

1 Article

# 2 Engaging the Senses: The Potential of Emotional 3 Data as a new Information Layer in Urban Planning

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10

11 **Abstract:** Although our emotional connection with the physical urban setting is often valued, it is  
12 rarely recognised or used as a resource to understand future actions in city planning. Yet, despite the  
13 importance of emotion, citizens' emotions are typically seen as difficult to quantify and  
14 individualistic, even though knowledge about people's response to space could help planners  
15 understand people's behaviours and learn about how citizens use and live in the city. The study  
16 explores the relationship between the physical space and emotions through identifying the links  
17 between stress levels, and specific features of the urban environment. This study aims to show the  
18 potential of integrating the use of galvanic skin response (GSR) within urban spatial analysis and city  
19 planning, in order to address the relationship between emotions and urban spaces. This method  
20 involved participants using a (GSR) device linked to location data to measure participant's emotional  
21 responses along a walking route in a city centre environment. Findings show correlations between  
22 characteristics of environment and stress levels, as well as how specific features of the city spaces  
23 such as road crossing create stress 'hotspots'. We suggest that the data obtained could contribute to  
24 citizens creating their own information layer - an emotional layer- that could inform urban planning  
25 decision-making. The implications of this application of this method as an approach to public  
26 participation in urban planning are also discussed.

27 **Keywords:** emotions; planning; participation; digital participation; physiological sensors; galvanic  
28 skin response; GSR; stress levels; emotional layer; urban, city

29

## 30 1. Introduction – Sharing Cities

31 Cities are increasingly the focus of new forms of participation, enabled by technological devices  
32 and platforms [1], such as crowdsourcing where citizens create, adapt and exploit data[2].  
33 Conventional citizen participation methods in city planning include referenda, public hearings,  
34 public surveys, charettes, public advisory committees or focus groups which require the participants  
35 to be physical present at particular time and place. These enable citizens' to have input into the  
36 process, but practical problems of participation such as limitations of time and costs in the policy  
37 making process, or apathy among citizens are recognised challenges [3]. Digital technologies can  
38 address some of the issues of participation in the urban planning process by enabling a more  
39 accessible system for the public to shape their neighbourhood's future [4]. Munster et al. [5] outlines  
40 many advantages of digital participation which include the utilisation of wider pool of knowledge  
41 through broader audience and participants, providing for an interactive and communication-  
42 oriented planning process, offering new perspectives for designers and planners and also  
43 "transforming planning work into an iterative, agile work process, in contrast to sequential and linear  
44 workflows that have shaped urban design practice in the past" [5]. In order to truly involve  
45 inhabitants in urban planning, a central aspect is to capture their concerns, agreement, and ideas and  
46 to react appropriately. However, the explosion of digital media means that a huge amount of

47 qualitative and subjective feedback data from citizens are also being produced. Analysing these data  
48 is where the actual challenge lies. Crivellaro et al. [6] have looked at how local people get together  
49 online through Facebook to mobilise around a local social movement. They recognised the  
50 importance of forming a like-minded community, but it also acknowledged the struggle of the group  
51 to translate their emotions to the authority and decision makers. Hasler et al. [7] in another research  
52 found that the multiplication and diversity of contributions by citizens through digital participation  
53 increases complexity which means that prioritising relevant data can be problematic. This illustrates  
54 how technologies can facilitate discussions that are planning-related, but turning them into  
55 actionable policies proven to be difficult.

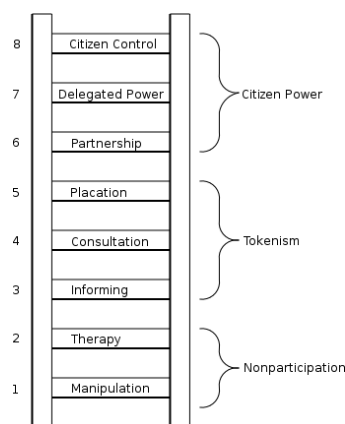
56 In this paper we look at the potential of emotional data for enabling participation in urban  
57 planning, that contributes towards a shared cities approach. This takes a model of participation that  
58 is termed ‘co-production’ whereby ‘citizens perform the role of partner rather than customer in the  
59 delivery of public services’ [8]. McLaren and Agymen present a model for collaboration and sharing  
60 around the city in their book ‘Sharing Cities’ and describe how they see “the increasingly blurred  
61 nexus between urban- and cyberspace enabling transformation – this time in the political  
62 domain. These spaces are fundamentally important for forms of participation invented and  
63 controlled by the people” [9]. In order to do this, we first review the literature on the urban planning  
64 process, showing how the development of the discipline has sought to enable citizen participation.  
65 We map this against Arnstein’s ‘Ladder of Participation’ to highlight how much of this participation  
66 typically does not enable citizens to control and act in the process, and is therefore often tokenistic.  
67 We then outline the potential of incorporating digital tools for participation, and in particular the  
68 value of incorporating emotional data as a way of capturing a more person- centric understanding of  
69 urban space. In the study described in the paper, we use a method where a small number of  
70 participants used a galvanic skin response (GSR) linked to location data to record stress levels in a  
71 walk through an urban city centre space with different characteristics. The findings aim to explore  
72 whether this emotional data might have benefit for enabling new models of more data informed  
73 participation in urban planning processes.

#### 74 1.1 *The Challenge of Participation in the Urban Planning Process*

75 “Cities have the capability of providing something for everybody, only because, and only when, they are  
76 created by everybody” [10]

77 Many people now live in cities, but despite Jacob’s plea above, very few participate in how they  
78 are created, designed and planned. Therefore, the challenge we seek to make some contribution to  
79 with this study is ‘how to enable meaningful participation in the urban planning process’? In order  
80 to do this, we first provide some context on how urban planning evolved and the developing role of  
81 participation. If we look back to the origins of urban planning in the western world in the early 20th  
82 Century, the process was heavily influenced by the rational-comprehensive approach where the  
83 planning sequence involves: a survey of the region, an analysis of the survey, and finally the  
84 development of the plan [11]. Hall [12] argued that Geddes “gave planning a logical structure” by  
85 developing the survey-analysis-plan sequence of planning. However, this method of planning has  
86 been criticised to be too dictatorial - seeing the planner as “the omniscient ruler, who should create  
87 new settlement forms without interference or question” [12] as well as being too reductionist as  
88 planners have to make assumptions and predictions which required them to have complete certainty  
89 [13]. This then caused the planners to proceed on the basis of simplifying the world around them  
90 which later led to a lot of failure of the predictions [13]. The failures of the rational-comprehensive  
91 approach in urban planning led it to being succeeded by synoptic planning approach in 1960s and  
92 Hall argued that this change represents a fundamental shift in the role of the planners and their  
93 relationship with the public. However, Faludi [13] argued that this early form of participation was  
94 still based on the assumption that the society is homogenous – implying the homogeneity of interest.  
95 This means that participation is only required to validate and uncritically legitimise the goals of  
96 planning and any objection to planning proposal tends to be stigmatised [13].

