DELIVERABLE 3.1

REVIEW OF TOOLS OF COMMONING ACCESSIBILITY

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Deliverable 3.1 Review of Tools of Commoning accessibility

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Contents

1. Introduction

1.1. This working paper reviews and systematises various tools and methods used in establishing, running and disseminating Commoning Accessibility (CA) practices.

1.2. Using inputs from other Work Package outputs (WP2 on CA concepts and WP5 on CA Policies) and continually developing global practice on accessibility planning, it identifies the range of mechanisms used to deliver improvements in access using commoning techniques. Following, using a selection of project case studies contributed by the researchers participating in the Common Access project it identifies the range of mechanisms used to deliver improvements in access using commoning techniques. Subsequently, it proposes a framework to translate these concepts into a practical typology of CA tools. These can in turn be used for those designing future CA experiments.

1.3. The review is the first step in Work Package 3 to design CA experiments. WP3 seeks to understand opportunities for CA, reviewing current practice and developing experiments to test methods and tools for new CA approaches

1.4. WP3 has three main deliverables:

■   **D3.1/M4**: Report on tools for CA experiments implementation (by the end of December 2024),

■   **D3.2**: Report on barriers, requirements, and solutions for CA implementation (by the end of December 2025), and

■   **D3.3**: Guidelines for implementing CA experiments (by the end of Oct 2026).

1.5. This paper summarises the D3.1/M4 findings and is structured as follows:

1.6. ***Section 2: Points of departure for WP3.1 from other Work Packages.*** This section situates WP3.1 within the broader Common Access project, highlighting its relationship to previous work packages (WP2 on CA concepts and WP5 on CA Policies). It introduces the conceptual framework underpinning CA, and defines key concepts such as the Community of Access (the who), Commoning Accessibility Practices (the what), and Commoning Accessibility (the how). It discusses how CA tools must align with legal, regulatory, and institutional contexts at local, national, and international levels and it concludes providing a Conceptual Framework for the Delivery Processes in Commoning Accessibility.

1.7. ***Section 3: Building the Commoning Accessibility Toolkit.*** This section develops a structured approach to categorizing tools for CA practices, whilst stressing their iterative nature, adaptability to diverse contexts and evolving community needs. By analysing existing CA practices, it provides a typology of tools organized into four critical categories that will help to set up future Commoning Accessibility experiments: Planning, Organizing, Resourcing, and Delivery. Each tool category is detailed with definitions, examples, and their roles in

facilitating CA experiments. Planning tools help identify accessibility needs and opportunities; organizing tools establish governance structures and partnerships; funding and resourcing tools secure finance and labour resources; and delivery tools manage the implementation and monitoring of CA practices.

1.8.   ***Section 4****: **How Tools are Being Used in Current Commoning Accessibility Practices*.** Drawing on the project's database which includes 27 CA practices case studies and additional literature, this section analyzes how tools are applied across different types of CA practices. These practices are categorized by their focus on people, places, and connections. For example, people-based practices include community-led training programs and mutual aid networks, place-based practices address the creation of community spaces, and connection-based practices focus on shared mobility systems and digital platforms. For each of these groups, each CA practice is then analysed considering which planning, organising, resourcing and delivery tools it uses. Additionally, a number of further potential tools beyond those that are in the case studies are presented to act as inspiration for future CA experiments.

1.9.   ***Section 5****: **Potential Deployment of Tools in Commoning Experiments*.** The final section explores how the tools identified in Section 4 can be adapted and deployed in promoting new CA experiments. It analyses the case studies presented in Section 4 to derive some key learning points about the planning, organising, resourcing and funding of CA practices. In doing so, it reflects on the role of different actors in promoting those tools and on avenues for collaboration amongst them. It particularly focuses on the different roles played by communities, the state and private sector. This section addresses recurring challenges identified in the analysis, for example discussing the importance of securing sustainable funding, building community capacity, and ensuring equitable outcomes. Examples of potential applications include participatory planning processes, cooperative ownership models, and integrated transport systems. To assist with design and deployment of these tools within the testbed experiments, research questions are highlighted about the processes through which communities can create and manage access to their members under shared rules and norms.

2.   Points of departure for WP3.1 from other Work Packages

2.1.   WP3.1 uses inputs from other Work Package outputs WP2 on CA concepts and WP5 on CA Policies to weave these proposed approaches through the continually developing global practice on accessibility planning including for enabling net zero accessibility planning (Halden 2022[1]). These are used to inform how to translate these outputs into a practical typology of tools in such a way as is intended to be useful for those designing future CA experiments.

Defining Commoning

2.2.   Firstly, WP2 provides an overview of the different definitions of Commons and Commoning from the literature. Figure 1 below from WP2.1 illustrates four conceptual ways that ownership, policy and community identity can be combined to plan, organise and manage resources to meet specific community needs.

Definition	Conditions (*access to the common*)	Who (*the commoners*)	Management and maintainance (*the commoning*)
Commons as «nobody's resources» (*Hardin, 1968*)	**Open-access** situation	**Everyone**, as potential *free riders* of the common	immediate personal advantages related to the unregulated use leading to the **"tragedy of liberty in a common"** and the potential decay of the common itself.
Commons as « some people's resources» (*Ostrom, 1990*)	Commons are **bounded and exclusive property** of a circumscribed set of individuals.	A defined, but flexible, **group of individuals (community)** connected **by constraints of opportunity**	Commons are managed and maintained through shared **norms and rules** that regulate its use. Management and maintenance occur as **a bottom-up self governance** by the community members.
Commons as «everybody's resources» (*Rodotà, 2012*)	Commons are **the opposite of ownership**; they **belong to all, falling outside any market logic** (Rodotà, 2012).	Everybody has **a right of an equal share** of the commons and must be empowered **by law** to claim equal and direct access to it.	Commons are intended as **«fundamental goods»** due to their **indispensability for satisfying certain "fundamental" rights.** Such definition considers the common as a good which access should be pursued by **public interest** and which equal distribution should be **potentially granted by an authority**
Commons as «complex social and political ecologies» (Chatterton, 2010; Hardt and Negri 2010)	The Common as a **profound criticism of the dominant economic system.** It consists of **shared interests or values** forming the potential base for community to come together.	Commons are necessarily created and sustained by **"communities"** i.e., by social networks of mutual aid, solidarity, and practices of human exchange that are not **reduced to the market form.** (De Angelis, 2017)	Provides a **different non-marketized logic of mutual-aid/self-organisation**, where there isn't an 'owner' of such practices, are **not regulated following a top-down logic, but rather self-governed and bottom-up** (Chatterton, 2010).

2.3.

Figure 1 - Four Definitions of Commons – A Synthesis Partially Based on Moroni (2024).

2.4.   Many transport assets such as roads and footpaths have particularly complex ownership, closely related to the rights and responsibilities to use and maintain these assets, with communities defined more by current practice than in any more formal way. Rights such as freedom of mobility are moderated by rules governing access, and permission to use many footpaths and other accesses can depend on local laws, culture and regulations. Local approaches to commoning depend on complex mixes of ownership, policy and community action that do not fall neatly into the categories shown in Figure 1. The four definitions of the commons in WP2.1 are best defined by bringing together commoning and accessibility as discussed below.

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[1]   Halden D 2022. Delivering Resilient Sustainable Transport Systems Using Accessibility Planning Approaches. NECTAR workshop Seville (and shortly to be published in Transport in a Moving World. Edward Elgar https://www.e-elgar.com/shop/gbp/transport-in-a-moving-world-9781035321940.html)

Defining Accessibility

2.5.   Accessibility for a defined group of people or goods is the ease of reaching locations, services and other opportunities, and accessibility of places is the ease of being reached by a defined group of people, goods or other resources. Concepts such as ease are highly subjective, but the explanatory power of accessibility to describe changing patterns of behaviour, and trends in the economy and society, has been extensively explored in research and practice (CoTAM 2020[2]), though cause and effect are far less clear (Kim & Gim 2022[3]).

2.6.   To define accessibility requires explicit consideration of what combination of factors results in good accessibility. Accessibility is defined most accurately by its functionality in enabling connections. Measures of accessibility are always subject and context specific being widely used in legislation and practice by requiring interpretation of measures to be resolved within each specific decision making context, including general duties of care, such as the responsibility of public authorities and services providers to ensure access for all.

2.7.   Explicit management of accessibility change can support decision-making on multiple levels, spatially and institutionally, providing a common language through which to broker solutions for people, places and connections (UN 1992[4]).

Conceptual framework bringing together commoning and accessibility

2.8.   Building on the definitions of commoning and accessibility, above, WP2.1 provides a conceptual framework that brings these together to give a working definition of three separate concepts. These are the Community of Access (the who), Commoning Accessibility Practices (the what), and Commoning Accessibility (the how). These definitions are given below and their interrelation is shown in Figure 2.

2.9.   The conceptual framework for commoning access are discussed in the Common Access Project research report D 2.1[5]. This recognises that without CA processes to protect and manage resources, common goods decay and accessibility outcomes are inequitable and unsustainable. The framework proposed three main definitions to define the structure for CA practices:

■   **WHO: Community of Access** as a defined and relatively bounded self-organised group of people sharing specific accessibility-related needs/desires and commonly searching for a solution resulting in the process of commoning, which ultimately depends on the existence of the community. The community is contingent and connected by constraints of opportunity characterised by instability and momentary enactment based on the needs to be achieved.

■   **WHAT: Commoning Accessibility Practices** as a set of actions that materialise in the realised access performed by a community of access, which are

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[2] Committee of the Transport Access Manual (2020) A Guide for Measuring Connection between People and Places

[3] Kim C, Gim T.T. (2022) Is Accessibility a Control Variable? Is it to be Controlled For?. Procedia Computer Science 201 (2022) 351–358

[4] UN 1992. Agenda 21 - Earth Summit Action Plan. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/Agenda21.pdf

[5] Lanza G., Pucci P. (2024). Conceptual frameworks report.
  https://www.commonaccessproject.com/publications/deliverables/

both the foundation for the development of the commoning accessibility process and its outcome.

■ **HOW: Commoning Accessibility** as the process through which a community collaboratively creates and manages the conditions necessary to provide access to needed/desired socio-spatial resources to its members under shared rules and norms. This process can either develop as an alternative to or in conjunction with market/state accessibility provision and is based on the self-empowering capacity of the community.
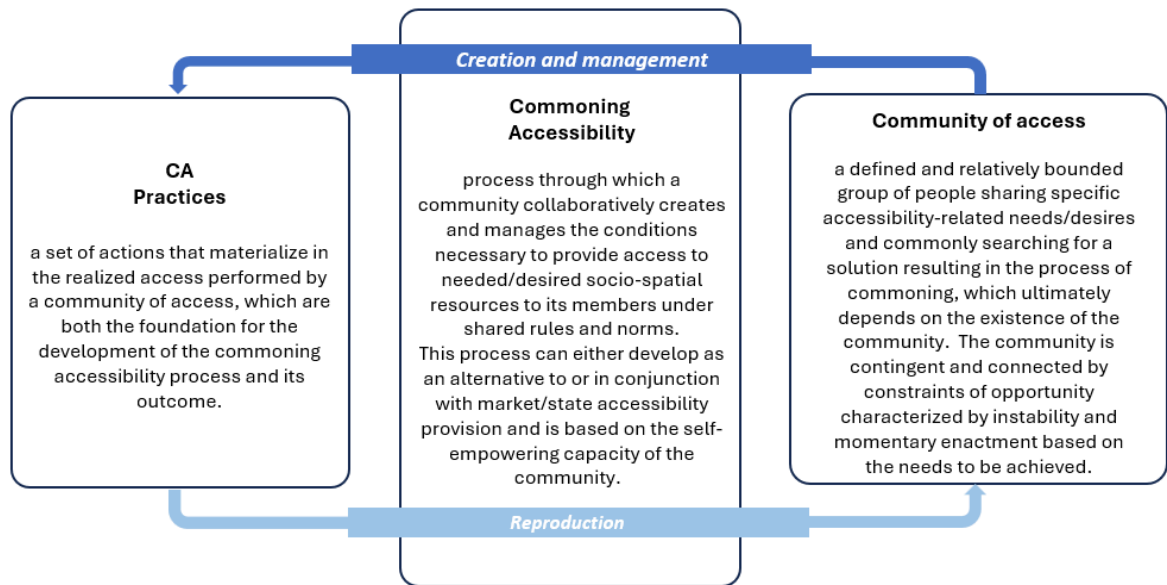

2.10.

