

An Evaluation Model to Support Strategic Urban Planning in Italy: The Application of Community Impact Evaluation

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Abstract. Cities and their transformation have increasingly been placed at the center of the debate on how to reach a more sustainable and inclusive society. Indeed, urban planning is not seen any more as a technocratic top-down practice, but rather as a process able to summarize different perspectives on the development of cities. In this sense, public participation has been progressively seen as a fundamental practice in the attempt to democratize the process of defining the directions that such development should take, and to prioritize actions to be taken in the transformation of the territory. Such cooperative attempt would benefit from the use of formalized tools, in order to enhance the transparency of the process and to identify potential conflictual interests and priorities, and, thus promoting negotiation, also including those social groups usually excluded from the decision-making process. The present chapter proposes a methodological framework based on the integration of SWOT, and Stakeholder Analysis into a Community Impact Evaluation (CIE), in order to support Decision-Makers in the preliminary phases of the revision process of land use plans. Such methodology would allow to base the consultation process on a solid and shared informative framework, and to identify the different stakeholder potentially impacted by the outcomes of the implementation of the plan. Finally, the formalization of impacts and goals into matrices would allow to evaluate the potential outcomes that might affect the different stakeholders, and to monitor the effects that the induced transformations would have on them and on the public interests.

Keywords: SWOT analysis · Stakeholder analysis · Participatory planning · Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA)

1 Introduction

In recent decades, a large number of initiatives has focused on cities in an attempt to foster the achievement of a more sustainable society [1, 2]. Among these, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development [3], specifically addresses cities with its 11th Sustainable Development Goal (SDG), aiming at making "cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable". In this sense, the urban environment is conceived as

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a possible source of solutions rather than a cause of potential harmful challenges [4], representing an opportunity to rethink the design of future cities with greater attention to environmental and social inclusion aspects [3]. Furthermore, the application of several new interpretative frameworks to the city, such as the resilience paradigm [5–7], and the circular economy one [8, 9] have implied the management and planning of cities as complex and adaptive systems [10], and the proliferation of evaluation tool in supporting the decision-making process towards its transformation [11].

Indeed, the complex nature of the urban environment in terms of its environmental, economic and social dimensions, is further complicated by the presence of a variety of actors and stakeholders pursuing different goals (both individual and shared) in the production of the city [12, 13].

In the context of increasing pressure on urban space [14], land use planning is still a prominent tool capable to pool together stakeholders' interests [15], allowing the exploitation of resources preserving the balance between public and private interests [16, 17].

Indeed, land use planning tools could be seen as a product of the mediation between general and specific interests in the definition of the overall vision of the development of a territory or a city, with the possibility to favor some at the expenses of others, while determining the territorial and environmental requirements that are considered non-negotiable [18].

At the European level, a common sectoral approach has been observed, in which land-use planning is referred to as the practice to regulate land uses and physical urban form, by exercising authority on use of properties and the rights to transform land; while also a broader scope considering other features of territorial development (i.e. guiding of investments, accessibility to jobs and services, etc.) is envisioned [19].

The COMPASS project has identified 251 different planning instruments across EU Member States, spanning over three main administrative level: national, sub-national and local. Especially at the local scale, these planning instrument have been recognized as mostly regulatory in nature, with a trend to move toward a more strategic/framework-setting nature, especially in large municipalities. Such regulatory nature, in particular, has been often criticized, while a more strategic approach, able to coordinate different actors and interests (both private and public) have been encouraged, especially during the early stage of the policy cycle [19].

A similar pattern is observable in the Italian context, where the planning system has been recognized as limited in showing adaptability to economic and socio-political changes [20]. This limitation has led to a paradigm shift in urban planning, in which the traditional deterministic approach has been superseded by a more programmatic one, in which the flexibility and adaptation to the objective of the community are the value of the social contract constituted by the plan [18] (see Sect. 2).

