INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

ProQuest Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600

UNDERSTANDING A THEORY OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN PARK PLANNING FOR NUNAVUT, CANADA

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of Graduate Studies

Of

The University of Guelph

by

KRISTINA ANN ZALITE

In partial fulfillment of requirements

for the degree of

Master of Landscape Architecture

September, 2002

© Kristina Ann Zalite, 2002

National Library of Canada
Acquisitions and Bibliographic Services
395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Acquisitions et services bibliographiques
395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-76133-9

Canada

ABSTRACT

UNDERSTANDING A THEORY OF PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN PARK PLANNING FOR NUNAVUT, CANADA

Kristina Zalite
University of Guelph, 2002

Advisor:
Dr. Nancy Pollock-Ellwand

This thesis is an investigation of the Nunavut Parks participatory planning process, examining the participation of local communities in the planning process used by the Government of Nunavut. Local participation in the planning process is essential for successful socio-economic and political development of the new land-claim settled territory. After a review of literature on theoretical planning processes, interviews and internal Nunavut Parks documents were collected and analyzed using grounded theory methods to reveal the genuine processes of community participation. The results were merged comparatively, creating a theory of how practitioners can help the Nunavummiut public to be more self-reliant in park planning. The five features of this theory find that public participation process should have a holistic framework, a diverse and active public, a grassroots process, transformational experiences, and developmental goals. This research advocates that practitioners incorporate these features into practice to help communities become more self-reliant and politically active.

ᐃᓕᓴᕐᓂᖅ

ᑐᑭᓯᓇᓴᖅᑐᑦ ᐃᓕᓴᕐᓂᐅᑎᒃ ᐃᓄᑐᐃᓐᓇᒃ ᐃᓇᐅᑎᕋᑎᒋᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᑦ ᐃᓗᐊᒋᑦ
ᑎᓪᓗᐃᖅᓯᓴᕐᕕᖏᓐᓇᑦ ᑎᓴᒪᓄᑦ, ᑲᓇᑕᑦ

ᐊᓱᓴᐸᓇ ᖃᓄᑦ
ᓯᓚᑦᑐᖓᕕᖏᓐᓄᑦ ᔫᐃᐊᑦ, 2002

ᐅᖃᓕᒫᒃ:
ᑐᓴᕆᖅ ᓇᓐᓂ ᕿᓚᓴ-ᐃᐅᓪᓚᓐᓂᑦ

ᐅᓇ ᐃᓕᓚᓕᐅᓵᔪᕐᓂ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᐃᓪᓗᓂᖓ ᑕᒪᓐᓇᐊ ᓄᓇᕗᑦ ᐃᓗᐊᒋᑦ ᑎᓪᓗᐃᖅᓯᓴᕐᕕᖏᓐᓇᑦ ᐸᑦᓯᐊᕐᐅᖅᑕᕐᓂᖅᑎᑦ ᐊᑐᖅᑕᐅᓂᒃᓴᖅᑎᓪᓗ ᐊᐅᓚᓂᖅᑎᑦ, ᕿᒥᖅᑭᐃᓗᓂᖓ ᐃᓚᐅᓂᓵᔪᖅᑎᓪᓚᑦ ᓄᓇᓕᓪᓂᑦ ᐃᓄᖅᓯᐊᑎᕐᕕᖏᓐᓇᑦ ᐸᑦᓯᐊᕐᐅᖅᑕᕐᓂᖅᑎᑦ ᓴᖅᑭᑎᓪᓗᓂ ᑕᒪᓐᓇᐊ ᓴᖅᑭᐅᑎᕐᕕᖏᓐᓇᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᑦ ᐃᓄᖅᓯᐊᑎᕐᕕᖏᓐᓇᑦ ᐸᑦᓯᐊᕐᐅᖅᑕᕐᓂᖅᑎᑦ ᐊᐅᓚᓂᖅᑎᑦ ᐊᑐᖅᑕᐅᓂᒃᓴᖅᑎᓪᓗᓂ ᐃᓄᖅᓯᐊᑎᕐᕕᖏᓐᓇᑦ ᐸᑦᓯᐊᕐᐅᖅᑕᕐᓂᖅᑎᑦ ᐊᐅᓚᓂᖅᑎᑦ

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge my thesis committee, without whom I would not have been able to find personal and academic satisfaction throughout this research process. I would like to especially thank Dr. Nancy Pollock-Ellwand, my thesis advisor, for encouraging me to regard the thesis process as an adventure, and for her support and confidence in me undertaking research on theory – an essential part of any student's education in landscape architecture. I would like to thank Dr. Wayne Caldwell for his knowledge and suggestions on how to make this thesis applicable to the practices of landscape architecture and planning. I also thank Nancy and Wayne for helping me end my master's degree on a note that captured everything that was special in the last three years of my academic life, including coming together to talk about meaningful, human design of wonderful public spaces.

I would like to thank those who made it financially and technically feasible to undertake this study. I would first like to thank the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut and all of the employees in the Division who helped me in my research – David Monteith, Director; Richard Wyma, past Manager; Chris Grosset, Coordinator of Capital Planning and Facilities; and Heather Gosselin, Coordinator of Planning and Design. Acknowledgements go out to the Nunavut Research Institute, the University of Guelph Registrar's Office, and the Northern Scientific Training Program of the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada.

I would like to thank the community members of Kugaaruk, who continually reinforced my passion for parks and public participation. This includes Remi Krikort, for taking me out on the land to see the phenomenal beauty of the tundra, ice, and sea; and Raymond Kayasaark; Yanina and Columban Pudjuark; Christopher Amautinuar; and the Hamlet Councillors of the beautiful community of Kugaaruk.

I would not have been able to enjoy the thesis journey as much if it were not for the classmates who have become my friends – Omar Ingthorsson, Kristina Shaw-Lukavsky, Sue McCook, Steve Pickett, Marie Fernandes, Linda Perry, Maria Graham, Julia Murnaghan, Matt Wilcox, and others. I also owe thanks to Zoe Pfeiffer and Hilary Martin (also known as my research assistant) for helping me to continually visit the Guelph (and the Iqaluit) that exists outside of the academic environs. For personal support on this thesis that came to me from far away places through email, letter, and phone, I thank my friends Maire Thompson, Kelly McGillicutty, Warren Michelow, Sue McManaway, Anna Kemble, and my sister Tamara Zalite. For endlessly encouraging me to follow my dreams I thank my mother Aryana Rayne and my grandmother Ida Revfem.

I owe special thanks to my father, Peter Zalite, Head of the Marketing and Logistics, Economic and Management Faculty, Ventspils University College – for encouraging my scholarly pursuits; for engaging me in inspirational discussion about global, political and public trends; for relaying his wise comments from Ventspils, Latvia; and for his loving support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract (English)

Abstract (Inuktitut)

Acknowledgements i

Table of Contents ii

List of Figures v

List of Maps vii

Forward viii

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Research Goals 4
1.3 Research Approach 5
1.4 Motivation for the Study 7
1.5 Definition of Terms 8
1.6 Organization of the Thesis 10

Chapter 2: Background to Public Involvement in Park Planning

2.1 Introduction 12
2.2 Why Public Involvement? 13
2.2.1 Forces of Change That Give Rise to Public Involvement 13
2.2.2 Levels of Citizen Power in planning 18
2.3 Public Involvement Approaches in Planning 20
2.3.1 Approaches of Delegated Power 22
2.3.1.1 Co-management Approaches 23
2.3.1.2 Integrated Ecosystem Approaches 28
2.3.2 Approaches of Citizen Control 32
2.3.2.1 Participatory Appraisal Approaches 32
2.3.2.2 Communicative Approaches 38
2.3.2.3 Developmental Planning Approaches 43
2.4 Characteristics of Citizen Power in Planning 49
2.4.1 Participatory Framework 53
2.4.2 Participatory Goals 54
2.4.3 Attributes of Participatory Planning 56
2.4.4 Participatory Process 62
2.5 Summary 65

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methods

3.1 Theory development 67
3.2 Grounded Theory 68
3.3 Description of the Development of an Actual Theory 70
3.3.1 Study Area 70
3.3.2 Study Population 73
3.3.3 Data Collection 75
3.3.3.1 Acquiring a license to conduct research in Nunavut 76
3.3.3.2 Document Review as Data Collection 77
3.3.3.3 Interviews as Data Collection 78
3.3.4 Qualitative data analysis 79
3.3.5 Coding, Memo-ing, and Diagramming 79
3.4 Description of the Development of a Conceptual Theory 81
3.5 Limitations of the Method 83

Chapter 4: Case Study Analysis – The Actual Theory

4.1 Introduction 85
4.2 The Public Involvement Process in Nunavut Parks 89
4.3 The Context 92
4.3.1 Land Claim and the Nunavut Act 92
4.3.2 Inuit Relationship with the Land 93
4.4 The Process 96
4.4.1 Process of Defining a Park 96
4.4.2 Information Exchange 100
4.4.3 Consultation and Informal Meetings 102
4.4.4 Formal Connections 104
4.4.5 Community Veto Power 107
4.5 The Goals 108
4.5.1 Park Ownership 108
4.5.2 Economic and Tourism Development 111
4.3 Results - A Theory of Public Involvement in Nunavut Park Planning 113

Chapter 5: Final Analysis and Conclusions – The Conceptual Theory

5.1 Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut 115
5.2 Comparison of the Model of Public Involvement in Nunavut Park Planning to the Characteristics of Citizen Power 116
5.2.1 A Comparative Analysis of the Participatory Framework 116
5.2.2 A Comparative Analysis of the Participatory Goals 118
5.2.3 A Comparative Analysis of the Attributes of Participatory Planning 121
5.2.4 A Comparative Analysis of the Participatory Process 126
5.3 Results - A Conceptual Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut 130
5.4 Thesis Conclusions 135
5.5 Implications for Landscape Architecture and Planning 137
5.6 Suggestions for Future Research 140
5.7 Research Summary 142

Bibliography 144

Appendices

Appendix A *Nunavut Research License* 153

Appendix B *Example of a Grounded Theory Process of Category Development* 154

Appendix C *Information Form for Interview Subjects (English)* 158

Appendix D *Information Form for Interview Subjects (Inuktitut)* 159

Appendix E *Consent Form for Interview Subjects (English)* 161

Appendix F *Consent Form for Interview Subjects (Inuktitut)* 162

Appendix G *Interview Questions (English)* 163

Appendix H *Interview Questions (Inuktitut)* 164

Appendix I *List of Grounded Theory Categories and Subcategories for the Case Study* 165

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1 *Framework of Research Study* 6

Figure 2-1 *Eight Rungs on a Ladder of Citizen Participation* 19

Figure 2-2 *The Selection of Five Planning Approaches According to their Common Features* 21

Figure 2-3 *Five Planning Approaches Ranked on the Ladder of Citizen Participation* 22

Figure 2-4 *An Example of a Co-Management Process* 25

Figure 2-5 *Examples of Co-Management Activities to Involve the Public* 27

Figure 2-6 *An Example of a Two-Step Model for Ecosystem Planning* 31

Figure 2-7 *Examples of Various Public Participation Methods Used in Participatory Appraisal* 35

Figure 2-8 *Example of a Public Participation Process in Participatory Appraisal* 36

Figure 2-9 *Examples of Information Gathering Activities to Be Used By Citizens in Participatory Appraisal* 37

Figure 2-10 *Suggestions for Good Dialogue in a Planning Process* 42

Figure 2-11 *Example of a Collaborative Learning Process* 42

Figure 2-12 *Saskatchewan First Nations Model for Community Planning* 47

Figure 2-13 *A List of Characteristics of Citizen Power in Five Planning Approaches* 50

Figure 2-14 *16 Characteristics of Citizen Power* 52

Figure 2-15 *Results of Literature Review: A Framework and 3 Main Focus Areas for Planners Wanting to Heighten Citizen Power in Natural Resource Management Planning* 54

Figure 3-1 *Methods of Data Collection and Data Analysis Used in the Production of the Actual Theory* 74

Figure 3-2 *Methods of Data Analysis Used in the Production of the Conceptual Theory* 82

Figure 4-1 *List of Grounded Theory Categories of Nunavut Parks Public Participation Process* 85

Figure 4-2 *Planning Process for Park and Tourism Attraction Development in Nunavut* 88

Figure 4-3 A *Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Public Participation in Park Planning in Nunavut* 90

Figure 4-4 *Activities or Duties of Formal Nunavut Groups When Park Planning in Nunavut* 106

Figure 5-1 *A Checklist for Representation of Citizen Control and Development of Categories of Citizen Control in Park Planning in Nunavut* 119

Figure 5-2 *Grounded Theory Categories of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut* 131

Figure 5-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut* 132

Figure 5-4 *Implications of the Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning Practice* 138

LIST OF MAPS

Map 3-1 *Political Boundaries of Canada* 71

Map 3-2 *Regions of Nunavut* 72

Map 3-3 *Parks of Nunavut* 73

Map 3-4 *Southern Baffin Island Communities and Parks* 76

FORWARD

The personal experiences that I have encountered throughout this research study have been enormous and unforgettable. Some thoughts about these experiences deserve attention, including some thoughts about the initiation of this study, the challenges - and joys - that I experienced while working with a grounded theory method, and my personal experience of studying in the Canadian Arctic.

My interest in human interaction and group processes goes back to my final year of undergraduate university, where I focused my fine arts studies on the dichotomized relationship between an artist and his/her model and the evidence of a "Cartesian split", which separates rather than binds people to one another. As part of a graduating fine arts exhibition, I chose to represent through various printmaking forms the relationship that humans have with the natural environment. Human connected-ness remained an interest as I moved into the working world and worked in a number of non-governmental not-for-profit organizations. As I tried to preserve the Grandview Cut near downtown Vancouver as a luscious greenway, learned how to start up a youth-owned landscaping business, and discussed with high school students the benefits of not relying on the automobile as a primary form of transportation, I maintained a keen interest on group dynamics and processes. Thus began my interest in the process of public involvement in the work of landscape architects and planners.

This research study began with a personal curiosity about how individuals throughout Nunavut are involved in park planning. The method that I used for this discovery was one in which a theory emerges from the data. I did not, however, arrive at the research question using an emergent method. I have learned through the course of this study that emergent research is very suitable to working in the Arctic, and I wonder if it is more suitable to develop a research question with the assistance of public involvement. Perhaps my study is parallel to that of a territorial park planning engaging in a problem-solving exercise - such as the planning of a park. Except that in this exercise, I did not investigate the research opportunities that may have been of interest to community members. While this research ends with some recommendations for planners, the thesis also ends with a suggestion for future research to include prescription for community members (that is, the public) regarding their participation in park planning.

Grounded theory was an obvious and excellent method for me to study human processes in the Arctic. During the entire research study I was steadfast in my decision to use grounded theory and found that it gave me the proper tools that I needed to find out what was happening with public participation in the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division within the Government of Nunavut. The approach taken in this particular research study, however, may have been less personal and more objective than many other grounded theory texts. I chose to take an approach where I remained as objective as possible because, being my first independent research study of a scholarly nature, I wanted to feel secure that I was conducting a valid research process. I also chose to keep my personal observations to a minimum because grounded theory is sometimes not recommended for the novice researcher (see Glaser, 1967 for more information on this subject). In doing this, I hope to remain true to the voices of the interview subjects who shared their stories and ideas about public participation in park planning.

However, this objective approach to researching meant that the case study data (interviews and internal parks documents) was not supplemented with additional information. And, while the data did provide a wealth of information about public participation in park planning in Nunavut, there was little mention of the impacts of the Arctic geography in the data that I sampled.

It came to me as some surprise that only scant mention was made about the geography of the Arctic, and how it may influence how the public may become involved in any process regarding park development. There was mention in one interview of a Nunavut Parks and Tourism staff member that the vastness of Nunavut combined with limited budgets meant that there are few staff members who can carry out the work of park planning in the entire territory of Nunavut. It was not mentioned, however, that there would be limited face-to-face meetings between park planners and community members and more correspondence via email, phone, and fax because of the remoteness of many Nunavut communities. It appears to me that relying on less personal types of correspondence could potentially affect how individuals or groups can make decisions and carry out a planning process together.

The personal challenges of working in the Arctic were mostly felt due to the frustrations that came with not being able to speak the dominant language, Inuktitut. Direct access into the Inuit culture – and understanding of the meaning in some interview texts - was limited because of what I felt were language barriers between myself and the Inuit people whom I encountered during the course of the research study. For instance, as I proceeded with the grounded theory analysis, it became obvious to me that I could code the interviews of non-Inuit individuals more easily than those of Inuit people.

There were numerous merits, however, to researching in Nunavut. Experiencing the Arctic through its landscape is a beautiful way to be introduced to an Inuit culture. It seems to me that the land of Nunavut and the Inuit culture are inseparable from one another; and from this I gained new perspective on how I relate to the landscape. My personal experience of the land of Nunavut is a deeply spiritual and emotional one, where I do not feel distinctly separate from the land but rather complete and whole within it. The inspiring feeling of walking on snowy tundra was an experience that was like, in my mind, what it may feel like to walk on the clouds.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Park planners are charged with the task of analyzing and introducing possible alternatives for land use and land management. Planners cannot ignore the fact that the planning, management, and use of land brings about different perspectives that are not necessarily compatible. "Planning is an inherently political exercise. And because of this political nature there will always be unfulfilled expectations, multiple and conflicting goals, institutional constraints, and limits to goal accomplishment." (Cortner & Shannon, 1993, p. 14) Different viewpoints – and different politics – about land management must be valued within a system that upholds social equality and representation. As such, public participation must be part of land planning and management in order to truly reflect democratic rights.

> The primary rationale for enhancing stakeholder participation in public land planning is based on the democratic maxim that those affected by a decision should participate directly in the decision-making process. Given that a great percentage of Canada's land and natural resources are publicly owned, provisions for public participation in land use and natural resource planning are of critical importance (Duffy, Roseland, & Gunton, 1996, p. 2).

Regarding the acceptability of public participation as a means of providing democratic rights, Arnstein writes, "Participation of the governed in their government is, in theory, the cornerstone of democracy – a revered idea that is vigorously applauded by virtually everyone." (Arnstein, 1969, p. 216) It is an accepted norm that members of the public should participate in governmental organizations, and in planning efforts such as land and environmental planning.

This study is concerned with park planning in the Canadian territory of Nunavut, and seeks to understand how the public is involved in the territorial park planning process. Members of the public are being increasingly involved in park planning as both public and

governments respond to what was once a distinctly undemocratic process of land management.

> In the past, Aboriginal people have been inadequately involved or consulted in the management of their traditional lands and this lack of participation has resulted in tension and mistrust among Aboriginal communities and government. ....Policy-makers and administrators must not only be sensitive to Aboriginal perspectives and aspirations, but must begin to incorporate their approaches and perspectives in new policies and plans (Subcommittee on Aboriginal Economic Development in Relation to Northern National Parks, 2001, p. 28).

Planners, as well, must incorporate into their policies and plans the interests of aboriginal and other members of the public. And, while public participation is a vital component of park and natural resource planning, the processes that are studied in this research can be transferred to many other situations where public involvement occurs. For example, in *Planning in the Face of Power*, Forester sees the public participation process as simply a part of a system of organizational communication in planning practice (Forester, 1989). He adds that public participation must not be seen in isolation, but rather as a part of another larger process within an organization. Similarly, in Nunavut, public participation is part of a larger process of park and tourism planning.

Public participation in planning has not always been the norm, but grew throughout the 1960's and 1970's with the introduction of the concept of accountability (Alexander, 1992; Beierle & Cayford, 2002). It was during the 1960's that participation in environmental projects appeared, and public participation increased with subsequent generations (Rifkin, 1991). As public officials were held more and more accountable for the management of public interests, governments operations became more transparent. By being more open and transparent, governments were brought closer to the public, which led to the concepts of public participation and citizen involvement.

> Beginning in the 1960's, largely in response to US involvement in Vietnam, there was a notable upsurge of citizen interest in reclaiming governance from elected and appointed leaders by participating directly. Among planners this translated into community involvement and advocacy planning, both based on the premise that people should express or be served in terms of their own needs rather than be given what experts had determined they needed (Cranz, 1982, p. 238).

Organizations are increasing public participation to be accountable to the public for social, economic, political, and environmental factors. Socio-economic accountability of organizations has required balancing resource distribution and profit; political accountability has directed the need for equitability; cultural accountability has required that organizations enable individual self-development and fulfillment; and environmental accountability has required a need to be inclusive of ecology and ecological systems (Taket & White, 2000). Governments, for example, are listening to the public more often on issues related to parks and protected areas. McNamee states that it is rarely a legal obligation that motivates governments to create protected areas, but rather, "it is public opinion and advocacy that creates the context for political action to create new protected areas." (McNamee, 1999, p.52) The advent of accountability has also meant that planners are increasingly interesting themselves in issues of class, race, gender, and individuals (Forester, 1989). To foster accountability to the public, organizations are taking measures that include decentralizing internal structures, creating less hierarchical working models, and externalizing activities that would have previously been done internally (Taket & White, 2000). By inviting members of the public to become involved in decision-making, planning organizations can increase their knowledge base with respect to public concerns and needs, facilitate public understanding of how decision-making processes occur, and allow input by special interest groups (Duffy et al., 1996).

Many different approaches of public participation are being practiced in the field of planning, each approach often responding to political, socio-economic, and environmental changes. To deal with a variety of situations where public is involved in planning, practitioners and theorists have identified approaches that can be adapted for practice. It appears, however, that there is often very little guidance on how to involve the public properly (Margerum, 1997). Further study into the practice of public participation in planning is required at this time. To be more precise, it is important at this time to inquire into the process of participatory planning in specific cases, which should include research into how the context of planning affects public participation and the public participation process (Beierle & Cayford, 2002).

In order to guide future practice, this study proposes a new approach to public participation in natural resource planning for a primarily aboriginal community. Derived from a general literature review in participatory planning and a study of park and tourism planning in Nunavut, a new approach is offered for achieving effective citizen participation in territorial park planning in Nunavut, Canada.

1.2 Research Goals

The goal of this research study is to develop a theory for an approach to participatory park planning in the territory of Nunavut, for an improved public participation process that contributes to the advancement of public government in Nunavut[1]. This theory is identified by comparing actual processes of public involvement in park planning in

[1] Nunavut has a public government, where Inuit are employed in public service in proportion to their population (85%); Inuit and Nunavut government representatives are appointed to certain public institutions; there are no territorial political parties but rather a Legislative Assembly that works on consensus politics and operates in Inuktitut; and the government is decentralized (Nortext Multimedia Incorporated and Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated. 1999).

Nunavut against characteristics of public involvement in planning literature. The objectives of this study are to:

- Determine a theory for the current process of public involvement in territorial park planning in Nunavut,
- Demonstrate this theory through a conceptual model,
- Contrast Nunavut participatory planning practice with theoretical participatory planning processes,
- Define a conceptual theory that shows the contributions of theoretical participatory planning process to Nunavut participatory planning practice, and
- Demonstrate this conceptual theory through a conceptual model.

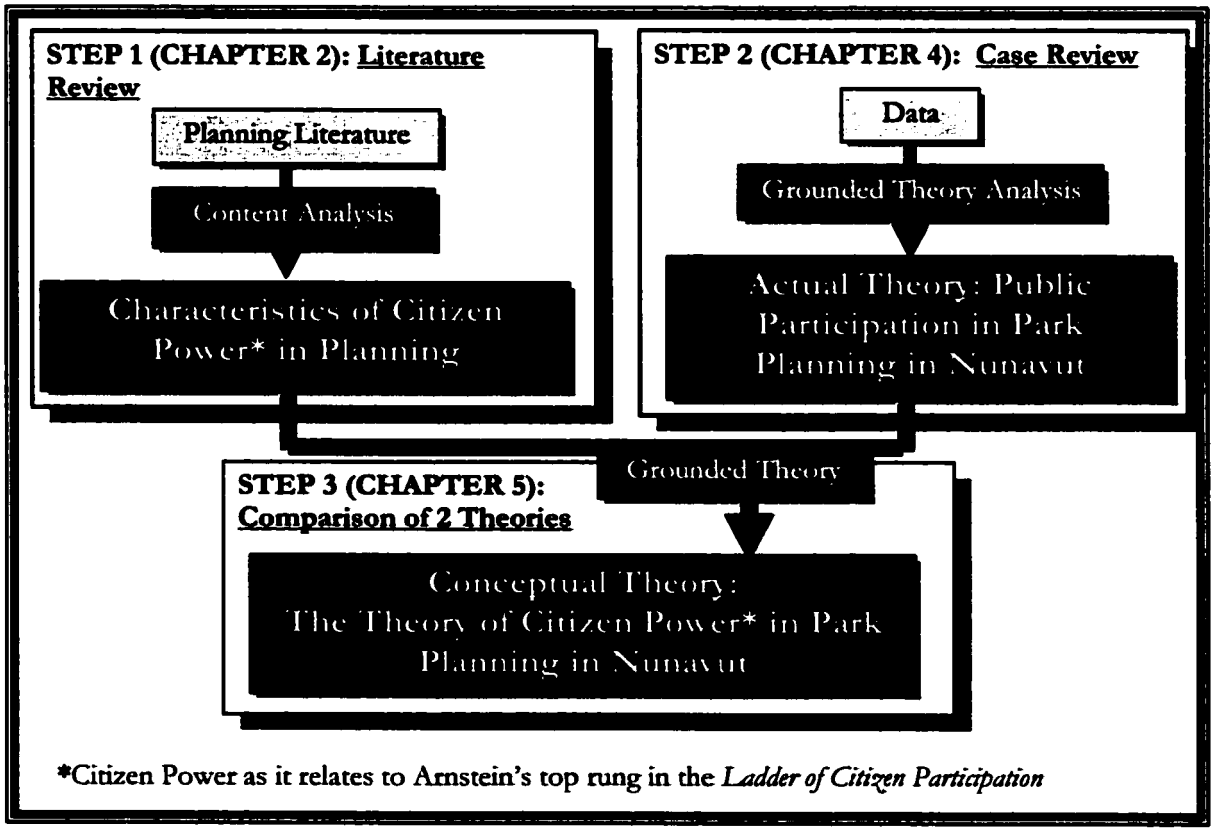
The final conceptual model is a newly designed approach to public participation in Nunavut, highlighting opportunities for and constraints on future action of practitioners working with Nunavut communities in making decisions on park planning and management.

1.3 Research Approach

Theory has been produced in this study to explain behaviour and can be used in practical applications of planning (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This thesis research produced what may be called middle range theory[2], which offers perspectives about a single substantive case – that of public participation practices in Nunavut. This study built theory in three main steps (see Figure 1-1 *Framework of Research Study*) - literature review, case review, and comparative analysis. The literature review used content analysis as a method to analyse public participation in natural resource management in the North American context. The review resulted in a list of characteristics of participatory park planning approaches. After the literature review, step 2 used a grounded theory approach to produce a theory of the Nunavut Parks and Tourism participatory planning process. Grounded theory continued into step 3 when the model was compared against the characteristics of participatory

planning – resulting in a conceptual theory of Nunavut Parks and Tourism participatory planning process. This conceptual theory demonstrates how the Nunavut Parks' participatory planning processes operate in relation to other practices of park planning, and it also allows for observations on the actual Nunavut participatory park planning process. Both theories produced in this study are diagrammed as conceptual models. As proposed by Margerum, in building any conceptual planning model, the model produced in this study "...brings together research findings, literature contributions, and lessons from practice to help guide future efforts." (1997, p. 469)

Figure 1-1 *Framework of Research Study*



[2]Middle range theories are to be distinguished from minor working theories and grand theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

1.4 Motivation for the Study

The Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division of the Department of Sustainable Development involves members of the public in park planning and management. Historically, the public was involved in territorial park planning when the Northwest Territories governed areas currently under the jurisdiction of Nunavut. Since its inception as a territory, park planners in Nunavut have continued to involve the public using a similar process. Never before has the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division studied how its public participation process resembles or differs from theoretical participatory planning processes. Rather, the Division has inherited an approach to public involvement from the Government of Northwest Territories. The Parks Division, however, is currently modifying their planning process to suit socio-economic, political, and cultural changes occurring from the creation of a land claim and a new territory; and, as such, there may be accompanying modification to the public participation process. A study of participatory planning practices, and how they compare to the theories of public participation in park planning, is a useful tool at this very time when the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division is undergoing organizational changes. A model of Nunavut participatory park planning process can provide to the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division an additional lens through which to assess its park planning practices.

The researcher had the opportunity to work for the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division of the Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut. From August to December, 2001, the researcher collected and interpreted information that culminated in a report on the feasibility of tourist and park attractions in Kugaaruk, Nunavut. The feasibility study was unrelated to the research conducted in this thesis study. However, because of this work experience, the researcher initiated the thesis study with some knowledge about the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division. Incidentally, the

researcher never lost her wonder of the process of how Nunavut Parks involves community when they plan parks[3]. During four months with the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, the researcher made contact with the Nunavut Parks Division staff and several consultants. The idea for this thesis study was initiated prior to beginning work with the Nunavut Parks Division and paralleled the need to learn how to conduct public participation in the early stages of park and tourism development. The idea for the production of a participatory planning theory was developed while working with the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, during which time it became apparent that public participation was common practice but that readily available information about the process and techniques of involving the public was nearly absent from the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division. Data for this study was collected and analysed in the winter of 2002, after the researcher's work term with Nunavut Parks was completed.

1.5 Definition of Terms

This research study set out to find the terms, and their meanings, for various processes of public involvement. There were, however, terms that were defined as the researcher initiated this study. The words *community* and *public* have been used "to designate a broad range of groups and individuals whose perspectives, interests, and/or responsibilities differ from the immediately involved planning unit" (Warner, 1988, p. 128). *Communities*, however, also indicates a group of individuals who share the same permanent settlement, such as a hamlet or a city in Nunavut. *Stakeholders* are often referred to in this study, and this term denotes groups or organizations that have an interest in the situation at hand, but who

[3] The presence of wonder is important in maintaining what Glaser refers to as Theoretical Sensitivity in conducting the work of grounded theory (Glaser, 1992).

have decision-making power (Kofinas & Griggs, 1996). The word *participation* has been used interchangeably with the word *involvement* to denote that people were taking part in a process of planning. This study frequently uses these words in phrases; for example, citizen involvement, community involvement or public participation. All of these terms denote a population that is not employed by the territorial government, but does take part in some aspect of the planning of parks and tourist developments. The public, therefore, may involve municipally elected leaders such as Hamlet councillors or territorially elected leaders of Inuit agencies. The public, in other words, is distinguished from professionals who are trained and educated in resource planning.

Planning is a term that describes how professionals anticipate, prevent, and monitor changes of development. In this study, planning is regarded "as a tool to determine holding capacity, future land needs and ideas for creatively working with natural resources to improve the local quality of life and to increase self-reliance." (Palermo, 2000, p.3) Planning is ongoing, incremental, and often results in plans, studies, or designs. Planning frequently occurs in an environment of confrontation, where stakeholders are charged with the task of negotiating conflict. The main thrust of this study is not dispute resolution in planning practice, but the research study may include aspects of dispute and/or conflict resolution as a component of the planning process. The term *process* has been used as it was defined by Strauss and Corbin, as "a series of evolving sequences of action and interaction that occur over time and space, changing or sometimes remaining the same in response to the situation or context" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 165). Lastly, the idea of a *park* has been used to describe "any area of public or private land set aside for aesthetic, educational, recreational, or cultural use" (Gold, 1980, p. 29). The terms defined here have been used throughout the study unless it is otherwise specified.

The language of planning is not regularly used among members of the Nunavut public. For example, Friedmann writes that the language is often different between planners and clients, where planners use conceptual, mathematical, and objective language and clients use language that is imprecise and based on events (1973). Deirmenjian and Jones asserts that planning is a meaningless term outside of a western context and that the general public of the Arctic regions of Canada cannot understand its need or usefulness (1983). The differences in language can indicate differences in world views, where northern and southern world views are reportedly different. "The native groups in the north hold similar world views, which are distinctly different from the world view of the minority but dominant group, the southerner or white. The implications of the domination of white over native are many and greatly affect the planning process." (Deirmenjian & Jones, 1983, p.11) The writings of Deirmenjian and Jones still hold true for current practices of planning. However, as has been discussed already, planners are using public participation as a way to include public interests in a planning process. The methods that planners are using for including the public for heightened citizen control are the content of this study, and are discussed throughout chapters two, four, and five.

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis begins with a brief description of how the research study was structured. The structure is described using a framework as a reference to the research design. A literature review (Chapter 2) describes some key information in the area of participatory park planning. Following this, the thesis explains the methods used for a case study of public involvement in park planning (Chapter 3). In this chapter the methods of theory formulation, data collection, and data measurement are described. The next chapter

describes the analysis of the case example in Nunavut (Chapter 4). At this point in the thesis, the case study theory is compared to the characteristics of public involvement in planning (Chapter 5), and introduces a theoretical statement about how Nunavut Parks involves community in park planning. The last chapter ends with a description of the theory, its implications, its contributions, and suggestions for future research. Finally, the thesis includes a bibliography and various appendices.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND TO PUBLIC INVOLVEMENT IN PARK PLANNING

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the purposes and practices of public involvement in park planning. Very little literature exists that is specific to public involvement in park planning, whereas literature is more available when it relates public involvement to natural resource planning, natural resource management, community planning, and planning in general. This study has surveyed these four planning areas for instruction on public involvement, citizen participation, collaboration, and cooperation. The first section of this chapter explains the benefits of and types of public participation, starting with an explanation of the evolution of public involvement in planning through four forces of change – social, political, economic, and environmental. The first section also includes a study of Sherry Arnstein's classic *Ladder of Citizen Participation* as a means of categorizing different levels of community involvement. In the following section of chapter two, various public participation planning approaches are introduced and described along the continuum of Arnstein's Ladder. These approaches are detailed for their background, purposes, principles, techniques, and processes. A third section in this chapter outlines 16 key characteristics that have been extracted from the literature review and that contribute significantly to the field of public participation when working in natural resource planning and management. These characteristics have been diagrammed so that planning practitioners may be able to understand actions that they can take to increase citizen power in park and natural resource planning.

2.2 Why Public Involvement?

The overriding benefit of public participation is to improve planning to be more democratic and able to offer change to society (Checkoway, 1986; Mitchell, 1986). Public involvement can create societal changes by redistributing power from governments and corporations to citizens who previously may have had little control over decisions. Power can be redistributed through increased representation and influence of a community; or creation of new organizations that give citizens avenues to exercise power and their legal and political rights (Checkoway, 1986). Within organizations, public participation is beneficial because it can fulfill legislated mandates, improve communications, build support, create more transparent political processes, and involve wider ranges of citizens such as minorities (Checkoway, 1986). Decisions made with public involvement will have greater commitment and credibility because the stakeholders trust and understand the process (Duffy et al., 1996). Creativity and communication are enhanced through public participation because stakeholders are gathered from a large base, have a greater source of information, have increased chances to build relationships, and are better equipped to discuss real issues (Duffy et al., 1996).

2.2.1 Forces of Change That Give Rise to Public Involvement

Public involvement in planning has arisen from societal changes that can be differentiated into four areas of change – social, political, economic, and environmental. Societal changes that have led to the evolution of increased public participation include increased involvement of citizens in park activities. For instance, people are becoming more interested in park planning and development as use of park areas increases.

> Since the 1960's and 1970's...the number of uses, users, and the associated controversy and conflict, have intensified in parks and protected areas as well

> as the lands and waters around them. One result has been the greater use of citizen participation, environmental impact assessment, mediation, and other conflict resolution methods within and outside the parks and protected areas (Nelson, Serafin, Skibicki, & Lawrence, 1997, p. 56).

As well, many public groups are becoming more interested in the planning process as citizens react to past decisions of planners that have not satisfactorily served public interests. Nelson describes the movement away from solely professionally-driven park and protected area management.

> In the past, stress has been placed on rational or synoptic planning, and on corporate management, in national parks and protected areas around the world. In North America these approaches took hold in the 1960's and 1970's. This was a time of great growth in demand for recreation, for environmental protection, and for parks and protected areas. National, provincial, and state systems plans were developed in countries such as Canada and the U.S. and bureaucracies were created to manage protected areas. Planning and management were concentrated within the boundaries of the protected areas, an approach that was later referred to as a fortress mentality. Management, resource conservation and visitor service plans were to be developed for each park and protected area, with the idea that they would be followed quite precisely in government the areas in question. Almost from the outset, however, this command and control system had to be modified because of the need to take account of the reactions, opinions, and ideas of users and citizens (Nelson et al., 1997, p. 5).

The interests of the public are being listened to with the knowledge that not doing so could perpetuate colonial attitudes of the past that had little regard for public inclusion in land planning. In the case of involvement of aboriginal groups, Notzke writes that, "Until well into the 1970s northern native people found themselves confronted with major resource development projects, which were undertaken on their ancestral lands without any consideration for their environmental and socioeconomic effects." (Notzke, 1995, p. 205) While society may have once been characterized by divisiveness and desire to conquer, there is now a growing movement towards societal holism and equality, which frequently includes a view that public stakeholders are part of the planning puzzle, and need to be included in the planning process. As an example, there has been increased cooperation between

members of the public and resource management agencies to overcome fragmentation of our society, which has been split into agencies, governments, sectors, groups, disciplines, and structures (Yaffee, 1998, p. 299). Increased cooperation between stakeholders has often meant more interactive and participatory approaches.

Political changes have also brought about increases in citizen involvement in planning. More voices are being heard in natural resource management because of political agendas that include public rights, organizational responsibilities, and government regulations (Notzke, 1995; Lang, 1986). Additional regulations have introduced the need to involve more stakeholders, who may have knowledge, ability, or decision-making power, which was previously housed within one organization.

> Institutional arrangements, in the form of legislation, organizational structures and planning processes, must explicitly recognize and support shared decision-making processes. ...Planning and decision-making processes must be designed and implemented to foster comprehensive stakeholder participation. The issues of who participates, when they participate and how they participate are critical to achieving the goals of fairness, efficiency and stability in decision-making (Duffy et al., 1996, p. 9).

In other words, institutions must share the decision-making process in a variety of ways so that those organizations achieve fairness, efficiency, and stability. Organizations that are fair will be more accountable and responsible to public stakeholders, thereby alleviating political pressures.

Economic changes within organizations have demanded an increase in public participation. These changes include factors associated with economic globalisation, and economic pressures that have forced businesses and governments to have tighter working relationships. Shrinking finances and resources for social programs have also created a need to redistribute responsibilities among more players, such as the volunteer sector (Taket & White, 2000; Lang, 1986).