Figure 2 - From Common_Access Conceptual Frameworks Report (WP2.1)[6]

2.11.   WP2.1 also provides a schematic representation of where Commoning Accessibility provision fits into the wider picture on how accessibility is provided to citizens. As outlined in Figure 3, state and market provision have some potential to indirectly improve common accessibility through changes to mobility services, transport infrastructure and the location of services and facilities. However, within this representation, most commoning accessibility practices are delivered through interventions by a community of access.

[6] Lanza G., Pucci P. (2024). Conceptual frameworks report.
https://www.commonaccessproject.com/publications/deliverables/
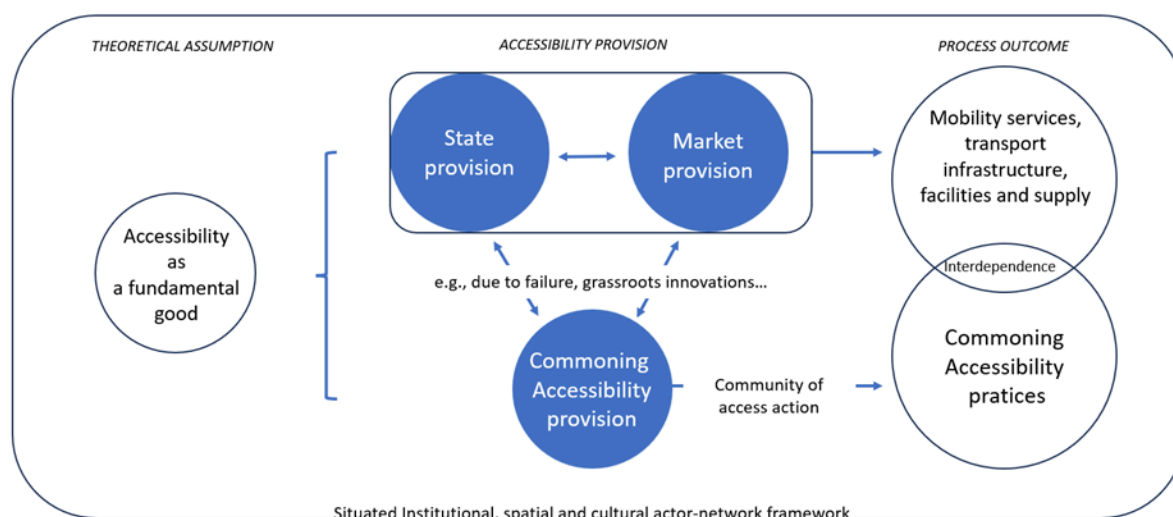
2.12.

Figure 3 - From Common_Access Conceptual Frameworks Report (WP2.1)[7]

Situating Commoning Accessibility within existing policy frameworks

2.13. To translate these commoning accessibility concepts into tools for delivering CA experiments, we must first recognise the existing policy frameworks that define the context within which the tools will be used.

2.14. Policy frameworks are different in every location, being defined at many levels including: international standards (e.g. human rights), national policies and legislation, regional frameworks and governance, and local plans and rules. These are discussed in Common Access Project Report D 5.1[8], outlined in Figure 4. The policy framework recognises at least three dimensions of policy that are relevant to both the processes and objectives of commoning accessibility practices:

■ **Policy priorities** – The process through which shared priorities are established to work towards better accessibility as a joint objective (such as community participation in supporting access to employment projects like '*Wheels to Work*'[9]).

■ **Laws and regulations** – The rules within which commoning processes are permitted and the required standards of accessibility for people (skills requirements, e.g. a driving license), places (layout requirements, e.g. parking standards) and connections (e.g. licensing of cars/bikes/scooters).

■ **Administrative and institutional context** – The commoning processes to manage participation (e.g. tendering procedures) to support joint working across multiple types of organisations on accessibility objectives (e.g. access to healthcare through community provision).

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[7]Lanza G., Pucci P. (2024). Conceptual frameworks report.
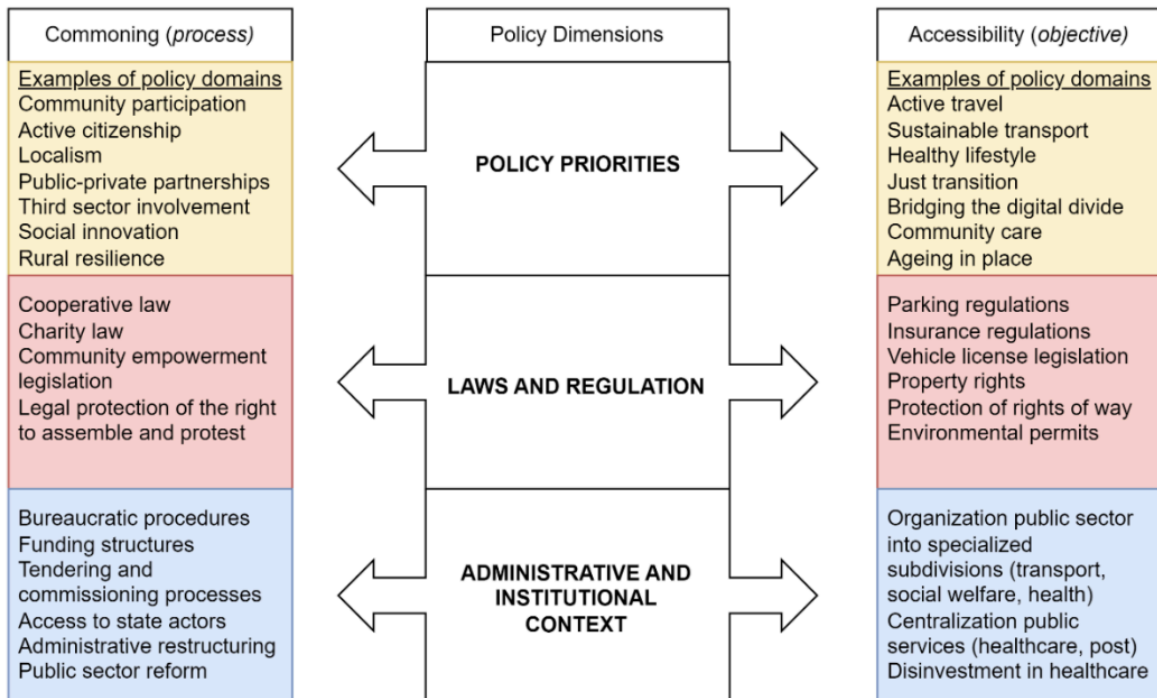 https://www.commonaccessproject.com/publications/deliverables/

[8] Prins, A , Bertolini, L. L., & Nikolaeva, A . (202 4 Commoning Accessibility and Policy Conditions: A n Analytical Framework Common Access Deliverable 5.1) Published by the University of Amsterdam. https://www.commonaccessproject.com/publications/deliverables/

[9] e.g https://www.cfirst.org.uk/community-transport/wheels-to-work/

2.15.   The policy review identifies different policies, laws and context in each country, noting that CA practices are developed within these principles and adapted to the local context in each country or region.

2.16.   The WP5.1 framework suggests how the practice of commoning accessibility interacts with existing governmental and societal levers/mechanisms. Under this framing of the existing policy dimensions, 'commoning' is used to mean the process (the how) and 'accessibility' is used to refer to the outcome that is being achieved as a result of the commoning.

Commoning (*process*)	Policy Dimensions	Accessibility (*objective*)
Examples of policy domains Community participation Active citizenship Localism Public-private partnerships Third sector involvement Social innovation Rural resilience	**POLICY PRIORITIES**	**Examples of policy domains** Active travel Sustainable transport Healthy lifestyle Just transition Bridging the digital divide Community care Ageing in place
Cooperative law Charity law Community empowerment legislation Legal protection of the right to assemble and protest	**LAWS AND REGULATION**	Parking regulations Insurance regulations Vehicle license legislation Property rights Protection of rights of way Environmental permits
Bureaucratic procedures Funding structures Tendering and commissioning processes Access to state actors Administrative restructuring Public sector reform	**ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT**	Organization public sector into specialized subdivisions (transport, social welfare, health) Centralization public services (healthcare, post) Disinvestment in healthcare

2.17.

Figure 4 - Policy Framework for CA experiments from WP5.1[10]

2.18.   However, for the purposes of designing a toolkit it is necessarily to view the policy context more broadly. Social goals for solidarity and belonging could potentially be objectives of commoning accessibility. WP2.2 explains that "the design of a commons could be to satisfy basic fundamental individual and collective needs that should be granted and preserved for present and future generations".

2.19.   Also, as discussed above, accessibility is not only an objective but is often best defined as the participation in and fulfilment of a process to deliver better accessibility. The commons and commoning is therefore not only a process, and accessibility is not only an outcome. The above policy framework, therefore, highlights some selected policies, but a broader policy framing is required for CA practices as discussed below.

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[10] Prins, A , Bertolini, L. L., & Nikolaeva, A . (202 4 Commoning Accessibility and Policy Conditions: A n Analytical Framework Common Access Deliverable 5.1) Published by the University of Amsterdam. https://www.commonaccessproject.com/publications/deliverables/

Understanding Commoning Accessibility Practices

2.20.   Returning to the definitions of CA practices, WP2.1 frames accessibility as a fundamental good, consistent with international human rights, and policies of local and central governments. To make progress towards this objective, it is important to recognise that improving accessibility is a divergent challenge, one where the desired outcomes only become clear through the deliberation of evidence and choices by affected people and organisations (Sen, 1992[11]; Halden et al 2000[12], van Wee & Geurs, 2011[13], DfT 2004[14]).

2.21.   WP2.1 explains that accessibility can be considered a basic need-satisfier where "adequate levels of accessibility, whether related to mobility, proximity, or connectivity, should be assured by a public authority to avoid injustice". The accessibility typology of mobility, proximity or connectivity is attributed to Levine (2019), but care is needed in applying this typology to ensure that sufficient attention is paid to the connections with people that foster further opportunities for sharing and collaboration (relational connectivity). In particular the definition of "adequate levels of accessibility" has meant that sufficientarianist approaches to accessibility have proved to be difficult to implement in practice (Ryan and Martens 2023[15]). Strict limits must be placed on the use of sufficientarianist approaches, particularly away from urban centres, as in the case of this project where the focus is the urban periphery. More collaborative approaches to defining accessibility have proven to be far more effective in practice (Geurs and Halden 2015[16]).