97 Even when public participation has become an integral part of current urban planning process,  
 98 Innes and Booher [3] argued that they still “do not achieve genuine participation”. This is because  
 99 current form of public participation does not satisfy members of the public that they are being heard  
 100 and often does not improve the decisions that agencies and public officials make and [3]. The  
 101 scepticism posed by Innes and Booher [3] to the way that current participation is being practiced  
 102 could be traced back to Arnstein’s widely known ‘Ladder of Participation’ [14]. As she put it, “there  
 103 is a critical difference between going through the empty ritual of participation and having the real  
 104 power needed to affect the outcomes of the process”[14]. The fundamental point of these criticisms  
 105 was that if urban planners seek public participation, it is necessary that there be a redistribution of  
 106 power [14]. She regarded power in public participation as a ladder or a spectrum ranging from  
 107 ‘nonparticipation’ through to ‘degrees of citizen power’ (see Figure 1), which correspond to the  
 108 degree of power or control participants can exercise in the quest of shaping the outcome. The ladder  
 109 outlines steps of public participation from manipulation (level 1), education (level 3), and  
 110 consultation (level 4), through to sharing power through ‘partnership’ (level 6) and beyond.  
 111



112 **Figure 1.** Arnstein's Ladder of Participation

113 Notably, Arnstein’s framework regards consultation as ‘tokenism’ similar to the way Innes and  
 114 Booher [3] viewed the level of public participation in current urban planning process. However,  
 115 Painter [15] argued against Arnstein’s analysis by stating that her ladder of participation model  
 116 inaccurately apprehends power i.e. it confuses ‘potential power’ with ‘actual power’ [15]. While the  
 117 official decision-making power may rest with institutional decision-makers in a consultation process,  
 118 to regard the process as tokenistic disregards the fact that “if the exercise of influence [by participants]  
 119 is effective, then this formal power is an empty shell”[15, p.23]. He also argues that Arnstein’s model  
 120 often assume decision-making in planning occurs at a single point in the process. This ignores the  
 121 fact that there is rarely an identifiable, or single, ‘point of decision’ in policy-making [15]. The primary  
 122 value of this discussion is that it exposes that participation in planning can include the exercise of  
 123 both formal and informal power. Hence, having power in decision-making processes is not the only  
 124 way towards achieving genuine participation as it could also be realised through ranges of other  
 125 participatory activities - as long as the engagement with citizens contribute positively towards the  
 126 outcome of a planning project.

### 127 1.3 Emotions and Planning

128 In this paper we explore whether emotional data about a particular city setting can be used to  
 129 inform the urban planning process. Although the link between the built environment and human’s  
 130 emotional aspects in urban planning research has found a growing interest in recent years, it is still a  
 131 rather new approach in the field [16]. Typically in urban planning, planning is seen as an objective  
 132 process, so emotion is not seen as qualities or analysis that can be meaningfully included in decision  
 133 making [17]. They believe that urban planners should avoid allowing emotions to influence their  
 134 analysis or recommendations and this is largely due to the fact that urban planners are taught to  
 135 operate in a rational manner [17]. Despite the neglect of emotional aspects by many planning officials,

136 there are also some urban planners who do recognise the importance of emotions within the field.  
137 For example, Lynch [18] recognises the emotional aspect through its link with emotions and mental  
138 maps while Ferreira [19] has urged that emotions should be presented as constructive drives with the  
139 power to positively inspire the planner to become a more competent professional. Porter et al. [20]  
140 on the other hand have claimed that attachments to community members improve the ability of  
141 planners to understand and work with residents while Gunder and Hillier [21] have interpreted  
142 planning issues through a Lacanian psychological model which acknowledge the entire process of  
143 becoming and being a planner is typically associated with strong emotional experiences. These  
144 authors have provided a meaningful theoretical discourse in terms of acknowledging the importance  
145 of emotions within urban planning. However, the majority of them have kept their focus on the  
146 planner side of the equation rather than on the users' side. Most of them recognise that planners  
147 should positively address emotions but very few have put the emphasis on citizens' emotional  
148 interactions with the urban environments itself. This should not be the case if we were to truly  
149 understand the relationship between emotions and urban spaces. Hence, by linking it to public  
150 participations and the developments of digital tools, the next subsection will review some of the  
151 literature and studies around the spatial-emotional interactions of the city's users as its main focus to  
152 understand the significance of emotions in urban planning field.

### 153 *1.3.3 Digital Tools as Means for Measuring Emotions*

154 Recent technological developments have allowed the incorporation of emotions in public  
155 participation within the planning field. It also allows current urban planners to increase their  
156 understanding of the relationship between citizens and urban spaces by measuring their emotions  
157 using newly developed digital tools. Most of the studies around this topic can largely be divided into  
158 three categories based on the tools they have used to extract emotional data either through: 1) social  
159 media, 2) mobile apps, or 3) physiological wearable devices. The similarities within all of these studies  
160 and perhaps the most important one for incorporating emotional experiences in spatial analysis is  
161 the capability to cross reference emotional data with accurate locational data i.e. the ability to geo-  
162 locate those data to a specific place within a city. For example, under the first category, Mislove et al.  
163 [22] extract the moods of people from different cities by mining information on social media, in this  
164 case, Twitter.

165 This information however tends to be at a low level of granularity; it is generally at a large spatial  
166 scale such as city, state or region and not collected at a detailed spatial level, such as a street or a city  
167 centre. Nevertheless, there are other recent research on mining emotional responses towards  
168 particular spaces from social media such as Tauscher and Neumann [23] who generated sentiment  
169 maps of tourist locations. Hauthal and Burghardt [24] and Aiello et al., [25] both extract location-  
170 based emotions from photo titles, descriptions, and tags from Panoramio and Flickr respectively to  
171 generate maps of specific streets within various cities with emotional attributes. Mody et al designed  
172 a location-based socialnetworking tool that enables users to share and store their emotional feelings  
173 about places 'WiMo' [26]. They found that it was possible to create a recognisable and useable  
174 framework for gathering users individual emotional responses in a shared map interface. Key to this  
175 was defining 'places' rather than distinct geographical locations as these elicited an emotional  
176 response. Meanwhile, Zeile et al., [27] has established a dedicated algorithm to source emotional  
177 expressions from Twitter before plotting them onto the map of downtown Boston.

