeler Bağlamında İrdelenmesi: Antalya Kent Merkezi Örneği (Doctoral dissertation, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü).

European Urban Charter (1992). <https://rm.coe.int/168071923d>

- Fathy, H. (1969), Gournai: A Tale of Two Villages
- Flecheux, M. (2015). Apprendre à Marcher en marchant vers une architecture,
https://issuu.com/marieflecheux/docs/150901_m_moire_hmo_mini_si
- Fox, W. (2000). Ethics and the built environment. London; New York: Routledge.
- Fracalossi, I. (2023). Quinta Monroy / ELEMENTAL. ArchDaily.
<https://www.archdaily.com/10775/quinta-monroy-elemental>
- Friedman, Y. (1978). L'architecture de survie. Casterman, Tournai.
- Genç, F. N. (2014) "Gecekonduyla Mücadeleden Kentsel Dönüşüme Türkiye'de Kentleşme Politikaları", Adnan Menderes Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 1 (1): 15-30.
- Geray, C. (1995). Yerel Demokrasi, Özerklik ve Halk Katılımı. Yeni Türkiye Dergisi, 1 (4), 72-76.
- Göksu, F. (1993). Portakal Çiçeği Vadisi Kentsel Gelişme Projesi. Ankara Dergisi, 2(5), 83.
- Gözübüyük, A. Ş. (2006). Yönetim Hukuku. Ankara: Turhan Kitabevi.
- Gutman, R. (1975). Architecture and sociology. The American Sociologist, 219-228.
- Güneş, M. (2004) "The Local Agenda 21 National City to Global Village", Ankara: Detay Publishing.
- Grube, G. M. A. (1992). Republic (Grube Edition). Hackett Publishing.

Habraken, J. N. (1985). Who is Participating? Towards a Professional Role, Proceedings of the International Design Participation Conference – Design Coalition Team, TU/e, 22- 24 April 1985, Eindhoven.

Hansen, H.S. & Prosperi, D.C. (2005). “ Citizen Participation and Internet GIS – Some Recent Advances”, (Editorial), Computers, Environment and Urban Systems, 29, 617-629.

Hart, R. A. (1992). Children's participation: From tokenism to citizenship (No. inness92/6).

Harvey, D. (2006). “The Right to the City”, Interv. Int. J. Postcolonial Stud., 7(3): 321– 325

Hasol, D. (2013). Toplum, Mimarlık ve Eğitim - doganhasol.net. (n.d.). <http://www.doganhasol.net/toplum-mimarlik-ve-egitim.html>

Hasol, D. (2019). Doğan Hasol ile “Mimarlık Denince” Kitabı Üzerine - doganhasol.net. (n.d.). <http://www.doganhasol.net/dogan-hasol-ile-mimarlik-denince-kitabi-uzerine.html>

Hecker, S., Haklay, M., Bowser, A., Makuch, Z., Vogel, J. & Bonn, A. (2018). Innovation in open science, society and policy – setting the agenda for citizen science. UCL Press. <https://doi.org/10.14324/111.9781787352339>

Hogg, M. A. & Vaughan, G. M. (2011) Social psychology. 6th edn. England.

Hirvela, A. (1996). Reader-response theory and ELT. ELT journal, 50(2), 127-134. <http://www.urbain-trop-urbain.fr/wp-content/uploads/2011/06/constant.pdf>

İMO (2019) 17 Ağustos 1999 Gölçük merkezli depremin 20.yılında yapı stokumuz güvenli mi? www.tmmob.org.tr. <https://www.tmmob.org.tr/icerik/imo-17-agustos-1999-golcuk-merkezli-depremin-20-yilinda-yapi-stokumuz-guvenli-mi-yapilanlar>

İncedayı, D. (2002). Çevre ve Katılım, İncedayı, D. (ed.), Çevre Tümdür içinde, ss: 107- 129. Bağlam Yay., Ankara

Innes, J. E., & Booher, D. E. (2003). Collaborative policymaking: governance through dialogue. Deliberative policy analysis: Understanding governance in the network society, 33-59.

Jones, P. B., & Canniffe, E. (2012). Modern Architecture Through Case Studies 1945 to 1990. Routledge.

Jones, P. B., Petrescu, D., & Till, J. (2013). Architecture and participation. Routledge.

Kadioğlu, A. (2008). Vatandaşlığın dönüşümü: Üyelikten haklara. Metis Yayıncılık.

Karasu, M. A. (2005). Türkiye’de konut sorununun çözümünde farklı bir yaklaşım; Belediye-Toplu konut i kooperatifleri işbirliği modelleri. Ekonomik ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi (56-87).