2.22.   WP5.1 also attributes its framing of accessibility to Levine (2019) stating that "we recognize three subcomponents of accessibility and understand CA practices to intervene in one or more of the following domains: mobility (e.g., a community-run car- or bike-sharing scheme), proximity (e.g., a community-run supermarket, or café), or virtual connectivity (e.g. a community-run digital platform offering online services)". However, by replacing Levine's general concept of connectivity with the more restricted concept of mobility, particularly given the points above about relational connectivity, this results in a much narrower framing for the review of the policy literature in WP5.1 than was envisaged in WP2.1.

2.23.   WP5.1 also narrows the scope of commoning, regarding it solely as a process, basing this perspective on comparisons with other commoning processes dealing with the built environment; "Efforts by communities to (re)claim and give shape to accessibility as a common good, inevitably resemble processes of commoning that target other resources, such as housing or energy. In presenting the findings of our literature review, we therefore distinguish between commoning as a process and accessibility as an objective".

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[11] Sen, A.K., (1992) Inequality Reexamined. Oxford: Clarendon

[12] Halden D, McGuigan, D, Nisbet, A, McKinnon, A. (2000). Review of Accessibility Measuring Techniques and their Application. Central Research Unit. Scottish Executive.

[13] van Wee, B., Geurs, K. (2011) Discussing equity and social exclusion in accessibility evaluations. European Journal of Transport and Infrastructure Research, 11(4), 350–367

[14] DfT 2004. Guidance on Accessibility Planning within Local Transport Plans. UK Department for Transport. London

[15] Ryan J and Martens K (2023). Defining and implementing a sufficient level of accessibility: What's stopping us? Transportation Research Part A

[16] Geurs, K. and Halden, D. (2015) Accessibility Planning Theory and Practice in the Netherlands and the UK. Transport and Development. Edward Elgar.

2.24. For the purposes of the CA toolkit development the framing of policy and practice therefore needs to be broader than envisaged by WP5.1, and also to be careful in the interpretation of the concepts in WP2.1 to emphasise tools and practices for CA which are explicitly focused on people. To achieve this, the tools currently applied in CA practices are framed to align the delivery of policy domains for people, places, and connections (Halden et al 2005)[17] as shown in Figure 5:

■ **People** - To ensure that the needs of all citizens are met, collectively described as community planning processes, but also including policies for social inclusion within service delivery (including healthcare, education, leisure, retail etc)

■ **Places** - The land use planning processes incorporating all spatial and geographical dimensions of planning and placemaking.

■ **Connections** - The transport planning, and electronic network coverage policies, prioritising investment, regulating mobility, and aligning transport and digital connections with wider geographical and social policy.

2.25. Figure 5 reflects the challenges faced by governments across Europe to align community, land use and transport planning with each sector. The separate sectors often operate within their own bubbles, but the shared goal of accessibility is used to facilitate cross sector engagement building alignment between these different approaches (ITF2024[18]).
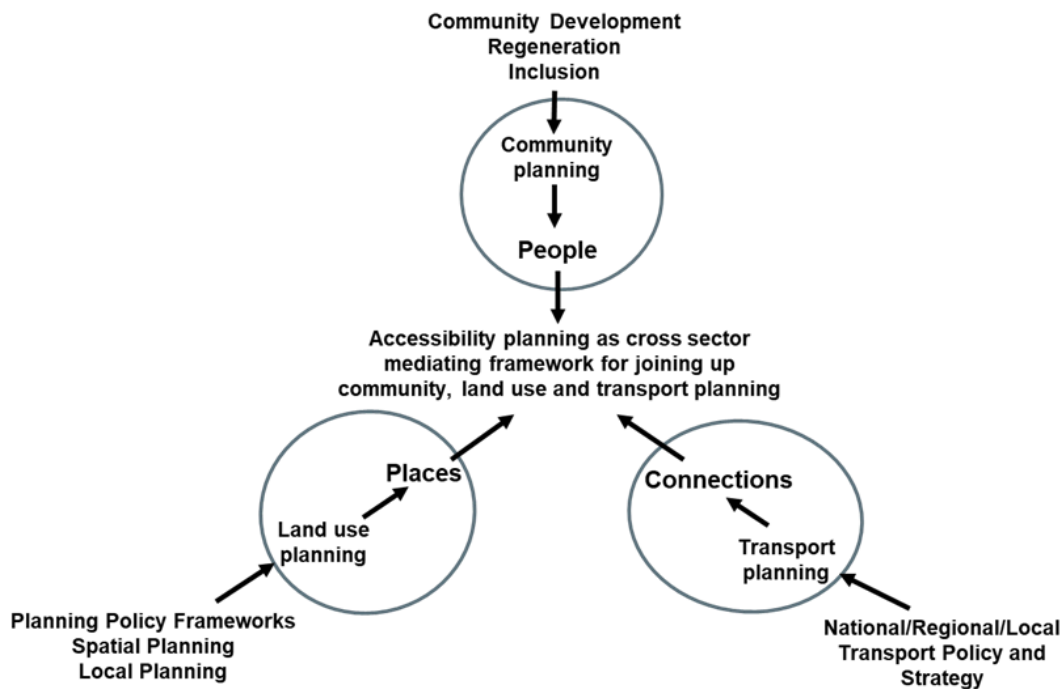
2.26.

Figure 5 - Making Connections with Accessibility Planning (adapted from Halden 2009[19])

2.27. In their work on accessibility evaluation, Geurs and Van Wee (2004[20]) add a temporal dimension to the above three categories recognizing that places have

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[17] Halden D, Jones P, Wixey S (2005) Accessibility Analysis Literature Review. Transport Studies Group, University of Westminster

[18] ITF (2024), Sustainable Accessibility for All, ITF Research Report, OECD Publishing, Paris.

[19] Halden D (2009). 10 Years of Accessibility Planning in the UK - What Has Been Achieved? AET https://aetransport.org/past-etc-papers/conference-papers-pre-2009/conference-papers-2009

[20] Geurs, K.T. and Van Wee, B. (2004) Accessibility Evaluation of Land-Use and Transport Strategies: Review and Research Directions. Journal of Transport Geography, 12, 127-140

different opening hours, transport schedules vary by time of day and people must align travel choices with lifestyle needs. In the UK accessibility planning guidance (DfT 2004[21]), in addition to these temporal factors, other potential barriers to accessibility were also added including: safety and security issues, physical access to buildings and transport by people with different mobility characteristics, cost factors such as the affordability of travel and services, environmental factors such as transport emissions, and gaps in information and networks (DfT 2004[22]).

2.28.   The complexity of factors that must be included in the service designs requires that the CA toolkit must be able to secure complex outcomes, including deliberation of evidence within the affected communities. Many of the most successful accessibility planning programmes have been promoted within broader programmes for inclusion, social cohesion, economic development, and emissions reduction where alignment with service design for people and communities is more easily integrated than within designs for places and connections where infrastructure and construction interests often dominate (Geurs and Halden 2015[23]).

2.29.   Rather than accessibility only being used as a mediating framework for other core delivery aims as shown in Figure 5, some countries have mandated accessibility planning as a discrete process required from local authorities, such as the UK approach which adopts a four stage model for participative working within communities (DfT 2004[24]):

■   **1. Plan** - Review accessibility needs in a community to identify where improvements are required.

■   **2. Organise** - Lead partnership working to design solutions to fix identified problems.

■   **3. Fund and Resource** - Identify the capabilities and resources to implement the required improvements.

■   **4. Deliver** - Oversee the implementation and continue to monitor change to develop and revise programmes to tackle all identified needs.

2.30.   This recognises that in addition to drawing from the land use, transport and community planning programmes, accessibility planning must be able to organise implementation, assemble resources and manage delivery overcoming all barriers to accessibility.

2.31.   Each of these collaborative service designs brings together evidence of need to plan, organise, fund, deliver improvements on broadly the same model. The accessibility planning toolkit is largely defined by the square boxes in Figure 6 including: allocating agency, setting rules, partnership agreements and resource assembly. .

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[21] DfT (2004). Guidance on Accessibility Planning in Local Transport Plans. UK Department for Transport. London

[22] DfT (2004). Guidance on Accessibility Planning in Local Transport Plans. UK Department for Transport. London

[23] Geurs, K. and Halden, D. (2015) Accessibility Planning Theory and Practice in the Netherlands and the UK. Transport and Development. Edward Elgar

[24] DfT (2004). Guidance on Accessibility Planning in Local Transport Plans. UK Department for Transport. London.

2.32.

Figure 6 - Processes for Planning, Organising, Resourcing and Delivering Accessibility Improvements (adapted from Halden 2022[25])

2.33.   A conceptual framework for the CA toolkit is proposed below in Figure 7 combining the integration of planning in Figure 5 with the implementation processes Figure 6.
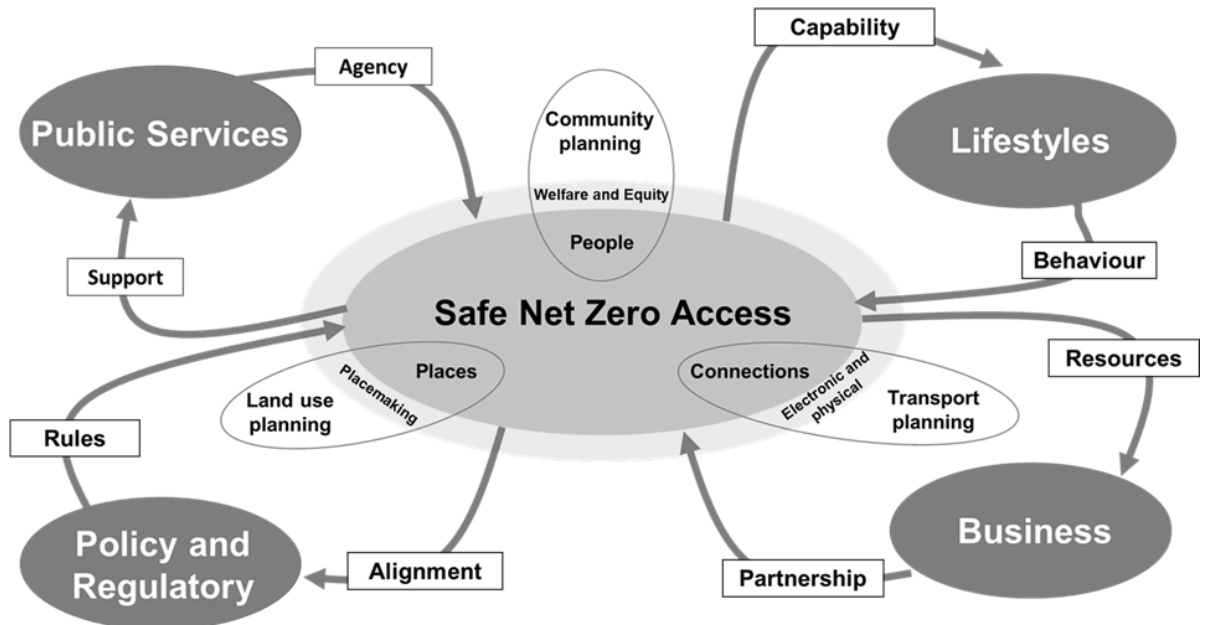
2.34.

