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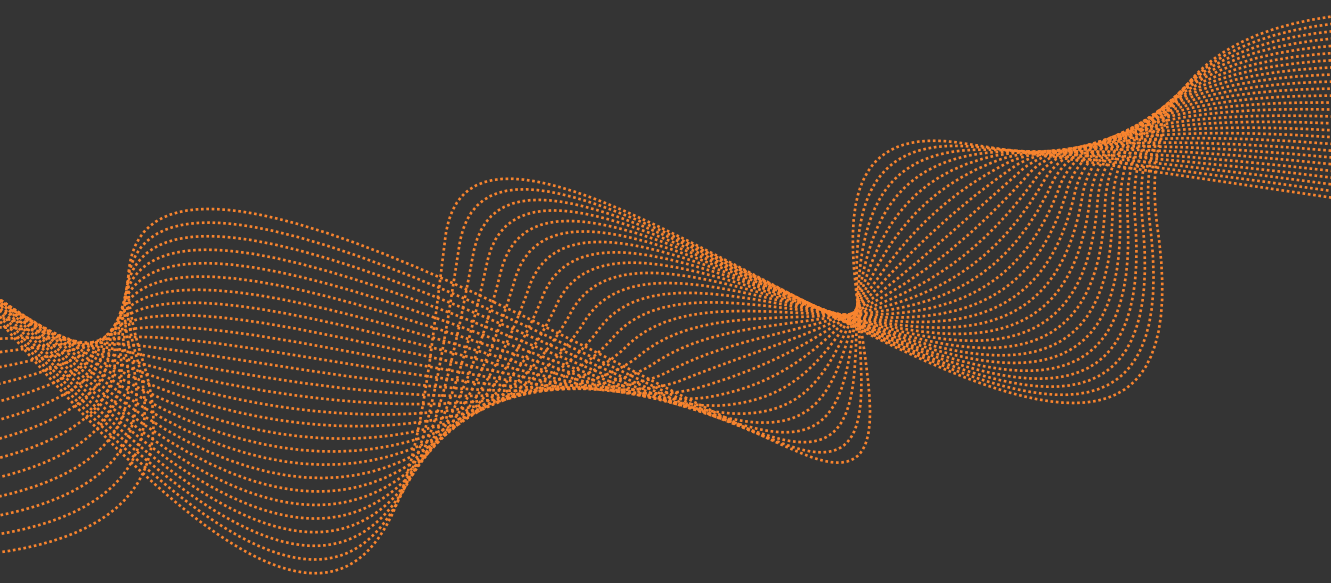
Citizen Engagement and Its Impact on Public Policy Formation



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Preface

In today's rapidly evolving world, the role of citizens in shaping public policy has become more critical than ever. As governments strive to be more transparent, inclusive, and responsive, citizen engagement serves as a fundamental pillar in fostering democratic governance. This book, Citizen Engagement and Its Impact on Public Policy Formation, explores the dynamics of public participation, the mechanisms through which citizens influence policy decisions, and the broader implications of engagement on governance and societal development.

This work aims to bridge the gap between theory and practice by examining real-world case studies, best practices, and challenges in citizen participation. It delves into how digital platforms, grassroots movements, and institutional reforms have transformed traditional policymaking processes, allowing for a more participatory and collaborative approach.

The book is structured to provide a comprehensive understanding of the subject. The initial chapters establish the theoretical foundations of citizen engagement, followed by an exploration of contemporary models and strategies employed worldwide. Subsequent sections analyse the effectiveness of citizen participation in various policy domains, including environmental policies, urban planning, and social welfare. Finally, the book offers insights into the future of citizen engagement, highlighting emerging trends and technological advancements that are reshaping the policy landscape.

By shedding light on these critical aspects, this book seeks to inspire scholars, policymakers, civil society organizations, and engaged citizens to recognize the value of participatory governance. It is our hope that this work will contribute to ongoing discussions on strengthening democratic institutions and fostering meaningful public involvement in decision-making processes.

I extend my gratitude to all researchers, and policymakers whose insights and experiences have enriched this book. Their dedication to understanding and enhancing citizen engagement has been instrumental in shaping this stud.

I am grateful to Deep Science Publishing for the smooth journey in publishing this book.

V. Basil Hans

Contents

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Chapter 1

Introduction to Public Policy and Participation

1. Understanding Public Policy

Policy analysis is concerned with "who gets what" in politics and, more important, "why" and "what difference it makes." We are concerned not only with what policies governments pursue, but why governments pursue the policies they do, and what the consequences of these policies are. Public policy is whatever governments choose to do or not to do. 1 Governments do many things. They regulate conflict within society; they organize society to carry on conflict with other societies; they distrib~ ute a great variety of symbolic rewards and material services to members of the society; and they extract money from society, most often in the form of taxes. Thus, public policies may regulate behavior, organize bureaucracies, distribute benefits, or extract taxes--or all of these things at once (Dye, 2013).

The study of public policy affects a vast range of activities of those in the United States of America. Examples of public policy readily come to mind. These policies can affect the citizens of Omaha in hundreds of different ways. Public policy may be an issue directly confronted, as in paying taxes. It may be largely forgotten, as in benefiting from the fire and police protection provided by the taxes paid after the incident of 9/11 (Karen Wilken, 1987). The problems, the policies, and programs in support of human sexuality, centering on the public school system in the Omaha metropolitan area, is the focus of this study. Anywhere, from several times a day to several times a month, every person is faced with a public policy. And every person is faced with hundreds of public policies every month. In a broad, non-technical sense, public policy is any action or inaction taken by governmental agencies in the name of the people. Public policy affects private life and brings people together in groups and organizes their living arrangements in society. In a technical sense, public policy is the use of state power to promote some tool or means within a political community. Automatically, policies are evaluated to be unfair or just unfair. With the setting of a large amount of conflicting goals, a policy in support of any one goal will often have to be established at some cost to a conflicting goal.

1.1. Definition and Scope

Large-scale reform of health care system requires a reconsideration of the role of the state, in terms of how it regulates, manages, and finances the system. Controversy exists over whether a liberal, choice-driven model will dominate, or whether other variants of state stewardship such as social-insurance-based systems will emerge. This in turn raises questions about population preferences and the extent to which these preferences will be incorporated into policy design. Policy also needs to respond to big challenges in the sector such as aging populations, changing patterns of disease and increasing use of costly new health technology (Ettelt et al., 2010).

Through these processes, health policy in most countries has dominated thinking about health sector reform. Of course, health sector policy is only one thread within the broader fabric of health policy which encompasses other factors which shape population health, such as social and economic policy. The arrangements for public and patient involvement in the health sector have been a significant component of policy reform in England, particularly since Labour took power in 1997. While there is a growing body of policy studies literature on the New Labour approach to health sector reform, the relationship between health sector policy and other aspects of health policy has been little explored. To what extent is policy in one area used to drive policy in another? To what extent is policy on the organisation of health care shaped by, or in spite of, more specific goals regarding the role of the health care system in increasing health and reducing health inequalities? The presence of a comprehensive long-term care (LTC) system is generally interpreted as a reflection of a robust welfare state and policy involvement with the challenges posed by population ageing. Yet economic recessions - by generating a welfare gap - pose threats to long-term care systems. This provides a thorough examination of recent trends and current patterns. In addition, qualitative data from ten OECD countries help to qualify these patterns, discussing which groups of the population at risk of losing care following economic downturns. Results suggest that a comprehensive LTC system is the most sensitive to economic challenges. People in-need but not younger and healthy users are more at risk of becoming a 'welfare casualty'. Countries could mitigate these risks: either designing a dual model (subsidised formal care to the 'truly needy', unpaid care to the less needy) or fostering informal care through the support to carers.

1.2. Importance and Impact

Introduction to Public Policy and Participation in Legislative Processes: Importance and Impact - The relevance of public participation is placed in context of the position and the role of legislatures as law-making bodies. There is a selected compilation of literature on public participation in policy-making and legislative processes. The biggest dilemmas of

public participation in institutions of representation are identified: participation and power. Examples are provided on how participation in provincial legislatures has been structured and the results it has generated.

In all, seven provincial legislatures are observed, but most of the analysis is based on the observations of the KwaZulu-Natal provincial legislature, which is the second largest in terms of population and number of members. This province is also selected because of the unique multicultural composition of the population. It was somewhat of an historical accident that the first decision to attend a session of this provincial legislature was observed on the start of what was to become a prolonged period of observing and participation in political and legislative processes. Although there was a general interest in the reconstruction and development of South Africa in the 1990s, there was no intention at the outset to engage in such a long process of constitutionalism, transition and transformation. When it was decided to get down to serious academic work, only the theme of public participation was pre-selected.

2. The Policy-Making Process

Public policy making is a significant political process that influences the allocation of values that affect the social and economic development of a country. A policy is a response or decision made by the ruling class in response to public demands and environmental influences (David, 2018). Policy making was the prerogative of the ruling elite who believed that they knew and acted better for the people. As a closed shop, the elite took political decisions in private without reference to the pluralistic forces in the society. In general, it was only the government-controlled media that effectively informed citizens about policy decisions taken within the corridors of power. The public therefore became spectators to policy issues while they were aired in a one-way fashion with little scope for any feedback.

Public policy making has undergone significant changes following the adoption of multi-party democracy in 1993. For the first time, a platform was created for multi-party elections in 1992, which were contested by seven political parties and a variety of interest groups. The adoption of multi-party democracy and press freedom following the repeal of the criminal libel law in 2001 has not merely changed the political terrain, giving power to the minority to influence public debate and policies, but has also revolutionized policy formation processes. For political parties, manifesto formulations have become a critical aspect of their political strategy as they develop alternative policies and programs to influence the policy making process and voter opinion. In this kind of politico-media

interaction, intermediation has opened up a new dimension of the policy-making process, discovered new areas of exploration and invoked real political questions about the functioning of democracy and government in the emerging political system. Policy making has been theorized as the process by which a governing elite seeks to resolve political choices or issues over time. Broadly, public policies are defined as government decisions that attempt to influence how forces within the society are allocated or regulated.

2.1. Agenda Setting

The regulatory state—in which administrative agencies increasingly substitute regulation for traditional command and control techniques—is typically thought to operate under conditions in which regulatory agendas are less transparent and more difficult to forecast (Coglianese & E. Walters, 2016). Just the same, in 1978, Congress sought to make the regulatory state's agenda more transparent and predictable by requiring each administrative agency to produce a semi-annual regulatory "Plan". At roughly the same time, scholars in political science and public administration were generating an increasing interest in agenda-setting and related activities within the administrative state but to date have devoted almost no quantitative analysis to regulatory agenda-setting. Considering these developments together might lead to questions about how congressional and bureaucratic efforts to set agendas intersect as well as how they both shape policy selection and drift.

There are at least two sets of distinct issues and choices that this term might reasonably be thought to describe, and participants sought to capture both. First, there are questions about how issues are brought onto the possible agenda of agency action—how some problems or opportunities come to be noticed, while others do not. This first set of issues revolves around so-called problem recognition, which is to be broadly understood as the selection of topics that are or could become the subject of community attention, either implicitly or explicitly. Agencies' choices about which problems to confront generally proceed through their ability to control their activities, either because legal authorities empower such action or because of bureaucratic culture and local expertise.

2.2. Policy Formulation

Introduction Public policy is a complex and diverse activity; it refers to those courses of action and inaction sustained but regularized by organizational entities for dealing with substantial societal problems in a substantively normative way. The formulation of policy is the third step, according to the rational-comprehensive models of decision-making, following problem identification and the selection of objectives. Policy aids are evaluated,

and policy decisions are made. However, the evaluation of a policy aid is a technical aspect, requiring data, analysis and predictive models. A policy is formulated to solve, avoid, correct, or address problems. Launch, implementation, continuation, and conclusion or abandonment of a policy are important decisions citizens make daily through their elected or appointed public officials. Policy formation, in particular, and public policy, in general, have been denied to social movements globally experience a tension towards adaptation to politics, that is, towards policies. This meditation on how to elaborate policies and to engage in policy-making, under what conditions, and with what means and effects, has drawn on many disciplines and has surely become among the most debated topics of contemporary social movement studies (Carolina Silva Morales, 2017).

2.3. Policy Implementation

Since working on development issues six years ago, the WBG has committed itself to participatory development programs within member countries. As public participation becomes a requirement for the WBG in the course of approving loan or credit applications, there is a side business to prepare interested parties, from counterparts to community groups, in an attempt to bridge the information gap. It is believed that the access to key stakeholders in 'the North,' and to opportunities like this, is introduced during the project cycle may enhance understanding among participants and perhaps make South-initiated programs run according to Southern schedules and realities. One of AWNG's objectives during a recent trip to the United States and Canada was to investigate how public policy affects community or regional development, and to assess whether there is an opportunity in these countries for groups similar to the Working Group to voice criticism concerning development happening despite earnest intentions (Froestad et al., 2012).

The WGB's work has focused upon one particular aspect of the implementation of public policy. Necessarily, this has often involved an analysis of the impact of policy upon the community, like numerous legislative proposals. The breakdown of one or another system of Apartheid involves a whole series of these, hardly known to those groups that will have to adapt first to the more immediate effects of these policies. At the same time, however, studies of these processes have demonstrated that if community input has not been accepted prior to the green paper stage, which is worded into white paper status by parliament 75.9% of the time, space for modifications of passed bills is much more difficult come-the-winter. Made aware of such obstacles, the commitment to public participation becomes rhetorical by definition. And the broad study has found that policymakers, be they politicians or administrators frameworks within which opinions can be voiced massaging the mindset from the perceived recommendations of 'informed

corners'. Providing a different framework for participation, allowing an equal partnership where views are assessed on their intellectual/ academic merits, is seen to be a powerful protector for those affected by new and novel policies. Benefits recognized during the research include the opening of closed networks, cabinet meetings, heterogeneous approaches to a set issue, data normally exempt from the public, the analysis of 'expert' opinion sharing, interaction with critique, an improved power base, and a much greater understanding of policy as the results as distinct from the rhetorics, expressed in the two documents.

2.4. Policy Evaluation

Public policy evaluation has been frequently associated with the quality of democratic governance (Dvorak, 2014). Policy evaluation is a discipline involving the collection, verification, and interpretation of information concerning the execution and effects of public policies and programs designed to ameliorate social problems and improve the human condition. In its earliest stages, the problem is defined, the policy is designed, and alternative solutions are sought. This phase corresponds to the ex ante evaluation. Once the policy is implemented, consumer satisfaction is gauged by monitoring events as they unfold, a process known as formative evaluation. In due course, as the policy shows results, a stock-taking is made of the inputs used in delivering the outputs and outcomes in order to judge their efficacy, efficiency, and overall performance. Generally the practice of evaluation is twofold: one concerned with learning from experience and the other with accountability. Most attention in the evaluation of public policy has been channeled towards the accountability of public officials. In an examination of the environment for the implementation of policy, decisions of private individuals and firms also largely determine environmental impacts (Carolina Cossío Blandón & Hinestroza Cuesta, 2021). Policy evaluation is generally concerned with policy outcomes. The effectiveness of a policy or program might be understood as the degree to which its objectives are achieved. A program is effective if it attains the objectives for which it was designed. Estimating the external effectiveness of public action is a typical concern in the policy evaluation phase.

3. Theories of Public Policy

Guy Peters (H. Linder & Guy Peters, 2015) has retrospectively plotted the balance between theory and attention to policy design, showing a gradual increase from 1968 onwards but with a particularly rapid increase from the late 1980s. While emphasizing policy design considerations, this book also hopes to contribute to the theoretical

development of public policy, notably within the area of social policy. A theoretical perspective provides a way of understanding social phenomena. As such, from a policy point of view, social theory is a crucial component to the design of policy that might effectively reshuffle social structures in a favorable way. However, the often vast distance between social theory and its incorporation into an implemented policy would suggest that "efficacious policy in terms of alteration of broader social environment" requires a view accommodating the constraints of feasibility.

Based on this understanding, this book advances a range of substantiated and evaluative theory that draws heavily on Western social theory but is also responsive to the social, cultural, and historical specificities of Asian societies. In Part I, the nature and change of social reality in the context of postindustrialization are discussed, which provides a platform capable of justifying a range of social policy intervention. In many countries there has been a growing public demand for more participatory, accountable, decentralized, and/or coherent policymaking (Royce Vercoe. Bulman, 2002). Social workers involved in policy planning and formulation have recognized the need for the development of improved methods and techniques to provide these demands; and many of the recent innovations in policy design derive from the social policy field, regardless of whether they be termed programme budgeting, systems planning, scenario analysis, policy modelling, or something else. Broadly speaking, the application of these disciplines to other domains of policy is referred to as policy analysis or policy science.

3.1. Incrementalism Theory

The incrementalism theory is considered by many to describe accurately the way in which policy is determined. The central proposition of the theory is that change is the product of a series of small adjustments of existing practices. The manner in which adjustment is made is considered of significant ecological importance as it is argued that radical, or fundamental change simply cannot happen within the established policy frame. Past decisions are thought to create a momentum which acts to further reinforce them. This level of detail is presented not merely by way of introduction to an analysis of how policy develops, but also as an indication of the nature of policies in their own right. For the way a policy is made may significantly affect not only the nature of the policy itself, but also the likelihood of its successful implementation.

The adoption of an incremental approach by certain interest groups is thought to have important implications for the manner in which policy outcomes are determined. This leads to a model of two-party competition wherein radical positions are avoided, with the result that there are oversights of important issues. Utilisation of this model to examine the effectivity of health and safety legislation in the stonemasonry industry indicates that

this is not an effective mechanism of rational decision-making in this case. It is suggested that rather than simply adjusting to, or awaiting planning interest actions, Government provides a more dynamic role.

3.2. Advocacy Coalition Framework

The Advocacy Coalition Framework (ACF) is particularly well suited to map actors´efforts to shape policies and to study how those policies are shaped in a hyper-consensual style of politics in which coalition government is practiced. The ACF has been conceptualized as a belief based explanatory framework, rooted in basic insights from social psychology. According to the ACF, a policy process typically contains a small number of advocacy coalitions, each of them including actors from different sectors. All coalitions engage in a particular type of policy oriented learning that triggers efforts to instrumentally adjust the policy. The competition among different coalitions to impose their preferred policy instruments is played out in a web of existing institutions which set the rules of the policy game. This is in sharp contrast to many other policy process models that tend to model conflict as a one-dimensional space and to view the state as a set of decision-making tools that a single actor uses either for a particular policy problem or in a certain time period. On the one side, actors might interpret new facts in their environment in ways supporting what they already believe. They are also likely to overlook facts that do not fit in their belief systems. In other words, facts alone are not sufficient to change beliefs, unless theoretical mechanisms making sense of those facts are readily available. The Advocacy Coalition Framework (ACF), a belief-based framework in policy analysis, has been widely employed in the policy literature. ACF scholars conclude that decision-making takes place in a context of political conflict and that it happens in a game of learning and adjusting policy tools instrumentally to influence policies (Isabel Gómez Lee, 2012).

4. Public Participation in Policy Making

In 1996, the principal of public involvement and access to information was included in the amendment to the European Union's (EU) Community and Drinking Water Directives. This amendment required member states to develop, and if possible, achieve a particular quality of drinking water and to involve interested parties by 1998 and to inform the Commission of the European Communities accordingly. In 2000, the requirement of public involvement and access to information was broadened to include the collection of catchment area information which could have an effect on the quality of water intended for human consumption. Effectively, this means that water suppliers would need to make

available, upon request, all such information as is possessed by or available to them including its source and any results of tests carried out (P. Martin, 2009).