178 Some researchers have started to focus on developing mobile apps, to gather users' wellbeing  
179 and feelings and to relate them to the geographic reference of their occurrence. For example, Ettema  
180 and Smajic (2015) utilised smartphones to gather self-recorded experiences of students during a walk.  
181 They have then later found out that the level of happiness was the highest in areas where many  
182 activities were happening and where a lot of people were around (Ettema and Smajic, 2015).  
183 MacKerron and Mourato (2013) in their project "Mappiness" used an iPhone app to collect frequent  
184 reports of temporary happiness at random times. They found that participants are generally happier  
185 in green or natural environments than in urban environments (MacKerron and Mourato, 2013).  
186 Similarly, Klettner et al., (2013) designed mobile apps called EmoMap to collect people's emotional

187 responses to space through mobile phones, as well as modelling, and visualizing these data. The  
188 findings indicate that environments varying according to the amount of vegetation and traffic are  
189 perceived differently, with highest positive ratings for the urban-green area, and lowest ratings in  
190 the heavy traffic urban area (Klettner et al., 2013).

191 While semantic analysis from social media data and citizen feedbacks from mobile apps offer  
192 subjective evaluations on emotional experience of participants, physiological emotional extraction  
193 technique using wearable devices propose the investigation of the more objective element of  
194 emotions. This is on the basis that physiological responses would provide useful indications of the  
195 users' current emotional states when they interact with the physical environment. Over the last ten  
196 years, some urban researchers have been investigating this relationship and Nold's [28] 'emotional  
197 cartography' is perhaps the most significant in laying a fundamental underpinning to explore the  
198 changes in physiology in the urban space. His "BioMapping" project done between the year 2004 to  
199 2009 was the first to integrate GPS data with biometric human sensor data and explore the idea to  
200 visualise cartographically referenced emotional data. In the fieldworks, he gathered the change of the  
201 skin conductance levels of the participants as they walk in a number of cities using a wearable device,  
202 in this case a galvanic skin response (GSR) device, then have it mapped based on their GPS locations  
203 to describe areas in terms of emotional arousal [28].

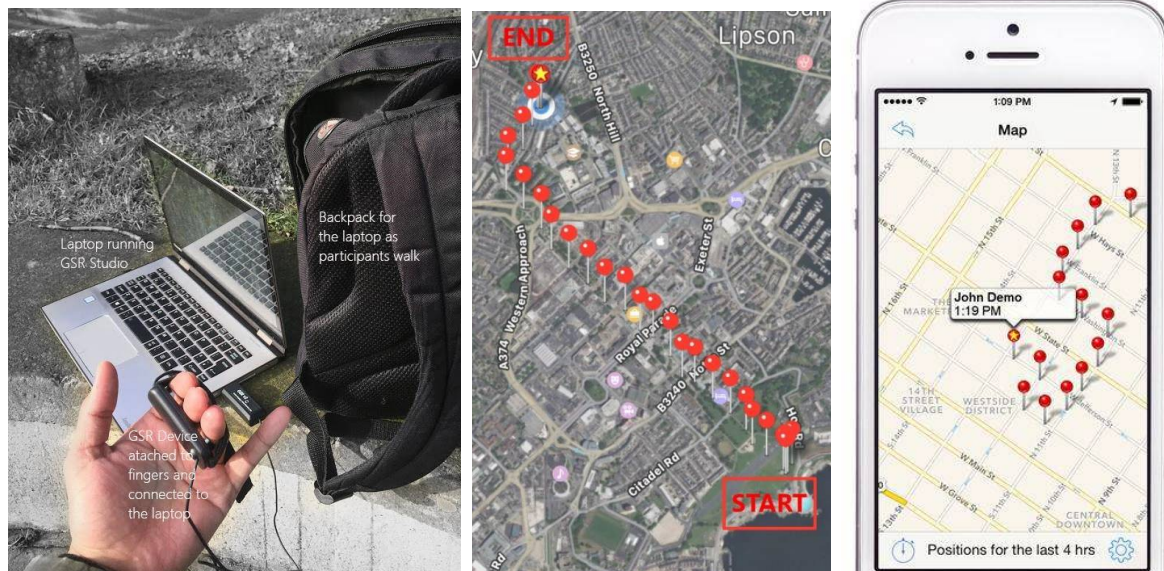
204 Similar work was done by Zeile et al. [29] who mapped the stress levels of cyclists in Cambridge,  
205 Massachusetts by measuring skin conductance levels during their ride using a GSR device. Apart  
206 from that, they have also attached a video recording device to allow footages to be taken along the  
207 route in order to accurately understand what caused the physiological changes in their participants  
208 [29]. A dedicated smartphone app was then used to allow geo-tagged reporting of the experiment.  
209 Their findings include the detection of what caused negative arousal in cyclists and they found out  
210 that the triggers include dangerous intersections, physical obstacles, pedestrians crossing, cars  
211 passing close by and damaged road surface [29]. They have also mapped the cycling route with all  
212 the moments of stress and triggers as well as some specific emotions based on the input from the  
213 participants and their rides.

214 The studies conducted by Nold [28] and Zeile et al. [29] all benefited from the use of the GSR  
215 device that offers physiological data collection of emotions of the participants. As the GSR device  
216 measures levels of emotional arousal through the change in skin conductance and resistance levels,  
217 these data can be easily quantified resulting in a more objective measure of emotions rather than just  
218 qualitative. This method is valuable since objective measurement of emotions has proven to be  
219 beneficial in terms of producing a more accurate representation of emotions. Hence, the next  
220 subsection will explore the mechanism operating the GSR device and its uses in measuring negative  
221 emotional arousal within the field. As mentioned previously, not many exploratory studies to date  
222 [28-30] have attempted to objectively investigate the relationship between emotions and physical  
223 environments by using physiological responses methods. Nevertheless, their work has laid important  
224 theoretical and methodological foundations for integrating the use of galvanic skin response (GSR)  
225 within urban spatial analysis and city planning, hence, presents a new model to address the  
226 relationship between emotions and urban spaces.

