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ACT Legislative Assembly Library 2019 Fellowship Paper

**Engaging Citizens through
Co-design and Deliberative
Engagements**

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ACT Legislative Assembly Library

2019 Fellowship Paper: Representation in Citizen Engagement Processes

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Executive Summary

The Australian Capital Territory (ACT) is a diverse and progressive community where the commitment to inclusion and prosperity for all helps to shape the way in which people interact with each other, and the way in which government officials interact with the people.

The ACT Government has made significant progress in recent years in developing a more coordinated whole of government approach to engaging Canberrans, however, as is the case around the world, our changing social contexts mean we must always strive to do better and be better for the people that we serve.

In recent years, experiments in co-design and deliberative engagements have helped to shape the ACT’s engagement landscape. Co-design has been used to drive creativity and innovation in public policy and service design in areas where lived experiences and diverse expertise are required to solve complex social problems. Deliberative engagements have been used to involve citizens in critical reasoning and shared decision-making on a range of topics that impact our community.

Both co-design and deliberative engagements offer distinct yet complementary approaches to citizen engagement. This paper reports on historical reviews of each approach, providing comparisons and commonalities to help inform public servants on the most suitable method to use when engaging Canberrans in collaborative decision-making processes.

There are times when simply informing citizens, or consulting to gather input is sufficient. The use of co-design or deliberative engagements should be considered where a higher level of collaboration is required, in particular for decision-making that will have a significant impact on all citizens or specific groups of citizens.

Figure 1 provides an overview of the key findings documented in this paper, including the key points of comparison and commonality between these two approaches, the different spaces in which co-design and deliberative engagements most naturally gravitate, and the considerations (Who, What and How) that public servants should make when deciding between each approach. The paper concludes that both approaches are important public sector capabilities for the ACT.

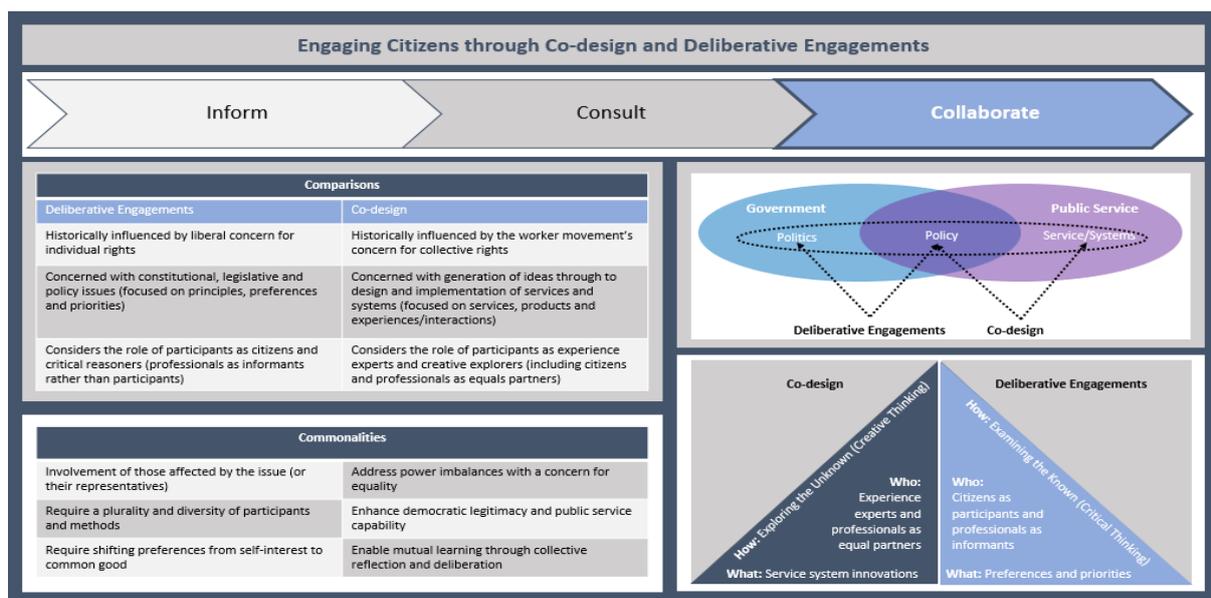


Figure 1: Engaging Citizens through Co-design and Deliberative Engagements

1. Introduction

This paper is the first Australian Capital Territory (ACT) Legislative Assembly Library Fellowship Paper, contributing to the library's objectives to identify and meet the needs of Members and staff of the ACT Legislative Assembly and the ACT Public Service.

The focus of this paper is on building public sector capability in understanding how co-design and deliberative engagements can contribute to citizen participation in the development of public services and policy solutions. Co-design and deliberative engagements are two methods of public engagement that have gained traction internationally for their value in promoting diverse inputs into public policy development and service design.

Co-design and deliberative engagements emerge from distinctly different traditions, the former more dominant in management and public-sector innovation¹ and the latter belonging to the area of political philosophy². Furthermore, the practice-based focus of deliberative engagements has developed more recently following a substantial focus on the theoretical field of deliberative democracy³. This is in contrast to the focus on application and practice tools that lie at the core of co-design⁴.

It is not surprising, that deliberative engagements and co-design operate in distinct, yet overlapping terrains, the former concerned with matters of politics and policy preferences, and the latter concerned with services and the systems that connect them, including in some cases, policy and legislative decisions. Figure 2 demonstrates the spectrum of spaces in which deliberative engagements and co-design most naturally gravitate which will be outlined further in this paper.

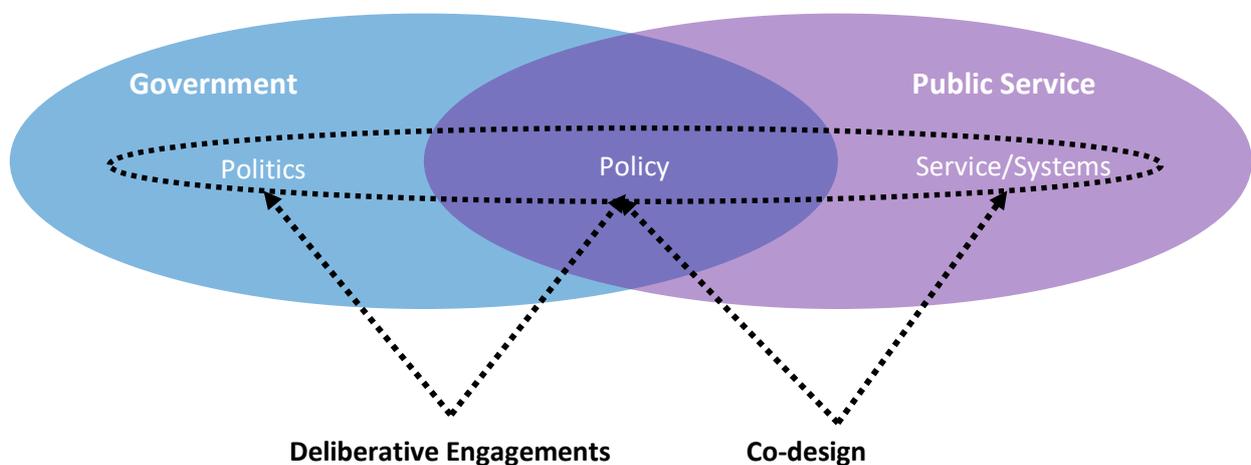


Figure 2. Defining spaces between deliberative engagements and co-design

¹ See: Bason, 2010.

² See: Florida, 2018.

³ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

⁴ See: Evans and Terrey, 2016.

Deliberative engagements and co-design are both important capabilities for 21st century democracies. Rather than seeing each discipline as alternative forms of public participation, it is important that both approaches are studied and applied side by side to ensure the best possible outcomes for those affected by the decisions of legislatures and public service agencies.

This paper starts with historical reviews for both co-design and deliberative engagements that draw out the main points of commonality and comparison between these approaches. The paper then outlines the context of citizen engagement in the ACT, demonstrating that both co-design and deliberative engagements play important roles in the ACT's approach to citizen participation. The intention is to provide clarity on the appropriate use of each approach when designing citizen engagement processes in the Territory.

2. Understanding Co-design and Deliberative Engagements

Section three outlines the important role that both co-design and deliberation play in the ACT Government's citizen engagement strategy. To be effective however, it is imperative that each approach is appropriately understood and applied. To support this understanding, separate reviews were undertaken to identify historical contributions across each approach in order to determine comparisons and commonalities.