In general, at the EU level, land use planning is witnessing a modification path in which competences are being rescaled and procedures simplified in order to create instruments able to better adapt to modification of circumstances of contemporaneity issues, assuring the integration of different sectoral policies, while enhancing transparency and citizens engagement [19]. This evolution, together with a trend toward a more strategic approach to land-use planning claim for a more collaborative process in the governance

of the urban environment [21]. This strategic approach to municipal planning, in which participation is seen as a re-appropriation of the transformation of the city by citizens, needs new formalized methods to guide the discussion with the local community in order to include their voices in the definition of the shared vision of the city [16, 18].

With reference to the Italian context, a number of municipalities have recognized the importance of active participation and involvement of citizenship in city policy-making. The leader of this new agreement is the municipality of Bologna, which has established the "Patto per l'Amministrazione condivisa dei beni comuni" thanks to the work carried out by Labsus, the laboratory for subsidiarity [22]. It is a programmatic document that summarizes the strategic agreement between the administration and the city's civic organizations that proposes shared administration and planning, two innovative ways of collaborating with the public administration that aim to expand the number and type of actors involved in shared administration and policy-making in the city. In addition, shared planning is a process that does not end at the stage of defining projects and interventions to be implemented, but also continues in the implementation stage through active cooperation among all stakeholders and evaluation on the progress of ongoing activities to agree on any corrective and/or supplementary interventions. In this context, evaluation tools that systematize the created relationships, the resources exchanged in these arrangements, and assess the impacts of choices at various stages of implementation of the actions taken, become increasingly important.

In order to support the citizens' consultation and participation during the drafting phase of municipal plans, as well as to provide the stakeholders involved in the process with a common framework to assess both the existing conditions of the urban status and the strategic vision that is the common base of the urban planning practice, this contribution proposes a methodological framework based on the integration of a set of methods to evaluate the interaction between current conditions of the urban configuration, the stakeholders' interest and participation, and the impact that the foreseen strategic vision will have on those two aspects. In particular, the research proposes the combination of SWOT [23] and Stakeholder analysis [24], and the integration of them into a Community Impact Evaluation (CIE) with an attempt to facilitate communication between the various stakeholders involved in the city's planning process by considering their different interests [25]. The rest of the contribution is structured as follows: in Sect. 2 a brief overview of the urban management debate resulting in the current strategic approach to urban planning is presented, together with an argumentation in favor of the introduction of formalized methodologies to support participatory processes. In Sect. 3 an integrated methodology is proposed. In Sect. 4 the resulting tool to support the participatory process is introduced, while Sect. 5 outlines the conclusions and future perspectives.

2 Regulatory Plans in Italy: Limits and Constraints

2.1 From a Deterministic Approach

City planning in Italy is regulated at the national level by Law No. 1150/1942 (National urban planning law) which provides for a three-level planning system: a coordinated territorial plan scale (Piani Territoriali di Coordinamento, PTC), the urban general plan at the city scale (Piano Regolatore Generale, PRG), and detailed implementation plans

(Piani Particolareggiati di Esecuzione, PPE), entrusting these two last levels to municipalities. With the progressive reduction of the hierarchical institution enforced by the national law promulgated in 1942 [26], and the absence of updates to it, each regional authority has tried to bridge the gap resulting in a proliferation of plans that differs greatly from one another due to the compliance to the different geographical, political, social and economic contexts in which they were generated [18]. This delay of the centralized level in revising the national law, and the consequent necessity of the regional level to respond to the changed socio-economic conditions of the context in which the latter was operating, have led to a series of experimentation characterized by a high innovative content in the governance of the territory for which some authors have coined the term "asymmetric city planning federalism" [27].

This differentiation is also highlighted by the wide variety of names that indicate the same territorial level of the laws enforced by each municipality in different regions: being them PRG, Municipal Structural Plan (Piano Strutturale Comunale, PSC), Municipal City Planning Plan (Piano Urbanistico Comunale, PUC) Territorial Asset Plan (Piano di Assetto del Territorio, PAT).