An increase in knowledge about the environment has brought about organizational changes regarding public participation. Not only is there an increase in the appreciation for local knowledge within the field of ecosystem science, but scientific knowledge about ecosystems has also changed. Newly acquired knowledge and attitudes in the environmental fields have changed the corporate management structure over parks and protected areas, resulting in more cooperative approaches to management, greater public participation in decision-making and private stewardship (Nelson et al., 1997; Margerum, 1997). For example, there has been more collaboration and public participation due to changes in the fields of water resource management, ecological and biological sciences, public administration and environmental policy analysis, and urban and regional planning (Margerum, 1997). As well, an increase in resource conservation due to resource scarcity has initiated a movement towards more integrated approaches that necessarily involve public stakeholders (Lang, 1986).

Organizations are responding to social, political, economic, and environmental conditions by making internal changes. Internal organizational changes such as decentralization, organizational fragmentation, the introduction of non-hierarchical structures and more subcontracting out of activities are motivating factors in bringing in increased public in decision-making in the natural resource management fields (Taket & White, 2000; Yaffee, 1998; Selin & Chavez, 1995). As well, collaborative work that includes the input of public stakeholders is often a response to internal organizational crises, third party instigation, legal mandates, existing common visions, or existing organizational networks (Selin & Chavez, 1995). By involving the public in different ways, organizations offer different levels of citizen control in natural resource planning.

Factors of social, political, economic, and environmental changes have had a heavy impact on the Canadian Arctic through the introduction of Christian spirituality, permanent settlements, new technologies, and new ideologies about self, family, community, and leadership. For instance, prior to southern influence in the north, decision-making amongst Inuit of the Canadian Arctic was entirely based on consensus, where decision-makers or leaders were temporary and chosen through a specific, required skill (Nortext Multimedia Incorporated and Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated, 1999). Although elders and people with specific knowledge may have leadership status in a community, there is also a territorial leadership structure, with representative elected leaders who stay in office until their term has expired and who regularly make decisions on behalf on the public. The biggest change, and one that has strained the Inuit of Nunavut, is the introduction of the wage economy. Nunavut – at a rate of 20.7% - has the highest rate of unemployment of all the provinces and territories of Canada (Nunavut Bureau of Statistics, 1999). Meanwhile, the percentage of people in the labour force in Nunavut is relatively high compared with other provinces and territories, revealing that there is no lack of people who are ready and able to work[3]. The economy of the Arctic is unstable, as Nunavut moves from a primarily land-based economy to a mixed economy. Planners are working to create better possible futures in the changing and unstable society of Nunavut. For instance, park planners are creating a new planning program to match the needs and requirements of working in the new territory of Nunavut[4].

[3] The percentage of people who are in the labour force in Nunavut was 66.6% in 1999. In Nunavut, there has been an additional assessment of unemployment rates due to a small number of jobs that are available. While 20.7% of people were unemployed in Nunavut, 27.2% of people stated that they were unemployed because there were no jobs perceived to be available. On the other hand, 35.6% of people stated that they wanted a job (Nunavut Bureau of Statistics, 1999).

[4] Prior to the development of Nunavut, parks were administered by the Department of Resources, Wildlife and Economic Development within the Government of the Northwest Territories. In 1999, when Nunavut became a distinct territory of Canada, the Nunavut Parks and Tourism department became responsible for the territorial parks in Nunavut - including planning, management, and operations of these parks.

2.2.2 Levels of citizen power

In 1969 Sherry Arnstein outlined a simple for varying degrees of citizen participation, to be used in community and other planning initiatives (see Figure 2-1 *Eight Rungs on a Ladder of Citizen Participation*). The ladder has 8 rungs that move from a manipulative level of participation, which is characterized by non-participation, to citizen control, which can be characterized by members of the public having power over the planning process. The rungs in Arnstein's Ladder are parallel with degrees of democratic, civil liberties. Arnstein advocates high levels of citizen power in public participation processes so that all people, especially those who have been excluded in political and economic processes, can make deliberate decisions for the future. More recently, Beierle and Cayford have found that, in order for a public process to be successful, the public must have control over the initiation, design and execution of a public participation process (2002). Arnstein offers a detailed critique of degrees of citizen power in decision-making and planning processes. Arnstein's ladder categorizes degrees of citizen power into Non-Participation, Tokenism, and Citizen Power (Arnstein, 1969, p. 217). The literature that has been reviewed in this study is *only concerned with the top two approaches that fall into the degree of Citizen Power.* Citizen Power incorporates all approaches that give power to citizens during the planning process. Citizen Power is a degree of power that includes three rungs on Arnstein's Ladder; that is, the rungs of Partnership, Delegated Power, and Citizen Control.

Figure 2-1 *Eight Rungs on a Ladder of Citizen Participation* (Arnstein, 1969)

8	Citizen Control	Degrees of citizen power
7	Delegated Power	
6	Partnership	
5	Placation	Degrees of tokenism
4	Consultation	
3	Informing	
2	Therapy	Nonparticipation
1	Manipulation	

The first rung in Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation that falls within the degree of Citizen Power is called Partnership. In Partnership approaches, structures are created to allow for a sharing of planning and decision-making, but communities and members of the public do not have any final decision-making power. This study is specifically interested in the ability of citizens to have full-decision making power, and thus is concerned with the top two rungs of Arnstein's Ladder - *Delegation* and *Citizen Control.* These top two levels of citizen power are of interest to planners in Nunavut because of the already high level of public involvement in Nunavut. Aspects of Delegation exist in participatory park planning, where communities have power in decision-making and delegation; but communities may wish to move to the highest rung on Arnstein's ladder so that citizens can learn how to have full control over a planning process. In the rung of the ladder called Delegation, citizens have decision-making authority. Citizens make sure that they are receiving fair treatment and that all parties are accountable. The community having veto power can ensure this. Often the Delegation type of citizen power includes specific areas of power delegation such as in hiring; policy creation; and contracting or subcontracting of planning, implementation, and management. In these situations, planners will start the decision-making process. The top rung in Arnstein's Ladder is called Citizen Control. When

citizens control a process, they have "full charge of policy and managerial aspects, and are able to negotiate the conditions" (Arnstein, 1969, p. 233). In most cases, final approval and accountability ultimately rests with a government or council, who often do not represent citizens fairly. For the most part, Citizen Control can offer political and socioeconomic benefits to communities. These top two rungs of Citizen Power can be translated into many approaches to citizen participation in natural resource planning and management.

2.3 Public Involvement Approaches in Planning

This study has situated various approaches and methods of public participation according to their level of Citizen Power[5]. As a means of simplifying the literature review portion of this study, the author has reclassified many approaches and methods into five main approaches, each of which is significantly different from the other (see Figure 2-2 *The Selection of Five Planning Approaches According to their Common Features*). For instance, the co-management approaches typically involve public stakeholders (usually a public organization or group) to work alongside government agencies so that they can manage resources together. Each of the five main approaches is reviewed here, with particular emphasis on where they fit into Arnstein's top rung of Citizen Power (see Figure 4 *Five Approaches Ranked According to Level of Citizen Power*).

[5] It is always important when working with the public to know where the planning process sits on the Ladder of Citizen Participation (Caldwell, Toombs, Knight, & Turvey, 2000).

Figure 2-2 *The Selection of Five Planning Approaches According to their Common Features* (Author)

Name	Features	Proponents
Co-Management Approaches	❖ Natural resources are jointly managed by government and local users through cooperative methods ❖ Each party works independently and has veto power ❖ Is an organizational arrangement ❖ Communities advocate for themselves ❖ Most often used where there is management of common property and jurisdictional interests and capabilities are the same.	Beckley (Consensus-Based Forest Mgmt) Berg, Fenge, Dearden Berkes Berkes, George, Preston Greening & Gonzales Mitchell Noble Notzke Parks Canada (Cooperative Management) Pinkerton Saskatchewan Indian Federated College Thomson
Integrated Ecosystem Approaches	❖ Premise is that eco-systems management can be enhanced with public involvement ❖ Community members are trained to have power over a situation, and there is a sharing of ultimate decision-making ❖ These approaches seeks to meet specific objectives, and to engage community to help meet the objectives ❖ Based on an ecosystem view (is holistic and interactive)	Born & Sonzogni (Integrated Environmental Management) Brandon & Wells (Integrated Conservation-Development Projects) Dasmann Diemer and Alvarez (A 2 step model for participation in Sustainable Forestry and Ecosystem Management) Kellert et al. (Community Natural Resource Management) Lang (Integrated Resource Planning) Margerum (Integrated Planning and Management) Mitchell (Integrated Resource Management) Salwasser (Ecosystem Management) Silberstein & Maser (Land Use Planning for Sustainable Development) Slocombe (Ecosystem Approaches for Integrating Environment and Development) Zube
Participatory Appraisal Approaches	❖ Reverses the planning framework so that relationships & actions change direction ❖ Teaches communities to have full charge of the planning, decision-making & outcomes ❖ Benefits are for the community (most often rural)	Chambers (Participatory Rural Appraisal) Taket and White (Participatory Appraisal of Needs and Development of Action)
Communicative Approaches	❖ Citizens are trained to negotiate for themselves ❖ Premised on organizational and social behaviour being the key to successful natural resource management ❖ One of the objectives is to have an effective process through good dialogue, learning, and consensus-building ❖ Benefits are political and socio-economic ❖ Socially motivated approach	Checkoway (Involving Citizens in Planning) Daniels and Walker (Collaborative learning in Ecosystem-based management) Forster Friedmann (Transactive Planning) Habermas (Communicative Rationality) Innes, Innes & Booher (Communicative Planning) Kofinas and Griggs (Collaboration Theory) Nelson and Serafin (Civics Approach) Selin and Chavez (Collaborative Process in Natural Resource Management) Warner Wondolleck & Yaffee (Collaboration in Natural Resource Management) Yaffee

Name	Features	Proponents
Developmental Planning Approaches	❖ Citizens are trained to be in charge of planning, development, priority-setting, and decision-making ❖ Community development is always an outcome, and is achieved through participatory practices ❖ Premised that effective management and planning comes with community development ❖ Values integration	Boothroyd (Developmental Planning) Briggs Wismer (A Community-Based Approach for Sustainable Development) Wolfe (Integrated Community-Based Planning)

Figure 2-3 *Five Planning Approaches Ranked on the Ladder of Citizen Participation* (Author)

8	**Citizen Control**	❖ **Developmental Planning Approaches** ❖ **Communicative Approaches** ❖ **Participatory Appraisal Approaches**	Degrees of citizen power
7	**Delegated Power**	❖ **Integrated Ecosystem Approaches** ❖ **Co-Management Approaches**	
6	Partnership		
5	Placation		Degrees of tokenism
4	Consultation		
3	Informing		
2	Therapy		Non-participation
1	Manipulation		

2.3.1 Approaches of Delegated Power

Within the Ladder of Citizen Participation, the second highest rung is called Delegated Power. A number of features are required for a planning approach to fall into the rung of Delegation. These features are:

- ❖ Accountability by all parties
- ❖ Veto power by a community
- ❖ Control by a community over hiring, buying, leasing, contracting, and policy creation
- ❖ A process that starts from those who hold the power (Arnstein, 1969).

There are two main approaches to public involvement that signal characteristics of Delegation – co-management approaches to institutional arrangements and a number of theories designed to integrate environment and development through an ecosystem

approach. These three areas are highlighted here for their definition, driving principles, and steps that are taken when engaging in public participation.

2.3.1.1 Co-management

Co-management approaches, like many other approaches, can provide a range of participation options. Co-management is designated as a degree of Delegated Power because co-management espouses veto power by any stakeholder, including the community (Greening, 1999). Co-management also advocates, however, accountability by all parties and community control over resources and decisions surrounding them (Greening, 1999). As well, co-management is often a process that is instigated by different levels of government, who initially hold the power, but there is a sharing of decision-making and management throughout the process.

Co-management is not really a process but rather an organizational arrangement between government resource managers and local, community-based groups. (Berg, Fenge, & Dearden, 1993; Berkes & Preston, 1991; Berkes, 1994; Greening & Gonzales, 1999; Mitchell, 1996; Noble, 2000; Notzke, 1995; Palermo, 1996; Pinkerton, 1996; Thomson, 1998) A collaborative process between government and community, co-management uses knowledge from traditional sources, balances power between stakeholders, mandates community involvement, and makes decisions using bottom-up approaches such as consensus (Greening & Gonzales, 1999). Co-management formalizes agreements in legal and long-term legislations. As well, there is support from governmental agencies such as monetary resources that make it more possible for communities to become involved (Pinkerton, 1996).

Co-management is particularly good in two situations, when individuals need to self-regulate in order to be sustainable and when there is a history of community resource management (Pinkerton, 1996). Co-management is often used when governments are jointly managing resources with aboriginal peoples because there can be self-regulation and resource management on behalf of the community group, as well as involvement of communities in conducting tasks related to planning (Pinkerton, 1996). Co-management attempts at community having power over planning process by maintaining that "...one of the most important goals of co-management is to push down decision-making to the lowest possible level." (Notzke, 1995, p. 205) Co-management arrangements are based on the premise that, "The people best able to design or plan an environment or a community are the people who will use that environment or inhabit that community" (Aubrey, 1999, p. 12). Although stakeholders may have veto-power, planning and decision-making are always happening jointly, and therefore there will always be some control via the governmental stakeholders, thus keeping co-management approaches in Arnstein's degree of Delegated Power.

Co-management should take place in small areas, where changes can be seen to take effect. As well, by involving a small number of citizens and governmental levels, better communication can take place and specific mandates can be met (Pinkerton, 1996). Often co-management is successful when governments are working with indigenous groups. Some of the characteristics of this success are that indigenous groups should have control of access and preferential rights to resources, participation in managerial levels, and the legitimization of traditional knowledge (Notzke, 1995). Jason Thomson, in his thesis on co-management in the territory of Yukon, states that co-management is appropriate in northern aboriginal settings due to the existence of aboriginal territorial rights, where aboriginal-state sharing of

power over natural resources is the norm, not the exception (Thomson, 1998). This is largely due to the large geographic area in which work is done, the small number of staff who works on projects, and the remoteness of the resource users.

The Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development has published a set of guidelines for co-management of natural resources with First Nations. Written jointly by the Saskatchewan Indian Federated College, these guidelines include a process for strategies and activities as part of co-management (1996). This linear process is included as an exemplary model for a co-management process (see Figure 2-4 *An Example of a Co-management Process*). The process identifies a process for natural resource planning and management decision-making, starting with a pre-negotiation stage and moving through negotiation, implementation of the agreement, monitoring of the agreement, and ending with an evaluation of the co-management agreement process.

Figure 2-4 *An Example of a Co-Management Process* (after Saskatchewan Indian Federated College, 1996)

Before the Negotiation Stage

- All stakeholders to identify and agree upon the problem
- Agree to co-manage the resources in question

The Negotiation Stage

- Ensure full and open communication exists between: chief and council; the elected leadership and community stakeholders such as the Elders and hunters/trappers; and community residents themselves
- Ensure that there is two-way feedback with community residents and others who wish to participate
- Ensure negotiations are located in communities rather than urban centers
- Think about the monitoring process now

Implementation

- Make sure the community is involved in the implementation of agreements
- Make sure that Elders in communities are involved at all stages
- Make sure that hunters, trappers, and fishermen are involved
- Make sure that the framework that has been agreed upon is holistic
- Provide technical assistance where it is necessary (provided by the government)
- Provide implementation worksheets that describe the situation, the area, the participants, the activities, the timing, the planning, and the funding

Monitoring

- Keep excellent records of the information coming in about the resource
- Train local individuals on how to use the systems
- Keep track on enforcements of the co-managed resource

Evaluation

- Review targets by someone who was not involved in the agreement process

The Saskatchewan Indian Federation College has also included a series of ways that community members can become and remain involved (see Figure 2-5 *Examples of Co-management Activities to Involve the Public*). There is an indication here that community member involvement will be solicited by the government, and that practitioners in the planning field will guide the planning process. This public participation process, which is managed primarily by the government, assists communities in gaining power through equal involvement and a sharing of decision-making power.

Figure 2-5 *Examples of Co-management Activities to Involve the Public* (after Saskatchewan Indian Federated College, 1996)

1. Hold a large public meeting.
   a. Advertise well in advance through radio announcements and posters.
   b. Share information, identify a problem together, and create a decision via consensus.
2. Have small public meetings with individual groups and organizations. The purpose of these will be the same as the large public meeting, but will capture more people in situ.
3. Ask the following questions when preparing meetings: what is the best time and place, has there been enough warning given, ways to get discussions rolling, who is the best person to manage the meeting, how to stay on track, how will results be recorded, and how to make the participants comfortable.
4. Make sure that Elders and hunters/trappers are a part of the entire process.
   a. Bring Elders and children together for better understanding and appreciation of each other.
   b. Find ways to have Elders involved in the implementation/monitoring of the project.
5. Maker sure that meeting purpose is clear. Have a specific purpose and/or problem.
6. Discuss importance of co-management. Make sure that Elders have time to comment on community views.
7. Define co-management.
   a. Ask people to give their own definition of natural resource management.
   b. Define co-management throughout the whole meeting process.
   c. Search for local terms and definitions.
   d. Give everyone many chances to express themselves.
8. Have mapping activities.
   a. Maps should be sketched by the participants.
   b. They should include features such as: trap-lines and cabins; waterfowl habitat; moose, deer, and elk areas; traditional and current trail systems; heritage areas; grave sites; hay meadows; medicine areas; fish spawning areas; place names; changes in community/reserve boundaries; traditional territory boundaries; etc.
   c. Mapping activity should include 5-7 people.
   d. If using aerial photographs, identify common features first for the group.
   e. Do no replicate earlier studies that have already identified the same things.
   f. Obtain maps at different scales for overview.
9. Use exercises such as, "Co-management as a Vehicle"
10. Collect Elder stories on life-history.
    a. Ask Elders about the resources, the community, their family, their personal history.
    b. Tape interviews for later reference.
    c. Have a community member be at the interview, such as the interviewer or translator.
11. Involve schoolchildren and youth.
    a. Get permission from the community leaders to work with schoolchildren.
    b. Get permission and involvement from the school board, school principal.
    c. Have a public meeting with the parents to get their interest and involvement.
    d. Have appropriate activities.
    e. Possibly have this type of activity on an on-going basis.
    f. Introduce mapping activities to children that are appropriate for the age groups.
    g. Introduce story-telling activities where Elders tell stories to schoolchildren about the resources in the area.
    h. Initiate field trips to teach and encourage thinking about resource use.
    i. Introduce picture making about resource use.
12. Involve all community members or representatives.
    a. Have semi-structured interview.
    b. Assess the environment from the perspective of locals by having meetings to learn about the management of resources.

2.3.1.2 Integrated Ecosystem Approaches

The approaches designated as the Integrated Ecosystem Approach are placed in the Delegated Power rung in Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation. The Integrated Ecosystem Approach (IEA) fits into the Delegated Power rung because it trains community members so that they can be accountable to the process and have decision-making power that is equal to or surpasses that of professional planners. Government or private sectors such as industry stakeholders initiate the IEA process and do the work to involve the citizen participants – both traits of Delegated Power. Together, all the players are engaged to meet the objectives in ecosystem management.

Integrated Ecosystem Approach is a term that has been used in this study to denote approaches to planning that are ecosystem-based, and are variously called Integrated Environmental Management (Born & Sonzogni, 1995), Integrated Conservation-Development Projects (Brandon & Wells, 1992), Community Natural Resource Management (Kellert, Mehta, Ebbin, & Lichtenfeld, 2000), Integrated Resource Planning and Management (Lang, 1986; Margerum, 1997; Mitchell, 1986) and Ecosystem Management (Diemer & Alvarez, 1995; Salwasser, 1999; Slocombe, 1993). All of these approaches have similar characteristics, the first being that each approach grows out of the disciplines of environmental and ecosystems planning and management. IEA approaches support the integration of communities of organisms and environments that work together to support life. Because ecosystems do not have absolute or permanent boundaries, then neither can ecosystem management restrict itself to one cultural community or decision-maker. IEA adds ecology to planning, which directs planning practice to be interdisciplinary, interagency, cooperative, holistic, and systems-oriented (Slocombe, 1993). For example, IEA works in spatial units that represent ecological boundaries and regards management areas as islands in

a much larger landscape system rather than as islands that operate in isolation (Slocombe, 1993). This approach does not rely on a socio-economic view that is based on supply and demand, but rather it sees life as a combination of human and non-human communities that are interacting together. (Silberstein & Maser, 2000)

Features of IEA are that it is systemic, interactive, and strategic (Born & Sonzogni, 1995; Lang, 1986; Salwasser, 1999; Slocombe, 1993). IEA works systemically to include all biophysical, chemical, and human parts of a system (Born & Sonzogni, 1995). There is a connection between these systems as well as a connection between an ecosystem and its region. As such, "protected areas are connected to their surroundings through ecological, economic, and cultural relationships" (Zube, 1995, p. 169). Because these approaches work systemically, it necessarily includes an interdisciplinary team approach to planning where the work is done through education, persuasion, building alliances and partnerships beyond the boundaries of the protected area (Zube, 1995). For instance, IEA works locally to empower citizens by devolving power and authority from central governments (Kellert et al., 2000) to all who are interested. IEA also maintains a systemic view towards planning by aiming to improve local socioeconomic standards through agreements and contracts that maximize economic benefits to local peoples. IEA seeks local solutions for local problems by educating people about natural resource management from a site-specific to an international scale. Overall sustainability is one aim in IEA, and can be achieved through conservation planning and management.

IEA is interactive because it involves the public, responds to public needs, opens decision-making to the public, and involves learning from user knowledge (Salwasser, 1999; Slocombe, 1993). This foundation of IEA supports the different knowledge systems and incorporates traditional knowledge in resource management so as to gain understanding of

regions, cultural meanings, and values (Zube, 1995). The interactive and inclusive process includes information exchange, information dispersal, consultation, negotiation, joint decision-making and bargaining using formalized networks (Born & Sonzogni, 1995; Dasmann, 1992).

In order to be strategic, IEA creates specific objectives for each situation and works towards these mutually desired objectives (Born & Sonzogni 1995). Programs and processes are created that fit the situation rather than doing things just because they have always been done that way (Zube, 1995). IEA is action-oriented and focussed on combining implementation and planning (Lang, 1986). By using consensus decision-making, IEA proposed to have non-hierarchical in its resolution of conflict and establishes interpersonal relationships (Born & Sonzogni, 1995). Some IEA stipulations for organizational behaviour are outlined by Born and Sonzogni, who suggest the need for organizations to be accessible to the public, to be skilled and creative when practicing public involvement techniques, and have guidelines for how members of the public will be involved (Born & Sonzogni, 1995).

Diemer and Alvarez offer a strategic model that is based on sustainable resource management and interaction between systems and environment (1995) (see Figure 2-6 *An Example of a Two-Step Model for Ecosystem Planning*). The goal of this model is to find shared goals between stakeholders and to put these goals into action. This model is not expert-based but rather it stems from the interest of community participants in planning, action, and implementation of objectives. The model has two steps, the search conference and the participative design workshop, and is offered here as an example of Interactive Ecosystem Approach process. The model shows an example of IEA as it adheres to the Delegated Power rung in Arnstein's Ladder, whereby the planning exercise is initiated by a professional

Figure 2-6 *An Example of a Two-Step Model for Ecosystem Planning* (after Diemer & Alvarez, 1995)

Step 1: The Search Conference

The goal of the Search Conference is to generate strategic plans, policy, new organizations, developments, and to rationalize conflict. This step provides a forum to discuss directions and to identify an endpoint for the process. Conflict is not resolved but rather identified and discussed.

1. Problem expressed.
2. Develop the task for the search conference.
3. Select participants (see Diemer and Alvarez for example).
4. Background research about the issue.
5. Examination of probabilities, feasibilities, and possibilities. Uncritical, all ideas are examined, free expression. Called "World Scan", this is a compiling of information about the world so that people can see possible futures for themselves. The information collection includes brainstorming global events that are significant, and wondering what could be done differently to produce different results.
6. Information is compiled about the local situation. Again, desirable futures are considered for different events and interests. Still very uncritical and free thinking is encouraged. Thoughts are recorded about the local situation; about what is working, what isn't working, and what should be initiated. The end of this step involves finding the best case scenario for their situation.
7. This step involves merging the last two steps, where the outside world and local situations are balanced against each other. Global constraints may hinder certain possibilities, and thus the situation is looked at from a lens of what is achievable. A future is chosen that fits the outside/inside world that matches best. Plans for action are developed to suit the chosen scenario.

Outcome: There should be two things in place, a planning community (or a group that shares common visions and objectives, and has gone through the planning together) and a strategic plan.

Step 2: Participative Design Workshop

The goal of this step is to create a participative, democratic organization. This step involves planning for implementation of the visions that emerged from step 1. Organization and organizational design principles are required in this step to establish a new plan for implementation. This step emphasizes the uniqueness of individuals working and/or participating in the resource management fields. Participants are supported through the process to share and mobilize their knowledge, skills, creativity, and concerns.

Requirements: 30-40 working hours to have the two steps completed. Not to be done in one sitting.

1. The group learns an alternate structure to bureaucracy. Instead, six psychological requirements for productivity are introduced. These steps include: decision-making, continuous learning, variety, mutual support and respect, meaningfulness of work, and personal desired future. With these steps the participants evaluate their situation, their needs, and themselves. All of these evaluations are entered into a matrix for visual reference and for later use.
2. Participative democracy is introduced in relation to the 6 psychological requirements for productivity. This step involves the participants creating democratic organizations in small groups. These organizations are to be created for the purpose of implementing the plans that the participants have previously developed. The organizational structure is detailed and drawn up in a chart. Together, in the large group, the participants select a preferred design and then improve it together.
3. Tasks are chosen that will enable to organization to run and that will achieve implementation of the chosen plan. In this step, there are work groups created, training requirements drawn up, recruitment of assistance where needed, and evaluation of the whole design. This work must be finished before it goes out to the larger community.

Implementation: is on-going and self-led by the organization group that was created during the process. The organization that has been created, that is, the planning community, now may expand or change direction and feed into this entire two step process at any given time, essentially creating a cyclical process.

group, who then assists members of the public in learning skills for natural resource planning and management. Community members are able to gain some control over the planning process by learning how to be accountable, how to hold other stakeholders accountable, and how to have veto power over decisions.

2.3.2 Approaches of Citizen Control

The top rung in Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation is distinguished by its high level of Citizen Power (1969). The approaches that fall into this rung are characterized by having:

- Citizens who are in full charge of management and policy creation
- Citizens who are able to negotiate for themselves
- Outcomes that provide political and socio-economic benefits to the community (Arnstein, 1969).

The Citizen Control approaches are called Participatory Appraisal Approach, Communicative Approach, and Developmental Planning Approach. The Communicative Approach has a wealth of theoretical information concerning Citizen Control, Participatory Appraisal Approach mostly contains techniques and methods for public participation, and Developmental Planning Approach provides a good direction for citizen control of planning, and is accompanied by a model that demonstrates community planning through development. All three of these approaches and methods fulfill the requirements of offering Citizen Control, but do so in different ways.

2.3.2.1 Participatory Appraisal

Participatory Appraisal Approach (PA) is a term that denotes a combination of approaches, methods, and behaviours in planning that offers much citizen control. PA

approaches teach communities to be in charge of decision-making even though communities continue to work with the stakeholders who initiated the process. The goal of the PA approach is to benefit a community by improving its socio-economic well-being, cultural well-being, and political system (Taket & White, 2000). PA has responded to social issues such as the need for agencies to participate and to have power over the planning process, to improve communication skills, to secure resources for those who are doing the work, to share information with all those who are affected, to have skilled facilitation, and to have a fair process of negotiation (Taket & White, 2000). Participatory Appraisal is a term used here that incorporates both Participatory Rural Appraisal (Chambers, 1992) and Participatory Appraisal of Needs and Development of Action (Taket & White, 2000). PA has been defined as "a family of approaches and methods to enable rural people to share, enhance, and analyze their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act" (Chambers, 1992, p. 1). In PA, local people conduct the analysis, do the planning, and take the action. (Chambers, 1992) This is possible, because PA "enables people to express and analyse the realities of their lives and conditions, to plan [for] themselves what action to take, and to monitor and evaluate the results" (Taket & White, 2000, p. 54). Participatory Appraisal offers a level of Citizen Control by reversing the framework, so that the modes, relationships, and action change direction from what might have otherwise taken place (Chambers, 1992). For instance, the participants in a process will become the facilitators because they must be relied upon to direct the process.

Participatory Appraisal also offers rapid learning while being fun and relaxed (Chambers, 1992). The methods of PA are not predetermined because a local community will direct the process. Choosing the most appropriate techniques to suit the situation is part of the participation process. There are, however, main stages in the PA process, which

include employing various techniques, shifting behaviours and attitudes through new interactions, and sharing amongst people (Chambers, 1992). All of these stages are unique in PA because they use actions that deal with emotion and intuition rather than relying on rational decision-making. These kinds of actions can include non-verbal methods which often can access emotions and feelings (Taket & White, 2000). These stages are attained by using various methods (see Figure 2-7 *Examples of Various Public Participation Methods Employed in Participatory Appraisal*).

The unique characteristics of PA are in its approach to decision-making, information collection/research, and process. Taket and White describe how decision-making is not served by using consensus because it focuses on individual voices rather than interests. If interests are discussed, there is a greater chance of representing all issues, rather than relying on all voices to be representative. Rather than strictly using traditional consensus-building techniques, PA uses an ongoing decision-making process that can be called 'the three D's' – deliberation, debate, and decision (Taket & White, 2000). These three decision-making techniques are part of the ongoing process and the process model (see Figure 2-8 *An Example of a Public Participation Process in Participatory Appraisal*). This process is not linear but jumps back and forth and only generally follows a beginning to end linearity. Participatory Appraisal is mainly on the Citizen Control rung of Arnstein's Ladder because citizens gain control by becoming directly involved in planning, and learn to manage aspects of a planning project, such as gathering information and conducting research. Chambers (1992) provides a list of methods of information gathering that citizens learn and use to give them control of the PA process (see Figure 2-9 *Examples of Information Gathering Activities to be Used by Citizens in Participatory Appraisal*), including primary source information gathering, secondary source information gathering, hands-on research, and interviews.

Figure 2-7 *Examples of Various Public Participation Methods Employed in Participatory Appraisal* (after Taket & White, 2000)

Name of Method	Description
Brainstorming	Aids creative thinking by getting many ideas from a group in a short period of time.
Nominal group technique	Generates answers to specific questions while moving from individual to teams of two, four, etc. Until the whole group remains.
Delphi technique	Involves multiple rounds of assessment by anonymous, relevant experts of a particular question. Can by carried over by mail, email, face-to-face, etc.
SWOT analysis	Groups identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats for a current position.
Participative design	Participants redesign their work starting from the bottom of an organisation and working towards the top. Requires educational workshops that teach about how to redesign bureaucratic structures to be participative and less-hierarchical.
Deconstruction	A process whereby a text is examined for what is left out, not mentioned, or concealed in the text. Attempts are made to recover what is omitted or taken for granted within a group.
Action methods	Groups explore issues and difficulties by using actions such as drama and enactment. Can include activities such as sculpting and doubling or participatory theatre[6].
Critical systems heuristics	Asks 12 questions that help to make debate transparent[7], thereby opening up further debate. Questions explore relationships between stakeholders.
Strategic Assumption Surfacing and Testing	Participants give their perspectives on a particular topic by using a four part process that includes forming groups, surfacing assumptions, debate, and then synthesizing the outcomes.
Strategic Choice Approach	A process in which participants look for immediate actions and explorations and then for future choices and contingency planning.
Soft Systems Methodology	Looks for root definitions for a problem and analyses involvement in activities, processes, or systems.
Repertory Grid Analysis	A group randomly selects three cards, each of which has an element drawn on it that represents a situation or a physical entity. The group associates two cards and explains why they differ from the third. The process continues until all cards have been exhausted. The elements are arranged in a matrix grid and assessed for positive associations. The visual picture becomes a focus for group discussion.
Concept mapping Cognitive mapping Influence diagrams	Various types of diagramming that are made using individual and group activities, and that show different viewpoints on issues.
Rich pictures	Problems are represented visually using structure (representing organisational and physical factors that are slow to change), process (flows of information, materials, and money), and climate (general feeling that results from interactions). Used to open dialogue and aid in understanding of different viewpoints.

[6] Sculpting uses people or objects to physically build up a picture that shows the dynamic of a situation. There is no need for speaking. Doubling is when a person adds to a sculpture where there is a need for support or where something is seen to be missing. Participatory theatre involves players performing a problem or dilemma that a group faces (Taket & White, 2000).

[7] See Table 6.9 *Ulrich's Critically Heuristic Boundary Questions* in Taket & White, 2000, p. 108 for a description of the boundary questions in Critical Systems Heuristics.

Figure 2-8 *Example of a Public Participation Process in Participatory Appraisal* (after Taket & White, 2000)

Warm up exercises: Must set the tone and atmosphere. Some examples are: go-around (topics can include something good and new, something good that happened to them last week, one thing the person likes about their community) and games that enable laughter, learning, and letting go.

Initial Phase

Deliberation: Identify participants, define purpose and objectives, explore situation. Requirements for this stage: an open space for discussion, acknowledgement and respect for diversity, creating necessary safety for all participants, enabling access to participate, and multiplying options.

Debate - Option Development: identify, research, and compare options; and place attention on:
A need for negotiation, and to clarify why this need is being considered
A need to have ongoing review of the goals and objectives being considered
A need to discuss and argue every option that is considered
A need to pay attention to continually enabling participants to become and be involved.

Decision: Deciding action, recording action
Methods for decision-making need to be discussed by the group, which often can bring about a whole other loop into the process of deliberation, debate, and decision.

Intervention Phase

Implement chosen activities, monitor chosen activities. Revise & Select

Final Phase

Deliberation: Monitor chosen activities, Evaluate success

Closing exercise: It is important to offer a time for critical reflection in the group.
Some exercises for closing include go-around, discussion, or written evaluations, or having a discussion about the session at another date:
Questions that aid critical reflection and/or help in ending on a positive note: (Something you liked/learned about the session/group, something that could have been different about the session, something you would like to remember for the next session, something you look forward to about next sessions).

Return to Initial Phase if necessary (this can be done after any step in this model).

Figure 2-9 *Examples of Information Gathering Activities to be used by Citizens in Participatory Appraisal* (after Chambers, 1992)

PRIMARY SOURCE INFORMATION GATHERING

- Mapping and modelling that is participatory and maps resources of all kinds (demographic, health, natural, social)
- Creating time lines that demonstrate events that have occurred for the local people.
- Analysis of trends through people's accounts of the past.
- Diagramming a location seasonally.
- Analyzing different economies and livelihoods in the area through expenditures, incomes, crises and coping, stability, et cetera.
- Diagramming by participants of trends, quantities, causes, et cetera. Diagrams can be represented in any form (charts, bar diagrams, etc.)
- Analyzing differences by gender, social groups, wealth, occupation, and age.
- Scoring and ranking resource uses.
- Estimating and quantifying resource use.
- Finding local indicators and criteria on any topic.
- Creating stories, portraits, and case studies.
- Presenting these pieces of information.
- Creating local plans, budgets, schedules, and then monitoring these items.
- Brainstorming by individuals and groups.
- Questionnaires
- Writing reports by people who are designated in advance.

SECONDARY SOURCE INFORMATION GATHERING

- Consulting secondary sources such as files, reports, maps, photographs, and articles.
- Analysis of aerial photographs that is conducting with local participants, to identify natural resources and features.

HANDS-ON RESEARCH

- Learning local tasks in the resource management field (Chamber provides examples of transplanting, weeding, ploughing, washing clothes, etc.)
- Local participants conducting research work (for example transects, interviews, analysis of data, presentation of results)
- Studying a site with local guides and informants, which would include walking, observing, asking, listening, discussing, identifying different zones, seeking problems, introducing technologies, mapping, and other social activities.

INTERVIEWS

- Seeking out and learning from key informants
- Conducting open-ended interviews
- Sequencing a chain of interviews that are themed into categories (Chambers' example includes men on ploughing and women on transplanting)
- Bringing groups together for group interviews and activities either structured or unstructured, collecting local histories on certain aspects of the information sought.
- Asking probing questions which can lead directly to key issues.

2.3.2.2 Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach defines a collection of planning approaches that regard organizational systems and social behaviour as the keys to successful natural resource management. The collection of approaches is otherwise called Communicative Planning (Innes & Booher, 1999), Transactive Planning (Friedmann, 1973), the Civics Approach (Nelson & Serafin, 1995) and Collaborative Planning (Daniels & Walker, 1996; Kofinas & Griggs 1996; Selin & Chavez, 1995; Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000). In one way or another, all of these approaches assume a context that is political and attempt to enhance participatory democracy through the reshaping of political processes, social change, internal communications, community representation, and organizational development. Using the Collaborative Approach (CA) can bring about a transformational experience by creating knowledge and new meanings. CA fits within the top rung of Arnstein's Ladder because citizens are able to negotiate for themselves, an aspect of the top rung of Citizen Control. This is based on the idea that citizens become fully trained and emancipated. One of the objectives of CA is to have an effective process, another aspect of the top rung in Arnstein's Ladder. And finally, the Citizen Control rung is suitable for CA because the benefits are political and socio-economic. In this study, CA sits above Participatory Appraisal but below Developmental Planning approaches because in CA there still remains, to some degree, a sharing of power between stakeholders rather than a community having absolute power.

In CA, decision-making is decentralized, bottom-up, locally-based, and less hierarchical, giving more authority to public participants. In turn, the process is more flexible and innovative as it becomes more inclusive of multiple interests (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000). CA uses consensus for decision-making, but with the stipulation that power differences must not affect who speaks and what is spoken, all ideas can be questioned and

tested, and that everyone has veto power over decisions. Because information sharing and learning is a vital part of CA, decision-making involves understanding issues together and creating relationships with one another. These relationships are sometimes formalized into organizational arrangements.

CA derives its ideas about institutional arrangements from Transactive Planning, where arrangements are created in institutions that link participants, corporations, policy, and action into a structured system (Friedmann, 1973). The system provides a structure within which there are small working groups that are interpersonal and full of dialogue. These groups must be voluntary, with open membership; self-guided, with strong leadership; networked to other groups; and mandated to take on particular responsibilities. This structured working group is the basis of public participation in CA. The unique aspect of these groups is that they are formal, but also widely networked, groups where decision-making takes place. In these groups there is strategic planning as well as mutual learning and sharing of information.

Information is a key component of the Communicative Approach. In CA, information collection and planning is meant to effect participant behaviour and expectation so that positions and actions are affected, not just the outcomes of the policies or decisions (Innes, 1998). Information is a tool for citizen choice – and power. "The process of producing information shapes perceptions that become part of the assumptions and given knowledge – and those frame the choices." (Innes, 1998, p. 56) Choices can be gained through multiple kinds of information, including scientific, experiential, stories, representations, and intuitive ideas, mass media, written reports, newsletters, presentations, speeches, field trips, radio programs, exhibits, films, brochures, letters, and conferences (Warner, 1988). These mechanisms often require that technical jargon and information is

explained so that it is relevant to the public (Warner, 1988). The information sharing techniques that are used are at the core of what is considered to be public involvement, which hints at the ability of CA to achieve a high level of citizen power.