2.1 History of Deliberative Engagements

The *Oxford Handbook on Deliberative Democracy* states that the history of deliberative democracy (which is a precursor to deliberative engagements) is not linear but rather a story of convergence of disparate ideas and traditions⁵. To support comparability with the history of co-design however, this review provides a chronological overview of key contributions in deliberative engagements across five timeframes, including:

- 1) ancient foundations,
- 2) new democracy- 19th and early 20th centuries,
- 3) birth of a new idea- 1970s and 1980s,
- 4) institutions and social complexity- 1990s and 2000s, and
- 5) applications to systems-2000 to 2018.

It is acknowledged that there are different conceptualisations of historical accounts within the field. The chronological approach taken below does not discount other conceptualisations.

2.1.1 Ancient Foundations

The roots of deliberative engagements can be linked to the early days of democracy itself. In Ancient Athens, the birth place of the democratic ideal, Greek Philosopher Aristotle argued that the deliberation of multiple perspectives enables wise decisions⁶. In the third book of Aristotle's *Politics*, he wrote:

⁵ See: Florida, 2018

⁶ See: Corey 2009; and Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

'And as a feast to which all the guests contribute is better than a banquet furnished by a single man, so a multitude is a better judge of many things than any individual'⁷.

Aristotle recognised the plural nature of communities, suggesting that not only is the greatest level of unity impossible to attain, it is equally undesirable⁸, a notion that is echoed in deliberation literature in recent years⁹. Like-wise, Aristotle also wrote about the rationality of citizens, including both practical and speculative rationality, and the influence that rationality has on citizen preferences in diverse societies. The role of the legislature, according to Aristotle is to bear in mind diverse preferences while building capacity in citizens to recognise that the common good is best for individuals as well¹⁰. There is a clear connection between current day thinking on deliberative engagement and the rationality influenced preferences, plural societies, and deliberative nature of Aristotle's *Politics*.

2.1.2 New Democracy: 19th and early 20th Centuries

A new form of democracy was birthed with the founding of the United States of America in 1776, however 19th century liberals held concerns that democracy would lead to uninformed masses impacting on the liberal rights of individuals¹¹. For example, Alex de Tocqueville (1805-59), writing from a liberal perspective, argued that the rise of democracy presents a risk to social equality as increased political freedom is unequally distributed among different groups. Tocqueville's 'tyranny of the masses' refers to the idea that all citizens being equal would also lead to the views and interests of minority groups being drowned out of political decisions, leading to further exclusion¹².

Building on Tocqueville's work, liberal theorist John Sturt Mill (1835) was also concerned with protecting people against the 'Tyranny of the majority'. Mill is considered the 'Grandfather of liberal constitutional deliberative democracy'¹³, as he sought to encourage informed public debate without upsetting the rationality of government¹⁴. In 1835, Mill argued that deliberation produces better decisions however, Mill emphasised the role of representative democracy as the vehicle for deliberation rather than the citizenry¹⁵.

In 1854, Edmund Burke also argued that deliberation produces better decisions, however equally constrained deliberation and decision making to those educated elites who form the ruling class¹⁶. In 1861, Mill's view seems to have shifted somewhat as he argued for deliberation among random samples of citizens on broad political issues. Despite this broadening of involvement to citizens, Mill maintained that educated people should lead deliberations¹⁷.

Throughout the early 20th century deliberation of citizens on public issues continued to be discussed by several political theorists, including John Dewey (1927) who argued that citizens should deliberate in order to establish a shared position and solutions to common problems, A.D. Lindsay

⁷ See: Aristotle, 350BC, Book III, Part XV.

⁸ See: Aristotle, 350BCE, Book II, Part II.

⁹ See: Uhr and Uhr, 1998.

¹⁰ See: Aristotle, 350BEC, Book VII, Part XIV.

¹¹ See: Dryzek, 2000.

¹² See: Habibis and Walter, 2015.

¹³ See: Dyzek, 2000.

¹⁴ See: Dryzek, 2000.

¹⁵ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

¹⁶ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

¹⁷ See: Corey, 2009.

(1929) who argued that collective discussion rather than preference aggregation should inform public decisions, and Earnest Barker (1951) who also viewed democracy as essentially about public debate that leads to agreements which can broadly be accepted by those involved, rather than aggregation of votes¹⁸. By the second half of the 20th century, the ground work for deliberative engagements in America was beginning to take hold.

2.1.3 Birth of a New Idea: 1970s and 1980s

By the 1970s, political theorists John Rawls (writing on just societies) and Jurgen Habermas (writing on theories of communication) further provided the normative justification for what Joseph Bassett would term 'deliberative democracy' in 1980¹⁹. In 1980, Jane Mansbridge also raised questions over the role deliberations should play in overcoming competing interests in participatory democracy²⁰. While the most influential writing by these authors occurred in future decades, it is clear that their early work provided the foundation from which deliberative democracy, and more recently deliberative engagements, continues to build on today.

In 1980, Bassett published an analysis of the United States Constitution, arguing that while not necessarily the intent of the founding fathers, the constitution so established, enables congressional deliberation as a cornerstone of American democracy²¹. Bassett argued that the United States constitution limits the interests of tyrannical majorities through the representation of minority concerns in the processes of deliberation. Bassett also argued that the founding fathers rejected direct democracy not just because it is unfeasible, but also because it undesirably enables majority rule over the needs of minorities²².

The early 1980s also saw the emergence of complimentary works that would contribute to later conceptualisations in this field. For example, Jon Elster (1983 and 1986) in critiquing social choice theory, introduced the concept of adaptive preferences²³ which would later inform thinking on individual capacity for autonomous deliberation²⁴. In 1984, Barber described neighbourhood assemblies as a form of deliberative engagement, one of the earliest references to practical application²⁵ and ahead of the empirical turn of the early 2000s²⁶.

Cass Sunstein (1985) argued that high power interest groups challenge political and legislative power to meet the needs of all groups, suggesting that greater public deliberation supports preference transformation rather than simple aggregation of preferences or behind doors negotiation of conflicting interests²⁷. Sunstein's work builds on and supports the substantially influential thinking of Jurgen Habermas (1984), who rejected politics as a competition between different interests in favour of communicative cooperation²⁸.

¹⁸ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

¹⁹ See: Dryzek, 2000; Florida, 2013; Elstub and McLaverty, 2014; and Antintytär Lagus, 2016.

²⁰ See: Florida, 2018.

²¹ See: Dryzek, 2000.

²² See: Florida, 2013.

²³ See: Florida, 2013.

²⁴ See: Cohen, 1997; Smith and Wales, 2000; and Florida, 2013.

²⁵ See: Jones, 2011.

²⁶ See: Owen and Smith, 2015.

²⁷ See: Florida, 2013.

²⁸ See: Bagg, 2015.

Habermas (1986 and 1989) argued for the use of reason between free and equal citizens, the justification of preferences, and a willingness to change preferences if presented with reasonable justifications²⁹. Informed by Michelman's (1986) vision of deliberative politics³⁰, Habermas (1988 and 1989) also argued that the public sphere is an open space for deliberation on public matters and that citizens must overcome self interest in order to achieve the common good³¹.

By the late 1980s, Bernard Manin (1987) and Joshua Cohen (1989) played influential roles in promulgating deliberative democracy, roles they would continue to play into the 1990s³². In particular, Manin (influenced by Aristotle) argued that legitimacy comes through deliberation rather than general will³³.

2.1.4 Institutions and Social Complexity: 1990s

At the turn of the decade, the first generation of deliberative democracy scholarship was well underway with a focus on laying the conceptual foundations and ideals for the field³⁴. In 1990, Dryzek introduced the idea of 'discourse contestation', providing the basis for institutional experiments based on discursive qualities³⁵.

In 1991, Bruce Ackerman argued that deliberation is not feasible in all decision-making processes and should be reserved for matters of significance such as constitutional issues or crisis, a notion supported by Rawls who argued that public reason of 'free and equal' citizens should focus on issues of 'basic justice', or matters of constitution rather than day to day affairs³⁶. At the same time, Fishkin (1991) introduced deliberative polls as a particular form of deliberative engagement that involves random sampling in order to ensure democratic representation of the population³⁷.

Cementing the importance of the field, the 1990s also saw both Rawls (1993) and Habermas (1996) refer to themselves as deliberative democrats³⁸. Gastil (1994) and Page (1996) both argued that public deliberation is essential to democracy and that citizens should regularly engage in deliberative and collective decision making³⁹. Bohman (1996) and Elster (1998) referred to both the deliberative and democratic components of the discipline, including the exchange of ideas, and the democratic inclusion of those affected by an issue, or the representation of those affected⁴⁰.

The second generation of deliberative democracy scholarship focused on institutionalisation of deliberative engagements in complex societies, including addressing issues such as diversity, scalability and inequality⁴¹. Cohen (1996 and 1997) argued that 'reasonable pluralism' requires reasons to be framed in terms that people of diverse viewpoints can accept and that citizens must

²⁹ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2013.