A part from the struggle of municipalities to make the planning obligation to be respected, another issue is represented by the low capability of the same municipalities to update their planning instrument [16, 27]. A recent study by ISPRA (Istituto Superiore per la Protezione e la Ricerca Ambientale) focusing on the status of the urban planning tools in Italy has highlighted that out of 85 cities analyzed, only 23 of them have a plan adopted after 2010, while 40 of them dates back between 2000 and 2010. The remaining cities count on urban plans adopted in the last century: 7 from 1990 to 1999, 15 before 1990, and 2 in the 60s [26].

Traditional urban planning tools have been characterized by a deterministic nature, based on zoning and regulatory impositions in order to define the future structure of the city [16, 18]. This approach has determined the governing of the territory in terms of admitted land uses, their private or public regime of property, and the extension of their possible exploitation (surfaces and cubic footage), with no correlation to the economic development nor the quality of the city [26, 27].

The logic of imposition of binding measures by the central administration has shown its limit [16] with the emergence of new strategic approaches more attentive to environmental and quality features, as well as to a more inclusion of stakeholders interests and consensus [26]. Even though these attempts have been considered capable of superseding these limitations, they could nonetheless have a negative impact on the concerted government of the urban environment [16].

2.2 Toward a Strategic Approach

The revision of the more traditional regulatory structure, amid the Italian Planning Association (Istituto Nazionale di Urbanistica, INU), resulted in a new approach aiming at overcoming some of the issues related to the old generation of plans [20]. This perspective aims at identifying programmatic solutions open to the initiatives of private operators preserving a certain degree of flexibility. This new approach does not reject the values of the urban planning, but rather incorporates the possibility of changing the rules in place in order to respond to possible changes in the community that has established them [18].

This attempt has been translated in a definition of the urban plan as consisting of different "components", characterized by different "velocities" [27], intended as the differentiated capacity of the components of the plan to respond in a more coherent way to the different changing trends of the territory and its dynamics. In particular, a more strategic and programmatic component has the goal of defining the invariant characteristics of the territory layout and has the duty to interpret the common perspective and vision of the community that has produced it, while a more operative component aims at defining the transformations that are predicted in the short-medium term, with also the duty to translate the strategic-programmatic component in the peculiarity of the territory. Finally, a third component is added with the specific duty of managing of the existing city with prescriptive validity. As stated before, due to the "asymmetric city planning federalism" of the regional level, the constitution of urban plans differs depending on the region to which the municipality is subordinated, this holds true also in this aspect, for which, in different regions, these components are formalized in two or three different urban management tools [16]. Furthermore, this nuanced definition of the urban planning is also reflected in the normative validity of the content of the plans, in which binding regulations are combined with more flexible rules and indications, in the attempt to adapt its regulatory function to the mutability of the socio-economic conditions that determine their introduction [27].

One of the facets that the new strategic approach to urban planning tries to embrace is that of quality, intended not only as the compliance to a set of rules and norms, but also as the morphological quality of the city and its spaces devoted to an enhancement of the population living conditions.

Central to this new conception of the urban planning (and result of the early experimentation conducted to overcome the original rigidity of urban plans in the 80s and 90s) is the common strategic vision of the future of the city, conceived as the shared ground on which the urban transformation and development has to base its moves [4, 27, 28]. This further evolution, formalized in new tools mainly devoted to stress this strategic vocation such as the Strategic Plans adopted at several territorial levels, is based on two primary characteristics: the network and the visionary ones. The former emphasizes the fact that the common strategic vision must seek to achieve the widest level of consensus among the various stakeholders and actors who are members of the network, while the latter is due to its objective of providing a vision for the city's future on which these members agree [27].

2.3 Monitor, Communicate, Participate

The emphasis placed on the need to achieve a common vision in the governance of the city and its transformation could also be seen in the methods used to support the drafting of the plan (both in its embryonic and operative phases) as well as in the form of communication used to define its characteristics.