The Water Services Act, 2007, allows the national environmental regulator, the EPA, to develop a set of principles and a coordinated approach to public participation. The principals include the integration of public participation into the development, implementation and revision of plans and programs and the requirements to avail of information. Under the act, the EPA is also empowered to formulate guidelines relating to the establishment and maintenance of adequate systems that objectively reveal the levels of service achieved and to establish arrangements for the handling of complaints.

The Environment Protection Agency is an independent statutory organization that is responsible for protecting the environment in Ireland. This means that for the first time, standards for public participation worked in a national and consistent manner will be implemented across all providers of water services. Currently, it is expected that a draft set of principles which are to underpin public participation in relation to water services activities, further to the recent amendments to the EU Drinking Water Directive, will be adopted early in 2006.

4.1. Types of Public Participation

You are responsible for making decisions, but public participation is still necessary and worthwhile. However controversial it may be, you are not permitted to ignore this task, nor traffic it out of sight and out of mind. It's said to be multi-staged, but you have to move quickly. Any of these ring a bell? Far be it from you to tell anyone how to do their job, but good decisions can't be made without learning everything possible about the external factors affecting them.

Private meetings have been held because matters presented are "maintenance," but a court has ordered everything put on the record because they beg to differ. When will the public have an opportunity to meet about these matters? Approximately how far along are these facilities in the approval process, and how there are any steps already taken? How many coal plants do these two replacements effectively equal, and will they all have to be replaced by 2020? Will a peak population serve as a cap and will any resources be replaced into perpetuity, as the affected population can only grow? Public participation in decision-making is a process in which we will look to you for direct advice and innovation in formulating solutions, and incorporate your advice and recommendations into the decisions to the maximum extent possible. You will implement what was decided, but the justifications of your eventual decisions will provide responses to the public and others. You must also demonstrate an understanding of the public's major concerns and clearly

state how you will address them. Discussion of the public participation can include overall strategy, as well as clarification or critical discussion of specific interest expressed by the public. Four types of public participation can be seen through methods to inform public, methods to generate and gain input, methods for consensus building and agreement seeking, and methods for involvement, contacts and training of citizen components (Suphattanakul, 2018). There are a variety of tools that public officials can use to engage citizens in decision-making processes. Many variations in the performance of participatory processes are evident among projects and programmes. Some were designed as participation experiments themselves, aiming at building local institutions and capacities for participatory decision-making. In contrast, 'upward' requirements for community participation in development projects have led in some cases to hastily designed and poorly implemented participation processes, often resulting in resistance and resentment from project staff as well as intended beneficiaries. On the other hand, there are a significant number of projects which are not under such pressure that have still managed to foster innovative processes which challenge more traditional practices of decision-making in development. In such cases project staff and partners provide a supportive environment for creative 'experimentation' in participation. There is an increasingly rich literature examining the implementation of projects from a 'within-planning' perspective, focusing on a range of mobilisation strategies by social movements, non-governmental organisations and local communities. The United Nations presented UN-HABITAT's Toolkit on Participatory Urban Decision-Making as an extensive review of mechanisms to encourage public participation in decision-making processes at local governance. Typically a variety of mechanisms are used as part of participation processes, for example, individual interviews, workshops, advisory committees, public hearings and customer surveys.

4.2. Benefits and Challenges

Participation in the policy process is widely accepted by scholars and policy-makers as a means of increasing the legitimacy, coherence and effectiveness of public policy. This paper reviews recent evaluation studies of community participation in the policy process. The major methodological dilemmas influencing the validity of such studies, such as stakeholder biases and trade-offs between methodological rigour, participatory 'ownership' and policy learning are discussed. It goes on to review the nature of participation, its goals and the local contexts in which it takes place. Drawing on a range of evaluation studies, (P. Martin, 2009) highlights the countervailing evidence on the effectiveness, benefits and costs of different forms of participation. This contradictory evidence often reflects the complex and contradictory wider goals and processes at play in the policy-making context. Rather than singularly 'adding value' to the policy process,

community participation is seen to involve multiple trade-offs. At best, community participation may be seen as a process through which policy-makers and stakeholders reframe policy issues and co-produce agreement on alternative solutions. Different models of the interface between participation and policy-making are reviewed and a 'negotiated learning' model is proposed. Generally, research into participation suggests that such processes are most effective in modifying policy rather than legitimating and implementing pre-decided policy.

Social-scientific analysis of public-participation initiatives has proliferated in recent years. This review article discusses some key aspects of recent work. First, it analyzes some of the justifications put forward for public participation, drawing attention to differences and overlaps between rationales premised on democratic representation/representativeness and those based on more technocratic ideas about the knowledge that the public can offer. Secondly, it considers certain tensions in policy discourses on participation, focusing in particular on policy relating to the National Health Service and other British public services. Thirdly, it examines the challenges of putting a coherent vision for public participation into practice, noting the impediments that derive from the often-competing ideas about the remit of participation held by different groups of stakeholders. Finally, it analyses the gap between policy and practice, and the consequences of this for the prospects for the enactment of active citizenship through participation initiatives.

5. Case Studies and Examples

A basic aim of public policy is to address broad social problems by developing and implementing programmes. Policy has four aspects, namely the goal or substantive content that the policy is trying to achieve, the tools or substantive means employed to achieve the goals, the affected population in relation to the policy, and the control and influence over other policy aspects. Because of the multidisciplinary nature of the field there is a range of more specific definitions of policy. Policy can be used to describe how something is done in an organisation, institution or a government. In the eyes of a policy maker, policy is an intended relation between a set of actions or measures and a set of goals, where intended means that there is a certain statement, which makes the policy an explicit plan. Alter in the light of new evidence.

5.1. Community Policing Initiatives

This study examines the various community policing initiatives within the New York City Police Department (NYPD) from 1984 to present. Community policing is a policing model currently in the forefront of the criminal justice field due to strained relationships between communities and the police. The New York City Police Department is the largest police agency in the United States with approximately 34,500 officers and 51,000 employees. For a decade, community policing was the dominant operational philosophy in the NYPD; however, this was not always the case and has not remained the case. Over time, various community policing initiatives have been introduced, implemented, and eventually either changed generation to generation or completely abolished. The community policing initiatives examined include: the Community Patrol Officer Program (C-POP) launched by Police Commissioner Benjamin Ward in 1984; the Safe Streets, Safe City Program launched by Mayor David Dinkins in October 1991, which established community policing as the dominant operational philosophy in the NYPD; the Broken Windows data-driven policing strategy introduced by new Police Commissioner Howard Safir in August 1996, which ended community policing as the dominant operational philosophy in the NYPD; the Lack of Emphasis on Community Policing by Police Commissioner Bernard Kerik from January 2000 to December 2001 (Lamburini, 2018). The lack of emphasis on community policing was characterized by a decrease in officers on patrol and a refocus on emergency-response policing. The Impact Unit arrests and quality of life summons also shaped the lack of emphasis on community policing; the Re-emergence of Community Policing, which has been integrated in both the CompStat and Impact Zone initiatives; Police Commissioner Ray Kelly officially announced the Neighborhood Coordination Officer Program (NCO) in 2015. The Community Affairs Bureau will assign two uniform officers to each of the city's seventy-seven precincts as Neighborhood Coordination Officers. These initiatives were analyzed to determine how community policing models have changed in the NYPD and to identify factors driving the change in policing styles.

5.2. Environmental Conservation Policies

The first session of the 1971 General Assembly began the latest chapter in the evolution of North Carolina's modern era of environmental and conservation policy legislation. The session's enactments increase to approximately 200 the number of statutes enacted since 1959 which are alphabetically indexed and which endeavor to deal with environmental, land use, and conservation matters. Among these statutes are several which seek to build upon the environmental and conservation accomplishments of the Don Russell/Terry Sanford years. As notably with Senate Bill 1146, others seek to repair and strengthen

environmental and conservation laws substantially undercut by subsequent legislative degeneracy. Many, of course, are entirely unrelated to the subject matter of this essay, but those which are pretained have now been thoroughly codified and for the most part are identified with captions which express legislative policy in the area of the environment's protection and conservation (S. Jr. Heath & L. III Hess, 2007). These declarations of policy language, which in some statute titles is denoted as preamble language, are the subject of this essay. In State ex rel. Sacramento Air Quality Management Dist. v. Amer. Smelting & Ref. Co., the Ninth Circuit of the U.S. Court of Appeals held that a district court erred in interpreting the phrase to declare national policy to be a 'rule of law.' The English method depends on the commissioners or chairman of the board, not the board per se, to execute the policy (emphasis added). Policy prevails only if members of the board individually are commissioners, since policy needs to be reduced to a 'sufficiently certain list of operational principles' (emphasis added). Therein lies the no-man's land argument: the executive will not act pursuant to 'statements expressing an agency's policy.

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Chapter 2

Theories and Models of Public Participation

1. Introduction to Public Participation

Public participation is a means of directly engaging people in decision-making processes, giving them the same fair chance of expressing their opinions as other stakeholders. Democracy is not exclusively about rule by the people, nor participation by the people alone. In the contemporary context, democracy, informally conceived, can be defined as the better government by linking it with good governance. One of the critical features of good governance is the involvement of the people, in the decision-making processes as well as in their direct representation. The government apparatus and its performance are matters of people's welfare, and they must have the chance to monitor and influence them (Suphattanakul, 2018). Therefore, efforts should be made by the government to involve them in the governance of their country and their society. Public participation is a mechanism or "tool" used to involve people in the decision-making processes as well as in the designing and implementing of government policies and programs. Through the public participation process, public's views would be taken into account when the related decisions are made. Moreover, the information gathered would improve the performance of the agencies. Public participation is a process through which concerned people affecting or interested in a decision can gather, share their opinions, and reach mutual understanding or agreement. Public participation can be regarded as a political principle concerning the engagement of people in the designing and implementing of their government policy, and it's also a right of people affected by a decision to participate in the decision-making processes. There are many ways to perform public participation, ranging from public consultations and information campaigns to active involvement in decision-making processes like the multi-stakeholder approach. Since the late 1990s, Public Participation has been an integral part of good governance and better government. Numerous efforts have been made to provide the stakeholders with more space and an enhanced role in the regular decision-making processes. Nowadays, numerous concepts and tools are available fostering the role of stakeholders in the policy-making stages, definitions, consultations, implementations, and evaluations. Besides these traditional

paths, the rising of new technologies has facilitated Public Participation by offering instant access to information and documents, thus creating open governance systems. Involvement in decision-making processes, in turn, contributes to the governmental performance and improves the quality of public service. Japanese municipalities have recently been trying to implement these new methods of Public Participation, involving the public in local planning such as local development plans. The main focus of the paper is to examine the quality of public participation in consultations and the four classical models that built up the approach: the public, experts, deliberative, and cooperation model. The four models are introduced from a theoretical background and practical examples down to examine the possible difference favoring the public or the truth legitimacy.

2. Historical Perspectives on Public Participation

Public participation in political decision-making processes has its roots in the transition from tribal and feudal societies to more complex state structures and was already institutionalised in the city states of Mesopotamia more than five thousand years ago. Today, all citizens are broadly acknowledged as having the right to participate in public affairs—regardless of their educational or professional background. In the beginning, public participation was mainly exercised in a direct form, whereas today it occurs mainly in an indirect, representative form within the framework of a representative democracy (Musselwhite, 2017). The broad concept of representation has been increasingly interpreted in favour of the electorate over the past few years—though without calling into question the principles of representatives as set out over 200 years ago. It is in this context that two "waves" of democratic innovations in the form of participatory elements are increasingly considered to be not just interesting deviations from regular parliamentary or local council procedures, but as having the potential to deepen the quality and adherence to democratic principles for the 21st century. The historical development of political approaches of public participation is wide-ranging and, in particular, since the late 1980s, a burgeoning field of research within the disciplines of political science, urban sociology, geography, anthropology and planning. Present research foregrounds especially the gaps between normative expectations and the practice of participation (P. Martin, 2009). Nevertheless, the philosophical reflections on participation are usually instead marginal and when they do occur, they are embedded in broader considerations of citizenship, populism, or advocacy. My aim is to stimulate an interdisciplinary debate on the potentials of participatory processes in political decision-making by elucidating eight political theories and models that underpin people's desires for having a say in

questions that affect their lives. Influence on these models and theories arises from different perspectives, including the works of historians, planners, public administration researchers, sociologists, political scientists, and political activists, as well as from contributions within the field of geography on socio-spatial interactions and the public sphere. Thus, it is of great importance to illuminate the various historical roots and effects of public participation in order to better understand the local, national, and global approaches and traditions that are being practiced in the current context.

3. Theoretical Frameworks for Understanding Public Participation

Numerous theoretical frameworks provide insight into the mechanisms and implications of public participation (P. Martin, 2009). Their importance is highlighted for the analysis of participatory processes, as participatory democracy is now core to urban governance. Critical awareness of the range of theoretical perspectives is necessary to analyze initiatives and develop strategy. Baselines gained from these frames enable practitioners to recognize the limitations and partiality of different perspectives enthusing better alignment of analysis and practice. Various urban literature has attempted to draw upon such frameworks to analyze different spin to 'partnerships,' 'engagement,' or 'governance' to planning practices, policy discourses, and politics. Although often insightful, operationalization via these Urban literatures can limit the scope of different theoretical lenses. Deliberative democracy, collaborative governance, artisans of democracy, partnership working, and stakeholder theory are just a few examples of different and competing theoretical discourses that might be mobilized to understand the dynamics of public participation. Each frame has its foundational principles, favored methodologies, and even epistemologies. Each frame might also inspire specific forms of practice, such as aiming to achieve consensus (deliberative democracy), effective remediation while minimizing dispute (stakeholder theory), equalized power relations (advocacy and pluralism), coherence between the regulatory and operational (corporatist governance), or mediating outputs across sectorial boundaries (collective action). To be naively aligned, participation strategy should resemble have to sink one frame (of course very others might be on planter). This tool is designed to reader with what are viewed as five of the most trenchant or enduring theoretical frames, enabling critical assessment of participatory initiatives and thereby permitting a better grounding in the strategic choice. Of these five, the first operates principally at meso level and might suggest an epistemology favorable to the compilation and analysis of qualitative data: artisans of democracy; collaborative governance. The remaining four operate more at macro level. Each frame is considered in turn in terms of its foundational principles and its real-world applications.

Public participation decision-making (PPDM) is a process that alters the way decisions are made in response to the desires, aspirations, and capabilities of those affected by the decisions. The idea of involving members of the public in public decision-making is not a new idea, of course, going back at least to Aristotle. Reciprocal Public services.

3.1. Deliberative Democracy Theory

Public participation is a complex concept that draws on theories and models from many different disciplines. This section will introduce some of the foundational theories and key concepts that underpin contemporary understanding of public participation. It will begin with one of the most prominent and widely used theoretical frameworks for understanding public participation: Deliberative Democracy Theory. This theory emphasizes the importance of reasoned discussion and reflection as a means of shaping democratic decision-making processes. Within this framework there are several key axioms that demand that democratic decisions must be made through discourse that is inclusive of all relevant parties, that discussion occurs between equals and is conducted with respect, tolerance, and civility towards the perspectives and viewpoints of others. This theory is premised on the belief that discussion and reasoned discourse have the power to shape the opinions of the public and inform policy (Calyx, 2016). Well-designed deliberative processes can deepen civic engagement by providing citizens with an opportunity to become more informed, and facilitating active engagement in the give-and-take of democratic governance. Deliberative processes can enhance the legitimacy of decisions and improve the quality of public outcomes, by ensuring that decisions reflect the considered values, preferences and judgements of a properly informed and deliberative public.

There are many examples of where these principles have been put into practice, from smaller ad hoc deliberative events that can occur at the local level, such as community forums, citizens juries or deliberative polls, to larger established bodies, like the Oregon Citizens Assembly or the Danish Consensus Conference System. All of these different processes are premised on the theoretical view that involving civic citizens in these ways, and at these junctures, can help to render more just decisions by ensuring that a wider net of perspectives are considered that in turn enhances the quality, fairness and legitimacy of the process. And whilst there is certainly empirical evidence to suggest that this can be the case, particularly in the way that deliberative outputs are (at least initially) received, this is not without its difficulties, both in terms of its design and implementation.

3.2. Stakeholder Theory

Public participation in decision-making processes has gained popularity in recent years as one of the archetypical elements of participatory governance. Public participation provides opportunities for citizens and other key stakeholders to engage in a meaningful way and influence decisions that affect their lives. Public participation is a complicated concept and can be understood in multifarious ways. A wide variety of reasons and objectives to engage with the public in the decision-making process are also presented. Public participation is seen as an essential factor that could improve the quality of public decisions and could enhance the relationship between government authorities and the public. A range of theories and models have been proposed aiming to prescribe and explain ways to involve public and key stakeholders in the decision-making process (Hailemariam Zikargae et al., 2022). Nevertheless, despite these efforts, no universal way that would be perfectly suitable for any case of public participation initiative has been identified. Thus, delineating the most suitable way how public participation should be undertaken to suit the specifics of individual cases remains a significant challenge for government organizations and other stakeholders initiating public participation processes.

Markets and governments have long engaged stakeholders as a useful approach for balancing resources and managing externalities. Stakeholder approaches are growing rapidly on the environmental scene, aiming to improve decision making and build effective coalitions. This paper uses stakeholder theory and case studies to examine relationships among stakeholders and offer insights for improving participatory governance. Public participation is becoming an essential element in addressing environmental and complex social issues. One of the most discussed topics in recent environmental debates is the ability of organizations to engage stakeholders in meaning.

4. Models of Public Participation

There are myriad models of public participation, in various shapes and forms, catering for differing structures and functions of public engagement. Such models differ widely in the amount of discretion given to the public, from the most passive form (where decisions are made by government and information is one-way) to the most aggressive (where power to make decisions is handed over to the public). The suitability and effectiveness of any model of citizen engagement will depend on the context in which it is operated, the appearance of any model notwithstanding the underlying reality of public engagement. A reason why public service organizations should be cautious about adopting any model of

participation. Generally, the higher the level of public participation, the greater the public's power to make decisions (Suphattanakul, 2018).

Public participation scholars have developed numerous models for the categorization of different structures and functions of citizen engagement. Some of the well-known models are examined for their structure, features, and effectiveness in practice regarding the degree to which they can shape, or be shaped by, policy decisions. Those models include, but are not limited to, Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation, the Public Participation Spectrum, the Policy Cycle Model of Public Participation, and CODIM. The opportunity structure influences the extent of control over public policy that the public can achieve. The sophistication of these models varies and it is argued that sophisticated models can provide sophisticated explanatory and analytical tools for the understanding of public participation (P. Martin, 2009).

4.1. Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation

Sherry R. Arnstein's Ladder of Citizen Participation is a seminal framework illustrating different levels of public involvement (Collins & Ison, 2006). The ladder consists of eight rungs: (1) Non-participation (2) Manipulation and (3) Therapy are forms of powerholders' control; (4) Informing and (5) Consulting denote levels of tokenism; (6) Placation and (7) Partnership are authentic forms of participation; and (8) Delegated Power, also called citizen power, is the highest level of involvement, empowering citizens to hold substantive decision-making authority.

Different participatory processes correspond to different rungs of the ladder. In particular contexts, public involvement can reflect plural rungs. Because participatory practices should be aligned with the claimed level of engagement, understanding the implications of each rung is vital. As such, Arnstein’s model entails a focus on power relationships and the importance of recognizing different levels of participation. It can be used as an analytical tool to assess the quality of participatory processes and to inform practitioners how to advance to higher rungs of the ladder. To broaden the conceptual understanding of each rung, certain key issues are elaborated upon: the intent, the distribution of power, as well as the effects and examples of each level of participation.