³⁰ See: Florida, 2018.

³¹ See: Weiss, 2013; and Bagg, 2015.

³² See: Dryzek, 2000; and Florida, 2013.

³³ See: Florida, 2018.

³⁴ See: Dryzek, 2000; and Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

³⁵ See: Florida, 2018.

³⁶ See: Dryzek, 2000.

³⁷ See: Florida, 2018.

³⁸ See: Dryzek, 2000; and Antintytär Lagus, 2016.

³⁹ See: Jones, 2011.

⁴⁰ See: Antintytär Lagus, 2016.

⁴¹ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

be willing to deliberate sincerely for effective deliberation to take place⁴². Bohman (1996) also wrote about pluralism, in particular the idea that diverse societies should seek 'plural agreement' rather than full consensus⁴³, echoing the earlier views of Aristotle (350BCE). Simone Chambers (1996) also argued that citizens should be willing to engage in discourse⁴⁴, concurring with Bohman and the earlier work of Habbermas (1986 and 1989)⁴⁵.

Amy Gutmann and Dennis Thompson (1996) argued that certain liberties must be in place to enable free and equal deliberation, such as welfare to provide the material basics that support participation⁴⁶. Consistent with the work of Bohman, Gutmann and Thompson also argued for partial agreements, suggesting that 'deliberative disagreement' is inevitable in complex societies and that partial agreements rather than full consensus enables mutual respect for differing views⁴⁷.

This view of deliberative engagements expands their use from matters of common good, to any issue where deep-seated disagreements may otherwise prevent mutual respect and agreeable solutions⁴⁸. While Gutmann and Thompson stressed the importance of free and equal citizens justifying reasons that can be mutually accepted, they also introduced forms of communication other than reason giving, such as story-telling, in recognition of diverse communication needs⁴⁹.

In terms of institutionalisation, Sunstein (1997) argued that the United States constitution protects public deliberation across both the polity and the legislature, while Uhr's work (1998) uniquely applied deliberation to the Australian legislature⁵⁰. Furthermore, Rawls (1997) outlined 'three essential elements' for deliberation, including deliberative legislative bodies, public reason, and citizens that are informed and motivated toward public reason. For Rawls, public reason involved expression of viewpoints but not necessarily public debate on the merits of such expressions. Public reason instead was viewed as an act of individuals in self reflecting on the common good⁵¹.

2.1.5 Application to Systems: 2000 to 2019

The turn of the century also saw a shift in focus for deliberative democrats with an increasing focus on application. Described as the third generation of deliberative democracy, deliberative engagements emerge in greater force through scholars such as Fung, Steiner et.al., and Elstub, including through the investigation of deliberative engagements to test the theoretical concepts previously postulated⁵². Deliberative engagements, such as citizens panels, citizen assemblies and participatory budgeting, emerged in diverse contexts including in Europe, the United States of America, Australia, South East Asia, and South America⁵³.

With the rise of empirical investigations, conceptualisations continued to progress as evidence from application informed new or confirmed theories. In 2000, Dryzek echoed views previously expressed

⁴² See: Dryzek, 2000; and Bagg, 2015.

⁴³ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

⁴⁴ See: Bagg, 2015.

⁴⁵ See: Bagg, 2015.

⁴⁶ See: Dryzek, 2000.

⁴⁷ See: Dryzek, 2000; and Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

⁴⁸ See: Dryzek, 2000.

⁴⁹ See: Corey, 2009; and Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

⁵⁰ See: Dryzek, 2000.

⁵¹ See: Dryzek, 2000.

⁵² See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

⁵³ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014; Owen and Smith, 2015; and Bagg, 2015.

by Gutmann and Thompson, that authentic democracy requires deliberation and the justification of decisions to those affected and in terms they can accept⁵⁴. Dryzek also argued that deliberations must recognise power structures, such as financially interested groups, that impact on the deliberative capacities of States and their institutions, subsequently introducing discursive representation as a way of ensuring equality of viewpoints in deliberations⁵⁵. The issue of power was also raised by Cohen and Rogers (2003) who argued that deliberations counter power imbalances and by Cohen (2007) who suggested that democratic societies must counter self-interested power through reason giving, argument and moral purpose⁵⁶.

Dyzek (2000) and Chambers (2003) confirmed the importance of public deliberation based on uncoerced or manipulated reasons with a willingness to change preferences based on justifications, rather than aggregation of preferences or voting⁵⁷. Throughout the 2000's, numerous authors attempted to codify deliberations as outlined in box 1:

Gutmann and Thompson (2004) ⁵⁸		Elstub (2006) ⁵⁹	Gastil (2008) ⁶⁰
Four features of deliberation	Four purposes of deliberation	Four components of deliberation	Four steps in deliberation
Involvement of free and equal citizens (and their representatives)	Enhance legitimacy	Collective decisions	Beginning with generating an informed understanding of the issue
Justification of decisions through reason giving	Public spiritedness	Participation of relevant actors	Identifying and prioritising issue specific values
Reasons that can be mutually understood and accepted	Enable mutual respect	Exchange of reasons	Identifying a range of solutions
Binding agreements that can be reconsidered in the future	Correction of mistakes	Transformation of preferences	Weighing solutions against values and knowledge to arrive at recommendations

Box 1: Select deliberation concepts

In what could be considered a next generation of deliberative theory, a range of scholars have focused on the deliberative nature of political systems⁶¹. For example, Hendriks (2006) differentiates between micro (structured, small scale and formal decision-making activities) and macro (unstructured, opinion forming, and spontaneous communication in the public sphere) approaches

⁵⁴ See: Dyzek, 2000.

⁵⁵ See: Dyzek, 2000; and Dryzek and Niemeyer, 2008.

⁵⁶ See: Bagg, 2015.

⁵⁷ See: Weiss, 2013; and Antintytär Lagus, 2016.

⁵⁸ See: Jones, 2011; Bagg, 2015; and Antintytär Lagus, 2016

⁵⁹ See: Antintytär Lagus, 2016.

⁶⁰ See: Jones, 2011.

⁶¹ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014; and Owen and Smith, 2015.

to institutionalising deliberations, arguing for the integration of both as part of a connected deliberative system⁶².

Yet deliberative systems itself is a diverse field of interest with the work of Habbermas (1996) resonating with the thinking of Dryzek (2009) who describes deliberative systems as transmission of deliberations from informal opinion forming public spaces to formal decision-making spaces⁶³. Goodwin (2005) and Parkinson (2006) favour a stages approach in which deliberative systems are described as accumulations of deliberative events that occur at different times and spaces throughout a decision-making process⁶⁴. Alternatively, Mansbridge et.al. (2012) present a networked model of deliberative systems in which the coupling of informal and formal spaces of deliberation creates new connections and mutual understandings⁶⁵. This next generation of theory is emerging rapidly with implications for democratic governance at the local, national and global levels.

Figure 3 provides a visual timeline of key contributions throughout the history of deliberative theory, including the key themes that have shaped deliberative engagements today.

⁶² See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

⁶³ See: Ercan, et.al. 2018.

⁶⁴ See: Ercan, et.al. 2018.

⁶⁵ See: Ercan, et.al. 2018.