Regarding these aspects, the introduction of the knowledge frameworks (Quadri Conoscitivi) goes in this direction: this preliminary documentation has the specific purpose of defining a common basis for the evaluation of the initial configuration of the matter on which the subsequent phases of the urban planning exercise will focus, and

their production is directly linked to the willingness of the public administration to make the evaluation and knowledge system explicit.

Among the tools early introduced to both evaluate the impact of the planning decisions and to guarantee the transparency of the process, the Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) plays a pivotal role in the recognition of the environmental issue in the territorial governance [16, 29]. Introduced for the first time by Directive 2001/42/CE and adopted in the Italian context by Legislative decree 152/2006, SEA constitutes a specific administrative assessment tool aiming at fostering the integration of environmental considerations from development of plans and programs, and throughout their entire life-cycle. The purposes of using SEA are to support the collaboration among experts in highlighting the possible environmental impacts that the implementation of the plan could generate, and to guarantee the transparency of the decision-making process in the consultation with competent authorities and stakeholders [30, 31]. Despite the necessity for this tool in the evaluation of the sustainability of the plan in its generation and operational phase [27], a study highlighted that the minority of the urban plans produced at municipal level (37% out of 85 considered cities) have introduced the SEA in the definition of their plans or variants of them, in fact, most of the plans actually in force in several municipalities date back before the introduction of SEA by Legislative decree 152/2006 [26].

The aim to enhance communication and participation in the genealogy of urban plans, further expanded with the focus on the transparency of the evaluation of their impacts and implications, resulted also in the evolution of the documents that constitute an urban plan. Several examples have introduced different forms of graphical representation in order to foster the participatory process in order to rapidly communicate the objectives as well as the possible evolution scenarios implied by the decisions taken in the process. Urban design has entered the formation of the plan in this sense [28]. Exemplary case could be seen in the plan of the city of Bologna, in which the "seven cities" individuated by the plan [27] are conceptually designed in order to define their idea rather than their formal materialization [32]. The representation of the "seven cities", in fact, moves apart from the canonical bi-dimensional representation, adopting an axonometric infographic representation, in order to better communicate the reasoning behind their conceptualization rather than strictly defining their spatial characteristics [33]. The latter has also allowed the support of the participatory process by providing an easy to understand communication of the objectives and strategies of the plan during its drafting phase, engaging also with a non-expert audience [34].

Another aspect that deconstructs the idea of planning viewed as a set of impositions in a top-down direction is the co-planning one. This collaborative attempt to achieve the agreement upon decisions at different levels of the ruling hierarchy, and the multiplication of actors in the constitution of the common vision of the city, highlight the necessity to establish a framework of communication and participation based on evaluation methods and formalized protocols that would allow the different stakeholders and actors to negotiate on the same informational framework being able to speak the same language.

3 An Integrated Methodology for Urban Plan Evaluation

3.1 What is Needed

The contemporary strategic governance of the cities faces several dimensions of complexity such as the interaction of several actors and elements in it [35], the dissolution of commonly used methods, the disentanglement of the financial city from the physical one [28], the dissolution of space-time boundaries, and the necessity to intercept the private capital [20]. On top of that, the fast mutation of boundary conditions, and the uncertainty of the interpretability of reality [36] led to the necessity to consider at the same time the long-time perspective (strategy) and the short/medium-term one (tactic) in the co-creation of the urban environment [28].

This paradigm shift has to root its arguments in the common vision of the city produced by who inhabit and construct it [28] representing a moment of collective political engagement [27].

The formation of such vision has to be the result of an iterative process in which the strategic features, as well as the potentiality of development and transformations, are individuated, discussed and negotiated, and the voices and expectation of the vast pool of stakeholders are considered and formalized in the attempt to achieve an expression of direct democracy [4, 27].

Aim of the present chapter is to contribute to the formalization of this process by extending a methodology proposed for the evaluation of urban regeneration projects [37–39]. The methodology proposed combine different methods in the attempt to evaluate the different characteristics and potentialities of the existing urban environment through a SWOT analysis, and to highlight the different stakeholders and actors that participate in the process of formation of the strategic vision by means of a Stakeholder analysis. Finally, these two methods (SWOT and Stakeholders analysis) are integrated in a CIE matrix (Fig. 1).