The three main phases of CA are described as the definition of the public participants, getting participants involved, and training them through emancipatory learning and dialogue. To describe the first two phases, CA will not only involve leaders, interested community members, and those who share geographic and social similarities but also opponents - essentially anyone who is affected by the task at hand. It is important in CA that participants are involved through the building of relationships. This is particularly important when involving opponents; and practitioners must find how their opponents can be constructive and important to the process. This can be done through training and curriculum about technical information, participation techniques, leadership capacity-building, political skills-building and social aspects of planning. Essentially, CA encourages a process that is self-sustaining through a "train the trainer" approach, where everyone learns the techniques and tools of facilitation, collaboration, and decision-making in resource management (Checkoway, 1986; Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000,).

Training and curriculum are at the core of the third phase of CA. The training in CA is often called emancipatory learning - a theme of all collaborative-type learning approaches. Emancipatory knowledge is a goal of understanding with no regard to current conditions or institutions, and is achieved through all stakeholders having equal information, voice, respect, and decision-making power so that all participants feel comfortable challenging the status quo (Innes & Booher, 1999). Emancipatory learning involves learning collaboratively or mutually, where planner and client learn from one another. Only through this learning can new possibilities for change be discovered (Friedmann, 1973). The methods for mutual

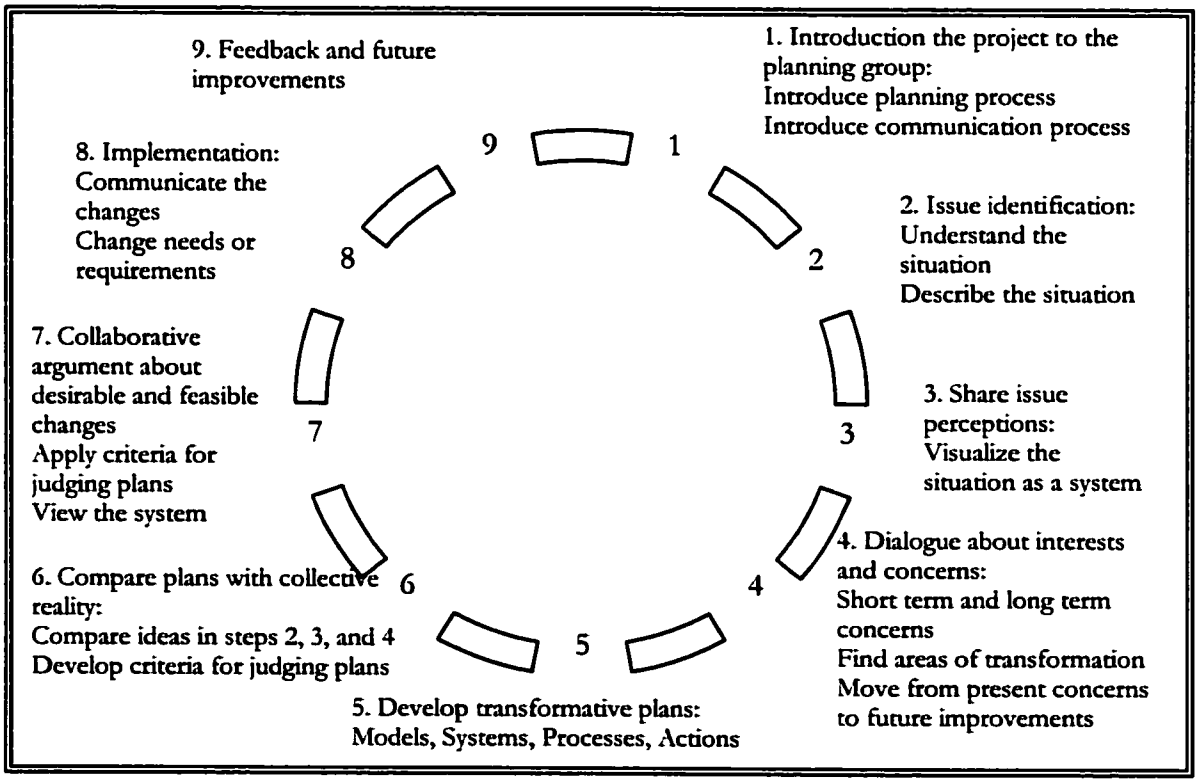
learning include creating the working groups that have been previously described; social learning about participant values, orientations, and priorities; and training on behalf of the practitioners about the learning process, experiential techniques, and different modes of thinking (Daniels & Walker, 1996). As well, mutual learning will only occur with enhanced communication skills. Collaborative learning emphasizes skill areas of listening, questioning, clarifying, giving feedback, modeling, social cognition, dialogue, and collaborative arguing. In other words, CA proposes the 'life of dialogue'. The communication technique called the 'life of dialogue' derives from Transactive Planning, a planning approach that changes knowledge through building relationships (Friedmann, 1973). Transactive Planning responds to an apparent gulf in communication between planners and clients by teaching how to merge two very different types of knowledge systems. While planners use processed, abstracted language, clients most often use language that demonstrates what they have learned experientially and personally. Both scientific and technical knowledge of managers as well as local knowledge of citizen participants is useful to promote good dialogue (Daniels & Walker, 1996). Deliberate dialogue suggestions are provided here from Friedmann (see Figure 2-10 *Suggestions for Good Dialogue in a Planning Process*)

Figure 2-10 *Suggestions for Good Dialogue in a Planning Process* (after Friedmann, 1973)

- ❖ Have total authenticity between people
- ❖ Fuse thought, morality, judgement, and feeling in people who are communicating
- ❖ Know that communication includes gestures and not just words
- ❖ Discover common interests and commitments
- ❖ Presume that there is a giving and exchange between people as well as a mutual obligation to one another
- ❖ Take time as it is needed because there is an attitude of being "here and now".

Collaborative learning and deliberate dialogue are demonstrated in Daniels and Walker's Collaborative learning process (see Figure 2-11 *Example of a Collaborative Learning Process*). This model demonstrates that communication and interaction are present at every stage of planning.

Figure 2-11 *Example of a Collaborative Learning Process* (after Daniels & Walker, 1996)



2.3.2.3 Developmental Planning

Developmental Planning is a planning approach that fulfills the goals in Arnstein's top rung in the Ladder of Citizen Participation. These goals include involving citizens so that they are in charge of planning, development, and decision-making. Developmental Planning also provides political and socio-economic benefits to the community, making overall community development a possibility. This has the effect of providing ongoing political, social, and economic benefits to a community because that community is self-guiding. The main thread between developmental planning approaches is that they are community-based, where planning is approached holistically and developmentally. These different approaches include Boothroyd's Developmental Planning (1986), Wolfe's Integrated Community-Based Planning (1988, 1989, 1992), and the First Nations Community Planning Model (Palermo, 2000). Developmental Planning approaches have emerged from a combination of economic, environmental, social, and political factors and they focus mainly on community planning.

Holistic aspects of DP can be seen in its fusion of planning, decision-making, action, and community development (Boothroyd, 1986; Wolfe, 1989). DP uses indigenous systems of management, which are spiritually, communally, and ecologically oriented. For instance, "Management practices are spiritually and value-guided and deliberately designed to provide for balance of life and to ensure continuity of all species at least to seven generations. Planning and management always and deliberately considers the natural and spiritual world and the interaction between them." (Wolfe, Bechard, Cizek, & Cole, 1992, p. 20) The communal concept ensures that community responsibilities take precedence over individual responsibilities, and that the concept of land management is not based on ownership but rather temporary use, and "spiritual, ritual and stewardship obligations and responsibilities towards the land and its resources" (Wolfe et al., 1992, p. 20). In terms of ecology,

indigenous resource management places great significance on sustainability, the human-environment relationship and stewardship (Wolfe, 1989). DP not only uses indigenous systems of management, but it strives to merge these systems with scientific and state resource management. In this way, DP attempts to combine indigenous and western ways of thinking.

By combining intuitive and analytical ways of thinking, DP accommodates different cognitive styles that have emerged from very different responses to environmental and social conditions (Wolfe, 1989). While western learning is typified by instruction, abstraction from context, and literacy and numerical systems, indigenous modes of learning involve observation and doing. For example, Inuit use predominantly intuitive modes of thinking, which are highlighted by emotional involvement, sense of relation, subjectivity, and other processes (Wolfe et al., 1992). As hunter-gatherers, Inuit knowledge is inductive and intuitive rather than being dependant on absolutism or dichotomies (Brody, 2000). In *The Other Side of Eden: Hunters, Farmers and the Shaping of the World*, Hugh Brody describes characteristics of the hunter-gatherer mind when he writes that,

> Reasoning is subliminal, and therefore has the potential to be more sophisticated, more a matter of assigning weight to factors, than can be the case with linear logic. It is a way of gaining and using knowledge that also seeks for continuity and renewal. It is not tied to attempts to control or change the world (Brody, 2000, p.269).

If a planning system integrates an indigenous, intuitive way of thinking into the approach, the outcome may be more accurate in its reflection of the desires of all stakeholders. By integrating different ways of thinking, DP is more holistic. As an example, DP can balance traditional and systematic planning techniques through something referred to as a "Planning Feast".

> The planning feast has been used by our Band. Only it wasn't called a planning feast. But it made me aware that this is one type of meeting that

> always draws a great percentage of the community. This would be the way to do information sharing or educating. Of course the cultural aspect, traditional dances, of these types of feast meetings should get all the credit, as it spiritually makes every one present feel as one. Thus the sharing comes easy – a case of combining the traditional and modern elements. (Quoted from a UBC School of Community and Regional Planning student enrolled in a Band Planning course for Indian Leaders, in Boothroyd, 1986, p. 17).

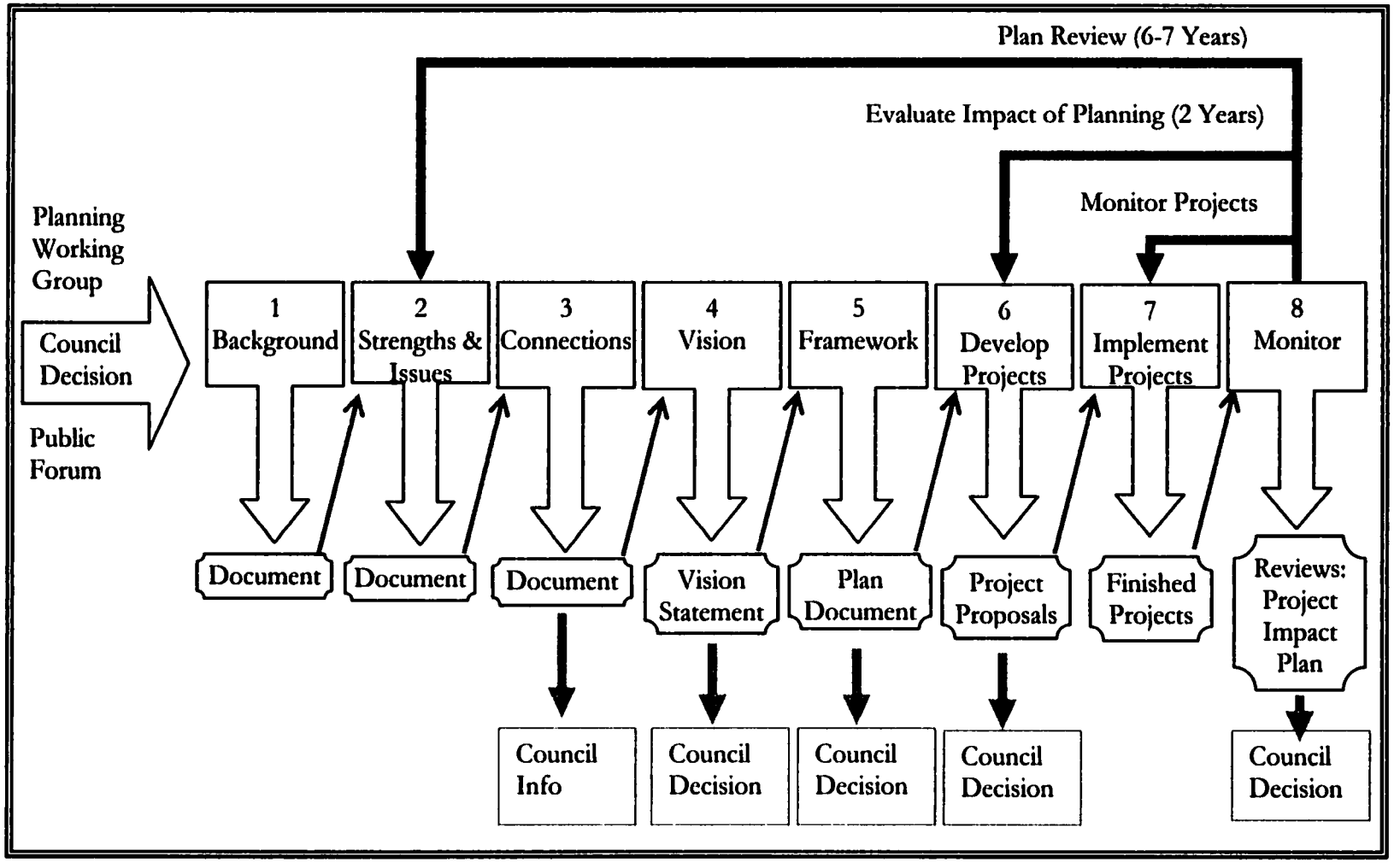
Developmental Planning is developmental because it combines community development with planning. "Legislative constraints, departmental structures, training and practice have generally kept planning separate from community development in Euro-Canadian communities, despite recommendations to link them" (Wolfe, 1989, p. 77). By linking planning to community development, citizens must become involved in the entire planning process, and must participate fully in planning and development, priority-setting and decision-making. The DP approach requires that supports come from both inside and outside the community involved in planning. While resources must be allocated to the planning process from outside the community, financial and human resource management must come from community organizations inside the community (Wolfe, 1988). Like many other community development initiatives, DP is not recommended for short term programs or initiatives (Wolfe, 1988). Community development is achieved through skills development. Skills in the planning process are at the heart of developmental planning. The participatory planning process must be effective, efficient and equitable; and community leaders must be trained in planning for these three outcomes to take place (Boothroyd, 1986). Participation is seen as a means toward community development, and skills and knowledge are downloaded to help them achieve the final goal of bettering their community (Briggs, 1999). Education and the betterment of a community are equally important as any other goals in planning. Because DP encourages human building capacity and self-determination within a community,

it is suitable for working with communities wishing to achieve more self-reliance (Briggs, 1999).

Part of the developmental aspect of DP is learning how to integrate indigenous and non-indigenous forms of planning. DP advocates using traditional native consensus decision-making, where all community members are engaged in making decisions rather than one or two representatives (Wolfe, 1988). However, creativity in decision-making is acknowledged to be greater when communities work with external agencies in joint decision-making (Briggs, 1986). Therefore, there should be a combined effort, which recognizes consensus community decision-making as well as more top-down processes for making decisions. What is proposed through DP is a negotiation process that is dealt with through a third order of government, such as self-government that is legislated through land claims agreement. This self-government would be additional to federal and provincial orders of government, would have more decision-making power than municipal governments, and would always refer back to the community rather than relying on elected leaders who do not spend enough time in communities to be able to represent them accurately (Wolfe, 1989).

The First Nations Community Planning Model is an excellent model for community planning that secures a community's ability to conduct their own planning process (see Figure 2-12 *Saskatchewan First Nations Model for Community Planning*); thereby meeting

Figure 2-12 *Saskatchewan First Nations Model for Community Planning* (Palermo, 2000)



Arnstein's rung of Citizen Control. This model, however, has been created as a guideline for developing the resourcefulness of a community, rather than resource planning, management, and development. It is still reviewed here, however, as an example of citizen power so as to highlight some of the steps in the process of Developmental Planning. Like other DP approaches, the First Nations Model is premised on the necessity of community development, as well as the importance of affording communities their own power over their destiny (Palermo, 2000). In this context, community refers to a people, a land, institutions, and a government in an entire reserve area (Palermo, 2000). The First Nations Model has stages for discussion, debate, and decision-making within the community.

The steps in the First Nations Model include pre-planning, background information collection, identifying strengths and issues, searching for connections, establishing a vision, building a framework, developing projects, implementing projects, and monitoring the plan. In the pre-planning stage, there are steps taken for information dispersal, agreement to conduct the planning process, and training of working groups. The next stage involves background information collection and analysis, which is done in work teams that include the planners and the community members. Records are kept and include maps, profiles, histories, et cetera. This stage ends with a sharing of the information through an open house. The third stage involves the identification of strengths and issues, with the production of a work-plan for the planning process. In the fourth stage connections are made between the reality of a situation and what is occurring in a community, and between past, present, and future realities. Establishing direction and possibility for the future occurs in the following stage, where multiple workshops and meetings take place. Records of this stage may include posters, newsletters, and other accessible mediums of communication. A framework for action is created from the vision as the next stage in planning, followed by a development

toward implementation. Implementation includes delegating tasks to members of the working teams as well as training for those who require it. The final stage in this model is monitoring the plan, which is to be done through short-term, medium-term, and long-term reviews. The highlights of this model are that community members are involved in every stage of planning, and that many stages produce information that is shared to the community and/or elected officials of a community.

2.4 Characteristics of Citizen Power in Planning

Each of the approaches reviewed in this chapter display certain characteristics of the rung in Arnstein's Ladder called Citizen Power. The Co-management Approach to institutional arrangements and the Integrated Ecosystem Approach show characteristics of citizen Delegated Power in planning. Sliding up the ladder of Citizen Power, Participatory Appraisal Approaches, Communicative Approaches, and Developmental Planning Approaches show characteristics of Citizen Control in planning. This section describes the common characteristics of these five main approaches.

Common characteristics of Citizen Power in 'participatory planning' approaches were identified by consolidating key aspects of the five main planning approaches. Similarities in each process were noted and recorded into a chart form (see Figure 2-13 *A List of Characteristics of Citizen Power in Five Planning Approaches*). This chart shows how the content analysis of the five main approaches to public participation in planning has resulted in a list of key characteristics of 'participatory planning'. After identifying 16 key characteristics, the researcher moved common characteristics into four main categories. Each of the 16 characteristics is described in this section according to its parent category – *participatory framework*, *participatory goals*, *attributes* of participatory planning, or the *participatory*

process (See Figure 2-14 *16 Characteristics of Citizen Control*). Finally, this section ends chapter 2 with a description of how these characteristics can aid planning practice when publics are involved.

Figure 2-13 *A List of Characteristics of Citizen Power in Five Planning Approaches* (Author)

Characteristic	Co-management Approaches	Integrated Ecosystem Approaches	Participatory Appraisal Approaches	Communicative Approaches	Developmental Planning Approaches
Participatory Framework	Is linear. The process is defined with the participants.	Is systemic and structured Can be tailored to fit the situation. Combines planning and implementation	Reversal of a framework so the public determines the process. Includes critical reflection and flexibility so to merge theory and practice.	The process is created with the participants. Steps are fluid and not easily distinguishable (Innes 1998).	Combination of planning, decision-making, and implementation.
Participatory Goals					
Community Improvement	Not specified in this approach.	Community socio-economic improvement.	Community socio-economic improvement.	Social learning, political skills building, leadership and capacity building.	Community development
Skills Development	Training for communities in technical assistance in planning and administering the agreement.	Premised on skills being developed when planning is done by all stakeholders.	Activities, critical reflection and awareness-raising are meant to raise skill level.	Practitioners and public must train in facilitation, collaboration, and decision-making in resource mgmt.	Involves training community members to be planners.
Key Attributes of Public Participation					
Meaning of Public	Those with shared property rights. Must include Elders and children	Public is defined as part of the process	Multiple stakeholders with multiple purposes	People with shared geography, society, and resources (includes leaders and opponents).	All community members, and is suitable for indigenous communities
Level of Public Involvement	Public involved in all stages of planning, implementation, and management	Public is involved in leading activities	Public is involved in directing the process. Each stakeholder is responsible for aspect of implementation.	Involve the public early, often, and throughout the process	Public is involved at all 8 stages of the process
Organization of Groups	Small working groups. Subgroups created to reflect all interests.	Small working groups.	Concerned parties create a unique organization or agency	Advocates small working groups.	A **working group** is formed with broad representation from the community.

Characteristic	Co-management Approaches	Integrated Ecosystem Approaches	Participatory Appraisal Approaches	Communicative Approaches	Developmental Planning Approaches
Process of Transformation	2 way feedback mechanisms must be present for sharing of information.	A change in behaviour is sought through interaction (information exchange, consultation, and negotiation)	There is a shifting of behaviours and attitudes through new interactions	Transformation occurs through communication, dialogue, relationships, and popular education.	Must have mutual learning and teaching between practitioners and community members.
Integration of Knowledge Systems	Traditional knowledge is incorporated into process.	Different knowledge systems are integrated into process.	Premised that local users should learn to lead the process, using their local knowledge.	Different knowledge systems are integrated into process.	Traditional knowledge is incorporated into process.
Decentralization of Resources and Coordination.	Decentralization of decision-making and regulations. Resources secured by community.	Decentralization of decision-making and regulations.	Resources secured by community.	Not specified in this approach.	Resources must come from both inside and outside the community.
Scale	Exercises emphasize local knowledge and information.	Work on a regional scale so that possible futures match the realities of the world	Not specified in this approach.	Not specified in this approach.	Work holistically, with a wide view of the planning context. Regards spirituality as important to planning.
Participatory Process					
Ground Rules	Ground rules are established that guide behaviour and discussion.	Should be agreed upon by everyone involved in the process.	Ground rules are used to discuss aspects of the process that will be followed (Taket and White 2000).	Includes creating agreements of how to work together. Ground rules are needed to create safe spaces.	Not stated in process
Definition of an Issue	Need to have a purpose to bring participants together	Problem expressed in the Search Conference Step of planning.	Purposes and objectives are defined in the deliberation stage of planning.	Need to define an issue that is important to the community.	Moves through 4 stages of identifying issues, and a vision to work towards
Creative Activities	Includes mapping activities, collecting stories, field trips, and other activities.	Activities must be visual, and encourage creativity, innovation, and imagination	Activities to be fun, non-technical, relaxed, use intuition, and non-verbal, hands-on methods.	Must include non-verbal activities	Planning should be creative, spontaneous, motivating, adventurous, and imaginative as desired.
Decision-making	Consensus with community veto power. All parties must have a voice in the decision.	Emphasis is on discussion of conflict and agreement on visions.	Uses three D's of deliberation, debate, and decision. Advocates consent over consensus.	Consensus based	Balance consensual and elected types of decision-making structures (Wolfe 1988).

Characteristic	Co-management Approaches	Integrated Ecosystem Approaches	Participatory Appraisal Approaches	Communicative Approaches	Developmental Planning Approaches
Documentation	Must keep good records of all information and processes.	Not specified in this approach.	Important part of approach is recording the process.	Many types of documentation: mass media, written reports, exhibits, etc. to be void of technical jargon.	At every step. Includes scientific and indigenous methods.
Seek Institutional Arrangement	Approach is an institutional arrangement.	Creation of new partnerships, new organizations, and formal agreements.	Not specified in this approach.	Creates institutional arrangements	Not specified in this approach.

Figure 2-14 *16 Characteristics of Citizen Power* (Author)

Participatory framework

1. Use a planning framework that is flexible, creative, and holistic

Participatory Goals

2. Have community development as a planning goal
3. Have individual skills development as a planning goal

Attributes

4. Make sure that 'public' citizens reflect diversity
5. Have measures to create a high level of public involvement
6. Create small working groups in which planning will be done
7. Ensure transformational experiences are part of the process
8. Integrate different knowledge systems
9. Decentralize resources and decision-making
10. Work on a regional scale

Participatory Process

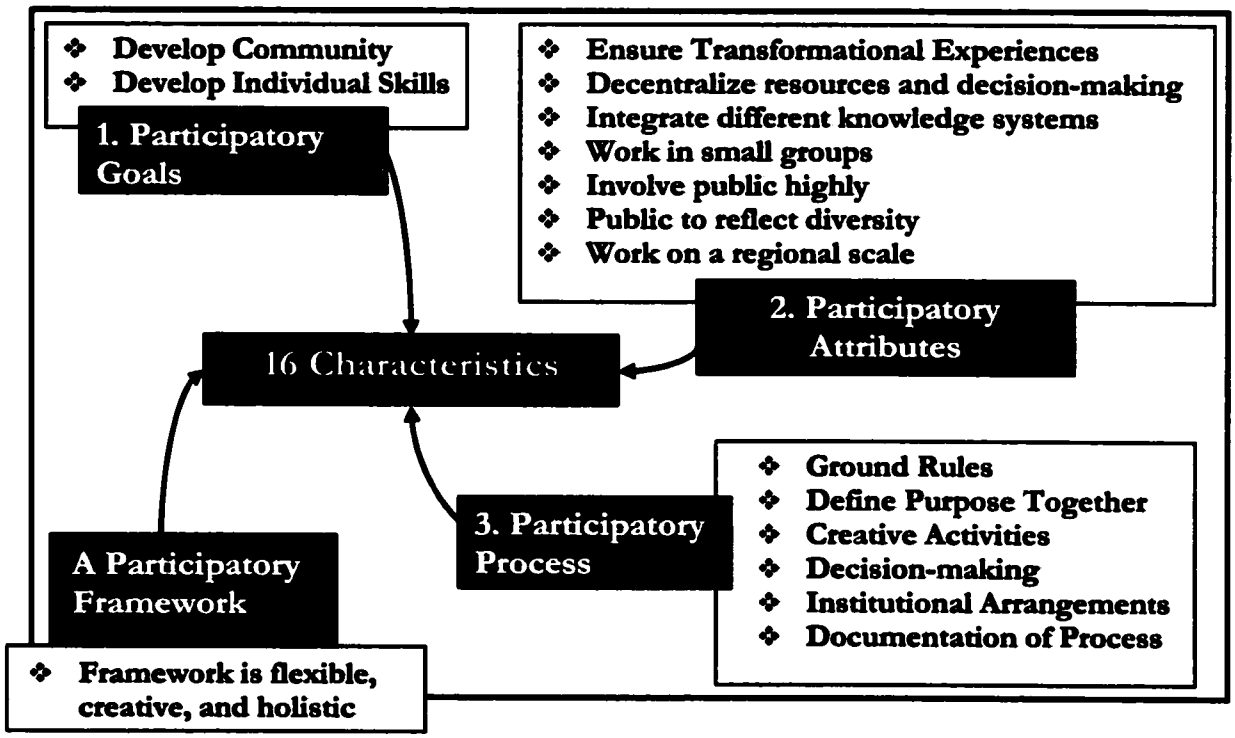
11. Create ground rules
12. Define the purpose of the planning process
13. Use creative activities
14. Cater the decision-making process to the situation
15. Seek out institutional arrangements
16. Document the process thoroughly

2.4.1 Participatory framework

The *participatory framework* is the first of 16 characteristics of citizen power (see Figure 2-15 *Results of Literature Review: A Framework and 3 Main Focus Areas for Planners Wanting to Heighten Citizen Power in Natural Resource Management Planning*). The participatory framework characteristic deals with a higher level view of the public participation process rather than components or aspects of the process. In this sense, a framework is the structure of the process itself. The five main approaches reviewed in the background literature review reveal different, but almost always compatible, characteristics of frameworks. Although the co-management planning process that has been reviewed in this study is linear, the remaining four approaches to public involvement are not. Non-linear public participation processes are prescribed for maximum citizen control because the reality of planning is that steps are indistinguishable from one another, rather than being a tidy process of analysis (Innes, 1998). Working realistically also means that a process will be tailored to fit each situation. There must be creative adaptation of a public participation processes to suit the specific requirements of each situation and context. And because steps are indistinguishable from one another, the process must combine planning, decision-making, and implementation. Essentially, the participatory framework is holistic, and must be seen as such. This means that the 'maximum control' participatory framework must demonstrate a relationship between practitioner and public; process and product; as well as theory and practice. Critical reflection on the practice, as well as a flexible attitude about the practice, must occur so that theory and practice become less dichotomized and merged (Taket & White, 2000). Friedmann offers a framework for Transactive Planning that is tailored after a philosophy of Tao (Friedmann, 1973). This can be useful here in providing a holistic and more spiritual approach to planning structure. The Tao philosophy advises that change will occur without

force, and that it need not be willed (Friedmann, 1973). As such, Friedmann suggests that planners do not need to force a change or compel the process, but rather they should impart knowledge so that a collective behaviour process will guide future action.

Figure 2-15 *Results of Literature Review: A Framework and 3 Main Focus Areas for Planners Wanting to Heighten Citizen Power in Natural Resource Management Planning* (Author)



2.4.2 Participatory Goals

There are two main goals that need to become part of any public participation process that ensures maximum citizen control. These goals are the second and third characteristics of the 16 characteristics of citizen power, and include *community development* (through socio-economic improvement), and *individual skills development.* In 1988 Clare Gunn listed a series of issues that face the development of tourism. Because industry often controls decisions that effect tourism in small towns and rural areas, measures need to be taken so

that those who hold the power (in this case indicating governments and industry stakeholders) will increase the ability for local community members to become involved in the planning of their tourism resources (Gunn, 1988). Gunn characterizes some priorities in overcoming issues related to tourism development, which are mostly inspired by a desire to improve socio-economic conditions in tourist communities. These priorities suggest development of local leadership so that citizens can assist with planning and development, thereby assisting citizens in being able to make decisions, and to be accountable to their own decisions. There is a significant focus in Gunn's planning suggestions to develop the capacity of a community to be able to involve them in planning process, and to help local groups gain decision-making power at higher levels than their local governments. Consensus decision-making is used in this approach, which gives the community veto power in any decision-making process. Capacity building of a community is done through creative and non-competitive techniques as well as the development of strong communication channels. By employing various methods, practitioners should and can help communities to become more stable and skilled. Boothroyd states that the process of including public in planning can lead to maximum citizen control in planning when he writes that, "All community members are potentially planners. Encouraging them to be so in ways appropriate to their other roles and responsibilities can be accomplished through the careful design of participatory planning processes." (Boothroyd, 1986, p.29)

By developing participation and effective processes, practitioners can engage communities in self-reliance and overall community development (Boothroyd, 1986). When working with communities, skills development requires leadership skills training in community members as well as professional planners who are facilitating the process.

> Few planners, native or non-native, have the requisite combination of technical planning, experience of working in actual learning mode,

> developmental process skills, and knowledge and empathetic understanding of native Canadian culture and custom. As native communities gain greater powers of self-government and use these powers to create their own structures and solutions, it is critical that the external experts, planners, facilitators, managers and the like who they will hire, hold conceptions of planning and management which are to some extent compatible with and respectful of those of native Canadians. If this is not the case native Canadians will have exchanged external political dominance with external professional and cultural dominance (Wolfe, 1998, p. 219).

Wolfe expresses here that planning practitioners must understanding and have empathy towards indigenous communities. In addition, planners must strive to be knowledgeable about the political and theoretical underpinnings of citizen participation, including knowing about the culture and customs of the involved public. In fact, planners often become entrenched in government bureaucracies and neglect broad social policy, political action, and community leadership over rational methods and mechanical skills (Checkoway, 1986). Planners must learn as well as teach community members all of the necessary skills for natural resource planning and management in order to enable citizens to have maximum control over a planning process.

2.4.3 Attributes of Participatory Planning

There are seven characteristics within the 16 characteristics of citizen power that are attributes of participatory planning, including *the meaning of public*, *level of public involvement*, *organization of groups*, *transformation*, *integration of knowledge systems*, *decentralization*, and *working on a regional scale.*

One set of characteristics of citizen power in planning pertains to the notion and *meaning of public.* The public that becomes involved in planning should include multiple stakeholders that have common properties, societies, resources, and rights thereof. The

public should include all interested parties in a community; should reflect the complexity of the problem, and special attention should be made to include Elders and children in the participatory process. In other words, a public should be diverse, so that multiple voices can be recognized through deliberative democratic politics (Forester, 1989). Engaging in this politic will not involve looking for the truth because there are no right answers. Instead, it involves looking for processes of learning and acting together so that we can clarify the "truth of our possibilities for human betterment, helping us to listen, learn and act" (Forester, 1998, p. 215). There is an accent here on understanding different perspectives so that possibilities can emerge. Practitioners in planning must understand that they shape society through their attitudes, techniques, and facilitation of the public; and choose appropriate methods for understanding multiple perspectives.

In order to shape society for maximum citizen power, practitioners must learn that the *level of public involvement* should be as high as possible. Maximum involvement will mean that citizens are involved in all stages of planning, including implementation and management of plans. Public must have control over the process of planning by leading and directing activities and decision-making. Many activities exist in Participatory Appraisal approaches that offer participants the chance to direct the process. In the Communicative Approach and Developmental Planning Approach there are learning components that enable public citizens to become leaders of the planning process. By engaging communities in the planning of the planning process, practitioners can ensure that communities gain ownership over resource planning (Boothroyd, 1986). For instance, communities must direct what kinds of data are collected in a planning exercise so that time is not wasted on collecting useless data (Boothroyd, 1986).

A third characteristic of the public in planning deals with the *organization of groups* in the planning process. Three of the five main participatory planning approaches advocate working in small groups for there to be maximum effectiveness in the planning process. These small groups should maintain the credo of diversity, and be structured so that key interests are represented. Small working groups are encouraged so that bonded relationships can be formed where there is a high level of trust and openness. These bonds are important so there can be experiences of transformational learning and dialogue. The building of relationships can help to break down stereotypes between who is expert, who is professional, and lessen the gulf between participants (Taket & White, 2000). As well, the building of relationships can be maximized by using an integrated planning framework.

The fourth attribute of citizen power in planning is *transformation*, where there is social learning (rather than informing and educating) about values, orientations, and priorities (Daniels and Walker 1996). This learning takes place in a specific environment. In any natural resource public participation process, there can be an experience of transformation on behalf of the planner and the public. For this to occur, there must be constant interacting to define, assess, and monitor goals, objectives, context, procedures, and outcomes (Nelson & Serafin, 1995). People can be engaged to maximize this transformation through creative, participatory activities and conversation. Activities must be participant-centered and accommodate different learning styles and modes of thinking (Daniels & Walker, 1996). Popular means of education such as public service announcements, radio and television appearances, mass mailing, leaflet distribution, public presentations, personal outreach, multi-language newspapers, and educational guides, rather than conventional methods such as reports, newsletters, and public hearings, can help build community capacity for natural resource management (Checkoway, 1986). In developing areas where

there are issues of literacy and limited resources it is vital to use communication methods that will target all members in a community (Munro, 1999). To target all members, Munro demonstrates drama as one effective awareness-raising and education tool. In the case study examined by Munro, seeing dramatic performances helped community members to take the issues personally, to learn about those issues, and to later remember the messages about the issues (Munro, 1999). This is only one example of a more hands-on, intuitive and creative technique for public participation. Conversations, too, can be transformational by recognizing special meanings, sharing political beliefs, and learning together (Forster, 1998). For example, Friedmann offers instruction on how to create the "Life of Dialogue" that enables transformation through conversation. The life of dialogue is created through authentic conversation that is acknowledged to be a combination of thought, feeling, judgement and morality. As well, dialogue should be about discovering commonalities through exchange and mutual obligation in whatever time is necessary to do so (Friedmann, 1973).

A fifth key attribute of citizen control in planning is the *integration of different knowledge systems.* Integrating different knowledge systems includes respect for scientific, western knowledge as well as traditional knowledge. This characteristic emphasizes that all stakeholders are sources for data (Lang, 1986); and this data must be included in data collection, but must also inform the public participation process. Participatory processes can maximize citizen control by including indigenous systems of resource management, which incorporate spirituality, communal responsibility, and ecological sustainability into planning and management. For instance, in ideal participatory processes, "Management practices are spiritually and value-guided and deliberately designed to provide for balance of life and to ensure continuity of all species at least to seven generations. Planning and management

always and deliberately considers the natural and spiritual world and the interaction between them." (Wolfe et al., 1992, p. 20) Communal control of resources is described here by Berkes in his description of traditional indigenous resource management.

> A common feature of many traditional local-level management systems, from Pacific salmon rivers to eastern sub-arctic beaver trapping areas, was the communal control of the resource. In many cases, respected and knowledgeable senior hunters acted as stewards on behalf of the community, as hunt leaders controlling access to a particular area or resource. They enforced community rules and ethics for the proper conduct of the hunt and oversaw the sharing of the proceeds of the hunt. Land, waters, and animal populations used by aboriginal peoples were, and still are, non-exclusive resources and communal property (Berkes, 1994, p. 19).

Ecological sustainability is another component of indigenous systems of resource management, where everything in the cosmos is alive and related; and all activities must be balanced so as to maintain or restore all parts of the world (Wolfe, 1992). Practitioners can enable citizen control by incorporating principles of ecological sustainability, as well as those of spirituality and communal control over resources, into the planning process.

The sixth attribute of citizen control in planning has to do with the *decentralization* of resources for the planning process. Of the five main approaches to participatory planning, three approaches advocate the allocation of resources to the involved community – essentially decentralizing funds. Financial and human resources make it possible for communities to become more involved in the public participation process. However, there must also be community allocation of resources, a signal of commitment to community development and not just short-term project development (Wolfe, 1988). Decentralization of organizations has also benefited practices of public participation. "From an institutional perspective, it is interesting to note that the movement towards more integrated/better coordinated arrangements has not involved centralization or unification of authority." (Born

& Sonzogni, 1995, p. 176) The process of decision-making, as well, must be decentralized through bottom-up approaches.

Working on a regional scale, rather than an exclusively local scale, is important for maximum citizen control because regional lands are, or may be imagined as, part of a community's homeland. "Most of the land we designate as formal wilderness or set aside in national parks is land passed on to us by people who considered it to be, in part at least, their homeland." (Dasmann, 1982, p. 668) An example of the incorporation of regional scale into the planning process appears in the model of participatory planning by Diemer and Alvarez (Diemer & Alvarez, 1995), where an exercise involves considering the global context. In the beginning of this two-step model there is an examination of probabilities, feasibilities, and possibilities. Conversation is uncritical, all ideas are examined, and there is free expression. This stage is called the "World Scan", and involves a compiling of information about the world so that people can see possible futures for themselves. The information collection includes brainstorming global events that are significant, and wondering what could be done differently to produce different results globally.