Karkın, N. (2012). E-Katılım kavramı ve süreci: Kamu siyasa oluşum sürecine vatandaş katkısının olabilirliği. Sosyoekonomi, 17(17).

Keleş, R. Y. (1966). Sosyayüksel Konut Politikası Kavramı Üzerinde Bir Deneme ve Türkiye’de Sosyal Konut Politikası, Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Dergisi, (167-234).

Keleş, R. (2012). Yerinden Yönetim ve Siyaset, 9. Baskı, Cem Yayınları, İstanbul.

Kéré, F. (2017). Retrieved December 15, 2023, from Mytum.de website:
https://portal.mytum.de/pressestelle/faszination-forschung/2019nr23/index_html

Kéré | Work. (2023). Retrieved December 15, 2023, from Kerearchitecture.com website:
<https://www.kerearchitecture.com/work/building/gando-teachers-housing>

Keyman, E. F. (2008). “Türkiye’de Çokkültürlü Anayasal Vatandaşlık ve Demokratikleşme”, Ayşe Kadioğlu (Der.), Vatandaşlığın Dönüşümü: Üyelikten Haklara, İstanbul: Metis Yayınları, 218-244.

Koçak, S. Y., & Ekşi, A. (2010). Katılımcılık ve demokrasi perspektifinden Türkiye’de yerel yönetimler. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 2010(21), 295-307.

Korosec-Serfaty, P. (1985). Experience and Use of the Dwelling. In: Altman, I., Werner, C.M. (eds) Home Environments. Human Behavior and Environment, vol 8. Springer, Boston, MA. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-2266-3_3

La Convention d’ Aarhus: Guide d’application (2014). https://unece.org/DAM/env/pp/Publications/Aarhus_Implementation_Guide_FRE_int eractive.pdf

Lang, R., Carriou, C., & Czischke, D. (2020). Collaborative housing research (1990–2017): A systematic review and thematic analysis of the field. Housing, Theory and Society, 37(1), 10-39.

Le Réseau National des Acteurs Professionnels de l’Habitat Participatif. (12 Nisan 2023). La démarche du RAHP. <https://www.rahp.fr/>

Lefebvre, H. (1970). La Révolution Urbaine. Editions Gallimard.

Lefebvre, H. (1991). *The Production of Space*. (Çev: N, Smith), Blackwell, Oxford

Lefebvre, H. (2003). *Space and the State*. *State/space: A reader*, 84-100.

Lefèvre, P. (2014). *L'habitat participatif: 40 ans d'habitat participatif en France*, Éditions Apogée.

Légifrance. (2014). LOI n° 2014-366 du 24 mars 2014 pour l'accès au logement et un urbanisme rénové. (23 November, 2022).
<https://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/download/pdf?id=7Wb5kNdWdwPFhrotL9FHWVsD FihSq-tW46KWa2ISZzs=>

Lemaire, J. (2013). *Le Corbusier, ou la participation malgré lui*, Histo Art, Publication of Sorbonne.

L'Habitat participatif. (n.d.). *Habitat Participatif France*.
<https://www.habitatparticipatif-france.fr/?HPFDefinition>

Liem, A., & Sanders, E. B. N. (2013). Human-Centred Design Workshops in Collaborative Strategic Design Projects: An Educational and Professional Comparison. *Design and Technology Education*, 18(1), 72-86.

Loi ALUR, LOI n° 2014-366 du 24 mars 2014 pour l'accès au logement et un urbanisme rénové (1) - Légifrance. (2014).Gouv.fr.
<https://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/jorf/id/JORFTEXT000028772256>

Loi Solidarité et renouvellement urbain (SRU). (2022). Retrieved October 5, 2023, from Ministères Écologie Énergie Territoires website:
<https://www.ecologie.gouv.fr/loi-solidarite-et-renouvellement-urbain-sru>

Loughlin, J., & Peters, B. G. (1997). State traditions, administrative reform and regionalization. *The political economy of regionalism*, 41-62.

Macaire, E. (2009). Des architectes à l'épreuve de la participation. *Ville Éphémère, Ville Durable—Nouveaux Usagers, Nouveaux Pouvoirs*; De Coninck, F., Deroubaix, J.-F., Eds, 135-147.

Macaire, E. (2012). *L'architecture à l'épreuve de nouvelles pratiques: recompositions professionnelles et démocratisation culturelle [Doktor Tezi]*. Ecole nationale supérieure d'architecture de Paris La Villette.

Maier, K. (2001). Citizen Participation in Planning: Climbing a Ladder? *European Planning Studies*, 6(9):707–719.

