

Engaging the Senses: The Potential of Emotional Data as a New Information Layer in Urban Planning

Fathullah, A

<http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/14841>

10.20944/preprints201807.0073.v1

All content in PEARL is protected by copyright law. Author manuscripts are made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the details provided on the item record or document. In the absence of an open licence (e.g. Creative Commons), permissions for further reuse of content should be sought from the publisher or author.

Fathullah, A.; Willis, K.S. **Engaging the Senses: The Potential of Emotional Data for Participation in Urban Planning.** *Urban Sci.* 2018, 2, 98.

1 Article

2 **Engaging the Senses: The Potential of Emotional** 3 **Data for Participation in Urban Planning**

4 **Afif Fathullah and Katharine S. Willis**

5 School of Art, Design and Architecture (Faculty of Arts and Humanities), Roland Levinsky Building, Drake
6 Circus, Plymouth, Devon, PL4 8AA, United Kingdom; afif.fathullah@students.plymouth.ac.uk

7 * Correspondence: katharine.willis@plymouth.ac.uk; Tel.: + 44 1752 585191

8 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

9 **Abstract:** This paper presents an exploratory study on the potential for sharing urban data; one where
10 citizens create their own data and use it to understand and influence urban planning decisions. The
11 aim of the study is to explore new models of participation through the sharing of emotional data and
12 focuses on the relationship between the physical space and emotions through identifying the links
13 between stress levels and specific features of the urban environment. It addresses the problem in
14 urban planning that, while people's emotional connection with the physical urban setting is often
15 valued, it is rarely recognised or used as a source of data to understand future decision making. The
16 method involved participants using a (GSR) device linked to location data to measure participant's
17 emotional responses along a walking route in a city centre environment. Results show correlations
18 between characteristics of the urban environment and stress levels, as well as how specific features
19 of the city spaces create stress 'peaks'. In the discussion we review how the data obtained could
20 contribute to citizens creating their own information layer—an emotional layer—that could inform a
21 shared approach to participation in urban planning decision-making. The future implications of the
22 application of this method as an approach to public participation in urban planning are also
23 considered.

24 **Keywords:** emotions; participation; digital participation; physiological sensors; galvanic skin
25 response; GSR; stress levels; emotional layer; urban
26

27 1. Introduction – Sharing Cities

28 A sharing cities approach focuses on bring local people together through shared activities and
29 cooperation for the benefit of the city and includes initiatives such as carsharing, community
30 currencies, cohousing, hackerspaces, timebanks and tool or kitchen libraries. These new forms of
31 sharing, enabled by technological devices and platforms [1] work by enabling citizens to create, adapt
32 and exploit data[2] and can create new ways in which citizens participate in the governance of the
33 city. For example, civic apps, developed by citizens, civic organisations and commercial companies
34 [3] have become widespread and typically create some form of two-way interaction where citizens
35 contribute to commenting on or providing data on public services usually offered by the city such as
36 crime prevention, rubbish collection, public transportation and pollution reduction. McLaren and
37 Agymen present as new model for collaboration and sharing around the city where “the same
38 measures that enable sharing online, also – if civil liberties are properly protected – enable collective
39 politics online. We see the increasingly blurred nexus between urban- and cyberspace enabling
40 transformation – this time in the political domain. These spaces are fundamentally important for
41 forms of participation invented and controlled by the people” [4]. This takes a model of participation,
42 or sharing data that is termed ‘co-production’ whereby ‘citizens perform the role of partner rather
43 than customer in the delivery of public services’ [5]. The challenge is how to enable citizens who are
44 non-experts to gather, analyse and share data in a way that can meaningfully contribute to urban
45 planning processes. The aim of this paper is to look at the potential of emotional data for enabling

46 participation in urban planning, that contributes towards a shared cities approach. The objective of
 47 this approach to propose that a sharing emotional data can enable better insights of the city and its
 48 inhabitants which could lead to a citizen-centred approach in urban planning processes

49 We take the approach that sharing practices present an alternative model of participation in city
 50 decision-making. Conventional citizen participation methods in city planning are typically linear and
 51 include referenda, public hearings, public surveys, charettes, public advisory committees or focus
 52 groups which often require the participants to be physical present at particular time and place (see
 53 Figure 1). The qualitative nature of data gathering and sharing means that citizens that have input
 54 into such consultations typically participate through methods such as completing surveys and
 55 contributing verbal comments, which are qualitative in nature and require further analysis to be used
 56 effectively. These forms of data are not easily translatable into the types and format of data and
 57 outcomes that are used by urban planners; such as urban plans, maps and GIS data. In addition
 58 factors such as the time required of citizens to participate often results in apathy among citizens [6],
 59 so that actual participation rarely represents a majority of inhabitants or involves the full range of
 60 stakeholders [7].
 61



62

63 Figure 1. Current model of participation in Urban Planning process

64 Digital technologies can address some of the issues of participation in the urban planning
 65 process by enabling a more accessible system for the public to shape their neighbourhood's future
 66 [8]. Munster et al. outline potential advantages of digital participation which include the utilisation
 67 of wider pool of knowledge through broader audience and participants, which creates an interactive
 68 and communication-oriented planning process [9]. They can lower barriers for participation, involve
 69 a wider range of participants, and by enabling people to discuss urban design proposals in place can
 70 foster interest in public participation [9]. This offers new perspectives for designers and planners to
 71 “transforming planning work into an iterative, agile work process, in contrast to sequential and linear
 72 workflows that have shaped urban design practice in the past” [10]. Crivellaro et al. [11] have looked
 73 at how local people use data sharing through Facebook to mobilise around a local social movement.
 74 They recognised the importance of forming a like-minded community, but also acknowledged the
 75 struggle of the group to translate their emotions to the authority and decision makers. Hasler et al.
 76 [12] in another research found that the multiplication and diversity of contributions by citizens
 77 through digital participation increases complexity which means that prioritising relevant data can be
 78 problematic. This illustrates how data sharing can facilitate discussions that are planning-related, but
 79 turning them into actionable policies proven to be difficult. The research question this paper therefore
 80 seeks to explore is: Can sharing emotional data offer a method for participation in the urban planning
 81 process?

82 The paper presents a potential methodological contribution in terms of the incorporation of
 83 physiological sensing device and GPS tracking technologies for measure and analysing emotional
 84 data in urban environments. To do this, we first review the literature on the urban planning process,
 85 showing how the development of the discipline has sought to enable citizen participation. This is
 86 mapped against Arnstein's ‘Ladder of Participation’ to highlight how much of this participation
 87 typically does not enable citizens to control and act in the process, and is therefore the participation
 88 is often tokenistic. The potential of incorporating digital tools for participation is presented, and in
 89 particular, the value of incorporating emotional data as a way of capturing a more person- centric

90 understanding of urban space. In the study described in the paper, a small number of participants
91 used a galvanic skin response (GSR) linked to location data to record stress levels in a walk through
92 an urban city centre space with different characteristics. The findings aim to explore whether this
93 emotional data might have benefit for enabling new models of shared data in urban planning
94 processes.