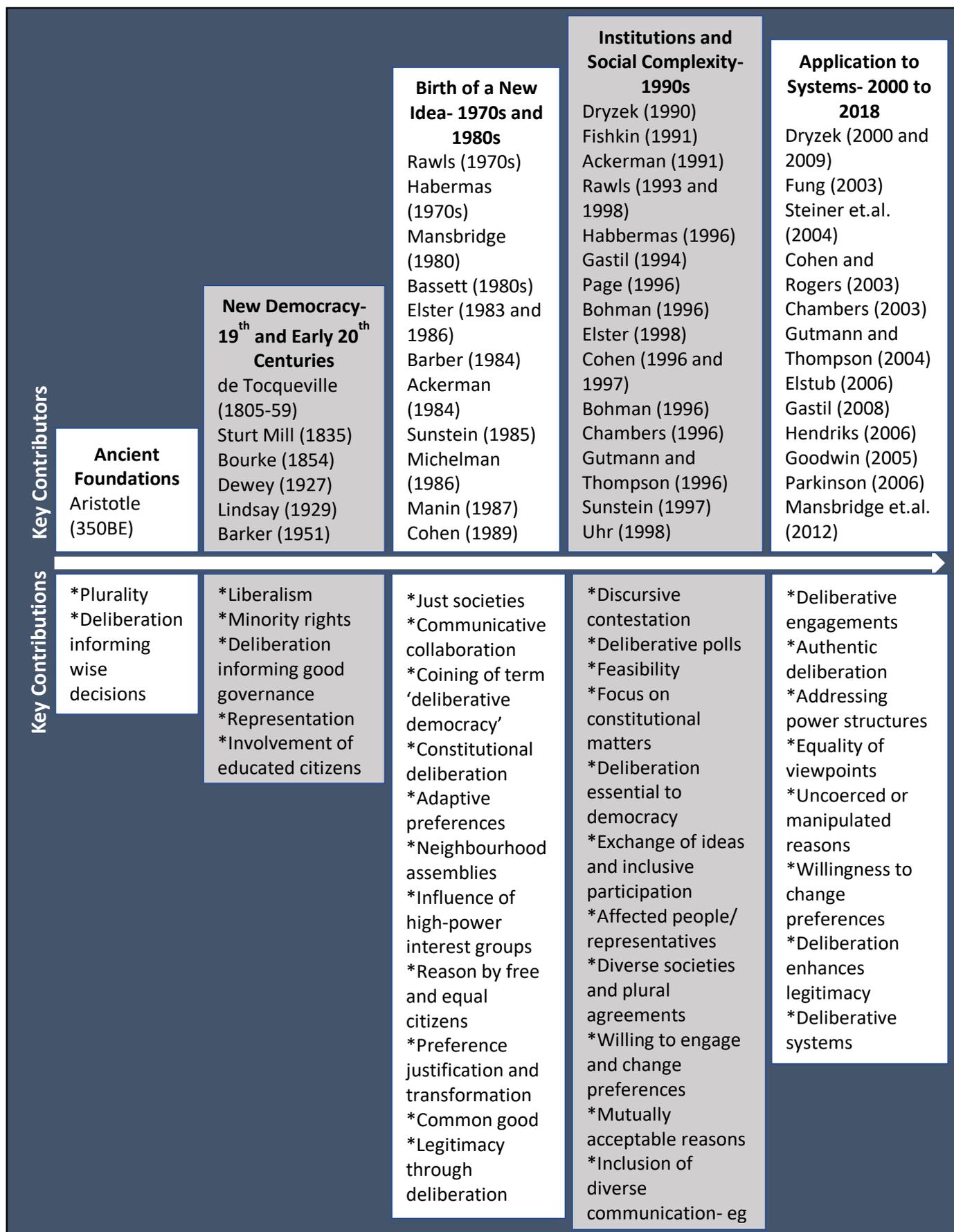


Figure 3: Timeline of key contributions in deliberative engagements

2.2 History of Co-design

While design itself has a long history in many different approaches, the roots of co-design are far more recent. The review findings focus on three chronological timeframes in co-design. These phases include:

- 1) Two Paths- 1970s and 1980s,
- 2) Convergence- 1990s, and
- 3) Emergence- 2000 to 2019.

2.2.1 Two Paths- 1970s and 1980s

In the 1970s, two paths were forming that would eventually lead to the birth of co-design; participatory design and user-centred design. In the case of participatory design, the democratisation of workplaces in Scandinavia led to the establishment of Cooperative Design as a means of enabling skilled workers and researchers to collaborate on the integration of new technologies in factories⁶⁶.

Cooperative Design arose in a context of struggling factory workers and was heavily influenced by Marxism and the political workers movement. The approach was influential in America however the language of Cooperative Design was considered too collectivist for the Americans who instead adopted the term 'Participatory Design', from a conference held in the United Kingdom in 1971 where the term was first used⁶⁷.

During the 1980s participatory design extended its reach to fields outside of worker movements, including through collaborative place making approaches arising in the field of urban planning. The 1980s also saw the emergence of research into participatory approaches highlighting the benefits of involving citizens in design processes⁶⁸.

In the case of user-centred design, new technologies and software development in particular provided a keen focus for design throughout the 1970s and 80s. In 1983, Gould and Lewis outlined three design principles to create easy to use software, including:

1. early and continued focus on users,
2. empirical measures using simulations, and
3. prototypes and iterative designs⁶⁹.

In the mid-1980s, Bill Moggridge and Bill Verplank introduced the concept 'interaction design' which focused increased attention on the interactions between users and products⁷⁰. In 1988 Don Norman coined the term 'user-centred design' highlighting the shifting focus from process design to design of human systems⁷¹. It wasn't until the 1990s however that the increased concern for users in the process of design became widely accepted.

⁶⁶ See: Cole, 2013; Britton, 2017; Seppala, 2017; Gioia, 2018; and Meroni, et.al, 2018.

⁶⁷ See: Baek et.al, 2008; Cole, 2013; Seppala, 2017; and Gioia, 2018.

⁶⁸ See: Gioia, 2018.

⁶⁹ See: Prior, 2011.

⁷⁰ See: Sanders and Stappers, 2008.

⁷¹ See: Gioia, 2018.

2.2.2 Convergence- 1990s

While participatory design remained a distinct field, throughout the 1990s⁷² commonalities with user-centred design began to emerge. Clement and Van den Besselaar (1993) argued that a key component of participatory design was user-controlled development of resources⁷³. Greenbaum and Kyng (1991) also described participatory design as designers taking seriously the needs and contexts of users, arguing that since the design process is a political process with inherent conflicts, there is a need for full participation and a commitment to using technology to improve quality while enhancing the skills of workers⁷⁴.

In the field of user-centred design, Namioka and Schuler (1990 and 1993) argued that users are experts in their own life and should have opportunity to influence outcomes. Similar to Greenbaum and Kyng, Namioka and Schuler also highlighted the importance of user-centred design providing workers with the right tools to do their jobs well⁷⁵.

By 1999, the International Organisation for Standards updated Gould and Lewis's principles to create an international standard for user-centred design ISO 13407:1999, which included:

1. active involvement of users,
2. appropriate allocation of function between users and technology,
3. iterations of solutions, and
4. multidisciplinary design teams⁷⁶.

The 1990s also saw a shift in user-centred design towards human-centred design and designing *with* people rather than designing *for* people⁷⁷. Eleven years after the creation of the international standards on user-centred design, a new standard was ratified on human-centred design ISO 9241–210:2010 which included the involvement of users throughout the design and development of computer based interactive systems⁷⁸.

This shift coincided with the increasing role of design in addressing social issues as evidenced through the creation of IDEO (1991) in America which focused on design as a way to improve the lives of particularly vulnerable groups⁷⁹, the founding of the Consensus Building Institute (1993) which focused on co-creative type activities⁸⁰, and the launch of NESTA (1998) in the UK to promote design for social innovation⁸¹.

2.2.3 Emergence- 2000 to 2019

At the turn of the century University of Michigan Professors CK Prahalad and Venkat Ramaswamy (2000) coined the term 'co-creation', which would ultimately provide an umbrella term for collaborative processes such as co-design⁸². This was not however the first time 'co' was used to

⁷² See: Gioia, 2018.

⁷³ See: Halskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015.

⁷⁴ See: Baek et.al, 2008; Halskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015; and Gioia, 2018.

⁷⁵ See: Halskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015.

⁷⁶ See: Prior, 2011.

⁷⁷ See: Seppala, 2017; and Gioia, 2018.

⁷⁸ See: Gioia, 2018.

⁷⁹ See: Britton, 2017.

⁸⁰ See: Gioia, 2018.

⁸¹ See: Britton, 2017.

⁸² See: Gioia, 2018.

describe the involvement of service users in value creation. In 1970, Elinor Ostrom and her team of academics from Indiana described 'co-production' as service users having a role in the delivery of services⁸³. Ostrom's work was particularly influential in the United Kingdom where the co-production of health services in particular has become especially prominent.

In 2005, the international journal *CoDesign* was launched⁸⁴, officially securing the place of co-design as the academic and applied discipline we have today. Co-design officially brought together design *for* approaches (user-centred design) and design *with* approaches (participatory design) and was originally concerned with front end activities, such as idea generation⁸⁵. Distinguishing co-design from the umbrella term co-creation, Sanders and Stappers (2008) defined co-design as a specific form of co-creation that involves designers and non-designers in the creation of material products⁸⁶.

By 2006, other collaborative approaches emerged along-side of co-design, such as co-decisions, co-evaluation, and co-governance⁸⁷. At the same time, new integrated design models were being developed, such as 'service design' (2006) which combined elements of interaction design, visual communication, and information design; and 'transformation design' (2006) which combined participatory approaches and user-centred design to address social and economic issues⁸⁸.

Approaches such as crowdsourcing (2006) and design labs (2007) were also introduced as a means of breaking down barriers between consumers and enterprises and providing designers and stakeholders with opportunities to share in the design process⁸⁹. In 2008, Bjögvinsson also discussed the development of 'design-by-doing' approaches such as prototyping to enable participation of people who otherwise would find it difficult to engage⁹⁰.