3.2 SWOT Analysis

SWOT analysis is a tool used in support to decision-making processes with the aim to rationalize the set of information known regarding a specific context [40, 41]. In the acronym of its name is contained the system used in such formalization, for which the pieces of information are clustered in the categories of Strengths (S), Weaknesses (W), Opportunities (O), and Threats (T).

The first two (S and W) are intended as internal features, while the second pair (O and T) are the external ones. Strengths and Opportunities are those characteristics supporting the possible success of the project (considering it in the broader sense also of the production of a plan). On the other hand, Weaknesses and Threats might constitute obstacles (existing or potential) to the completion of the latter.

Among the various formalizations of SWOT components, the STEEP framework groups them into five categories, namely, Social (SO), Technological (TE), Environmental (EN), Economic (EC), and Political (PO). The outcome of the SWOT analysis is then to support the identification of the strategies more likely to maximize the internal Strengths and the external Opportunities and to reduce the endogenous Weaknesses and

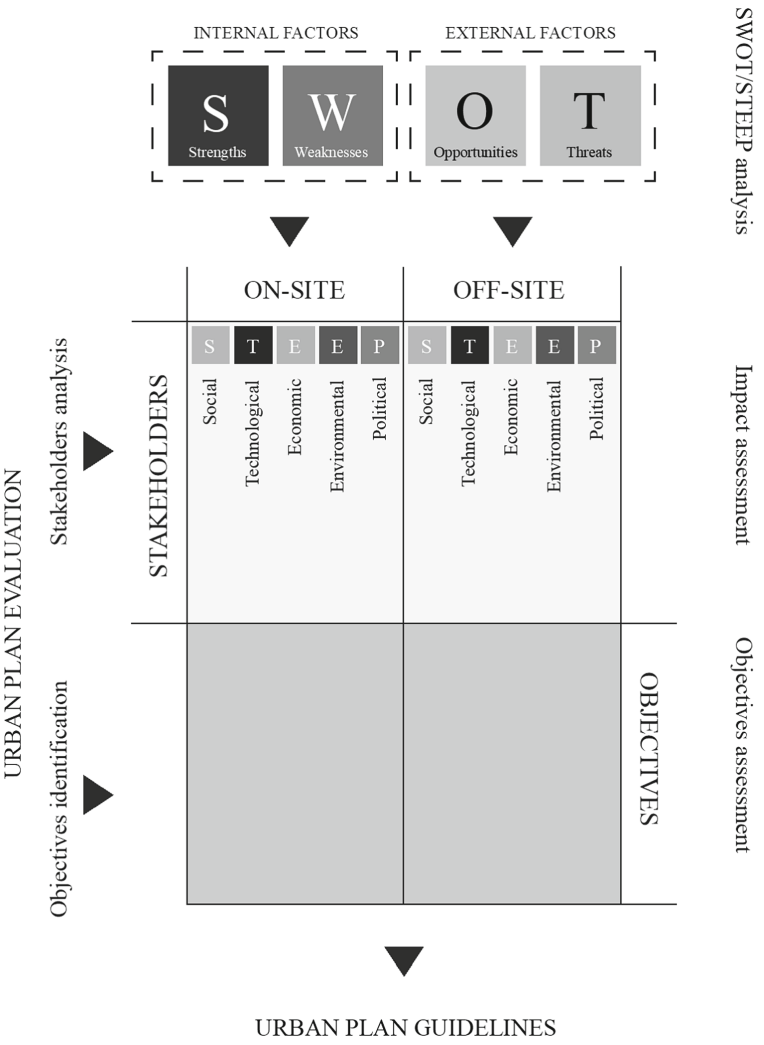


Fig. 1. Methodological framework.

the exogenous Threats, with the optimal integration of projects and context as ultimate goal.