Figure 7 - A Conceptual Framework for the Delivery Processes in Commoning Accessibility.

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[25] Halden D 2022. Delivering Resilient Sustainable Transport Systems Using Accessibility Planning Approaches. NECTAR workshop Seville (and shortly to be published in Transport in a Moving World. Edward Elgar https://www.e-elgar.com/shop/gbp/transport-in-a-moving-world-9781035321940.html)

Developing the CA Toolkit

2.35.   Using the framing of CA Practices from Figure 7, and the projects identified in WP2.2 and WP5.1, Table 1 summarises the types of practices that describe the structure of the toolkit in three sub-categories: People, Place, and Connections.

Table 1 – Sub-categorisation of CA Practices with examples

People	Place	Connections
- Community education and training activities (including cycle training) - Relationship management activities to reach a common view including transport customer relations, citizen's juries/assemblies. - Mutual aid between people for assisting with repairs to bikes, cars, and boats - Community services for older people (warden service, lunch clubs) - Volunteer-led mapping and surveying (travel flows, public rights of way) - Protests/campaigns to secure public access to paths and spaces - Protests/campaigns against the closure of local public services - Protests/campaigns relating to public transport provision	- Multi-stakeholder local food production and retail - Community cafés - Community regeneration projects (such as transforming empty urban spaces into gardens, playgrounds or barbecue areas) - Community social and leisure spaces - Community playgrounds/day-care - Community health and social care services provision including first responder to health emergencies - Community land purchase for integrated housing and service delivery (such as car free residential areas run by eco-communities) - Local shops as multi-functional service hubs (postal services, banking, healthcare, laundry, repair, childcare, cultural meeting place, ICT facilities for online shopping and administrative chores) - Parklets to transform road space into community space - Community-led landscaping, streetscape, planting and maintenance	- Community transport including social car schemes, dial-a-ride schemes and community buses (Bürgerbus) - Car sharing schemes - Bike/e-bike sharing schemes - Scooter sharing schemes - Community car lift sharing schemes including for school transport - Community organised travel by walking and cycling in groups (walking buses, cycle trains) - Mobility hubs with shared mobility services (cars/bikes) linked with public transport interchange - Community-based food delivery schemes including cargo bike community food delivery - Community-led broadband provision - Community facilities for recharging and refuelling transport - Community inspection/monitoring/maintenance of transport infrastructure (community street audits) - Community operated communication and reward systems such as customer accounts, payments systems and targeted information. - Volunteer led road and path repairs including lighting

3. Building the Commoning Accessibility toolkit

3.1. With the above points of departure in mind, this section aims to create a group of categories for tools that will help to set up future Commoning Accessibility experiments.

Towards the Commoning Accessibility toolkit

3.2. Task 3.1 is a review of tools for commoning access, applying selection criteria to these tools, identifying the expected impact and mitigation strategies, and setting these strategies within the constraints and opportunities governed by the policy context. CA is not a condition that is either achieved or not achieved, but a process defined by the toolkit of practices. CA practices are defined by the collaborative approach to participation improving access, as distinguished from a commons of access as an end state.

3.3. This review comprises an initial sift of potential tools to develop a structure within which to deliver CA experiments. The work was undertaken reviewing a sample of projects that appeared to have characteristics consistent with the CA framework. This comprised 27 projects assembled in a database as part of the development of an 'atlas' of CA practices within Task 2.2 of the CA research. These projects were supplemented with a literature search for synthesis reports describing community led projects and accessibility planning case studies.

3.4. The implementation mechanisms on these projects were identified and categorised using the conceptual and policy frameworks above and expanded into a delivery typology based on the evidence of CA practices. Using this review the key features of the CA toolkit are identified.

Creating categories of CA tools for practical use

3.5. Given that the scope of all possible Commoning Accessibility practices sits across a large number of different policy areas (land-use, transport, digital, skills, etc), the categorisation of tools must be sufficiently broad that it is applicable across these different policy sectors. At the same time, the categories must be sufficiently specific and concrete to be practically useful across each of these areas. As such, we have chosen the following four categories to organise the wide range of tools that are used to enact Commoning Accessibility practices. These four categories are each necessary for the CA experiment to be successful. The categories of tools are: (1) Planning, (2) Organising, (3) Funding, and (4) Delivering, outlined in the Table 2 below.

Table 2 – CA Tool Categories

Tool Category	Function of tool	Description
Planning	Identify a need to be tackled based on evidence of a challenge or opportunity for some group of people or type of goods and/or assemble a plan to deliver the practice	Any tool that helps answer the strategic questions (a) "where are we now?" and (b) "where do we need to go?". This includes mapping the need, setting out the defined accessibility outcome/targets, setting out a strong vision, mapping the existing assets, mapping the existing finance and social capital, securing community buy-in, and mapping the existing legislative and policy framework specific to the context
Organising	Organize the governance structure of the partnership or supply chain required for the practice	Any tool that helps to bring people together into a formal or informal organisational structure that enables the group of commoners to get things done. This includes setting up legal organisations with commoning principles (e.g. Cooperative, CIC etc.), communication tools, etc.
Funding and Resourcing	Assemble the funding and resources to implement the practice	Any tool that helps the commoning practice to resource their activity in a way that is self-sustaining. This includes both the financing (e.g. government funding, farebox revenues, membership fees, donations, sponsorships, advertising) and the labour resourcing (e.g. volunteering, paid staff).
Delivery	Manage the implementation and continue to optimize delivery over time with ongoing feedback and monitoring	Any tool that helps deliver the commoning accessibility practice in the real world. These tools are more context specific to the type of commoning practice in question, but could include tools to help provide labour for driving minibuses (e.g. formal contracts with paid drivers or informal agreements for volunteer) and tools to help resource additional assets (e.g. procurement for bicycles or a donation process for second-hand bicycles).

3.6.   Through the analysis of the description of the case studies from the WP2 database, a number of different tools have been identified within each of the four tool categories. The description of these tools are detailed in Section 4 in Tables 3 to 6. The frequency that each tool has been used across the case studies can be seen in the bar charts in section 4.

4. How Tools are being used in current Commoning Accessibility Practices

The Commoning Accessibility Practices case studies database

4.1. This work package uses the case studies entered into the Commoning Accessibility Practices case study database. The 27 case studies in the database are summarised in Figure 8, along the axes of People, Place and Connections.

4.2. Based on these case studies, an analysis was conducted to identify the type and frequency of the tools used. The tools included in the analysis are based on the answers that were inputted into the database and additional desk-based research, and so may not be exhaustive.

4.3. Many CA Practice case studies use multiple tools, which is why the total number of tools in the graphs below exceeds the total number of case studies.
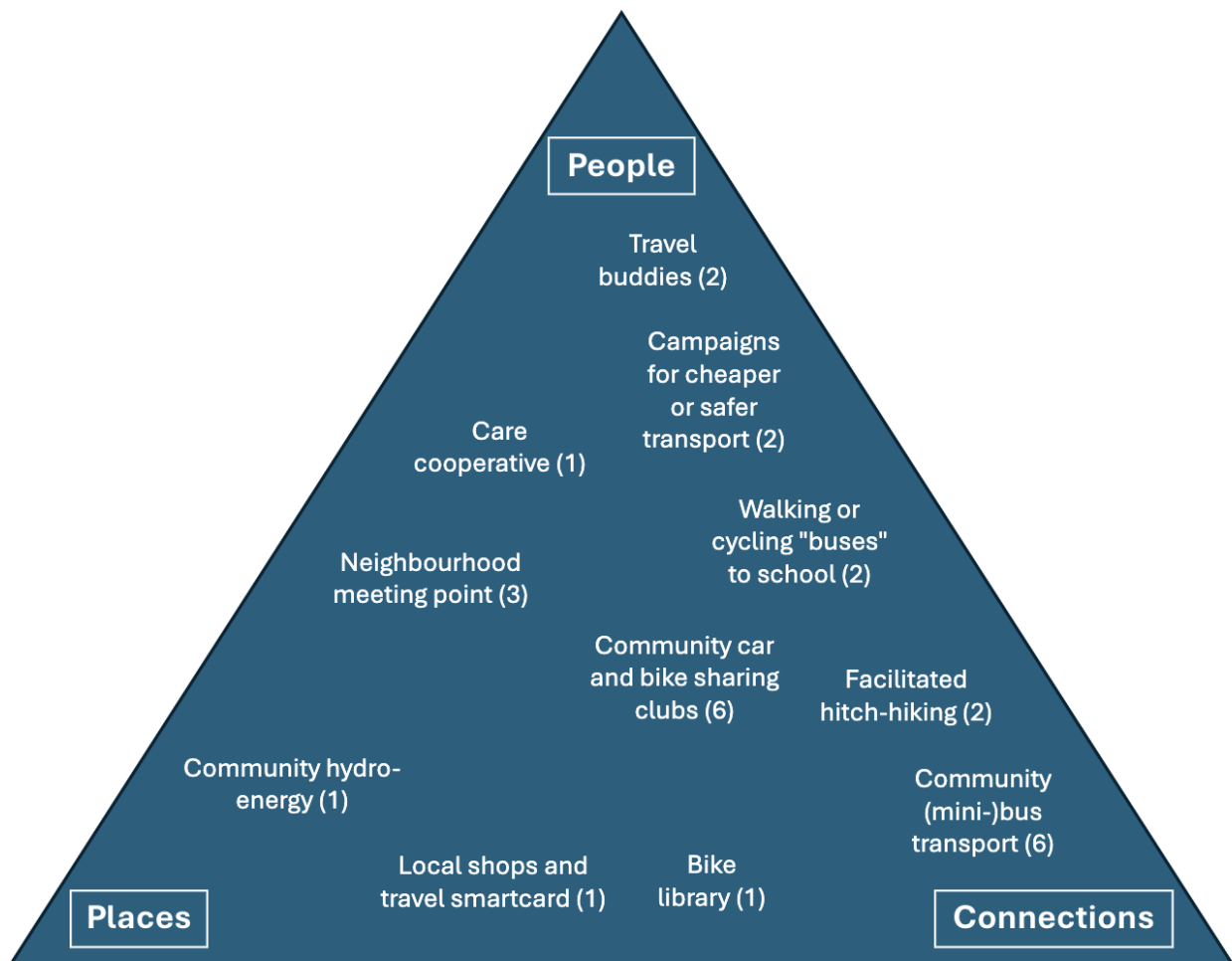

Figure 8 – Types (and frequencies) of CA practice in the case study database from which tools are identified (Author's own)

Frequency of tools found in the CA Case Studies database

4.4.   The database has been analysed to identify which tools are used most frequently in existing CA Practices, across the four categories of Planning, Organising, Funding and Resourcing, and Delivering. The description of tools can be found in Section 3.