227

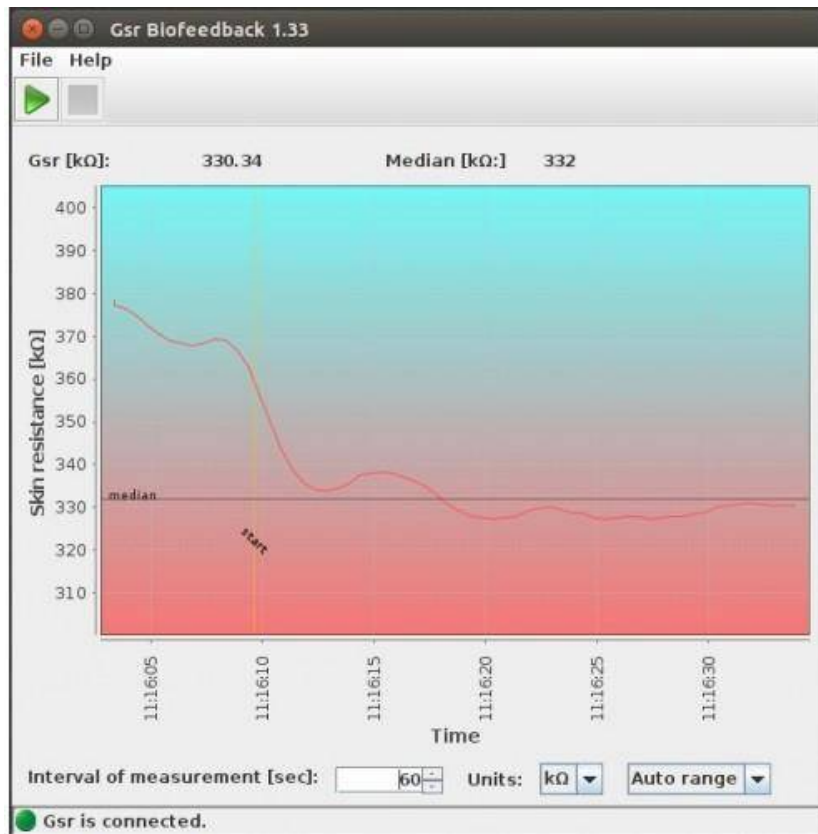
## 228 2. Materials and Methods

229 In this study, individual participants were asked to walk through a specific route in the city,  
 230 whilst linked up to a galvanic skin response (GSR) device attached to their fingers and a GPS tracker  
 231 app (Figure 2) in a backpack which they carried.



232 **Figure 2** Experiment set-up consist of a GSR device, a laptop, and a backpack linked to a GPS Phone  
 233 Tracker App that was used to track participants location at 1-minute intervals during the walk

234 Stress levels were measured using the GSR device which operates by detecting the subtle change  
 235 in sweat secretion from eccrine sweat glands. During the fieldwork, the GSR device is first fixed to  
 236 participants' fingers and then connected to a laptop that runs an accompanying software called "GSR  
 237 Studio" (Figure 3) that records changes detected by the GSR device and automatically plots a readable  
 238 graph of skin resistance levels against time. The GSR data was then read in conjunction with features  
 239 and characteristics of the urban setting to identify how this correlated to stress levels. The GSR device  
 240 used in this study is a relatively low cost and low-tech piece of equipment (with basic devices costing  
 241 under €150), and requires no specialist training prior to use.



242

243 Figure 3 GSR Studio software plots data into graph in real time. (photo from supplier)

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## 2.2 Participants

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A total of 9 participants, 3 males and 6 females, aged between 23-28 years old were recruited for the study. They were selected based on the criteria that they had lived in the city for between 1-3 years, so that they had some basic equivalence in terms of the background spatial knowledge of the setting. All of them were international students at the University of Plymouth. The relatively low number of participant's means that this study is exploratory and results are presented primarily through qualitative analysis.

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## 2.3 Setting

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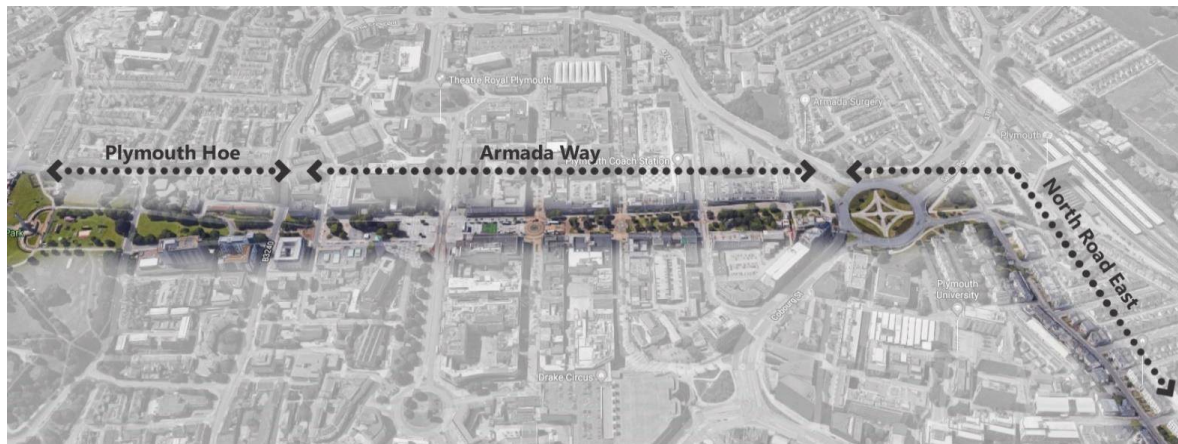
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The route was chosen primarily because it covers three distinct areas in Plymouth City Centre. Participants were asked to walk from Plymouth Hoe, a popular recreational park in Plymouth, continuing their walk through Armada Way, a pedestrianized area, and ending at the North Road East (Figure 4), a walk which took about twenty minutes in total.