Pratibha et al. [42] used SWOT analysis for the city of Mohol (India) to explore the changing needs and demands of the population for the preparation of an integrated development plan with modified planning standards. Sang and Lin [43] presented a brownfield-related design project in a post-industrial area in Beijing, China. The design phase includes the application of SWOT analysis to analyse the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the site to discuss the goals and strategies of this project for its future redevelopment. SWOT analysis thus seems to be a newer tool, generally

employed in decision making to better visualize the factors that characterize the context, and future the urban and spatial transformation scenarios.

3.3 Stakeholder Analysis

During the initial stages of public project design, stakeholder analysis might be employed to examine the existing context and identify the various actors who hold the power to either promote or hinder the process [24]. To ensure that all the needs of the parties who are directly or indirectly involved in the decision-making process are met, it is recommended to involve stakeholders from the earliest stages of the project [44]. In stakeholder analysis, the actors can be divided into five categories, including (i) political actors who advocate on behalf of citizens, (ii) bureaucratic actors who hold legal responsibilities in moving requests, (iii) actors with special interests who are directly impacted by the choice between potential alternatives, (iv) actors with general interests who lack political or legal legitimacy and represent individuals (or entities, such as environmentalists) who might otherwise be overlooked. Once the actors involved in the decision-making process have been identified, their available resources for promoting their interests are analysed. These resources can include political resources, which reflect the amount of support an actor can generate, economic resources, such as the capacity to mobilize funds or other assets to influence the behaviour of other actors, legal resources, such as power or positions of advantage derived from legal provisions, and cognitive resources, such as access to information or interpretative models relevant to the decision-making process.

Bottero et al. [45] combined Stakeholder Analysis with STEEP and SWOT analyses to support sustainable future scenarios for an underdeveloped area in north-western Italy (Turin, Italy). The adoption of integrated methodologies facilitated the analysis of each stage of the decision problem, from its initial stage to the selection of the most suitable scenario based on the context and stakeholders involved. Rădulescu et al. [46] used stakeholder analysis to analyse the networks created and established by actors involved in brownfield projects as part of sustainable strategies in Romania. As studies have shown, stakeholder analysis makes it possible to set up a participatory approach in the design phase that can lead to the development of stakeholder-oriented evaluation models and consider the multiplicity of interests and resources brought into play by the various actors involved in the decision-making process.

3.4 Community Impact Evaluation

CIE methodology is a qualitative evaluation tool that could be used both during the preliminary design phases of a project to assess its impacts [47], and during its life-cycle to monitor the correspondence between initial assumption and ongoing effects [48]. The steps involved to perform the methodology can be summarized as follows [49]. In the first one, the project to be evaluated and the context in which it will generate an impact are described. In the second step, the actors involved in the project are mapped based on their spatial location (on-site and off-site) and over time (short and medium-long term), and classified into two macro-groups: operators/producers, who are active actors responsible for developing the territory, and the consumers, passive subjects who use

goods and services. The third step identifies the objectives of the project and the involved actors, which is a crucial phase to evaluate the project's ability to meet the interests of the actors involved. The assessment considers three macro-categories of impacts according to Lichfield's studies: monetary, non-monetary, and mixed [50]. Monetary impacts include financial (F) and tax (FIS) impacts, while non-monetary impacts take into account the social impacts (SOC) for both public and private actors, cultural impacts (CUL) that affect the cultural and knowledge sphere, and environmental impacts (ENV). Mixed impacts refer to economic impacts (ECO) that can be both monetary and non-monetary.

Finally, the information gathered with the two previous methods are systematized in a co-axial matrix in which the impacts of the component of the common vision are verified and assessed against the components of the SWOT and the identified stakeholders, on a qualitative scale.

Due to its versatility, CIE has been applied in many areas, including urban planning and transformation. Torre et al. [51] experimented with CIE to evaluate the interaction between different transformation objectives and scenarios for a historic building located in Peschici (southern Italy), emphasizing the possibility of carping the potential for the different stakeholders involved. Bottero et al. [48] investigated the different implementation phases of an urban regeneration project in Barcelona (Spain) highlighting the communicative capacity of the method's results and the flexibility of its application in different time steps.