Planning tools
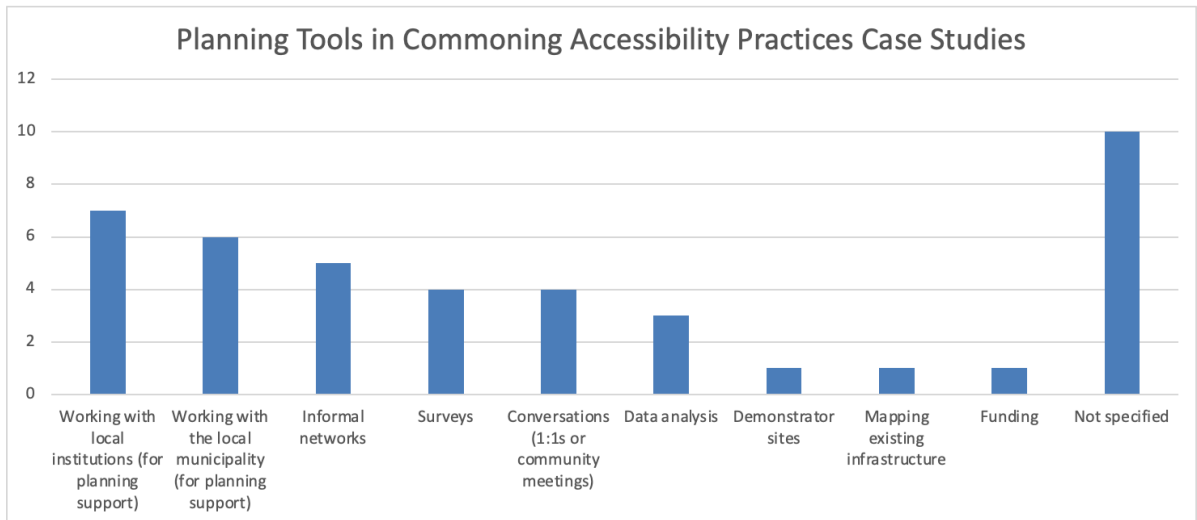
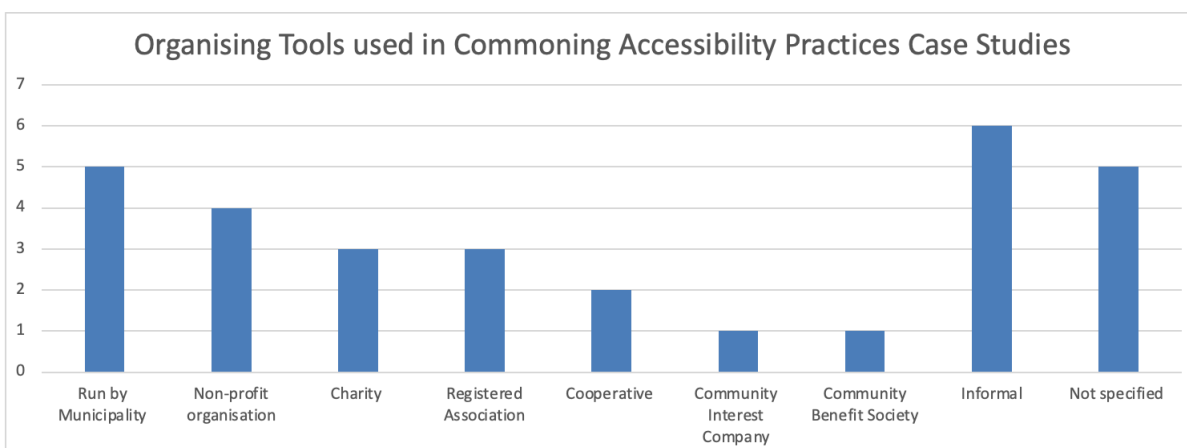*Figure 9 – Frequency of planning tools in CA Practices case studies (Author's own)*

4.6.   The most common planning tools identified were that CA Practices worked with other institutions to help planning, either with the local municipality or other local institutions like universities, schools, or local businesses. Additionally to this, informal networks, surveys and structured conversations were used frequently. Data analysis, demonstrator sites, mapping existing infrastructure and funding specifically for planning were all also included

4.7.   A high number of case studies did not specify any planning tools, suggesting that this is an area where the case study database questions could be updated in further iterations.

Table 3 - Planning tools identified in the database

Planning tools used in CA case studies	Description
Working with local institutions (for planning support)	The CA Practice works with or from within local institution(s), such as a school, university, or local business to help determine the community accessibility needs or plan for the CA practice
Working with the local municipality (for planning support)	The CA Practice works with or from within the local municipality to help determine the community accessibility needs or plan for the CA practice
Informal networks	The CA Practice uses informal networks (e.g. community groups, parents, bus users) to determine community accessibility need or plan the CA Practice
Surveys	The CA Practice runs a digital or paper-based survey to help determine community accessibility needs
Conversations (1:1s or community meetings)	The CA Practice intentionally uses (semi-)structured conversations through 1:1 or group conversations to help determine community accessibility needs
Data analysis	The CA Practice analyses existing data (e.g. using data on hitchhiking use) to help determine community accessibility needs
Demonstrator sites	The CA Practice is set up in a way to act as a demonstrator site for other areas to learn from
Mapping existing infrastructure	The CA Practice maps existing infrastructure in order to determine where the CA Practice can be applied (e.g. mapping bus stops for adding monitors to share information).
Funding	The CA Practice has a specific fund allocated for planning the service

Organising tools (i.e. legal and governance)

4.8.

Figure 10 - Frequency of organising tools in CA Practices case studies (Author's own)

4.9. The most common organising (legal and governance) tools identified were that an informal governance structure was used (e.g. volunteer-led without a specific legal structure), followed by that it was housed within the local municipality. Following this, several different legal structures were used to organise the CA practices, including non-profit organisations, charities, registered associations, community interest companies and community benefit societies.

Table 4 - Organising (i.e. legal and governance) tools identified in the database

| Organising tools used in CA Case Studies	Description
Run by Municipality	The CA Practice is run by the municipality and therefore uses their existing legal and governance structures.
Non-profit organisation	The CA Practice is set up as, or run by, a non-profit organisation structure (not specified which legal structure is used in database)
Charity	The CA Practice is set up as, or run by, a charity
Registered Association	The CA Practice is set up as, or run by, a Registered Association
Cooperative	The CA Practice is set up as, or run by, a Cooperative
Community Interest Company	The CA Practice is set up as, or run by, a Community Interest Company
Community Benefit Society	The CA Practice is set up as, or run by, a Community Benefit Society

Informal	The CA Practice does not have a formal legal or governance structure

Funding and Resourcing tools

4.10.
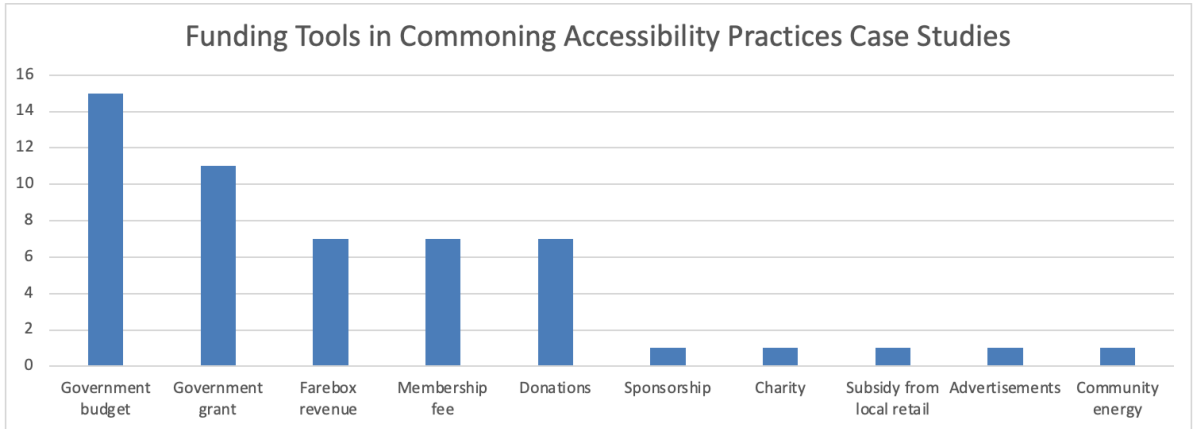
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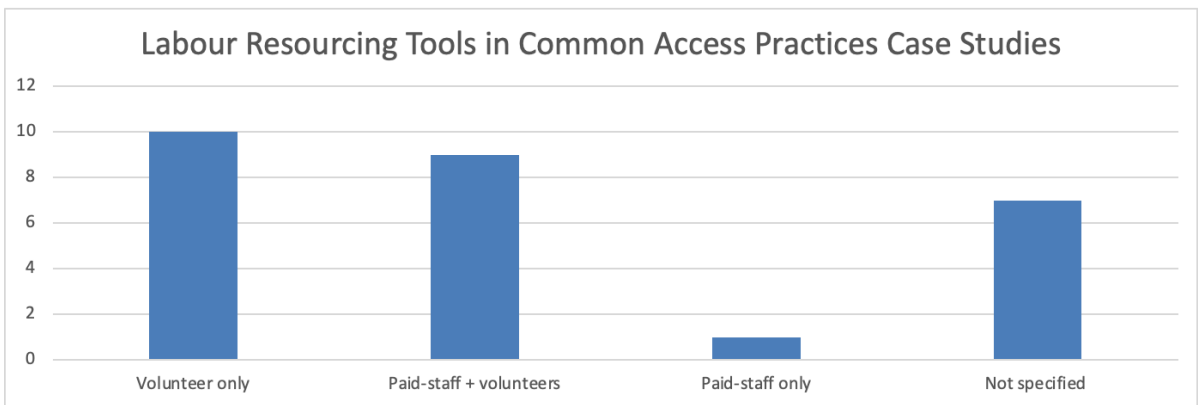
Figures 11 and 12 - Frequency of funding and resourcing tools in CA Practices case studies (Author's own)

4.12. The most common funding tools identified were financing directly from governments, whether via government grants to organisations or directly through government budgets. Following this, CA practices generated income via fareboxes revenues (e.g. pay-per drive for car clubs), membership fees, and donations. Other financing tools were found infrequently (each once) in the case studies: sponsorship, charity, subsidies from local shops, advertisement and revenus from community-generated energy.

4.13. A range of labour resourcing models were used in the CA practice case studies. The most frequent model recorded was volunteer only, followed by a mix of paid staff and volunteers. Only one case study reported having paid staff only, and a number did not specify.