95 1.1 The Challenge of Participation in the Urban Planning Process

96 “Cities have the capability of providing something for everybody, only because, and only when,
97 they are created by everybody” [13]

98 Many people now live in cities, but despite Jacob’s plea above, very few participate in how they
99 are created, designed and planned. Therefore, the contribution of this study addresses the following
100 broader question: ‘how to enable meaningful participation in the urban planning process?’ To do this,
101 the paper first provides some context on how urban planning evolved and the developing role of
102 participation. The origins of urban planning in the western world in the early 20th Century, were
103 heavily influenced by the rational-comprehensive approach where the planning sequence involves:
104 a survey of the region, an analysis of the survey, and finally the development of the plan [14]. Hall
105 [15] argued that Geddes “gave planning a logical structure” by developing the survey-analysis-plan
106 sequence of planning. However, this method of planning has been criticised to be too top-down;
107 seeing the planner as “the omniscient ruler, who should create new settlement forms without
108 interference or question” [15] as well as being too reductionist as planners have to make assumptions
109 and predictions which required them to have complete certainty [16]. This then caused the planners
110 to proceed on the basis of simplifying the world around them which later led to a lot of failure of the
111 predictions [16]. The failures of the rational-comprehensive approach in urban planning led it to
112 being succeeded by synoptic planning approach in 1960s and Hall argued that this change represents
113 a fundamental shift in the role of the planners and their relationship with the public. However, Faludi
114 [16] argued that this early form of participation was still based on the assumption that the society is
115 homogenous – implying the homogeneity of interest. This means that participation is only required
116 to validate and uncritically legitimise the goals of planning and any objection to planning proposal
117 tends to be stigmatised [16].

118 Even when public participation has become an integral part of current urban planning process,
119 Innes and Booher [6] argued that they still “do not achieve genuine participation”. This is because
120 current form of public participation does not satisfy members of the public that they are being heard
121 and often does not improve the decisions that agencies and public officials make and [6]. The
122 scepticism posed by Innes and Booher [6] to the way that current participation is being practiced
123 could be traced back to Arnstein’s widely known ‘Ladder of Participation’ [17]. As she put it, “there
124 is a critical difference between going through the empty ritual of participation and having the real
125 power needed to affect the outcomes of the process” [17]. The fundamental point of these criticisms
126 was that if urban planners seek public participation, it is necessary that there be a redistribution of
127 power [17]. She regarded power in public participation as a ladder or a spectrum ranging from
128 ‘nonparticipation’ through to ‘degrees of citizen power’ (see Figure 2), which correspond to the
129 degree of power or control participants can exercise in the quest of shaping the outcome. The ladder
130 outlines steps of public participation from manipulation (level 1), education (level 3), and
131 consultation (level 4), through to sharing power through ‘partnership’ (level 6) and beyond.

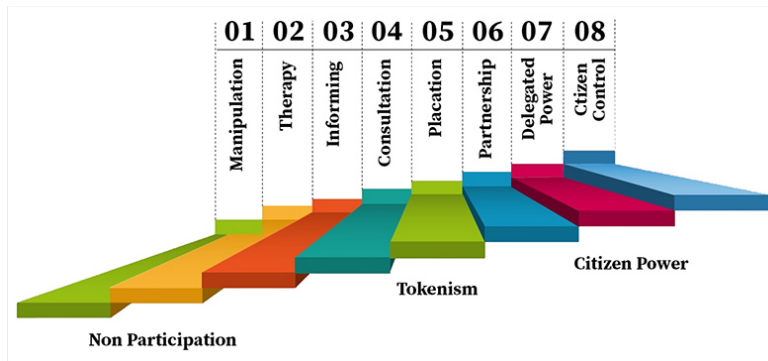


Figure 2. Arnstein's Ladder of Participation

132

133

134 Notably, Arnstein's framework regards consultation as 'tokenism' similar to the way Innes and
 135 Booher [6] viewed the level of public participation in current urban planning process. However,
 136 Painter [18] argued against Arnstein's analysis by stating that her ladder of participation model
 137 inaccurately apprehends power i.e. it confuses 'potential power' with 'actual power' [18]. While the
 138 official decision-making power may rest with institutional decision-makers in a consultation process,
 139 to regard the process as tokenistic disregards the fact that "if the exercise of influence [by participants]
 140 is effective, then this formal power is an empty shell" [18], p.23). He also argues that Arnstein's model
 141 often assume decision-making in planning occurs at a single point in the process. This ignores the
 142 fact that there is rarely an identifiable, or single, 'point of decision' in policy-making [18]. The primary
 143 value of this discussion is that it exposes that participation in planning can include the exercise of
 144 both formal and informal power. Hence, having power in decision-making processes is not the only
 145 way towards achieving genuine participation, as it could also be realised through ranges of other
 146 participatory activities - as long as the engagement with citizens contribute positively towards the
 147 outcome of a planning project.

148 1.1.1 Emotions and Planning

149 This paper explores whether sharing emotional data about a particular city setting can be used
 150 to inform the urban planning process. Although the link between the built environment and human's
 151 emotional aspects in urban planning research has found a growing interest in recent years, it is still a
 152 rather new approach in the field [19]. In urban planning, planning is seen as an objective process, so
 153 emotion is not seen as qualities or analysis that can be meaningfully included in decision making [20].
 154 They believe that urban planners should avoid allowing emotions to influence their analysis or
 155 recommendations and this is largely due to the fact that urban planners are taught to operate in a
 156 rational manner [20]. Despite the neglect of emotional aspects by many planning officials, there are
 157 also some urban planners who do recognise the importance of emotions within the field. For example,
 158 Lynch [21] recognises the emotional aspect through its link with emotions and mental maps while
 159 Ferreira [22] has urged that emotions should be presented as constructive drives with the power to
 160 positively inspire the planner to become a more competent professional. Porter et al. [23] on the other
 161 hand have claimed that attachments to community members improve the ability of planners to
 162 understand and work with residents while Gunder and Hillier [24] have interpreted planning issues
 163 through a Lacanian psychological model which acknowledge the entire process of becoming and
 164 being a planner is typically associated with strong emotional experiences. These authors have
 165 provided a meaningful theoretical discourse in terms of acknowledging the importance of emotions
 166 within urban planning. However, the majority of them have kept their focus on the planner side of

167 the equation rather than on the users' side. Most of them recognise that planners should positively
168 address emotions but very few have put the emphasis on citizens' emotional interactions with the
169 urban environments itself. This should not be the case if we were to truly understand the relationship
170 between emotions and urban spaces. According to Zeile et al. 'the long-term goal is to develop a new
171 information layer for planners, in which a visualization of the measured spatial perception is possible.
172 These visualizations allow conclusions about human behavior in an urban environment and enable
173 a new citizen-centered perspective in planning processes' (Zeile, Resch, Exner, and Sagl, 2015).
174 Hence, by linking it to public participations and the developments of digital tools, the next subsection
175 will review some of the literature and studies around the spatial-emotional interactions of the city's
176 users as its main focus to understand the significance of emotions in the urban planning field.

177 1.1.2 Digital Tools as Means for Measuring Emotions

178 Recent technological developments have allowed the incorporation of emotions in public
179 participation within the planning field. It also allows current urban planners to increase their
180 understanding of the relationship between citizens and urban spaces by measuring their emotions
181 using newly developed digital tools. Most of the studies around this topic can largely be divided into
182 three categories based on the tools they have used to extract emotional data either through: 1) social
183 media, 2) mobile apps, or 3) physiological wearable devices. The similarities within all of these studies
184 and perhaps the most important one for incorporating emotional experiences in spatial analysis is
185 the capability to cross reference emotional data with accurate locational data i.e. the ability to geo-
186 locate those data to a specific place within a city. For example, under the first category, Mislove et al.
187 [25] extract the moods of people from different cities by mining information on social media, in this
188 case, Twitter. This information however tends to be at a low level of granularity; it is generally at a large
189 spatial scale such as city, state or region and not collected at a detailed spatial level, such as a street
190 or a city centre. Nevertheless, there is other recent research on mining emotional responses towards
191 particular spaces from social media such as Tauscher and Neumann [26] who generated sentiment
192 maps of tourist locations.