2.4.4 Participatory process

The last six characteristics of the 16 characteristics of citizen power can become part of any public participation process. A public participation process that enables citizen control of planning has specific characteristics regarding *ground rules, definition of an issue, creative activities, decision-making, documentation, and institutional arrangements.*

Setting *ground rules*, as a way of creating environments for free expression, is standard practice in planning with public involvement. Planning for maximum citizen control, requires ground rules that stipulate equal involvement for all participants, where conversations are nurtured rather than sequences by rules, such as Roberts Rules of Order (Forester, 1998). Ground rules should set a safe space for involvement, so that all ideas can be expressed, even if those ideas are not 'strategic discussion'. The main thrust of creating ground rules is that it is okay to disagree, to argue, and to debate – but that all participants are respected and their opinions considered equally. There should be agreement on what technique of decision-making will be used throughout the process, and that self-facilitation will take place to ensure that everyone participates (Silberstein & Maser, 2000; Taket & White, 2000). Otherwise, the ground rules should be modeled to suit the planning situation that is being discussed.

Another important step in the process of public involvement is the *definition of an issue.* A purpose for the public participation process must be clear, and should take place in the early stages of participation. Special attention to finding a clear issue, even if the issue is defined as a problem, is a requirement before undergoing planning and negotiation (Diemer & Alvarez, 1995; Taket & White, 2000). For instance, in participatory appraisal there is a beginning stage that involves deliberation, where participants are identified, a purpose and

objectives are identified, and the situation is explored. This stage follows with ongoing debate about the situation and ends with decision-making (described further below).

Creative activities of the public participation process may also enable maximum citizen control. Many activities are described by participatory appraisal approaches in *Partnership and Participation: Decision-Making in the Multiagency Setting* (Taket & White, 2000). For example, some of the informal techniques that are favourite methods for Taket and White during monitoring and evaluation stages of planning include cognitive mapping, story-telling, rich pictures/drawing, key informant report, critical reflection, action methods, and photos. More formal techniques such as surveys, document review, participant observation, and questionnaires can become more representative when they are combined with informal activities, such as those described above. Participatory Appraisal also recognizes the need to have participatory activities that are fun and relaxed and that use emotion, intuition, and non-verbal methods (Taket & White, 2000). This can be evidenced in the suggestion of letting-go exercises as warm up techniques. As well, Friedmann advocates dialogue that includes gestures and not just words when communicating (Friedmann, 1973) and Wolfe suggests accommodating different cognitive styles that involve both abstract systems as well as intuitive systems (Wolfe, 1989).

Similar to the nature of other characteristics described here, the method of *decision-making* is less important than the quality of the decision-making process. That is, the quality of the dialogue will reflect the outcomes of the process. There should be recognition that decision-making is not linear but will jump back and forth, involving what can be referred to as constant 'deliberation, debate, and decision-making' (Taket & White, 2000). These 'Three D's' are the main framework of Taket and White's Participatory Appraisal of Needs and Development of Action. The first phase of the process involves deliberation, followed by a

debate stage in which options are developed, identified, researched, and compared. There is constant debate throughout this second stage. A following stage to this involves deciding on and recording of actions. In this model there is an emphasis on hearing and accommodating interests rather than individual voices. Where consensus decision-making is suggested, it is recommended that there be guidelines for involving all voices in the process, and that all parties would have veto power. "Traditions of consensual decision-making, respect for wisdom, continuity of form provided by traditions, cultivation of skill in listening – all traits commonly found in northern Indian communities – are more supportive of effective, efficient and equitable participatory planning than are the majority vote rules and procedural rigidities of the larger society." (Boothroyd, 1986, p. 21) Consensus decision-making, however, does not necessarily give citizens more control than any other party concerning decisions. To remedy this lack of community veto power, the Developmental Planning approach advocated by Wolfe prescribes a decision-making technique that merges consensus with a self-government technique, where a third order of government would refer back to community members (rather than elected officials) for their opinions and voices [8] (Wolfe, 1989).

Co-management is often recommended as an *institutional arrangement*, between communities and government, to jointly manage natural resources. Other approaches recommend seeking institutional and formal arrangement, such as Diemer and Alvarez's Integrated Ecological Management model, which seeks to create planning communities, structured organizations, and coalitions on short term and long terms bases. It is through these councils that problems can be identified, and future planning can take place

[8] For example, an additional governmental agency that has more decision-making power than local government but always refers back to the community rather than only referring back to elected leaders.

(Checkoway, 1986). Institutional arrangements can link participants, corporations, policy, and action into a system, serving as communication and information networks that permeate all aspects of society (Friedmann, 1973). It is through these networks that there can be sharing of knowledge as well as a system for capturing information such as documentation.

Documentation is a characteristic of the approaches that enable citizens to have power in planning. Keeping good records of all information is as important as documenting the planning process. Documentation of every step includes written reports, goal statements, projections, recorded verbal histories, meeting minutes, as well as traditional documentation techniques such as songs, totem poles, and arts and crafts (Wolfe, 1989). Documentation should be readily accessed by any non-professionals, and public groups and citizens should be encouraged to ask to see this information (Forester 1989).

2.5 Summary

The 16 characteristics that have been presented in this study are indicators of ways that citizens can secure power when engaged in a planning process, and can thereby influence outcomes of the process. To summarize the process by which these characteristics were discovered, there was an initial study of forces of change that invoke participation of public in natural resource planning agencies. Following this, the study reviewed Arnstein's top two rungs – called rungs of Delegated Power and Citizen Control - in the Ladder of Citizen Participation. Five different planning approaches were reviewed and placed within Arnstein's Ladder to demonstrate their abilities to achieve citizen control over planning process. Common and/or key characteristics from each of the five approaches were extracted for the purpose of determining key techniques or methods that can be used in public participation to initiate a high level of citizen control.

What the 16 characteristics of citizen control reveal is that there are actions that planners can take to help citizens have more power over a planning process. The 16 characteristics can be seen in combination for a holistic and inclusive public participation process (see Figure 2-15 *Results of Literature Review: A Framework and 3 Main Focus Areas for Planners Wanting to Heighten Citizen Power in Natural Resource Management Planning*). Figure 2-15 reminds us that citizen power can only be achieved by using a wide range of actions. It is suggested in this research that by incorporating the framework, 3 main focus areas, and actions that are prescribed in the Figure 2-15, that planners can work towards a more democratic process of natural resource planning. Planners can help communities to become more powerful so that both planners and members of the public can "meet concrete challenges that face the modern environmental management system." (Beierle & Cayford, 2002, p.75)

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Theory Development

This research has included a case study of public participation in park planning in the territory of Nunavut to discover a theory about how the public is involved in the planning process. The production of theory can be useful for creating ideas and then explaining those ideas, or concepts, in a logical system (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Strauss and Corbin explain the function and relevance of theory when they state that,

> Theory denotes a set of well-developed categories that are systematically interrelated through statements of relationship to form a theoretical framework that explains some relevant social, psychological, educational, nursing, or other phenomenon. The statements of relationship explain who, what, when, where, why, how, and with what consequences an event occurs (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p. 22).

In other words, theory can be useful for understanding a phenomenon of process, and for demonstrating causal relationships of certain events. A typical causal relationship in the planning world is one of problem solving. Theory is also useful for understanding problems and finding solutions in the planning practice. In terms of planning theory, Forester writes that, "Theories can help alert us to problems, point us toward strategies of response, remind us of what we care about, or prompt our practical insights into the particular cases we confront" (Forester, 1989, p. 12). Forester points out that planning practice is in need of critical understanding at both the practical and theoretical levels. This research study, in creating theory about a substantive case, looks solely at a single case of public participation process[9]. "Case studies can be instrumental in developing

[9] Palys has stated that to better understand and interpret the perspectives of interview subjects, researchers emphasize inductive approaches (such as grounded theory) and case study analysis (such as the case studied in this research study). "Instead of beginning with theory and assuming that there's one theory that will eventually account for everything, the qualitative approach typically involves beginning with individual case studies in context, trying to understand each situation in its own terms...." (Palys, 1997, p.19)

new theories related to landscape architecture. They not only describe projects or places but can also explain and predict future action." (Francis, 2001, p.18) In referring to Foresters recommendation to further understand theoretical and practical aspects of planning practice, this study considers theory that has practical applications that are expressed in the creation of two conceptual models.

3.2 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is an effective way to discover and learn about personalities and human interactions because it is normative and qualitative. "Qualitative methods can be used to uncover the nature of people's actions and experiences and perspectives which are as yet little known in the world of research products" (Glaser, 1992, p. 12). Qualitative methods are also appropriate when translating languages, subtle connotations, or contextual distinctions (Neuman, 1994). Grounded theory is also an inductive type of research because the theory emerges gradually as the data is analyzed. Inductive methods are suitable for creating theory because they survey all information that can lead to theory development. Additionally, grounded theory is 'processual' because the research approach includes elements of process and change (Neuman, 1994), as the theory is allowed to change according to newly acquired, relevant information.

The goal of grounded theory is to "generate a theory that accounts for a pattern of behavior which is relevant and problematic for those involved" (Glaser, 1992, p. 75). The goal of grounded theory is not to verify or to produce a voluminous description. Grounded theory does not begin with a hypothesis in advance of the research, but rather searches for theory, and for a hypothesis. Two kinds of theories are produced through grounded theory – substantive and formal (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Substantive theory is generated directly

from raw data and hypothesizes on one single case, such as the case of public participation in Nunavut. Once a substantive theory has been generated, a comparative analysis follows so that a more formal, conceptual theory can emerge.

Grounded theory is often difficult but extremely rewarding in that it offers theory that is uniquely based in the raw data, but can be generalized to a wider context. Grounded theory, when conducted properly, is a reliable and valid way of conducting research. "By carefully conducting the field research using multiple methods of interview, observations, and document content analysis, combined with the judicious use of library materials the researcher provides validity, and reliability to the theory which develops from the research" (Hueser, 1999).

Glaser mentions three criteria for assessing if the theory is truly grounded theory (1992). These criteria are that (1) the category that has been generated must fit the data, that (2) the variations in behavior have been explained in the theory, and that they function well in the theory, and (3) that the theory can be modified when new data is introduced to the theory. Using these three criteria, the researcher was true to grounded theory when developing the conceptual theory of Nunavut Participatory Park Planning. The process of developing categories from raw data is demonstrated in the text (Chapter 4) and exemplified for clarification (see Appendix B *Example of a Grounded Theory Process of Category Development*). The theory that is produced in the study explains variations on behavior that are, again, shown in the text and contained in Appendix B. Finally, the theory that has been produced may be further modified if new data were to be introduced.

3.3 Description of the Development of an Actual Theory

The first theory that is produced in this research describes the process of public participation in park planning in Nunavut, Canada. The study area and study methods are described in the following sections.

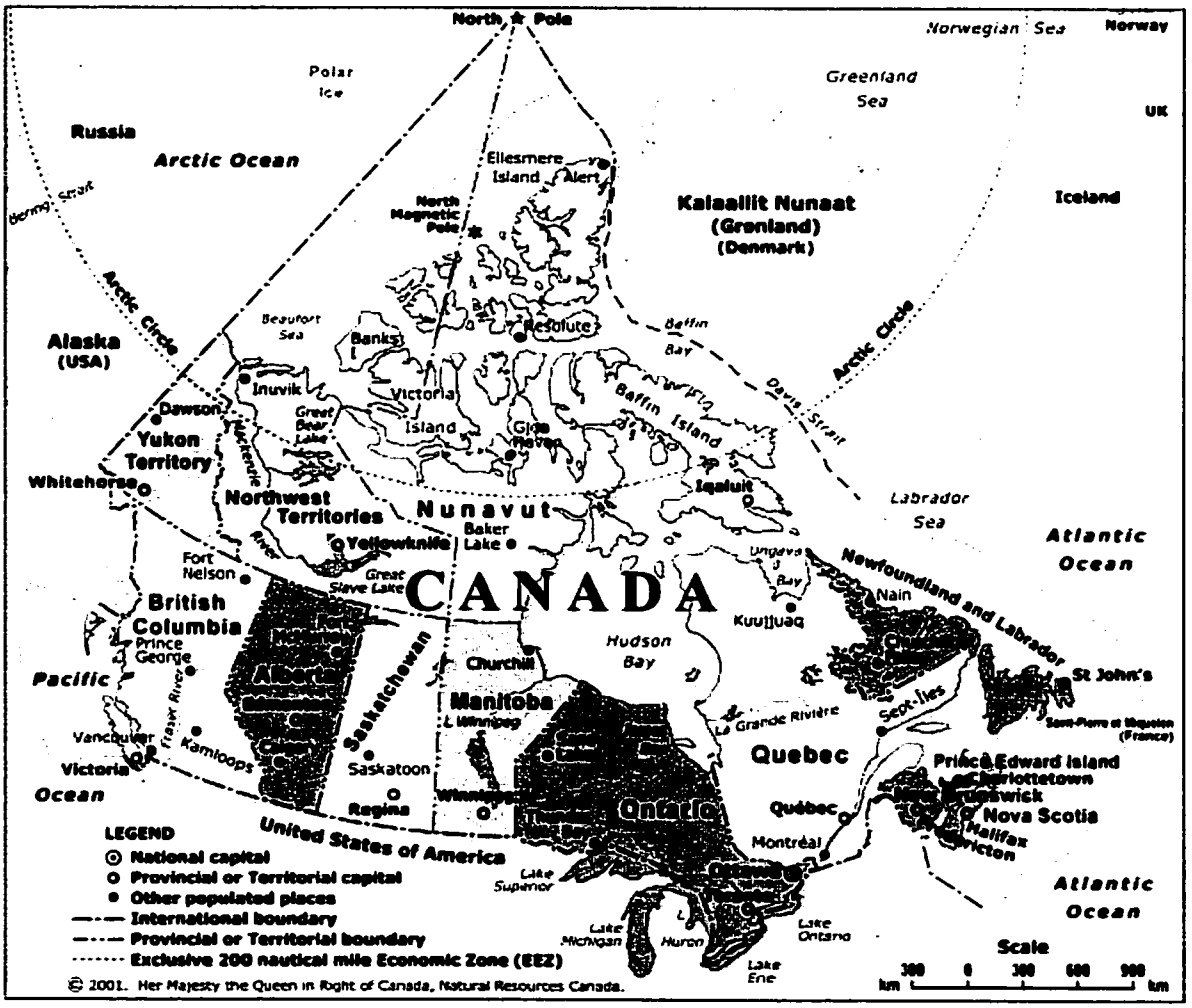
3.3.1 Study Area

The entire territory of Nunavut provides the boundaries of this research. Territorial park planning predates the formation of Nunavut, at which time the Government of Northwest Territories was primarily responsible for park and tourism planning activities. The decision to create Nunavut as a separate territory lies in the need for (1) a more localized government where the governments would be closer in proximity to the areas they were representing, and (2) the need for Inuit control over governmental affairs (Vail & Clinton, 2001). Inuit control over governmental affairs is mostly mandated through the Nunavut Land Claims Agreement (NLCA). This agreement dictates that Inuit will eventually participate in 85% of the civil service, that both federal and territorial governments will make decisions together on federal issues relating to the territory, and that Nunavut will work towards being less dependent on both federal and territorial governments for economic stability (Vail & Clinton, 2001). Having more decision-making power over land and resources is part of the economic stability that Inuit communities and Inuit people are striving for.

The land mass of Nunavut is approximately 1.994 million square kilometers, which is 23% of the entire land mass of Canada (see Map 3-1 *Political Boundaries of Canada*) (Vail & Clinton, 2001). With 25 incorporated communities that range from 130 people in Grise Fiord to 5,000 people in Iqaluit, the total population of Nunavut is approximately 27,000 (Vail & Clinton, 2001). The Inuit population makes up approximately 85%, but "for

communities other than Iqaluit, Rankin Inlet and Cambridge Bay the percentage of Inuit is closer to 95%." (Vail & Clinton, 2001, p.28)[10] 60% of people speak Inuktitut at home, making Inuktitut the dominant language in the territory.

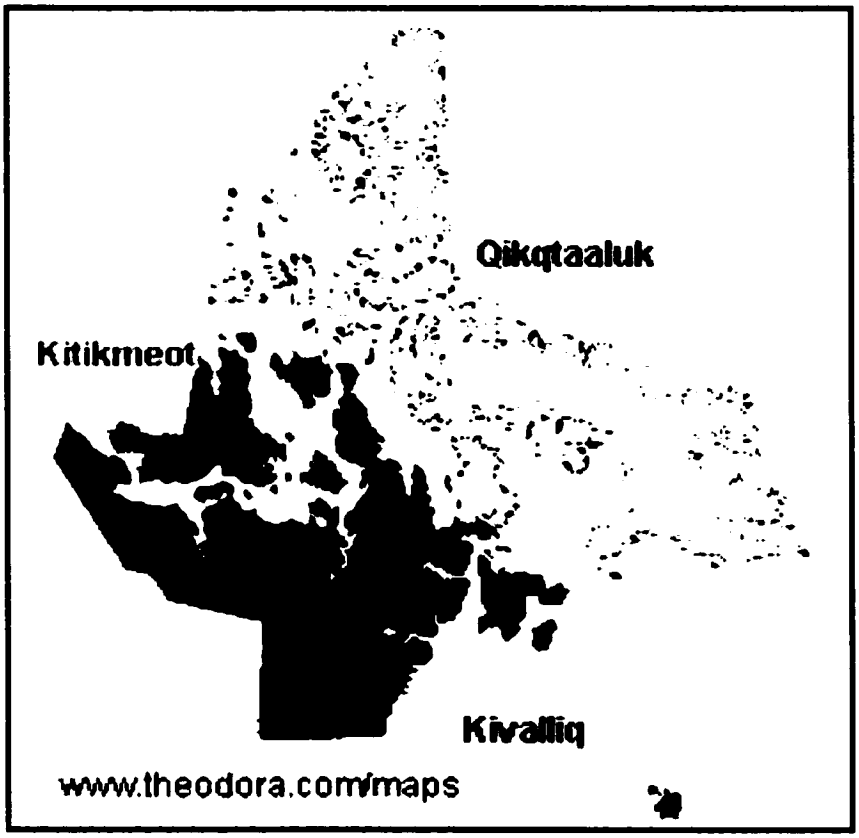
Map 3-1 *Political Boundaries of Canada* (Natural Resources Canada, 2001)



[10] Incidentally, the percentage of aboriginal peoples is higher in Nunavut than in Yukon (21%), NWT (48%) and Greenland (80%) (Vail & Clinton, 2001).

Nunavut is divided into three regions, the Qikiqtaaluk (Baffin) Region, the Kivalliq (Keewatin) Region, and the Kitikmeot Region. The three official regions of Nunavut offer different cultural and dialect groups as well as varying landscapes and histories (see Map 3-2 *Regions of Nunavut*).

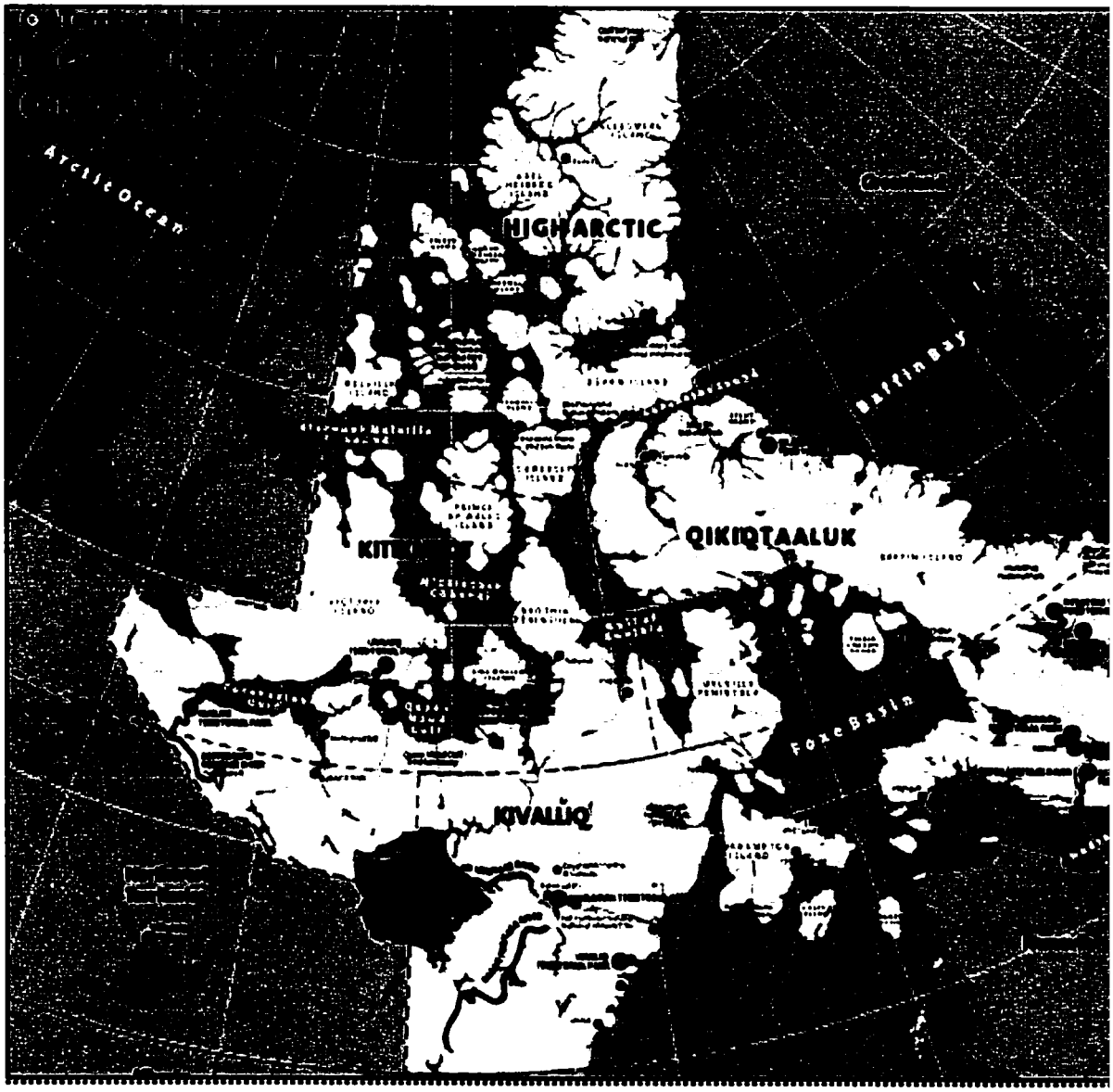
Map 3-2 *Regions of Nunavut* (Coutsoukis, 1999-2002)



Nunavut has 13 territorial parks (see Map 3-3 *Parks of Nunavut*). These parks range from small campgrounds and community parks such as Kuklok, Uvajug, Inuujarvik, Ptsutinu Tugavik, and Qilalugat Territorial Parks; to historic parks such as Ijiraliq, Kekerten, Millikjuaq, Northwest Passage, and Qaummaarviit Territorial Parks; to large destination parks and conservations areas such as Katannilik Territorial Park, Sylvia Grinnell Territorial

Parks, and the Thelon Wildlife Sanctuary which straddles both Nunavut and the Northwes Territories.

Map 3-3 *Parks of Nunavut* (Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, 2002)

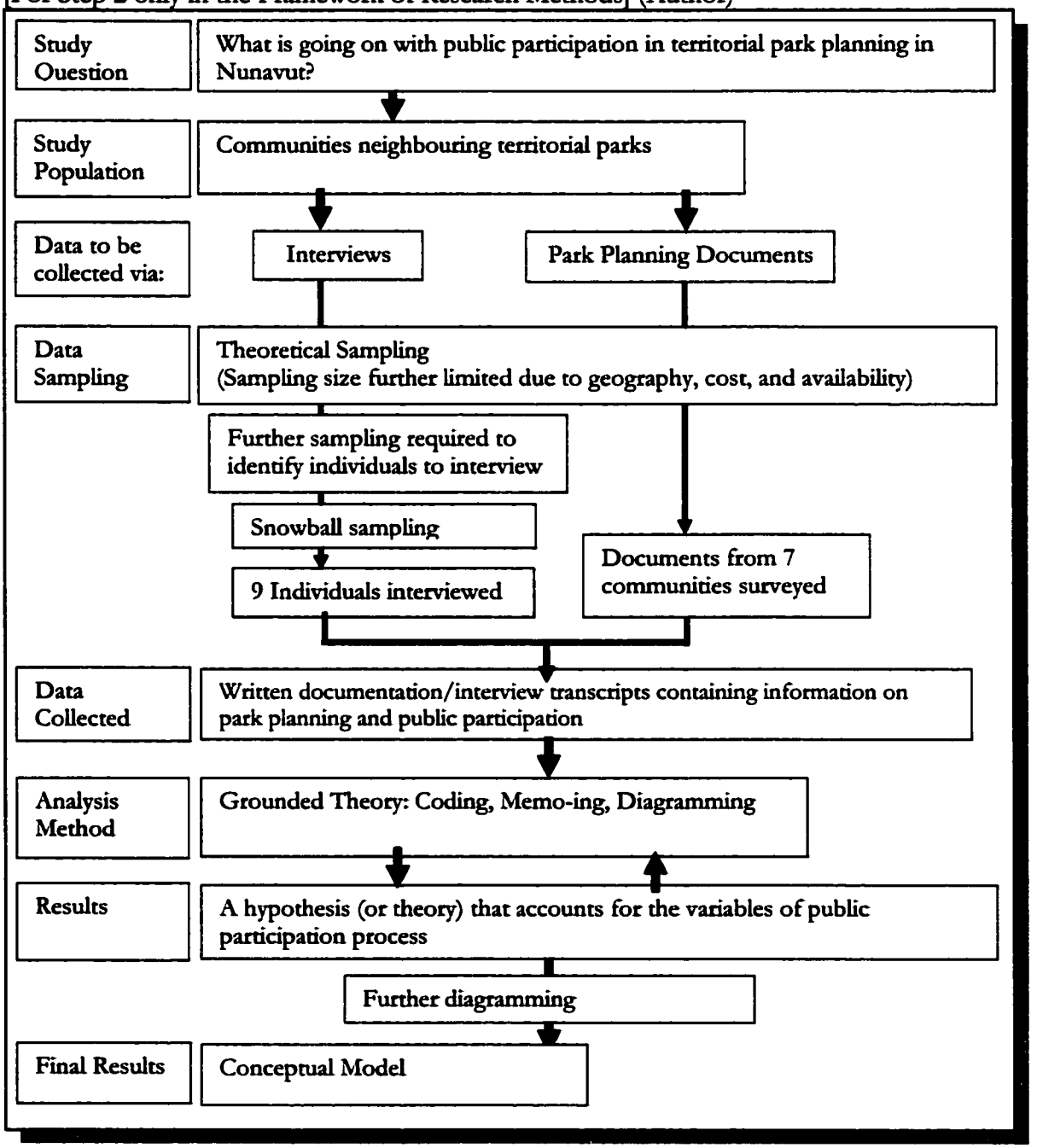


3.3.2 Study Population

The specific study target group, or population, that has been considered in this case study is communities that have been involved in the planning of Nunavut's territorial parks

(see Figure 3-1 *Methods of Data Collection and Data Analysis Used in the Production of an Actual Theory)*. The study target group was chosen according to theoretical sampling, where

Figure 3-1 *Methods of Data Collection and Data Analysis Used in the Production of an Actual Theory* [For Step 2 only in the Framework of Research Methods] (Author)



populations were studied as they become relevant[11]. Populations have been studied from various communities in the study area, with sampling from all three regions of Nunavut. The researcher initially selected all communities neighboring territorial parks to study through document review and interviews. However, a geographically large study area in addition to minimal amounts of time limited the extent of theoretical sampling in the interview portion of this study. As well, limited amounts of documentation narrowed the number of documents available for study. Documents from the three communities of Kimmirut (Katannilik Park), Iqaluit (Sylvia Grinnell and Qaummaarviit Parks), and Kugluktuk (Kuklok Park) were analyzed as they became relevant to the emerging theory. Four additional communities became relevant to this study because they are currently being considered for future territorial parks, and are all undergoing public participation process. These communities include Clyde River, Hall Beach, Coral Harbour, and Kugaaruk. Interviews were conducted only in the southern Baffin Island area and one telephone interview was later added from Kugaaruk, in the Kitikmeot Region (see Map 3-4 *Southern Baffin Island Communities and Parks*). The communities in the southern Baffin Island area that were included in this study were Iqaluit and Kimmirut.

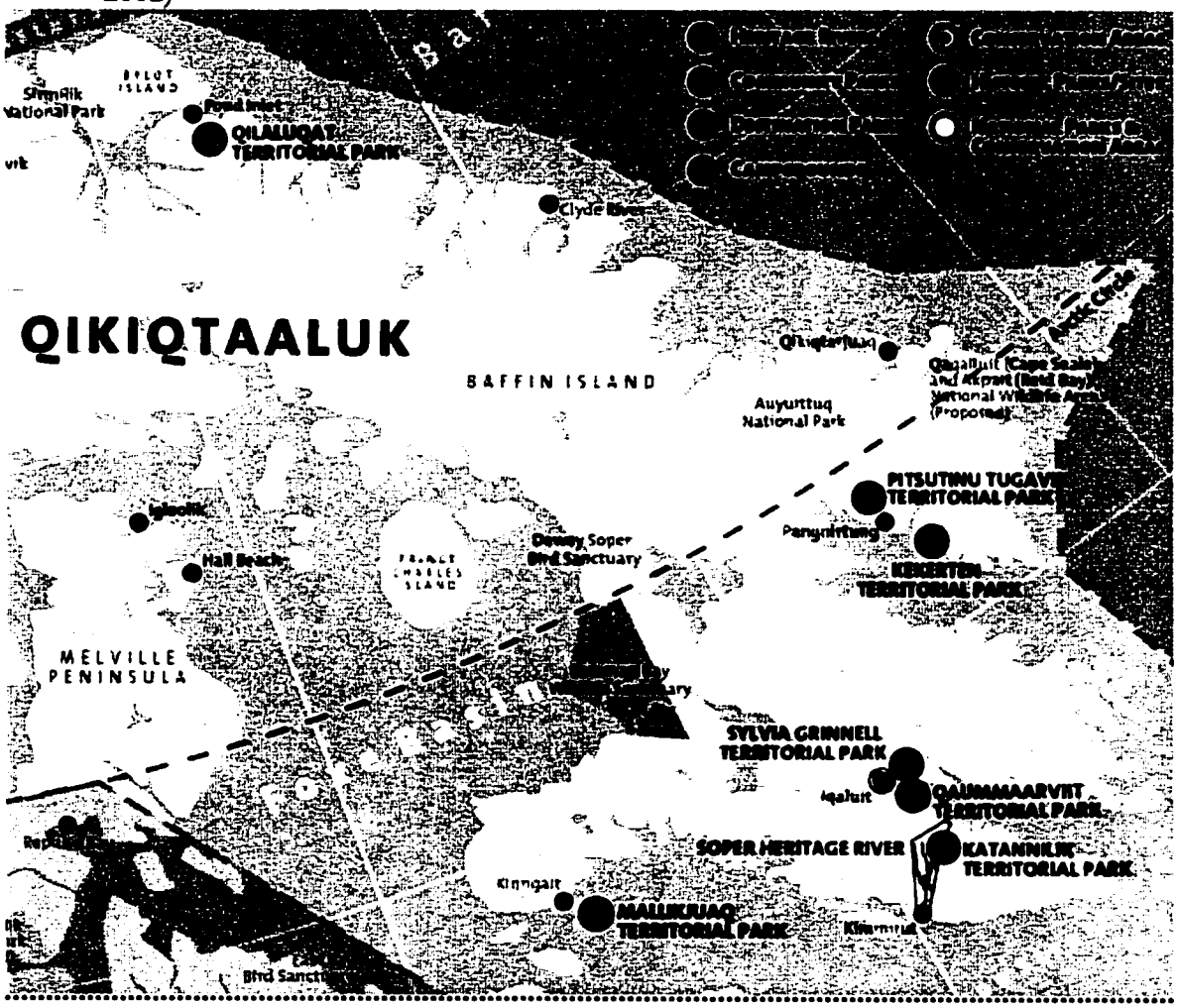
3.3.3 Data Collection

Data for this study was collected over the month of March 2002. In grounded theory there is no unit of study. On the other hand, there are variables that emerge from the data. The variables in this study describe participatory planning process. Techniques for collecting

[11] "Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his [sic] data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his [sic] theory as it emerges. This process of data collection is controlled by the emerging theory...." (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 45)

data that enabled the study of variables include two types of field research: document review and interviews.

Map 3-4 *Southern Baffin Island Communities and Parks* (Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, 2002)



3.3.3.1 Acquiring a license to conduct research in Nunavut

The researcher acquired appropriate licensing to conduct research in the territory of Nunavut. The licensing procedure involved the direct consent of the community in which the interview subjects lived and the observations were recorded. This process indicates

something about the nature of working in Nunavut. Requiring a license to conduct research meant that this study involved the public prior to getting any real work underway. Although this licensing is not mandatory for conducting all kinds of business activities in Nunavut, it suggests the level of knowledge that a community must have over the goings-on in their hamlet. Also, requiring a license to study in Nunavut puts the community's Council in a position of decision-making power, rather on the researcher. Acquiring a license to conduct research clearly represented a form of value and respect for local knowledge in Nunavut communities.

3.3.3.2 Document Review as Data Collection

One of the two sources of data used in this research was documents that contained information about park planning in Nunavut Parks. Permission was granted to the researcher to review the Nunavut Parks documents for this study. From 34 documents reviewed, 18 entries became relevant for analysis using grounded theory methods. The documents included information on park attraction development projects, internal parks communications, park newsletters, park presentations, economic development reports, and governmental reports and studies such as the Nunavut Land Claims Agreement, Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement, the Clyde River Protocol governing working relationships between the Government of Nunavut and Inuit representatives, and the Bathurst Mandate on the priorities and plans for the Government of Nunavut. These entries were analyzed for process as well as outcomes and decisions that were made.

3.3.3.3 Interviews as Data Collection

The 9 interview subjects in this study included professionals in the territorial parks department as well as community members that have been involved in park planning with the territorial parks department in Nunavut. Of the 9 subjects interviewed, 4 are deemed professionals because they design and deliver the work of territorial park planning in Nunavut. These 4 professionals are not Inuit. Of the 9 interview subjects, 5 work for the territorial government, and the remaining 4 are either self-employed or employees of a municipality or a hunters and trappers organization. Not all 4 of the professional planners work as professional planners for the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division in the Government of Nunavut.

Interview subjects were chosen using a technique called snowball sampling, which involves starting with one or two people and then using their connections to generate a larger sample (Palys, 1997). This process continues until the sampling is complete. For this study, subjects were selected if their names were repeated when interviewees were asked for a list of people who have been involved in territorial park planning in Nunavut. At the end of each interview the researcher asked for any additional names of potential interview subjects, and added these accordingly. The researcher obtained the interview subjects' consent and interest in participating prior to conducting each interview. Following this, interview questions were mailed, emailed, or faxed out with an information form (see Appendices C and D) and a consent form (see Appendices E and F). This same set of questions was administered in person, by the researcher, at a later date arranged by the interview subject and the researcher. The questions included a wide range of open ended questions that solicited the opinions on park planning (see Appendices G and H). The

interviews were held in the offices of Nunavut Parks and Tourism employees as well as public meeting rooms such as those used by the local Hamlet or Hunters and Trappers Organization. One interview was conducted over the phone. The researcher collected all the data that appears in this study; and she was solely responsible for analyzing the data.

3.3.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

The operationalization, or development of research analysis techniques, for this study is solely based in grounded theory methods. Analysis aimed to discover the conditions that were present (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), such as who, what, when, where, how, and why. To discover grounded theory categories and their properties, three main, neutral questions, were asked while conducting the analysis (Glaser, 1992, p. 4). These questions were modified from original questions posed by Glaser (1992).

- What is the chief concern or problem of the people regarding public participation?
- What accounts for most of the variation in processing the problem?
- What public participation category or what property of what category does this incident indicate?

3.3.5 Coding, Memo-ing, and Diagramming

Using the methods of coding, note-taking and memo-ing ensured that there was a systematic way of analyzing data. Analysis techniques included three types of coding, called open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Open coding involved a line-by-line analysis of the written records with the aim of discovering core categories. Through the analysis, 10 core categories became apparent to the field of park planning in Nunavut as it relates to public involvement. These categories are:

- ❖ Land Claim and Nunavut Act
- ❖ Inuit Relationship with the Land
- ❖ The Nature of the Public Involvement Process

- Defining a Park
- Information Exchange
- Consultation and Informal Meetings
- Formal Connections
- Community Veto Power
- Park Ownership
- Economic and Tourism Development

Axial coding was then conducted to discover theoretical coding families, or connections between categories and their properties (Glaser, 1992, p. 62). The axial coding stage showed variation, pattern, and dimension to each core category (see Appendix Appendix I *List of Grounded Theory Categories and Subcategories for the Case Study*). For example, within the *Nature of the Process of Public Involvement*, the subcategories that emerged were:

- Formal
- Informal
- Flexible
- Time
- Distance
- Management
- Operations
- Decision-making
- Ongoing Process, Involvement, and Learning by Park Manager, Park Planner, and Community

Selective coding was then conducted to select data that related only to the core categories, in order to saturate, or fully develop, the category. For each of the core categories listed above, the internal park planning documents and interviews were re-read to find meaning related to the category, until each category reached a point of diminishing returns. The concept model of grounded theory emerged gradually through the coding process.