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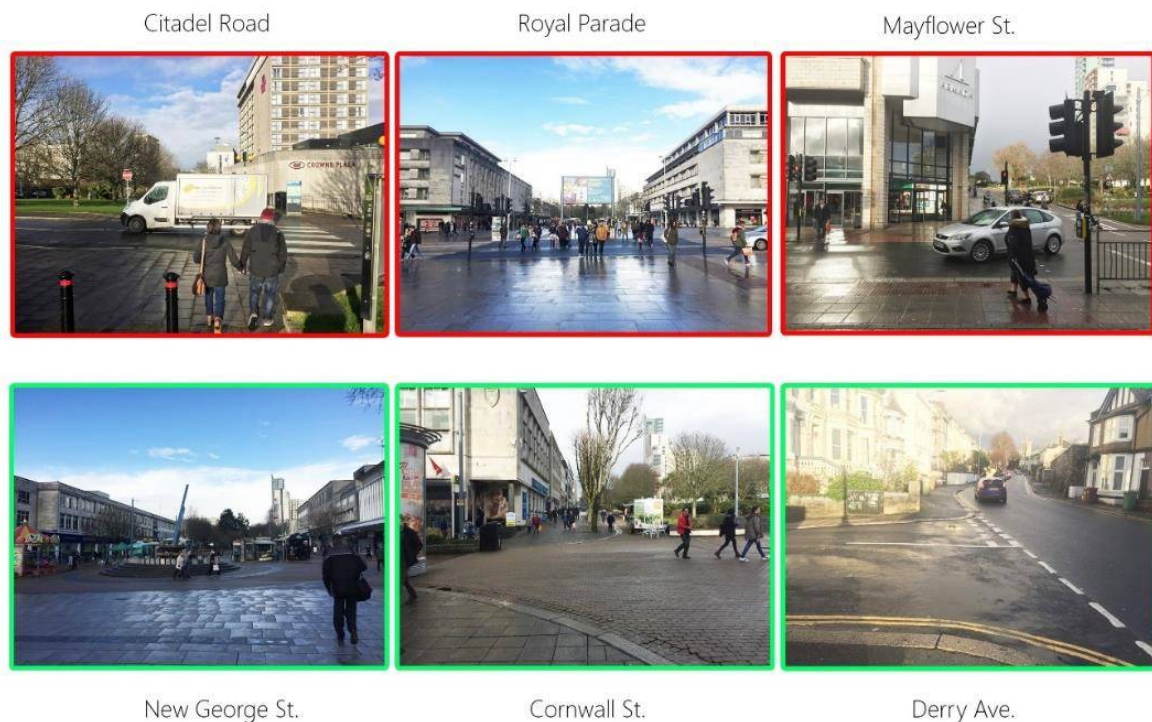
257 Figure 4 Study Route – Participants start walking from Plymouth Hoe, through Armada Way and  
 258 ends in North Road East.

259 The route chosen for this study consists of three distinct areas summarized in the table below  
 260 (Table 1):

Name	Type of Space	Characteristics
Plymouth Hoe	Park	Fully pedestrianised greenspace with the least traffic
Armada Way	Urban pedestrianised	A mix of both pedestrianised area and traffic (with some green space and natural features)
North Road East	Urban road	Busy road with very limited natural features

261 Table 1: Names and types of spaces along the walking route

262 The route included a number of junctions with varying levels of car and pedestrian traffic  
 263 summarized in the table below (see Figure 5 and Table 2):



264

265 **Figure 5** Participant's walking route – main crossings or junctions along the route



Name	Type of Space	Characteristics
Citadel Road	Busy road junction	Busy road with high levels of traffic
Royal Parade	Busy road, with busy pedestrian crossing	Busy road with high levels of traffic, including buses and taxis. Main pedestrian crossing of city centre with high pedestrian traffic
Mayflower Street	Road junction	Busy road
New George Street	Pedestrianised	Fully pedestrianised wide shopping avenue with high pedestrian traffic
Cornwall Street	Pedestrianised	Fully pedestrianised wide shopping avenue with high pedestrian traffic
Derry Avenue	Quiet road junction	Road with low levels of traffic

266 Table 2: Names and characteristics of road junctions along the walking route

267 There were also twelve identified crossings and junctions along the walking route which require  
 268 participants to cross to get the other side. One of them is in the Plymouth Hoe area, six in the Armada  
 269 Way area and five in the North Road East area. The nature of the setting means, with the different  
 270 types of spaces can be said to correlate to typical regional city centre environments in the UK.

### 271 3. Results

#### 272 3.1. General Change in Participants' Stress Levels

273 The results showed that eight out of nine participants started with higher skin resistance level  
 274 (less sweaty fingers i.e. lower stress levels) and ended the walk with a lower skin resistance level  
 275 (sweatier fingers i.e. higher stress levels) (see Figure 6). As higher skin resistance level equates to  
 276 lower stress levels, the results indicates that almost all the participants felt less stressed at the  
 277 beginning of the walk i.e. at Plymouth Hoe park compared to when they were walking along the  
 278 North Road East at the end of the experiment. Only one participant (participant 06) ended the walk  
 279 at about the same level as when they started it.

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282 **Figure 6** Results - Participants find Plymouth Hoe to be the least stressful area while North Road East  
 283 to be the most stressful area.

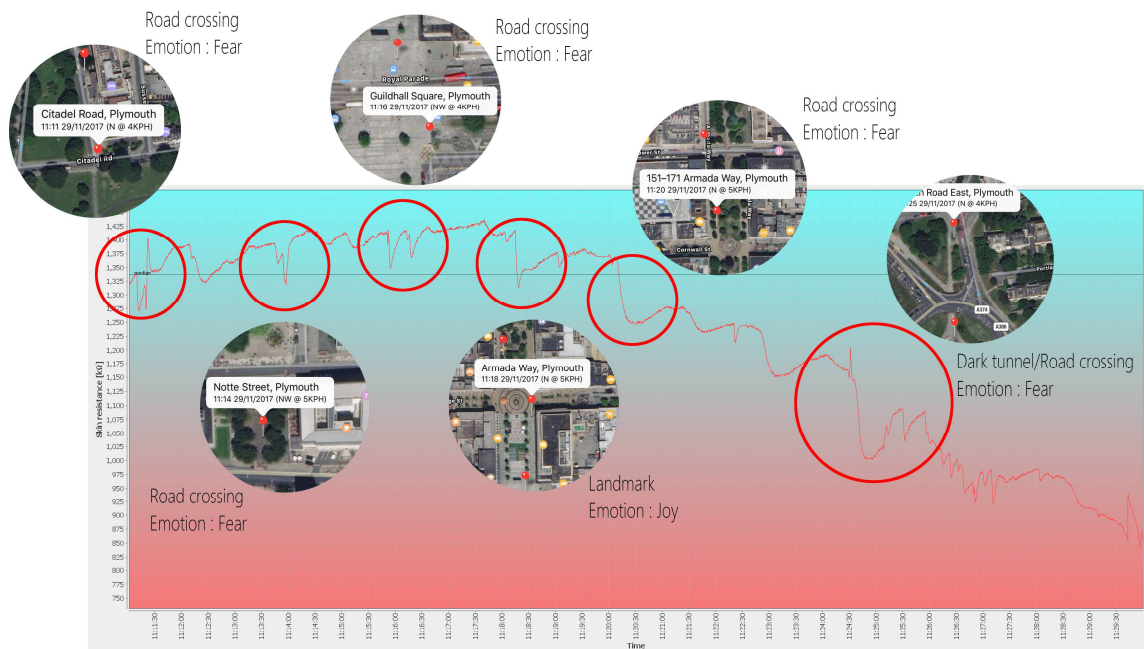
284 It could also be observed that seven out of nine participant's recorded the lowest stress levels  
 285 (their highest level of skin resistance) at the start of the walk in Plymouth Hoe than any other area of  
 286 the walking route. Their stress level gradually increased throughout the journey as they enter  
 287 Armada Way and ended at the highest level at the end of North Road East. This result indicates that  
 288 most participants find Plymouth Hoe park to be the least stressful area followed by Armada Way  
 289 and then North Road East, where most participants find it to be most stressful. Two out of the nine  
 290 participants (participant 02 and 06) on the other hand recorded their lowest stress levels when they  
 291 were walking in the Armada Way. However, both of their stress levels then changed dramatically as  
 292 it steeply increased when they entered the North Road East area.