193 The Urban Emotion Research Lab developed a methodology for the extraction of contextual
194 emotion information for decision support in spatial planning which enabled crowdsourcing
195 physiological conditions (technical sensors measuring psycho-physiological parameters) and
196 subjective emotions (human sensors contributing subjectively perceived emotions) [27-29] Drawing
197 on this work, Hauthal and Burghardt [30] and Aiello et al., [31] both extract location-based emotions
198 from photo titles, descriptions, and tags from Panoramio and Flickr respectively to generate maps of
199 specific streets within various cities with emotional attributes. Mody et al. designed a location-based
200 social networking tool that enables users to share and store their emotional feelings about places
201 'WiMo' [32]. They found that it was possible to create a recognisable and useable framework for
202 gathering users individual emotional responses in a shared map interface. Key to this was defining
203 'places' rather than distinct geographical locations as these elicited an emotional response.
204 Meanwhile, Zeile et al., [33] has established a dedicated algorithm to source emotional expressions
205 from Twitter before plotting them onto the map of downtown Boston, USA.

206 Some researchers have started to focus on developing mobile apps, to gather users' wellbeing
207 and feelings and to relate them to the geographic reference of their occurrence. For example, Ettema
208 and Smajic (2015) used smartphones to gather self-recorded experiences of students during a walk.
209 They have then later found out that the level of happiness was the highest in areas where many
210 activities were happening and where a lot of people were around (Ettema and Smajic, 2015).
211 MacKerron and Mourato (2013) in their project "Mappiness" used an iPhone app to collect frequent
212 reports of temporary happiness at random times. They found that participants are generally happier
213 in green or natural environments than in urban environments (MacKerron and Mourato, 2013).
214 Similarly, Klettner et al., (2013) designed mobile apps called EmoMap to collect people's emotional
215 responses to space through mobile phones, as well as modelling, and visualizing these data. The
216 findings indicate that environments varying according to the amount of vegetation and traffic are

217 perceived differently, with highest positive ratings for the urban-green area, and lowest ratings in
218 the heavy traffic urban area (Klettner et al., 2013).

219 While semantic analysis from social media data and citizen feedbacks from mobile apps offer
220 subjective evaluations on emotional experience of participants, physiological emotional extraction
221 technique using wearable devices propose the investigation of the more objective element of
222 emotions. This is on the basis that physiological responses would provide useful indications of the
223 users' current emotional states when they interact with the physical environment. Over the last ten
224 years, some urban researchers have been investigating this relationship and Nold's [34] 'emotional
225 cartography' is perhaps the most significant in laying a fundamental underpinning to explore the
226 changes in physiology in the urban space. His 'BioMapping' project, undertaken between the years
227 2004 to 2009, was the first to integrate GPS data with biometric human sensor data and explore the
228 idea of visualising cartographically referenced emotional data. In the fieldwork, he gathered the
229 change of the skin conductance levels and skin temperature of participants wearing a galvanic skin
230 response (GSR) device as they walked in several cities, which was then mapped based on their GPS
231 locations to describe areas in terms of emotional arousal [34].

232 Similar work was done by Zeile et al. [35] who mapped the stress levels of cyclists in Cambridge,
233 Massachusetts by measuring skin conductance levels during their ride using a GSR device. Apart
234 from that, they have also attached a video recording device to allow footages to be taken along the
235 route in order to accurately understand what caused the physiological changes in their participants
236 [35]. A dedicated smartphone app was then used to allow geo-tagged reporting of the experiment.
237 Their findings include the detection of what caused negative arousal in cyclists and they found out
238 that the triggers include dangerous intersections, physical obstacles, pedestrians crossing, cars
239 passing close by and damaged road surface [35]. They have also mapped the cycling route with all
240 the moments of stress and triggers as well as some specific emotions based on the input from the
241 participants and their rides.

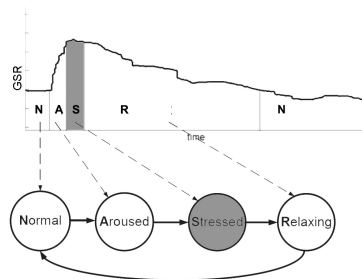
242 The studies conducted by Nold [34] and Zeile et al. [35] all benefited from the use of the GSR
243 device that offers physiological data collection of emotions of the participants. As the GSR device
244 measures levels of emotional arousal through the change in skin conductance and resistance levels,
245 these data can be easily quantified resulting in a more objective measure of emotions rather than just
246 qualitative. This method is valuable since objective measurement of emotions has proven to be
247 beneficial in terms of producing a more accurate representation of emotions. Hence, the next
248 subsection will explore the mechanism operating the GSR device and its uses in measuring negative
249 emotional arousal within the field. As mentioned previously, the work of Zeile and colleagues and
250 Nold have undertaken key work [34-36] that has objectively investigated the relationship between
251 emotions and physical environments using physiological responses methods. This work has laid
252 important theoretical and methodological foundations for integrating the use of galvanic skin
253 response (GSR) within urban spatial analysis and city planning, hence. We draw on these
254 methodological approaches and further investigate the link between and urban spaces to gain
255 understanding of how features in the urban space can be mapped against emotional response and
256 the corresponding potential for this in participatory urban planning.

257 1.1.3 Physiological Measures of Stress Levels Using a GSR Device

258 A range of physiological measures has been employed to assess emotions in research. As
259 mentioned before, physiological responses of the sympathetic nervous system, especially changes in
260 electrodermal activity (EDA), blood pressure, heart rate, and cortisol levels, are broadly used to
261 reflect changes in emotional arousals [37]. However, because the change in blood pressure and heart
262 rate are also influenced by physical activities, the EDA offers a more accurate measure of emotional
263 arousal [37]. Boucsein have discussed EDA at length and regarded it as a common term for all
264 electrical phenomena including active and passive electrical properties which occurs in the skin [38].
265 One of the most well-known EDA measures is the galvanic skin response (GSR) defined simply as 'a
266 change in the ability of the skin to conduct electricity' [38]. GSR can be measured using a GSR device

267 in which the fundamental physiological mechanism that operates the response is ‘the subtle change
 268 in sweat secretion from eccrine sweat glands throughout the body which increased when there is a
 269 high level of emotional arousal[36]. This phenomenon is called emotional sweating and can be
 270 observed and measured most easily and accurately on hands and feet. As the secretion of sweat
 271 increases, skin surfaces become moister, thus improving the conduction of an electric current [36].
 272 This allows for the skin conductance and resistance level to increase or decrease, and this change is
 273 recorded by the GSR device.

274 The current state-of-the-art in physiological sensor data analysis research suggests that negative
 275 emotional arousal can be correctly distinguished through the analysing of the skin conductance level.
 276 According to leading researchers in the field, such as Kreibig [39] and Rodrigues et al., [40], skin
 277 conductivity increases (while its resistivity decreases) when a negative experience occurs as this
 278 negative arousal is an indicator for a stress event. Zeile et al. supported this argument as their study
 279 has found out that “[if] for instance a test person has the experience of anger or fear – a negative
 280 emotion – skin conductance (the difference between sweat production and absorption of the skin)
 281 increases’ [33]. Dakker et al. found in studies that GSR can be used not just to detect emotions but
 282 also for change detection in emotions since ‘emotional experiences trigger changes in autonomic
 283 arousal quite impressively’. This can be used to link levels of emotional arousal with stress [41].
 284 Bakker et al. distinguish stress in patterns of sharp rising emotional arousal at the peak, prior to a
 285 slow return to a relaxed state (see Figure 3) as highlighted in grey in the adapted GSR data graph
 286 below.