4 Results and Discussion

The combined methodology allows to map the strategic vision of a potential project (the urban plan in this case) with its impacts on the different stakeholders involved, clustered into the structure of the STEEP. In particular, by listing the different stakeholders in the rows of the matrix and the impacts in the column, it is possible to evaluate how these stakeholders are impacted by the current situation in which the city find itself (time 0, representing the actual situation). Integrating the goals that the strategic vision of the plan forecasts (Fig. 2), it is possible to highlight the negative or positive transformations that such objectives will induce and, thus, the changes in impacts that the stakeholders will benefit or suffer from the implementation of the vision (time 1, representing the implementation of the strategic vision).

This process aims to enhance transparency and to identify the different positive and negative impacts that a strategic vision for the future of a city could have on different types of actors and stakeholders, thus reducing the risk of delivering over-simplified or conformed visions of a city, without considering its intrinsic complexity [52].

Several are the advantages that could be named for the application of the combined methodology in the formation of the strategic vision of the plan. A first one is that the matrix helps to establish the complexity of impacts on stakeholders (political, bureaucratic, general interest, special interest, experts) according to different dimensions (social, technological, economic, environmental, political).

The application of the methodology makes it possible to spatialize the effects of the strategic vision both within (on-site) and outside (off-site) formal boundaries, thus,