Table 5 - Funding and resourcing tools identified in the database

Funding tools used in CA Case Studies	Description
Government budget	The CA Practice uses funding directly out of a government operational budget
Government grant	The CA Practice uses funding from a government grant (e.g. a specific fund set up for use by third party organisations which is applied to)
Farebox revenue	The CA Practice has an income stream from pay-per-use (e.g. pay per car rental use for a car share scheme)
Membership fee	The CA Practice has an income stream from membership fees paid by commoners (either one-off at the start or an ongoing subscription model)
Donations	The CA Practice receives specific donations from members of the public
Sponsorship	The CA Practice receives income through sponsorship via local business
Charity	The CA Practice is part of a charity and so receives funding via funds held by the charity
Subsidy from local retail	The CA Practice receives funding from local businesses in the form of discounts
Advertisements	The CA Practice receives income through selling advertising space
Community energy	The CA Practice receives income from selling community-generated energy
Labour resourcing tools used in CA Case Studies	**Description**
Volunteer only	The CA Practice relies on volunteers entirely for labour resources
Paid-staff only	The CA Practice relies on paid staff entirely for labour resources
Paid-staff and volunteers	The CA Practice relies on a mix of paid staff and volunteers for labour resources

Delivery tools
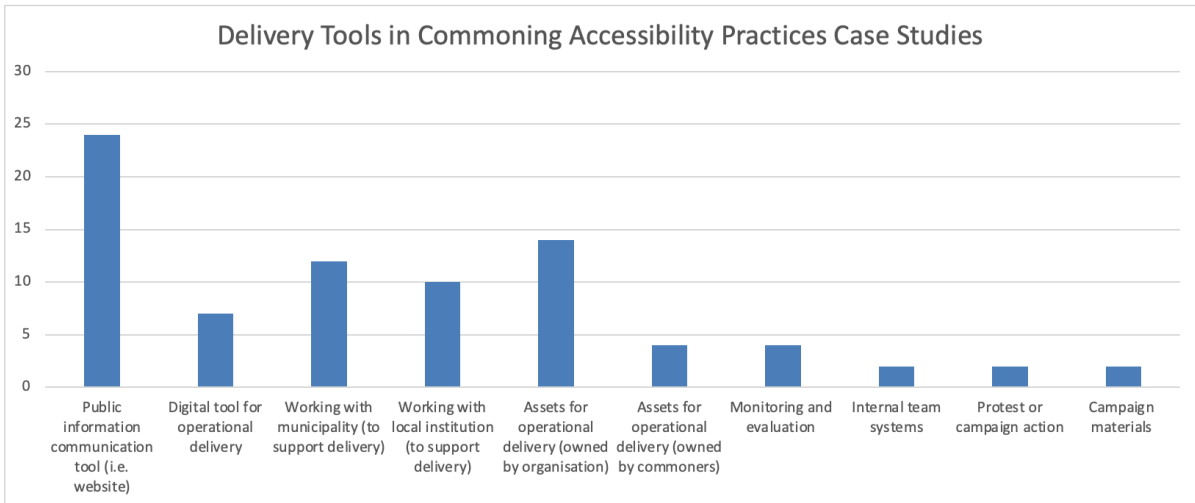
Figure 13 - Frequency of delivery tools in CA Practices case studies (Author's own)

4.14.

4.15.   The most common delivery tools identified were information communication tools (e.g. a website or digital platform). Almost all case studies have website that share some information about the practice. Some additionally use digital tools as a way to deliver the practice. The next most common delivery tool was to partner with and use the capabilities of other local institutions including, most frequently, the local municipality, as well as local schools, universities and businesses. The last high frequency tools used were the assets (and consumables) required for carrying out the practice (e.g. a minibus and fuel). Protest and campaign tools were used in a small number of case studies. Other tools associated with delivery, such as evaluation and good internal team systems were also highlighted in some case studies.

Table 6 - Funding and resourcing tools identified in the database

Delivery tools used in CA Case Studies	Description
Public information communication tool (i.e. website)	The CA Practice has a website on which it shares information about the CA Practice (e.g. their mission, how to sign up and rules of engagement)
Digital tool for operational delivery	The CA Practice uses a website or another digital tool (e.g. smartcard) directly in the operation of the practice (e.g. using a digital platform for running a hitch-hiking service)
Working with local institution (to support delivery)	The CA Practice works with, or from within, a local institution (e.g. a school, university, or local business) to support the delivery of the practice
Working with municipality (to support delivery)	The CA Practice works with, or from within, the local municipality to support the delivery of the practice
Assets for operational delivery (owned by organisation)	The CA Practice uses assets (e.g. vehicles) for the delivery of the service and these assets are owned by the organisation that runs the CA Practice
Assets for operational delivery (owned by commoners)	The CA Practice uses assets (e.g. vehicles) for the delivery of the service and these assets are owned by the commoners that use the CA Practice
Monitoring and evaluation	The CA Practice uses monitoring and evaluation tools (e.g. data collection, data analysis) and publishes their data
Internal team systems	The CA Practice applies specific and intentional internal team systems (e.g. volunteer training, member welfare initiatives, rules of engagement)
Protest or campaign action	The CA Practice includes protest or campaigning actions to meet commoners' aims
Campaign materials	The CA Practice uses physical campaigns materials (e.g. leaflets, posters, street art) to help meet commoners' aims

Further examples of Common Access Tools

4.16.　　To give a more granular view of the tools that are used in CA Practices, the following tables give illustrative examples of specific tools that are used or could be used. Tools in the table marked in **bold** are those that are included in specific case studies.

Table 7 - Potential Tools for People-based CA Experiments

Type of CA Practice	Planning	Organising	Funding and Resources	Delivering
Community education and training activities (including cycle training)	National cycle training programmes prioritised through local authority action plans, community participation and market actors, with all partners providing resources (staff time, equipment and facilities) Laws governing rules on skills and training for each vehicle type commoned through local forums and community enforcement. Community schools as hubs for planning CA programmes starting with routes to school and broadening to other CA opportunities. Community skill sharing set ups	Train the trainers. Volunteers do much of the training Parent, school, local community management including school regulations and responsibilities for organising travel Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts .	License fees fund the administration of certification and a proportion of the community training Largely delivered with volunteer resources	Manage through monitoring evidence of improvements enabling of schools, workplaces and community organisations to better support training programmes

Relationship management activities to reach a common view including transport customer relations, citizen's juries/assemblies.	Community capacity assessment Review coverage and representation of membership schemes- clubs, societies, special interest groups, etc	Assemblies, citizen juries, panels.	Stakeholder finance for relationship management based on inputs and outputs of each stakeholder	
Mutual aid between people for assisting with repairs to bikes, cars, and boats		Community owned bike repair shops. Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts	Employability programmes Memberships, donation, fee for repairs Volunteers' time	Network of volunteers and professional mechanics
Community services for older people (warden service, lunch clubs)	Community networks reviewing feedback from users. Surveys organised by community e.g. street audits for step free access near homes for older people.	Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts	Volunteers' time	Network of volunteers, community centres

Volunteer-led mapping and surveying (travel flows, public rights of way)	Community networks reviewing feedback from users. Surveys organised by community e.g. street audits for step free access near homes for older people.	Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts.	Volunteers' time	Network of volunteers, mapping tools, surveying tools
Protests/campaigns to secure road safety	Sharing and debating factors affecting road injury data:Speed limits and local traffic regulation Reviewing travel choices at schools within schools Shared experiences and perceptions	**Open knowledge sharing network of parents lobbying local government (Veilig 9040)** Assemblies, collectives, community groups	**Parents' free time and local networks (Veilig 9040)**	**local actions, campaigns and meetings with municipality to make the neighbourhood safer (Veilig 9040)**
Protests/campaigns to secure public access to paths and spaces	Accessibility maps and data Regulation on access/land ownership etc Shared experiences and perceptions	Network sharing knowledge Assemblies, collectives, community groups	Volunteers' time	Meetings, mapping, local actions, negotiations, alternative plans
Protests/campaigns against the closure of local public services	Publishing accessibility maps and data and debating in community forum Laws and regulations on public service provision Budgets allocations Shared experiences and perceptions	Network sharing knowledge Assemblies, collectives, community groups	Volunteers' time	Meetings, mapping, local actions, negotiations, alternative plans

Protests/campaigns relating to public transport provision	Sharing public transport data including coverage and costs and debating in community forum Shared experiences and perceptions **Conversations /surveys to assess PT high costs and inaccessibility based on members' direct experience (Planka-nu).**	Assemblies, collectives, community groups **Direct democracy for decision making; no-profit policy (planka.nu)**	Volunteers' time **Membership fee to create a solidarity fund and absorb collectively cost of PT fines (planka.nu)**	Meetings, mapping, local actions, negotiations, alternative plans **Campaigns materials such as leaflets (planka.nu).**

Table 8 - Potential Tools for Place-based CA Experiments

Type of CA Practice	Planning	Organising	Funding and Resources	Delivering
Multi-stakeholder local food production and retail	Motivated people within community networking with state programmes and policies and market providers to identify potential synergy. Data on healthy food options and access	Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts Food quality partnerships to expand available locations/centres to store/sell food	Grants Community shares Volunteers' time	Volunteers' led collection of data on usage and demand
Community cafés	Motivated people within community Data on healthy food options and access	Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts Food quality partnerships to expand available locations/centres to store/sell food	Grants Community shares Volunteers' time	Volunteers' led collection of data on usage and demand

| Community regeneration projects (such as transforming empty urban spaces into gardens, playgrounds or barbecue areas) | Motivated people within community

Data on greenspace | Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts | Grants

Social bonds/ Community shares

Volunteers' time | Volunteers' skills

Support by local universities/research centres/etc |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Community social and leisure spaces | Motivated people within community | **Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups – e.g. community development trusts (e.g. Dorspunt)**

Organising more sharing of available meeting spaces

Regional and EU policies for communities (e.g. Dorspunt)

Available space for information, exchange and action. Managed by a registered association "Nachbarschaftstreff" . | Grants

Community shares

Volunteers' time | Volunteers' skills

Support by local universities/research centres/etc |
| Community playgrounds/day-care | Data/mapping on access to greenspace

Motivated people within community | No profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks

Available spaces to set up | Grants

Community shares/social bonds

Volunteers' time | Volunteers' skills

Support by local universities/research centres/etc |

Community health and social care services provision including first responder to health emergencies	Data/mapping on access to health Motivated people within community	No profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks Available spaces for hosting services **Care cooperation coordinated by village team and support workers and volunteers. Some of the activities of Austerlitz Zorgt fall under the so-called 'Wet Maatschappelijke Ondersteuning (WMO)', which stipulates that municipalities are responsible for ensuring that people can continue to live independently as long as possible (Austerlitz Zorgt)**	Volunteers' time and buildings **Housing Foundation 'WoonStichting Nu Voor Straks', (Austerlitz Zorgt)**	Living facilities, welfare services
Community land purchase for integrated housing and service delivery (such as car free residential areas run by eco-communities)	Motivated people within community	No profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks Available land Legal frameworks for community ownership (see UK Open Spaces Society (https://www.oss.org.uk/what-do-we-fight-for/village-greens/driving-and-parking-on-your-local-green-space/)	Community shareholder models/community bonds Grants **Seeding from other projects (Radical Routes)**	

Local shops as multi-functional service hubs (postal services, banking, healthcare, laundry, repair, childcare, cultural meeting place, ICT facilities for online shopping and administrative chores)	Motivated people within community	Nonprofit/ cooperative/ volunteer organisation partnerships with local facilities managers, service providers and community groups Organising more sharing of available retail spaces Legal frameworks for community ownership (see UK Open Spaces Society (https://www.oss.org.uk/what-do-we-fight-for/village-greens/driving-and-parking-on-your-local-green-space/)	Community shareholder models Grants	
Parklets to transform road space into community space	**Data on car use, parking spaces available (Possible)**	**Legal frameworks to claim parklets (Possible)** Community events	Volunteers' time Local authority funds	Monitoring of use and demand Community support
Community-led landscaping, streetscape, planting and maintenance	**Data on spaces available (Possible)**	Legal frameworks Community events	Volunteers' time Local authority funds	Monitoring of use and demand Community support