The diversification of design methods marks a critical turning point in co-design with greater emphasis placed on understanding and responding to the normative features of effective co-design. Sanders and Stappers (2008) argued that co-design threatens power structures as consumers are given greater power in idea generation and decision-making processes. Co-design requires those in power to give up control and methods such as prototyping can address power imbalances by providing different ways for people to contribute⁹¹.

Sanders and Stappers also highlight that the participatory nature of co-design requires a shift in thinking from self-interest to appreciation of the needs of others. They further cite the rise of the internet as a means of giving voice to previously excluded people, and post-consumerist societies and increased focus on sustainability as supporting a generational shift towards more egalitarian concerns⁹².

⁸³ See: Realpe and Wallace, 2010.

⁸⁴ See: Seppala 2017.

⁸⁵ See: Britton, 2017; and Meroni et.al, 2018.

⁸⁶ See: Seppala, 2017.

⁸⁷ See: Meroni et.al, 2018.

⁸⁸ See: Sanders and Stappers, 2008.

⁸⁹ See: Gioia, 2018; and Meroni, et.al, 2018.

⁹⁰ See: Britton, 2017.

⁹¹ See: Britton, 2017.

⁹² See: Sanders and Stappers, 2008.

It is here that co-design appears to have come full circle, embracing its democratic roots promulgated by the 1970s Scandinavian factory workers. Four features of co-design in the social and political spheres espoused by Selloni (2017) demonstrate this point:

1. co-design is a form of citizen empowerment,
2. co-design is a pre-condition for co-production
3. co-design is a key competence for public service, and
4. co-design is a form of citizen participation and democracy⁹³.

Co-design involves mutual learning through collective reflection and action, prototyping to enable diverse contributions, and designers learning about the user's context in order to respond to human need⁹⁴. Co-design is also a process of deliberation among diverse actors, extending from idea generation through to implementation⁹⁵. Co-design blurs boundaries, through open innovation and living labs, peer-production and maker spaces, public participation and social innovation⁹⁶. Co-design is also about sustainable social innovations that are scalable and combines product, communication, service and strategic systems design⁹⁷.

Co-design transforms the role of designers from designing of *products* to designing for *purpose*, from designing *for* people to designing *with* people, and from being design *experts* to being *facilitators* of design⁹⁸. Co-design also transforms the role of service users and citizens from passive *recipients* to *experts* of their own experiences and from *objects* of study to *partners* in design processes⁹⁹. Finally, co-design creates new opportunities to move beyond singular design events or projects to establishing the infrastructure for longer term collaboration¹⁰⁰. Figure 4 provides a visual timeline of key milestones throughout the history of co-design, including key contributions that have shaped co-design today.

⁹³ See: Meroni et.al, 2018.

⁹⁴ See: Kalskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015.

⁹⁵ See: Meroni et.al, 2018.

⁹⁶ See: Meroni et.al, 2018.

⁹⁷ See: Meroni et.al, 2018.

⁹⁸ See: Sanders and Stappers, 2008.

⁹⁹ See: Sanders and Stappers, 2008; and Meroni, et.al, 2018.

¹⁰⁰ See: Binder, et.al. 2008; and Saad-Sulonen, et.al. 2018.

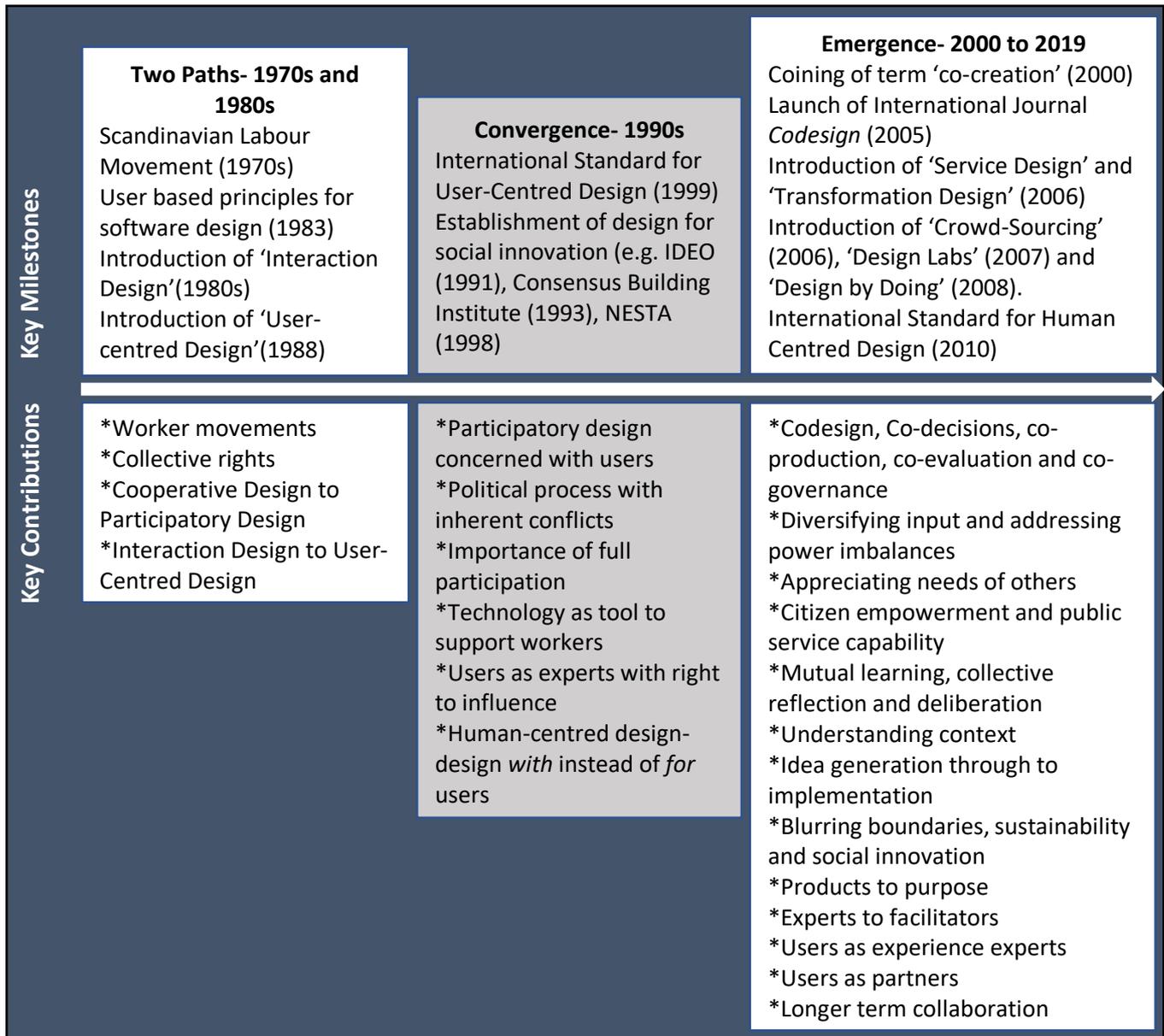


Figure 4: Timeline of key milestones in co-design

Figure 5 draws together the historical contributions across both co-design and deliberative engagements. Points of comparison and commonality are grouped into themes and discussed in the following sections. Of note is the increasing emergence of commonalities overtime, with co-design and deliberative engagements today differing most significantly in practical application rather than in normative understandings when it comes to citizen participation. There are however important differences that should be appreciated when selecting the most suitable citizen engagement method.