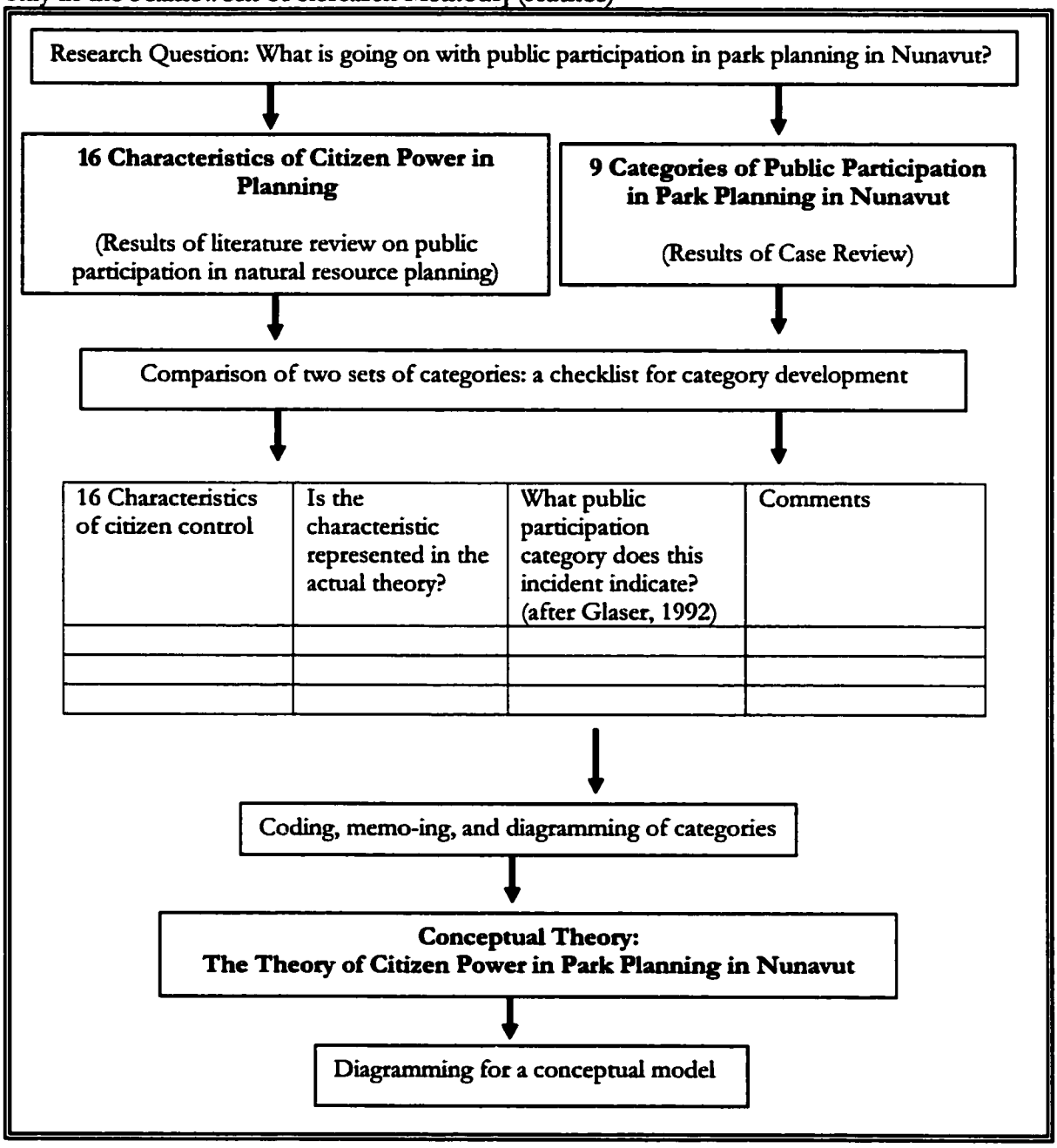
In grounded theory, memo-ing takes place during the entire coding process. Memos are places to store ideas about any aspect of the research study, and have been useful in helping the researcher recall information when a theory started to emerge. Simply put, memos are messages that the researcher wrote to herself. Diagramming also took place on

an ongoing basis, but only began once categories were identified through the open coding process. Diagramming helped the researcher to understand relationships between categories and their properties. Once a theory was developed, diagramming was used to demonstrate the theory in the form of a conceptual model.

3.4 Description of the Development of a Conceptual Theory

Grounded theory advocates the addition of new data to an existing theory for a continuation of theory generation. This study also used a grounded theory analysis to produce a final conceptual theory because grounded theory is an inductive methodology, and creates rather than tests a hypothesis. The findings and results of this process are described in Chapter 5. In creating a final hypothesis, a number of steps were taken (see Figure 3-2 *Methods of Data Analysis Used in the Production of the Conceptual Theory*). To begin, the characteristics of Citizen Power – now seen as categories of theory – were used as data in working toward the generation of the new theory of park planning. Similar to any grounded theory process, the new data was introduced to existing categories to find new patterns of park planning process. The second step in continuing a theory-building method involved comparing categories of public involvement in Nunavut park planning with the characteristics of Citizen Power. A comparison was made by observing ways in which the actual public participation process reflected (or did not reflect) the characteristics of Citizen Power. Observations were recorded to indicate ways in which the actual theory could be modified for increased citizen control over planning processes. The aim of this entire process was "To generate a theory that accounts for a pattern of behavior which is relevant and problematic for those involved." (Glaser, 1992, p. 75) The theory purports to be relevant to Nunavut park planners who wish to increase citizen control over the park planning process.

Figure 3-2 *Methods of Data Analysis Used in the Production of the Conceptual Theory.* [For Step 3 only in the Framework of Research Methods] (Author)



3.5 Limitations of the method

Following is a description of the three limitations found in this research; as well as explanation of how the researcher was able to overcome or compensate for the limitations. Three main limitations were present in this study, deriving from (1) a small amount of data from which to sample, (2) the difficulty of finding meaning when working cross-culturally, and (3) the conflicting streams of thought for grounded theory research methods.

Within the context of working in Nunavut, little prior research has been done on participatory planning and no literature exists on participatory park planning. Likewise, due to the recent creation of Nunavut as a territory in 1999, little information and precedence exists for participatory park planning in the territory of Nunavut. Additionally, there are limited numbers of community members involved in the planning of the 13 territorial Nunavut Parks. To maintain rigor while conducting this study, however, the researcher chose to use triangulation as a method of analysis in the final stages of the study. Triangulation was done by analyzing the two sets of case review data (interviews and document review) in conjunction with the literature review. The result of this triangulation can be noted in the production of the final conceptual theory and accompanying model (see Chapter 5). The development of the final conceptual theory allows the researcher to apply a case study to a broader context, giving it meaning beyond the study population.

The methods of this study may be limited because of the nature of doing cross-cultural research. Nuances in an original interview or observable action may be lost due to the inability of a researcher to accurately translate a word, a meaning, or a performance. As well, meaning may be lost if a researcher unintentionally allows her own biases into the interpretation of the data. Qualitative research is often undertaken because it offers a solution to misunderstandings due to personal and cultural differences. In her thesis,

Hillarie Greening describes the attention that is placed on personal values when she says that, "Working in cross-cultural environments with issues which are constantly changing and emerging presents a wonderful opportunity to use a qualitative approach which places emphasis on the basic assumptions of human interactions, the importance of values, evolving decisions and opinions, and an evolving research design" (Greening, 1999, p. 9). Grounded theory seeks to remedy the limitations of cultural misunderstandings by focusing on the raw data without imposing the views of the researcher onto the data. Grounded theory offers definitive ways to overcome researcher bias through very clear, if sometimes pedantic, procedures for data analysis.

Information about grounded theory indicates various streams of thought for data collection and analysis. With the acrimonious split of the co-originators, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, some of the methods of grounded theory have multiplied, and become disputable. For instance, Anselm Strauss's theories are followed to support the review of key literature prior to data analysis. Barney Glaser states that an initial literature review will influence a data analysis, thus influencing a theory. On the other hand, Strauss and Corbin (1998) advocate reviewing key literature prior to emerging theory so that the researcher may (1) enhance personal sensitivity to the field of study, (2) find questions for interviews, (3) find areas for theoretical sampling, and (4) demonstrate scholarly abilities. This research has chosen to conduct a literature review prior to data analysis, in keeping with social science methods of qualitative research. In all other areas of the grounded theory methods, this research follows the theories of Glaser in order to produce an emergent theory about public participation in Nunavut territorial park planning.

CHAPTER 4: CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

By conducting a grounded theory analysis of case study interview transcripts and internal territorial park documents, nine categories emerged that describe the public participation process in the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, Government of Nunavut[12] (see Figure 4-1 *List of Grounded Theory Categories of Nunavut Parks Public Participation Process*). The nine grounded theory categories are: Land Claim and Nunavut Act, Inuit Relationship with the Land, Defining a Park, Information Exchange, Consultation and Informal Meetings, Formal Connections, Community Veto Power, Park Ownership, and Economic and Tourism Development (see Appendix I *List of Grounded Theory Categories and Subcategories for the Case Study*). This chapter has laid out the nine core categories as a sequence, moving from categories that explain the context of park planning into a finer analysis of the participatory process, ending with analysis of the goals of park planning. The first section in this chapter describes the park planning process for territorial parks in

Figure 4-1 *List of Grounded Theory Categories of Nunavut Parks Public Participation Process* [and corresponding Chapter Organization] (Author)

CHAPTER ORGANIZATION	GROUNDED THEORY CATEGORIES
Section 4.3	The Context
Section 4.3.1	1. Land Claim and Nunavut Act
Section 4.3.2	2. Inuit Relationship with the Land
Section 4.4	The Process
Section 4.4.1	3. Defining a Park
Section 4.4.2	4. Information Exchange
Section 4.4.3	5. Consultation and Informal Meetings
Section 4.4.4	6. Formal Connections
Section 4.4.5	7. Community Veto Power
Section 4.5	Goals of Park [and Tourism] Development
Section 4.5.1	8. Park Ownership
Section 4.5.2	9. Economic and Tourism Development

[12] For a description on how the categories were developed see Appendix B: *Example of a Grounded Theory Process of Category Development.*

Nunavut. The next section of the chapter focuses on the context within which participatory park planning occurs, looking at the territory of Nunavut as a site of social, political, environmental, and economic change; the Land Claim and Nunavut Act which delineates policy and regulation for the Nunavut territory; and the special relationship that the Inuit people have with the land. Following this, five categories are defined as key aspects of the public involvement process: Process of Defining a Park, Information Exchange, Consultation and Informal Meetings, Formal Connections, and Community Veto Power. Two categories that emerged through the grounded theory analysis, namely Park Ownership and Economic and Tourism Development, can be understood as key processes of public involvement that also function as two important goals of territorial park development. This chapter ends by demonstrating how all of the nine categories function in unison, depicted with a conceptual model and a summary of the results of this fieldwork portion of the research study.

Before detailing the public involvement process in Nunavut, it is important to note the distinction between the park planning process and the public involvement process. While only the interview subjects who have professional park planning expertise were able to describe the park planning process, a clear description of the process ensued, which was refined with additional information from internal park planning documents (see Figure 4-2 *Planning Process for Park and Tourism Attraction Development in Nunavut*). It should be mentioned, however, that the park planning process is currently undergoing changes as the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division is working towards documenting the process in what is to become the 'Park Program'. Essentially, the park program is being developed as a guide to help understand how and why sites become parks (Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, 2001). It is also important at this point to realize that, in Nunavut, the park planning process

and the process of public involvement are different, although they do not function independently. Rather, the public participation process is a component of the park planning process, and should be regarded as such.

Figure 4-2 *Planning Process for Park and Tourism Attraction Developments in Nunavut* [Process Described by Interviewees who are Practitioners of Park Planning] (Author)

Decision to assess tourism potential in an area: The Minister may mandate an assessment, and tourism study areas are determined through a tourism study process.

The Tourism Study

Introduce people to the project

- Explain what is a park, including talking about activities on the land, traditional knowledge about the land, and what the tourism industry is all about.
- Explain how to develop a park, and how to develop a tourism plan for a community
- Answer questions about differences between Inuit and Qallunaat perceptions of tourists and what tourists want
- Creation of tourism committee, to be called a Community Joint Planning and Mgmt Committee

Information collection and information analysis

- Identification of attractions (look for special significance of the area)
- Site visit and documentation of the site
- Background research into previous literature, reports and studies of the area
- Community consultations, including interviews and public meetings for all major decisions
- Oral history projects and archaeological projects conducted

Feedback on the Tourism Study

- Reiteration of what a community has told you and reaction to the proposal. Review if necessary.

Approval of the inventory section of the Tourism Study

- Inventory to be reviewed and approved by the Community Joint Planning and Management Committee (CJPMC) and the Nunavut Joint Planning and Management Committee (NJPMC)
- Copies of inventory to go to the relevant Regional Inuit Association (RIA), the Nunavut Wildlife Management Boards (NWMB), the Inuit Heritage Trust, and any other parties that have been identified by the CJPMC
- Agreement by the Nunavut Government and the community to go on to further stages

Concept planning

- Concepts are developed for tourism and park development
- Community consultations are held to review the final concept plans
- Evaluation of different attraction development concepts
- Concept plan to be endorsed by the hamlet council
- Concept plan goes to Minister for approval

Master planning

- Deciding on boundaries, different concepts for a park, an interpretive plan, and a facility plan
- Consultation with the CJPMC for the preparation, review, and approval of master planning
- CJPMC, NJPMC, and the Minister to review and approve the Master Plan

Formal establishment

- Land transfer from Ottawa and Order in Council

Capital planning

- Operations and management planning
- Working drawings and subsequent construction
- Meetings with the community to explain the progress of project

Promotion

- Meetings with the community to explain progress of project
- Familiarization tour for tourist service providers
- Marketing the park to residents and visitor tourists

Ongoing activities: Learning about the 'park', interpretation, and evaluation

4.2 The Public Involvement Process of Nunavut

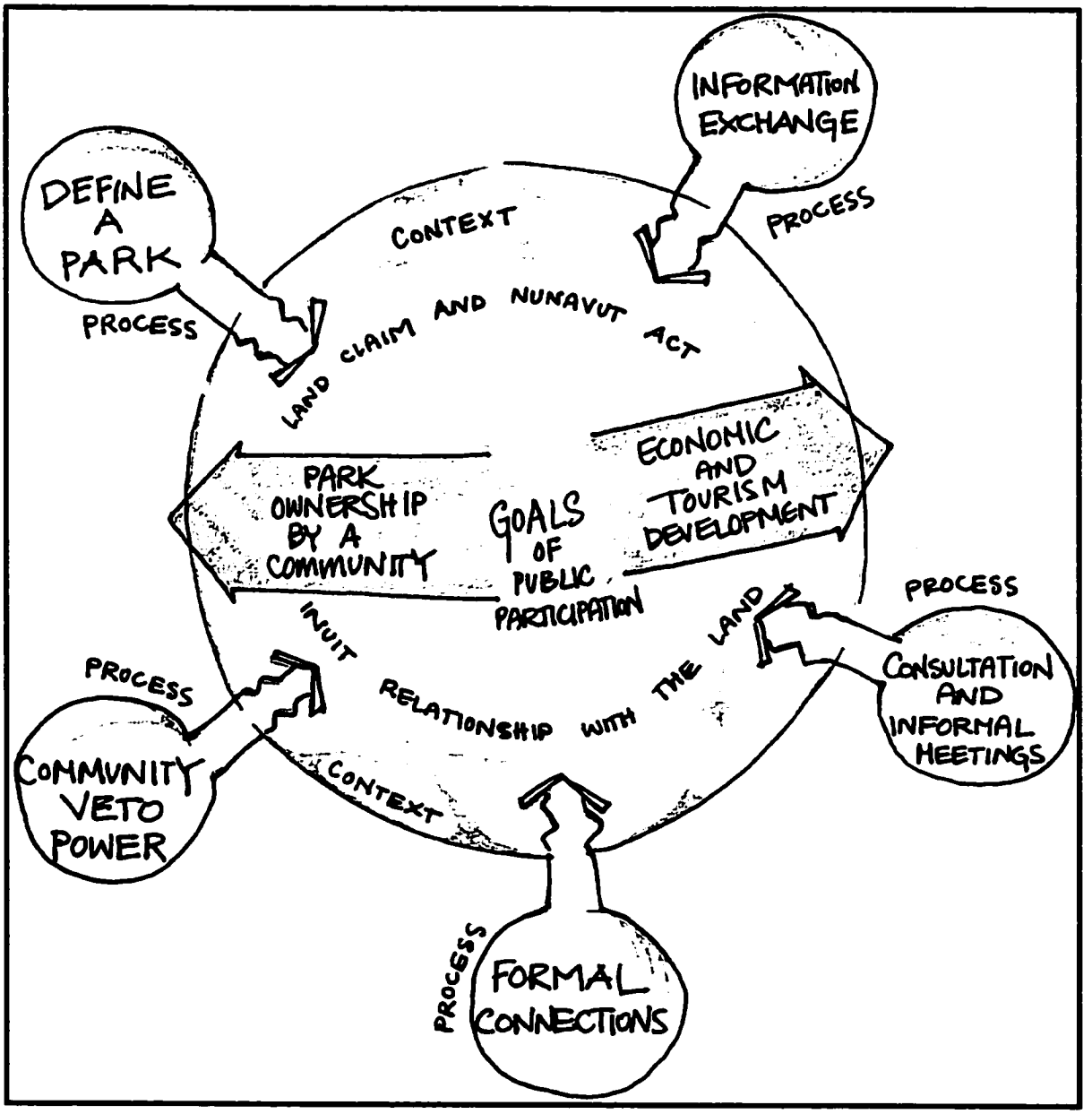
A particular process of public participation exists in the Nunavut Parks and Tourism department (see Figure 4-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Public Participation in Park Planning in Nunavut*). This process can be described as having two tiers, where one tier operates on a grassroots level and another tier operates simultaneously on an organizational level. The grassroots level occupies a space where the context is set and played out in day-to-day activity. This context, as stated earlier in this section, is one of intense societal change where there are increased regulations and knowledge about an Inuit way of life. This context includes the dominant values of Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit[13] and a traditional land management system that does not put boundaries around land or attempt to offer control over natural resources to the general public. However, this contextual setting is regularly fluctuating as new forms of natural resource management are introduced. Within the Nunavut Park planning offices, there are deliberate attempts to merge a predictable planning process with a less predictable environment, in order to achieve certain measurable outcomes.

Planning requires thinking abstractly about possible future actions and outcomes. This abstract thinking becomes formalized when it is applied to a planning process. In the case of Nunavut Parks and Tourism, there is a modification of an otherwise linear and structured public involvement process in order to adapt to different notions of time, different values, and various personalities. On paper, the steps to public involvement in the Nunavut park planning process are straightforward, and can be easily organized and sequenced. However, these formal steps are synthesized with the less-formal context in which the entire process takes place. This synthesizing has the effect of making the

[13] Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit (IQ) is also referred to as an Inuit way of thinking.

participation process more grassroots, more transparent, and less abstract. By merging two separate tiers, a flexible way of involving public is ensured throughout the entire planning process.

Figure 4-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Public Participation in Park Planning in Nunavut* (Author)



The synthesis of two tiers of the public involvement process occurs at no specific time or place. Synthesis may occur repeatedly throughout the public involvement process, where different processes are merging with different aspects of the grassroots situation in Nunavut. However, when the formal public involvement process is implemented within the Nunavut setting, the formal process will slow down and it will become more representative of public values. For instance, when planners are seeking public involvement they may interview elders, who may share traditional knowledge about the landscape, but who will not necessarily work towards the goal of park development. Another example of how a formal public involvement process will positively slow down is when youth are involved. As the abstract planning process is not part of the regular educational curriculum for young adults, but youth are regularly invited to become part of the park development process, provisions are made to bring skills to youth so that they can participate in decision-making within the planning process. The public participation process must slow down so that professionals can train and explain in order to involve youth successfully. The explanation of the planning process may require multiple translations between Inuktitut and English, adding another dimension that slows down the process. Working within a Land Claim settled area also slows down the formal public involvement process, as multiple stakeholders are required to review and approve the development of plans at many stages throughout the park planning process. The time it takes for additional meetings with more points of decision-making is compounded by the fact that many different perspectives will be shared - from local community members to a general Nunavut-wide committee. While participants may be tempted to find quick planning solutions, "swift outcomes are most often a false hope." (Susskind & Cruikshank, 1987, p. 243) Susskind and Cruikshank focus more specifically on the consensus building and negotiation stages in a public participation process, but their

advice holds true for all stages of planning. They state that putting in the time to complete each task in the process is a good investment; they leave us with the suggestion that "it is often necessary to go slow to go fast." (Susskind & Cruikshank, 1987, p. 244)

4.3 The Context

4.3.1 Land Claim and the Nunavut Act

The Nunavut Land Claim Agreement and the Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement were frequently alluded to in the documents and interview transcripts that were studied in this research. The Land Claim and the Nunavut Act heavily influence the way in which planners involve the public in park planning in Nunavut. These two pieces of legislation, coupled with the Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement[14] affect the ways in which Inuit are involved in park planning, as well as the way in which the Nunavut Government conducts its park planning business. The Nunavut Land Claim was settled to give financial compensation as well as land and mineral rights to Inuit people. Covering the entire territory of Nunavut, this claim was settled in 1993, and provides for

> ...rights to ownership and use of lands and resources, and of rights for Inuit to participate in decision-making concerning the use, management and conservation of land, water, and resources, including the offshore; financial compensation and means of participating in economic opportunities; and encouraging self-reliance and the cultural and social well-being of Inuit (Nortext Multimedia, 1999).

[14] An Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement is an agreement between the Inuit people of Nunavut and the Government of Nunavut that specifies how Inuit will benefit from the formation of Nunavut. Many different departments of the Nunavut Government have an IIBA, which were legislated through the Nunavut Land Claim.

To ensure the rights of Inuit people, planners invite Inuit community members to be involved in the planning of parks and other natural resources. When territorial boundaries changed through the Nunavut Act, a government was established that would work with the Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated[15] to enact the Land Claim. Park planning and management process in the Nunavut Government was adopted from the Government of the Northwest Territories, who readily involved members of the public in park planning (Parks and Visitor Services Division, 1994, 1996). When the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division began park planning, they also adopted a process in which public was involved.

4.3.2 Inuit relationship with the land

This research study reveals, through the analysis of interviews and park planning documents, that there is a strong perception about an Inuit relationship with the land which can be evidenced through Inuit knowledge and understanding about their land. In Nunavut, where the Inuit population is 83% (Nortext Multimedia, 1999), attention is placed on involving members of the public as a way of respecting and protecting an Inuit relationship with the land. The Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement specifies this distinct relationship when it states that,

> ...the Inuit of Nunavut have a unique relationship with the ecosystems of the Nunavut Settlement Area that is ecological, spiritual and social in nature, and have accumulated a related body of traditional knowledge, or Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit, which is necessary for responsible decision-making regarding lands, waters and marine areas of the Nunavut Settlement Area.... (Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area & the Government of Nunavut, 2002, p. 1)

[15] Formerly called the Tunngavik Federation of Nunavut, the Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated (NTI) was incorporated in 1976 as an organisation committed to ensuring the rights of Inuit people.

Subsequently, the IIBA states that "There is need to recognize, protect and enhance the traditional and existing relationships between Inuit and the lands, waters and resources within Territorial parks and surrounding areas" (Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area & the Government of Nunavut, 2002, p. 2). The Nunavut Parks department has responded to the need to ensure a connection between Inuit and the lands of the Arctic through their park planning process.

The Nunavut Parks Division involves Inuit in the planning process and gathers information about Inuit relationships with specific landscapes. Inuit are involved in the planning through informal connections such as personal contacts and communication, meetings, and collection of anecdotal information; as well as through formal connections such as direct employment, formal committees, and mandated project reviews[16]. Another means of continuing an Inuit relationship with the land that has been employed by the Nunavut Parks department is the collection of information about Inuit life in the area in which a park is being considered.

In the beginning stages of park planning, when members of the public are first involved, there is information collected from the area in which park and tourist attractions are being considered. This information will include anything related to the topic of Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit (IQ) [or Inuit knowledge], which is accessed through oral history projects and first hand information about specific landscape features. IQ denotes an Inuit way of living and knowing, including that of land and environment. IQ is what provides artefacts, stories, and knowledge on how to preserve traditional uses (Study Transcript, 2002). Parks are a place through which knowledge can be passed down from generation to generation

[16] These methods of Inuit involvement are also described in detail in further sections of this chapter (see Section 4.4.4).

because parks show "the people from down south who don't understand or who don't know how we live up here and that it's important." (Study Transcript, 2002) The character of a park will be determined by soliciting Inuit knowledge about the land, acquired through various activities and methods of public involvement. Oral histories are often collected as a way to understand traditional IQ. One respondent describes this stage.

> Traditionally, this government had always worked with Inuit in acquiring oral history to try to further understand why certain parks need to be protected and interpreted...and to further understand Inuit use of those park properties or potential park properties. We've always called that oral history. Most of our parks to date have been developed premised on oral history – which tends to be a [sic] capturing information of yesterday and using it for today as opposed to using information from yesterday and today in our parks (Study Transcript, 2002).

While IQ and oral histories about traditional Inuit life influence a park's character, a modern notion of IQ influences parks through the public participation process. IQ has been described in another part of the same interview as determining how parks will be established – that is, through an understanding of traditional knowledge and through Inuit and elder involvement (Study Transcript, 2002). The process of public involvement will be affected by the presence of IQ. One respondent declared that if IQ is being considered, then the entire process will be done from a holistic point of view (Study Transcript, 2002). In his interview, he states

> My understanding is that parks are for everybody, not just visitors, but for people in this area as well. So I think in order to fit the park for everybody, ah, Inuit need to be involved in traditional parks, the rules, what will be the use of the park, operations of the park, process, the use of the park, the works (Study Transcript, 2002)

The 'works' indicates the public involvement process. Planners solicit information from Inuit and involve Inuit in the process so as to uncover meaning and ideas about potential parklands. But what is also uncovered when ensuring the persistence of an Inuit relationship with the land is a particular process of public participation.

4.4 The Process

4.4.1 Process of Defining a Park

Early in the park planning process, after the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division initiates a tourism study, professional park planners meet with members of the public to collect information about a study area. Current practices of information-gathering require that planners explain what a park is, what a tourist is, how to develop a park, and how to develop a tourism study for an area adjacent to a community. The explanation of a park includes talking about the land, activities on the land, oral histories, traditional knowledge about the land, the significance of boundaries, and different perceptions of parks between Inuit and non-Inuit people. However, the discussion about what a park has no finite ending and the meaning and intention of parks is explained repeatedly during public meetings, open houses, interviews, and other forms of direct communication. The process of defining a park also requires experiential learning, such as going out on the land and imagining oneself as a tourist – regardless if one is Inuit or non-Inuit. As Inuit people do not have any word for the English equivalent of 'park', this abstract word is explained to the Inuit public. For example, in order to understand how a park functions, there must also be an understanding of the tourism industry in general. On the other hand, non-Inuit (professionals) may understand the notion of a park, but do not understand how this idea applies to the landscape in which their study in being undertaken. Continually throughout a tourism study, professionals are charged with the task of understanding a new version of a park, of adapting their idea of a park to accommodate a particular place, and thereby modifying the entire notion of a park.

One interviewee describes the approach to defining a park, and emphasizes the foreignness of the word park, when working with the public in Nunavut.

> And one of the steps we take [in the park program] is that we don't even mention the word parks now, it's Mirnguiqsirviit. We emphasize that in our

> logo. Because that's a way of bypassing that word. That's a horrid word park. People have an association with the south when they think of parks. Because it's so alien up here. Mind you Mirnguiqsirviit is a word that is used by Inuit, that they've been quite comfortable with, and so that's a start (Study Transcript, 2002).

On another occasion the same interviewee described how parks are foreign to the north, but that having a Park Program for Nunavut Parks can help people to understand the meaning of parks.

> We don't have a park program developed. We're so young, so new, that that all needs to be developed so that people can really appreciate why have a park, and how a park can become something, not just one of those things that parks down south do, but it becomes a park that makes sense to people up here in the north. Because a lot of people have, they have, for example if you live in Pond [Inlet], people would question. Why would you have a park on Bylot Island when you can just drive outside your community and you're already surrounded by hundred of miles of pristine wilderness beauty. And why would you want to package that into something called a park? It seems to be a very southern, Kabloona idea but we in the north are different. I don't think there's a full appreciation as to why we need to develop these things called parks and that's why it's important that we develop a really good rapport with Inuit in understanding why there are things called parks in the south and how we can develop things called parks in the north. They don't have to be exactly the same as the south but, then there needs to be...something developed up here that will cause people to say I understand now why we have these things called parks, as opposed to, I think a lot of people just view, sort of copy-cat syndrome – so you go to the south, then you've got to bring them up north. There doesn't seem to have that sense of ownership that it could have because we haven't gone through that grassroots process of arriving at a new program. So that's one of the concerns that we have with parks right now, is giving that sense of ownership and understanding of these things called parks (Study Transcript, 2002).

By defining parks, or Mirnguiqsirviit, the Nunavut Parks Division introduces the park planning process, starting with an explanation of why parks are important to the territory of Nunavut.

Protection of landscape was a main theme that emerged from the interviews held as part of this study. For example, one community interviewee stated about the meaning of parks in Nunavut:

> Oh a park is where there is something spectacular happens. It's where people go to have a good time and get away from life's troubles. ...Because there's lots of seals or there's lots of caribou and it's a migration route, or there's nice scenery, that it should be protected. [A park is] a landscape, it's a tundra, it's a ice palace (Study Transcript, 2002).

Protection of a landscape, or a landscape feature, often includes the interpretation of a historical event or activity that has taken place in or near a community. Territorial parks are representative of cultural or community features.

> There's a few things that are community icons that need protection and interpretation. A good example is the Kekerten historic park where the community felt that whaling was an important theme. And they had a variety of locations and themes they wanted to talk about. Shamanism to whaling to the way sod houses were built. And eventually through consultations we ended up deciding that whaling was the theme and Kekerten just happened to be the site that they wanted to turn into a territorial park (Study Transcript, 2002).

To further this understanding of parks as being areas for protection, another interviewee stated that protection is important, but that protection must not restrict use of a site.

> I know the outside people from another country or another town see that local people are hunting in a park – and maybe that would be a...bad face to the community. But it's the local community that want to put a park up because they want to protect it. It's not only for tourists, they want to protect it for themselves. That's one thing I guess most of the people don't understand, or the government. The local person would think that a park is a place where you protect something, not for the outside people, but for your own community. I don't think there would be any problems as long as the people were going to the Fish Weir to do their fishing. If we let the other people, the local people, to come and do their fishing in there, the other problems wouldn't be in there (Study Transcript, 2002).

The balance between maintaining a landscape in its natural state and using a landscape is further described in another interview of a professional park planner.

> I found it somewhat a contradiction being a designer of parks and often when I go to some place for the first time – like to Mallikjuak, opposite Cape Dorset, or even when I went here to the Sylvia Grinnell and I remember going down the Coppermine this summer – and one of the contradictions is that here I'm one of these persons who is to design and build things in the outdoors and often I think, wow, this is incredible just the way it is. And so there's somewhat of a tug-of-war in terms of trying to keep the place – this

> natural landscape in its natural form – and yet set it up so that people can still enjoy it. But I guess I do realize that visitors have to have something to guide them around, because I usually have a guide with me, or I've spent enough time to know what's going on around me, I know what's going on. And these people who just parachute in for a week or two weeks don't have the benefit of all that background, so they do need something (Study Transcript, 2002).

This tug-of-war game between trying to protect a place and trying to encourage use of a place becomes part of the explanation of what a park is in Nunavut.

There is a predominant understanding of parks in Nunavut as being places where Inuit and non-Inuit can recreate, and where Inuit people can harvest. Recreational uses of parks include activities such as canoeing, kayaking, or rafting down rivers; skidooing; sightseeing; camping; hiking; relaxing; as well as resting in a place "where people can go and get away from it all, where it's peaceful. Parks will contain special features such as wonderful views or landscape features that you won't find in a community. Harvesting rights are protected in parks for Inuit people". (Study Transcript, 2002) For instance, "A park is...for everybody. For anybody. For tourists to come up and see and adventure the area. But it's also for the community. For tourists – they cannot hunt in the area but the people of Kimmirut can because it's allowed". (Study Transcript, 2002) Parks are also described as being places that showcase the character of an area or a site. For example, in this next quote, the interviewee describes an experience in the Arctic while conducting a tourism study that hints at the character of the landscape in Nunavut.

> But that's one of the things, is when you go and see these incredible places, you see the character – like when we were in Mallikjuak, the park operator and I, doing a study there, and we were inspecting this old fox trap, and it was just incredible to see this pile of stones and how the Inuit have been able to create this structure which has no connecting members or anything, it's all free standing stone structure that's basically a cone shape, hollow on the inside. And it was 5 feet high or something like that. It was really neat to experience that. As we're experiencing it, I hear this really strange sound and I turn around – and it was really disturbing to hear it because there was no sound basically around there, maybe a bird, but then

> **suddenly this strange sound and then I turn around and this bowhead whale is going by, submerging and coming up, and it was just, what a great place, what an incredible place (Study Transcript, 2002).**

On the other hand, communities see parks as important sources of income. Whereas mines are seen as short term solutions to a poor economy, parks are perceived as having long term benefits on a communities socio-economic standing (Study Transcript, 2002). The process of defining parks begins with an explanation of a new word – and a new idea – to residents in Nunavut communities. However, redefining parks is equally important to locals as it is to non-locals. Tourists are educated about the meaning of parks in Nunavut as a component of marketing and promoting parks, a step in the planning process that occurs after park development. Starting with a local community, and ending with a global community, parks are being redefined as a main step in the public involvement process of park planning in Nunavut.

4.4.2 Information exchange

Exchanging information as a method of public involvement includes a wide variety of popular and accessible activities that are delivered by the Nunavut Parks Division. The use of popular means of advertising, such as radio[4] and newspapers, newsletters, pamphlets, and brochures, are used to support reports and government documents. Informal learning through presentations, slideshows, meetings, and on-the-job training are used in place of formal training and curriculum. Formats such as signs, maps, and displays are used widely in place of written documents. Other means of exchanging information between planners and community members include written correspondence, phone conversations, and personal

[4] Incidentally, radio has been used in the north as a viable means of mass communication since the CBC was broadcasting in the north starting as early as the 1950's. (Nortext Multimedia 1999)

communications such as interviews. Exchange of information during the inventory and analysis stage of park planning can be used as an example of the methods of public involvement. As part of the inventory of a site or area, a professional planner will visit the site to identify attractions and areas of special significance. Identification will include photographing and recording these areas, as well as conducting a background research of the area. Each inventory will include community consultations, including interviews with select individuals and public meetings where all community members can share their ideas and add to the information that has been collected. Questionnaires, surveys, and oral history projects are frequent participatory methods of collecting information about a site. For example, one interviewee lists a number of ways to get information to a community, including providing audiocassettes that can be played on local radio, having a 1-800 number for people to call their opinions in, provide an email address, provide an interactive website, invite the public to write letters, set up a suggestion box, have public meetings, have meetings with various community organizations, or have a designated person in town (likely the Wildlife Officer, an employee of the Government of Nunavut) who can field questions. The following quote responded to the question of "How do you get information to a community?" and the interviewee talks about how to overcome obstacles when conducting meetings with communities.

> [But] It's really hard to get public meetings going these days in communities. If you call a public meeting you might get 10 people and it's usually kind of disappointing to the organizers. To see if they, like, if they only see 10 people and they were expecting 200. So if you are going to run a public meeting you might want to use the bait in attracting people. People have been successful in doing that by providing door prizes and stuff to public meetings to attract people. Once the people come in they will stay there to listen to your consultation. You might want to have a draw at the end, or a few draws throughout the meeting, so that people will know they have to be there for their prize. If you say there will be a draw at the end of the meeting, people will say, "Oh the meeting should be over in about 3 hours; we'll head on over to get our prize in about 3 hours". So door prizes I believe work the best if

> you're conducting public meetings. My thinking is the absolute best way to pass on a message would be through local radio. Most of the communities have local radio and you can go way of recorded messages or you can go with the HTO president, wildlife officer and have it done in both languages (Study Transcript, 2002).

This quote outlines how public involvement methods of consultation and information exchange occur in Nunavut. Consultants have given out door prizes at open houses, and honorariums are given as a form of respect for elders who donate their time to be interviewed. Exchange of information must accommodate the community in which planners are working, as well as the overall context of working in Nunavut.

4.4.3 Consultation and Informal Meetings

The Nunavut Parks Division is imprinting a formal public participation process into a Nunavut-wide context through consulting the public and meeting informally. Regular and repeated consultations are held with community members in areas adjacent to proposed parks. Community consultations are held with Hunter and Trapper Organization members, tourism employees, Nunavut Tourism, guides and outfitters, and elders (Stevenson & Mike, 2001). These consultations include one-on-one meetings or conversations, group sessions, public sessions, meetings between special committees, and open houses. The goal of consulting members of the public varies throughout the process, from the beginning of the inventory where community members are consulted on their knowledge of a landscape to the end stages of park planning when committees are consulted for their approval of park plans. The Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement stipulate a number of requirements of consultation with regard to public involvement and park planning. These requirements include: giving ample notice before a consultation is desired, stating in writing the views that are not considered through a consultation, consultation techniques that are culturally

appropriate (such as public meetings, and consultation methods that support Inuit knowledge sharing, such as small group meetings and meeting in peoples' homes), providing all materials in English and Inuktitut, recording all comments received during a consultation, and writing up these records in the form of a report on the consultation (Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area & the Government of Nunavut, 2002). A number of these actions will have the effect of slowing down a public participation process. For example, when giving written notice it will take some additional time to create all documents in two official languages, and additional time for airmail, faxes, or emails to arrive at their designated person or committee. Mandating the writing of reports about all consultations will also slow down the park planning process.

Informal meetings occur throughout the park planning process as a way to create a relationship between professional planners and community members. From the beginning of a tourism study to the final stages of park development and into the park operations and management phases, there are community meetings to discuss the progress of the entire project. These meetings are informal, occur as needed, and are held in public spaces such as a church or recreation halls, a school gymnasium, or a Hamlet or Hunters and Trappers Organization office. They include consulting the public and exchange of information but also have a specific purpose of getting feedback on how the planning process is progressing. In Nunavut, it appears that there is more personal connection as a form of public involvement. For instance,

> I think [park development] different in the degree and emphasis on conservation and the involvement. It seems to be a lot more personal up here. And, you know, you talk to the Council, you talk to the HTO (Hunters and Trappers Organization), you talk to different groups in town, you talk to the elders. [There is] a more intensive consultation. And it's a listening to people. And if they say they don't want it that's it (Study Transcript, 2002).

Selection of different public involvement options most often includes the public giving ideas and consent to planners to proceed with a project or study. An example of this consultation occurred during the Feasibility Study for Hall Beach, where an evaluation of concepts was conducted by comparing concepts against certain objectives[17]. This evaluation then went to the community for confirmation. (RRL Recreation Resources Ltd., 2002b). At each stage of the park planning process there is public involvement, where there is a reiteration of what information a community has shared, and a solicitation of community approval so that the planners may move on to the next stage in park planning.

4.4.4 Formal connections

Another form of public involvement that occurs in the Nunavut Parks Division is the building of formal connections between different stakeholders. By creating formal connections, a planning community is established that is accountable to the park planning process. The creation of these connections will also slow down the public involvement process, as time is spent finding individuals who wish to become part of a new planning community, and preparing this newly connected group for their responsibilities. There are a number of park planning stages in which formal connections are made. To start the park planning process, the Government of Nunavut hires a consultant, who will proceed to conduct an initial tourism study. This relationship between the government and the consultant is formalized through working contracts, and ensures Inuit employment as well as preference for Inuit businesses wishing to conduct the tourism study.

[17] The criteria for concepts were that they had to be beneficial for the community and its residents, able to offer Inuit youth hope and vision, able to attract people to Hall Beach, and feasible.

A second formal relationship is established between the consultant and the community, where working relationships are struck between the consultant and any number of residents from the local Hunter and Trapper Organization, the Economic Development Officer, the Wildlife Officer, and Hamlet employees. This relationship has often been in the form of a tourism committee, which is likely a sub-committee of the Hamlet. The connection between consultant and community may entail a contact person who permanently resides in the community being studied and who can discuss the planning project that is being conducted (RRL Recreation Resources Ltd., 2002b). For example, in the Hall Beach Feasibility Study for Attraction Development, a local Inuk was hired to do research and interviews (RRL Recreation Resources Ltd., 2002a). Inuit field assistants are hired and trained during inventory of an area.