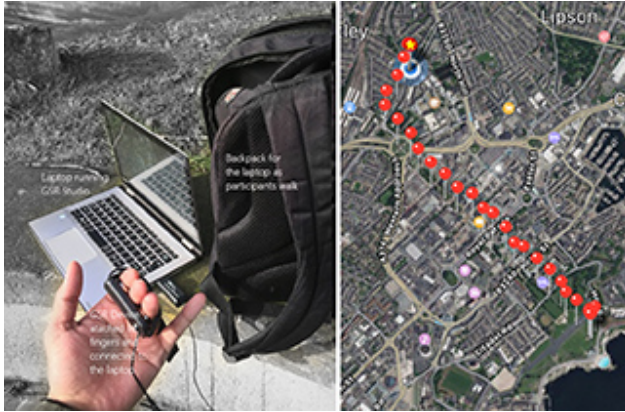
287

288 Figure 3. (adapted from Bakker et al.) – ‘An example of acute stress pattern observed from GSR data
 289 and how it can be mapped to the symbolic (time-stamped) representation of person’s stress’ [41]

290 We focus on change detection in emotions using a GSR device and through correlating with
 291 changes in the urban context aim to investigate whether this has potential for mapping emotional
 292 change to particular urban planning features and qualities.

293 2. Materials and Methods

294 In this study, individual participants were asked to walk through a specific route in the city,
 295 while linked up to a galvanic skin response (GSR) device attached to their fingers and a GPS tracker
 296 app (Figure 4) in a backpack which they carried. Stress levels were measured using the GSR device
 297 which operates by detecting the subtle change in sweat secretion from eccrine sweat glands. Prior to
 298 the walk the quality of the GSR signal was checked in the visualisation software and the data feed
 299 was tested with the participant to resolve any potential issues and visualize the impact of breathing,
 300 movements, and talking.
 301



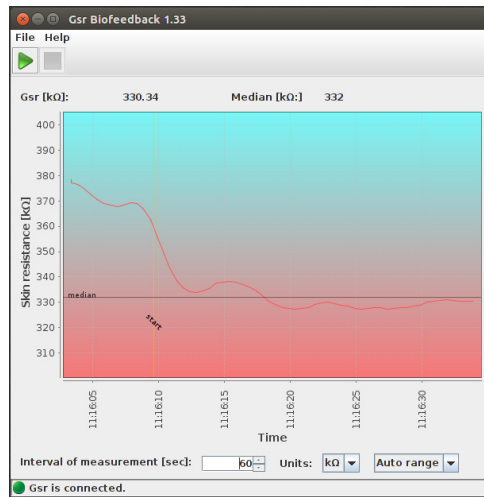
302
303
304
305

Figure 4. Experiment set-up consisting of a finger mounted GSR device, a laptop, and a backpack linked to a GPS Phone Tracker App that was used to track participant’s location at 1-minute intervals during the walk

306
307
308
309
310
311
312
313

During the fieldwork, the GSR device was first fixed to participants’ fingers and then connected to a laptop that runs an accompanying software called GSR Studio (Figure 5) that records changes detected by the GSR device and automatically plots a readable graph of skin resistance levels against time. GPS data was recorded at 1-minute intervals during the walk, and the GSR data was then read in conjunction with features and characteristics of the urban setting to identify how this correlated to emotional arousal levels. The focus is on positive and negative emotional arousal.

The GSR device used in this study was a low cost and low-tech piece of equipment (costing under €100), and required no specialist training prior to use.



314
315
316

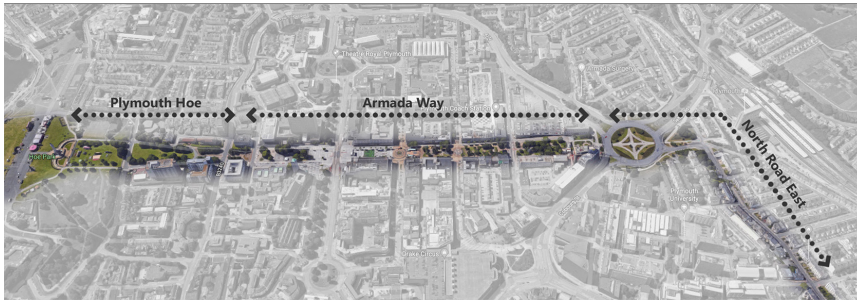
Figure 5. GSR Studio software plots data into graph in real time. (photo from supplier)

2.2 Participants

317 A total of 9 participants, 3 males and 6 females, aged between 23-28 years old were recruited for
 318 the study. They were selected based on the criteria that they had lived in the city for between 1-3
 319 years, so that they had some basic equivalence in terms of the background spatial knowledge of the
 320 setting. All of them were international students at the University of Plymouth. The participants were
 321 accompanied on the walk by a researcher, who followed the participant's' unobtrusively.

322 2.3 Setting

323 The route was chosen primarily because it covers three distinct areas in Plymouth City Centre.
 324 Participants were asked to walk from Plymouth Hoe, a popular recreational park in Plymouth,
 325 continuing their walk through Armada Way, a pedestrianized area, and ending at the North Road
 326 East (see Figure 6), a walk which took about twenty minutes in total. The urban spaces along the walk
 327 had different characteristics, ranging from the park at the beginning of the walk to a busy road at the
 328 end of the walk (see Table 1)



329



330

331 Figure 6. Study Route – Participants start walking from Plymouth Hoe, through Armada Way and
 332 ends in North Road East.

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

| Location on Walk | Name | Type of Space | Urban characteristics |
|--------------------------|--------------|----------------------|--|
| Start of the walk | Plymouth Hoe | Park | Fully pedestrianised greenspace with the least traffic |
| Mid-way through the walk | Armada Way | Urban pedestrianised | A mix of both pedestrianised area and traffic (with some green space and natural features) |

| | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|------------|--|
| End of the walk | North Road East | Urban road | Busy road with very limited natural features |
|-----------------|-----------------|------------|--|

335 Table 1: Names and types of key urban spaces along the walking route- ranging from green space on
 336 Plymouth Hoe to a busy road at North Read East

337 The route included several junctions with varying levels of car and pedestrian traffic summarized in
 338 the table below (see Figure 7 and Table 2): These had different characteristics, with some junctions
 339 being busy with high levels of traffic, some being pedestrianized and some being road junctions but
 340 relatively quiet.