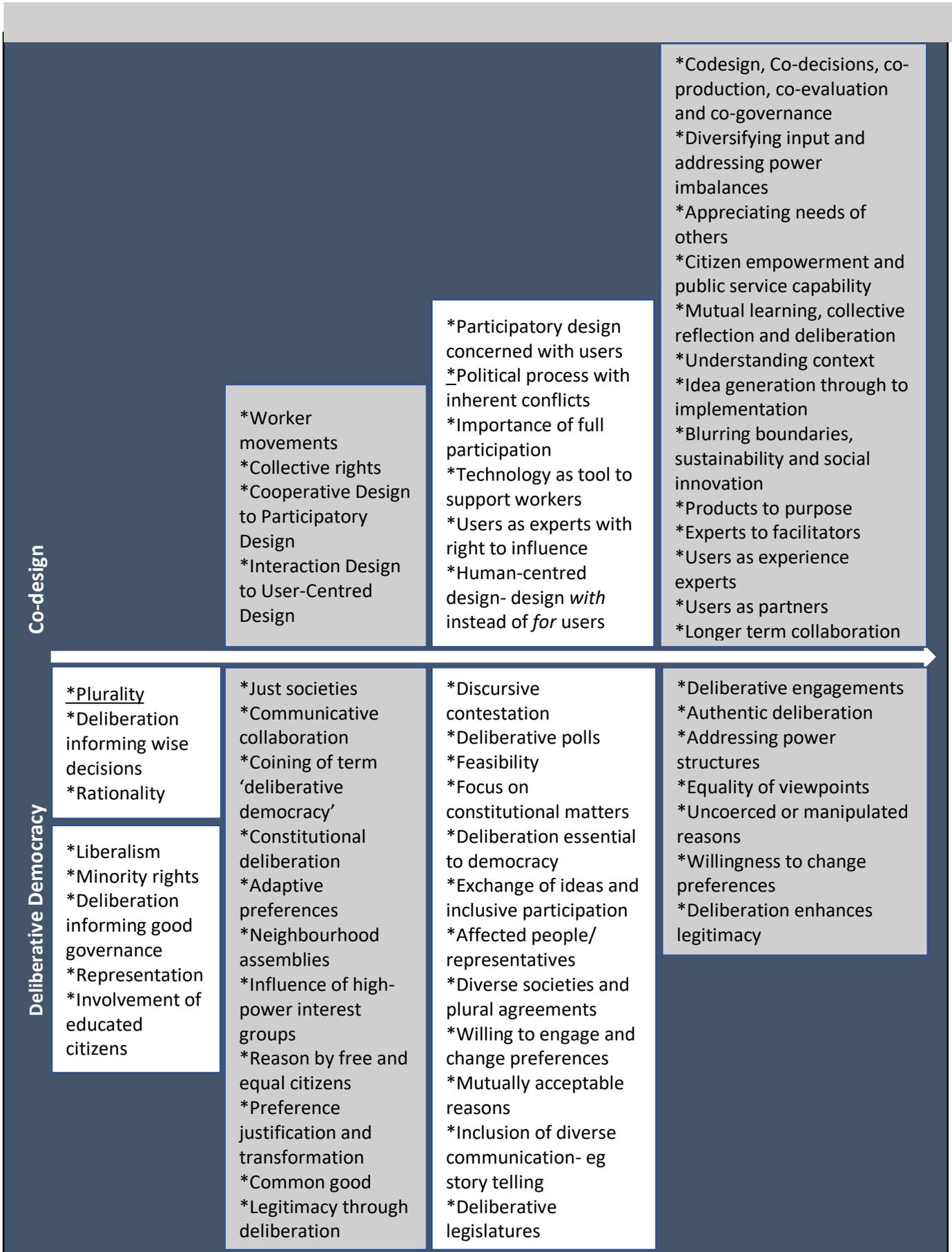


Figure 5: Comparing historical contributions across co-design and deliberative democracy

2.3 Comparisons

In reviewing key contributions across both deliberative engagements and co-design timelines, three areas of comparison are worth noting. These include; the political origins of each approach, the focus of each approach, and the role of participants in each approach. Each of these comparisons are discussed below:

2.3.1 Political Origins

While both deliberative engagements and co-design are firmly rooted in democratic movements, the origins of each come from either side of the political spectrum. In the case of deliberative engagements, the liberal ideal of individual rights spurred the interest of early thinkers who sought to protect individual interests against the uneducated will of the masses¹⁰¹.

While deliberative engagements have evolved overtime to recognise the democratic value of involving all affected people in deliberations rather than constraining involvement to the educated elites, there continues to be an emphasis on protecting diverse viewpoints from undeliberated aggregation of majority votes.

Conversely, in the case of co-design, it was the collective will of workers that was initially harnessed to promote democratic participation and protection of the whole against the tyranny of the elites¹⁰². By involving workers in the design of workplace solutions, the roots of co-design are firmly embedded in a collectivist rather than an individualist orientation.

It is important to note that both approaches today operate across traditional political boundaries suggesting that the significance of their differing political origins lies in the relevance of collaborative engagement processes to both sides of the political spectrum.

2.3.2 Focus

Owing to the different traditions from which each approach has emerged, it is not surprising that deliberative engagements and co-design have different objects of focus. Deliberative engagements emerged from the political sciences at a time when democracy was of burgeoning interest. Holding in tension the democratic ideal of rule by the people against the challenges of involving all people in deliberations, it is also not surprising that deliberative engagements have historically focused on constitutional issues and deliberative institutions¹⁰³.

While the more recent focus on application has in some ways blurred the lines between constitutional and situational deliberations, there continues to be a focus on principles and preferences rather than actualisation of solutions.

Conversely, co-design has emerged from technological developments that have forced the design of new products and services to meet the actual needs of users. The focus on users has necessitated understanding of user contexts, expanding design thinking and practice beyond products and services, with an increasing focus on social innovation in human influenced systems. Critically, co-design is focused on actualisation of solutions through prototyping and scaling of design outcomes¹⁰⁴.

¹⁰¹ See: Dryzek, 2000; Corey, 2009; Florida, 2013; and Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

¹⁰² See: Cole, 2013; Britton, 2017; Seppala, 2017; Gioia, 2018; and Meroni, et.al, 2018.

¹⁰³ See: Dryzek, 2000.

¹⁰⁴ See: Gioia, 2018; and Meroni et.al, 2018.

2.3.3 Role of Participants

Deliberative engagements are premised on the notion that citizens have the capacity to reason and be influenced by the reasons of others. Not with standing their own values and beliefs, the role of citizens in deliberations is to critically consider arguments in order to determine preferences that can be commonly accepted by all people¹⁰⁵. Co-design on the other hand, is premised on the notion that users are subjective experience experts and that the best designs will creatively accommodate the experiences and needs of diverse users¹⁰⁶.

While both approaches require individuals to put aside self-interest (as will be discussed below), it is the critical versus creative thinking required of participants that is of interest here. This difference is also not surprising however, given the two points of comparison already discussed.

In the case of deliberative engagements, the protection of individual rights through a focus on higher order principles and preferences suggests that a level of critical thinking is not only suitable but potentially necessary to issues of constitution or institutions. Conversely in co-design, the protection of situated collectives or specific groups of users and the focus on actualisable solutions, necessitates a greater appreciation of context specific issues and behaviours that would be difficult to appreciate without creatively exploring those contexts.

2.4 Commonalities

Not-with-standing the significance of these comparisons, the historical reviews also highlight that both approaches have more in common than in opposition. Specific commonalities are discussed below:

2.4.1 Involvement of those affected (or their representatives)

Regardless of the targeting comparisons discussed above, both approaches stress the importance of involving those people who are affected by the object of focus. Likewise, both approaches acknowledge that not all affected people will or can engage, necessitating some form of representation¹⁰⁷.

In the case of deliberative engagements, methods such as random sampling can serve to represent the views of the broader population. New thinking on deliberative systems also seek to broaden involvement of affected people, including through the linkage of sites of deliberation with representative decision-making institutions. For co-design, the selection of user groups as participants can serve to represent others in similar groups or with similar experiences. Likewise, the focus on iterative design and scaling, enables co-designed solutions to incorporate views of different affected people overtime.

2.4.2 Plurality and diversification

Similarly, both approaches acknowledge the plurality of societies and user groups that may be affected by the object of focus and the importance of incorporating diverse communication and engagement approaches to enable effective participation¹⁰⁸.

The recognition in deliberative engagements that plural agreements may be more acceptable than full consensus, concurs with the co-design focus on designing for diverse needs and experiences.

¹⁰⁵ See: Elstub and McLaverty, 2014.

¹⁰⁶ See: Halskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015.

¹⁰⁷ See: Dryzek, 2000; Antintytär Lagus, 2016; Seppala, 2017; and Gioia, 2018.

¹⁰⁸ See: Corey, 2009; Elstub and McLaverty, 2014; and Kalskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015.

Likewise, the incorporation of story-telling techniques in deliberative engagements is common to co-design methods such as journey mapping and personas.

In the case of deliberative engagements, framing reasons in terms that diverse participants can accept is an important concept supporting diversification of communication in deliberations. In the case of co-design, the diversification of engagement methods such as prototyping, design labs and crowdsourcing, is a practical response to the plurality of participation preferences in diverse societies.

2.4.3 Self-interest to common good

Regardless of the individualist or collectivist origins, or the critical or creative role of participants, both approaches accept that individual interests must be foregone in favour of the common good¹⁰⁹.

By requiring positions to be at a minimum acceptable, if not fully agreed to, deliberative engagements make clear the importance of rising above individual preferences in order to identify a shared position. Similarly, co-design recognises that while it is the friction between conflicting perspectives that induces innovation, it is by drawing out those perspectives that new understandings can be reached that support more egalitarian outcomes.