Table 9 - Potential Tools for Connections-based CA Experiments

Type of CA Practice	Planning	Organising	Funding and Resources	Delivering

Community transport including social car schemes, dial-a-ride schemes and community buses	Community groups identifying local needs Time budgets available to each population group for each trip type Fuel and vehicle costs Driving licences and appropriate insurance options	Scheduling of activities and scheduling of transport services by time of day Collaboration with municipality **Community Transport Association member. Board of directors. Community benefit society. (FIRST&LAST MILE (Oxfordshire))** **Volunteer Organization (as recognised by the D.Lg. 18/2020) that, by statute, is fully operated by volunteers (Progetto 80)** **Registered charity, volunteers share their cars and give lifts. Cooperation between members (Community car scheme provided by the Larkhall & District Volunteer Group)** **Set up by municipality but run by volunteers (Taxi sociale)** **Public transport act 1985 as initial framework, now community Interest Company (The big Lemon)**	Farebox revenue Donations Grants **Volunteers' time (Progetto 80, First&Last mile, etc.)** **Membership fees (Progetto 80)**	Establishment to ensure that the ethos of CA practices are implemented **Network of volunteer drivers. Own mini-buses. (First&Last mile)** **On-demand community bus provided by the Municipality (Buurtbus (NeighbourhoodBus))**

Car sharing schemes	Mobile apps, such as journey planner apps. **Demo sites to showcase initiative (Ride2rail)** **Designated pickup stops, blogs to talk about practice (Slugging)**	Non-profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks **Possibility to set up a Cooperative Society with collective Interest as the basis for ensuring collective ownership. Members' general assembly. (Rezo Pouce)** **Shared cars insurance models. Non-profit members' organisation (Degage).** **Self-organised allocation of empty taxi seats. Unwritten rules (eg. don't talk in car) (Slugging).**	**Local government funding (Rezo Pouce)** **National Government funding (PoD)** Crowdfunding **Community shares (PoD)** **Membership fees (Rezo Pouce)** **Europe's Rail Joint Undertaking (Ride2Rail)** **Privately owned cars are rented (Degage).**	Allocation/monitoring apps **Members' led data collection and monitoring (PoD)**
Bike/e-bike sharing or lending schemes	Data on bike ownership/ use/ demand **Digital platform for inventory of bikes and reservations (Op Wielekes).**	No profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks Insurance frameworks **National network supporting local organizations in raising funds to buy tandems (Fietsmaatjes).** **Non-profit organisation that provides advice and support for anyone or any group that wants to start with a "On Wielekes" lending service. They also lead on government relations and Insurance (Op Wielekes).**	**Fundraising and donations to purchase tandems (Fietsmaatjes)** **Memberships or users fees (Fietsmaatjes, Op Wielekes)** Volunteers' time	**Network of volunteer mechanics (Fietsmaatjes)** Bike shops **Local bicycle repair shops are solicited for more structural maintenance tasks (Fietsmaatjes)**

Scooter sharing schemes	Data on bike ownership/ use/ demand Legal frameworks for scooter use	No profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks Insurance frameworks	Grants Donations Membership fees	Mechanics
Community car lift sharing schemes including for school transport	Data on car use/demand Routing apps	No profit/cooperative/volunteer organisation frameworks Insurance frameworks **Agreements with institutional actors (Taxito)**	Grants Donations Membership fees	**Installs signposts at pick up points to support visibility (Rezo Pouce)** **Monitors (Taxito)**
Pedibus and bicibus and other buddying schemes/community rides and walks	Shared experiences and perceptions Parents' groups, School meetings, Maps of local area Community groups Chat/messaging tools	Parents/volunteers/buddies' availability and network. School/local groups support **Volunteers network, via registered charity (travel buddies)**	Volunteers' time Local authority support Police time when escorting the bus	Local authority and local police support Own research and dissemination by volunteers

5. Potential Deployment of Tools Used in Commoning Experiments

5.1.   Looking at the tools used across existing CA Practices allows us to reflect on how these same tools, or different CA tools, could be used successfully in upcoming CA Experiments.

5.2.   The use of tools in CA Practices demonstrates tools for:

■   Planning - Building an evidence base of community need, capability and opportunity and finding ways to challenge and drive change

■   Organising - Using legal and administrative tools for community empowerment, requirements for community participation, and ensuring transparency and reporting requirements are followed for accountability including application procedures, contracting structures, partnerships, citizens assemblies, etc.

■   Resourcing – Assembling resources and the capability to contribute to a commoning process

■   Delivery – Of infrastructure, services, investment in people, placemaking, streetscape, landscape and other deliverables consistent with CA planning goals.

5.3.   The design and deployment of these tools is discussed in turn below including reflections on the key research questions for the experimental design. As discussed in Chapter 2 Commoning Accessibility is the process through which a community collaboratively creates and manages the conditions necessary to provide access to needed/desired socio-spatial resources to its members under shared rules and norms. For each category of tool, research questions for the experiments are identified related to:

■   Collaborative creation by communities.

■   Access to its members under shared rules and norms.

Planning

5.4.   Although many accessibility improvements can be made separately by public bodies, commercial organisations and community groups, many of the most complex challenges require a more sophisticated toolkit.

5.5.   Much the potential for improved accessibility and sustainability is very complex, with highly contested issues requiring deeper engagement with others. These challenges could potentially benefit from being tackled through CA practices.

5.6.   The planning process helps to identify how to organise delivery including the use of CA Practices. Figure 14 shows some of the parameters that benefit from the more collaborative CA Practices to add value. A market actor might naturally seek to gain competitive advantage by using community engagement to extract benefits of knowledge within the community, and a state actor might seek to use community engagement to validate state power. Communities might seek to pursue actions that are not viable, sustainable or consistent with policy. The goal of the commoning process is to deliver for each actor greater benefits through

collaboration than they can achieve through competition. That might mean a public authority delegating some decision making function to a citizens' jury or a market provider partnering with a local organisation to be able to offer more locally optimised services through cooperation than competition.

Figure 14 – CA Planning Tools for Assessing Need, Prioritising Action and Managing Collaboration

Table 10 - Research Questions for CA Planning

Function of CA Tool	Collaborative Creation by Communities	Access to its Members under Shared Rules and Norms
Assessments of needs and capabilities	What accessibility information is trusted by each stakeholder?	Where should open access be restricted to avoid free-riding by non-members?
Assessment and prioritisation of action	How is decision making delegated to the commoning process?	How are terms of engagement specified?
Review of opportunities for collaboration	How are economies of scope identified to identify benefits of commoning relative to economies of scale in state and market based provision? Where is competition needed to control monopoly and encourage collaboration?	How are terms of engagement used to create accountability for action?

5.7.   Digital democracy tools for collating evidence about local issues (e.g. fix my street[26]) are already widely used by public authorities to ensure that local government can maintain a more deliberative dialogue with communities about the need for improvements. Each authority agrees through its service delivery policies the extent to which community priorities determine priorities for action so the degree of commoning depends on the rules applied to prioritisation of action and the roles of state, community and market actors in fixing the problem.

5.8.   It has proved to be hard to apply these methods to some modes of transport due to complex accountabilities (e.g. if the bus is late due to road congestion how are the links made to fix this). The planning processes could help to develop dialogues in communities that would ultimately sharpen accountability. Clearer accountability could also have spin off benefits such as building the necessary community support to progress socially complex transport designs for the pricing of road use, or low traffic neighbourhoods.
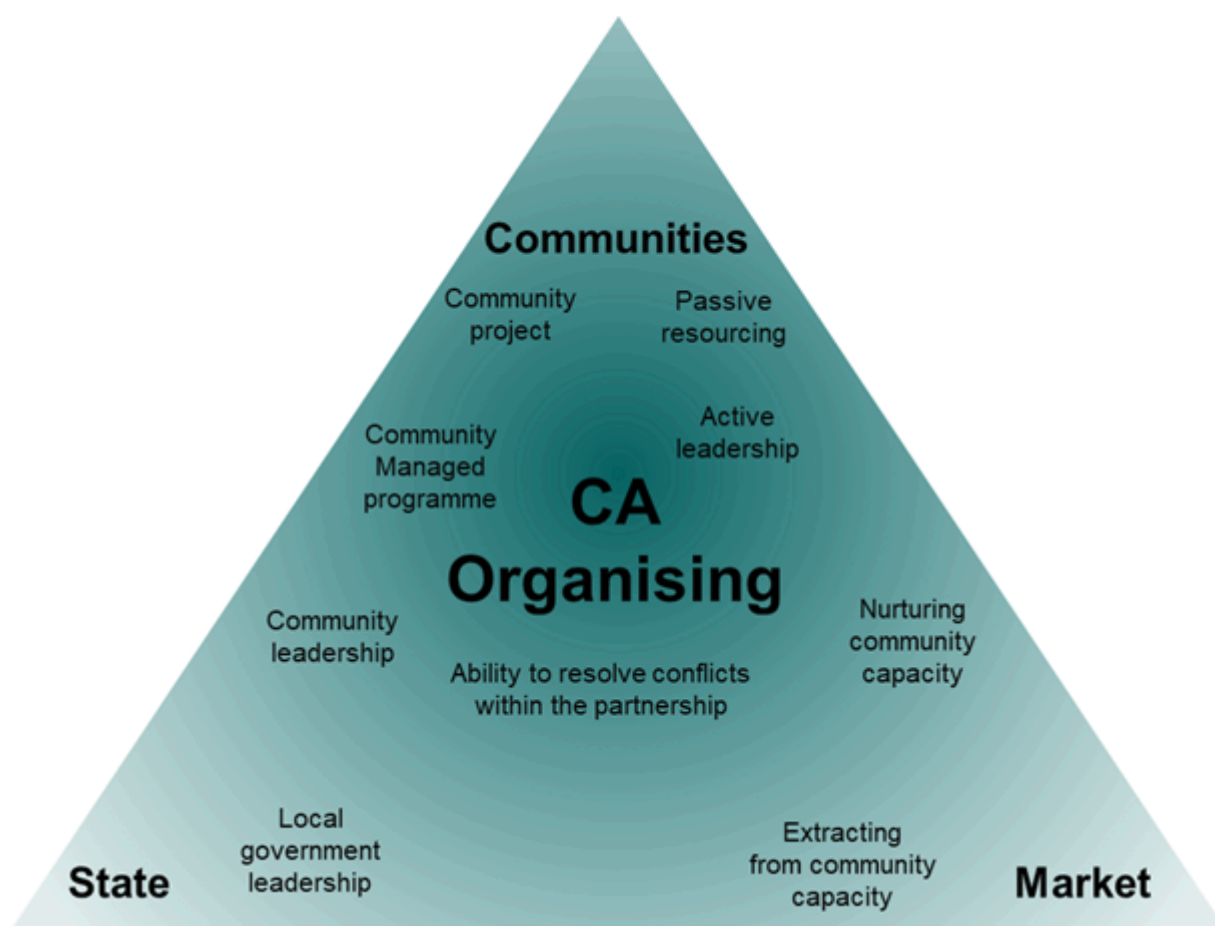
Organising

5.9.   The evidence from the planning stage can be used within CA practices to build the community capacity to tackle new projects. Some party needs to lead the organisation of this, and this can be a representative from either community, state or market. The organisational phase requires the project leader to work with potential partners to identify current or potential capacity to contribute to improvements.

5.10.   Figure 15 shows how CA practices can be used to organise more collaborative solutions that make more of the available skills and capabilities across all sectors.