341
 342 **Figure 7.** 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 |

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

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

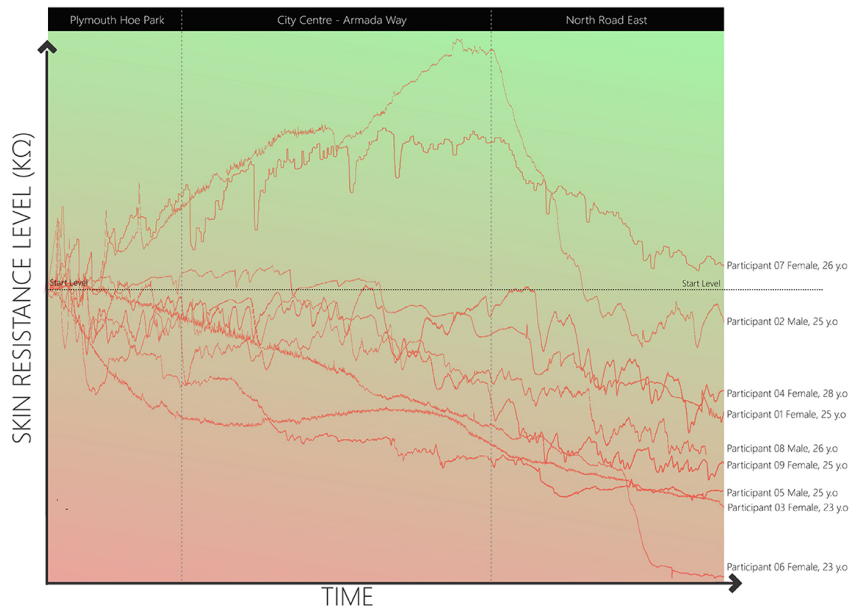
348 *2.4 Limitations of the methods*

349 There are a number of limitations in the methodology which should be taken into account, and
350 these are described below in order to demonstrate how these were allowed for in the results. In terms
351 of the participant's there was a low number, and we did not test participant's for their background
352 spatial knowledge (although participants were selected based on spatial knowledge criteria). As a
353 consequence, in our results the work is presented as exploratory in nature and the analysis is limited
354 to qualitative outcomes. The second limitation of the study is the accuracy of the GSR equipment
355 used in the study. A low cost GSR device was chosen for this study as it is aimed at demonstrating
356 the possibility for the use of such equipment on a wider scale and by non-experts. Therefore the GSR
357 results cannot be assumed to have the accuracy of data from products such as Movisens Edamove or
358 Empatica E4 [38] (although Boucsein et al. do state that a finger GSR device, such as that used in this
359 study can be more sensitive than a wrist-based device). According to Bakker et al. 'the reliable
360 translation of physiological data gathered by using sensor technology into the "stress level rates" is
361 only possible when additional sources of information are available' [41]. The results are presented
362 comparatively showing the difference or similarities between participant's rather than as discrete,
363 and were mapped using the GPS data against the features of the physical context. The use of GPS
364 locational data mapped against the GSR data means that it was possible to assess the relation between
365 spatial context and emotional response data at a fairly fine grain level.

366 3. Results

367 3.1. General Change in Participants' Emotions

368 The results showed that eight out of nine participants started with higher skin resistance level
369 (less sweaty fingers) and ended the walk with a lower skin resistance level (sweatier fingers) (see
370 Figure 8). As higher skin resistance level equates to lower stress levels, the change pattern in the
371 results indicates that almost all the participants had lower levels of emotional arousal at the beginning
372 of the walk i.e. at Plymouth Hoe park compared to when they were walking along the North Road
373 East at the end of the experiment. Only one participant (participant 06) ended the walk at about the
374 same level as when they started it.



375

376

377

Figure 8. Results – Combined results of all participants showing a general trend of a higher skin resistance level at the start of the walk and lower skin resistance at the end.

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

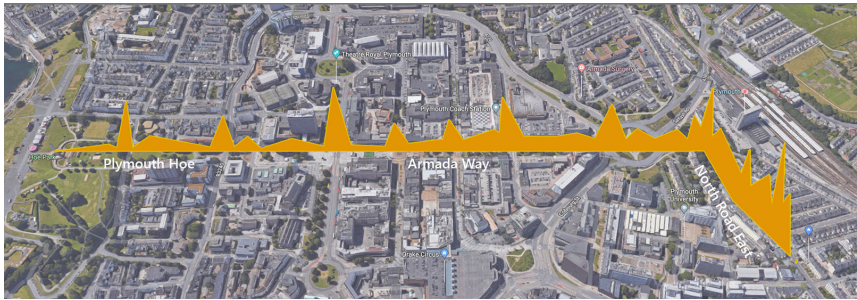
400

It could also be observed that seven out of nine participants recorded their highest level of skin resistance at the start of the walk in Plymouth Hoe than any other area of the walking route, and their skin resistance levels gradually decreased throughout the journey as they enter Armada Way and ended at the lowest level at the end of North Road East. If we see this pattern of emotional change as being linked to stress levels, then this result indicates that most participants find Plymouth Hoe park to be the least stressful area followed by Armada Way and then North Road East, where most participants find it to be most stressful. Two out of the nine participants (participant 02 and 06) on the other hand appeared to have their lowest stress levels when they were walking in the Armada Way. However, both of their apparent stress levels then changed dramatically as it steeply increased when they entered the North Road East area.

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

The aggregate emotional arousal levels for all of the participants, where an average of the participants' data was visualised and projected onto the map of the city centre (see Figure 9), show a clear correlation between stress peaks and urban features.

Commented [KW1]: We will remove this visualisation if it is felt that this aggregated presentation of the results is misleading due to the combined data set



401

402

403

404

Figure 9. Average of all the participant's stress levels combined and visualised onto the map of Plymouth City Centre, showing the 'peaks' of negative emotional response at road crossings and junctions.

405

406

407

408

409

The participants data showed 'peaks' (that correspond to Bakker's et al.'s findings [41]) that can be identified as sharp increases in stress levels whenever they encountered road junctions along the walk. In addition, the figure also shows that as participants walk from Plymouth Hoe to North Road East, their apparent stress level gradually increases, providing another indication as to how different areas within the city affect the level of stress of their inhabitants.

410

3.2. Change in Stress Levels at Crossings and Junctions

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

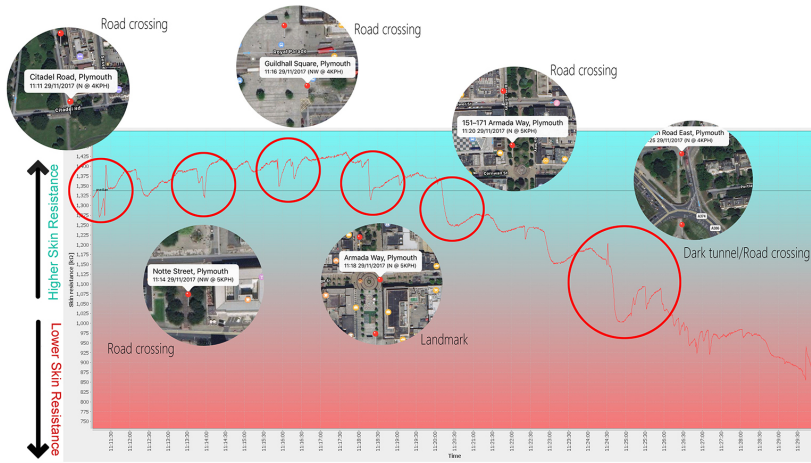
421

422

423

424

Another clear finding from this study is the relationship road crossings and junctions have with the change in stress levels of the participants. A typical participant is shown in Figure 10 with the crossings and GSR data levels indicated. The overall results (see Figure 11, 12 and 13) show that all of the crossings have at least three people experiencing a sudden drop in skin resistance level- or a stress 'peak'. Crossings at Citadel Road, Royal Parade, and Mayflower Street (see Figure 11) recorded the highest number of participants (i.e. all of the 6 participants) experiencing a sudden a stress 'peak'. Derry Avenue crossing and junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St., on the contrary, recorded the lowest number of participants (3 participants) that experienced the stress 'peak' (see Figure 12). The other 3 participants recorded generally unchanged stress levels when encountering these roads. Crossings at Citadel Road, Royal Parade and Mayflower St. are notably busier than junctions at New George St., Cornwall St., and Derry Ave. This resulted in more participants experiencing a sudden stress 'peak' at the former 3 crossings rather than at the latter 3. In fact, junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St. are at a fully pedestrianised area thus have no traffic presence.