4.2. The Public Participation Spectrum

Sherry R. Arnstein’s ladder of citizen participation classifies participation theoretically into eight groups, with exploitation of participation at the lowest and outcome controlled by citizens at the highest. However, manipulation of Arnstein’s ladder of citizen participation is conceivable such that it displays a realistic scale of citizen engagement in

the public-participation field and meets the requirements of public managers dealing with different types of social conflicts and decision situations. Feature a spectrum that sorts out and categorizes public participation according to some pattern and provides an imprint that a professional and public manager can follow, to tailor a public participation effort to fit the situation better. Public Participation Spectrum is a model for the decision-making process, constitutes a scenario of possibilities and options for the incorporation of public participation activities as government actions evolve in the process of deciding public issues and formally adopting them as government policies, programs, and projects. The foundation of any effective public engagement is a proper alignment between the level and type of public participation and its influence on decisions as well as the open communication and immediate feedback mechanisms with the authority. Furthermore, the development of a public participation strategy as an effort to employ the suspicion, criticism, creativity, and power of diverse education, income, professions, and traditions of a population can be a controversial issue in delivering true participation (Suphattanakul, 2018).

The Public Participation Spectrum is a continuum that stretches from "informing the public" at one end to "empowering the public" at the other end as the political power, and consumer satisfaction is shared by the public, the government, and the community group. The aim is to broaden the level of discussion on public participation so that it encompasses a broad and clear concept that can help public managers design and conduct effective public-participation efforts. Although public participation is a well-known word in many government institutions and other interest groups, the power to make decisions and control over many social, economic, and political agenda items is still mainly held by government institutions and other elites such as politicians and wealthy people. In summary, the Public Participation Spectrum is an insightful concept that public managers will consider when assessing the development and implementation of public participation initiatives in practice. Overall, the discussions suggest that a deeper model in various social contexts, different types of tasks and government agendas, along with other social sectors, will contribute to better understanding and the execution of successful public participation strategies.

5. Challenges and Critiques of Public Participation

Participatory governance has, in recent years, become a cornerstone in government-public engagement across issues within the political spectrum. Driven largely by the rapid increase of governmental and nongovernmental online participation platforms, the field of public participation has seen notable maturation in terms of both theoretical discourse

and the application of these theories. Significant in this growth of the analytical discourse have been the development of new theories and models of public participation (P. Martin, 2009). Despite this, there has been less attention devoted to the critical examination of both the practice and the theory of participation. Here, we look at the challenges and critiques to practice that a focus on seeing publics as problematic raises, and illustrate these with reference to an exploratory case study on an engagement project with a public-service delivery organization.

The standard argument for public/participant apathy or rejection has, historically, operated in terms of the public good being informed, the public as ignorant. This sees an asymmetry in the information available to those who create a policy domain, as well as the power over the creation of information. Certainly apathy and problems of awareness are a problem in public consultation processes. However, information and public awareness, or lack thereof, is but a part of a basic model which has at its centre a dynamic emphasizing a public that is lacking. Publics are often seen as apathetic, or lacking certain presentational codes, and participation involves an attempt to render them active, politically literate, problematic, or good. A basic argument here is that the forms of embodiment held to be symptomatic of the public good are quite rigid and particular, and as such do not account for the pluralities of lifestyles, the assemblage of problems, and the disjuncture between people that characterize the constitution of any putative public good.

6. Case Studies in Effective Public Participation

1. Introduction

Public participation is increasingly being promoted, at various levels of government, as a method for involving citizens and other stakeholders in decisions that affect their lives. As such, a range of different models and methods have evolved, including: public meetings; focus groups; citizen juries; referenda; opinion polls; and special web-based ‘e-democracy’ systems. Any model of public participation must engage with a wide and complex literature that embraces such diverse topics as rational choice theory, democratic legitimacy, social capital, and collective decision-making rules (Cohen & Wiek, 2017). Here, a review is provided of some of the key theories and models of public participation that explain why it should take place at all. The focus is then brought in on explaining how effective public participation can be achieved.

2. Theories of the Politics of Public Participation

Many of the most longstanding arguments for public participation are essentially normative; they explain why such involvement is a desirable end in itself. One set of arguments here is essentially instrumentalist; participation allows the incorporation of important local knowledge into the policy process, can increase social capital, and involves people in decisions that affect their lives. Indeed, suggests that such involvement should be promoted as a way of holding power-holders to account. Similarly, a key theme of radical participatory movements is a right to self-determination and the rejection of the goal of conventional representative democracy. Such arguments also follow a process through which stakeholders can use the spaces of participation to synthesize conflicting interest, build consensus, and foster trust and understanding amongst the various actors. On several occasions during the late 1980s, threatened to destroy the Al-Manda dam. Manda is located some 270 kilometers north-west of the capital Baghdad, near the city of Dohuk. first visited this country in 1988, and in 1992 when in Kurdistan she learnt through discussions with Kurdish refugees, that Iraq built many dams in the semi-autonomous Kurdish region. researched on the issue in Germany and found the environmental lawyer who collaborated. Iraq built several large dams in the semi-autonomous Kurdish region between 1985 and 1991. Iraqi Kurdistan, which covers an area of 40 000Km2, has a population of 4 to 5 million Kurds. Workers on the Al Manda dam were housed in a camp on the left bank of the Lesser Zab river. Close to the camp there was a waste treatment facility. It was built 20 to 25 years earlier, when construction started on the Badush dam downstream on the Tigris river. Then, in 2012, the Great Theatre of the People–an arty take on 'Theatre of the Oppressed'. Activists used Body Mapping to identify hazards and associate health problems. wildfire, leaking pipes. Little debris was removed for 17 years. Under the dictatorship of, the security of the Al-Manda dam was of considerable importance.

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Chapter 3

Institutional Frameworks for Public Engagement

1. Introduction

The past two decades have witnessed a remarkable surge of research and innovation regarding institutional frameworks for public engagement. There are at least five reasons for such proliferation. First, over the past three decades, the deep-reaching changes in the way science is viewed and conducted has altered the way in which scientists relate to the broader society. This experience of public engagement in science is believed to have much wider lessons and applicability, and thus there is a growing demand for a systematic examination of general policy, regulatory or organizational frameworks which enable or obstruct effective public engagement. Second, changes also took place in the broader political landscape, with public engagement increasingly seen as an important means of enhancing effectiveness, responsiveness, and ultimately legitimacy of governance or policy-making. In that context, there is a burgeoning number of international institutions, governmental bodies, or NGOs which promote and support public engagement, and there is thus a need to scrutinize how this movement is being mobilized, framed, or implemented. Third, while the literature has produced an abundant number of methodological or instrumental guidelines for public engagement, there is a glaring dearth of holistic theorizations about what public engagement actually means as an intrinsic good and how it could be reconciled with normative standards such as robustness, rigor, trustworthiness, independence or fairness. Fourth, the seemingly simple concepts of the public or engagement are in fact exceedingly complex and multifaceted things that are subjects to social construction, contested interpretation, tricky measurement and divergent applications across different cultures, economic sectors or disciplines. Lastly, a well-designed public engagement process needs to consider a wide array of contextual factors, including the object, forum, host, sponsor, participants, facilitator, funding, values or norms. Prospective users therefore demand a set of tools, templates or management strategies to arrange, troubleshoot and evaluate a dialogical event in an integrative framework.

2. The Importance of Public Engagement in Institutions

With democracy comes costs and frustrations as it is hard to know what impact engagement has and very often deliberations do not lead to desired outcomes. So, it is essential for parliaments to be able to evaluate the effectiveness of engagement practices (Leston-Bandeira & T. Siefken, 2023). From the point of view of parliament as an institution, though, there seem to be particularly big financial and resourcing costs and in terms of staff time, which may just not be available to parliaments with less resources. This research has shown that, despite public engagement activities increasing considerably in the last decade, especially because of technology making engagement easier, more effective practices require pretty high-level skills particularly in communications and education. Also to note that, even though a large majority of parliaments worldwide are understood to engage with the public, this does not mean, by any stretch, that the quality of engagement (in terms of the opportunities for dialogue, debate, learning) is high; nor does it mean that such engagement is particularly visible or impactful.

The work of parliaments is structured around the legal frameworks that set out parliamentary activity and affects the conditions of access for citizens. Despite there being a lot of engagement programmes and initiatives, one of the main challenges raised by practitioners of public engagement in parliaments is that public engagement is often developed in the margins of institutional mechanisms and considerations, and only rarely it is developed in legal terms. On the one hand, some parliaments have legal provisions that, in one way or another, embed the need for public engagement within parliamentary activity: the formal need to involve public consultation or professional representations on proposed legislation is an obvious example. But, even in those cases, what the analysis of the legal provisions reveals is that the relevant parliamentary services often work in silos.

3. Types of Institutional Frameworks for Public Engagement

Billions of people are governed every day by a wide range of public institutions: from schools their children attend; to hospitals when their family is unwell; from the police who helps protect them; to local or national government departments that decide what happens in their community (Leston-Bandeira & T. Siefken, 2023). Despite the centrality of these institutions for the good functioning of societies, many people are not convinced of the work they do, nor understand the vital role they play. Against this, in a number of countries, public engagement has developed as a way to enable people's views or interests to feed more directly into the decision-making and scrutiny processes of public

institutions. However engagement can take different forms, involve different actors, and seek very different outcomes.

3.1. Internal Structures

Internal structures can vary greatly in the human and monetary resources available for different activities and levels of academic engagement (Gorski et al., 2019). Intercampus units and schools can serve as a bridge between local units and local community groups to build relationships, equitable partnerships, and to advocate and elevate engagement within the institution. While top-down engagement units can be helpful to elevate engagement in certain institutions, they may also have challenges in designing policies and practices, creating equal partnerships, and understanding relationships within the network of communities. This interaction with the community and its relationship system should be approached with humility, especially when academic and community-based stakeholders are less represented or invested in the conversation. Just as the concept of engagement itself may look different depending on the community member and academic partner, so will an individual's need for protection in a community-academic project. The design of engagement strategies should aim to evoke all ethical PRINCIPLES of engagement, including honesty, commitment, mutual learning, respect, and the right to self-determination among others. The expanding involvement of researchers and educators in community engagement with stakeholders in developing communities has led to a range of ethical considerations, which have been challenging to resolve. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) adheres to the Common Rule to give researchers guidance on precedence between federal regulations and agreements between the institute and its community partners. The guidelines on engagement could regulate a number of release points in the principles, but where the Common Rule applies, it gives precedence to the federal regulations.

3.2. External Partnerships

Development assistance agencies and nongovernment organizations always had the possibility of partnerships with the governments with the view of supporting development efforts. The need to work closely with clients and other partners is constantly underscored in methods and models put forth. A usual aspiration in the literature on strategic planning and management information systems is the desire to have stakeholder involvement in policy decision making and plan formulation. This effective participation rests on a tradition of partnership with the users of the information. A more recent development has been a concern, sometimes amounting to talk of crisis, with the capacity of agencies to learn. Sensitivity to changing needs and circumstances expressed by target groups can similarly be developed through partnership arrangements with the rest of civil society.

The potential and limitations are recognized here. Although the topic is revealed on the value of the partnership, implementing such partnerships is not straightforward. A significant issue is how to go about creating and managing them. Various aspects of partnerships are examined. Governments can make legislative changes that drastically affect the gender-sensitive strategy being implemented. It is critical to partner with women's organizations to ensure such actions are avoided. This not only improves the gender awareness of the efforts and helps to monitor the impacts of gender-sensitive changes in policy, but it greatly improves the manageability of projects. At the same time, it is crucial in fostering an environment that is conducive to policy reform in this area, which is the ultimate goal. Awareness can be elicited of the need for legislative changes to resolve inconsistencies such as in the Labor Law and when the Model Village law. Government supported, but not always successful, efforts at policy reform by others can prompt research and help to identify domestic actors that might be more successful in lobbying for reform.

4. Case Studies of Effective Institutional Frameworks

Gibney writes that the formalized and top-down approach of parliament's public engagement is seen as partial; two representative institutions offer effective and innovative public engagement which delivered space for citizen exchange and involvement alongside additional notable distinct cases. However, the political context and the representative document concept terms of public engagement are specific to parliaments. Parliamentary institutional public engagement offers a new concept in political science and autonomous research. Parliamentary public engagement activities generally aim to promote interaction between the parliament and its publics either directly or indirectly. Parliaments are the main verwaltungen dafür; they are not promotional and provide no intermediaries. The term 'public' should be interpreted broadly to encompass all those whom the parliament represents or endeavors to; in other words, citizens residing within or affected by the country's territories, enterprises, and organizations. Similarly, 'replies' indicates any parliamentary institution, that is, a bixamta institution created by a constitution to legislate concerning issues to enact on behalf of its public. This article considers how and by means of which installation, libraries engage the public. Ultimately, parliaments may maintain interaction with the public on an informal basis through the fleets. Official engagement may be seen as an undisputed prerogative, seeing a hole in affecting information and imparting got shrilled aims. Parliamentary websites, E-mail briefings, and your tubes are especially endemic tools. Parliamentary institutional public engagement also built citizen took, politics which may facilitate public involvement.

5. Challenges and Best Practices in Implementing Institutional Frameworks for Public Engagement

Increasing pressure to engage is being placed on political institutions globally and motivations for engagement range from public trust to better policy outcomes. Solutions to tackle the issues presented in order to have durable and effective development of public engagement should in theory be based on solid grounds but in practice they need to respond quickly to immediate needs. This overview discusses the parliamentary practice of institutional public engagement.

Parliaments adopt institutional frameworks for public engagement to guide their activities in interacting with the public in ways that are more planned, strategic, and can involve more resources. Different institutional frameworks will produce different outcomes and potentially have different side-effects. The implementation of these a priori institutional frameworks brings both challenges and best practice in a more context-sensitive assessment, such as awareness of resources, positive external conditions or risks to actors involved can considerably improve their impact despite sometimes weak design crafting.

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Part II: Mechanisms and Methods of Participation

Chapter 4

Traditional Forms of Participation

1. Introduction

When participation is discussed in contemporary politics it is usually in connection with ‘new’ or ‘innovative’ forms: deliberative processes set up to deal with controversies and trade offs (Marres & Lezaun, 2011), mechanisms of co opting public norms with planning tools. However, in addition to these novel forms, ‘old’ forms of participation not only are still effective (McQuarrie, 2013), but were and still are integral features of political systems and society life. Participation, in its different forms, is embedded in the social and political structure of societies and it is constitutive of specific forms of civic engagement and of ‘democracy’ itself. Participation can limit membership of a public and therefore set the conditions of the inclusion of conflict, it can filter information between publics and decision makers, it can shape the principles and norms of decision processes. Participation is less an activity and more a network of power relations that works through material devices inserted in specific sets of norms. Policy, processes, institutions and technologies deemed to democratize public life have to deny or challenge this social political inerti, one that corresponds to the ontological status of participation.

The objective of this article is to provide a materialist grounded genealogy of traditional participatory devices. It will discuss some examples in both their historical use and current re-appropriations and adaptations, the Reticulum – the board used in the Venice Republic for communication between public and political factions of the Serenissima; the Chambre – the archaic and contiguous space for encamped armies and the installation used in Rome in 2012. These examples are significant collections of participation objects and devices, because they do not ask or provoke any action per se – they were developed to be worked upon – but because they define sets of relations, norms and standards that determine public insertion and action. After these discussions some thoughts are offered concerning their neglected or unrecognizable potential for contemporary contentious politics.

2. Historical Overview

Ancient Period

The study of citizenship and forms of civic participation has a longstanding tradition. Nevertheless, some particular patterns often escape this type of scrutiny. Scholarly work referring to participation usually covers a wide array of practices, although unnamed, as developed in different societies across time. Such a broad outlook is essential as it provides the context for understanding how formal participation emerges, changes, or recedes depending on societal mores, laws, or the overall evolution of society. This article delves into participatory practices that are not proper to voting, although they somewhat intermingle with it. The examination here attempts to make sense of the inherently broad and complex field, fostering further thorough research. Three main features are focused on: a panorama is provided of the most distinctive—and virtually exclusive—typologies of participation in specific portions of, or historical episodes within, the main eras, societies, or sectors of those societies; participation is reflected upon through the lens of some relevant general conceptions that apply to the representation of different types of forms of conduct; in conclusion, some possible implications are delineated for further research or reflection on the creation of a structured sociology of traditionally unnamed participation.

After some initial scholarly ostracism in the early nineties, even in the light of attempts at outlining a socio-political perspective entirely focused on ancient Greece, the study of various facets of citizenship or, more in general terms, of concepts and practices related to collective identity and membership, has become increasingly popular. Often roved along in the wake of such side branches as rhetoric, theatre, or representational practices, some attempts at depicting the varied scenarios of popular, mostly informal or oral, participation are very few. Actually, this kind of in-depth research had never really gathered much momentum even in the wake of what has rightly been labelled a modern civic engagement era, when minoresses in schools generating a better acquainted public had started to pave the way for a more articulated social outlook. Analogous broad-spectrum attempts at charting what often just stood for the many possible ways, forms, or means of vocally signing one's presence in a heterogeneous crowd at one of the countless political, legal, theatrical, or religious meetings ancient cities brimmed with, have always faced a huge task. Unidentified mass activities are, by their very nature, difficult to capture, describe, interpret, or record for historians. Like some sort of Copernican discovery in historical and social interpretation, the Foucaldian notion that public conduct very much depends on, reflects, and informs the shaping of public spheres and reflexive perceptions of subjected groups, has somewhat altered the focus. Mediated through

various channels, such as kin, knew, or learned networks, practices, taboos, or discourses, such conduct starts to reflect and enforce more or less explicit social norms that, over time, enable the creation of relatively stable topoi, scripts, or identities. At the same time, societal, political, or social shifts also generate the creation or adjustment of a huge variety of themata regarding otherness, authority, or sanctity, devised for different purposes, sectors, or intended audiences, such as revealing, disguising, counterfeiting, exalting, or stigmatizing certain social or natural phenomena. Thus, as a whole, these discursive or non-discursive outputs model a given culture or a segment thereof; at the same time, they shape, partly reflect, or decode habits, perceptions, or attitudes (Taylor-Smith & F. Smith, 2019).

2.1. Ancient Forms of Participation

Democracy is a vehicle for the participation of citizens in governance that rests on the principle of political equality, and allows for active political participation by the people themselves. However, democracy in practice on a large scale involves considerable representation (Mehta, 2016); representatives are elected by the citizens in any meaningful sense it is they that govern. Direct democracy in world history has been mostly confined to nuances of assemblies, that is, to small city-states. Nevertheless, representational democratic systems can be more or less democratic, depending on the particularities of the systems. This section contends that the more democratic the constitutional arrangements and democratic the governmental practices the more politically reactive will be the citizens, and tries to indicate the form this reaction is likely to take.

Public discourse was the distinguishing mechanism for civic engagement in classical Rome and Greece. The collective self-governance of citizens necessitated a shared understanding of the community's good, and public discourse was the foundation for creating and maintaining this shared understanding. It centered on the discussion of political matters. Each democracy developed its own institutional settings for public discourse. In Greece, it was the agora and the eklesia. In Rome, there were the comitia and later the Senate, in which the speech of individuals was so central. Some form of public discourse was thus vital in a large democracy. Observing public rules was one of the civic duties in these societies. As a corollary, the citizens who wished to enforce obedience to these rules had to keep themselves informed of them. In Rome and Greece, there was a well-developed system of political offices (the magistratus in Rome and the archai in Greece). Furthermore, in both political philosophers and political thinkers pioneered a rich tradition of understanding of the nature and role of engagement in the polity. Therefore, civic life demanded a wide range of skills, some of which could be the

subject of formal education. Public discourse mechanisms were incorporated into the very fabric of the democratic governments of Rome and Greece: through direct voting and through the assembly itself political decisions were formed.