5.11.   Rather than community groups being seen as passive organisations reliant on the capabilities of market and state providers for funding, the organising phase seeks to design partnership structures and contracts able to resolve conflicts and strengthen communities, which in turn can then help the community leadership to strengthen market and state capabilities through more dynamic and diverse delivery approaches[27].

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[26] https://www.fixmystreet.com/
[27] https://www.sociocracyforall.org/sociocracy/
https://www.seedsforchange.org.uk/shortconsensus

Figure 15 – CA Organising Tools to Manage Leadership, Revolve Conflict and Develop Community Capacity

5.12.

Table 11 - Research Questions for CA Organising

Function of CA Tool	Collaborative Creation by Communities	Access to its Members under Shared Rules and Norms
Identify and manage leadership	What changes are needed to terms of reference of public authorities to enable them to support CA practices rather than only extract from community capacity?	How to ensure commercial and state providers not only extract value from community action but also input to community capacity (e.g. defining terms for community provision for last mile deliveries)?
Resolve conflicts	How can public authorities help communities to resolve internal conflicts (rather than use community conflict as evidence of the need for state action)?	What mechanisms are available to ensure all members abide by rules and norms?
Develop community capacity	How are accountabilities defined and managed?	How to ensure that those that input receive the rewards they seek?

Funding

5.13.   The added value from commoning derives from joint working and economies of scope. State delivery or market based delivery may be more appropriate where the focus is economies of scale. CA practices potentially add the greatest value to:

■   Commercial and ancillary revenue – where economies of scope are captured

■   User fees and charges – where willingness to pay and willingness to accept are more closely aligned

■   Public sector – where social goals are prioritised highest.

■   Value capture – where a proportion of the value generated is available for community use such as in Italy there are the '1 per mille (1/1000), 5 per mille, 8 per mille) laws   which, with different mechanisms, to enable support for organizations which focus on social and cooperative objectives (particularly set up to finance the Church)

5.14.   CA projects ensure a diversity of sources of resources. Volunteer resources from a community, matched with some value capture facilitated by state and market actors is a well established approach (e.g. such as the community benefits from onshore wind farms) and the CA processes seek to optimise the inputs and benefits for each stakeholder as shown in Figure 16 to avoid exploitation or tactical withdrawal of resources by some partners.
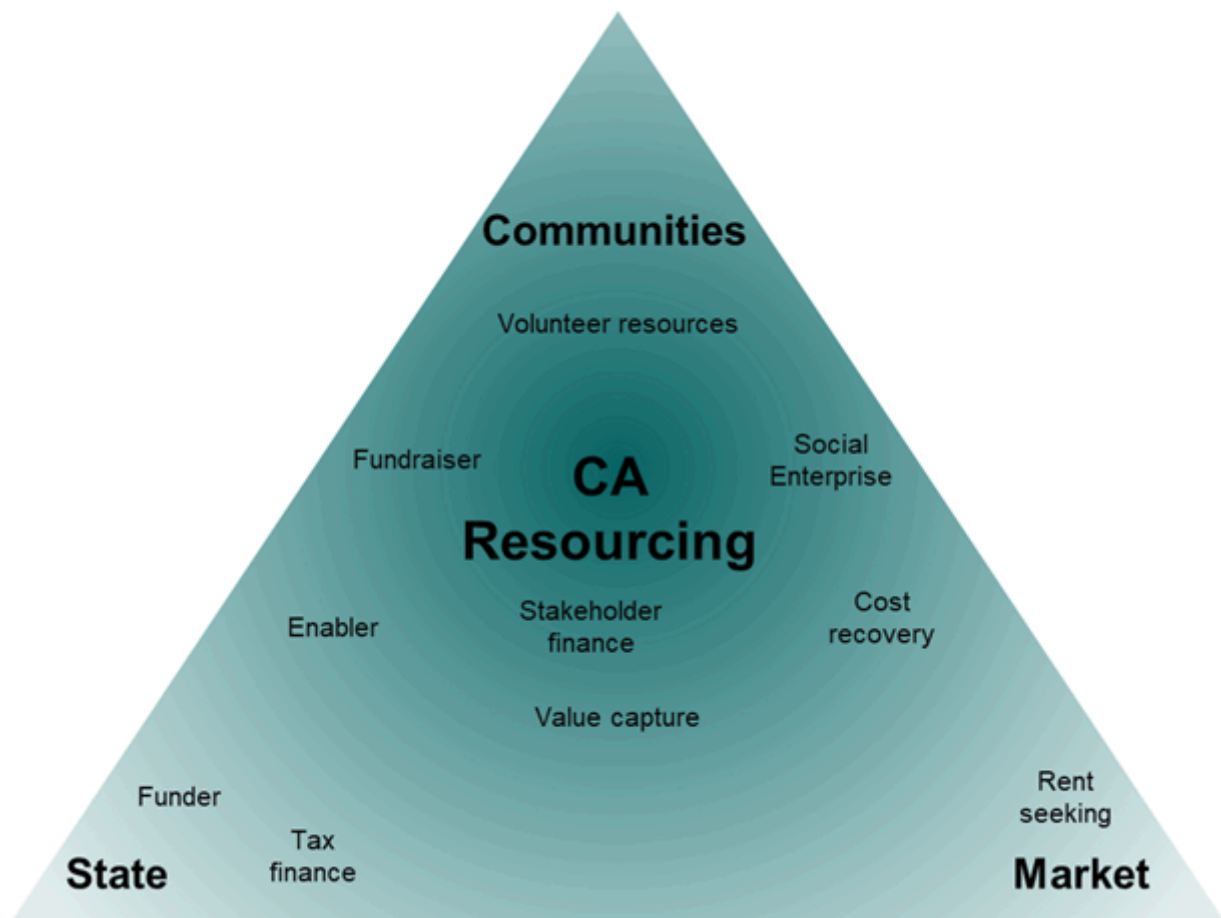

Figure 16 – CA Resourcing Tools to Finance Implementation add other Resources and Share Value
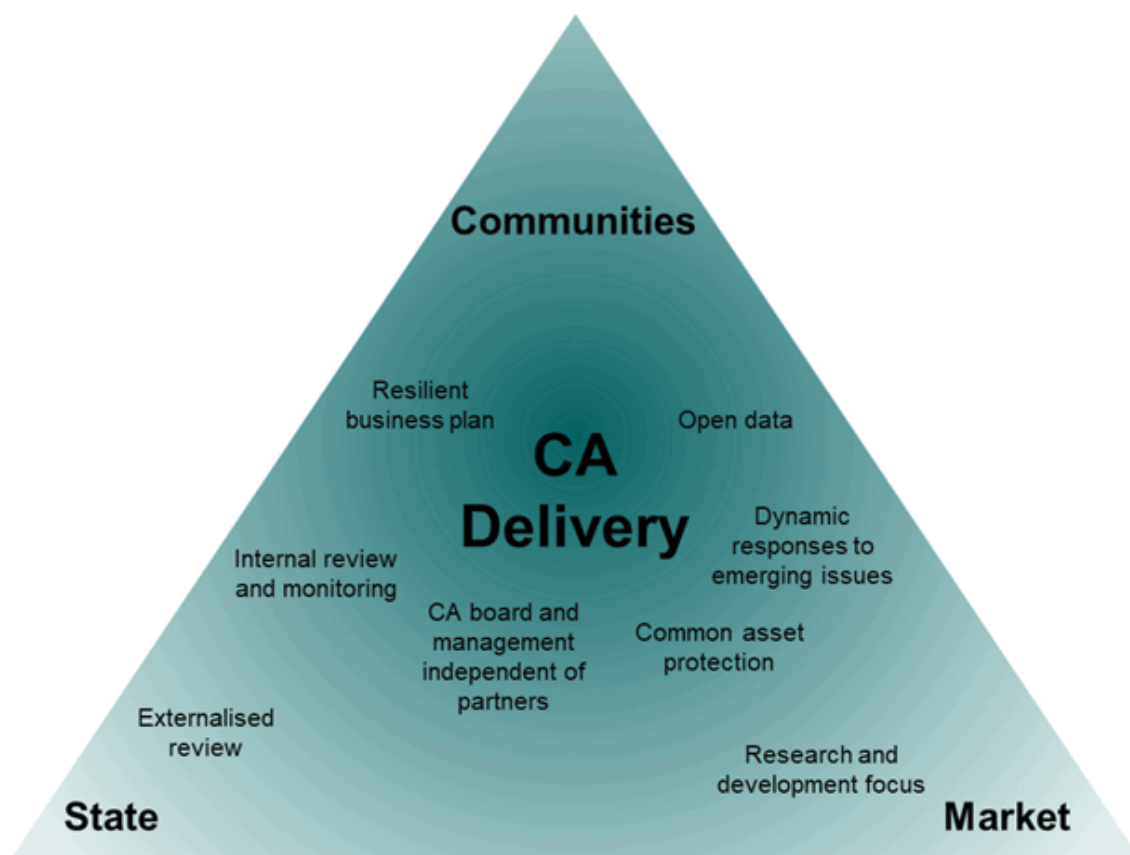
Table 12 - Research Questions for CA Resourcing

Function of CA Tool	Collaborative Creation by Communities	Access to its Members under Shared Rules and Norms
Finance implementation	Where can community action add value to state assets (e.g. additional value from road and parking spaces such as parking for shared vehicles)? How to resolve different expectations for return on investment in different sectors?	How to design member benefits to ensure viable and sustainable delivery?
Add resources	What factors enable growth in non financial resources such as volunteer labour?	How to define and trade social and financial benefits to achieve net-zero circular economy designs?
Share value	How to determine the fair distribution of value between stakeholders?	How to ensure ongoing resource efficiency and equity over time?

5.15.   Transport projects have often been funded based on agglomeration benefits, but disagglomeration benefits through better distribution of activity to make more of the available capabilities can be a key part of the approaches on CA projects promoting social inclusion, regeneration, regional development and fairness within societies.

Delivery

5.16.   CA practices need effective management, including ongoing support for the joint working providing constant reinforcement to sustain the collaboration. Most partners will revert to their narrower groupings unless there are ongoing activities to revise and refresh delivery approaches and goals. For example, school based programmes often issue regular news and updates with observations about the benefits being achieved such as travel times, and social and environmental improvements. REZO POUCE use a general assembly of members who elect a board that oversees operations and OP WIELEKES is managed by an advocacy network, Netwerk Bewust Verbruiken, which is a coalition of organisations.

5.17.   External reviews and monitoring by separate actors view benefits through a narrower focus than the CA practices can achieve so CA delivery must lead the management and monitoring activity to maintain the commoning accessibility focus. Figure 17 shows how CA delivery can ensure more dynamic management and communication enabling more complex projects to be tackled than the separate actors can achieve alone.

5.18.

Figure 17 – CA Delivery Tools with Socially Designed Business Models including Dynamic Feedback and Monitoring for Continual Improvement

Table 13 - Research Questions for CA Delivery

Function of CA Tool	Collaborative Creation by Communities	Access to its Members under Shared Rules and Norms
Social design of business model	How to protect, preserve, maintain and renew assets for net-zero circular economy?	How to design member benefits to ensure viable and sustainable delivery?
Feedback and monitoring	What review and monitoring processes ensure relevant and timely information for all stakeholders inputting resources?	What data should be open to ensure accountability, whilst ensuring privacy to protect value? How to ensure equity of outcomes whilst recognising distribution of inputs amongst stakeholders?