Malbert, B. (1998). Urban planning participation: linking practice and theory.

Marchant, R., & Kirby, P. (2004). The participation of young children: communication, consultation and involvement. *Young children's citizenship: Ideas into practice*, 92- 163.

Marshall, T. H. (1963). "Citizenship and Social Class" in *Sociology at the Crossroads*, Heinemann: London.

May 1968: Workers and students together | International Socialist Review. (n.d.). <https://isreview.org/issue/111/may-1968-workers-and-students-together/index.html>

Mazé, R. (2007). *Occupying Time: Design, technology, and the form of interaction [Doctoral dissertation]* Malmö University/Blekinge Institute of Technology.

Medyascope. (2023, February 6). Earthquake survivors in Türkiye's southeast describe the scale of destruction. Medyascope. <https://medyascope.tv/2023/02/06/earthquake-survivors-in-Türkiyes-southeast-describe-the-scale-of-destruction/>

Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). Participation. In Merriam-Webster.com dictionary. Retrieved October 10, 2022, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/participation>

Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). Tokenism. In Merriam-Webster.com dictionary. Retrieved in November 25, 2022, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/tokenism>.

Mill, J. S. (2009). Autobiography of John Stuart Mill. Auckland: The Floating Press.

Mimarlık ve Eğitim Kurultayı IX Türkiye Mimarlık Eğitimi Politikası Çalışma Grubu, (2017). Türkiye Mimarlık Eğitimi Politikası Taslak. https://arch.metu.edu.tr/system/files/news/2017/turkiye_mimarlik_egitimi_politikasi.pdf

Ministères Écologie Énergie Territoires. (2020). Habitat participatif : un cadre juridique pour habiter autrement. <https://www.ecologie.gouv.fr/habitat-participatif-cadre-juridique-habiter-autrement>

Morval, J. (1981). Introduction à la psychologie de l'environnement (Vol. 99). Editions Mardaga.

Mutman, M. (1994). “Üretilen Mekân, Yok Olan Mekân”, Toplum ve Bilim, Sayı 64– 65.

Okutan, A. E. (2021). The concept of social housing and forms of social housing production. Uluslararası Peyzaj Mimarlığı Araştırmaları Dergisi (IJLAR) E-ISSN: 2602-4322, 5(2), 41-45.

Okutan, C. (2006). Cumhuriyetçi Paradigma Paragmatik Cumhuriyet, İstanbul: Paradigma Yayınları.

Oskay, B., & Barkul, Ö. (2022). Popülizme Karşı Katılım: Sosyal Sürdürülebilirlik Bağlamında Konut Alanlarında Katılımcı Tasarım Yaklaşımları Participation against Populism: Participatory Design Approaches in Residential Areas in the Context of Social Sustainability. *Planlama Dergisi*, 32(1), 13-23.

Oxford. (n.d.) Tokenism. In Oxford Learners Dictionaries. Retrieved in: November 25, 2022, from <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/tokenism>

Özdemir, A. T. (2011). “Mahalli İdarelerde Halk Katılımı Bağlamında Kent Konseyleri”, *Sayıştay Dergisi*, 83: 31-56

Özden, P., & Velibeyoğlu, K. (2023). Citizen science projects in the context of participatory approaches: The case of Izmir. *Journal of Design for Resilience in Architecture and Planning*, 4(1), 31-46.

Papila, B. (1992). Planlamaya katılım sürecinde tarihsel ve modern çevre bilincinin değerlendirilmesi.

Parent, C. (2006). İsyankar Kent. [v3.arkitera.http://v3.arkitera.com/news.php?action=displayNewsItem&ID=6539](http://v3.arkitera.com/news.php?action=displayNewsItem&ID=6539)

Patel, K. (2016). Realizing Henri Lefebvre: Ideas of Social Space in Lucien Kroll's La Meme, Brussels 1969-1972 and Bernard Tschumi's Parc de la Villette, Paris 1982- 1987 [Doctoral dissertation] University of Michigan.