De Tocqueville provides numerous insights into the participatory culture of early America. One of his central observations is the inter-relatedness of democratic governance with involvement by ordinary citizens. The administration of local justice, according to de Tocqueville, was in the hands of popular jurisdiction. Elected officials administered roads and bridges with the active engagement of citizens. Local administrations organized education and poor relief with the councils of citizens, thereby fostering social stability. The division of the townships in America lent itself to the creation of many institutions that provided formal mechanisms for popular participation in political decision-making. Another component of the cultural practices around political engagement in the early U.S. were the myriad supper associations and clubs. These developed a "host of functions-from seductions of the palate, entertainments, and an increase in interpersonal awareness, to almost any sort of political persuasions." By creating common interests, political clubs helped forge a democratic culture. Central to the idea that all of these cultural practices helped nurture the burgeoning political identity of Americans was the principle that they fostered a more sustained commitment to political matters and empathy with other members of the community. Because of their unsurpassed efficacy in binding together a variegated society, civic associations help nurture and inculcate the new democratic man toward political action. In short, these associations fostered a participatory ethos alongside engendering a meaningful capacity for involvement in the polity by means of an "explicit process of identification with a civic organization." Any reflection on participatory culture and civic engagement in America must therefore necessarily begin in de Tocqueville's oft-cited Democracy in America.

2.2. Medieval Forms of Participation

The existence of numerous varieties of participatory and representative democracy has often stirred controversy concerning the most suitable and authentic form of democracy (Nyqvist et al., 2023). A rarely questioned premise of this debate is that these varied forms of democratic practice require prioritizing historical forms of participation. The presumption underlying this emphasis on historical forms of participation is often vague or not argued. This text suggests that an in-depth analysis of prevailing forms of participation is necessary. Moreover, this procedure is crucial in order to re-evaluate publicly accepted conceptualizations, unveil contemporary debates on democracy, and discern relevant public policies. Thus, rather than a straightforward historical mapping of

prevailing forms of participation, medieval as well as traditional or present forms of participation are explored in terms of the development they underwent. It is mainly the internal development of the segmentary structure that is focused on. It is suggested that different historical contexts lead to a different embedding of segmentary logic. More developed segmentary logic, exerting a stronger influence on state institutions, initially induces a corresponding development of participation. Yet, as this process unfolds, it ultimately results in the display of a segmented polity.

Medieval participation has become a stronghold of revisionist history, questioning both the widely held assumption of the 'democratic deficit' and the linear evolutionism as modeled by the socio-economic approach (Cesaretti et al., 2016). This literature shows how changes in the political and social landscape also induced a change in the modalities of citizen participation. Since the end of the Roman Empire, a two-tiered administrative system had been established in European territories, orientated to secure tax collection, and comprised local officials cooperating with central governatorial representatives. Similarly, a two-tiered landlord-stewardship hierarchy had been established in England, wherein local ealdormen and reeves, functioning simultaneously as police officers, judicial authorities, and tax collectors, served as a link between direct royal control and sub-vassals. Medieval central justice and public order enforcement depended mostly on local governance, comprising both landlords and agents belonging to the same communities. The scenario of citizen participation in Middle Age was primarily conditioned by these structures, allowing a mainly local accountability of the agents in charge of enforcing royal or ducal rights. Medieval provisions were thus not only appropriate to check the respect of temporal demands from the central authority, but also to tightly control their administration. The increase in serfdom, requiring further coordination between political and social control, boosted the establishment of public assemblies, regulating the minimum territorial extension inhabited by its attendees. In a different manner, the disintegration of the Carolingian Empire fostered a sort of 'municipal revolution' in favor of the self-government of the towns. Although decisions were initially taken after the agreement of all residents, the growing size and inequality among the inhabitants led to the rise of representative institutions. Conversely, Luccas and Funchal relied for almost seven centuries on the private governance of Consulates, consisting in elected guild masters. Since the Early Middle Age, widows were progressively excluded from the government, eventually confining to the heritage the power of endorsement. House ownership was also a required condition. Although an annual donation was made to charity, public goods' supply differed among craft guilds. Several guilds had thereby built chapels and oratories adjacent to the workshops. Furthermore, scriptorial tendencies forced County and Duchy to intermediate in case of legal documents or large donations. Revenue from duty and a flourishing slave trade

further enriched such institutions, enabling foreign policy. The Consulates continuously promoted the celebration of the patron saint, organizing adjudication ceremonies and public provisions. The relationship between Consulate and Church has then always been a focus for issues of public interest. After the discovery of northern sea routes, the Republic of Luccas gradually fell under the influence of the neighboring Medici State, eventually dismantling its guild-bonded political power.

2.3. Early Modern Forms of Participation

Participatory ideas began to spread in an emerging global world, linking self-identity and membership to civic duty and rights. Early modern participatory forms wielded a transformative power in the world of political thought and settlement. With the print media became one of the great influences, the debates turned to more contemporary issues, such as freedom of the press, right to information, liberty of speech, and access to justice. In return, the print culture popularised democracy as an ideal form of government and civic participation as a moral duty. On the other hand, representation and inclusiveness remained the critical challenges while the search for an equitable mechanism of participation went on worldwide (R. Farina et al., 2013). Social contract, sovereignty, individual rights, political institution, representation, morality, equality, charity, federalism, free trade, commonwealth, republic, civility, luxury, opposition, tyranny, protest, tolerance, violence, conscientious objection, etc...are terms that formed in the early modern period. They have been the leading concepts and issues that moved the British Civil War, the American and French Revolutions, or the unification of Germany and Italy. This was the era of Reformation, Counter-Reformation, Enlightenment, and French Revolution, the time when alliances of city states, kingdoms, or empires collapsed to give rise to the nation-states (Nyqvist et al., 2023). It was a time of new markets, merchants, and manufacture, a time of independence and commercial economy. Likewise, England and the Netherlands experienced the most fundamental shift from a federated monarchy of a nobility to the system of constitutional governance. This was also the time when participation was regarded as a negotiated settlement in a relationship with the British state, citizenship became a set of rights and duties with entitlement to welfare provisions or to challenge decision-making, and national identity was portrayed as homogenous by the print media.

3. Political Participation in the 20th Century

Political participation has demonstrated a plethora of forms, trends, and transformations over the course of the 20th century, expressing itself in various phenomena. During this

time span, experiential light was shed on historical events, epochal changes, and significant developments that gave an account of the preparation, occurrence, course, and conclusion of specific processes. This offered insight into the powerful global socio-political and anthropological strategies that have tampered with public will, society-strategy, and subjective personal beliefs, with reforming, or equating and resisting power, regulations, authority, and norm. Significant changes in forms and trends in the sphere of activity may consequently lead to substantial transformations, but also raise critical questions, or foster concerns. So the amplification of protests, demonstrations, strikes, riots, revolts, violence, disobedience/massive activism, as well as the broadening of the generation gap and polarization of attitudes, may testify to preconditions of social, cross-group, or political conflicts, but also, in a functional standpoint, to the demand for justice, democracy, autonomy, solidarity, subjectivity, civil rights, and political freedom. With very few exceptions, this sphere of activity has always been endangered, caged, or curbed by rulers and the state. Because spaces and means of public communication, expression, mobilization, organization, and assembly, as well as social communication, collaboration, or interaction, can be regulated, controlled, or fought with repression, punishment, brainwash, bribery, or manipulation. Thereby people, or groups, co-expressing grievance, complaint, resistance, or contradiction, may be marginalized, stigmatized, banished, or criminalized – even in a punitive, or lethal, fashion. But the subterranean, deceitful, privatized, fragmented, or consumer-like manifestation of critique, protest, controversy, or challenge, may eventually represent pyrrhic protest movements, or ephemeral and fruitless uprisings, illuminating the miscomprehension, inefficacy, inconsequences, or threats emanating from controversial, illegal, or unconventional forms of acting, deliberating, or thinking. Throughout the 20th century this sphere of activity has evolved and modified, absorbing the influence of various movements, events, and changes, as well as beginning to take on new characteristics, forms and functions. Reporting results may constitute, or promote, schematization, simplification, misunderstanding, or truncation, so the following presentation covers extensive points, reasoning, documentations, thus contributing to the deepening, or renewal, of comprehension, reflection, awareness, or speculation.

3.1. Voting

In the second half of the 20th century, as a number of democracies expanded the franchise to the adult population, voting was, more than ever, enshrined as a fundamental form of political participation. The struggle for voting rights was often a fight to eliminate raced, gendered, and class-bounded exclusion, whilst the administration of the vote became concerned with broadening and enhancing empirical channels of citizen influence. In the most basic terms, this was concerned with expanding the aggregate number of votes cast

(the franchise), as well as with maximizing and equalizing the potential political influence of each vote cast (electoral design).

In a historical perspective, the mechanisms of electoral systems underwent a significant transformation, implying empowerment movements to demand its inclusion and expert designs of voting practices and technologies. Whereas enfranchisement and suffrage struggles had taken place in reform conditions where voting was a marked exception to the norm, debates over the design of electoral systems grounded policy in a realm where voting was, above all, habitual and latent. A vast array of cultural, political, and legal practices sought to routinize the act of voting, enabling a once incongruous conjunction of ordered forms of temporality dictating how people should and would choose in secrecy and silence. The history of voting in the 20th century is consequently a complex narrative that simultaneously celebrates its pinnacles of broad universalism, whilst critiquing its mediated, mechanical, and forensic character ((Sainati Rangel, 2017)).

3.2. Political Parties

This subsection proposes a point of view of political participation involving the critically important role played by political parties. Parties are likely to be the premier organizations educated and organized for the use of citizens who are also party members. This defense is informed by democratization experiences in Eastern Europe, comparisons of parties in the postcommunist East and Western Europe, and the voluminous insights by students of parties in the consolidated democracies of Western Europe and North America. Citizens make use of these organizations by demanding party platforms, participation in party organizations, and membership on party lists for candidate nominations. The discussion recommends the need to dispel the "panacea thesis" often without empirical support – that civil society is the answer or even the superior answer to the numbers of longtime practical difficulties with political participation.

Commentators are just beginning to challenge the panacea thesis in the context of Eastern Europe's and the former Soviet Union's democratization. Political scholars of Western democracies have already challenged it, mostly on normative or theoretical grounds. Empirical scholarship illustrates the systematic, and perhaps inevitable, limitations of civil society as a panacea for questionable democracy. This is not to say that civil society supportive of liberal democracy lacks value, but suggests that much of the recent debate on democracy-building may be misplaced. Given the crucial role political parties play in fostering political participation, with democratization all the sure tomorrow all parties need to be built. DataExchange with party-based participation has focused on party membership systems in terms of individual and social structural benefits. The costs of party membership are also significant, particularly for the weaker offensive state-socialist

parties, and there is a need to appreciate more fully the trade-offs that are likely to be pursued or must be confronted with in building party links to participation.

3.3. Protest Movements

The latter part of the 20th century witnessed a significant rise of protest movements, both in the United States and beyond, as a powerful form of political participation for many citizens. As social movements emerged to help the disenfranchised gain political access and resources to have their grievances addressed in the 20th century, an increasing number of people took part in protest activities. Often coordinated around a network of organizations with like-minded individuals, social movements draw attention to social injustices and governmental oppression, often targeting public officials. When attempting to influence a target, social movements often engage in a variety of technologies such as boycotts, demonstrations, hunger strikes, and picketing, collectively called contentious politics. In order for a movement to be successful in terms of acquiring its goals, it must gather enough support to exist and generate demands that can alter both private and/or public political decisions. This support is often dependent on the collective, organized, and sustained mobilization of like-minded individuals and a supportive public. An event or events can provide a catalyst to raise awareness of an already existing issue, uniting a diverse group of people who perceive something as unjust, and result in the disruptive mobilization of citizens. Protest, in these ways, is most closely tied to efforts to influence, alter, or change policy. In essence, protesting both speaks to those in power and supports those who do. But the relationship between protest and politics is more complex. The 1960s witnessed a flurry of civil rights movements and anti-war demonstrations. Subsequent generations hosted a myriad of conservatory backlashes and niche movements. Yet, while the role of protests in American government and politics is vast, so too are its implications for public opinion, policy, and the law. The implications of protest are not solely relegated to conventional means of law and policymaking. Draft legislation and rulemaking can be stalled and amended via the pressure politicians face in the streets. Emergencies can be extended or retracted in situations not filled by use of a social movement with mere threats of protest. Governmental actors can also respond, not to the concerns demonstrators raise, but to the presence of protests themselves. The group-specific consequences of that response can themselves have far-reaching effects, thwarting everything from a precise movement to a global ecological perspective.

4. Challenges and Critiques of Traditional Forms of Participation

Democracy depends on the equal participation of informed citizens to be legitimate. Political theorists resort to traditional arguments to maintain the acceptance of political decisions: those who participate have the opportunity to have an impact on the decisions made and therefore are more likely to accept them even if they do not agree. Inequalities in public participation are currently of concern because they can perpetuate or deepen structural inequalities in policy representation and even exacerbate public service provisions for already marginalized groups. Inequalities in political participation are due to the fact that the distribution of citizens' resources and characteristics necessary to provide political information is unfair or biased. In New Labour's attempt to expand public participation in various policy sectors, imposition of participation regulations has exposed differential patterns of participation, making some groups more powerful than others (P. Martin, 2009). Existing statistics suggest that public and user participatory practices largely start from already uneven situated actors. Furthermore, several forms of inequality in public and user participation have been identified, due to which: 1. the link between Britain's New Labour government and user involvement in public services is observed; 2. the 'opportunity structure' made available to actors on both sides of the political system; and 3. empirical results are drawn on the distribution of power across the public/user influencing interface.

In addition, there is skepticism in certain sectors about the efficacy and the actual impact of the policy of involving the public in decision-making. Debate on the democratic efficiency of participatory processes or its impact on policy has been lively. The democratic nature of public or user involvement has been questioned by their effectiveness and impact on political power. This issue receives academic attention similarly to the impact of the public on policy and the process of public participation in urban development decisions. Nevertheless, public and user participation remains a policy priority and has been the focus of extensive research and evaluation in several policy sectors in which user involvement became mandatory or voluntarily. Beside these such 'deliberative forms' of early public participation, demands for its improved techniques continued to emerge with the expansion of the European Union (EU) and its commitment to sustainable development which directed EU-funded research to explicitly advocate and advance new methods of involving the public in debates. In response to the scholarly critique that the public will not be involved in a "true deliberation" and will not have the ambitions to expose themselves to "objective" information, much effort has been made to develop new generation participatory tools and know-how. It seems that the forms of public involvement are seen both as a "method" for better (pre-)decision-making and as a mechanism for fostering broader political participation and re-legitimation.

4.1. Exclusivity and Inequality

Traditional forms of participation have a long history and prominent examples include voting, political party membership and activism, public discussions in various forms, and contacting political representatives. These forms have in common that there tends to be a systematic exclusion of marginalized groups, such as people who are of non-Western background, and/or have lower incomes, or are less educated. Various groups of citizens have not been seen as full citizens in the eyes of the majority, but instead have been systematically excluded from political influence. This systematic exclusion includes the right to vote, but has also manifested in other ways in various historical contexts. When marginalized groups have gained increased political influence, this has often resulted in a backlash reaction. This has in turn contributed to pushing these groups to the political margins. In settings where certain groups are almost entirely absent from political influence, this preference becomes reinforced and actually functions as a further exclusion. The problems of representativeness not only relate to the share of different groups among the participants, but also carry more profound problems when the agendas and activities of the participants begin to diverge from the preferences of the broader public. It has been concluded that mainstream politics can rarely facilitate the preferences of the lower classes, particularly when these differ from those of the upper classes. Thus, unequal access to political participation may carry severe legitimacy problems for the political system and be harmful to social stability. Despite attempts to revivify political participation, these are not bound to facilitate societal inclusion of marginalized groups, unless radical steps are taken to better ensure the inclusivity of such efforts. Efforts to increase medical participation are unlikely to result in a strong form of participatory democracy, which would involve more than voting every fourth year, but would mean a fundamental overhaul of the existing political system.

4.2. Efficacy and Impact

Participation is often seen as a democratic panacea, providing avenues for citizens to influence the political decisions that affect them. While normative accounts of the good society posit that everyone should have the opportunity to participate and be heard in decisions that affect them, a rollback from the lofty ideals reveals participation to be a more complex and contested terrain. Far from being an equalising force that gives everyone a voice and equal chance to influence politics, critics argue that participation is more often used as a mechanism by government to legitimise pre-determined outcomes, or as an empty gesture that allows frustrated citizens to let off steam and vent their anger. Indeed, for many governments, participation has become an end in itself, a check box that merely allows the formality of ticking, rather than a meaningful exercise in involving a

voice from the grassroots upwards (Jane Waterhouse, 2015). A plethora of participation exercises contribute to participation fatigue among disillusioned citizens, unwilling to engage in a process they see as either ineffectual or insincere. Unquestionably, there have been a number of shining examples of successful and meaningful participatory processes that have been transformative and empowering for the citizens that have engaged with them. However, these are often overshadowed by countless stories of how participation has been downgraded, diluted, and abused. To truly transform participation into a mechanism for meaningful political change and citizen empowerment will require a reconsideration of how it is designed, implemented, and, crucially, how it is assessed.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the preceding essay serves as a critical engagement with (McQuarrie, 2013)'s evaluation of traditional forms of participation as they continue to manifest today. Understanding these participatory practices in their historical contexts is an essential starting point when considering current participatory cities and new participatory methods. This has implications for the dialogue about both the inclusivity and efficacy of civic engagement methods, which is a dialogue that needs to continue in order to ensure it is not only the usual suspects participating or the ones who are already the loudest voices. In analyzing the traditional forms of participation in neighborhood councils, the complexity of this will be noted. It is tied to critiques of these practices as they are delivered through neighborhood councils more than boycotts, the complete lack of those forms of participation, but also reflects on critiques of those boycotts as they are increasingly censorious and attacking the participants over the council process and completely delegitimizing those forms of participation. Coming to terms with this complexity is part of addressing the ongoing barriers to more widespread participation. It is not just the idea that others might not share an urbanist perspective (but then what to make of those who do?)—although that's a big obstacle—it's grappling with how necessarily involve more external agencies, and the bureaucratic process required for so many of these participations structurally prohibit such participations. A key take away from: participation was always a staged affair, as a management technique, and in particularly the American context as something to preempt people power movements (that the council's themselves are the second best thing to people power mechanisms like radical unions lead to a extremely perverse nature of these "civic" institutions, that fall right in the obvious critiques of radical democratic participation). This would make them an inherently dangerous affair for any democrat to get involved in, considering that democratic movements are on the "what chance do we have to change the system" route

to begin with. But then, of course, the insinuation that the response to this institutional politics of participation should be more participation is inherently weak, considering those who are the most excluded from participation are the very reason such exclusion is enforced. The resounding takeaway from all this would seem to be how necessary it is to find new forms of participation to involve the community that address these criticisms and is seen as a sincere move towards creating that spirit of collaboration and participation, rather than the cynical tick-boxing exercise it is. Of course, this is all played out against the idea that these measures are fundamentally about as well as sustaining democracy, creating a community of active citizens who are always politically engaged at all levels of government. This is the appeal to the republican ideal of political membership; as well as fostering a culture that discourages a reliance on representatives, thus combating a reliance on demagogues. By becoming more involved and better informed about politics at a local level, it is hoped that will naturally transfer to a greater civic engagement in the future, and at other scales of government. That understanding traditional forms of participation is essential to foster a radical participatory culture situated in an innovative striking of older forms to meet these newer challenges ((Misra, 2018)). In light of these concerns, to make a collective commitment to foster such participatory cultural developments, and to open a dialogue on how these older practices might be adapted as such.