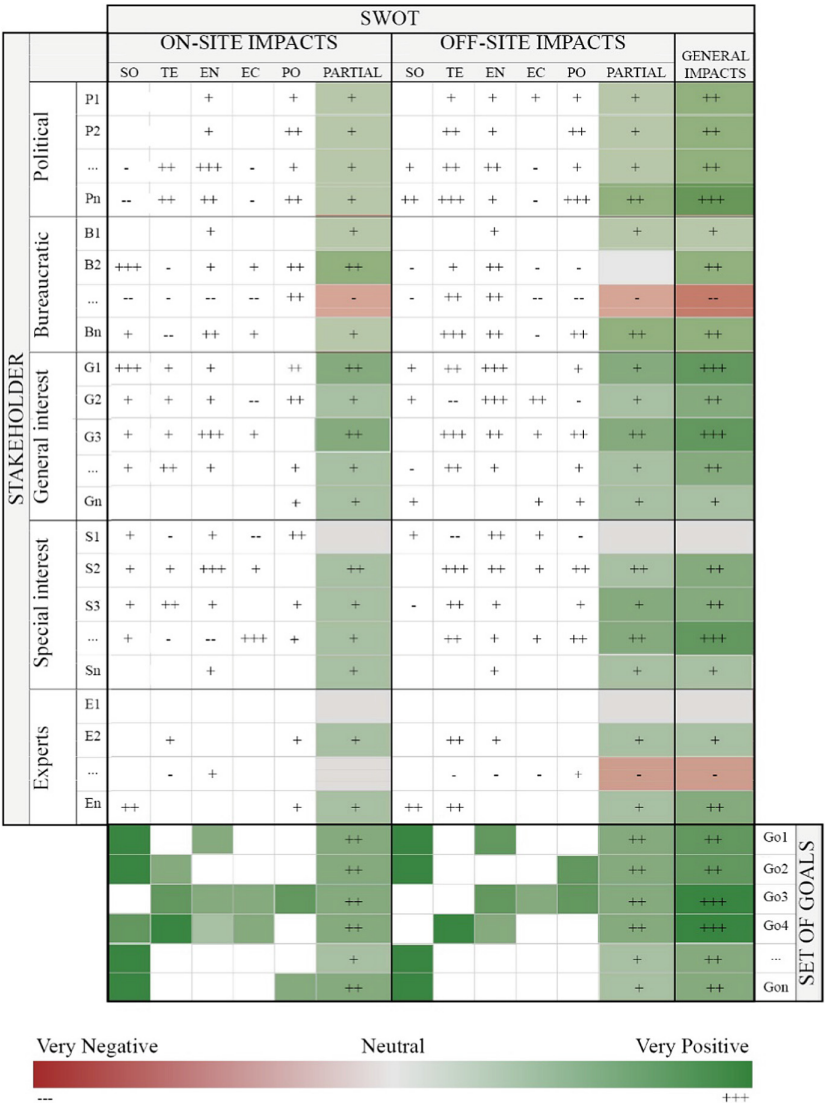


Fig. 2. Illustrative example of a co-axial matrix integrating CIE, SWOT and Stakeholder Analysis (source: Authors elaboration, color image available in the online version).

understanding also the relationships that could be established on a broader scale. Furthermore, the use of the matrix would help DMs and stakeholders to prioritize the impacts and the objectives in order to neutralize possible negative consequences that would arise from the formalization of the strategic vision, keeping its flexible discursive and not specialist dimension in the communication and negotiation among the different experts, actors, and private citizens that would convene to the participatory table. Finally, the

holistic view, that will be produced by the matrix on the different components that structure the city, will have the advantage to prevent possible risks or negative outcomes that might generate in time either on clusters of stakeholders, or on different dimensions of the context (with a particular reference to the categories of the STEEP analysis).

It is worth underlying that such formalization of the decision process has the advantage of making the negotiation of the strategic vision for the city visible and will help the communication of the different needs and desires within the stakeholders that will participate in the public definition of the matrix itself (that could be viewed as a moment of public discussion and participatory planning). The mapping of the objectives of the strategy against the impact on the stakeholders will inform the non-negotiable features of the plan, ultimately making them explicit.

5 Conclusions and Future Perspectives

In recent decades, the role that the development of cities would have on society has been largely highlighted. In this direction, the negotiation and the communication of the strategic vision that the urban community agree upon is attracting more and more attention. This latter trend could be seen also in the Italian urban planning community, in which the traditional tools used in the management of the city are progressively incorporating the strategic aspect in order to both overcome several limitations generated by the National Law adopted more than 80 years ago.

To support the discussion among stakeholders in the definition and negotiation of such strategic vision, this contribution has proposed an integrated methodology aiming at enhancing the transparency of the process by adopting a formalized scheme that would allow to integrate the different points of view of the individuals and groups involved (stakeholder analysis), with a clear communication (and shared interpretation) of the analysis of the context (SWOT), and to map the possible consequences that the goals of the negotiated vision would have on these two.

The methodology proposed in this contribution might be used by municipalities in the early phase of the revision of urban plans such as the constitution of the Preliminary Project Technical Proposal (SEA) to clarify the expected impacts on the different segments of society, and align the proposed plan to the three bottom line approach to sustainability. Furthermore, by making these impacts evident, the public Decision-Maker could focus the attention on the more conflictual features of the proposed plan, increasing the amount of information required in decision-making process and creating dedicated negotiation focus groups. Finally, using matrices to connect the current and expected configuration of the territory, with the stakeholders involved and the plan goals, it could be possible to monitor the ongoing results of the plan, thus evaluating possible corrective measures in its implementation.

The final aim of such methodology is not to provide a standardized solution to the issues (and potentialities) of cities, but to accompany the broader community and entities that surround and live the urban environment in the formation of the idea of its future asset. In doing so, the risk to provide a homologated vision of the future of the city could be prevented, or, at least, the effects of such attempt would be clear to the broader public, and the possible alternative voices of different groups could be better considered and mediated.

The present contribution is methodological in its nature, the application of the proposed framework to a real case study would allow to test it, and also to integrate and improve several aspects that have not been considered yet, such as the participatory methods that could be used in constructing the three "entries" of the methodology (namely the SWOT components, the stakeholder analysis, and the definition of the set of goals).

Finally, in the long run, it would be interesting to test the methodology in its capability to monitor the development of the goals of the strategic vision, as well as the possible modification that might occur in time regarding the socio-economic context, in order to allow DMs to correct or redefine their initial statements according to the changed conditions.

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