In addition, since both approaches involve some level of representation, there is also a responsibility on the part of participants to ensure that their contribution is supportive of the needs of those they represent.

2.4.4 Addressing power imbalances and concern for equality

The influence of high-power interest groups is a common theme in both approaches, along with the importance of creating contexts for all participants to contribute equally in deliberations or co-design processes¹¹⁰.

Both approaches aim to counter power imbalances through increased transparency arising from the involvement of affected people. By opening deliberations into the public sphere, deliberative engagements aim not only to create spaces for people to engage, but also to hold decision-makers to account for justifying positions to the public they are elected to serve.

By establishing equal partnerships between users, designers, and decision-makers, co-design requires organisations to share control with affected people. Similarly, co-design methods such as prototyping aim to equalise opportunities for diverse citizens to engage in decision making, justifying decisions on the basis of user participation in the design, testing, and refinement of solutions.

2.4.5 Democratic legitimacy and public service capability

The democratic origins of both approaches have already been discussed. What is important here is the ongoing acknowledgement of participation as a democratic right and as a means of legitimising decisions on issues of public concern¹¹¹.

While deliberative engagements have a particular focus on issues of public policy and legislation, co-design comes to the fore when it comes to the design of public services, products and experiences/interactions. In this respect, it becomes apparent that both approaches have a role in

¹⁰⁹ See: Dryzek, 2000; Sanders and Stappers, 2008; Weiss, 2013; and Bagg 2015.

¹¹⁰ See: Dryzek, 2000; Florida, 2013; Bagg, 2015; and Britton, 2017.

¹¹¹ See: Jones, 2011; Florida, 2013; Halskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015; and Gioia, 2018.

enabling democratic legitimacy across the spectrum of public service capabilities by engaging with citizens in decision-making processes.

2.4.6 Mutual learning, collective reflection and deliberation

Finally, both approaches enable mutual learning and appreciation of diverse perspectives through collective reflection and deliberation processes¹¹². This is not to imply that co-design is entirely deliberative, since methods such as crowdsourcing and prototyping may not in themselves involve collective deliberation. Co-design does however draw on multiple perspectives and achieves full affect when those perspectives deliberate together.

Conversely, while deliberation is fundamental to deliberative engagements, deliberation alone is not enough. Democratic participation is also a critical component and the key to enabling mutual learning. Box 2 provides a summary of the comparisons and commonalities identified through the historical reviews of both approaches.

Summary Findings from Historical Reviews	
Deliberative Engagements	Co-design
Comparisons	
Influenced by the liberal concern for individual rights	Influenced by the worker movement’s concern for collective rights
Concerned with constitutional, legislative and policy issues (focused on principles and preferences)	Concerned with generation of ideas through to design and implementation of services and systems (focused on services, products and experiences/interactions)
Role of participants as citizens and critical reasoners	Role of participants as experience experts and creative explorers
Commonalities	
The involvement of those affected (or their representatives)	
Plurality and diversification	
Shifting preferences from self-interest to the common good	
Addressing power imbalances and concern for equality	
Democratic legitimacy and public service capability	
Enabling mutual learning through collective reflection and deliberation	

Box 2: Comparisons and commonalities between deliberative engagements and co-design

3. Citizen Engagement in the ACT

The ACT Government has a long-standing commitment to active engagement with the community in decision making processes. In 2008, the ACT Government hosted the *ACT 2020 Summit*, bringing together more than 300 Canberrans from diverse backgrounds and professions to share their vision for Canberra by 2020. Despite their diversity, participants agreed that Canberra in 2020 should be:

- Socially inclusive to enable an active citizenry;
- Internationally recognised for achievements in science and design;
- Innovative by harnessing the education and other institutions in the Territory;
- Connected locally, nationally and internationally by a modern transport system;
- Sustainable with planning focused on the future;
- Easy for all community members to participate and make informed choices; and

¹¹² See: Dryzek, 2000; Elstub and McLaverty, 2014; and Kalskov and Brodersen Hanson, 2015;.

- Able to engage and connect all community members.

This summit informed the development of *The Canberra Plan: Towards our Second Century*¹¹³ (the Canberra Plan) which also built on the achievements of the original *Canberra Plan* launched in 2004. The Plan outlined a commitment to ongoing citizen engagement which has been demonstrated through the use of varied engagement methods in the years that followed.

3.1 Digital Engagement

Following the commitments made in the Canberra Plan, the ACT Government launched *Time to Talk* in 2010, an online platform for seeking citizen views on matters of public concern.

With enhanced functionality, the *Your Say Website*¹¹⁴ replaced *Time to Talk* in 2016, providing citizens with increased opportunities to contribute to public decision-making processes through a range of mechanisms, including online polls, surveys and discussions.

On 16 November 2018, 13 projects were open for community input on the *YourSay Website*, ranging in focus from the implementation of recommendations in response to the *Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse*, turning waste into energy, town planning, and transport to name a few. A further 48 projects were in progress though not currently accepting citizen feedback and 46 projects had closed since the website commenced.

3.2 Councils and Advisory Groups

There are a range of Ministerial Advisory Councils and advisory bodies in operation in the ACT, providing an avenue for engagement between Ministers, government agencies and representatives of diverse community groups. Examples include:

- Regional Community Councils;
- The ACT Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Elected Body;
- The Ministerial Advisory Council for Women;
- The Ministerial Advisory Council for the Ageing;
- The ACT Veterans Advisory Council;
- The Youth Advisory Council;
- The Disability Reference Group; and
- The Multicultural Advisory Council.

Each Council/Advisory Group is supported by a secretariat and operate under terms of reference which outline membership, functions and timeframes for appointments. Councils/Advisory Groups also conduct broader engagement activities to seek input from across their communities of interest. Examples include hosting of citizens' assemblies, forums and workshops, through to seeking individual feedback on policy issues or concerns.

3.3 Co-design in the ACT

In 2012, the ACT Government embarked on the very first co-design project *Listening to Families*¹¹⁵, which sought to understand why some families with complex needs weren't achieving positive progress despite engagement with multiple services over long periods of time. Co-design enabled

¹¹³ See: ACT Government, 2008.

¹¹⁴ See: www.yoursay.act.gov.au

¹¹⁵ See: ACT Government, 2012.

families with lived experiences of complexity to share their stories and contribute to the design of real world, workable solutions.

This initial work led to a range of co-design processes, including in areas such as child protection, justice reinvestment, human services system reforms, family safety and education, demonstrating the immense power of involving people with lived experiences in designing solutions to complex social problems. Examples include:

- A *Step Up for Our Kids*¹¹⁶- launched in 2015 to provide a strategy for out of home care in the ACT. The strategy was developed through a co-design process involving young people, carers, and service providers over a two-year period. The strategy led to the overhaul of the ACT child protection system, including tendering of new services that provide a continuum of support from prevention and early intervention through to crisis supports.
- The *Family Safety Hub*¹¹⁷- launched in 2018 following a 12-month co-design process involving 50 service providers and 20 people who had experienced domestic and family violence. The Family Safety Hub will provide an innovation process for ongoing design, testing and development of new responses to domestic and family violence.
- The *Future of Education Strategy*¹¹⁸- launched in 2018 following an extensive community conversation involving over 5,000 people. The strategy itself was developed through a mixed method engagement process however articulates an ongoing commitment to co-design of specific initiatives to deliver on the Government's ambition to create an education system that promotes student agency, is equitable, inclusive, and accessible.

3.4 Deliberative Engagements in the ACT

In 2017-18, the ACT Government embarked on four deliberative engagement pilots to confirm the efficacy of involving representative samples of citizens in the design of public policy options.

Examples include:

- The *Compulsory Third Party (CTP) Citizens Jury*- involving a representative selection of Canberrans who met over three weekends (six days in total) to consider research, community feedback, and expert submissions, and to deliberate on the objectives of an improved scheme before deliberating on a preferred model for compulsory third-party insurance in the ACT. Two reports were developed by the jury. The first report outlined the priorities arising through the first two weekends of deliberation (held in October 2017). The second report outlined the preferred model selected by the Jury along with their justifications as determined through the third weekend of deliberations (held in March 2018). The ACT Government is currently progressing the preferred model through the formal decision-making processes, having agreed in principle to accepting the jury's recommendations.
- The *Carers Voice Panel* involved 49 citizens selected through stratified sampling of citizens expressing interest in participating. The majority of citizens were carers themselves, bringing lived experiences to the deliberation process. Citizen representatives deliberated for two days on key priorities to better support carers in the ACT. A smaller group of participants

¹¹⁶ See: ACT Government, 2015.