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Chapter 5

Innovative Approaches to Public Engagement

1. Introduction to Public Engagement

The term public engagement encapsulates a range of activities. These can span traditional mechanisms such as public meetings and town hall engagements, to more recent fora involving the vast network of individuals engaged in social media. Consultations distinguish public engagement in that they involve two way discussions. Yet the term engagement also stretches to the other end of the continuum identifying an obligation to contribute to decision making through public participation or sought to include the wide public in the process of research design. Thus whilst broadly accepted in society the statement hides a plurality of understandings and practice which points to the complexity and profundity of this concept and its closely allied cousin 'participation' (Leston-Bandeira & T. Siefken, 2023). Undoubtedly however, in an age of social network platforms and 24 hour news the significance of public engagement within governmental, public, private or academic institutions is a focal point. Whether pursuing trust as some argue, or involvement, or for the promotion of deliberative practices or merely as an indicant of enhancing the public conversation, public engagement is seen as a vehicle for a complex relationship developing legitimacy, transparency and accountability between state society and the wider populace. Hence, theories about engagement have become an established sub-field often for a political contingent debating the nuances and trade-offs for expanding and deepening the public conversation. Parliament too shares an evolving public engagement landscape. Potentially identifiable through cycles and stages, this landscape presents itself through an observed satisfaction of the public institutions interaction with the space occupied by it. Broad in interpretation, research on public institutions too is diverse, ranging from understanding MP behavior, to data analysis and measurements of public value. But also communication tactics, multiple audiences, as well as the attempts at establishing narratives and positioning within perceived public space, so as to further the contested broader discourse or to achieve a certain polity. Parallels here exist with the public engagement evolution observed within governments, city hall, local authorities, the arts, or the sciences. In making these connections, an

interdisciplinary understanding of public engagement as a field emerges, which in turn refines focuses and invites new questions and methods about how to best interact and measure public presence. This theme will be further reflected upon throughout the essay.

1.1. Defining Public Engagement

Public engagement is an increasingly popular concept within the lexicons of politics, governance and policy studies. Whilst there is a line of thought that suggests that the dominant forms of public engagement are neo-liberal in their orientation and intention, it is also a concept that is used very widely within this field to describe the myriad and diverse ways in which individuals, communities and organizations relate to one another in the course of preparing, and responding to, policy and planning. It can be helpful to distinguish here between different dimensions of public engagement that may have quite specific or localized meanings, but which are often conflated in policy and planning discourse, policy discourse can be about participation, but also dialogue, about validated science, but also legitimate process, about responses from existing welfare provisions and commitments, but also about benefits and infrastructural development. Public engagement, however, cannot be confined to the political domains, as it occurs in many parts of social and cultural life. Throughout the text, public engagement is defined as the distinct and purposeful ways in which research institutions, in this particular case those that are engaged with conservation science or policy, relate to, and create exchanges with, communities of locality or interest, around research and innovation processes. Understandings of public engagement are naturally shaped by the particular array of interests and actors within and also in relation to the research areas under scrutiny, conservation, science and policy. Public engagement is not a neutral or objective observing position, but is partial, and geographically, and historically contingent. Public engagement can also be either agentic, in the sense of being planned and progressed, or perhaps primarily reflexive and evaluative, or 'meta' in character. Far more limited work has sought to explore the normativity of public engagement in such a reflective way, nevertheless, better understanding of the normative thinking surrounding public engagement could tackle some of the more reductive or instrumental manifestations of public engagement, as have been identified within the literature on this. It's noted, finally, that the distinctions made here between types, rationales, normativities, and geographies of public engagement are made deliberately for analysis and demonstration and are also used, in a particular context, but are not anticipated to have universal application or relevance. The variety of understandings of public engagement that occur in practice will always be contingent.

2. Traditional Approaches and Limitations

In the United States' system of governance, active public engagement is vital to the continued functioning of a just and equitable democratic society. Historically public engagement in the United States can be seen through localized processes stemming from direct democracy in the form of town meetings. Participation in town meetings allowed for debates over policy and community projects, an element suggesting a level of public engagement grounded on the basis of community discourse. Today, the precedent for public engagement is instead one of a more professionalized and formalized approach, slated for local and state government officials to partake in "making decisions affecting local government services and facilities" through consultation with representative groups (Jasim et al., 2020). Town Hall meetings are the primary means by which public input in the United States is gathered by government officials responsible for local governance due to the ability for community members to voice their opinions directly to politicians or appointed officials.

Traditional community consultation practices have been among government officials and appointed consultants, with community representatives attending the meetings and later relaying policy and project proposals and input to the community at large. In the past decade, localization of public engagement processes through regulation and executive orders has left many communities underrepresented and under-informed of projects and policies affecting the community around them. Despite guidelines and mandates, the adoption and realization of public engagement mechanisms in the United States remain a top-down process rather than collaborative one. Platforms and tools that do exist in a community-oriented context often only serve a narrow window of publics, leaving minority or underrepresented groups without access to basic information or a chance to air grievance or support. Accepting that the United States town halls model is lopsided and non-representative, it is equitable then to consider how to best remedy what is overall an inequality in the current dialogue between community members and those appointed to represent and govern.

2.1. Town Hall Meetings

Town Hall meetings are a traditional method of public engagement in community settings. Elected officials and local government representatives convene these meetings to engage in a dialogue with members of the public. A Town Hall provides a forum for constituents to air their grievances, voice preferences, and receive resolutions on civic issues. It stands as the embodiment of civic democracy put on stage. It facilitates free-flowing discussions which let candid questions be met with honest answers. They were once the best type of performance art: they created democracy in action, right there where the public could see

it (Jasim et al., 2020). Historically, they had been taking place in the Market Square in the center of the village or holding forth in a dicastery and he relied on voices alone to let the words of the discussion move the argument and distract attention away from himself. And he didn't depend upon pitch, tone or projection. Nowadays, these meetings tend to reside in a Legion hall, with the lights turned down, gripping the microphone as he paced around the floor, using gestures and facial expressions to emphasize a point. The point being that a monologue has, somewhere along the line, become a dialogue. In some instances, it has even ceased to be that. At best, it seems to be a platform for questions (and hopefully clear, concise characteristics are inherent in those questions) rather than answers. At worst, it has degenerated into a shouting match or a circus, or a more rigidly formal and incantatory procedure. These are the disputes, the limits, and the paradoxes that touch upon the actual effectiveness of the Town Hall meeting.

3. Technological Innovations in Public Engagement

The turn of the 21st century has seen rapid technological change and innovation. These changes have influenced all aspects of society and life, including how collective arrangements are made for citizens to engage. Nowadays, citizens can interact with government and similarly organized bodies via digital tools from online platforms to mobile applications. The way citizens engage with an institution has shifted and broadened. Although at the early stages, only certain demographic groups were able to interact, the innovations in technology have opened up accessibility to everybody and have increased the convenience of public engagement (Fechner & Kray, 2014). This has particularly helped underrepresented communities. Moreover, innovative technologies have also presented a platform for institutions to reach out—such as geolocative SMS. Other examples of innovations discussed include the rise of interactive websites and webinars. Not only are these technologies facilitating the engagement of interest amongst the public, but also they are extending the depth of the discussions and efficacy of the responses produced. Thereby, such technologies better link public will to solutions and as a result it is more likely that the latter will be followed through. Institutions have been very responsive to technological advancements toward the public engagement in particular issues shaping strategies with those digital innovations. However, these moves raise some questions. It is argued that practitioners must be careful to ensure that the design of digital tools is user-friendly and also that they must coordinate well with more traditional public engagement methods, in order to ensure that the technologically illiterate are not excluded. But more importantly, we must consider whether participation technologies are counter-productive. Whereas previously a number of issues could be

crowd-solved by a small number of contributors, this may now not be the case. As technology continues to evolve, it is crucial to continue and observe the impacts and responses. Then, more informed decisions can be made about use and design. The impact of such decisions on public engagement—itself a rapidly changing field—can then become increasingly profound. This will be the main focus of the analysis of the first tool—FixMyStreet. Subsequently, the role and user experience of the other three tools, Erklärvideos, World Café, and citizen panels will be critically assessed.

3.1. Social Media Platforms

One of the most pivotal innovations in public engagement strategies is the utilization of social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. The primary utility of these platforms can be seen in their ability to facilitate communication on a large scale. With a single tweet or post, public entities can reach their audiences or broader communities of interest nearly instantaneously, and build community through interactive functions like comments on a Facebook status (A Ayankoya, 2013). This means questions, opinions, and messages can reach community members far faster and more easily as compared to pre-digital eras. Additionally, these platforms can bring individuals together from diverse locations, demographics, or interests, building a community at a larger scale than was previously possible. This is considerably beneficial for government to create a more informed and engaged public. For all the plusses, there are some drawbacks. Perhaps the largest among them is the difficulty presented in distinguishing truth from misinformation. Social media accounts with large followings can validate misinformation, leading to a sense of credibility which, in turn, validates other false information. This mass spread of misinformation is compounded by the means through which these platforms operate, creating a perfect storm of misinformation, echo chambers, and polarization (Gatewood et al., 2019). Mitigation of these challenges come through strategic messaging, enlightened digital literacy practices, and proactive community management. Overall, social media provides immediate feedback and dialogue between community and government and facilitates public discourse in aspects that would not be possible in an offline setting. Case studies are provided to illustrate two local campaigns using social media to engage the public. It is not intended to say that exceptional examples of success are universally repeatable, however, perhaps in examining these case studies one may see a way to navigate some of the challenges that social media engagement presents, and thereby lend a degree of expectation towards what use of social media in public engagement might look like moving forward.

4. Case Studies of Successful Innovative Approaches

Innovative Forms of Citizen Participation at the Fringe of the Formal Planning System have emerged as a new practice at the fringe of the formal planning system. The proliferation of these participatory initiatives might impact the way urban planning is conducted, making it more experimental and adaptive or, conversely, dominated by powerful, resource-consuming actors with the potential to crowd out other voices (Nyseth et al., 2019). Democratic innovations and social innovation have spurred the development of new venues for citizen participation outside of the formal planning system. This citizen planning is centered on experiments that explore innovative forms of citizen participation to observe its impact on social innovation and on the formal planning system more directly. This is the prologue to an expedition into three cases of preparing and carrying out a so-called final cleaning room. From interviews with organizers and participants, as well as written materials and observations of the event, it is possible to discuss the arrangements made to recruit participants and design of the event. A public meeting with civil defense during the Detailed Planning work process projects are used as reference. The meeting worked to formulate, forth and discuss a set of essential principles that serve the preparation of this event and three others to run as experiments in events on Technological Soil Remediation-area regulation over the next 12 months.

4.1. Crowdsourcing Initiatives

Innovative new methods of public engagement are continuously being explored to complement the more traditional methods of community and stakeholder consultation. Crowdsourcing is an innovative approach that can harness the collective intelligence of the general community and bring together a diverse range of ideas, solutions and resources to a common issue. Crowdsourcing invites the community to respond to open calls for information, ideas, or required resources through the use of public social media or an online platform. Those participating will either uncover new ideas, ideas with greater depth, or a critical examination or analysis of the issue that would not have been achieved through more traditional methods. In a recent example from the health industry regarding the design of a PSA campaign, advertising students were creatively exhausted once informed of the pressures the organization faced. However, a crowdsourcing online platform allowed the advertising company to hear from a more diverse range of 800+ responses. Responses ranged from phone applications to engaging experiences, presenting the organization with a fresh array of possible solutions (D. Tucker et al., 2019). Another more complex issue was around manufacturing a warehouse staircase. Fortunately, a factory employee was able to come up with a simple, yet effective, solution

to instantly resolve the urgent concern, indicating that good ideas can come from anywhere (L. Smith et al., 2015).

A crowdsourcing platform allows multiple stakeholders to access the same information and is an effective way to develop an engagement strategy to address both social and economic aspects of a community plan. The platform is implemented by local government and allows people to move beyond idea generation to discussions and actual delivery of potential solutions. Participation can be kept anonymous, offering an opportunity for the views of the broader public to be represented where an individual may not be able to do so. Given crowdsourcing can generate significant public interest, legitimacy, trust, and ownership in a local decision-making process can also be built. An example is the promotion of a diverse media campaign to engage and encourage public contribution to a public interest issue. Ads would promote one sentence or bullet-point actionable input to a particular strategic purpose via an online platform. The media could push responses, offering a diversity of perspective indicative of activating strategies to build trust and engage with intent, reflective of the change desired. An advantage in the media industry is the rapid engagement of the broader public, unsurprisingly making it the top means to gather insights and also increase the number of unique users. Given the natural lack of trust in governmental bodies, a media campaign could be undertaken to decline further anticipation and thought from proactive engagement to establish trust, rather than following a disappointing experience historically, i.e. major public transport infrastructures.

5. Ethical Considerations and Challenges

In the creation and delivery of initiatives designed to engage members of the public in conversations about social and technological change, there are a number of ethical issues that are not self-evidently resolved and which can make the ethics of public engagement quite complex. In the interests of equity, transparency, and inclusivity, institutions have a responsibility to ensure that everyone with an interest has a means of sharing their opinions. Yet the framing of consultations can produce exclusions, inadvertently or deliberately. Through a broadly-drawn question, for example, the concerns of affected parties and groups may be overlooked , whilst by asking too many detailed questions, respondents with lower formal education may feel disenfranchised. Access to and dissemination of relevant literature may also be unevenly distributed, as can the cost of participation, whether in terms of time or money. There is considerable debate within the field as to whether respondents are fully aware of their rights and the implications of the gathering processes. The idea that there can be any such thing as genuinely informed

consent is often challenged, given that the everyday citizen will often come to these practices without practical experience of such complex issues.

An ever-present anxiety is that engagement will be to a considerable extent expert-driven, with a view to managing opinion rather than genuinely listening to a set of diverse voices. That outcomes from consultations and deliberative forums may only reflect the background and biases of those leading the process is a concern that necessarily dominates any ethical consideration of such processes. Because of such anxieties, a broad spectrum of literature considers the development of ethical guidelines for institutions and facilitators, often underpinned by an assumption of a democratic organization of society to which these institutions ascribe. Harm to any involved parties; conflicts of interest; the biasing of evidence; and transparent weighting of those reasons for or against a particular course of action are all commonly held within ethical frameworks designed to inform good practice.

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Chapter 6

The Role of Civil Society and Advocacy Groups

1. Introduction

Over the past few decades, civil society and advocacy groups have emerged as important players in the shaping of public policy. Often referred to as "third parties," they complement the roles of political parties and governments in public life. The importance of such civic engagement has grown as democracy in many countries has aged. The emphasis on representative politics has declined in favor of fostering democratic engagement (Myint Naing, 2019). In the evolving world of policy-making and party politics, civil society and advocacy groups offer non-elitist alternatives. In a highly complex and large society such as America, the existence of these entities offers more space for civic participation and helps bridge segments of society that would not normally engage with each other. Thus, fundamentally, the relationship between civil society and government structures is more dynamic and multilayered than a simple dichotomy would suggest. However, understanding policy making is far more involved. In democracies, where full participation is expected in policy-making, the complexity of making public policy is very high. This paper discusses civil society and advocacy groups, and their role in policy-making. There is no one kind of relationship that advocacy can have with government. There are as many motivations and methods as there are issues and advocacy groups. Indeed concerns often overlap in the finding of policy solutions. Thus, it is rare that only one group should be aiming for influence on any given issue. In the end, where common ground exists, collaboration is essential. Also due to capacity and research constraints, this investigation relies heavily on public record and existing scholarly work. The ethnographic case studies promise a deeper exploration of these issues and also a much richer data set of observation and participant-observation.

2. The Concept of Civil Society and Advocacy Groups

Civil society is a key actor in policy making, constituting various actors and institutions which are presumed to represent a wide range of interests. Advocacy groups or organizations are also a significant part of civil society and are similar to interest or pressure groups. They promote the interests of a particular section of society, sometimes also known as stakeholders. Advocacy groups can lobby with the state for policy change, mobilise public opinion, and ensure that the established policies or laws are implemented effectively. They generate awareness and consciousness among the populace about a particular policy or issue which has an impact on public welfare (M. Sachikonye, 2000). Usually they accept a particular problem and formulate objectives to deal with it. In this context, advocacy groups work with both the state and civil society to address a problem or policy issue. Advocacy groups are formed both formally and informally. Sometimes, a policy issue abruptly impacts the life of a community, and the community people spontaneously agitate to deal with it. Gradually, an organization emerges to deal specifically with that issue and place it before the state authority. Concurrently, there are some organizations that are equipped and have a vision to work on a particular policy or issue. They design a program and implement it with a structured plan of action. For example, in South Asia, there are a number of NGOs that have a national network and several districts or upazila-based offices. These offices work directly with the civil society of that particular area, mobilising people to address a specific policy issue. Interestingly, advocacy groups are constituted between the two groups: the NGO people and the villagers who have a similar view (C. Schmitter, 1993). The formal advocacy groups have a particular structure and follow a guideline, while the informal one does not have a fixed structure. In that case, a charismatic villager plays a crucial role in an informal advocacy group. Current culture, value, perception, class, ethnicity, gender, etc., are the other factors that affect the formation of such groups. A rich peasant lobbying for pesticides and seeds may influence policy, or may obstruct it in the same way if the poor want fertiliser as a part of food security. So, the existence of a particular objective and social unity are important for advocacy groups. Owing to differential realities, the interest of advocacy groups may vary in different areas. Sometimes, an informal advocacy group with the same objective turns on to a formal one, and vice versa.

Advocacy groups contribute to the expansion and consolidation of civil society, making it more representative, self-managed and a principal protagonist of the country's social transformation. However, there are ethical dilemmas in dealing with policy or advocacy work, such as misappropriation of money and harassment. Accordingly, advocacy groups may confront obstacles. Acknowledging this, seven categories of advocacy bodies – purist, realist, idealist, partisan, opportunistic, pragmatic, and statesperson – which engage

different rationale and are inspired by their objectives. Civil society, the third and co-equal partner of the state and market, exerts influence on the policy process, formulation, and implementation. Conversely, the state also uses civil society to disseminate welfare programs and export the idea of a 'good' state. Indeed, the ticking clock of advocacy work sometimes narrows groups to a mode of simple homo economicus, echoing the critiques of civil society.

2.1. Definition and Characteristics

What is Civil Society or, Better Still, What is Not?

It is not enough to say that civil society is the space lying between the individual and the state. Students who engage in a little empirical research on this species of "associational life" will soon discover that the range of actors embraced in it is too diverse for it to be easily or meaningfully identical to any common, vital, distinctive set of interests or values——except, perhaps, to pursue the relief of some easily identified social need (C. Schmitter, 1993). But even if one were to consider, as many have, social service and welfare organizations to be the mainly exemplary form of civil society, there would still be the difficulty of explaining their incidence and relevance in well-established and welfare states. This literature review takes as its point of departure a more differentiated and analytically clear conceptual framework describing the universe of organized actors falling somewhere between the three great monoliths: private productive enterprise, the state apparatus—and, if one were forced to use such a terminological absurdity, "the private other." Autonomy, plurality of purpose or function, voluntary association.