There are also formal connections between different agencies, such as regional associations and Nunavut-wide organizations. The Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement (IIBA) dictates that Inuit will be involved in areas pertaining to park information, park materials and facilities, park interpretation programs, cultural and heritage resources in parks, wildlife resources in parks, mineral resources in parks, research in territorial parks, and planning and management of territorial parks. The Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated (NTI) works to ensure Inuit interests are protected and promoted, and works with the Parks and Tourism Division on issues related to economic development, land claims, and Inuit rights (Department of Sustainable Development, 2001a). Through the IIBA, Inuit involvement is formalized through the creation of Joint Planning and Management Committees (JPMC) that operate on the territorial and the local level. JPMC's ensure that Inuit are involved in the planning process through regulations, simply because "an effective land use planning process requires the active participation of both Government and Inuit" (*Agreement between the Inuit of*

the Nunavut Settlement Area and Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Canada, 1993, 11.2.1g of Article 11). While the Nunavut JPMC operates at a territorial level, the Community JPMC's will be established in each community where park planning is occurring. Both committees have a limited number of members (6-8), who are trained by the government to prepare them for this position, which may include, for example, training in consensus decision-making. The duties and activities that take place in various formally connected groups are shown in Figure 4-4 *Activities or Duties Conducted by Formal Groups When Park Planning.*

Figure 4-4 *Activities or Duties Conducted by Formal Groups When Park Planning in Nunavut* (Author)

Formal Group	**Activity or Duty that is conducted by the group**
Nunavut JPMC	Gives advice on policy, planning, establishment, operation and management of territorial parks; as well as assisting in tourism strategies and training, park contracts, educational programs in parks, and reviewing materials for parks. Assists in preparing culturally appropriate consultation techniques for park-related consultations. Review and approval of inventory. Review and approve master plan
Community JPMC	Advise on park policy, planning, establishment, operation and management, and other park related activities. Review and approval of inventory. Consultation in preparation for the master planning. Review and approve master plan
NWMB, NPC, IHT, relevant RIA, relevant RWO and HTO, others in the affected community	Involved for any work related to culturally significant sites and important wildlife areas
Relevant CJPMC and IHT	Identification of Inuktitut place names and spellings.
RIA and CJPMC	Approval of Inuktitut place names and spellings.
Interested elders	Oral history collection. This project will include elders in the affected community being taken out on the land for a day or more to obtain stories and information. One or more Inuit assistants will be hired and trained for this project.
Elders, interested Inuit, and local heritage organizations in the community	To be informed and solicited for advice on where to conduct archaeological survey work.
DSD and community	Must agree on inventory before proceeding to further stages.
Hamlet council	To endorse the concept plan
Minister	To approve concept plan
Local Inuit and other residents and organizations, GN, CJPMC	Preparing master plan

Each of these formal connections discussed here will entail multiple meetings and conversations. The nature of the connections will change as the planning process unfolds, and as new consultants are hired on to complete different stages of the park planning. On the other hand, JPMC members will remain connected through the committee for a number of years, ensuring continuity and accountability.

4.4.5 Community veto power

The Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division involves the public through defining what a park is, exchanging information, community consultation, informal meetings, and formal connections. Practitioners also involve the public by offering them veto power on decisions related to park planning. A community, through the voice of a Tourism Committee, Hamlet Committee, a CJPMC, or a collective voice of community Elders or residents, can veto any major decision that is made outside of the community. The following quote indicates that without involvement, a community will decide not to proceed with park development, thereby halting the entire park planning process.

> Well the government always makes the rules about parks. For us we're involved as a people, if we support it or not, if we are, I guess, ultimately we're the government because we are the people. And if we didn't support it wouldn't have gone ahead. But in this case they involved the people (Study Transcript, 2002).

Finally, this last quote gives an indication of how important it is that communities have the ability to decide if they want to be involved, and if they want to work towards park development, in order to realize one of the goals of park planning, that is, the goal of benefiting the community. The park planner states:

> [Community involvement is important] because with each project [it is] what has been done in the past. Because they are very community based and the communities are small themselves, and one of the main goals of the project is to benefit the community then they have to be involved because if they don't want the project to happen or have no interest in it then it's not going

> to happen and it's not going to work out. Its sort of a...there's no point in putting that much energy into it because it won't be supported. Even though you've designated it a park nothing will happen (Study Transcript).

4.5 The Goals

This section of the chapter describes the outcome of the 'imprinting' process of public participation onto the setting of Nunavut. Even before a park is developed, the goals of public involvement begin to be realized when members from each community setting are invited to be involved in park planning. The merging of process and place does not occur at any specific time. Merging occurs repeatedly throughout the public involvement process when the methods described previously shift in order to adapt to the Nunavut context. Through this imprinting process, park ownership, tourism and economic development, and the protection of an Inuit relationship with the land become not only the goals toward which park planners work, but these goals also become the process itself. In other words, the ends become the means, in which case the process of public involvement becomes as important as the goals of public involvement. For example, professionals working towards the goal of a community having full decision-making ability over a park will prepare the community by teaching individual community members park planning skills[18]. The Nunavut Parks Division works towards preparing a community for the task of ownership over a park. As well, professionals involve the public in the processes of tourism and economic development, as well as protecting an Inuit relationship with the land.

4.5.1 Park ownership

[18] These skills will include the skills contained in a planning process – how to prepare a tourism study, how to develop an appropriate concept plan, how to develop facilities and infrastructure in a park, and how to promote a park, for example.

Community ownership of parks refers to the involvement in; and understanding, appreciation, and knowledge of park related activities. Ownership also indicates the ability of a community to lead a park planning process, to be stewards of a park, to have power over park related decisions, and to be self-reliant when conducting park related activities. Park ownership does not refer to legal or jurisdictional responsibilities but rather to an implied sense of command over park planning and public involvement processes. When professionals involve the Nunavut public in park planning, they engage community members to heighten the publics understanding, appreciation, and knowledge of the entire park planning process.

In the following quote, this professional describes how being sensitive to communities and involving community members in a meaningful way must be accompanied by a sense of community ownership over a park.

> Our parks are as much about them as it is about the rest of Nunavut...and from the main perspective we are the only.... We are concerned more about community residents than we are from a tourist perspective. Because without that input and without that involvement, without that ownership from people in the communities, the park will not succeed. So there's no point in creating something if you don't have that, irrespective of the fact of how many southern visitors we might get, or how many visitors from international places we might get – if there's no support or there's no involvement or there's no ownership to the park...it's not a park (Study Transcript).

By teaching community members about parks, park planning professionals equip communities with the ability to lead, steward, make decisions, and be self-reliant over parks and park related activities.

However, ownership of parks is a goal that is hard to achieve. Despite the power that communities have in stopping or continuing with a park planning project, the interviews indicated a prescription for increased ownership of parks. The following quote details how increased leadership is needed in order for a park (attraction development) to be successful.

> To succeed, it is essential that there be a lead proponent or "champion" to effectively lead the project. This leadership role may be filled by a government department or ministry, or through a coalition of community, public and corporate/institutional sponsors. To succeed, the project must have community representation and direction, and a leadership role. Thus a shared stewardship role is envisioned, where community, government and corporate leaders combine efforts, knowledge and resources to make the attraction development a reality (RRL Recreation Resources, 2002b).

In another study, the proponents assert that leadership is the key to park ownership, when they prescribe two tactics to overcome lack of ownership. These tactics include creating a committee of guides and outfitters to steer the project and integrating the attraction into local school programs. The importance of community ownership is expressed when the proponents state that,

> No matter how much development occurs at Kekerten, it will be a waste of time and resources unless the community of Pangnirtung is prepared to take ownership of this priceless historic treasure, not to mention the marketing/imaging of their unique cultural heritage (Stevenson & Mike, 2001).

The following quote also prescribes ownership of parks; however, it also describes why parks are suffering from a lack of ownership. The interviewee expresses that working in a territory that is very young, where there is no publicly recognized definition for a park, hinders park ownership.

> I think part of the problem we have with our parks right now is buy in. is getting Inuit a real sense of ownership to these things called parks. I think some communities understand what parks are but those are the only communities that have...for example, Pangnirtung has two parks – three parks – and I think that they appreciate what a park is, both the good the bad, you know, the positives and the negatives, because, that's been the focus of all research to date. Is in that community in the development of parks, but if you were to go to Rankin Inlet, or go to a community that doesn't have a park, or a region that doesn't have a park, I think you'd find that the residents may not be as receptive to a park as they are in a community that has a park (Study Transcript, 2002).

This quote repeats the idea that working in the Nunavut setting impacts public involvement. Increasing community ownership, and community power, may require a decrease in

bureaucratic power. For instance, two interviews contained messages about the political power that the mining industry wields over communities. This political power is described as being on a "higher level, where the focuses are a little bit different than what the community wants" (Study Transcript, 2002). By transferring park ownership to community members, the Nunavut Parks Division wishes to increase community political power. Inuit control of resources is mandated by the Nunavut Land Claim and the IIBA, and can potentially be offered through increased community leadership, stewardship, power, and self-reliance. In other words, the success of parks relies on the success of community ownership of parks, as is expressed in the following quote.

> Without that involvement – that ownership – the park's not going to succeed no matter how great it is, how wonderful it is, how people all over the world come and visit the area it's still not going to be a park, it's still just going to be a blob on a map (Study Transcript, 2002).

4.5.2 Economic and Tourism Development

Another goal of involving the public in park planning is to increase the economic stability and the tourism potential in a community. Communities that are aiming to increase economic and tourist potential through park development are doing so provided they are being assisted to build the capacity of their community – requiring the input of the community members. Some territorial parks have been developed as community economic development initiatives, indicating that economic and tourist development is not only a goal but also an important step in the overall process of park planning. The process of economic and tourist development requires the involvement of the public as well as realistic, practical solutions to overcome the challenges of working in the Nunavut context.

Park development is one means of increasing economic stability in a community. One interviewee stated the ability for park development to sustain communities in the long run.

> I think that [parks are] really important to Nunavut. Because we need to, give money to the community, and tourism dollars, to the region. Other than from mining. A mine can run for, what, 20 to 30 years. A park can run for much longer. Us Inuit, we would have a first shot at...contracts that come up in the park, so I think that's one area where we can benefit from a park. And also employment. It employs right now one park warden, although they hired him casually, but that's... that's one more job for the community, and it's a good job (Study Transcript, 2002).

Another interviewee repeated how park development benefits northern communities in a variety of ways. It appears that by increasing the tourism potential in a community, the goal of economic development can be furthered.

> A park in Nunavut is a place that is protected from development. And a tourist attraction. It will create a job in a Nunavut community, and at the same time people will go and look at it (Study Transcript, 2002).

As tourists travel into an area to visit a park, the neighbouring community provides additional activities, furthering the ability of a community to increase their capacity. The following list of activities described in this quote includes tourist activities that community members rely on for income.

> A park is...for everybody. ...for tourists to come up and see and adventure the area. But it's also for the community. Ah, tourists...cannot hunt in the area but the people of Kimmirut can because it's allowed. [Tourists] also go out on the land. They canoe down the river, in the park. And they also do boat trips out on the ocean, or do land programs, or floe edge trips, or we do half or full day boat trips. [Tourists] don't have to just stay in the park. We also get to do a traditional group dinner. It can be up to 16 people, together. And that works out really well (Study Transcript, 2002).

There are a number of methods that Nunavut Parks Division employs to involve the public in increasing the tourism potential, and the economic stability, of a community. The park planning process is developed partially from the idea that balance should be sought

between five components that are integral to any tourist development – markets, attractions, services and facilities, transportation, and information (Gunn, 1988). By using this idea, the Parks Division identifies areas of strength and weakness in a community, thereby sourcing areas that require support. By working in conjunction with Nunavut Tourism, the Parks Division offers support for increased community capacity for park planning and management. Only by supporting communities to have skills in controlling land and resources, can communities develop their economy (Department of Sustainable Development, 2001b). The Nunavut Parks Division, through the various methods described in this chapter, supports communities by involving community members in controlling land and resources.

4.6 A Theory of Public Involvement in Nunavut Park Planning

A theory of public involvement in Nunavut park planning has been developed in this study that has three main premises (see Figure 4-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Public Participation in Park Planning in Nunavut*). First, the public involvement process can be described as being dynamically influenced by the context in which it is situated. The structured public process is tailored by the Nunavut Parks Division to accommodate the Land Claim and Nunavut Act, as well as an Inuit relationship with the land. It is not unusual for a public participation process to be affected by contextual factors. Beierle and Cayford (2002) have found that public participation processes are affected by contextual factors such as the type of issues, resources, and policies; the history of relationships between governments and citizens; and the identity, reputation, culture, funding, and capacity of the planning agency. These three main contextual factors are all apparent in the public participation process of Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division.

The public involvement process can also be described as a structured process with a number of opportunities for public involvement. These opportunities are found in the processes of Defining a Park, Information Exchange, Consultation and Informal Meetings, Formal Connections, and Community Veto Power. These steps in the public involvement process, however, do not occur at single points in the park planning process. Rather, public involvement is ongoing throughout the entire park planning process. Levels of public involvement are high and potentially impact the park planning process itself.

The third premise of the theory of public involvement in Nunavut park planning is based on the notion that, as the public involvement process is affected by its setting, that there is a shifting of the planning process to suit the context. The result of the adaptation of the public involvement process is that the goals and the process towards park development become indistinguishable from one another. This adaptation can also be described as the ends becoming the means, where the goals of Park Ownership and Economic and Tourism Development are two major goals of public involvement that become means in themselves. Hence, as planners and communities work towards the goals of public involvement, they also ensure that they are slowly moving towards developing components of parks.

CHAPTER 5: FINAL ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS – THE CONCEPTUAL THEORY

5.1 Introduction

Of the five main research objectives, two have already been met, which were to determine a theory for the current process of public involvement in territorial park planning in Nunavut and to demonstrate this theory through a conceptual model (see Chapter 4). This theory was then demonstrated through a conceptual model. The remaining three objectives of the research study are to:

- Contrast Nunavut participatory planning practice with theoretical participatory planning processes,
- Define a conceptual theory that shows the contributions of theoretical participatory planning process to Nunavut participatory planning practice, and
- Demonstrate this conceptual theory through a conceptual model.

This chapter presents the comparison of the grounded theory planning model planning with the 16 characteristics of citizen power. The final objectives of this study are also reviewed in this chapter, which defines how participatory park planning contributes to the process of Inuit and Nunavummiut involvement in park planning. A theory is conceptualized for high levels of citizen power in territorial park planning in Nunavut, Canada. A conceptual model is included to demonstrate this theory, which presumes that citizens who have power in natural resource planning are instrumental to working towards Nunavut's territorial goals of increased public government and self-reliance. Because this final theory incorporates an analysis using information from outside Nunavut, it may be generalized to various other situations of public involvement in park planning.

5.3 Comparison of the Model of Public Involvement in Nunavut Park Planning to the Characteristics of Citizen Power

In the following sections, the characteristics of Citizen Power are compared to the grounded theory categories of public involvement in Nunavut park planning[19]. The comparative analysis is described in this chapter to explain the development of the new grounded theory categories for citizen control in park planning in Nunavut. This comparative analysis is outlined according to the 16 characteristics of Citizen Power that were identified through the literature review (see Chapter 2). These characteristics are outlined in their respective parent characteristics of *Participatory Framework, Participatory Goals, Attributes of Participatory Planning,* and *Public Participation Process.* New grounded theory categories are then described. The process that starts with a comparative analysis and ends with the development of new grounded theory categories is demonstrated in Figure 5-1 *A Checklist for Representation of Citizen Control and Development of Categories of Citizen Control in Park Planning in Nunavut.* Once again, it is important to remember that the new grounded theory categories that are developed are indicators of high levels of citizen power in planning, and refer to the process of public participation as opposed to the process of park planning.

5.2.1 A Comparative Analysis of the Participatory Framework

To achieve high levels of citizen power in planning, the literature studied in this research recommends the use of a public participation framework that is flexible, creative, and holistic. Because the public involvement process in Nunavut has adapted to the context of working in the Arctic, the framework for public involvement is able to be flexible, creative, and holistic. The Nunavut participatory planning process becomes less structured

[19] For detail on how this comparative analysis was conducted, please read Chapter 3, Section 3.4 **Description of the Development of a Conceptual Theory.**

and linear by adapting to the context of working in the Arctic, namely, the requirements for more time and more openness to different personal values. In other words, the participation process is more grassroots because it has responded to the geography and the people of the Arctic. Flexibility of a participation process makes it a more successful process, as is described here by Beierle and Cayford in their case study analysis on public participation in environmental decision-making. They state,

> First, decision-makers must commit to some degree of flexibility and open-mindedness regarding the nature of the process and its outcomes. Participation shapes participants' understandings, attitudes, and expectations. Participation may want to refine problems, focus on different issues, or otherwise change the nature of questions that agencies ask. Measure of the responsiveness of the lead agency (which was related highly to success) captured how agencies responded to the requests (Beierle & Cayford, 2002, p. 64).

In keeping with the characteristic of Citizen Power, the framework is holistic because there are multiple points in the process where relationships can develop between practitioner and public. As well, there is a strong relationship with the process of the public participation and the products of public participation. In other words, the process of public involvement is a goal in itself. The Nunavut public participation planning framework successfully fulfills a number of recommendations by various planning practitioners and planning theorists. For instance, Susskind and Cruikshank (1987) have defined a new approach to joint problem solving that can overcome flaws in representative democracies. Their approach is ad hoc, meaning that participants can design the process of problem-solving to one that they prefer. Similarly, the Nunavut public participation process can be modified for the uniqueness of any particular situation. Taket and White (2000) concur that a process should maintain openness and flexibility so that practitioners can respond creatively to the characteristics of a particular moment. The Nunavut process appears to take the time that is needed, keeping with the recommendations of the First Nations Planning Model, which states that

"Community based planning requires time, patience, energy and commitment." (Palermo, 2000, p.4)

5.2.2 A Comparative Analysis of the Participatory Goals

In working towards community and individual skills development, public participation approaches can heighten the ability of citizens to have power. While these two goals are not explicitly part of any Nunavut participatory planning process, they are aspects of the overall Nunavut planning process and the specific public participation goals of community ownership and economic and tourism development. The Nunavut Parks public participation process encourages community and individual skills development by teaching and training community members in park planning, management, and operations. Parks and tourism developments have been, and remain, excellent sources for community development.

> Tourism is regarded locally as an activity that heightens understanding and appreciation of Inuit values and traditions rather than as a phenomenon that threatens those values. As well, tourism is considered beneficial in the provision of employment and business income. In many communities of the Northwest Territories, tourism facilities and services are owned by community cooperatives, thus helping to ensure that benefits generated by tourism remain within the communities (Seale, 1995, p. 239).

Specifically within the Nunavut Parks Division, it is through information exchange, consultations, and formal connections that community members become more familiar with park and tourism planning. For example, by hiring Inuit community members to assist in park planning field work, individuals learn skills on the job and through other non-formal teaching methods. The techniques of community and individuals skills development are neither formalized nor specified.

Figure 5-1 *A Checklist for Representation of Citizen Control and Development of Categories of Citizen Control in Park Planning in Nunavut* (Author)

16 Characteristics of citizen control	Characteristic represented in actual theory?	Comments	Recommendations	New Category
Participatory framework ❖ Use a framework that is flexible, creative, and holistic	Yes	Framework adapts to change and to the situation. It relates practitioner and public, process and product, and theory and practice.		Holistic Framework
Participatory Goals ❖ Community development as a public participation goal	Unknown	Are part of the goals, but is undetermined if they are explicit.	Make community development an explicit goal.	Community Building
❖ Individual skills development as a public participation goal	Unknown	Are part of the goals, but is undetermined if they are explicit.	Make individual skills development an explicit goal.	Community Building
Attributes of Participatory Planning ❖ Make sure that 'public' citizens reflect diversity	Unknown	Involves Inuit public; representatives from local, regional, and territorial levels; private and public sector; and Elders.	Determine if public that is involved is both inclusive and representative of the Nunavut population.	Diverse Public
❖ Have measures to create a high level of public involvement	Yes	Formal and informal connections allow for repeated public involvement and feedback of community members.		Active Public
❖ Create small working groups in which planning will be done	Yes	Includes tourism committees, Joint Planning and Management Committees, and informal, ad hoc groups.	Design new working groups to include non-Inuit and informal gatherings.	Public Groups
❖ Ensure transformational experiences are part of the process	No	May occur on personal basis, but process is not designed to encourage transformational experiences to occur.	Add deliberate methods of communication and activities. For example, practitioners to learn the language of the public.	Transformation-al Experiences
❖ Integrate different knowledge systems	Yes	Integration of Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit and Inuit values is high.		Transformation-al Experiences
❖ Decentralize resources and decision-making	Yes	Nunavut Tourism and Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division offer financial support to communities. Communities have power over park		Grassroots Process

16 Characteristics of citizen control	Characteristic represented in actual theory?	Comments	Recommendations	New Category
		related decisions and activities.		
❖ Work on a regional scale	Yes	Communities work with regional and territorial stakeholders with most decisions. Communities strive to become connected to an international tourism market.		Grassroots Process
Participatory Process ❖ Create ground rules	No	Not found as an initial step in park planning or public participation.	Add as an initial step to planning process and planning meetings.	Transformation-al Experiences
❖ Define the purpose of the planning process together	No	Not found as an initial step in park planning or public participation.	Add as an initial step to planning process and planning meetings.	Transformation-al Experiences
❖ Use creative activities	Unknown	Communications may be creatively suited to the situation. Alternative activities that engage the public not found in the planning process.	Add fun and informal exercises to meetings and processes. For example, have non-verbal games, warm up exercises, and closing exercises.	Transformation-al Experiences
❖ Cater the decision-making process to the situation	Yes	Communities have veto power over park related decision. JPMC's and tourism committees work with Nunavut Parks to make planning decisions.	Research the decision-making process in territorial park planning.	Grassroots Process
❖ Seek out institutional arrangements	Yes	Institutional arrangements include JPMC's that are networked to community, government, and other agencies.		Public Groups
❖ Document the process thoroughly	No	Not found as an explicit step in the planning process.	Make documentation an explicit step in park planning & widely accessible to public.	Grassroots Process

To achieve higher level of citizen power, however, it will be useful for planners to specify ways in which individuals can learn leadership and planning skills, including learning about the process of planning that include public participation. For instance, the First Nations Community Planning Model suggests that individuals can learn about planning when they are invited to become part of planning work teams (Palermo, 2000). The work teams, which are organized around specific groups or sectors, do much of the work throughout the planning process, but regularly change membership during different stages of planning. Certain members in the work teams can learn planning skills through a 'train the trainer' approach. For example, work team volunteers who have conducted interviews may be invited later to become team captains. The captains can receive formal training from park planners. By continually guiding and motivating the public, the entire planning process can be more enduring and meaningful (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000).

In addition to the current goals of community ownership and economic and tourism development, citizens may be able to achieve increased power in planning if two additional goals are made explicit. Community development and individual skills development are important goals to include in a participatory planning process, and should be deliberately sought during a public participation process. Activities for community and individuals skills development should include training in leadership and planning skills – essentially, training members of the public how to direct and administer a public participation process.

5.2.3 A Comparative Analysis of the Attributes of Participatory Planning

There are a total of seven attributes that were discovered in the literature review portion of this study that can help planners to ensure high levels of citizen power in a planning process. The seven attributes include *A Diverse Public, High Levels of Public Involvement,*

Small Working Groups, Transformational Experiences, Integration of Different Knowledge Systems, Decentralization of Resources and Decision-Making, and *Working on a Regional Scale.* These attributes are described here with reference to how the Nunavut Parks public involvement process does or does not fulfil the attributes.

To achieve citizen power in a planning process, the public should function in three ways; namely, the public should reflect *diversity*, there should be *high levels of public involvement,* and *small working groups* should be created in which planning can be done. Nunavut Parks and Tourism includes a myriad of voices, including those of Inuit and non-Inuit members of the public; representatives from local, regional, and territorial levels; as well as private sector representatives such as small business owners. The Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division already involves all of these members of the public through formal connections and informal meetings. Consultants have sometimes also acquired opinions about parks from out-of-Nunavut populations, such as southern-based tour operators, in their information collection stage of park planning. When working in communities, park planning professionals include a diverse public by consulting with Elders and youth who are permanent residents in the respective communities. It is unknown if non-permanent residents, which may include teachers or nurses who are based in a community for one or two years, are consulted in park planning process. It is also unknown if the public that is already involved in park planning includes and represents gender differences. As well, it is unknown if the planning public is representative of the 17% of the non-Inuit population (Nortext Multimedia, 1999). In regard to a diverse public, the Nunavut Parks Division may increase diversity amongst the involved public by taking measures to include non-permanent; non-Inuit residents; and both men and women in park planning. It would also be useful to research populations and representativeness of public in public participation processes of Nunavut.

The level of involvement of the public is currently extremely high in participatory park planning in Nunavut. At many points along the planning process different members of the public are consulted for their opinion, feedback, and approval of plans. Members of the public are involved in planning, management and implementation of plans. Often, steps in the planning process must be repeated and will require additional public involvement in doing so. For example, as parks are constantly being defined – and redefined – the public is repeatedly communicating with professionals to offer their opinions and feedback on what 'Mirnguiqsirviit' can mean for a particular community. As well, with the newly signed Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement, there are many stages in park planning that require review and approval of plans by a Community Joint Planning and Management Committee, Nunavut Joint Planning and Management Committee, and community Hamlet. The level of involvement from a community increases as the Community JPMC is struck, receives training from the territorial government, and meets regularly to discuss, review, and approve park planning activities.

JPMCs and Tourism Committees operate as small working groups, thereby fulfilling the third requirement of the *Function of the Public* in achieving Citizen Power. The small working groups – or planning communities – are networked to other groups such as schools, businesses, and non-governmental organizations for increased information exchange and learning. This is most often the case when park planning in Nunavut, as the JPMC is made up of representatives from local organizations and groups who are interested in parks, tourism, and Inuit culture and heritage (Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area & the Government of Nunavut, 2002). Informally, small working groups may become part of the public participation process when open houses or community meetings attract the repeated attendance, essentially creating an *ad hoc* planning community.

Four additional attributes that promote Citizen Power in a planning process are ensuring that *transformational experiences* are part of the process, integrating *different knowledge systems, decentralizing resources and decision-making,* and *working on a regional scale.* While having transformational experiences is an attribute that is not met, the remaining three attributes are all part of the public participation process in Nunavut.

The public participation process in the Nunavut Parks Division has proven to be transformational, whereas the experiences have not been designed as such. Transformational experiences may occur on an individual level for professionals and public; however, they are neither sought nor encouraged. While some individuals may be transformed through participation and communication, there must be a deliberate effort of employing creative methods of conversation, such as Friedmann's 'Life of Dialogue' (Friedmann, 1973). For example, this may include a more deliberate attempt at mutual conversation by encouraging professionals to learn the Inuktitut language[21]. Friedmann, a lead proponent of Transactive Planning, also advocates that planning can be radical through personal dialogue in small groups. He writes,

> Radical planners will have to get used to the idea that their business is not primarily to write reports for their hierarchical superiors but continuously to inform their comrades during the course of the action itself. It is primarily through interpersonal transactions, grounded in dialogue, that the mediations of radical practice occur (Friedmann, 1987, p. 403).

In other words, planners can be instruments of change, and bring about transformative practices, through meaningful dialogue. Transformational experiences can also occur through the experience of learning together. Learning together "involves sharing expertise, acquiring new information, and adopting a mind-set that more complete understanding is to

[21] Inuktitut is commonly used as a first language in all of Nunavut's communities.

be found by combining the perspectives of many, not accepting the conclusions of one." (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000, p. 132) In this type of experience, planners and public will continue to learn from each other until they have equal information, voice, respect, and decision-making power (Innes & Booher, 1999). Wondolleck and Yaffee also suggest that participants and practitioners can learn together by finding information together, inventing options together, and taking time to develop understandings of each other. To initiate a public participation process that contains transformational experiences, it is recommended that the process start by producing shared ground rules and engaging in warm up exercises that enable laughter, learning, and letting go[22]. Two way flows of communication are suggested by Wondolleck and Yaffee (2000), where "citizens learn about the plans of an agency or group, while the agency or group simultaneously learns about the interests and aspirations of the community." (p. 92).

In terms of integrating different knowledge systems, the Parks and Tourism Division integrates an Inuit knowledge system by supporting and encouraging Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit to become part of every park and tourism development. IQ is supported by acquiring information about an area, and by listening, learning, and dialoguing with Elders and other community members who have an understanding of an Inuit knowledge system.

As well, Citizen Power is enhanced by bringing resources and decisions to a community. In conjunction with Nunavut Tourism, the Government of Nunavut offers financial support to communities to expand and improve their tourism market. Decision-making of park planning is also decentralized as communities are given veto power over planning decisions, and are consulted at every step in the planning process. "An extensive

[22] A common warm up exercise is a go-around. Topics can include something good and new, something good that happened to them last week, one thing the person likes about their community (Taket and White 2000).

literature on environmental regulation argues that reliance on top-down, command-and-control regulation has resulted in inflexible and inefficient policies at the ground level and needs to yield to a more decentralized decision-making approach." (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 2000, p. 16) It is important for the Nunavut planning process to be committed to decentralization of resources and decisions by moving more decisions to participants, communities, and nongovernmental organizations, essentially flattening hierarchies.

Working regionally is another requirement of high levels of citizen control in planning. Communities in Nunavut work with regional and territorial stakeholders in making decisions over the park planning process. In this way, public involvement work across different cultural scales. Park developments work regionally, as communities strive to continually become more connected to a tourist market that is global in scale. The literature that was reviewed in this study also advocates using activities that present local, regional, and international perspectives. These types of activities are recommended to ensure high levels of citizen control in park planning in Nunavut.

5.2.4 A Comparative Analysis of the Participatory Process

Of the remaining set of Citizen Power characteristics, two are incorporated into the Nunavut public participation process, namely *Seeking out Institutional Arrangements* and *Catering the Decision-Making Process to the Situation.* Four characteristics are not explicitly part of the Nunavut park planning process, and can become deliberate steps of public involvement in order to increase community control of a planning process. The four Citizen Power characteristics that are not explicitly part of the Nunavut planning process include *Creating Ground Rules, Defining the Purpose of the Planning Process, Using Creative Activities,* and *Documenting the Process* thoroughly. All six of these characteristics are reviewed for how they achieve, or can be modified to achieve, citizen control over park planning.

Two characteristics of Citizen Power that are fully being met through the public involvement process in Nunavut are the method of *Decision-Making* and the creation of *Institutional Arrangements.* Communities have veto power over any park related decisions, and Joint Planning and Management Committees work with the Government of Nunavut and community Hamlets to arrive at planning decisions. This technique roughly follows the decision-making technique prescribed by Wolfe (1989), which advocates the creation of a separate decision-making group that includes both government and community members. This group, however, should refer back to community members rather than elected officials in order to be truly representative. It is unclear at this time exactly how decisions are made in the public participation and park planning processes, and how representative the decision-making process may be. By working with the Community and Nunavut Joint Planning and Management Committees, the public participation process incorporates an institutional arrangement that links participants, corporations, policy, and action into a planning system. This network creates a planning community that can increase citizen control over the planning process.

By *creating ground rules* before a public participation process begins, a tone can be set for the entire participatory process that is to follow. Ground rules are currently not part of the Nunavut participatory process, and may become part of the beginning stages of public participation or introduced to each meeting as a way of creating a space for public involvement where everyone feels comfortable talking and debating ideas. Even though it was not mentioned in either the interviews or the internal documents that were analyzed for meaning, the researcher is aware that each public participation meeting that gathers a large number of people in a community together begins with a prayer, most often spoken by an Elder from the community. This prayer is spoken in Inuktitut, includes well wishes for the

duration of the meeting, and can have the effect of setting a tone where the members of the public may feel more comfortable talking. It is suggested in this study that the prayer be accompanied by other activities that set an atmosphere of safety and comfort, such as creating ground rules to follow during the course of a meeting or participation process.

It is important, as well, for the Parks Division to *define the planning purpose* with the public that is to be involved in the public participation process. This step is not explicitly included in the current participatory planning process, and may become an additional step that involves the identification of an issue that exists within a community with regard to parks and tourism. Following the warm up exercises, participatory processes often start by discussing the planning issue and, together, finding a common purpose. This characteristic of Citizen Power commonly involves all stakeholders identifying and agreeing on a problem, and sometimes involves those stakeholders also agreeing to manage the resources in question together (Palermo, 2000).

Creative activities can also be increased to maximize the level of citizen power in the Nunavut park planning process. While mediums of communication are chosen to suit community needs (such as radio, newsletters, and personal communications), there is an absence of informal and fun exercises that engage communities members to become involved in planning. For example, Munro has found that drama can be a useful tool for information exchange, and that seeing dramatic performances helped community members to personalize issues, learn about those issues, and to later remember the messages about the issues (Munro, 1999). Other examples include warm up and closing exercises, such as those prescribed by Taket and White (see Figure 2-8 *Example of a Public Participation Process in Participatory Appraisal*). Again, creative activities, where activities are participant-centered while being fun, can facilitate experiences where there transformation occurs. Those

activities should strive to overcome differences in literacy, resources, age, ability, culture, and knowledge by having simple, hands-on, non-verbal activities in addition to more traditional planning activities.

Keeping a good record of *documentation*, as well as access to this documentation, are not explicit characteristics of the public participation process. However, in reviewing the park planning documents for the purposes of this study, it does appear that there is an exceptional amount of documentation on park planning. This documentation includes not only reports and newsletters but also photos, interviews, meeting minutes, plans, and drawings. These forms of documentation must, however, become easily accessed by the public for greater citizen control over the planning process. The First Nations Community Planning Model suggests creating a summary document and newsletter reports after each step in the planning process, and community displays after each major step in the process (Palermo, 2000). These documents must be distributed to the community, and displays or posters put up in highly recognizable locations. Finally, Susskind and Cruikshank recommend that for participants to take responsibility for engaging newcomers to the planning process, that minutes must be kept, or "some other form of 'group memory' that offers a clear picture of what has been accomplished." (Susskind & Cruikshank, 1987, p. 107-108)

It is worthwhile to note here that in the study of success of public participation in natural resource management, Beierle and Cayford have found different features of a public participation process can lead to more success (2002). They recommend a process that starts with a *flexible framework*, and then moves to consider specific and general *goals of the process.* Following this there should be consideration of *who will participate* and *how they should be engaged.* After deciding on different *methods of public participation* (such as surveys or advisory

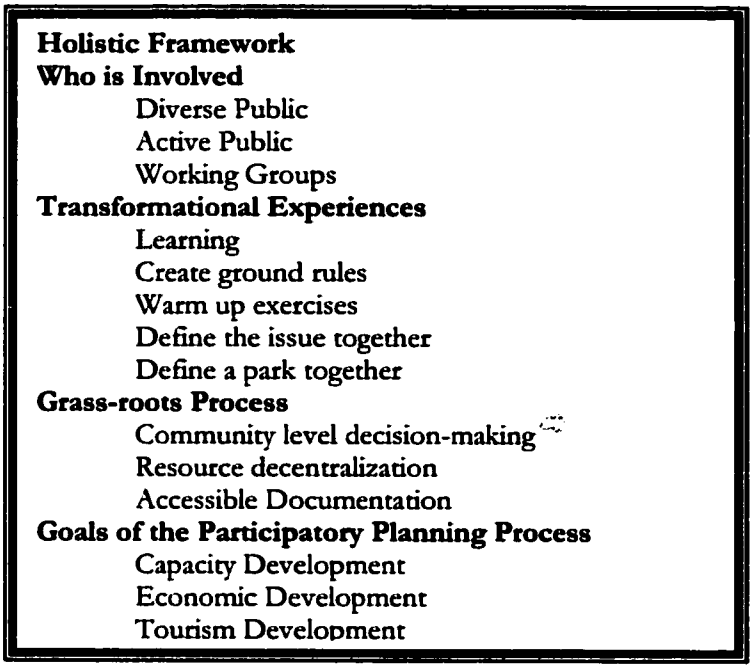
groups) an *evaluation* of the process ensues. Most of these features have been identified in the study of citizen control over park planning in Nunavut, and serve to confirm that the findings of this research are relevant to planning practitioners who are aiming for success in public participation processes.

5.3 Results - A Conceptual Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut

In order to develop a theory of citizen power in park planning in Nunavut, new grounded theory categories of public participation were identified. These categories emerged through the comparative analysis between the 16 Characteristics of Citizen Control and the 9 categories of public participation in Nunavut park planning (see Figure 5-1, Page 108, for a description of category development). The five categories of citizen power in park planning in Nunavut are *Holistic Framework, Who is Involved, Transformational Experiences, Grass-roots Process*, and *Goals of the Participatory Planning Process* (see Figure 5-2 *Grounded Theory Categories of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut*). A description of how these categories function is found in the following section.

This research study has resulted in a theory that finds that by incorporating five main components into the current public participation process, practitioners can assist citizens in gaining power in a park planning development in Nunavut, Canada. These five categories have been formatted into a visual model (see Figure 5-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut*).