425

426

427

Figure 10. Typical participant's GSR data graph with crossings indicated and corresponding stress 'peaks' circled.

428



429

430

431

Figure 11. Crossings at Citadel Road, Royal Parade and Mayflower Street recorded the highest number of participants (all of the 6 participants) experiencing a stress 'peaks'.

432

433

434

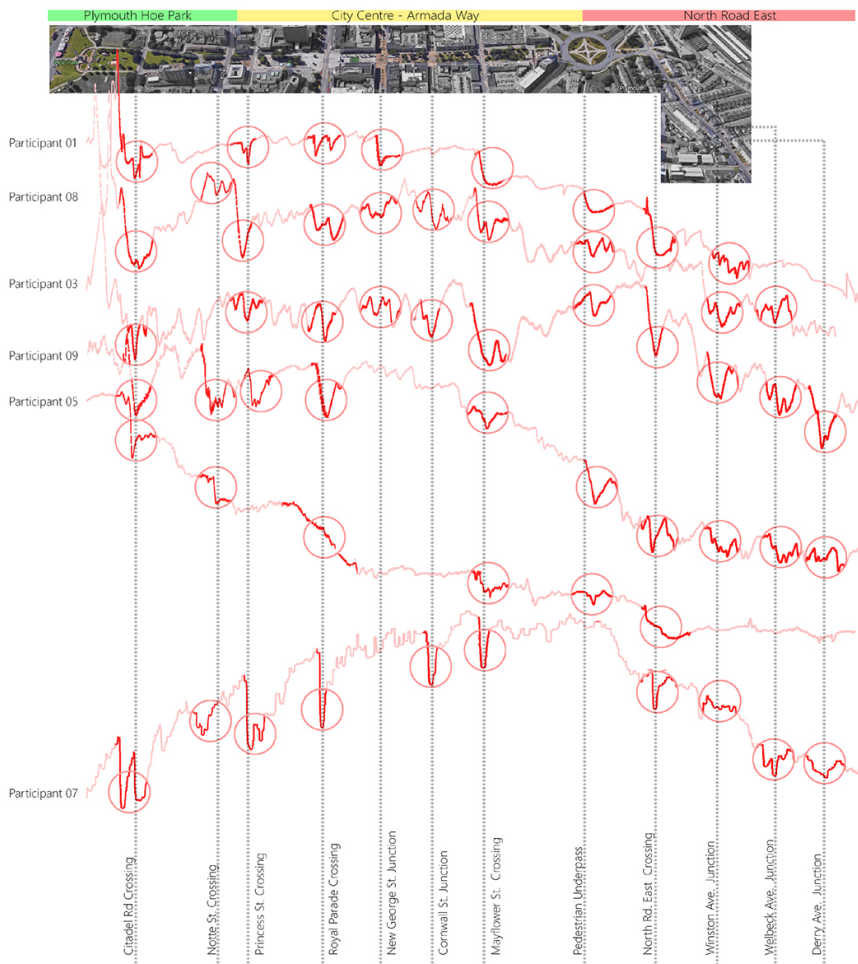


435

436

437

Figure 12. Derry Ave. crossing and junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St. on the contrary, recorded the lowest number of participants (3 participants) that experience the stress 'peak'.



438

439 Figure 13. Overall results from all of the 6 participants with their graphs cross referenced with their
 440 GPS locational data. It could be noted that all of the crossings have at least 3 people experiencing a
 441 sudden drop in skin resistance level which equates to a stress 'peak'.

442 3.3. Relationship between Stress Levels and the Presence of Traffic and Natural Features

443 These different characteristics of each type of urban space encountered on the walk provides a
 444 clear variable which allows this paper to narrow down its research i.e. the relationship between
 445 emotions and physical environment can be studied in a more explicit manner. This means that the
 446 connection emotions have with specific urban features, in this case the presence of traffics and natural
 447 features, can be established more clearly. One observation that could be made from the findings is
 448 that area which was had the most 'green' space and natural features (Plymouth Hoe) created a

449 generally less stressful environment for the participants. In contrast, areas with relatively less green
450 space caused participants to feel less emotionally aroused. This observation is supported by many
451 other previous studies such as MacKerron and Mourato's [42] "Mappiness" project and Klettner et
452 al., [43] EmoMap project which have shown that green or natural environments have positive effects
453 on emotions.

454 The results suggest that participants feel the least stressed at areas where the traffic levels were
455 low and vice versa exhibited higher stress levels at busy roads. This can also explain the difference in
456 number of participants experiencing stress 'peaks' at different junctions along the route. It was noted
457 that Citadel Road, Royal Parade, and Mayflower Street junctions in particular have the most number
458 of people experiencing the stress 'peaks' as they are significantly busier crossings than the others.
459 Crossings at New George St., and Cornwall St. on the other hand have the least number of people
460 experiencing sudden increase in stress levels because they are notably calmer and less busy in terms
461 of traffic presence. In fact, junctions at New George St. and Cornwall St. are fully pedestrianised areas
462 and thus the levels of traffic presence at these areas are actually zero. Previous studies, particularly,
463 Klettner et al., [43] in their EmoMap project supported this claim as they have also found that
464 participants give the lowest positive ratings (in terms of emotional response) when they are in an
465 urban area with heavy traffic.

466 4. Discussion

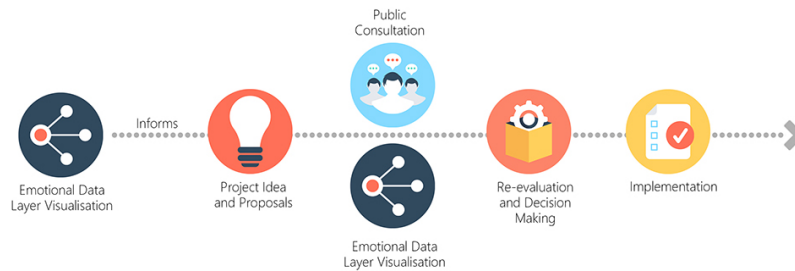
467 As Nold and Zeile et al. have demonstrated [34, 35] emotional data can offer a new layer of data
468 and provide new dimensions for both urban planners and citizens to share understanding of the city
469 they live in. This study identified two potential ways in which emotional data can be used; firstly,
470 through the link between a change in emotions and distinct urban planning features and secondly
471 through the change in process to people gathering their own quantitative emotional data over time
472 and in situ.

473 4.1. Changes in Emotions and the Link with Urban Planning Features

474 The findings show clear links between emotional response and corresponding characteristics of
475 urban spaces as follows:

- 476 • Areas with more green space and natural features result in creating a less stressful environment
477 for the participants (e.g. Plymouth Hoe).
- 478 • Areas with higher levels of urban traffic (more cars) result in creating a more stressful
479 environment for the participants (e.g. North Road East).
- 480 • Road crossings and junctions result in stress 'peaks' or sudden increase in stress level by the
481 participants (e.g. Royal Parade).