It's about the search for an answer to a different, but perhaps a far more consequential, question: Why, when state resources are limited and the range of social demands for them almost without limit, should public officials deserve, or be predisposed to, approach the satisfaction of these demands using forms of action that are constitutionally constrained, transparent and accountable? The experiences of sub-Saharan and Southern Africa over the past decade might well suggest a more appropriate topic for reflection on the eve of the third millennium concerning what this implies for the appropriate structure and practice of political parties and civil society organizations.

3. Historical Evolution of Civil Society and Advocacy Groups

Engagement of civil society with government, and with one another, to produce public policy is both new and not easily understood. As public policy development has traditionally resided with the state, and as scholar research has concentrated so heavily on

the state, attention has not been broad enough to include the actors and processes that fundamentally shaped civil society's ability to advocate with governments: targeted policy advocacy began and continues to be driven primarily by non-state agents of civil society (Myint Naing, 2019).

The 19th-century rise of civil society, marked by the establishment of mutual aid and self-help societies, prompted public advocacy for social reform in Britain and elsewhere in the West. The labour movement fiercely protested the exploitation and inequality of the 'free market', leading campaigns for worker (human) rights within new industrial capitalism. In 20th century America, trade unions and civil rights emerged as civil-society vehicles advocating for labour protection and racial equality. Each movement played an important policy role by raising public awareness and politicizing issues. However, these nascent networks were heterogeneous and multi-stakeholder, driven partly by moral concerns and partly by self-interested cooperation. At the same time, particularly after its unionization, labor also lost its genuine civic roots to party politics.

Modern professional non-profit advocacy, also no stranger to policy matters, became dominant only by the late 20th century. Pioneered by activists, forceful and decentralized campaigns first pressured the government to fund research in the 1990s. Similar tactics were later adopted by movements, encouraging multinational institutions to introduce more transparency and accountability. Such aggressive and rights-based campaigning often saw NGOs using the international platform against the government, rather than with the government, making them more complementary than supplementary.

4. Theoretical Frameworks for Understanding Civil Society and Advocacy Groups

There exist various theoretical frameworks from which to view civil society and advocacy groups, with each providing unique insights on their operations. Very broadly speaking, the classical liberal perspective views civil society in terms of protection against the state. In this view, civil society has always and will always act as a countervailing force to the state in an attempt to curb its power and potentially nefarious effects on individuals. By contrast, Marxist theory sees civil society not as a unitary umbrella of protection but rather as a series of partially-coopted networks of power and influence. Thus, a peculiar form of civil society can be forged in which a unified front of elite organizations works for the status quo (Reichman, 2010). Meanwhile, a constructivist approach emphasizes the reciprocal crafting of society and governance at the social and political level of organizations. The scholarly discussion of civil society and advocacy groups, or oligarchic power structures generally, is naturally articulated around these three broad

traditions, which seem relevant for grasping the current debates and public ploys on these matters. Strengths and weaknesses of using these theoretical underpinnings to investigate these pressing matters of contemporary public policy are outlined.

In policy terms, an understanding of civil society and advocacy groups may be important to get to grips with stakeholder feedback on policy initiatives, the creation of policy through lobbying, and the effective cultivation of community support for unconventional public policy decisions. Although a plethora of studies focus on civil society and advocacy groups in social movement theory, there are very few elaborate public policy-oriented empirical analyses. A special need, because conveying the needs of advocacy groups and civil society actors is a standard component of policy formation, the academic tools currently used to theorize about these formations are lacking. Also, scholars who study advocacy groups and civil society through a political lens often debate the level of influence or access of such organizations, with a residual tendency to analyze them in isolation or tend to concentrate on whether they seem to drive policy making in their interest.

5. The Impact of Civil Society and Advocacy Groups on Public Policy

Understanding public policy is inherently tied to understanding civil society, including the interplay between the direct impact of civil society and advocacy groups on policy decisions and how they envision their roles in the policy process. Civil society's close eye on government performance and role in researching, consulting public opinions, pushing governments to act, and supporting policy implementation work in parallel. Looking at citizen input into policy-making, civil society's facilitated forums and participation in policy consultations also contribute to the formulation of policy recommendations. Grassroots or civil society initiated policy advocacy, particularly when the formal policy-making process is criticized. Different mechanisms and avenues, in which grassroots groups or civil society organizations could act for potential changes in government policies as alternatives to or in addition to formal democratic mechanisms, are explored.

Among the mechanisms through which civil society or advocacy groups advocate for change, lobbying or meetings with policymakers to persuade or convey their opinions, conducting advocacy campaigns, publications, forums, public speeches or public campaigns to raise awareness, and encouraging citizen participation or organizing affected communities to request their rights are conducted. Civil society and advocacy groups play an important role in shaping public discourse on an issue, mobilizing citizens around a certain issue, and focusing attention on government accountability and needed

social justice. Cases are presented where advocacy efforts have successfully resulted in changes in policies or practice related to recent time. Partnerships with like-minded organizations and building coalitions are often discussed as ways to increase effectiveness in a context where low visibility, government restrictions and lack of access to formal processes are felt. How advocacy is effectively carried out without media work is reflected on, given the role of media in disseminating and shaping public understanding on those issues (Myint Naing, 2019).

5.1. Case Studies and Examples

There are civil society organizations (CSOs), including both grassroots groups and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), that seek to influence governmental agencies and their policies to protect drinking water sources and to provide clean drinking water. The advocacy approaches of these organizations range from little to engagement that is confrontational. Drinking water advocacy efforts have aimed to influence various federal and state policy-making processes. Responses to advocacy efforts have come from diverse government entities, including federal and state legislators and environmental and public health agencies. Moreover, CSOs use a medley of policy advocacy tools, including producing reports, conducting information campaigns, and participating in public hearings (Myint Naing, 2019). To highlight these processes, this section features various cases including grassroots environmental movements trying to influence dam construction in a river basin, an Indigenous-led campaign to raise awareness and combat a multimillion-dollar legal agreement signed between a national park and multinational corporation that would limit tribal members' access to resources, and INGO-supported efforts to safeguard clean drinking water from extraction industrial contamination. These four cases present evidence of both direct and indirect actions taken by civil society to influence public policy. Additionally, they highlight the use of diverse strategies and tactics, which range from the use of data to narratives in the form of tribal oral histories. Furthermore, they illustrate the challenge of fitting those cases into theoretical framework.

6. Challenges and Opportunities for Civil Society and Advocacy Groups in Public Policy Advocacy

Introduction:

Civil society plays a critical role in policy making, but often faces constraints and challenges in advocating for policy reform. While policy advocacy initiatives often begin

with good intentions, real-life experiences demonstrate that advocacy work is challenging for civil society organizations (CSOs). Advocacy work often leads to successes unmatched to efforts expended, and the scope for success highly depends on context and strategy (Myint Naing, 2019). Challenges often emerge due to limited financial resources, competition with other NGOs, donor pressures and government restrictions. At the same time, opportunities arise due to an increasing awareness and interest from the general public. The role of civil society's grassroots in generating and sustaining pressure for policy change is therefore critical and needs to be enhanced.

Challenges, Opportunities, and Recommendations for Grassroots Civil Society and Advocacy Groups:

Grassroots civil society organizations (CSOs) and advocacy groups face a wide range of complex challenges in effectively advocating for policy reform. Policy advocacy can be both demanding and risky for many small and unregistered community-based organizations (CBOs). Challenging the status quo entails risks, and advocacy groups may find themselves in direct opposition to powerful established interests, including political entities and government institutions. Advocacy actors in many settings must navigate highly complex and restrictive regulatory environments, with numerous laws in place limiting or regulating their ability to operate and limiting their access to resources. Public officials may be unreceptive or even hostile to civil society contributions, or may be unwilling to engage in dialogue. The effectiveness of advocacy activities may be undermined by weak democratic governance, including a lack of transparency, and accountability of government institutions. In some cases, politicians and officials may actively seek to undermine the advocacy actions of civil society actors. For advocacy groups, the concept of good advocacy and partnerships may be perceived as direct challenges to their authority and public accountability.

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Part III: Case Studies and Challenges

Chapter 7

Successful Models of Public Participation

1.Introduction

There is a growing recognition that citizens and businesses should be more actively engaged in deciding the policies and services provided by their governments. Some efforts to promote public participation can be traced back to the 1970s. In recent years, a number of governments at national and subnational level have introduced legislation aimed to embed public involvement in their decision-making procedures. Public participation is increasingly advocated as a way to promote trust in government, enhance the legitimacy of policy decisions, and improve the quality of services. Effective collaboration between governments, interest groups, and professions are also considered key for developing better policies, and policy coordination is seen as essential for encouraging joint approaches across different sectors.

A whole industry has developed around the idea of public-private partnerships in governance, and the sharing of decision-making across different levels of government is increasingly seen as vital to achieve a coherent approach to policy. Yet there is still a surprising gap in our understanding of what actually works and whether the investment in participatory programs has delivered clear benefits. The advocacy literature is powerful, diverse and expansive, but it typically rests on a series of case studies, which can be informative in terms of providing detailed insight but don't generate generic results that can be applied widely. On the other side, much of the evaluation literature is speculative and superficial, and it is often based on a rather narrow and subjective review of the evidence. To investigate the effectiveness of different models of public participation there is still a need for detailed, robust studies that can help decode the jargon and procedural complexities and relate these to the broader governance agenda (Suphattanakul, 2018). Comprehensive definition Citizens and business have clearly benefited if government services continue to improve. Public participation is thus seen by advocates as an essential feature of good governance and a key mechanism for ensuring

that policies and services are more responsive to the actual needs of citizens, business, and regions.

2. The Importance of Public Participation

Public participation in decision-making is fundamental to democratic societies. If active involvement of the public is not promoted, activities held to elicit public opinion in attempts to legitimize governmental projects and development seem inappropriate. As an alternative approach, it is suggested that public participation should select policies to evaluate. Public involvement should also include broad matters of public opinion, thus enhancing the links between the public and the decisions made (Suphattanakul, 2018). Enhanced citizen ability to participate in discussions about public policy and decision-making is likely to lead to better decisions. Where decisions affect the individual, there seem to be stronger reasons for involvement. With a focus on broad-based participatory processes, if questions of detail are considered, then public participation can seem unrealistic. Post decision-involvement, the role of the public in shaping decision with prior information is discussed within the context of enhanced legitimacy, enhanced effectiveness, and the wider question of civic responsibility. Legal responsibilities to facilitate public participation are now common. This approach has been criticized because, until the policy frame has been decided, the ability of the public to comment meaningfully may be limited. However, some commentators have seen pre-decision involvement as a form of "good housekeeping," leading to better, more informed policy choices. With full commitment to public involvement, policy decision-making is seen as something of a one-way process that runs from the rational analysis of a range of options to a predetermination and eventual decision. Inconsistencies seemed inevitable if participation was seen as relevant only when responses remained and debate was effectively about a done deal. With a focus on processes, rather than outcomes, valued character of pre-decision-involvement is identified its ability to facilitate civic responsibility. It is expected that the wide range of public choices will lead to more informed policymaking. Trusted policy makers are more likely to be seen to have the required political acumen to make robust decisions. To enhance civic responsibility, encouragement of involvement in a greater number of issues identified as important for them, to have their say and to get policy makers to listen can be considered.

3. Key Principles of Public Participation

At the core of effective public participation are key principles that guide the design, implementation, and evaluation of these practices. The first principle is transparency. Building trust between stakeholders is difficult in the absence of transparency, and deliberation conducted under adverse conditions can lead to frustration and the eventual breakdown of the process. Public participation practices therefore call for any rules and procedures related to the practice to be made explicit, as well as creating channels for the dissemination of information (Njoroge Wanjiku, 2018). The principle of transparency also creates a basis for trust, a vital foundation for the sustainability of any participatory initiative. The possibility for stakeholders to be consulted and to present their input in a public forum assures the visibility of their claims, objectives, and interests, and, in cases where the results of the deliberation are enforced, allows the reasons for such enforcement to be accountable to all implicated parties. It is further necessary for public participation practices to not only allow the submission of arguments and information on the question on the table, but to involve them in the decision-making process in a way that makes their contribution meaningful. For this to happen, it is essential to embrace the principle of inclusivity, which dictates that all those who are or represent an interested party or view are allowed to participate in the deliberative process. This approach implies ensuring equal possibilities for all relevant parties to speak, to call experts, present information or question that provided by others. In as much as it is reasonable; it is also advisable to promote the participation of sectors that are not organized, thus ensuring the varied participation of society and preventing the action of traditional (often unrepresentative) lobbying groups. The principle of inclusivity is of paramount importance for the fairness of the deliberative process, as it ensures that all sides have a voice and, when accountability is demanded, it is in compliance with the procedure used. On this basis, public participation can reassure that decisions are based on an open process, allowing for the consideration of all facets associated with a specific issue (Lynne Holmberg, 1997). Another central principle that underpins public participation practices is accountability. Broadly speaking, accountability refers to the mechanisms employed to hold agents responsible for their acts. As a practical matter, it often refers to the exposition of governmental agencies behavior before the public to satisfy that decisions are taken in the public's best interest. In the context of public participation, built-in mechanisms of accountability should be in place to ensure that the fairness and transparency criteria described above are met. Also, it is necessary to create mechanisms through which the parties hear or evaluate the soundness of the claims and decisions of the counterpart, namely. The possibility for questions to be asked directly to the decision-makers, panels of experts, and public officers regarding the model, the study, the data or the decision, and rebuttal conditions allowing response to this questioning to take place (namely that

interested parties have an opportunity to respond). In addition, there is a series of mechanisms that are facilitated not necessarily with a desirable criticism function but as an aide for all parties involved to understand the claims and models presented. The provision of information about technical details or studies used, distribution of minutes or recordings of the sessions held for those who did not attend, opening space to the oral presentation of all writings are examples which can greatly assist public understanding and participation. Finally, the principle of accountability requires that the participation process is designed so that its implementation, development, and results can be assessed. This may lead to the reconsideration of the design of the model or to the amendment of operational aspects. The development of an appraisal system is a demonstration of commitment of the use of public participation as a platform for the discovery of better decisions. Moreover, the fact that the process is evaluated may in itself be a stimulus to the parties involved to take it more seriously or to increase their implication in it. This aspect is developed to a great extent in the comparative evaluation section of the paper following this one. For public participation practices to be deemed as transparent, they must ensure the visibility of the reasons behind the decision-making process. In order to allow parties to express their opinions on the question under debate in an informed manner, a great deal of useful information about the terms of the deliberation has to be provided well ahead of the consultation moment. Furthermore, the existence of consultation has to be communicated in advance to the stakeholders, and a discussion of the ways their views will be used in the policy-making process has to be carried out. In addition, it is vital to make available in a public fashion the outputs of the deliberation, i.e. the proceedings of the forums, the models or studies received, the work obtained, if any, the proceedings conducted, as well as the manner in which this information will be or can be used in pending decisions.

Another principle that is separated but closely related to the previous three is the principle of accessibility. In order for the principle of inclusivity to work, it is necessary that any interested party, in principle, has the opportunity to take part in a consulting process. This creates the need to advertise well in advance the existence of the same and the proposal to be discussed, as well as providing socio-economic and socio-cognitive facilities that ensure an effective participation. It may be important to point out that large participation and the balanced input of all sides often require a huge amount of time. In the contexts of the practical implementation of public participation, the principle of binary is implemented in in a conflicting manner: little notice is given and parties do not have the time to properly elaborate their point of view; or an excessive amount of information. Furthermore, participation events are relatively scarce, the vast majority of them being conducted in working hours, in places that are inconvenient for representation of some groups, with an unclear schedule of them and with no giving of any kind of assistance to

the parties involved. The principle of accessibility seeks to redress this situation both in order to avoid those who take part to feel exploited (and become a posteriori oppositional) and to mitigate the sense of outrage of society driven by the inequalities of social benefits procured by these practices. There are still many gaps regarding the actual accessibility of public participation models. A more detailed analysis of that is undertake in the forthcoming evaluation of the application of public participation to fishing exploitation issues in multi-use marine systems. This is a first exploratory analysis of the way in which the principle of accessibility has been put in practice in a plethora of models of a single case. An extensive assessment of the principle of accessibility implemented in the vast range of public participation models available is an enormous task. This section on the principle of accessibility should be read as an invitation to consider the way in which it is currently implemented in public participation practices and to discuss alternatives to ensure a greater genuine participation of all. Given the still very incipient nature of research in the subject, it is fundamental that the available information on the document and practice of a broader set of experiences in this area and the analysis and research of the work implemented in a larger number of projects.

3.1. Transparency

Transparency is a principle that holds that public decisions are best made openly for public scrutiny and that public processes should be open and participatory. Transparency begins with the clear communication of processes and information. This means that the mechanisms that may be used to collect, analyze, and present information are open, the assumptions and rationales that drive processes and decisions are disclosed, the basis for research is described, and the resulting decisions and actions can be understood. A variety of processes can be used to promote transparency: keeping the public informed, attempting to ensure that the process is accessible in multiple ways, seeking out and welcoming public input, and creating and widely distributing documentation detailing process decisions and actions. Approaches to these processes might include, for example, active communication, information sharing in languages other than those used for meetings, presentation of research and summaries in a form that is readily understandable, and public reporting that describes feedback and the rationale for decisions over time (Jashari & Pepaj, 2018). The practical benefits of transparency include a significant growth in the verifiability and trustworthiness of the public participation process and a well-informed citizenry more likely to effectively engage in public processes and decisions, potentially enhancing the use, relevance, and credibility of research. Transparency also serves as a foundational link to the other principles examined in this volume, enhancing the accountability of decision-making entities and contributing

substantially to the ability of many audiences to participate, thereby fostering the legitimacy of the decisions made (Carpenter et al., 2014).

Despite the clear importance of transparency, achieving it through the institutions, processes, and data that make up a system of research-based public participation can be challenging. But there are strategies and approaches that can help. Consider, for example, that care needs to be taken at the same time to ensure the demonstration of defensible results and maintain the necessary confidentiality for intellectual property rights. At the later stages of a system, it would likely be necessary to share results and deal with concerns publicly, whether or not the requirements for transparency are being debated. Yet agree on standardized approaches and equities to minimize the procedural burden across provider-involved mechanisms that helps maintain a focus on research quality. Different mechanisms should have different requirements for transparency in light of the nature of their risks and benefits. For example, impacts of federal regulations explicitly allow for substantial confidentiality in the analysis and prioritization of health and environmental problems in the early stages of research; at the same time, it is standard practice to make information gathered through those processes publicly available.

3.2. Inclusivity

The principle of inclusivity is fundamental to ensuring collaborative decision-making processes reflect all segments of a community; decisions affect different individuals in varied ways. Inclusivity is concerned with moving beyond simply inviting public participation to ensuring marginalized voices are present when deliberating alternative policy actions (Lewis et al., 2019). This principle entails design features that continue to facilitate meaningful contributions from all individuals, even those who lack privilege to attend usual channels. Outreach programs are often initiated by government regulatory agencies, but may sometimes also be conducted by advocacy groups or other society organizations, in the hopes of informing a specific population segment concerning the potential negative impacts from a pending choice, reform, or policy alteration. Such efforts may be much harder to conceptualize and implement than, for example, research studies to verify potential impacts from an avoidance state. Innovative public involvement programs are also reputed to be mindful of using a broad assortment of engagement techniques because research studies suggest that this often leads to enriched perspectives and improved choices.