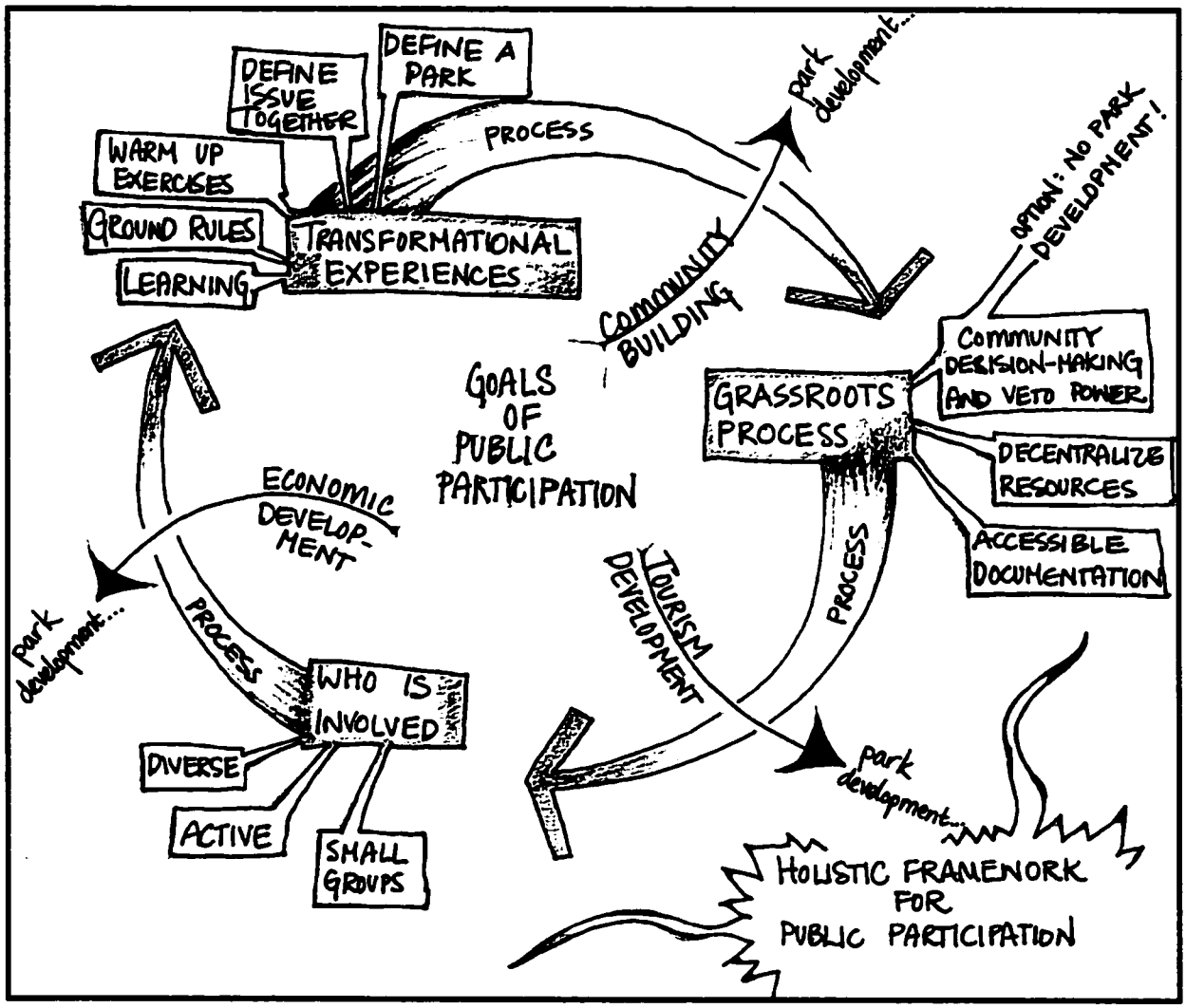
Figure 5-2 *Grounded Theory Categories of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut*



To encourage citizen power in planning, a public participation process should have a framework that is holistic. The framework serves as the overall design of, and prescription for, the public participation process. A framework for citizen power in Nunavut should be flexible so that it can adapt to changes that may occur and conditions that appear after the public participation process has been initiated. Flexibility and creativity will also allow the framework to adapt to the context of working in Nunavut. The current public participation framework in the Nunavut Parks Division is flexible, and this framework has been retained for the overall structure of the new conceptual model. A public participation framework can be holistic by blending theory and practice. Conceptual ideas about the phenomenon of participatory planning can be blended with activities and methods of public involvement. Similarly, there is a blending of process (activities, methods, sequences) and product (goals). The goal of community development, for example, can be addressed through supporting communities to develop their capacity, skills, and knowledge of park planning. On the other

hand, have an effective and successful process can also become a goal unto itself within the park planning agency.

Figure 5-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut* (Author)



The public that is involved in park planning should reflect as much diversity as possible, which may include local community members, regional representatives, Inuit residents, non-Inuit residents, permanent residents, temporary residents, youth, Elders, men and women. An active public denotes a public that is engaged, supported and connected in the public participation process. This can be achieved when planners introduce creative, fun,

and relaxed planning activities. Activities should be participant-centered and integrate knowledge from Inuit culture. For instance, Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit may contain knowledge about traditional natural resource planning. An active public also can be encouraged by training the public in leadership and park planning, management, and operations. This training may include, but will also facilitate, working within small planning groups. These groups should be both formal, such as in planning committees, and informal, such as when practitioners are meeting with specific groups to talk informally about a park development. Working in small groups enables a planning community to be formed in which relationships are built and power-sharing is exercised.

Transformational experiences can foster citizen power in planning. Transformations can occur when planning professionals and members of the public learn and share experiences together. Listening, learning, and striving for shared meaning can facilitate personal and group transformation, and can be introduced through ground rules, warm-up exercises, defining the planning issue, and defining the meaning of a park – Mirnguiqsirviit – together. Transformational experiences should occur throughout the entire public participation process.

By making the participatory planning process suit the situation, the public participation framework becomes less abstract and top-down, and more grass-roots. A grass-roots process is facilitated specifically through three functions - decision-making, resources, and public participation documentation. These three functions should also be able to be accessed by a community that wishes to have power in a planning process. Decision-making can be accessed by a community if the process is suited to the situation, the community has veto power, and as many decisions are made at the community level as possible. Communities should be able to access financial resources that will help them to become

more involved in the public participation process. As well, communities should be able to access all of the information and documentation about public participation and park planning in a timely fashion. Documentation that is creative, understandable, and not in planner jargon should be widely available within communities.

The final category of the Citizen Power theory points to a process of public participation that can be called developmental. This developmental process works towards developing the community, individual, economy, and tourism. By facilitating the development of community and individual skills, planning professionals help a community to be able to control and manage park development, and to have ownership over a park. By supporting community and individual skills development, planning professionals develop the economy and the tourism industry in a community. In this sense, development can be seen as both a process and a product of public participation. Through development of community, individuals, economy, and tourism, citizens can also have power over the development of parks.

The theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut is an example of what could take place in a public participation process for territorial park planning. It must be understood, however, that the theory must be supported by three main premises. The first premise of the theory is that it is important that planners think critically about public participation and the benefits of achieving high levels of citizen power in park planning in Nunavut. Theory and practice must be blended to enhance the learning process, and to be able to think beyond boundaries. Additionally, the process of public participation must be personal. A process that is personal is evidenced in and supported by actions in the planning process, such as learning between participants, sharing of ideas and information, being transformed by the process, working in small groups where relationships are sought, and

having the process be as grassroots as possible. The final premise of this theory is that the process of public participation is a goal unto itself, and that planners must continually reflect on the public participation process.

5.4 Thesis Conclusions

This thesis research concludes that the context of working in Nunavut influences the public participation process and accounts for the behaviors of the people who are involved in park planning in Nunavut. Factors such as a unique relationship that the Inuit have with the land and working within a land claimed area have influenced an ad hoc process to public involvement in Nunavut. Within Nunavut, where Inuit have worked to protect their relationship with the land through the legislations of the land claim, there is a strong and seemingly inseparable relationship between culture and nature. Whereas in many other situations where park planning occurs, nature and culture are forces that are diametrically opposed to one another. This is not the case in the Arctic geographies of Nunavut. The territorial parks in Nunavut reflect a compatible relationship between culture and nature, where parks are explicitly created to protect, showcase, and provide a window into Inuit culture. In territorial parks of Nunavut, it is the Inuit culture that provides a point of entry into the Arctic landscape. This being the case, the model that has been developed in this study serves as a model of participatory planning within a wholistic context, where the natural landscape and the Arctic culture are always joined together. This context has influenced the resultant theory in this study, and work to support a public participation process that (1) incorporates theory about public participation, (2) is personal, and (3) has the process as a planning goal. This study offers a direction for park planning in which nature and culture are uniquely compatible and related to one another, and in which public participation is a key cultural process.

In the beginning of this thesis it was pointed out that there has been an increase in public participation in the planning practice due to the insistence of the public to have their opinions and interests represented. Within the context of a Canadian pluralist society, and specifically within the publicly governed land claim area of Nunavut, it is vital that public interests are represented to uphold social equality. Interest groups in Nunavut communities need to have power over and control of the outcomes of the park planning process. Parks have been noted to be carriers of political messages and symbols of democracy (Cranz, 1982). Parks are also, however, locations where democratic rights can be practiced and maintained. This being so, park planners can use the theory developed in this study to symbolically, and literally, point to an example of how citizens can have more control over a participatory park planning process in Nunavut.

The theory (and accompanying model) that has been discovered in this study can be applied to the overall park planning process of the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division (see Figure 5-4 *Implications of the Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning Practice*). The simplified version of the park planning process is expanded through its relationship to the public involvement process, where there are public participation techniques occurring at specific points in the planning process as well as throughout the entire planning process. The five main features of the theory necessary to ensure citizen power in park planning are included when the theory is placed within the park planning process. These features start with a *Holistic Framework*, where public participation is non-linear and adaptable to the planning process. The three main features of *Who Is Involved, Transformational Experiences,* and a *Grassroots Process* contain elements of public participation that can be added to any stage in the park planning process. For example, all meetings and stages in park planning where the public is involved should work towards training the public in leadership and planning

techniques, thus moving closer to ensuring individuals and skills development. The goals of the public participation process are distinguished from the park planning goals, where the former include *Building Community, Tourism Development,* and *Economic Development.* By following the specific processes of the public involvement process that is laid out in this chapter, the Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division can work towards the goals of public involvement as well as the overall planning goal of park development.

5.5 Implications for Landscape Architecture and Planning

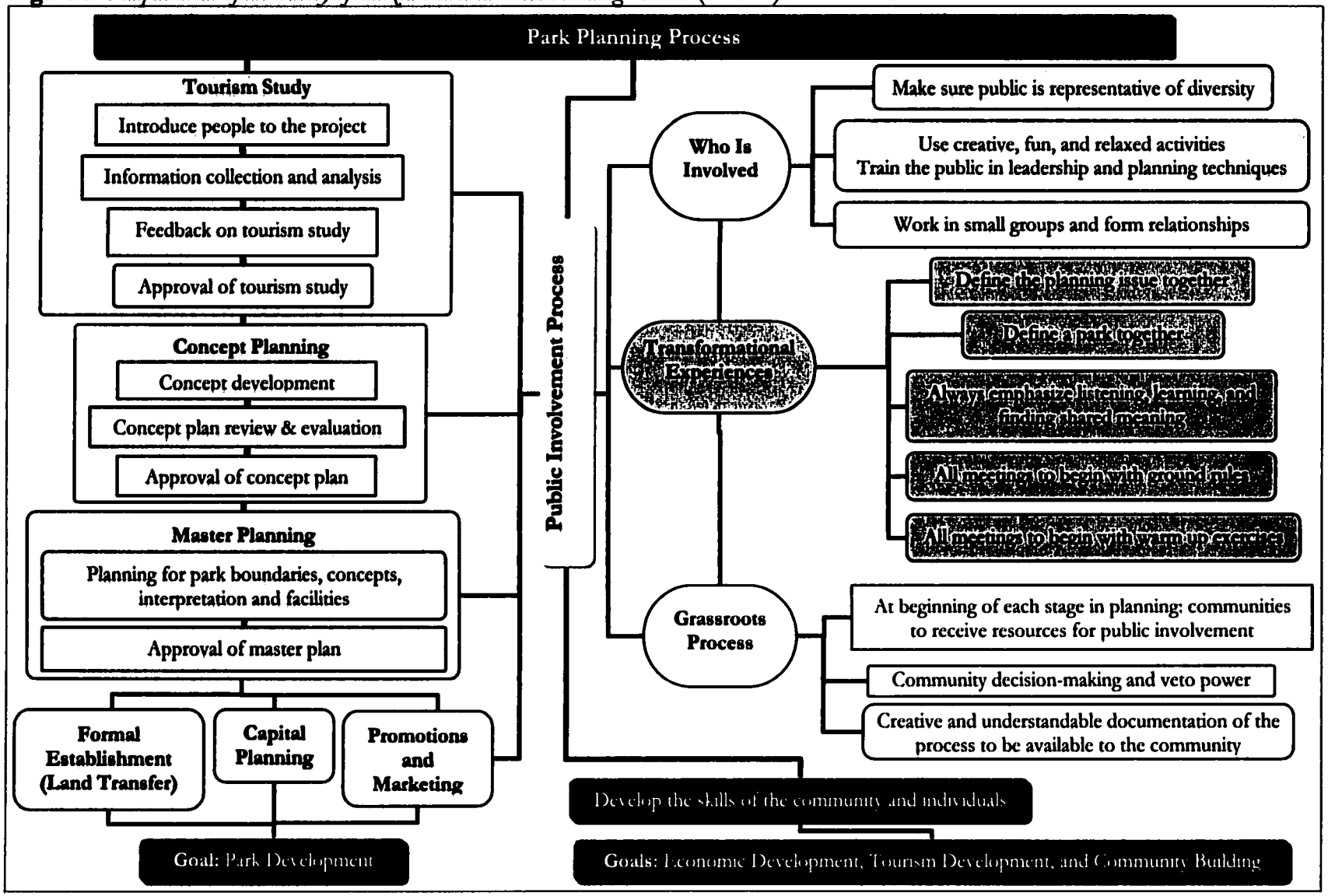
A number of things can be gleaned from this thesis study and applied to the practices of landscape architecture and planning. The findings of the study indicate that it is important that citizens can have power over natural resource planning, namely because,

> Public participation is more than just a theoretically appealing component of democracy; public participation helps agencies and the public meet concrete challenges that face the modern environmental management system (Beierle & Cayford, 2002, p. 75).

Beierle and Cayford (2002) have found that the degree of public control over a public participation process is important to the success of a process. This being so, planners can take certain measures to ensure a high level of citizen control over planning processes. The conceptual theory that has been developed in this study suggests ways that planners in Nunavut can enable citizens to control a planning process.

As well, the success of a public participation process can be determined by using two measures. The goals of the public participation process can be indicators of success, where the goals of community building, tourism development, and economic development are monitored for improvement. On the other than, Beierle and Cayford (2002) have recommended that success can be determined by measuring the flexibility of a framework,

Figure 5-4 *Implications of the Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning Practice* (Author)



the wide range of participants who are involved in a process, the level of public involvement, and the ways in which members of the public are involved. Evaluations are recommended to measure these components of a participatory planning process (Beierle & Cayford, 2002).

This study implies that, in Nunavut, planners can transform society through their public participation process. In this light, the work of park planners can be thought of as a catalyst for increased and possibly more successful public government[22]. Planners and landscape architects can also work towards high levels of citizen power in areas with similar characteristics as the territory of Nunavut. This study implies that there may be a method to public participation in park planning in primarily aboriginal geographies, or areas that are settled under land claims.

Planners and landscape architects can look to the model of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut to understand that overcoming boundaries and learning are key features in public participation. This research also implies that, overall, planning practices must include learning, understanding, and critiquing of the process. It is also implied in this research that planners and landscape architects must create learning environments that are personal and that enable all participants to challenge the status quo. Finally, public participation must be accompanied by a framework in which the process is a goal. Planners must be comfortable working with a public participation process that moves slowly, working incrementally towards training and ensuring that citizens are in control of planning.

[22] Nunavut has a public government, where Inuit are employed in public service in proportion to their population (85%); Inuit and Nunavut government representatives are appointed to certain public institutions; there are no territorial political parties but rather a Legislative Assembly that works on consensus politics and operates in Inuktitut; and the government is decentralized (Nortext Multimedia Incorporated and Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated. 1999).

Landscape architects, in particular, may be able to offer much to the realm of public participation and to ensuring high levels of citizen power in planning. While landscape architects are trained to be facilitators of public interest, they are also trained in how to communicate with clients. Many landscape architecture students are also trained in specific practices of public participation. Landscape architects, as well, are knowledgeable of the importance and function of the landscape, two essential features of park planning[23]. Landscape architects have the skills, knowledge, and abilities that are necessary to bring about high levels of citizen power in park and natural resource planning.

5.6 Suggestions for Future Research

Future research is suggested in order to validate this research. Three measures for validation of emergent theory are if the theory fits a set of data perfectly, if the theory can be modified with the addition of new data, and if the theory works to help people manage their situation better (Glaser, 1992). It would be useful at this time to test the two theories against their respective data sets. The actual theory developed in this study has already been modified, but further modification to the conceptual theory may be conducted. As well, additional validation would be useful by conferring with Nunavut Parks and Tourism to determine the usefulness of the theories. Grounded theory suggests testing theory by asking those for whom the theory is relevant if the theory 'fits their situation'. A verbal explanation would be helpful at this time to see if the theory may fit the situation of park planning in Nunavut; however, an experimental testing of the theory would be an additional verification of the applicability of the developed theory. These validations would greatly enhance this

[23] At the time when the case study data was collected three of the Parks and Tourism Division staff were trained as landscape architects. The Parks and Tourism Division has a total of six employees who are engaged in park planning.

research, but are not within the scope of the study at this time. A critical look at this research study must also include a question – and accompanying research hypothesis – about the ability of a non-Inuit researcher to conduct valid and reliable study in an Inuit context.

Another area of future research includes more detailed study into various aspects of the case of public participation in Nunavut. For example, a more detailed study into the decision-making process in territorial park planning can be useful to the overall study area of decision-making in natural resource management. Additionally, it would be useful to study techniques of training and communication of the public within the context of working in Nunavut. This knowledge may further enable experiences of personal change, exchange between participants, learning how to overcome cultural and professional barriers within the planning process. Study into the representativeness of the public that is involved in Nunavut park planning has already been recommended, and should include discovery of exactly what populations are involved in park planning processes.

Similarly, research into different literature would provide a useful addition to this study. For example, literature about tourism planning, cultural resource management, or citizen power as it is prescribed for citizens (and not planners) would enhance the field of citizen power in participatory planning practice.

Because context is noted to be a major influence in the success of public participation (Beierle & Cayford, 2002), further research may also include study of other contexts of park planning. For instance, how do organizations differ when they are situated in different locations and under different jurisdictions? Are citizens less or more able to control planning processes in different political or economic climates? A historical and/or wider geographical study of park development may be useful to answer questions such as these.

As well, because case studies are not as effective on new projects (Francis, 2001) it will be useful to study the Nunavut Parks Division after they have developed the park program that will guide the park planning process, or after the Division has been in operation for a number of years[24].

5.7 Research summary

The objectives of this research study were to:

- Determine a theory for the current process of public involvement in territorial park planning in Nunavut,
- Demonstrate this theory through a conceptual model,
- Contrast Nunavut participatory planning practice with theoretical participatory planning processes, and
- Define a conceptual theory that shows the contributions of theoretical participatory planning process to Nunavut participatory planning practice,
- Demonstrate this conceptual theory through a conceptual model.

Using grounded theory methods of data collection and analysis, a process of public involvement in Nunavut park planning was determined. The process has been demonstrated with the use of a conceptual model (see Figure 4-3 A *Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Public Participation in Park Planning in Nunavut*) and can be described as a merging of public involvement methods with a contextual setting to achieve a holistic balance between process and product. By making the goals and the process of park planning indistinguishable from one another, the Government of Nunavut's public involvement process is converted into a process that is less top-down, and more grass-roots. A review of relevant literature revealed that there are 16 characteristics that can enable citizen control over a planning process. Using a continued grounded theory analysis, the results of this literature review were

[24] Many parks in Nunavut currently have park reserve status. Park reserves require additional legislation before they are fully designated as territorial parks.

compared against the Nunavut participatory park planning theory, with the outcome of a conceptual theory (see Figure 5-3 *A Conceptual Model to Demonstrate a Theory of Citizen Power in Park Planning in Nunavut*) of Citizen Power in Nunavut Park Planning. The model hypothesizes that citizens can have power in and influence over the park planning if planning agencies use a holistic public participation framework, actively involve a diverse public to become part of small working groups, support transformational experiences, incorporate grass-roots methods, and ensure capacity development in communities. This theory may provide to be of utmost use in protecting and ensuring democratic planning and management of parks and other natural resources. However, it is also hypothesized that the components of this theory may only be truly successful in offering citizen planning power if planners consciously strive towards planning processes that are personal, where the process of public involvement becomes a planning goal.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Agreement between the Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area and Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Canada. (1993). Published under the joint authority of the Tungavik and the Honourable Tom Siddon, P.C., M.P., Minister of Indian Affairs and Northern Development Ottawa.

Alexander, Ernest R. (1992). *Approaches to Planning: Introducing Current Planning Theories, Concepts and Issues.* (2nd Ed.). Philadelphia: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers.

Anderson, O. A. & Boothroyd, P. (1984). *Patterns, Progress and Development.* (UBC Planning Papers Discussion Papers, #4). Vancouver, British Columbia: University of British Columbia School of Community and Regional Planning.

Arnstein, Sherry. R. (1969). A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *AIP Journal.* Vol. : 216-225. Maryland: American Institute of Planners.

Aubrey, D. (1999). Principles for Successful Community Planning in Northern Native Canadian Communities. *Plan Canada.* Vol. 39, No.3: 12-15. Toronto: Canadian Institute of Planners.

Babbie, E. (1989). *The Practice of Social Research.* (5th Ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Ball, J. (1998). *Intercultural Communication: It's Role in the Canadian Planning Profession.* Master's Thesis. Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph.

Beckley, T. M. (1998). Moving Toward Consensus-Based Forest Management: A Comparison of Industrial, Co-Managed, Community and Small Private Forests in Canada. *The Forestry Chronicle.* Vol. 74, No. 5: 763-744. Sainte-Anne-de-Bellevue, Quebec: Canadian Institute of Forestry.

Berg, L., Fenge, T. & Dearden, P. (1993). The Role of Aboriginal Peoples in National Park Designation, Planning, and Management in Canada. In P. Dearden & R. Rollins (Eds.), *Parks and Protected Areas in Canada.* (pp.225-255). Ontario: Oxford University Press.

Berkes, F. (1994). Co-management: Bridging the Two Solitudes. *Northern Perspectives.* Vol. 22, No. 2-3: 18-20. Ottawa: Canadian Arctic Resources Committee.

Berkes, F., George, P. & Preston, R. (1991). Co-management: The Evaluation in Theory and Practice of the Joint Administration of Living Resources. *Alternatives.* Vol. 18, No. 2: 12-18. Peterborough, Ontario: Trent University.

Beierle, T. C. & Cayford, J. (2002). *Democracy in Practice: Public Participation in Environmental Decisions.* Washington, D.C.: Resources for the Future.

Boothroyd, P. (1986). Enhancing Local Planning Skills for Native Self-Reliance: The UBC Experience. *The Canadian Journal of Native Studies.* Vol. 6, No. 1: 13-42. Brandon, MB: The Canadian Indian/Native Studies Association.

Born, S. M. & Sonzogni, W. C. (1995). Integrated Environmental Management: Strengthening the Conceptualization. *Environmental Management.* Vol. 19, No. 2: 167-181. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Boschken, H. L. (1982). *Land Use Conflicts: Organizational Design and Resource Management.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Brandon, K. E. & Wells, M. (1992). Planning for People and Parks: Design Dilemmas. *World Development.* Vol. 20, No. 4: 557-570. Great Britain: Pergamon Press.

Briggs, P. D. (1999). *Community Development with Indigenous Communities: Facilitating the Creation of Appropriate Environments.* Master's Thesis. Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph.

Caldwell, W., Toombs, M., Knight, R. & Turvey, J. (2000). Module #9 Dealing with the Public, Media, and Public Consultation. *Manual for Planners and Municipal Politicians.* Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph.

Chambers, R. (1992). *Rural Appraisal: Rapid, Relaxed and Participatory.* (Institute of Development Studies; Discussion Paper 311). Brighton, England: University of Sussex.

Checkoway, Barry. (1986). Building Citizen Support for Planning at the Community Level. In M. J. Dluhy & K. Chen (Eds.), *Interdisciplinary Planning: A Perspective for the Future.* (pp. 136-151). New Brunswick: Centre for Urban Policy Research.

Cortner, Hanna J. & Shannon, Margaret A. (1993). Embedding Public Participation in its Political Context. *Journal of Forestry.* July Issue: 14-16. Washington: Society of American Foresters.

Coutsoukis, Photius. 1999-2002. *Map of Nunavut.* www.geographic.org/maps/nunavut.html, used with permission.

Cranz, Galen. (1982). *The Politics of Park Design: A History of Urban Parks in America.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Daniels, S.E. & Walker, G.B. (1996). Collaborative Learning: Improving Public Deliberation in Ecosystem-Based Management. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review.* Vol. 16: 71-102. New York: Plenum.

Dasmann, Raymond F. (1982). The Relationship between Protected Areas and Indigenous Peoples. In J. A. McNeely & K. R. Miller (Eds.), *National Parks, Conservation, and Development: The Role of Protected Areas in Sustaining Society.* (pp. 667-671). Washington, D.C: Smithsonian Institution Press.

Deirmenjian, Shahan & Jones, Maggie. (1983). *Planning for Communities in the North: A Preliminary Evaluation of an Innovative Approach in the Northwest Territories.* (Occasional Paper No.10). Toronto: Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Ryerson Polytechnical Institute.

Department of Sustainable Development. (2001a). *Request for Proposals for the Feasibility Study for Attraction Development for Clyde River, Nunavut.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

---. (2001b). *The Repulse Bay (Naujaat) Cabinet Retreat on the Potential of the Nunavut Economy.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Diemer, Joel A. & Alvarez, Rossana C. (1995). Sustainable Community – Sustainable Forestry: A Participatory Model. *Journal of Forestry.* November Issue: 10-14. Washington: Society of American Foresters.

Duffy, D.M., Roseland, M., & Gunton, T.I. (1996). A Preliminary Assessment of Shared Decision-Making in Land Use and Natural Resource Management. *Environments (Special Issue: Shared Decision-Making and Natural Resource Planning: Canadian Insights).* Vol. 23, No. 2: 1-15. Waterloo, Ontario: Division of Environmental Studies, University of Waterloo.

Eidsvik, Harold K. (1982). Future Directions for the Nearctic Realm. In J. A. McNeely & K. R. Miller (Eds.), *National Parks, Conservation, and Development: The Role of Protected Areas in Sustaining Society.* (pp. 546-549). Washington, D.C: Smithsonian Institution Press.

Forester, John. (1989). *Planning in the Face of Power.* Berkeley, California: University of California Press.

Forester, John. (1998). Rationality, Dialogue and Learning: What Community and Environmental Mediators Can Teach Us about the Practice of Civil Society. In M. Douglass & J. Friedman (Eds.), *Cities for Citizens: Planning and the Rise of Civil Society in a Global Age.* (pp. 213-225). Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons.

---. (1989). *Planning in the Face of Power.* Berkeley, California: University of California Press.

Francis, Mark. (2001). A Case Study Method for Landscape Architecture. *Landscape Journal.* Vol. 20, No. 1-01: 15-29. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press.

Friedmann, John. (1973). *Retracking America: A Theory of Transactive Planning.* Garden City, New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday.

Friedmann, John. (1987). *Planning in the Public Domain: From Knowledge to Action.* Princeton: Princeton University Press.

---. (1998). The New Political Economy of Planning: The Rise of Civil Society. In M. Douglass & J. Friedman (Eds.), *Cities for Citizens: Planning and the Rise of Civil Society in a Global Age.* (pp. 19-38). Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons.

Glaser, Barney G. (1992). *Emergence vs. Forcing; Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis.* Mill Valley, California: Sociology Press.

Glaser, B.G. & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory; Strategies for Qualitative Research.* Chicago: Aldine.

Gold, Seymour. M. (1980). *Recreation Planning and Design.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Greening, Hillarie. (1999). *Co-Management in Patuanak, Saskatchewan: A Case Study.* Master's Thesis. Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph.

Greening, Hillarie & Gonzales, Neida. (1999). From Theory to Practice: Land Use Planning in the Gwich'in Settlement Area. *Plan Canada.* Vol.39, No.3: 16-18. Toronto: Canadian Institute of Planners.

Gunn, Clare. (1988). Small Town and Rural Tourism Planning. In F. W. Dykeman (Ed.), *Integrated Rural Planning and Development.* (pp. 237-251). Sackville, New Brunswick: Mount Allison University.

Hueser, Nicolas G. (1999). *Grounded Theory Research: Not for the Novice – Grounded Theory as a Research Methodology.* www.users.qwest.net/~nhueser/grounded.html

Innes, Judith E. (1998). Information in Communicative Planning. *Journal of the American Planning Association.* Vol. 64, No.1: 52-63. Chicago, Illinois: American Planning Association.

Innes, Judith E. & Booher, David E. (1999). Consensus Building and Complex Adaptive Systems: A Framework for Evaluating Collaborative Planning. *Journal of the American Planning Association.* Vol. 65, No. 4: 412-423. Chicago, Illinois: American Planning Association.

Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area, represented by Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated, Kitikmeot Inuit Association, Kivalliq Inuit Association and Qikiqtani Inuit Association; and the Government of Nunavut, represented by the Minister of Sustainable Development. (2002). *Umbrella Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement for Territorial Parks in the Nunavut Settlement Area.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Kellert, S. R., Mehta, J. N., Ebbin, S. A., & Lichtenfeld, L. L. (2000). Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality. *Society and Natural Resources.* Vol. 13: 705-715. New York: Taylor & Francis.

Knight, Ruth & Caldwell, Wayne. (1998). Representativeness and Openness: A model for Public Participation. *Plan Canada.* Vol. 39, No.5: 28-29. Toronto: Canadian Institute of Planners.

Kofinas, Gary P. & Griggs, Julian R. (1996). Collaboration and the BC Round Table on the Environment and the Economy: An Analysis of a 'Better Way' of Deciding.

Environments. Vol. 23, No. 2: 17-38. Waterloo, Ontario: Division of Environmental Studies, University of Waterloo.

Lang, Reg. (1986). Achieving Integration in Resource Planning. In R. Lang (Ed.), *Integrated Approaches to Resource Planning and Management.* (pp. 27-50). Calgary, Alberta: University of Calgary Press, The Banff Centre for Continuing Education.

Legislative Assembly of Nunavut. (2001). Committee Report 014-1(5): Community Consultation on the Future of Tourism in Nunavut. Item 11: Reports of Special and Standing Committees. *Nunavut Hansard.* (Unedited Transcript). Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Longstaff, Bill. (2001). *Democracy Undone: The Practice and the Promise of Self-Governance in Canada.* Calgary: Ballot Publishing.

New Economics Foundation. (1998). *Participation Works! 21 Techniques of Community Participation for the 21st Century.* London: New Economics Foundation.

Machlis, Gary & Soukup, Michael. (1997). Usable Knowledge for National Park and Protected Area Management: A Social Science Perspective. In J. G. Nelson & R. Serafin (Eds.), *National Parks and Protected Areas: Keystones to Conservation and Sustainable Development.* (pp. 161-174). Berlin: Springer.

Margerum, Richard D. (1997). Integrated Approaches to Environmental Planning and Management. *Journal of Planning Literature.* Vol. 11, No. 4: 459-475. Columbus, Ohio: Department of City and Regional Planning, Ohio State University.

---. (1999). Implementing Integrated Planning and Management. *Australian Planner.* Vol. 36, No. 3: 155-161. Annandale, New South Wales: Royal Australian Planning Institute.

McNamee, Kevin. (1999) Human and Social Aspects of Protected Area Networks. In N. Pollock-Ellwand, K. Van Osch, & J. G. Nelson (Eds.), *Parks and Protected Areas Research in Ontario: Proceedings of the Parks Research Forum of Ontario Annual Meeting April 22 and 23, 1999 - Guelph, Ontario.* (pp. 49-56). Waterloo: Parks Research Forum of Ontario.

Mitchell, Bruce. (1986). The Evolution of Integrated Resource Management. In R. Lang (Ed.), *Integrated Approaches to Resource Planning and Management.* (pp. 13-26). Calgary, Alberta: University of Calgary Press, The Banff Centre for Continuing Education.

Munro, Jean. (1999). Drama as Communication in Planning. In W. Caldwell (Ed.), *Issues and Responses: Land Use Planning in Eastern and Southern Africa.* (pp. 41-61). Harare, Zimbabwe: Weaver Press.

Natural Resources Canada. (2001). *Political Divisions (Map of Canada). From the Atlas of Canada website. http://atlas.gc.ca/site/english/maps/reference/national/can_political_e*

Nelson, J.G. & Serafin, Rafal. (1995). Post Hoc Assessment and Environmental Planning, Management and Decision-Making. *Environments.* Vol. 23, No. 1: 3-9. Waterloo, Ontario: Division of Environmental Studies, University of Waterloo.

Nelson, Gordon; Serafin, Rafal; Skibicki, Andrew; & Lawrence, Patrick. (1997). Land Use and Decision-Making for National Parks and Protected Areas. In J. G. Nelson & R. Serafin (Eds.), *National Parks and Protected Areas: Keystones to Conservation and Sustainable Development.* (pp. 43-64). Berlin: Springer.

Neuman, William L. (1994). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Noble, Bram F. (2000). Institutional Criteria for Co-Management. *Marine Policy.* Vol.24: 69-77. Newfoundland: Department of Geography, Memorial University of Newfoundland.

Nortext Multimedia Incorporated and Nunavut Tunngavik Incorporated. 1999. *Nunavut'99: Changing the Map of Canada.* Internet website: http://www.nunavut.com/nunavut99/english/change.html.

Notzke, Claudia. (1995). A New Perspective in Aboriginal Natural Resource Management: Co-Management. *Geoforum.* Vol. 26, No. 2: 187-209. Great Britain: Elseveir Science.

Nunavut Bureau of Statistics. (1999). *1999 Nunavut Community Labour Force Survey; Overall Results and Basic Tables.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut. (1998). *Framework for a Nunavut Parks and Conservation Areas Program Plan.* (Workplan Draft). Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

---. (Date Unknown). *What is a Park?* (Brochure). Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

---. (2002). *On the Land* (Maps of Nunavut Territorial Parks). www.nunavutparks.com. Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Nunavut Tourism and the Government of Nunavut. (March/April 2001). *The Time is Right; a Vision and Strategy for Tourism Development in Nunavut.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Palermo, Frank. (2000). *First Nations Community Planning Model.* (1st Ed.). Cities and Environment Unit and Wagmatcook First Nation: Halifax: Nova Scotia.

Palys, Ted. (1997). *Research Decisions: Quantitative and Qualitative Perspectives.* (2nd Ed.). Toronto: Harcourt Canada.

Parks and Visitor Services Division. (1994). *A Park System Plan for the Northwest Territories.* (Draft One). Northwest Territories: Department of Economic Development and Tourism.

---. (1996). *Parks Program Guidelines.* Northwest Territories: Department of Economic Development and Tourism.

Peepre, Juri & Dearden, Juri. (2002). The Role of Aboriginal Peoples. In P. Dearden & R. Rollins (Eds.), *Parks and Protected Areas in Canada: Planning and Management.* (2nd Ed.). (pp. 323-353). Don Mills, Ontario: Oxford University Press.

Pinkerton, E. (1996). The Contribution of Watershed-Based Multi-Party Co-Management Agreements to Dispute Resolution: The Skeena Watershed Committee. *Environments.* Vol. 23, No. 2: 51-68. Waterloo, Ontario: Division of Environmental Studies, University of Waterloo.

Pitsulak, Geela. (Date Unknown). *Katannilik Park Joint Minister's Presentation.* Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut.

Pollock-Ellwand, Nancy. (1997). *Planning for the Landscape Idea.* Waterloo: University of Waterloo Thesis.

Pollock-Ellwand, Nancy & Nelson, Gordon. (1999). Land Use History, Landscape Change and the Role of Parks and Protected Areas. In N. Pollock-Ellwand, K. Van Osch, & J. G. Nelson (Eds.), *Parks and Protected Areas Research in Ontario: Proceedings of the Parks Research Forum of Ontario Annual Meeting April 22 and 23, 1999 - Guelph, Ontario.* (pp. 11-22). Waterloo: Parks Research Forum of Ontario.

PRP Parks: Research and Planning Incorporated. (Date Unknown). *Historic Parks and Sites System Plan: Baffin Region.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Author.

Rees, William. (1984). *Politics, Power and Northern Land Use Planning: UBC Planning Papers #5.* Vancouver, British Columbia: University of British Columbia School of Community and Regional Planning.

Rifkin, Jeremy. (1991). *Biosphere Politics; A New Consciousness for a New Century.* New York: Crown Publishers.

R.R.L Recreation Resources Ltd. (2002a). *Hall Beach Feasibility Study for Attraction Development Newsletter #1.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut.

---. (2002b). *Feasibility Study for Hall Beach.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut.

Salwasser, Hal. (1999). Ecosystem Management: A New Perspective for National Forests and Grasslands. In J. Aley, W. R. Burch, B. Conover, & D. Field (Eds.), Ecosystem *Management: Adaptive Strategies for Natural Resources Organizations in the 21st Century.* (pp. 85-96). Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Taylor and Francis.

Saskatchewan Indian Federated College. (1996). *Co-Managing Natural Resources with First Nations: Guidelines to Reaching Agreements and Making Them Work.* Saskatchewan: Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development.

Seale, Ronald. G. (1995). Aboriginal Societies, Tourism, and Conservation: The Case of Canada's Northwest Territories. In J. A. McNeely (Ed.), *Expanding Partnerships in Conservation.* (pp. 234-242). Washington, D.C: Island Press.

Selin, Steve & Chavez, Deborah. (1995). Developing a Collaborative Model for Environmental Planning and Management. *Environmental Management.* Vol. 19, No. 2: 189-195. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Silberstein, Jane & Maser, Chris. (2000). *Land Use Planning for Sustainable Development.* Boca Raton: Lewis Publishers.

Simon, J.C.; Forster, R.R.; Alcose, T.; Brabec, E.A.; & Ndubisi, F. (1984). *A Culturally Sensitive Approach to Planning and Design with Native Canadians.* Location Unknown: Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation.

Slocombe, D. Scott. (1993). Environmental Planning, Ecosystem Science, and Ecosystem Approaches for Integrating Environment and Development. *Environmental Management.* Vol. 17, No. 3: 289-303. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Slocombe, D. Scott & Dearden, Philip. (2002). Protected Areas and Ecosystem-Based Management. In P. Dearden & R. Rollins (Eds.), *Parks and Protected Areas in Canada: Planning and Management.* (Second Edition). (pp. 295-322). Don Mills, Ontario: Oxford University Press.

Standing Committee on Community Empowerment and Sustainable Development. (2001). *From Potential to Payoff: Report on Community Consultation on the Future of Tourism in Nunavut.* (Fifth Session, First Legislative Assembly). Iqaluit, Nunavut: Legislative Assembly of Nunavut.

Stevenson, Marc & Mike, Meeka. 2001. *Revitalizing the Role of Kekerten Historic Park in Pangnirtung's Socioeconomy.* Iqaluit, Nunavut: Nunavut Parks and Tourism Division, Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut.

Strauss, Anselm & Corbin, Juliet. (1998). Basics *of Qualitative Research; Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory.* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Study Transcripts. (2002). Transcripts from Interviews Conducted for the purposes of this research study.

Subcommittee on Aboriginal Economic Development in Relation to Northern National Parks. (2001). *Northern Parks – A New Way.* Ottawa, Ontario: The Senate of Canada.

Susskind, Lawrence & Cruikshank, Jeffrey. (1987). *Breaking the Impasse: Consensual Approaches to Resolving Public Disputes.* New York: Basic Books.