293 Further analysis on the participants' stress levels can be made by drawing trend lines of their  
 294 individual graphs for each area along the walking route. From the results it can be observed that the  
 295 highest number of participants (5 out of 9 people) recorded an increasing level of skin resistance while  
 296 walking through Plymouth Hoe. This further emphasises that most participants find Plymouth Hoe  
 297 to be the least stressful place as their level of stress decreases as they walk through the park.  
 298 Meanwhile, as participants walk through Armada Way, five participants experienced increasing  
 299 stress levels compared to the number of people who experience decreasing stress levels (4  
 300 participants). At North Road East, all of the nine participants recorded a decreasing skin resistance  
 301 level. This further emphasises that North Road East is the most stressful area compared to the other  
 302 two areas as all of the participant's stress levels increased as they walked along the road.

303

## 304 3.2. Change in Stress Levels at Crossings and Junctions

305 Another clear finding from this study is the relationship road crossings and junctions have with  
 306 the change in stress levels of the participants. A typical participant is shown in Figure 7 with the  
 307 crossings and stress levels indicated. The overall results (see Figure 8, 9 and 10) show that all of the  
 308 crossings have at least three people experiencing a sudden increase in stress levels (a sudden drop in  
 309 skin resistance level). Crossings at Citadel Road, Royal Parade, and Mayflower Street (see Figure 8)  
 310 recorded the highest number of participants (i.e. all of the 6 participants) experiencing a sudden  
 311 increase in stress levels. Derry Avenue crossing and junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St.,  
 312 on the contrary, recorded the lowest number of participants (3 participants) that experienced the  
 313 sudden increase in stress levels (see Figure 9). The other 3 participants recorded generally unchanged  
 314 stress levels when encountering these roads. Crossings at Citadel Road, Royal Parade and Mayflower  
 315 St. are notably busier than junctions at New George St., Cornwall St., and Derry Ave. This resulted  
 316 in more participants experiencing a sudden increase in stress levels at the former 3 crossings rather  
 317 than at the latter 3. In fact, junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St. are at a fully pedestrianised  
 318 area thus have no traffic presence.



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Figure 7 Typical participant's stress graph with crossing indicated



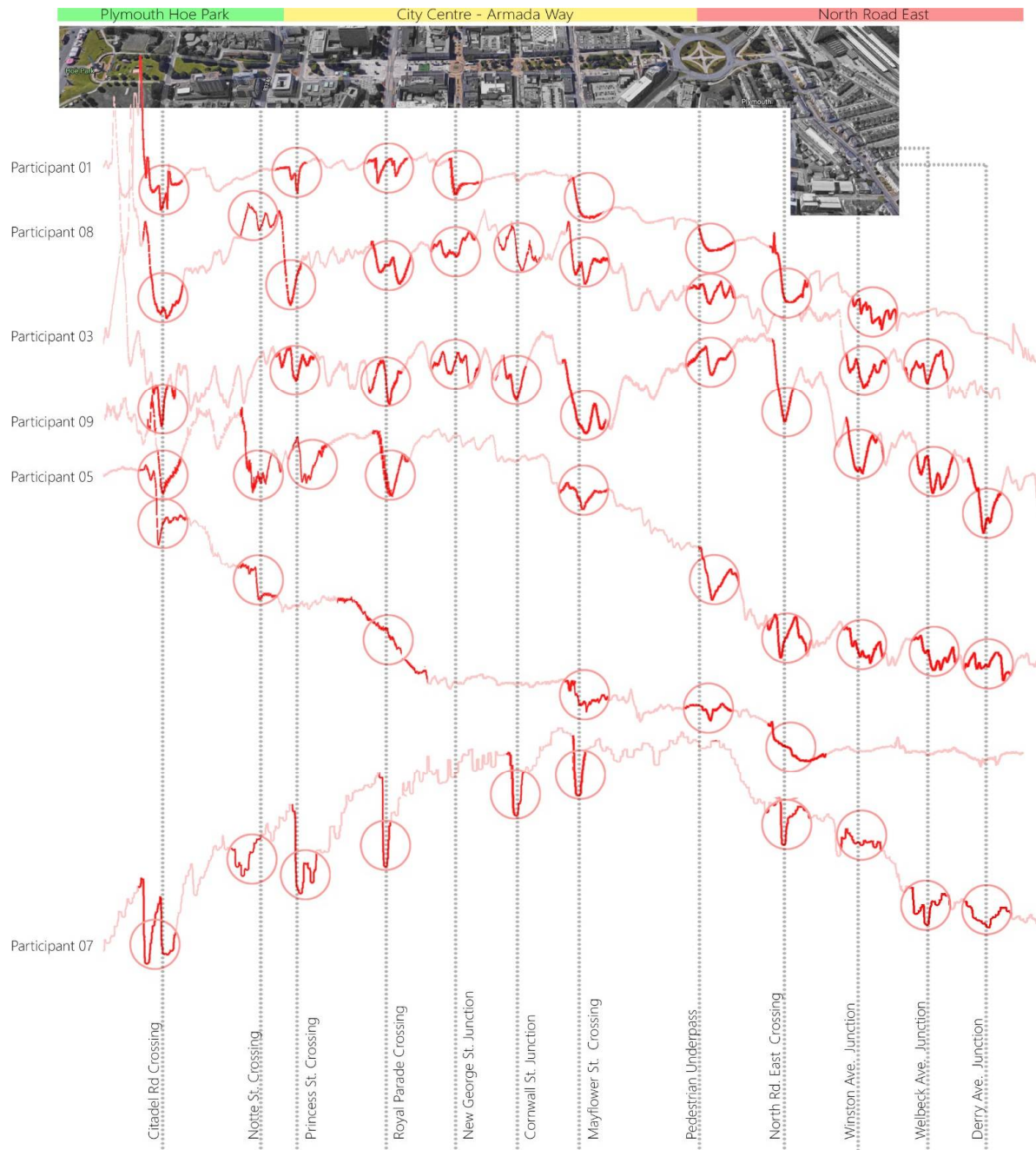
321 Figure 8 Crossings at Citadel Road, Royal Parade and Mayflower Street recorded the highest number  
 322 of participants (all of the 6 participants) experiencing a sudden increase in stress levels.