While inclusivity can serve to benefit society as a whole, upholding principles of justice and fairness in the distribution of public goods, including health (Plamondon et al., 2023), distinct advantages may also accrue to organizations and individuals directly associated

with the process. A first remark has indicated that the perceived fairness of a process has a strong influence on the cognitive and affective responses to it, fostering willingness to go along with decisions that may go differently from individual preferences. Lewis et al.'s corroborative finding was that people who think they have been fairly dealt with tend to generally have stronger overall satisfaction levels. Beyond these expressive benefits, various instrumental advantages also can occur through observing key aspects of the substantive coordination process. The ultimate preferred rule utilizes approximately forty-five existing outreach programs to seek to inform seventy-five percent of the exposed population and is subsequently used in a state of the art integrated assessment model to prove that beneficial rule. A wealth of interviewing data, annotated through the lens of six established explanatory models, allows exploration of the long chain of causal factors onboard individuals to prompt or prevent direct involvement.

3.3. Accountability

Accountability is the principle of public participation according to which decision-makers have an obligation to explain and justify their actions and decisions to the public. This principle requires mechanisms that ensure that public officials remain accessible and answerable to the communities they serve. When decision-makers are or can be held accountable, the traceability of their actions becomes a top priority. Over recent decades, several frameworks have been developed in the participatory field to ensure accountability of the public and private actors participating in jointly designed actions. The major challenge now is to design and implement mechanisms that were initially aimed at enabling public trust between these actors in a way that does not compromise the broader and richer background that makes public trust building possible. The most common accountability models in public participation involve feedback loops and participatory evaluations, according to which partners in a participatory process should issue periodic reports on the fulfillment of their obligations, so that all other partners in the same standing can assess their performance (Rodrigues & Pinto, 2011). Modeling accountability in terms of what makes a public official accountable also means facing the many constraints that currently prevent public officials in many countries from actively participating in their communities. One of the main criticisms that public participation has faced so far is that it is prone to corrupt local officials or can be easily manipulated by more powerful actors, such as politically or economically interested groups and private consultants. This kind of corruption can in some way be mitigated through the involvement of independent organizations and qualified associations, as most of the time civil society is the main agent advocating to hold public officials accountable. In conclusion, accountability is what slowly makes participatory models developed by either public or supranational institutions close to sustainable participatory models seen as good

practice. The open question is whether it is possible to find a way to accurately model accountability while preserving the spontaneity and bottom-up character that has made successful some of the many public participation experiments carried out so far. Before moving to other aspects of accountability in the field of public participation, the responsible reader might reflect on whether this first issue can be somehow addressed.

3.4. Accessibility

3.4. Accessibility Participation must be open and attainable by all people to be considered justified participation. For this reason, one critical condition of just participation is accessibility. Just participation denotes activity that increases participation in a social system such that all participant-actors find their participation sufficiently beneficial. This goal presupposes that all participation conditions (i.e., the adequate arrangement of opportunities, motivation, and justice) are met, promoting just participation. It is recommended that practitioners continually monitor and enhance the accessibility of participation initiatives .

Diverse efforts should be made to remove obstacles preventing individuals from participating, as well as initiatives to actively assist people in increasing their participation. According to this definition, specific principles can be enacted to promote participation and to hold specific actors accountable for taking part. It is critical to enact participation principles from a participatory justice perspective because addressing all P conditions—such as P opportunity, P motivation, and PJ—is a moral and legal obligation for every party responsible for just participation. However, the implementation of participation principles may depend on the government's ultimate commitment to social justice. Governments need to incorporate clearly defined participation principles into broader legal frameworks and ensure that their partners respecting them.

This thought introduces the principle of accessibility. Nevertheless, the ambition of making participation "open and attainable by all people" is also closely aligned with what is articulated here. Continuously monitoring participation possibility and adaptively enhance existing arrangements serve as an evaluation framework of the accessibility of a given activity of participating in a social system. It suggests that attention to P accessibility should also be read alongside the broader efforts to address all critical conditions of just participation. Finally, potential users of the accessibility evaluation should consider domains of accessibility while adapting and designing measures to enhance accessibility. Juxtaposed after that are three tables juxtapose after that list examples of evaluative measures that capture how particular kinds of accessibility

constraints prevent participation. Readers are invited to review these tables and consider how to adapt or replicate this evaluation in their own settings.

4. Case Studies of Successful Public Participation Models

Case Studies A series of case studies is presented, showcasing models of public engagement that have led to recognized success in different contexts. Examples include the use of participatory scenario development to facilitate a visioning process for the future of Atlanta, a community-led model to communicate and engage local residents in developments of a waste-to-energy incinerator proposed for the Navajo Nation, and the deployment of Community Preference Surveys combined with scientific monitoring data collection methods to engage the public on adaptive shoreline management planning decisions in response to sea level rise in Delaware. A final case study reports how elements for public participation under Oregon's innovative system for Statewide Land Use Planning have evolved since the 1970s (Cohen & Wiek, 2017).

Case studies are analyzed and used to understand how success is defined and recognized, discuss the principles and strategies applied to achieve success, and consider the contributing factors to success. Obstacles and barriers to implementation are also unpacked, along with ethical or political considerations. Reflections on lessons learned and prospective impact of the case study are then examined, including those useful to practitioners or policymakers in comparing models and drawing on the experience presented to adapt and improve public participation practices. The case studies presented are intended to inspire new ways of thinking or reimagine public participation in response to potential challenges or specific topics for which they engage diverse stakeholders.

5. Best Practices for Implementing Public Participation Programs

Successful public participation (PP) initiatives require that the public be able to interact with experts, stakeholders, and policy makers at the right time and under the right circumstances and that the knowledge of all the actors be taken into account by the public administration (Von Korff et al., 2016). The key to achieving this is the careful, stakeholder-specific design of PP initiatives. Multiple and variable approaches to PP exist; PP initiatives are generic processes that can be linked to any decision-making situation, and it is difficult, if not impossible, to find a participatory process that can be considered

a perfect match for the context for which it was designed. However, it is possible to identify good practice thresholds that can contribute to PP initiatives being successfully designed in (almost) any context. For this purpose, the following advices are developed: (PP 1) Define the objectives of PP for each major stage in a logical waysmaking or respective capacities. (PP 2) Plan the various interaction events in a logical manner and establish a clear articulation between PP and the formal decision-making process. (PP 3) Identify special contextual considerations that could affect the selection of PP mechanisms (PP factors). (PP 4) Match participation mechanisms to the planned participation events. (PP 5) Write the participation plan. (PP 6) Share the participation plan with the public. (PP 7) Learn from the PP design experience and use institutions or organizations acquired knowledge. (PP 8) Plan for evaluation from the beginning of the PP initiatives. Finally, three analytical tools are presented that have been developed to help apply these advices effectively and consistently.

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Chapter 8

Barriers to Effective Participation

Introduction

Significant emphasis has been placed on the importance of involving citizens in the processes of governance as a way to deepen and make more meaningful the practice of democracy. Indeed, it is 'received wisdom' that governance without the direct input of those affected is likely to be inadequate in addressing the needs and expectations of the citizens (P. Martin, 2009). In the South African context, public participation typically denotes the opportunities provided to 'the public' by (local) government to comment (positively or negatively) on specific policy or other documents – usually in writing. Public consultation is one of the instruments for the public to influence and contribute to, in particular, government decision-making. It involves – to some extent – a negotiation between government and representative groups of the public, (normally) resulting in a policy document which is supposed to take into account the expressed views (Phama, 2018). This coincides with the institutional value attributed to public participation through which government aims to establish 'the right' of citizens to participate within a formal constitutional and legal framework. However, considerable gap becomes evident when comparing the 'official' (thus normative) expectations and assumptions about public participation with the 'actual' practices and experienced outcomes. This gap is further accentuated at the persistent dominance by an institutional discourse on public participation which, given its over-fixation on procedures, processes, techniques and methods, avoids more fundamental interrogations about the political dynamic of power that underpins and structures the knowledge-production processes within which participation (and its 'truth-effects') takes place.

2. The Importance of Public Participation in Policy Making

Public participation is to be a cornerstone of good governance (P. Martin, 2009). Public involvement in service development, monitoring, and evaluation is one way in which public services could be held accountable to users. There are various benefits associated with public participation particularly in the policy-making context. Active and meaningful

participation of the public and all concerned stakeholders is essential for ensuring transparency on the part of the government in policy formulation and implementation, which in turn fosters public awareness and opens the opportunity for relevant information to be shared among stakeholders. This in effect could contribute to enhancing accountability and trust between the government and the public. It would also improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the decisions, actions, and services related to government policy. Citizens can bring with themselves detailed and specific information, agendas, experiences, grievances, and interests. Participation not only makes the decisions and implementations more relevant and legitimate, but it also makes the policy more workable and practical given its local pertinence. It generates better support for decisions and reduces conflict. The partnership between government and community in policy-making will generate new and innovative solutions to social, cultural, and economic problems. These new policies could be expected to be more sustainable in the future.

There are various theories and theoretical underpinnings with regard to participatory practices, most of which suggest the positive nexus between public involvement and the effectiveness of public policy. Public or user participation is expected to (1) enhance the responsiveness of public service outcomes to needs, leading to mutual understanding and respect between providers and users; (2) increase the trust and legitimacy of service organizations and their governance, fostering the credibility of initiatives and improving the acceptance and compliance of outcomes by the wider community; (3) favor the empowerment of users, enhanced through the development of social capital and personal skills and confidence, aiming to encourage active citizenship and spatial responsibility in public affairs; and (4) generate broader change processes by facilitating the integration of different knowledge and innovative ideas, promoting the acceptance and synthesis of competing interests, and thus enhancing the sustainability of outcomes. Efforts to create an enabling environment for participative initiatives and practices have never recognized these potential outcomes nor invested in them. Yet public engagement may be most effective in contributing to policy and program goals by encouraging the development of longer-term interventions.

3. Types of Barriers to Effective Participation

Public participation is perceived by many as that silver bullet that will provide a solution to government apathy or the cures to an unresponsive government. Public participation can empower citizens, it can reflect the input from those who will be affected and are affected by policies or decisions, and offer accessibility to decision-making. While governments are obliged to ensure the participation of those affected by the policy-making

decisions, this is not done adequately. There are a complexity of different factors that can prevent the public from participating effectively in the policy-making process. Broadly, such impediments can be categorized as the following: structural, procedural, and cultural.

Structural barriers are obstacles which effectively prevent certain groups or communities from participating in the policy-making process. These barriers can take the form of the institutional frameworks that exist in a country. Structural barriers can also be the resource limitations which prevent those who wish to participate from doing so. Many people, particularly women living in underprivileged communities, are prevented from participating effectively because of this multiplicity of structural barriers. This limits the ability of these citizens to contribute to the policy-making process. For example, the structuring of public participation at the global and national policy levels is done in a way that is biased in favor of the views of the rich nations.

At the national level, too, there are many instances where the structures in place are not conducive to public participation. For example, key academic journals have high subscription fees that price them out of the reach of community organizations . Procedural barriers are those factors which relate to the way in which the policy-making process is conducted. These barriers can effectively prevent community participation. At a basic level, the policy-making process is often so complex that the average citizen does not fully understand the mechanisms involved. Additionally, the public is rarely given adequate opportunity to participate, with the policy formulation stage taking place behind closed doors. Finally, it has often been observed that the consultation documents that are circulated by governments does not accurately reflect the content of the policies proposed in their name. This also prevents effective community involvement in the policy-making process. Culturally, there can be many factors which prevent certain groups from participating in the policy-making process. In this context, culture is understood in terms of the common norms, values, and beliefs of a society. It is important to understand this broadly as it affects the way in which public participation can be effective. In many societies, the structure of the political systems themselves is such that community organizations are deprived of any real power to challenge governments. The use of disciplinary actions by the government can be prohibitive of public participation. These can take the form of harassment and intimidation of those who participate or the closure of community organizations. The lack of a culture of accountability is detrimental to public participation as governments see no reason to consult with the public.

3.1. Structural Barriers

Varied of barriers that hinder public participation exist. Part of the problem is a result of the very structure of policy and is either intrinsic to the institutional framework within

which policy develops, or the policy process itself. It is, for example, virtually impossible for all citizens to master the intricacies of policy making and consider the vast array of substantive, governmental, political, and other factors that are necessary to effective participation (Jane Waterhouse, 2015). Moreover, the "rules of engagement" – written and unwritten – within policy processes are oftentimes complex, unintelligible to someone not versed in them, and risks isolating the policy and legislative arenas from the public gaze. In any country the poorer and more marginalised communities, who are the most affected by policy decisions, tend to also have the least access to education, to information technology, to travel, and to other means of overcoming these structural barriers. Added to this is that metal institutions are by nature, conservative. They are designed to resist demands that fall outside of their usual ways of working. It's not surprising, then, that the impoverished and rural communities have never learned to participate as a matter of course, and so have no experience in tackling the many barriers that exist to effective participation. Amidst rapidly changing political, economic, and social landscapes many of South Africa's 46 million citizens still remain marginalised from policy processes, cut of from the political and governmental fora they are meant to be part of (Phama, 2018).

Public participation in decision making on poverty alleviation is not only the very essence of establishing participatory democracy but also an important step in the realization of the right to development, of which the ultimate objective is to improve and protect the basic well-being of the whole population. Public participation could improve policy decision's authenticity, rationality and public acceptance, being conducive to the realization of the right to development. However, in reality, there also exist a series of problems: government dominates public discretion, mass are difficult to take part in relevant issues, lack of effective protection of their interests.

3.2. Procedural Barriers

A key element of meaningful public participation in the policy-making process centers on the notion that public engagement should occur at a stage and in a format that enables the public's view to be genuinely influential. Commentators argue that meaningful participation at the initial stage requires creating opportunities for the public to engage more fundamental policy questions. Further, and more debate in the public sphere and through greater public discussion of alternatives, a foundation may be laid for the development of more considered legislation (Jane Waterhouse, 2015).

However, a wealth of procedural barriers exist that prevent effective participation. Not least of these is the sheer complexity of legislative process itself— legislation has been described as one of the most arcane crafts in democratic systems. Unfamiliar or overly complex procedures can deter even interested members of the public. Particular examples

include unclear procedures for contribution, inadequate public notice about meetings, and consultation and public notices that combine disparate stages. Timing of meetings and official consultation is another procedural issue that can inadvertently hinder access to a diversity of perspectives. For instance, meetings may be scheduled during business hours, which can limit attendance from shift workers. And some committees schedule complex or contentious items early in the meeting, leading to exclusion of interested citizens not able to attend at the beginning of the meeting. Although public involvement can sometimes be actively managed and stifled by officials, throughout many of these examples, the dominating factor appears to be embedded and unintended procedural barriers that could potentially more easily be streamlined or redesigned to increase accessibility. Additionally, transparent and well-understood procedures can contribute to an overall increase in trust of the political system.

3.3. Cultural Barriers

The Policy Process reflects the dynamic context in which public involvement occurs, including participants, issues, and the public policy process. Specifically, this paper examines participants' perceptions of the public comment portion of a redevelopment project proposed in Philadelphia, the controllers it engenders, and the support given to participants by intermediary organizations. Participants sign up with commentaries, elbowing others out of the way or splitting into groups. They are supported by organizations that provide demonstration of structure or dispatch organizationally sanctioned participants to take up speaking slots early in the process or to speak on particular issues (J Stern & C Seifert, 2002). Such practices work together to foster more coherent and consistent comments from official participants, and to affect the likelihood that particular voices will be heard.

Public participation is a fundamental right in democratic societies and is key to an effective policy-making process. Despite some recent momentum in participative initiatives, there are several barriers to an effective participation, such as cultural, political and structural. In face of these barriers, this paper raises some strategies to promote effectively the civic participation in foreign trade policy arenas, highlighting the role of the public and private sectors to overcome the challenges posed (Tsige Yeshanew et al., 2023). To that end, a better understanding of the demand-side of political interests is relevant, including the perceptions of the key actors and the types of participation. The proposed recommendations encompass issues of transparency and education, as well as the establishment of a permanent dialogue arena between the government and the private sector—established either within the WTO or at the domestic level— with the view of engaging the private sector in the design and implementation of foreign trade activities.

4. Case Studies of Successful Public Participation Initiatives

Numerous approaches to public participation in policy have been tried, and case studies exist of many notable successes (P. Martin, 2009). Some such approaches are frequently referred to as 'best practice', meaning that they have been at least partially successful as measured by stated objectives. Others are cited for the lessons they provide on the pitfalls to be avoided in designing and operating a public-participation program. The following offers a glimpse at a number of public-participation approaches that have been at least modestly successful. No one type of participation is universally appropriate, and a mix of types is likely to be most effective in meeting program goals. In every case, the effectiveness of participation techniques depend on the further implementation of the principles described above.

A range of cases will be examined from many different fields and with a variety of rationales: some seem to work; some are successful even where authors might not wish them to be. However, none are constant successes and one can almost always find criticisms of both the structure of a particular approach and the outcomes it engenders. A common facet of all cases is the large number of surprising and unanticipated outcomes that result from the malleability of the concept 'participation' and the difficulties of implementing policy goals when there are always many interests represented in the 'public'. There are four case studies to be considered: the Baltimore case study, the Ward case study, the Hawaiian case study, and the Critical Elements case study.

5. Strategies to Overcome Barriers and Enhance Participation

According to the new Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand, adopted after military took power in 2014, the country is a democracy with the king as the head of state. The constitution defines three main pillars through which the democratic system operates: elected representatives, the public sector, and the public (referred to as "the people" in the Thai version of the constitution). Each of these pillars has to work for the "welfare, prosperity, and the sustainable security of the state and public", and all three have to work together in order for the democratic system to operate as established by the constitution. However, the prescribed system also contains barriers that inhibit full functioning of the specified democratic system, particularly with regard to the public's participation in policy-making processes.

Effective public participation in public policy and decision-making processes is widely recognized as key to good governance and the process of democratization. In order to

provide essential services to a population that is geographically dispersed, many public policy decision-making processes must take place on a larger, national scale, and so it is important for the public to be able to actively participate in the shaping of those policies. A number of barriers to participation by members of the public in public policy processes have been identified. These barriers – with regard to knowledge, awareness, resources, and accessibility – exist at the structural level and are at least partly built into the policy-making process itself in most countries. Beyond these, barriers to participation also exist at the regional or local level.

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Chapter 9

Technology, Social Media, and the Future of Public Policy

1. Introduction

A recent uptick in media interest has focused attention on how social media phenomena are affecting public policy. In light of this trend, this sector provides a few thoughts about this development and notes a few possible future outcomes that may evolve from it. Afterward, the sector critically reviews a selection of work on the impact of social media on the political arena.

The essence of the interplay between technology and policy is complex. The term "technology" refers to an amorphous group of new digital tools—ranging from social networking sites to sophisticated algorithms—that arguably have transformed the processes of governance. There are experts on the technical side who focus on how it can help policy sectors become smart, and leaner and how it can transform the delivery of public services. There are experts at the macro or higher political level who think and write about how these technologies have fundamentally changed the relationship between the government and the governed, disrupting the established structures of liberal democracy. As a result the normative questions bubbling out of this shift are both diverse and uncomfortable. However, knowledge is by its nature evolving. What seems like a statement of the obvious now was not obvious until someone figured it out. And so this has become the preoccupation here, to best understand the evolving political properties of this machine, and the potentially dangerous big mountain of notions that have accumulated around it (Van Den Bergh, 2016). As a public reflection on an ongoing process, this essay can offer little by way of direct conclusions, but it is hoped it sparks some thought.