482 The study identified a correlation between emotional stress 'peaks' and urban design features
483 and characteristics that could be used as a quantitative input into urban planning discussions. Whilst
484 this study is small scale in terms of the number of participants, the nature of the findings does indicate
485 that the method could be replicated with larger number of participants to increase the level of data
486 and coverage. Shoval et al., [36] recognised that products of such analysis "lead to important insights
487 into how people perceive and interact emotionally with the urban environment; it can therefore be of
488 great use in an improved planning process" [36]. Zeile et al. have acknowledged that their results can
489 be used "as a source of information to help improve bicycle traffic planning and to identify peaks in
490 urban planning deficiencies" [44]. The current model of planning allows for consultation, but this is
491 limited in terms of modes of participation and the information layer (see Figure 1 earlier in this
492 paper). The gathering of emotional data and the subsequent understanding gained from this analysis
493 would help create a readily available layer of shared data (Figure 14) directly inputting into the urban
494 planning process.



495

496

Figure 14. Emotional Data Model of participation in Urban Planning process

497

498

499

500

Whilst this study was undertaken in an existing city space, there is also the potential to draw some more general conclusions that could inform urban design proposals. It could therefore provide better insights of the city and its inhabitants - enabling a new citizen-centered perspective in urban planning processes.

501

4.2. Physiological Data for Citizen-Centric Participatory Planning

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

A shared approach to participation in urban planning processes could involve the provision of a new information layer within urban planning analysis through the gathering of citizens' emotional data through physiological responses methods. Unlike traditional forms of urban planning participation such as public meetings, consultations and hearings, this study suggests that humans, as the users of a city, could share qualitative emotional data. Jacobs [13] pointed out an important change in urban planning procedures which includes bottom up processes of participation that proactively involve citizens in urban change. This study has explored the potential of using physiological sensor technology to directly, objectively and cheaply measure citizens' emotions. Scaled up, this approach would mean that a city could involve citizens in sharing emotional data that would regularly provide new emotional data near real-time and as a readily available information layer to the city council. The model used in this study was for citizens to gather their own data and share it with others in order to understand their experience of the city in a more quantitative manner. However, it should be recognized that there are recognized and valid issues around the ethics and nature of consent around crowdsourcing urban data. For instance Gabrys argues that 'enabling citizens to monitor their activities convert these citizens into unwitting gatherers and providers of data' that can be used for political or commercial purposes beyond that which citizens are aware of [45]. But when used by the citizen for their own benefit Haklay asserts that 'the act of mapping itself can be an act of asserting presence, rights to be heard or expression of personal beliefs in the way that the world should evolve and operate' [46].

When reviewed against Arnstein's [17] 'Ladder of Participation', this method of using physiological device to gather citizens' emotional data would still fall under tokenism at either 'consultation' or 'placation' rung of the ladder. This is because participants of this study only provide emotional data input and do not have the actual power to influence how the data will be used in urban planning process. In the end, city planners still play a central role in planning decisions. However, the lack of 'citizen power' in this participatory method could be outweighed by the fact that using physiological sensing technology such as the GSR provides an accurate and objective data resource of citizens' emotions. It could also potentially be done at scale to create a large information database. During a traditional consultation process, citizens would subjectively express concerns about a planning project and the relevant authority would re-evaluate the project based on their feedback. In this citizen sensing participatory planning approach however, there is no need to wait until a planning project is established before actions or decisions could be made. In fact, the collection of emotional data can be continuous and ongoing and can be used at any time to inform any new

534 planning projects. Therefore, for as long as the emotional data inputs from citizens influence the
535 outcome of any planning decisions, even without any exercise of 'power', this form of participatory
536 process could move beyond tokenism towards Arnstein's model of 'citizen power'.

537 5. Conclusions

538 A sharing cities approach can enable citizens to gather, share and analyse urban data which can
539 give them an enhanced understanding and greater accessibility in city planning decisions [47]. This
540 tends to relate to enabling citizens to gain access to self-generated sources of data, which enables a
541 more informed understanding of issues in their urban environment. Digital participation using
542 technologies such as physiological sensing devices, smartphones, and GPS technology present
543 opportunities for a more effective and human-centred approach to participatory planning. This paper
544 explored the potential of citizen's emotional data using digital tools such as the galvanic skin
545 response (GSR) and GPS devices to objectively measure emotional response of people to a geo-located
546 urban space. The study described in this paper extended the work of Nold (2009), Zeile et al. (2015)
547 and Shoval et al., (2017) who found that emotional data mapped against high-resolution spatial
548 analysis can have potential for informing urban planning decision making [36]. The potential of this
549 method was discussed, and future directions for the research would be to replicate the study with
550 larger numbers of participant's and to test a range of different urban settings. In particular, it would
551 be valuable to test whether the findings around green space and busy roads creating different levels
552 of emotional arousal could be replicated in different, but comparable cities. Furthermore, the link
553 between road junctions and stress 'peaks' could have potential to be tested with a range of urban
554 planning features. In terms of participatory methods, these could be used by citizens at both pre- and
555 post implementation stage to quantitatively measure the actual response of people to an urban
556 planning project.

557 The results prove that there is a significant relationship between humans and the physical
558 environments and by objectively measuring and analysing the data, this method provides innovative
559 opportunities for urban planners to understand how citizens relate and interact emotionally to the
560 city's urban environment. The data gathered through this approach could add a new dimension in
561 the form of a new additional layer of information in urban planning analysis to assist urban planners
562 in decision-making processes. This has implications for urban planning policy in terms of how they
563 could better incorporate participatory data into their practice, and how citizens could be empowered
564 to share their emotional experiences of the city.

565 Acknowledgments:

566 Thank you to the support of the School of Architecture, Design and Environment at Plymouth University, UK.

567 Author Contributions:

568 A.F. and K.S.W. developed the topic, methods and analytical framework; A.F. supervised students and
569 conducted the field investigations and analyzed the data; A.F. and K.S.W. wrote the paper.

570 Conflicts of Interest:

571 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

572 References

- 573 1. Willis, K.S. and A. Aurigi, *Digital and Smart Cities*. 2017, London: Routledge.
- 574 2. Cowley, J.E., *Planning in the age of Facebook: The role of social networking in planning processes*. *GeoJournal*,
575 2010. 75(5): p. 407-420.
- 576 3. Desouza, K.C. and A. Bhagwatwar, *Citizen Apps to Solve Complex Urban Problems*. *Journal of Urban*
577 *Technology*, 2012. 19(3): p. 107-136.
- 578 4. McLaren, D. and J. Agyeman, *Sharing Cities: A Case for Truly Smart and Sustainable Cities*. 2015, Cambridge,
579 MA: MIT Press.