Swen, Theodore R. & Cahn, Robert. (1982). The Politics of Parks in Alaska: Innovative Planning and Management Approaches for New Protected Areas. In J. A. McNeely & K. R. Miller (Eds.), *National Parks, Conservation, and Development: The Role of Protected Areas in Sustaining Society.* (pp. 518-524). Washington, D.C: Smithsonian Institution Press.

Taket, Ann & White, Leroy. (2000). *Partnership and Participation: Decision-Making in the Multiagency Setting.* Chichester, England: John Wiley and Sons.

Thomson, Jason David. (1998). *Protected Area Co-Management in the Yukon.* Master's Thesis. Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph.

Vail, Stephen & Clinton, Graeme. (May 2001). *Nunavut Economic Outlook: An Examination of the Nunavut Economy.* Ottawa, Ontario: The Conference Board of Canada.

Warner, Katherine. (1988). Public Involvement as Planning Communication. In H. C. Dandekar (Ed.), *The Planner's Use of Information: Techniques for Collection, Organization, and Communication.* (pp. 125-139). Washington, D.C.: Planners Press.

Wismer, Susan. (1990). *Planning for Sustainable Development in Canada: A Community-Based Approach.* Master's Thesis. Waterloo, Ontario: University of Waterloo.

Wolfe, Jackie & Conway, Margaret. (1979). *The Representativeness of Vocal Participants at Public Meetings: An Aspect of Rural Community Input into Land Use Planning.* (Rural Development Outreach Project). Guelph, Ontario: University of Guelph.

Wolfe, Jackie. (1988). The Native Canadian Experience with Integrated Community Planning: Promise and Problems. In F. W. Dykeman (Ed.), *Integrated Rural Planning and Development.* (pp. 213-234). Sackville, New Brunswick: Mount Allison University.

---. (1989). Approaches to Planning in Native Canadian Communities: A Review and Commentary on Settlement Problems and the Effectiveness of Planning Practice. *Plan Canada.* Vol. 29, No. 2: 63-79. Toronto: Canadian Institute of Planners.

Wolfe, Jackie; Bechard, Chris; Cizek, Petr; & Cole, David. (1992). *Indigenous and Western Knowledge and Resources Management Systems.* Guelph, Ontario: School of Rural Planning and Development, University of Guelph.

Wondolleck, Julia M. & Yaffee, Steven L. (2000). *Making Collaboration Work: Lessons from Innovation in Natural Resource Management.* Washington, D.C: Island Press.

Yaffee, Stephen L. (1998). Cooperation: A Strategy for Achieving Stewardship Across Boundaries. In R. L. Knight & P. B. Landres (Eds.), *Stewardship Across Boundaries.* (pp. 299-324). Washington, D.C: Island Press.

Zube, Ervin H. (1995). No Park is an Island. In J. A. McNeely (Ed.), *Expanding Partnerships in Conservation.* (pp. 169-214). Washington, D.C: Island Press.

APPENDIX A *Nunavut Research License*

Nunavummi Qaujisaqtulirijikkut / Nunavut Research Institute
Box 1720, Iqaluit, NT X0A 0H0 phone:(867) 979-4108 fax: (867) 979-4681 e-mail: slcnri@nunanet.com

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH LICENCE

LICENCE # 0100402N-A

ISSUED TO: Kristina Zalite
Dept of Landscape Architecture
University of Guelph
5A Neeve St.
Guelph, Ontario
N1H 4B8 Canada
519-827-1871 // 867-975-5953

AFFILIATION: University of Guelph

TITLE: Participatory Park Planning: Understanding of Land Management in Inuit Communities of the Canadian Arctic

OBJECTIVES OF RESEARCH:
The goal of this research is to assess how Nunavummiut participate in planning Nunavut territorial parks. The research aims to improve understanding and cooperation in planning and building parks. I will conduct this research with assistance from the Parks and Tourism Division, Department of Sustainable Development, Government of Nunavut. I will collect information from literature, observations, and interviews. This data will be analyzed using "grounded theory" methodology. Interviewees will be selected if they 1) are interested in being interviewed, 2) have signed a participant consent form, 3) can offer insight that furthers the research. Interviewees will be 10 adult community members and professionals who assisted in the planning of territorial parks. The researcher will observe and photograph the setting (the park, the town, and meeting rooms). Open-ended questions will probe opinions on local park planning. For example "When this park was being planned, how were decisions made?". After making contact by telephone, live interviews will be tape-recorded and analyzed. The data collected belongs to the researcher.

DATA COLLECTION IN NU:
DATES: March 04, 2002-May 31, 2002
LOCATION: Iqaluit, Kimmirut

Scientific Research Licence 0100402N-A expires on December 31, 2002.
Issued at Iqaluit, NU on March 18, 2002.

Bruce Rigby
Science Advisor

APPENDIX B *Example of a Grounded Theory Process of Category Development*

Open Coding	
Raw Data (This example of grounded theory process only includes data from interview transcripts)	**Meaning of text**
"The steps that we take [to make a park] are – first of all I mentioned the tourism study. The tourism study identifies some potential. Following that then there's community, well, through the development of a feasibility study or a tourism study there's usually a committee is formed. A committee through the hamlet council is formed. And the consultant works with that committee in explaining what a tourist is - the good and bad things of tourism. And following that they have community meetings and workshops with the hamlet council. And they.... So that's, essentially a lot of that is answering questions that the community may have of this thing called tourism and the differences between Inuit perceptions of what tourists are and Kabloona perceptions of what tourists want. For example tourists like big, big fish. Inuit view that as being that's not the best thing. If you go out fishing the small fish are the better ones because they taste better. So there's an example of, you know, what the tourists like to see and do and what communities...their opinions of what's good." (Study Transcript, 2002) **Example Memo**: This interview tells me that there are formal and informal processes going on concurrently. The formal steps in park planning include the meetings, working with consultants, doing the feasibility studies, concept planning, and more. The informal steps include interviews, explaining what a tourist is, learning what a park can be, and teaching how to develop a tourism study. These two processes are not separate but what can separate them seems to be with informal processes there is a sense of forcing the process. Perhaps this is to overcome the informal nature of the context, but to still keep planning processes moving along?	The first step in the planning process includes defining **what a park and what tourism means.** Also: Perceptions of resources are different to Inuit and non-Inuit.
"When people refer to Inuit establishment from years past, people can say...camp...village. They were not. They were living there. So if you ask me the difference between being out on the land and what a park is I guess being in a park is almost like being out on the land, hunting and harvesting, seeing the natural things, things that are natural in nature as opposed to manufactured products or domesticated animals and stuff." (Study Transcript, 2002) **Example Memo**: Indication here that being in a park is more established, like a town; whereas being out on the land is like temporary living in a camp or village.	Perception of what a park is as an established (and not temporary) location.
"People in the north are unaware of what a park is, so it's kind of an education thing and it's something that can be solved quite easily I think. Parks is a...a lot of people don't understand what it means and what sort of implications it has on their rights on the land." (Study Transcript, 2002)	Education of the public about what a park is.
"I know that outside people from another country or another town see that local people are hunting in a park – and maybe that would be a...bad face to the community. But it's the local community that want to put a park up because they want to protect it. It's not only for tourists; they want to protect it for themselves. That's one thing I guess most of the people don't understand, or the government. The local person would think that a park is a place where you protect something, not for the outside people, but for your own community." (Study Transcript, 2002)	Protection of the land as a purpose of parks.
"[A park is] someplace where people can go and get away from it all. That's what I think is a park. Somewhere where it's	Economic development

Open Coding	
peaceful, where you can rest. That's what I think a park is. I think that is really important to Nunavut. Because we need to, give money to the community, and tourism dollars, to the region. Other than from mining. A mine can run for, what, 20 to 30 years. A park can run for much longer." (Study Transcript, 2002)	and recreation as purposes of parks.
"One of the contradictions is that here I'm one of these persons who is to design and build things in the outdoors, and often I think, "wow, this is incredible just the way it is". And so there's somewhat of a tug-of-war in terms of trying to keep the place – this natural landscape - in its natural form and yet set it up so that people can still enjoy it. But I guess I do realize that visitors have to have something to guide them around, because I usually have a guide with me, or I've spent enough time to know what's going on around me…I know what's going on. And these people who just parachute in for a week or two weeks don't have the benefit of all that background, so they do need something. But that's one of the things, is when you go and see these incredible places, you see the character. Like when we were in Mallikjuak…doing a study there, and we were inspecting this old fox trap, and it was just incredible to see this pile of stones and how the Inuit have been able to create this structure which has no connecting members or anything, it's all free standing stone structure that's basically a cone shape, hollow on the inside. And it was 5 feet high or something like that. It was really neat to experience that. As we're experiencing it, I hear this really strange sound it was [imitates sound that reminds me of wind blowing hard and fast] and I turn around – and it was really disturbing to hear it because there was no sound basically around there…maybe a bird…. But then suddenly this strange sound and then I turn around and this bowhead whale is going by, submerging and coming up and it was just…what a great place…what an incredible place. How do you bring people to see that? And to see these gravesites that I've seen? And qayak stands? And hope that people won't take them apart, people won't touch them, and people won't touch the bones and that? So it's a really unique time, and I don't know how to keep that time going on so that when visitors come you have that sense of solitude, and being one of the few visitors to the place and to just being able to enjoy it for what it is. So it would be neat to hear about how you're going to bring up the character of the landscape if that's something you want to do in your project." (Study Transcript, 2002)	Difficulty in defining parks
"When people think of parks they think of boundaries. At least in the southern concept. It's always been boundary, boundary, boundary. People up north have a hard time with that concept because…you go out your door in Pond Inlet and you are in pristine wilderness and it's just spectacular. And the question is why you would want to put a line around this little island, or a component of that little island. Why do you want to do that? People have a hard time understanding that. Because wildlife isn't restricted to boundary. Wildlife comes and goes. In the south we have boundaries because we are forced to have boundaries because it's tied to development. If you live in the city of Toronto you are surrounded by development and you go outside the city and it's developed or privately owned with a few greenbelts that are set aside as parks. Because we live in a world of boundaries down there – this is my land, this is my chunk of real estate, and that's someone else's. And we're forced to put these boundaries simply because everything abuts the boundaries of something else. In the north that is less the case. If you are an Inuk living in Kugaaruk and you go out on the ice. It's not a question – well that's mine, and that's his, and therefore we have to do this. And that's why a lot of people have a hard time	Difficulty surrounding notion of boundaries and parks.

Open Coding	
understanding this – why we need this thing called boundaries. Now this first came up in the land claim agreement where Inuit were asked to develop land quantum. In other words, carve up their chunks of land that they felt they wanted selected. Inuit owned lands verses federal lands. And this was a huge – and those maps that come with the land claim agreement, surface rights and subsurface rights and your quantum is 600,000 square kilometres. It was the first time that Inuit were forced to look at land that they were used to seeing as a whole. And they had to break it up into chunks. Because it was a question of you're not going to get everything out of this. This land will strictly be yours and this land will be someone else's. With the exception that someone else's land, also the Inuit are ensured that the Inuit have a say in how someone else's land was developed. Parks is an example. Parks developed in lands that are not selected by Inuit. But there is a process through the land claim agreement that ensures that Inuit have a say in how those lands are managed. So the whole issue of boundaries and parks is an interesting one that needs to be explored. It needs to be discussed. And it needs to be explained to Inuit in such a way that they can understand why someone has put a boundary around Kekerten Island, for example, as a separate park. Or Sylvia Grinnell as a land that is set aside for this particular purpose. Because that's going to be a big challenge for us, is getting the people to understand why that is. Why that's necessary. Because people are comfortable and used to taking advantage of land that surrounds their community. And it seems to be a very southern concept that you bring this thing called a territorial park. It's another Qallunaat thing from the south that you try to impose on us up north. And it's for that reason that I insisted that the program development of parks is done right from the beginning. So that we do have an opportunity to engage Inuit in discussions and workshops on that concept, so that we can arrive at something that people will be happy with. And it may be a no-boundary scenario. I don't know how it will work. I suspect at this point it'll be hard to do that. Because there are benefits to having a boundary from tourism's point of view. It helps focus the mind. You look at a map and it's like where am I going to go? And what am I going to do and see when I get up there? Having a boundary certainly provides that focus that will entice people up there. People want to ensure that they are safe and that they can see good stuff, and having boundaries and lines on maps certainly helps them." (Study Transcript, 2002)	

Axial and Selective Coding	
Open Code Subcategories	❖ The first step in the planning process includes defining **what a park and what tourism means.** ❖ Perceptions of resources are different to Inuit and non-Inuit. ❖ Perception of what a park is as an established (and not temporary) location. ❖ Education of the public about what a park is. ❖ Protection of the land as a purpose of parks. ❖ Economic development and recreation as purposes of parks. ❖ Difficulty in defining parks. ❖ Difficulty surrounding notion of boundaries and parks.

Axial and Selective Coding			
Axial Coding	Involved reading the documents again to find meaning in the text that related to the open coding categories.	"From my perspective, I respond to the request from the government to get involved in making a park. One of the first steps is going to the and having that community consultation to talk to them about what a park is and what the government is proposing and get their reaction to it, help them understand what it is – this park – and what it means to the community." (Study Transcript, 2002)	
Axial Coding	Involved refining all categories.	❖ The first step in the planning process includes defining **what a park and what tourism means.** ❖ Perceptions of resources are different to Inuit and non-Inuit. ❖ Perception of what a park is as an established (and not temporary) location. ❖ Education of the public about what a park is. ❖ Protection of the land as a purpose of parks. ❖ Economic development and recreation as purposes of parks. ❖ Difficulty in defining parks. ❖ Difficulty surrounding notion of boundaries and parks.	Becomes: ❖ **Defining a Park** ❖ Perceptions of parks and park resources ❖ Education of the public about parks ❖ Park Purposes ❖ Difficulty of park boundaries
Axial Coding	Involved reading documents for relationships and deciding on core and subcategories	Core category: **Defining a Park** Subcategories: Perceptions of parks and park resources Education of the public about what a park is. Park purposes: Protection, Economic Development, Recreation. Difficulty surrounding notion of boundaries and parks.	
Selective Coding	Involved reading the texts to find all of the meaning related to the open code category of **Defining a Park.**	"Well, when we're making a park the first step is just talking about what a park is, generally. Um. And when I say generally I mean not so much the park in itself but more of almost an attraction kind of thing where you're talking a little bit about a whole package of things that are tied together in a park. So you're talking a little bit about the land, you're talking a little bit about activities on the land, you're talking a little bit about oral histories, you're talking about traditional knowledge, you're talking about all of these things that people know of the land." (Study Transcript, 2002)	

Diagramming
Multiple diagrams created to demonstrate (1) how the core category of **Defining a Park** relates to all other core categories, and (2) how **Defining a Park** occurs throughout the entire park planning process.

APPENDIX C *Information Form for Interview Subjects (English)*

Project Title: Participatory Park Planning: Understanding the Process of Land Management in Inuit Communities of Nunavut, Canada

Start date of project: March 4, 2002

Project director: Dr. Nancy Pollock-Ellwand

Project researcher: Kris Zalite (Master's student at the University of Guelph)

University department: Landscape Architecture

Project summary: This study will produce a model of how Inuit people are involved with professionals in the planning and creation of territorial parks in Nunavut, Canada.

Project purpose: To find unique cultural practices of park planning in the Canadian arctic.

Project usefulness: To improve how park-land is managed in Nunavut.

Anticipated risks and benefits to the interview subjects: No risks anticipated. Possible benefits for the interview subjects are that they may learn about park planning in Nunavut.

Anticipated social risks and benefits: No social risks anticipated. This research may benefit society by adding to knowledge about parks organizations.

Procedures that interview subjects will be asked to do: When interview subjects have consented to being interviewed, they will be asked to

1) read interview questions before attending the live interview,
2) think about the interview questions before attending the live interview,
3) be interviewed for 1 hour, and
4) answer the interview questions verbally in the live interview.

Anonymity of interview subjects and confidentiality of data: Except where the interview subject or legal guardian has stated in writing, the interview subject's anonymity will be strictly protected and all data collected will remain absolutely confidential.

To preserve the anonymity of the interview subject, the researcher will refer to the interview subjects anonymously (for eg. Subject A, Subject B, Subject C...) in any unpublished and published material for the project (interview recordings, transcripts, thesis, etcetera).

The researcher will store the data. The researcher will not share the data with anyone other than her Project Director and Thesis Committee. The data will be stored for a maximum of 5 years, at which time it will be destroyed.

The data from this research project may be stored and used to a different purpose in future without obtaining a new consent from the subject. If this is the case, the results of the project will be available from the project director when they are published; further information will be available from the project director.

ᓯᓚᕆᐊᑦ ᑐᑭᓯᖅᓂᕐᒥᔪᓐᓇᓄᑦ ᑎᑎᕋᓯᒪᔪᐃᓄᑦ

ᓯᓚᕆᐊᑦ ᑕᐃᔨᐅᓂᖅᖃᑦ: ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᐃᓕᐅᓂᖓᑦ ᒥᖅᓱᐃᓯᕐᓇᖅᑎᓪᓗᑦ ᐸᕐᓇᐃᓂᕐᒧᑦ: ᑐᑭᓯᓂᖅ ᒥᖅᓱᐃᓯᕐᓇᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᐊᐅᓚᕆᓂᕐᒧᑦ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᖓᖅᓂ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ, ᑲᓇᑕ

ᑐᑭᒪᔪᖅᑎᑎᔨᖅ: ᔭᕆᐊᖅ ᐅᖅᓯ ᕗᓪᓕᖅ-ᐃᖅᑐᐊᖅ

ᐱᓕᕐᓇᓱᖓ ᓯᓚᕆᐊᑦ: ᒪᑦᑐ 4, 2002

ᓯᓚᕆᐊᒥᑦ ᓯᓚᕆᐊᒪᑦ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑎᑎᖅ: ᑯᓘᑦ ᓴᓪᒃᐃᐃᑦ (ᐱᓕᕆᔨᓯᐊᖅᑐᖅ ᐃᓕᓴᐅᔪᖅᑎ ᓯᓪᑐᓴᓴᐊᔪᖓᓂ ᔪᐃᐊᑦ)

ᓯᓪᑐᓴᓴᐊᓂᒥ ᑎᒥᖓ: ᓪᓕᓯᑲᐃᑦ ᐃᓕᓐᓄᐃᑦ ᐋᖅᑭᓯᒪᓂᖓᓕᓄᑦ ᑎᑎᕋᐅᓕᖅᑲᓇᑦ

ᓯᓚᕆᐊᑦ ᖃᓄᐃᓐᒋᓂᖓᓂ: ᖃᐅᔨᓴᓕᓂᖅ ᓴᖅᑭᓇᓯᐊᖅᑐᖅ ᐋᖅᑭᓯᒪᔪᒥᒃ ᖃᓄᖅ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᐃᓕᐅᓴᒪᖓᒃᑐᑦ ᐸᕐᓇᐃᓂᕐᒧᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ, ᑲᓇᑕ.

ᓯᓚᕆᐊᑦ ᐱᓪᓚᑎᖓ: ᓇᓂᓯᓂᕐᒧᑦ ᐊᓪᐅᐅᖓᑕᒋᓂ ᐃᓕᓴᐋᓯᖏᓐᓄᑦ ᐊᑐᖅᑕᐅᓯᒪᔪᓂᑦ ᒥᖅᓱᐃᓯᕐᓇᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᐸᕐᓇᐃᓂᕐᒧᑦ ᑲᓇᑕᐅᑦ ᐅᑭᐅᖅᑕᖅᑐᓂᒃ.

ᓯᓚᕆᐊᑦ ᐊᑐᑎᖏᓂᖓᓂ: ᐱᓕᕆᓂᓂᕐᒧᑦ ᖃᓄᖅ ᒥᖅᓱᐃᓯᕐᓇᖅᑎᑦ ᓄᓇᐅᔪᐃᓄᑦ ᐊᐅᓚᕆᐅᓯᒪᔪᓕᒫᓂ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ.

ᓂᕆᐅᑭᐅᖅᑐᐃᓄᑦ ᐊᑕᓇᖏᑐᒃᑑᑭᐅᖏᓐᓇᖅᑐᑦ ᐊᒻᒪ ᓇᓴᖏᑕᐅᔪᓐᓇᖏᑐᐃᓄᑦ ᐊᐱᖏᓪᓕᐅᓂᖅᓯᒪᓂᑦ ᑲᒪᑭᐅᖅᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅᑐᖅ: ᐱᑕᖃᖓᑕᒋᐊᖅ ᐊᑕᓇᓐᓂᑐᑦᑲᓪᓚᕆᐊᓂᖅᑐᑦ. ᓇᓴᖏᑕᐅᑐᐃᓐᓇᓕᒫᓂᖅ ᐊᐱᖏᓪᓕᐅᔪᑕᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᐃᓕᑐᐃᓐᓇᓕᒫᖃᖓᓂᑦ ᐱᓪᑐᓂᑦ ᒥᖅᓱᐃᓯᕐᓇᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᐸᕐᓇᐃᓂᕐᒧᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ.

ᓂᕆᐅᑭᐅᖅᑐᐃᓄᑦ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᐊᑕᓇᖏᑐᒃᑑᑭᐅᖏᓐᓇᖅᑐᓂᒃᓄᑦ ᐊᒻᒪ ᓇᓴᖏᑕᐅᕐᓇᖅᑐᐃᓄᑦ: ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ ᐊᖏᖅᓯᒪᓕᕆᓪᓗᑎᑦ ᐊᐱᖏᓪᓕᐅᑭᐅᖅᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅᑐᖅ, ᐊᐱᕆᐅᕐᖃᓕᓂᖅᑐᐃᓄᑦ ᐃᓕᐃᓂᕐᕕᐅᑦᓪᓗᑎᒃ

1) ᐅᖃᓕᒫᓂᖅᑎᑦ ᐊᐱᖏᓂᕐᒪᑕᐅᔪᐃᓄᑦ ᓂᕆᓂᐊᒍᑦ ᐅᐸᓕᐅᖏᓐᓇᓂᓂ ᐊᐱᖏᓪᓕᐅᓂᖅᓯᒪᓂᑦ,

2) ᐃᓕᓴᖏᓐᓄᐃᑎᒋᔭᓗᒋᑦ ᐊᐱᖅᑯᓕᖏᓐᓇᐃᑦ ᓕᕆᓂᐊᒍᑦ ᐅᐸᓪᓕᐅᖓᓂᖅᓂ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ,
3) ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᓗᑎᒃ ᐊᑕᐅᓯᖏᓪᑦ ᐃᑲᖏᓪᑦ ᐊᓪᓚ ᑭᐅᖅᑕᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᑎᑦᓗᑎᒃ.

ᑲᖓᓐᓂᖏᑦ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᔪᐃᑦ ᐊᓪᓚ ᒪᐅᖏᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅ ᐅᖅᐅᓯᑎᐊᖅᖏᓂᖏᑦ ᑎᑎᖏᓯᒪᔪᐃᓕ: ᑭᓯᐊᓂ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᔪᖅ ᐅᓪᓗᓐᓂᑦ ᒪᓕᒐᖅᑎᒍᑦ ᐱᓯᒪᖏᑎᐅᖏᓐᓇ ᓇᓗᓇᐃᖏᓯᓯᒪᓪᓕᓐ ᑎᑎᖅᑎᑎᒍᑦ, ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᔪᑦ ᑲᖓᓐᓂᖏᓪᓇ ᐊᓪᓚ ᑎᑎᖅᓕᒻᒥᓐ ᓄᐊᑕᐅᔪᐃᑦ ᒪᐅᖏᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅ ᐅᖅᐅᓯᓗᓴᖏᖅᑎᑐᐃᑦ.

ᐊᓯᔾᔨᑕᐃᓕᒪᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ ᑲᖓᓐᓂᖏᓐᓇᓂᑦ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᔪᑦ, ᖃᐅᔨᒪᖅᑎᐅᔪᖅ ᐃᖅᑯᓕᐅᑎᖅᖃᖅᑐᖅᖃᐊᖅᑐᖅ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᔪᒥᑦ ᑲᖓᓐᓂᖏᓪᑲᖅᑐᑦ (ᓯᑦᓗ, ᑲᒪᒋᔭᐅᔪᑦ ᐃ, ᑲᒪᒋᔭᐅᔪᑦ ᐱ, ᑲᒪᒋᔭᐅᔪᖅ ᑎ...) ᓇᓚᓕᐊᑐᐃᓇᖏᓪᓂ ᓴᖅᑭᑕᐅᓯᒪᖏᑎᑦᑐᓂ ᐊᓪᓚ ᓴᖅᑭᑕᐅᓯᒪᔪᓂ ᐅᖃᓕᒫᓴᕆᐅᔪᓂ ᓯᓕᓱᐊᒪᓕ (ᐊᐱᖅᓯᓐᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᑦ ᐃᓕᓴᕐᕕᒃᓴᖅᑎᑦ, ᑎᑎᕆᑎᒋᓕᓴᖅᑎᑦ, ᐱᔾᔪᓯᐊᖅᑐᓯᐅᑎᐅᔪᑦ ᐃᓕᓐᓂᐊᕐᓂᓗ, ᑕᒪᑲᓯᐊᒐᓕᐃᑦ).

ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑎᐅᔪᖅ ᓴᓂᕐᓭᐃᓯᒪᓂᐊᖅᑐᖅ ᑎᑎᖃᐅᔪᓂᑦ. ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑎᐅᔪᖅ ᑲᑐᔾᖃᑎᖅᑐᖅᖃᐊᖅᑐᖅ ᑭᓇᐃᓂᑦ ᑐᑭᓯᐊᖅᑎᑎᕐᓂᐅᔪᐅᑉ ᐊᓪᓚ ᐱᔾᔪᓴᓯᐊᓐᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ ᐃᓕᓐᓂᐊᕐᓂᓗ, ᑲᑎᒪᔨᐊᖅᑐᐃᓇᖏᓪᓂ. ᑎᑎᖃᐃᑦ ᓴᓂᕐᓭᐅᔪᒪᓂᐊᖅᑐᖅᖃᐃᑦ ᐊᑯᓂᐅᓪᓚᑦ ᑕᓪᓕᐊᓂ (5) ᐊᖏᖅᔪᐃᑦ, ᑕᐃᑲᓂ ᓯᖏᑕᐅᑲᔾᖃᖅᑎᑎᒃ.

ᑎᑎᕆᑎᒋᓕᓴᐃᑦ ᒐᕆᓯᒪᖏᑎᒃ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ ᓯᓚᕆᐊᒥᑦ ᓴᓂᕐᓭᐅᔪᒪᓂᐊᖅᑐᖅᓇᖅᑐᐃᑦ ᐊᓪᓚ ᐊᑐᖅᑕᐅᓗᑎᒃ ᐊᔾᔨᒋᐊᖅᖏᓂᑦ ᓯᓕᓱᐅᔪᒥᑦ ᐱᖓᓕᓗᑎᒃ ᓄᓪᓕᐊᓂ ᐊᖓᖅᓯᒪᓂᖏᓪᓂᓂ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᔪᐃᑦ. ᑕᐃᒪᐃᓕᓐᓂ, ᖃᐅᔨᔾᔪᑕᐅᔪᐃᑦ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ ᐊᑐᐃᓇᐅᓂᐊᖅᑐᐃᑦ ᓯᓚᕆᐊᒥᑦ ᐅᑭᐅᖅᑕᐅᓯᒪᔪᓄᑦ; ᐅᑭᐅᖅᑕᐅᓯᒪᓂᖅᐸᐃᑦ ᐱᔾᔪᑌᐅᓂᐊᖅᑐᐃᑦ ᓯᓚᕆᐊᒪᓗᑦ ᐅᑭᐅᖅᑕᐅᓯᒪᓂᖏᓪᓗᑦ.

APPENDIX E *Consent Form for Interview Subjects (English)*

I am free to withdraw from the project at any time, even after I agree to be a part of the project and after the project starts. There will be no penalty for withdrawing from the project.

I understand that it may be impossible for me to be informed completely of the purpose of the procedures to be followed.

I will be fully informed when my participation has been completed.

I allow the researcher to use a tape recorder for recording this interview.

I allow the researcher to use quotations from my interview for this project.

I will be given feedback about the research project at any time when I request more information.

I will be provided with a short description of the research project when it is finished.

I have been given adequate information about this project and understand the procedures to be followed by myself.

Name	Signature	Date

APPENDIX F *Consent Form for Interview Subjects (Inuktitut)*

ᑲᒪᒋᔭᓕᐊᖅᑐᑎᒃ ᐊᖏᓐᓂᖅᓯᒋᐊᓂ ᑕᑎᓕᐊᓕᓐᓴ

ᓯᓚᓕᐊᑦ ᑕᐃᔨᐅᓂᖓ: ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᐃᓕᐅᓂᖏᑦ ᒥᓐᖓᐃᓕᓯᖏᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᕿᖏᓐᓂᖅᓯᒋᐊᕐ: ᑐᑭᓯᓂᖅ ᒥᓐᖓᐃᓕᓯᖏᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᐊᐅᓪᓚᑎᓂᖅᓯᒋᐊᕐ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᓕᖏᓐᓂ ᓄᓇᕗᒻᒥ, ᑲᓇᑕ

ᐃᓱᒪᖅᓯᑐᖓ ᐊᖕᐅᑎᓂᖅᓯᒋᐊᕐ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᒥᑦ ᖃᖓᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅ, ᐊᑭᓐᓴᐅᑦ ᐃᓕᐅᔪᓚᐅᔪᖏᓪᓗᒍᑎᓪᓗᖓ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᓯᒋᐊᕐ ᐊᒻᒪ ᑭᓲᓂᐊᔪᑦ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᖅ ᐱᒋᐊᓕᐅᖅᑎᓪᓗᒍ. ᖃᓄᐃᓕᓚᐅᖅᑕᐅᔨᕐᑐᖓ ᐊᖕᐅᑎᓂᖅᓯᒋᐊᕐ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᒥᑦ.

ᑐᑭᓯᔪᖓ ᐊᔪᓐᓇᑐᐃᓐᓇᓕᐊᖅᓂᖓᓂᑦ ᐊᑕᖏᓕᔪᓂᑦ ᑐᑭᓯᑎᑕᐅᔨᓕᐊᕐᓴᖅ ᐱᔪᔨᑎᖏᓐᓂᑦ ᐊᑐᐊᓕᐊᖅᖃᖅᑐᑦ ᒪᓕᒐᕐᑕᐅᔨᓕᐊᓕᓐᓂᑦ.

ᑐᓴᖅᑎᑕᐅᑎᓂᐊᓂᐊᖅᑐᖓ ᐃᓕᐅᓂᖓ ᐱᖓᖅᑎᓪᓗᒍ.

ᐊᔪᖏᑎᑕᖕ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑎᐅᔪᖅ ᐊᑐᓪᓗᓂ ᓂᐱᓕᐅᔨᖓᒥᑦ ᓂᐱᓕᐅᔭᓂᓪᓗᑦ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᓂᒃᑦ.

ᐊᔪᖏᑎᑕᖕ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑎᐅᔪᖅ ᐊᑐᓪᓗᓂ ᐅᖃᐅᔨᐅᔪᒥᓂᐅᔪᓂᑦ ᐊᐱᖅᓯᑕᐅᓂᓪᓗᑦ ᑲᔪᓯᒪᖅ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᒪᑦ.

ᑐᓴᖅᑕᐅᓂᐊᖅᑐᖓ ᖃᐅᔨᓴᓂᓪᓗᑦ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᑦ ᒥᖏᓐᓄᑦ ᖃᖓᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅ ᑐᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑕᐅᓂᒃᑦ.

ᐱᑕᖃᖅᑎᑦᑎᓂᐊᖅᑐᖓ ᓇᐃᑦᑐᑦ ᐅᖃᐅᔨᓴᖅᑎᓂᓪᓗᑦ ᐱᓪᓗᒍ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᒪᑦ ᐊᒻᒪ ᑐᖃᐅᔨᖓᒥᑦ ᐊᑐᐊᓕᐊᖅᖃᖅᑐᑦ ᐃᓕᐅᓂᖓ ᐱᖓᖅᑎᓪᓗᒍ.

ᑐᓂᓯᔨᐅᓕᕐᒪᖓ ᓇᒪᒍᓂᑦ ᑐᖃᐅᔨᖅᓴᖅᑎᓂᓪᓗᑦ ᐱᓪᓗᒍ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᖅ ᐊᒻᒪ ᑐᖃᐅᔨᖓᒥᑦ ᐊᑐᐊᓕᐊᖅᖃᖅᑐᑦ ᓯᓚᓕᐊᓕᓐᓂᖅ ᐃᒪᓕᓂᑐᐃᓐᓇᖅ.

ᐊᑎ	ᐊᑎᓕᐅᕈᓯᒪᖓ	ᐅᓪᓗᒍ

APPENDIX G *Interview Questions (English)*

Ideas and Parks

What is a park?

What is a park in Nunavut?

How did you learn about parks in Nunavut?

When there is information about parks in Nunavut, how to get the information?

When you have ideas about parks, how do you give your ideas?

Making Parks

Who makes a park?

What do you do when you are making a park? (what steps do you take?)

Describe the meetings that are needed to make a park.

Public

What does the word "public" mean to you?

Why would you involve the public?

How do you involve the public?

Parks in Nunavut

What does your community or agency have to do with parks?

What does the Nunavut government have to do with parks?

What does NTI have to do with parks?

What are some problems with parks?

You and Nunavut Parks

When did you become involved with Nunavut Parks?

How are you involved with Nunavut Parks? Explain

Why are you involved with Nunavut Parks?

What do you think about being involved with parks?

APPENDIX H *Interview Questions (Inuktitut)*

ᐃᓱᒪᒋᐅᓕᕆᔨᐃᑦ ᐊᐱᒪ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᐃᑦ

ᑭᓱᓪ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓄᑦ?

ᑭᓱᓪ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓄᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ?

ᖃᓄᖅ ᐃᓕᓴᐅᔪᓐ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓂᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ?

ᖃᓄᖅ ᐱᓕᕆᔨᖅ ᑐᑭᓯᐊᖅᑎᑦᓴᕆᔨᓂᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ ᒥᐊᓗᓄᑦ?

ᖃᓄᖅ ᑐᓂᓯᓂᕐᒪᑦ ᐃᓱᒪᒋᐅᔾᔨᓂᑦ ᐱᓪᓗᑎᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᐃᑦ?

ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᓕᕆᓪᓂᖅ

ᑭᓇ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᕆᓯᐅᔪᓂᑦ?

ᑭᓯᓕᓗᓯᐅᔪᓐᓇᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᓕᕆᓪᓂᖅᓯᑎᓪᓗᒍᓪ? (ᖃᓄᐃᓕᑐᓂ ᐊᑐᓚᐊᓯᐅᔪᓐᓇᑦ?)

ᓇᓗᓇᐃᖅᓗᑎᑦ ᑲᑎᒪᓂᕆᔨᓴᓚᐊᖅᖃᑐᐃᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᓕᕆᓪᓂᕆᔭᓂᒃ.

ᐃᓄᐃᑦ

ᑭᓯᒥᑦ ᑐᑭᖅᖅ "ᐃᓄᐃᑦ" ᐃᓕᓴᓄᑦ?

ᓴᓚᒃ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᐃᓕᕆᑎᑎᓴᕐᑭᑦ?

ᖃᓄᖅ ᐃᓕᕆᑎᔪᓐᓇᕐᑭᑦ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ?

ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ

ᑭᓯᒥᑦ ᓄᓇᓕᓴᓂ ᕆᔨᒃᓴᓂ ᓯᓕᓚᐃᕆᔨᑦ ᑲᒪᒋᓴᖅᖅ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

ᑭᓯᒥᑦ ᑐᓐᖓᐃᓕᓴᐅᒃ ᐱᓕᓚᐊᓴᖅᖅᓄᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

ᑭᓯᒥᑦ ᑲᒪᒋᓴᓚᖅᖅᓄᑦ ᐃᓄᐃᑦ ᖃᐅᔨᒪᓴᖅᑐᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

ᑭᓯᓕᒃ ᐃᓕᓐᓂᑦ ᐊᑲᐃᓕᓚᐅᕆᔨᐃᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

ᐃᖃᐃᑦ ᐊᒪᒪ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᐃᑦ

ᖃᐅᔨ ᐃᓕᓴᕆᓕᓴᐅᑭᒃ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

ᖃᓄᖅ ᐃᓕᓴᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ? ᐅᖃᐅᓯᓚᐅᒍ

ᓴᓚᒃ ᐃᓕᓴᐃᑦ ᓄᓇᕗᒥ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

ᑭᓯᒥᑦ ᐃᓱᒪᒋᔭᖃᑭᒃ ᐱᓪᓗᒍ ᐃᓕᓴᐅᓚᔭᐃᑦ ᒥᓐᓄᐃᓯᖏᓐᓇᕆᔨᓄᑦ?

Appendix I *List of Grounded Theory Categories and Subcategories for the Case Study*

Category	Subcategories
The Nature of the Public Involvement Process	❖ Formal, Informal ❖ Flexible ❖ Time ❖ Distance ❖ Management ❖ Operations ❖ Decision-making ❖ Ongoing process, involvement, and learning by park manager, park planners, and community
Land Claim and Nunavut Act	❖ Inuit involvement ❖ Hiring and training of Inuit field assistants ❖ Community Joint Planning and Management Committee ❖ Nunavut Joint Planning and Management Committee
Inuit Relationship with the Land	❖ Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit (Inuit knowledge) ❖ Values
Defining a Park	❖ Perceptions of parks and park resources ❖ Education of the public about what a park is. ❖ Park purposes: Protection, Economic Development, Recreation. ❖ Notion of boundaries and parks. ❖ First step in the planning process
Information Exchange	❖ Site visits ❖ Community consultations ❖ Interviews ❖ Public meetings for all major decisions ❖ Feedback from community throughout process
Consultation and Informal Meetings	❖ Who is involved: youth (next generation), committees, affected community, visitors ❖ Oral histories ❖ Mandated consultations (with Nunavut Wildlife Management Board, Nunavut Planning Commission, Regional Inuit Association, Regional Wildlife Officer, and Hunters and Trappers Organization).
Formal Connections	❖ Create relationships ❖ Community Joint Planning and Management Committee ❖ Nunavut Joint Planning and Management Committee ❖ Local community contact person ❖ Hiring and training of Inuit field assistants
Community Veto Power	❖ Review and approval of inventory, master planning, by Nunavut Joint Planning and Management Committee and Community Joint Planning and Management Committee.
Park Ownership	❖ Leadership role ❖ Community representation and direction ❖ Shared stewardship ❖ Self-reliance
Economic and Tourism Development	❖ Community support requirement for project survival ❖ Youth is a priority in building up the economy, Youth education ❖ Building human resource capital in communities ❖ Preservation of Inuit traditional use of lands, waters, and resources ❖ Training and support required ❖ Employment creation