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326 Figure 9 Derry Ave. crossing and junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St. on the contrary,  
 327 recorded the lowest number of participants (3 participants) that experience the sudden increase in  
 328 stress levels.



329  
 330 Figure 10 Overall results from all of the 6 participants with their graphs cross referenced with their  
 331 GPS locational data. It could be noted that all of the crossings have at least 3 people experiencing a  
 332 sudden drop in skin resistance level which equates to a sudden increase in stress levels.

### 333 3.3. Relationship between Stress Levels and the Presence of Traffic and Natural Features

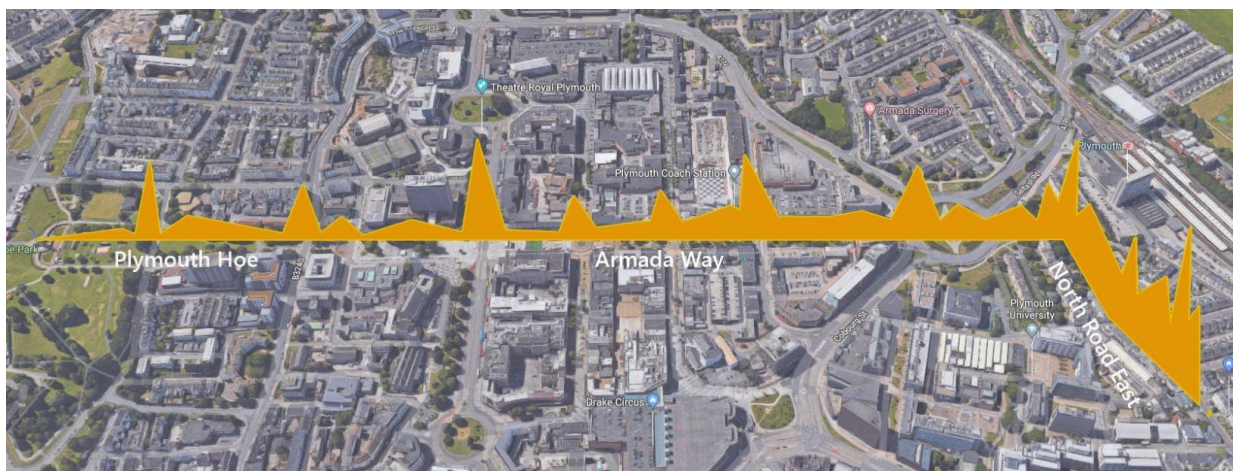
334 These different characteristics of each type of urban space encountered on the walk provides a  
 335 clear variable which allows this paper to narrow down its research i.e. the relationship between  
 336 emotions and physical environment can be studied in a more explicit manner. This means that the  
 337 connection emotions have with specific urban features, in this case the presence of traffics and natural  
 338 features, can be established more clearly. One observation that could be made from the findings is  
 339 that area which was had the most 'green' space and natural features (Plymouth Hoe) created a  
 340 generally less stressful environment for the participants. In contrast, areas with relatively less green  
 341 space caused participants to feel more stressed. This observation is supported by many other  
 342 previous studies such as MacKerron and Mourato's [31] "Mappiness" project and Klettner et al., [32]  
 343 EmoMap project which have shown that green or natural environments have positive effects on  
 344 emotions.

345 The results suggest that participants feel the least stressed at areas where the traffic levels were  
 346 low and vice versa exhibited higher stress levels at busy roads. This can also explain the difference in  
 347 number of participants experiencing increase in stress levels at different junctions along the route. It  
 348 was noted that Citadel Road, Royal Parade, and Mayflower Street junctions in particular have the  
 349 most number of people experiencing the sudden increase in stress levels as they are significantly  
 350 busier crossings than the others. Crossings at New George St., and Cornwall St. on the other hand  
 351 have the least number of people experiencing sudden increase in stress levels because they are  
 352 notably calmer and less busy in terms of traffic presence. In fact, junctions at New George St. and  
 353 Cornwall St. are fully pedestrianised areas and thus the levels of traffic presence at these areas are  
 354 actually zero. Previous studies, particularly, Klettner et al., [32] in their EmoMap project supported  
 355 this claim as they have also found that participants give the lowest positive ratings (in terms of  
 356 emotional response) when they are in an urban area with heavy traffic.

## 357 4. Discussion

### 358 4.1. Stress Hotspots and Urban Planning Features

359 The aggregate stress levels for all of the participants, where combined data was visualised and  
 360 projected onto the map of the city centre (see Figure 11) show a clear correlation between stress  
 361 hotspots and urban features. There are 'bursts' of increased stress levels along the route whenever  
 362 participants encounter road junctions along the walk. These bursts can be used to represent stress  
 363 hotspots in the city. In addition, the figure also shows that as participants walk from Plymouth Hoe  
 364 to North Road East, their stress level gradually increases, providing another useful understanding to  
 365 how different areas within the city affect the level of stress of their inhabitants.



366 Figure 11. Aggregate stress levels for all of the participants combined and visualised onto the map of  
 367 Plymouth City Centre. All the participants recorded 'bursts' of stress at crossings and junctions.