- 580 5. Linders, D., *From e-government to we-government: Defining a typology for citizen coproduction in the age of*
581 *social media*. *Government Information Quarterly*, 2012. **29**(4): p. 446–454.
- 582 6. Innes, J.E. and D.E. Booher, *Reframing public participation: strategies for the 21st century*. *Planning Theory &*
583 *Practice*, 2004. **5**(4): p. 419-436.
- 584 7. Renn, O., et al., *Public participation in decision making: A three-step procedure*. *Policy Sciences*, 1993. **26**: p.
585 189-214.
- 586 8. Wilson, A., M. Tewdwr-Jones, and R. Comber, *Urban planning, public participation and digital technology:*
587 *App development as a method of generating citizen involvement in local planning processes*. *Environment and*
588 *Planning B: Urban Analytics and City Science*, 2017.
- 589 9. Münster, S., et al., *How to involve inhabitants in urban design planning by using digital tools? An overview on a*
590 *state of the art, key challenges and promising approaches*. *Procedia Computer Science*, 2017. **112**: p. 2391-2405.
- 591 10. Münster, S., et al., *How to involve inhabitants in urban design planning by using digital tools? An overview on a*
592 *state of the art, key challenges and promising approaches*. *Procedia Computer Science*, 2017: p. 2391–2405.
- 593 11. Crivellaro, C., R. Comber, and J. Bowers. *A pool of dreams: Facebook, politics and the emergence of a social*
594 *movement*. in *The 32nd annual ACM conference (CHI '14)*. 2014. New York: ACM Press.
- 595 12. Hasler, S., J. Chenal, and M. Soutter, *Digital Tools as a Means to Foster Inclusive, Data-informed Urban*
596 *Planning*. *Civil Engineering and Architecture* 2017. **5**: p. 230-239.
- 597 13. Jacobs, J., *The Death and Life of American Cities*. 2002, New York: Random House.
- 598 14. Lane, M., *Public Participation in Planning: an intellectual history*. *Australian Geographer*, 2005. **36**(3): p. 283-
599 299.
- 600 15. Hall, P., *Urban and regional planning (3rd edition)*. 1992, London: Routledge.
- 601 16. Faludi, A., *Planning Theory 1973*, New York: Pergamon.
- 602 17. Arnstein, S., *A Ladder of Citizen Participation*. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 1969. **35**(4): p.
603 216-224.
- 604 18. Painter, M., *Participation and power*, in *Citizen participation in government*, M. Munro-Clarke, Editor. 1992,
605 Hale & Ironmonger: Sydney.
- 606 19. Raslan, R., K. Al-hagla, and A. Bakr. *Integration of Emotional Behavioural Layer "EmoBeL" in City Planning*.
607 in *REAL CORP 2014 – PLAN IT SMART! Clever Solutions for Smart Cities. Proceedings of 19th International*
608 *Conference on Urban Planning, Regional Development and Information Society*. 2014. Austria.
- 609 20. Baum, H., *Planning with half a mind: Why planners resist emotion*. . *Planning Theory and Practice*, 2015. **16**:
610 p. 498–516.
- 611 21. Lynch, K., *The Image of the City*. 1967, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 612 22. Ferreira, A., *Emotions in planning practice: A critical review and a suggestion for future developments based on*
613 *mindfulness*. *Town Planning Review*, 2013. **84**: p. 703–719.
- 614 23. Porter, L., et al., *What's love got to do with it? Illuminations on loving attachment in planning*. *Planning Theory*
615 *& Practice*, 2012. **13**: p. 593–627.
- 616 24. Gunder, M. and J. Hillier, *Planning in ten words or less*. 2009, Farnham: Ashgate.
- 617 25. Mislove, A., et al. *Pulse of the nation: US mood throughout the day inferred from twitter*. 2010 [cited 2018
618 March 7].
- 619 26. Tauscher, S. and K. Neumann, *Combining web map services and opinion mining to generate sentiment maps of*
620 *touristic locations*. , in *Service Oriented Mapping*, M. Jobst, Editor. 2012 JobstMedia Management Verlag Wien. p.
621 277-286.

- 622 27. Resch, B., et al., *Urban Emotions – Geo-Semantic Emotion Extraction from Technical Sensors, Human Sensors*
623 *and Crowdsourced Data*, in *Progress in Location-Based Services* G. Gartner and H. Huang, Editors. 2015, Springer
624 International Publishing: Berlin, Heidelberg. p. 199-212.
- 625 28. Resch, B., et al., *Crowdsourcing physiological conditions and subjective emotions by coupling technical and human*
626 *mobile sensors*, in *Journal for Geographic Information Science GI_Forum 2015*, T. Jekel, et al., Editors. 2015,
627 Wichmann: Berlin. p. 514-524.
- 628 29. Resch, B., et al., *Citizen-centric urban planning through extracting emotion information from Twitter in an*
629 *interdisciplinary space-time-linguistics algorithm*. *Urban Planning*, 2016. 1(2): p. 114-127.
- 630 30. Hauthal, E. and D. Burghardt, *Extraction of location-based Emotions from Photo Platforms*, in *Progress in*
631 *Location-Based Services*, J. Krisp, Editor. 2013, Springer: Munich.
- 632 31. Aiello, L.M., et al., *Chatty Maps: Constructing sound maps of urban areas from social media data*. *Royal Society*
633 *Open Science*, 2016. 3(150690).
- 634 32. Mody, R., K. Willis, and R. Kerstein. *WiMo: Location-based Emotion Tagging*. in *8th international Conference*
635 *on Mobile and Ubiquitous Multimedia, Cambridge*, . 2009. United Kingdom: ACM Press.
- 636 33. Zeile, P., et al. *Urban emotions—tools of integrating people’s perception into urban planning*. in *REAL CORP:*
637 *Conference on Urban Planning and Regional Development in the Information Society*. 2015. Ghent, Belgium.
- 638 34. Nold, C., *Emotional cartography: Technologies of the self*. 2009, Christian Nold:
639 <http://www.emotionalcartography.net/>.
- 640 35. Zeile, P., et al., *Citizen-centric urban planning through extracting emotion information from twitter in an*
641 *interdisciplinary space- time-linguistics algorithm*. . *Urban Planning*, 2016. 1(2): p. 114–127.
- 642 36. Shoval, N., Y. Schvimer, and M. Tamir, *Tracking technologies and urban analysis: Adding the emotional*
643 *dimension*. . *Cities*, 2018. 72(34-42).
- 644 37. Dawson, E.M., A.M. Schell, and D.L. Filion, *The electrodermal system*, in *Handbook of psychophysiology 2007*,
645 Cambridge University Press: New York. p. 200-223.
- 646 38. Boucsein, W., et al., *Publication standards for EDA*. *Psychophysiology*, 2012. 49: p. 1017-1034.
- 647 39. Kreibitz, S.D., *Autonomic nervous system activity in emotion: a review*. *Biological Psychology* 2010. 84(3): p.
648 394-421.
- 649 40. A.N. Rodrigues da Silva, et al., *Smart Sensing and Barrier Free Planning: Project Outcomes and Recent*
650 *Developments*, in *Technologies for Urban and Spatial Planning: Virtual Cities and Territories* N.N. Pinto, et al.,
651 Editors. 2014, IGI Global: Hershey, PA. p. 93-112.
- 652 41. Bakker, J., M. Pechenizkiy, and N. Sidorova. *What’s Your Current Stress Level? Detection of Stress Patterns*
653 *from GSR Sensor Data*. in *Proceedings of the 2011 IEEE 11th International Conference on Data Mining Workshops*
654 *(ICDMW ’11)*. 2011. Washington DC, USA: IEEE Computer Society.
- 655 42. MacKerron, G. and S. Mourato, *Happiness is greater in natural environments*. *Global Environmental Change*,
656 2013. 23(5): p. 992–1000.
- 657 43. Klettner, S., et al., *Crowdsourcing affective responses to space*. *Kartographische Nachrichten*, 2013. 2(3): p. 66-
658 72.
- 659 44. Zeile, P., et al., *Urban emotions and cycling experience—Enriching traffic planning for cyclists with human sensor*
660 *data*. . *GI Forum*, 2016. 1: p. 204–216.
- 661 45. Gabrys, J., *Programming environments: environmentality and citizen sensing in the smart city*. *Environment*
662 *and Planning D: Society and Space*, 2014. 32(1).
- 663 46. Haklay, M., *Beyond quantification: a role for citizen science and community science in a smart city*, in *UCL Urban*
664 *laboratory pamphleteer*, B. Campkin and R. Ross, Editors. 2013: London.

- 665 47. Niederer, S. and R. Priester, *Smart Citizens: Exploring the Tools of the Urban Bottom-Up Movement*. *Computer*
666 *Supported Cooperative Work* 2016. **25**(2-3): p. 137-152.
667