¹¹⁷ See: ACT Government, 2018a.

¹¹⁸ See: ACT Government, 2018b.

drafted a report based on the deliberations, confirming acceptance by the broader group via email. The ACT Government accepted the panel's recommendations and has commenced work to develop and implement an action plan to take their recommendations forward.

- The *Better Suburbs Forum* (the Forum) was held in July-August 2018 and involved 49 randomly selected citizens and six community council representatives. The Forum convened over three weekends (five days in total) to outline a vision statement for city services in the ACT. The Forum articulated a vision for city services by 2030, along with a statement of priorities to 2022. This process was informed by broader community engagements using the Kitchen Table Conversations methodology and has informed ongoing work to involve citizens through a participatory budgeting activity which will consider funding for play spaces in the 2019-20 ACT Budget.
- The *Housing Choices Collaboration Hub* ran from May- July 2018, involving 38 citizens. The participants convened over three weekends (five days in total) with three-week intervals between each session. The participants deliberated on the changing nature of Canberra's housing needs and how best to respond. Participant recommendations were presented to the Minister with Government agreeing in-principle to the 13 housing choices recommended by the collaboration hub members.

3.5 Whole of Government Approach

In 2018, the ACT Government launched the *Whole of Government Communications and Engagement Strategy 2017-2019* (the Strategy)¹¹⁹ with a clear emphasis on the role of deliberation in supporting citizen engagement. This strategy articulates the government's approach to ensuring citizens are informed and involved in decision making, including through five core activities:

- **Listen** to monitor community concerns, views and aspirations;
- **Engage** to understand the problem and who is affected by it;
- **Deliberate** to cut through the politics, understand the value dimensions, and develop public interest solutions;
- **Consult** to check in with the community on options or on the decision; and
- **Inform** the community on what was decided, on what basis and why.

The Strategy also identifies the importance of targeted and stakeholder engagement for issues affecting particular groups within the community. This is an important component of the Strategy that while not emphasised in the above core activities, does demonstrate an awareness of the important role that targeted approaches such as co-design should continue to play in addressing the full spectrum of public concerns.

The Strategy identified 29 priority engagements and 30 priority information campaigns across 10 priority themes, including: Health, Community Safety, Canberra Community, Economic Development and Diversification, Environment, Supporting Families, Land and Planning, Justice, Transport and Education.

In 2019, an updated engagement plan¹²⁰ was also released to ensure priority engagements and information campaigns are updated regularly with increased focus on building engagement

¹¹⁹ See: ACT Government, 2018c.

¹²⁰ See: ACT Government, 2019.

capabilities across the ACT Public Service. The 2019 engagement plan, identifies 39 priority engagements and 40 priority information campaigns across the same 10 priority themes.

The renewed interest in genuine and effective citizen engagement in the ACT makes this research both timely and relevant.

4. Conclusion: Co-design and Deliberative Engagements are Complementary Capabilities of Value to the ACT

The historical review findings contrast co-design and deliberative engagements in three key areas, including:

- the political origins of each discipline, the former influenced by the liberal concern for individual rights and the later influenced by the worker movement's concern for collective rights;
- the focus of each discipline, the former concerned with constitutional, legislative and policy issues, and the later concerned with generation of ideas through to design and implementation of services and systems; and
- the role of participants, the former engaging citizens as critical reasoners and the later engaging experience experts as creative context explorers.

Despite these differences, the review also found that deliberative engagement and co-design are more alike than dissimilar, and largely complementary when it comes to supporting democratic legitimacy across the full spectrum of public concerns; from constitutional, legislative and policy processes, through to services and systems design. In particular, both approaches involve affected people (or their representatives) in decision making processes, include diverse communication and engagement practices, require a focus on common goods, address power imbalances with a focus on equality, and support mutual learning and appreciation of diverse perspectives.

These qualities may look different in practice, but at their heart is a common commitment to legitimacy and citizen-centred decision-making. It is clear that both approaches have much to learn from each other when it comes to both conceptualisation and application. At the same time, it is important to appreciate the unique contributions that each approach offers to citizen engagements.

In the case of co-design, the most useful application would be cases where particular experiences need to be understood (including those with lived experiences and professional expertise), where knowledge is often unknown, and where services and system solutions require creativity and innovation. In the case of deliberative engagements, the most useful application would be cases where there is a need to determine shared preferences and priorities between citizens, where knowledge is somewhat known, and solutions require critical examination of evidence.

In addition, it is likely that the kinds of complex social issues that government's deal with today will require shifting approaches over time where citizens may be involved in deliberating on higher order preferences and priorities before moving into more targeted design processes aimed at developing specific solutions to address those priorities. Alternatively, localised design approaches may be used to identify innovative solutions that could be presented to the broader citizenry for deliberation on the relative merits or issues presented by each design. Such processes of scaling down or scaling up, provide great opportunities to involve citizens at different levels and in different ways over time.

The ACT's *Whole of Government Communications and Engagement Strategy 2017-2019* also identifies different levels of engagement with citizens, from communication through to active involvement. Both co-design and deliberative engagements provide useful methods for collaborating

with citizens when there is a genuine interest and ability for citizens to shape public policy and service system decisions. It is important to appreciate that there are times when informing or consulting citizens on their views is appropriate and that collaborative approaches such as co-design and deliberative engagements should be reserved for cases where there is political and practical support for partnering with citizens to determine outcomes. Engaging citizens in collaborative approaches under lesser conditions is unlikely to lead to citizen generated outcomes which can decrease citizen trust in the legitimacy of engagement processes far into the future. Figure 6 illustrates the different considerations that should be taken into account when deciding the most suitable citizen engagement approach.

Given the importance of both approaches in the ACT, it is critical that this understanding is shared and promulgated at all levels of the public service, with especial focus on those directly involved in citizen engagement processes, as well as those in decision-making positions who ultimately determine the form and function of service and policy development in the Territory.

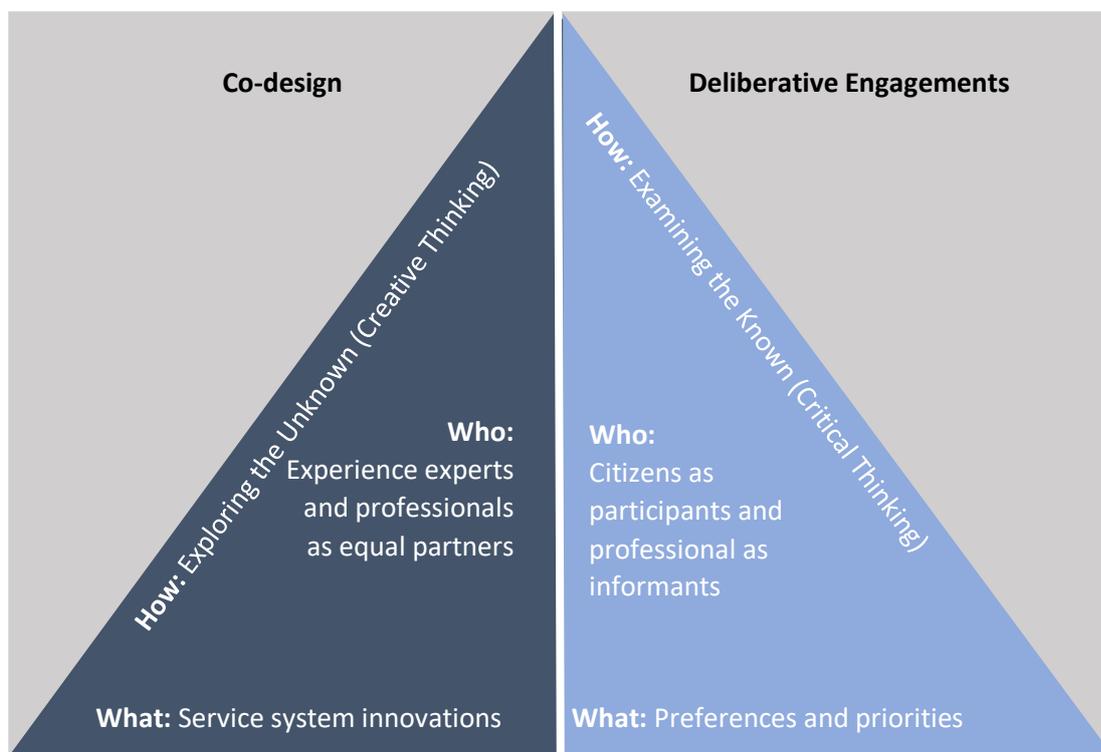


Figure 6: Application Considerations for Co-design and Deliberative Engagements

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