Pateman, C. (1970). Participation and Democratic Theory. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Pehnt, W. (1988). Return of the Sioux. Lucien Kroll: Buildings and Projects, tran. Joseph Masterson, (Stuttgart: Thames and Hudson)
- Petrescu, D. (2005). Losing control, keeping desire, Blundell Jones, P. Petrescu, D. & Till, J. Architecture and participation. New York & London: Spoon
- Pretty, J. (1995) Participatory learning for sustainable agriculture, World Development, 23 (8), 1247– 1263.
- Pulat, G., (1992). Dar Gelirli Kentlilerin Konut Sorunu ve Soruna Sosyal İçerikli Mekansal Çözüm Arayışları . Pulat Gülçin (Ed.). Ankara: Kent Koop Yayınları.
- Pustu, Y. (2005). Yerel Yönetimler ve Demokrasi, Sayıştay Dergisi, Sayı 57, April-June 2005, 121-134.
- Querrien, A. (2005). Le logement social en Europe: Dans le passé et vers quel avenir?. Informations sociales, (3), 126-135.
- Redaktion. (2018). Institut der Stadtbaukunst – Ein Forum für Architektur und Städtebau.
<https://www.stadtbaukunst.org/deutsch/staedtebaulehre/seminare/werhatangstvordemzufall/index.html?tid=628&bid=43&btid=72>
- Reeves, P. (2005). An Introduction to Social Housing (2nd Ed.), Oxford: Elsevier
- Réseau des Maisons de l'Architecture. (12 April 2023). Acteurs de médiation architecturale et urbaine. <https://www.ma-lereseau.org/acteurs-de-mediation-architecturale-et-urbaine>
- Richardson, A. (1999). Thinking about participation. Policy and Politics. 7(3). 227-244.

Riou, M. (2021). 50 shades of urbanism. The Urban Mycelium.
<https://theurbanmycelium.com/fr/50-shades-of-urbanism/>

Saleh, A. M. A. H. A. (2006). Community Participation in Architectural Design
(Evaluation of Al-Maageen Housing in Nablus) (Doctoral dissertation).

Saltık, A., Doğal Kaynakların Sürdürülebilir Yönetimi: Kavramsal Bir Yaklaşım,
Türkiye Çevre Vakfı Yayınları, Sürdürülebilir Kalkınmanın Uygulanmadı
Tartışma Toplantısı, 11-12 Aralık 1997, Ankara

Sameh, H.M., (2011). Public Participation in Urban Planning. Cairo: Ain Shams
University Faculty of Engineering Department of Urban Planning, Master Thesis,
Ain Sahams University Institute of Science, Egypt.

Sander, A. (2009). Planlamada yurttaş katılım [Master thesis]. İstanbul Teknik
Üniversitesi.

Sanders, E. B. N. (2002). From user-centered to participatory design approaches.
In Design and the social sciences (pp. 18-25). CRC Press.

Sanders, E. B. N., & Stappers, P. J. (2008). Co-creation and the new landscapes of
design. Co-design, 4(1), 5-18.

Sanders, E. B. N., Brandt, E., & Binder, T. (2010, November). A framework for
organizing the tools and techniques of participatory design. In Proceedings of the
11th biennial participatory design conference (pp. 195-198).

Sanoff, H. (2011). Multiple views of participatory design. focus, 8(1), 7.

Sanoff, H., (2000). Community Participation Methods in Design and Planning. New
York.

Saracaloğlu, A. S., Akamca, G. Ö., & Yeşildere, S. (2006). İlköğretimde proje tabanlı öğrenmenin yeri. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 4(3), 241-260.

Scolaires - Maison de Banlieue et de l'architecture. Maison de Banlieue et de l'Architecture. (2023, April 12). <https://www.maisondebanlieue.fr/scolaires/>

Şentek, A., (2021). Kentsel Çevrenin Oluşumdan Katılım, Katılımcılık ve Mimarlar, *Mimarlık*, 420, pp. 66-68.

Shirvani, H. (1985). *The urban design process*. Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Sinclair, R. (2004). Participation in practice: Making it meaningful, effective and sustainable. *Children & society*, 18(2), 106-118.

Siu, K. W. M. (2003). Users' creative responses and designers' roles. *Design Issues*, 64- 73.

Skene Catling, C. (2014). Damned if You Do, Damned if You Don't: What is the Moral Duty of the Architect?, *The Architectural Review*.

Spatial Agency: Bauhäusle. (n.d.). <https://www.spatialagency.net/database/bauhausle>

Sulzer, P. (2005). Notes on Participation, in *Architecture and participation*, eds. Iundell-Jones, P., Petrescu, D.& Till, J. (London: Routledge).

Talas, M. (2011). Sivil Toplum Kuruluşları Ve Türkiye Perspektifi. *Türklük Bilimi Araştırmaları*, (29), 387-401.

Tasci, B. G. (2014). Çocuk-Mimarlık çalışmalarının değerlendirilmesi ve ilköğretim için yapıli çevre eğitim programı önerisi (Sosyal Bilgiler dersi için) [Doctoral dissertation] Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi.