368 These findings show clear links between emotional response and corresponding characteristics of  
 369 urban spaces:

- 370 • Areas with more green space and natural features result in creating a less stressful environment  
 371 for the participants (e.g. Plymouth Hoe).
- 372 • Areas with higher levels of urban traffic (more cars) result in creating a more stressful  
 373 environment for the participants (e.g. North Road East).
- 374 • Road crossings and junctions result in 'bursts' or sudden increase in stress level towards the  
 375 participants (e.g. Royal Parade).

376 In related work, Nold (2009), Zeile et al. (2015) and Shoval et al., (2017) found that emotional  
 377 data mapped against high-resolution spatial analysis could have potential for informing urban  
 378 planning decision making [30]. This tends to relate to enabling citizens to gain access to self-generated  
 379 sources of data, which enables a more informed understanding of issues in their urban environment.

380 For example, Nold stated that the Greenwich Emotion Map derived from his BioMapping project  
381 could “continues to be a discussion point and is of use in identifying and solidifying local issues of  
382 concern” [28]. Meanwhile, Shoval et al., [30] recognised that products of such analysis “lead to  
383 important insights into how people perceive and interact emotionally with the urban environment;  
384 it can therefore be of great use in an improved planning process” [30]. Zeile et al. have acknowledged  
385 that their results can be used “as a source of information to help improve bicycle traffic planning and  
386 to identify hotspots in urban planning deficiencies” [33]. There are, of course, recognized and valid  
387 issues around the ethics and nature of consent around crowdsourcing urban data. For instance  
388 Gabrys argues that ‘enabling citizens to monitor their activities convert these citizens into unwitting  
389 gatherers and providers of data’ that can be used for political or commercial purposes beyond that  
390 which citizens are aware of [34]. But when used by the citizen for their own benefit Haklay asserts  
391 that ‘the act of mapping itself can be an act of asserting presence, rights to be heard or expression of  
392 personal beliefs in the way that the world should evolve and operate’ [35]

393 Emotional data can offer a new layer of information and provide new dimensions for both urban  
394 planners and citizens to understand the city they live in. Through the identification of stress hotspots  
395 in this study, areas with high level of stress in a city could be identified and given more attention by  
396 the local’s urban planning discussions. Whilst this study is small scale in terms of the number of  
397 participants, the nature of the findings does indicate that the method could be replicated with larger  
398 number of participants to increase the level of data and coverage. The understanding gained from  
399 this analysis would help create a readily available layer of information to help planners easily identify  
400 potentially problematic area within the city, even before any planning projects were even considered.  
401 Whilst this study was undertaken in an existing city space, there is also the potential to draw some  
402 more general conclusions that could inform urban design proposals. It could therefore provide better  
403 insights of the city and its inhabitants - enabling a new citizen-centered perspective in urban planning  
404 processes.

#### 405 4.2. *Physiological Data for Citizen-Centric Participatory Planning*

406 In addition to the provision of a new information layer within urban planning analysis, the  
407 gathering of citizens’ emotional data through physiological responses methods could also bring  
408 forward a more human-centric approach to participation in the city planning process. Unlike  
409 traditional forms of urban planning participation such as public meetings, consultations and  
410 hearings, this study suggests that humans, as the users of a city, could provide qualitative emotional  
411 data to contribute to a participatory planning process. Jacobs [10] pointed out an important change  
412 in urban planning procedures which includes bottom up processes of participation that proactively  
413 involve citizens in urban change. This study has benefited from the use physiological sensor  
414 technology to directly, objectively and cheaply measure citizens’ emotions which means that their  
415 emotional experience of the city. Scaled up, this approach would mean that a city could involve  
416 citizens in providing emotional data that would regularly provide new emotional data near real-time  
417 and as a readily available information layer to the city council. The model used in this study was for  
418 citizens to gather their own data and share it with others in order to understand their experience of  
419 the city in a more quantitative manner.

420 When reviewed against Arnstein’s [14] ‘Ladder of Participation’, this method of using  
421 physiological device to gather citizens’ emotional data would still fall under tokenism at either  
422 ‘consultation’ or ‘placation’ rung of the ladder. This is because participants of this study only provide  
423 emotional data input and do not have the actual power to influence how the data will be used in  
424 urban planning process. In the end, city planners still play a central role in planning decisions.  
425 However, the lack of ‘citizen power’ in this participatory method could be outweighed by the fact  
426 that using physiological sensing technology such as the GSR provides an accurate and objective data  
427 resource of citizens’ emotions. It could also potentially be done at scale to create a large information  
428 database. During a traditional consultation process, citizens would subjectively express concerns  
429 about a planning project and the relevant authority would re-evaluate the project based on their  
430 feedback. In this citizen sensing participatory planning approach however, there is no need to wait

431 until a planning project is established before actions or decisions could be made. In fact, the collection  
 432 of emotional data can be continuous and ongoing and can be used at any time to inform any new  
 433 planning projects. Therefore, for as long as the emotional data inputs from citizens influence the  
 434 outcome of any planning decisions, even without any exercise of 'power', this form of participatory  
 435 process could move beyond tokenism towards Arnstein's model of 'citizen power'.

## 436 5. Conclusions

437 Current urban planning procedures view participation as a fundamental element to the process.  
 438 Nevertheless, many academics in the field have critiqued to how it is implemented, with some of  
 439 them claiming that the current participation methods do not achieve genuine participation (reference  
 440 here). However digital participation using technologies such as physiological sensing devices,  
 441 smartphones, and GPS technology present opportunities for a more effective and human-centred  
 442 approach to participatory planning. This paper explores the potential of citizen's emotional data to  
 443 inform understanding of urban spaces within a participatory planning procedure. This approach  
 444 benefits from the use of digital tools such as the galvanic skin response (GSR) and GPS devices to  
 445 objectively measure emotional response of people to a geo-located urban space.

446 The study presents a potential methodological contribution in terms of the incorporation of  
 447 physiological sensing device and GPS tracking technologies for objective measures of emotional data  
 448 in urban environments. The results prove that there is a significant relationship between humans and  
 449 the physical environments and by objectively measuring and analysing the data, this method  
 450 provides innovative opportunities for urban planners to understand how citizens relate and interact  
 451 emotionally to the city's urban environment. The data gathered through this approach could add a  
 452 new dimension in the form of a new additional layer of information in urban planning analysis to  
 453 assist urban planners in decision making process.

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