TBMM (2010). Genel Kurul Tutanağı 23. Dönem 4. Yasama Yılı. 66. Birleşim 25/Şubat/2010

Perşembe.https://www.tbmm.gov.tr//develop/owa/tutanak_g.birlesim_baslangic?P4=20587&P5=H&page1=73&page2=73

Till, J. (2005). The Negotiation of Hope. In Blundell-Jones, P., Petrescu, D. & Till, J.(Eds.), Architecture and participation (pp. 23-43). New York: Spon Press.

TMMOB Mimarlar Odası, (2020).Türkiye Mimarlık Eğitimi Politikası.

https://www.tmmob.org.tr/sites/default/files/turkiye_mimarlik_egitimi_politikasi_icin_tiklayiniz.pdf

Toffler, A. (1970). Future shock. Random House. Inc., New York.

Toker, Z. (2007). Recent trends in community design: the eminence of participation. Design Studies, 28(3), pp. 309-327

Towards an ARCHITECTURAL POLICY for TÜRKİYE. (n.d.). Retrieved September 24, 2023, from https://www.ace-cae.eu/fileadmin/New_Upload/6._Architecture_in_Europe/EU_Policy/TK-report.pdf

Türk Dil Kurumu | Sözlük. (n.d.). Retrieved October 4, 2022, from Sozluk.gov.tr website: <https://sozluk.gov.tr/>

Turner, B. (1992). Outline of a Theory of Citizenship. In Dimensions of Radical Democracy: Pluralism, Citizenship, Community, edited by Chantal Mouffe, 33-62. London: Sage.

Turner, J. F. (1978). Housing in three dimensions: terms of reference for the housing question redefined. In The Urban Informal Sector (pp. 1135-1145). Pergamon.

- Ulusoy, A. & Akdemir, T. (2010). Mahalli İdareler. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- UNESCO World Heritage Centre. (n.d.). Safeguarding project of Hassan Fathy's New Gurna Village. <https://whc.unesco.org/en/activities/637/>
- Uslu, A., & Yetim, L. (2006). An Example of The Efforts Which Create The Contemporary Urban Environment: The Urban Renewal Project of Portakal Cicegi Valley/Ankara. Journal of Tekirdag Agricultural Faculty.
- Uzunoğlu, K., & Özer, H. (2014). Toplu konutların ön tasarım aşamasında değerlendirilmesi. Megaron, 9(3), 167.
- Verba, S. (1967). Democratic participation. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 373(1), 53-78.
- Vilandrau, M. (2002). L'étonnante aventure des Castors: l'autoconstruction dans les années 50, Editions L' Harmattan.
- Vue sur l'ensemble des lieux. (n.d.). Base De Données Habitat Participatif Et Oasis. <https://www.basededonnees-habitatparticipatif-oasis.fr/?CartE>
- Wandersman, A. (1984), Citizen Participation, (K. Heller, R. Price, vd: (eds.), Psychology and Community Change,. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press, 338-379.
- Ward, C. (1999). A peopled landscape. Richer Futures: Fashioning a New Politics, 84- 98.
- Wates, N. (2008). The community planning event manual: how to use collaborative planning and urban design events to improve your environment. London: Earthscan

Weinberg, A. S. (1976). Industrial democracy in the Netherlands. *Monthly Labor Review*, 99(7), 48-49.

White, S.C. (1996). Depoliticising development: the uses and abuses of participation, *Development in Practice*, 6 (1), 6– 15

Wikimedia Commons. (2003, April 28). File:Construction pavillons Castor Antony.jpg
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Construction_pavillons_Castor_Antony.jpg

Winograd, T. (Ed.). (1996). Bringing design to software. ACM.

Wulz, F. (1986). The concept of participation. *Design studies*, 7(3), 153-162.

Yalçındağ, S. (1996). *Belediyelerimiz ve Halkla İlişkileri*, Yayın No: 275, Birinci Baskı, TODAİE Yayınları, Ankara.

Yavaşoğlu, G. (2007). Mimaride kullanıcı-ürün ilişkisi devrimi: Geleceğin kullanıcısının tasarım sürecine katılımı. M. Taş, (Ed.), 19.Uluslararası Yapı ve Yaşam Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı içinde (235-242), Bursa: Mimarlar Odası Bursa Şubesi Yayınları.

Yavuz, Ö. (1995). Katılmak Eleştirel Olmaya Engel Değil, Planlama Değil, Planlama Dergisi (1995/3), İstanbul.

Zhouhang. (2015).The Segal method. Zhou Hang.
<https://zhouhang0924.wordpress.com/2015/06/18/the-segal-method>