1.1. Background and Significance

The role and implications of the integration of technology into and as public policy can be understood both better and more fully through a reading of how and why technology and governance have matched in the past. Taking a step back from recent policy interests

and the ongoing research of these intersections of technology, social media, and public policy, this paper provides a non-exhaustive list of some historical milestones of technology's integration in and as policies, both in the United States but also with a minimal amount of international examples considered. The end of this paper is a re-articulation of the significance of these historical instances and how they resound both in light of current discourses around "smart cities" but also of the broader imperatives and renewed faith of the ongoing worth and need of policy, of something approaching governance.

Few societies are currently so visible to all their members, so transparent to the operation of authority, as the most primitive tribes seen by the earliest ethnographers….This impossibility of knowledge in societies where instrumentality is weak, complexity overwhelming and where so much is "consensual", means that elections are mere rituals acting out a little understood or felt drama for most participants, themselves largely mystified by what goes on all around them (Van Den Bergh, 2016). In this context policy is, above all, a "society story": a preliterate plot full of contests between characters familiar and strange, understood only in fragments and often seen as blind struggles against Fate or Fate´s Dark Agents…. And what then are the chances for policy as a rational process under such circumstances, when people know, at most, isolated bits of direction on the plain surface and are ignorant of its weight in water below? (Sigit Sayogo, 2019). Professionally created, people technology – photography, tape, video charts et al. – have changed many radically; e.g. what science is thought to have said about Bhopal by an earlier generation, as opposed to what the world knows about it, is light-years apart.

2. The Evolution of Technology in Public Policy

The association and significance of technology systems within public management have evolved for many years. In 1910, the U.S. Bureau of Standards developed "technology portrait" charts that depicted computerized displays of data to physically track progress of warship initials as they moved through fabrication and outfitting phases (Kabir Veitas & Delaere, 2018). Additionally, as far back as 1981, the United States Federal Automated Documentation system automated official announcements and governmental updates through an electronic gateway delivered on teletype. This was one of the first processes to employ an "electronic mail box" type of system to help ensure accurate and equivalent dissemination of information from the federal government to the public, and has clear parallels to our current use of e-mail as a mechanism to publicize open government initiatives and actions (Werle, 2002). In terms of active integration with the public, Facebook became a relatively early actor by allowing agencies to manage and interact

with applications for permission to use government Facebook applications that could track and provide information about public polls and access public data within a social media component. This was as simple as tracking an analytic infrastructural component that is currently utilized by many civic institutions to better gain insight into how members of the public interact with their web presence. In a major shift from most previous system compiles, this was executed entirely within the realm of a social media platform. Essentially, under the paradigm, social media acts as a tool to allow the public easy access to resources that would often be channeled through a closed and proprietary software system, or, as in the case of the de-optimization topic, would be dealt with through a more traditional written mode involving paper or e-mail responses.

2.1. Historical Overview

This section will provide a detailed historical account of the significant technological developments that have had, and continue to have, an effect on public policy. Milestones will be recounted, starting with the introduction of the internet, and moving on to earlier points, these moments where technology played a role in transforming governance practices are noted. Specifically, technology's influence on the way citizens engage with policy and the transparency of policy are discussed. Technology in recent years will be more closely calibrated, focusing on how it has facilitated the accountability of public institutions. Cases of reform to public institutions at the level of both national and local government are raised, emphasizing how these reforms have altered the way decisions are made. Instances of technology choices that have failed will be considered, reflecting on the various challenges faced over the years in adopting technology for governance. A timeline of technology in governance, with some notes providing context, is provided in the following page. It is hoped that in full both this historical account and the accompanying analysis will illustrate the deep-seated roots of current trends at the intersection of technology, social media and public policy.

3. The Impact of Social Media on Public Policy

The past decade has been a remarkable time from the digital revolution in media consumption to the reinvention of local journalism and the rise of citizen journalism, making public policy both more dynamic and complex, and revealing how influential the media environment is to policy outcomes (Van Den Bergh, 2016). With the revolution of media technology, younger generations and certain socio-demographic groups have developed different media habits in the ways that they consume news and current events; social media platforms are now critical components in their political machines, providing

a venue for expression and engagement. In the digital era, the number of social media users is growing exponentially every year, the discursive space for social and political deliberation has expanded, and the utilization of social media for policy feedback and evaluation is inevitable in order to understand, evaluate, and adapt policy as necessary. Social media turns out to be a powerful outlet where the public expresses their views and experiences and have them shared among the group. Therefore, social media harnesses the potential of political machineries, interest groups, NGOs, advocacy coalitions, and other political actors to influence what is at stake on traditional mass media platforms through controlled messaging and framing tactics. (Fernández et al., 2014) report the empirical analysis of users that participated in such conversations around policy topics on Twitter, trying to shed light on this emerging debate, while cautioning their findings may not be directly transferable to other geographic areas due to the specific conditions of the dataset. Results of this dataset expand previous findings by studying a greater range of characteristics of users that discuss policy compared to message-level network studies of Twitter content. A major contribution is the agile interpretation and assessment of social media data for policy making at the early onset of the monitoring activity, when few if any standards or practices existed on the topic. The research design of matched observations from traditional media outlets as control group of the same content and randomized selection of a topic-specific random sample of messages published around on-topic peaks, as well as the construction of a baseline of normality of social activity for each topic with surprise tests, introduce sound strategies to make the analysis robust and less susceptible to common biases arising from the study of Digital Social Networks (DSN).

3.1. Role of Social Media Platforms

This subsection aims to analyze the functionalities and implications of the major social media platforms within the context of their ability to shape public policy. Each platform is evaluated for its unique features that impact the engagement of users, as well as the dissemination of content. Moreover, it is considered that social media also have the potential of act as a tool for communication, but also a space for public debates. In this latter respect, the intersection between the scope for curtailing the rights of freedom of expression and the curbing of hate-speech is considered. Given its relatively longer lifespan, and the fact it is somewhat less content-sensitive, debates were mostly about and on Twitter. This ahead may largely regulate the interaction but also the way the debates are performed—certainly, not replicable on other social networking sites. That said, Twitter has become a significant tool for policy advocacy and, although far less significantly, for citizen participation. Politicians utilize micro-blogging sites to communicate with the public, and this includes discussing the policies they propose or

enforce. There was a plethora of English-language tweets on the 'brake clause'; most tweets were by Brits, but Irish tweeps were running a close second (Bayer, 2019). At the peak, the hourly rate exceeded 3,000 and the daily maximum around 50,000 tweets. As for Fb, policy debates are often more durably housed and on visible posts, with attractions and rebuttals in the thread. On this occasion, the debates tended to be too long for Tw and most Fb posts, just the links to the source; hence the ensuing analysis is mostly about the tweets, with the Fb debates serving as illustrations on the main findings. Together, these findings do not bode particularly well for Fb acting either as a commitment mechanism, or as a space that enhances the quality of publicly-held debates. Production and consumption of news are significantly transformed by the rise of networked platforms. The online ecosystems are shaped by the algorithms. These have developed mechanisms to curate content through an ever-accelerating and increasingly complex interplay of feeds, posts, stories, videos, etc. The intermediation has often been considered as bringing news dissemination at a new level, but numerous criticisms are also voiced about its effects on democracy, the marketplace of ideas, or policymakers' perception of public opinion. Some of the critiques focus on the peculiarities of the press, others highlight the dangers entailed in the inability to find a balance between the numerous rights at odds and concerned (Right to receive and seek information vs the company's right to conduct trade; Right vs right to equal treatment for similar situated assets in formal law, jurisdictional precedence, EU's common case law or the Aarhus Convention), and others yet are more directly interested at the nexus between misinformation, trust in public authorities and potential breaches of fundamental values and good governance (Jain, 2019).

4. Challenges and Opportunities

Technology is often seen as the key to improving policy responsiveness and as enhancing policy forming capacities in a holistic sense. Nevertheless, there are significant challenges both in terms of what it might mean for democratic processes, and limitations relating to the policy machinery including the capacity of states, and particularly developing countries, to engage with, and manage, new technology given its rapid evolution (Plantinga et al., 2023). A further paradox is the ways in which contemporary governance incorporates and utilises technologies around both data privacy and surveillance, suggesting a stretching of liberal traditions over the past half-century.

While there are clearly risks for democratic values attendant to administrative and legislative surveillance societies, an old-fashioned law and order agenda coupled with intrusive states, there are many opportunities to further transparency and accountability (P. Bergeron, 2018). In terms of the conditions of political life critical information can

now circulate swiftly and effectively, both embarrassingly, and to challenge repressive state action, as in the Arab Spring. Policy formation occurs in the glare of an instant public scrutiny relating to the lawfulness of a cabinet decision on a ferry contract, air pollution statistics, or the donation of a foreign benefactor. These questions, or perhaps more pertinently the answers to these questions, increasingly can, and are, circulated and discussed through the dissemination technologies using a plethora of social media corpora. Of course, as the historic cacophony on all issues of political life demonstrate such actions and knowledge are diffuse, fractured and messy, restrained in their effects on account of a series of political, economic and cultural turnstiles. However, that said, it seems likely that the rapidity with which the social media landscape is evolving, the underlying power relations of that landscape, and the adaptability or otherwise of contemporary institutions to these changes probably suggest something more than malaise. This text turns to some cursory thoughts on the adaptive resilience of those institutions without offering a determinate or stable view on what is, in reality, a Sprintak race. It does so through the optic of a paradox—the nature of technology driving a state system committed to maintaining control and command over its apparatus, circulatory practices and perhaps more pertinently, policy value systems. But first, some broad questions that the "digitalization" of governance raises. Chief among these is in what ways is it possible to ensure that the "inauthentic" truths of the multiple circulations of "fake" and misinformed "news" do not lead to unwarranted policy responses. Further, does the rapid oxidation of public knowledge, or indeed the sheer complexity of the crossword puzzle being pieced together, actually inhibit cohesive action? The question is also directed at the oppositional, not just government, at how one acts in an environment increasingly hostile to the articulation of material solutions to complex problems (not forgetting of course, that those articulations as "truth" are so often eroded in the fray)? And is it the case that as a result of these conflictual impasses around both the nature of problems and their potential solutions there is burgeoning of system antagonisms and fragmentation in the prescriptive form of governance (and perhaps more insidiously, in the very nature of its enunciation)?

4.1. Ethical Considerations

Public policy increasingly integrates technology and social media in the rendering of services, data acquisition, or conversely, surveillance. The fairness, ethics and law implications of the blurring digital-public realms are discussed. The responsibility of public decision makers to ensure fair and transparent technology use, and to regulate this use as it impinges ethical values is put forward. Policies to avoid algorithmic biases and discrimination are difficult to draft, as technologies are pushed to shape values, possibly raising constitutional concerns. Trade-offs then need to be discussed in public interest

terms. Dilemmas when technology enhances the collection and control of data to foster the public interests are also explored. While limitations in data collection and privacy protection may hinder efficiency gains and the innovation space, they are also a precondition for the protection of individual rights and the flourishing of deliberative and participatory democracy. When technology is also used to enforce law, debates must be pursued on which laws can be enforced through algorithms to ensure legality and room for the protection of fundamental rights. Ethics has a role to play to foster trust and shared understandings between technology developers, public decision makers, and citizens. Ethical principles to foster the acceptance of governance by algorithm are presented and various ethical and societal objectives of the DESIGN initiative are addressed. A typology of design principles based on privacy considerations, such as data minimization, transparency, end-to-end security and privacy by design, are drafted. More broadly, a framework of ethics and societal questions that policy makers should address when they foster applications of digital technologies in the public realm is proposed, along with norms to assist in shaping new decision-making processes and regulations (Pastor-Escuredo & Vinuesa, 2020).

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Part IV: Conclusion and Recommendations

Chapter 10

Building Inclusive and Effective Participation Models

1. Introduction

Participation intertwines policy arenas and practical applications like few other concepts in international development, and yet debate across these domains is often disconnected. On one level, participation refers to the degree to which individuals or groups can be present and heard in decision-making processes. It is a powerful way to enhance local agency regarding development priorities and increase the accountability of aid—both hallmarks of participatory development. On another level, participation continues to refer simply to the presence of 'beneficiaries' in externally designed projects or programmes. Theoretical challenges abound in seeking a framework that can 'bridge' such distances, while practitioners engage with participation's practical values only to find the most effective models still deeply undetermined by academic consensus.

Within the adult learning and NGO sectors the current state of the participation debate is of immense—often painful—relevance. While it is therefore crucial to push at its theoretical frontiers, this investigation remains committed first and foremost to exploring participation's stake in the practical organisation and implementation of development. Stepping back from the dizzying variety of theoretical quibbles of what participation is (or ought to be), a simple and perennial question is posed: Does participation 'work'? Or at least more usefully: 'In what instances and how does participation work?' This straightforward question finds perplexingly few straightforward answers amidst the decades of writing that Participatory Development Dates (Grillos, 2015). More troubling still is the possibility that robust generalisations are essentially unattainable, for participation may well be contingent upon a host of highly specific histories, contexts, and choices.

2. Understanding Participation Models

This article aims to advance the understanding of how participation can be encouraged and supported in a range of settings worldwide—particularly with respect to new and/or creative approaches—and what makes participation models work. It is concerned with programs and models that governments, funders, civil society organizations, health services, and development cooperation agencies develop or support in order to encourage "participation" within populations or groups, or in the design of services or policy processes. Rather than citizens' control of decision making, the essay is mostly concerned with the encouragement of societal or community engagement. Of course, the two are related in many situations, but they imply different types of models or approaches to encourage and support participation. A wide range of different forms are categorized and described from the many relevant literatures, in both sociopolitical research and the health field more specifically (Potvin, 2007). Models are here characterized in terms of various factors (involving both scope and structure) rather than discussed in detail. Several theoretical frameworks pertinent to participation are reviewed, making reference to what makes such partnerships or actions work in terms of attempting to follow foundational principles. The essay shares a number of examples from different parts of the world so as to portray the naked variety of participation-encouragement models and to illustrate how adaptable and context-specific they can be. Some attention is also given to issues related to outcomes, monitoring, and evaluation of participation and participatory processes (Tanaka et al., 2021).

2.1. Types of Participation Models

Different participation models are divided into categories and discussed. A matrix for assessing the level of involvement of different models and types of participation is presented. In order to succeed, each model demands the fulfillment of certain conditions as a minimum. Eight models are discussed: consultative with one-way information, consultative with two-way information, collaborative with limited objectives, collaborative, direct participation, community control with reduced professionals, professional domination by other structures, and professional domination with no community involvement. Some examples demonstrate that the models follow a flexible, overlapping pattern of participation, depending on the issue or level of involvement required at each stage (Sterling et al., 2019).

Fifteen models of participation are discussed, as a way of making evident the increasing complexity and commitment needed for obtaining a transfer of power towards people (Bello-Bravo et al., 2022). A participatory power framework is presented as an aid for analyzing the power base of different actors. Obviously, the selection of one model or

another will depend on local circumstances, the sector to which the policy relates, timing, etc. Four levels of participation (information, consultation, active participation, and full community control) and two guiding principles to assess the level of involvement in all the models (benefits of the action and sustainability) are presented. However, if benefits and sustainability were the only two principles taken into account for classifying the participation, the equity and the inclusivity of the models can be missed out. Thus, in an effort to improve this assessment, a number of guiding questions are formulated to orientate the analyses of the models according to this particular prism.

2.2. Theoretical Frameworks

Participatory processes, particularly large, government-organised ones, receive considerable criticisms for not doing enough to ensure inclusiveness. In response, many theoretical frameworks for how to conceive of, assess, or critically evaluate participation have been put forward. In other words, there is a lot of ink spilled over the questions of why, when, and how participation is done most effectively. A considerable body of literature from many disciplines has emerged, looking at participation from different normative or diagnostic perspectives. At the same time, governments and other organisations are interested in engaging with citizens on many issues, and so they pick and choose from an array of participatory strategies and techniques. These choices imply a theoretical basis for why a particular approach is considered appropriate (Misra, 2018). Additionally, those involved in organising participation often need to publicly justify their approach. There may not be a more appropriate choice model, but there should at least always be a reasoned choice model. Despite this, participatory processes are sometimes designed, as well as critiqued, as though there is no expected relationship between how a process is conceived and the participating activity. But the active, working relationship between descriptive accounts of participatory design and the underlying normative assumptions is vital to both producers and critics of participatory architectures. In sum, participation design decisions are, and should be, usually theoretically-informed and are best critiqued on the same basis.

3. Key Principles for Inclusivity

Participation models can manifest in a variety of forms including community meetings, surveys and focus groups. They can range from informal and temporary initiatives to formal, ongoing institutions. Participatory governance is most common among these structures, thereby encompassing a wide variety of institutions, such as neighborhood

councils, multi-stakeholder consultative bodies, citizens' juries, participatory budgeting programs and more.

The need for participation models that are truly inclusive is underscored with evidence that most types of participation models tend to favor particular socioeconomic and demographic groups. In addition to existential equity, inclusivity should be promoted more broadly; a critical mass representation of diverse stakeholders enhances the quality and legitimacy of participatory deliberation and governance more generally. Efforts should be made to ensure gender parity in participation and there should be representation of migrant workers and other ethnic groups. In practices, there are various models that are contrived situations or token representation that has been selected and trained by formal institutions to interact in a desired way with the general public. There is a clear need for actively promoting representations from historically marginalized groups within the set of participants. Furthermore, equity and accessibility ought to be established more generally, e.g. the provision of high-quality education for those most in need.

Strategies for creating inclusivity include the establishment of a dedicated office within government purely tasked with facilitating citizens' engagement, and partnering municipal government with established participatory assemblies from the village-level which would be tasked with selecting marginalized participants and providing guidance. Finally, inclusivity in participation practices is measured through stakeholder perceptions of how prepared they feel to interact in participatory processes. It is recommended that practitioners invest resources in coordination, planning and outreach activities to ensure a safe environment where all can feel empowered to participate.

3.1. Diversity and Representation

Diversity and representation are fundamental aspects of effective participation models—however, they are also some of the most difficult to achieve. The importance of representative participation models has grown exponentially over the last two decades. With a rich experience across different participatory paradigms, the pitfalls of 'participation' have also become more apparent . As well as the many positive aspects to participation, there are also many exclusionary practices that can be perpetuated in the guise of inclusivity. Some participatory processes are designed in a way that discourages community activism, control and ownership of decisions. In a worst-case scenario, the non-profits and government staff working on participatory projects can come to control their community partners, extending professionalized and locked-in relationships that prohibit an authentic exchange of power. One of the primary dangers of this is that certain voices, knowledges, and perspectives become illegitimate, while others are celebrated and granted privileged access.

There is a normative implication in the way the participation is constructed in current frameworks. Representativeness in participatory projects is now understood to denote the collection of diverse perspectives on any given issue. This view, whilst valid, is fairly simple. The value in collective decision-making is that individuals contribute their understandings to the group, not only gaining insights from the outer limits of varied responses, but in combining theories better and more creative end products are produced. Such an understanding is far removed from the normative idea of consultation, in which pre-formulated proposals are subjected to general scrutiny and commented upon before being accepted. To inform decisions properly, diverse views need to be included in preliminary debates and discussion, not just as a response to final proposals. This view is ably defended by , arguing that in order to avoid the 'tyranny of the majority' and produce robust decisions, as many perspectives and interests as possible are necessary. However, a diversity of perspectives can be hard to incorporate. Across the entire collective, issue schematic knowledge is needed. Individuals and groups may be 'knowledge rich' in one particular area, but ignorance in another will exclude them from the collective dialogue. Marginal perspectives can emerge, but they may be marginalized to such an extent from a perceived lack of pertinent contributions, that their future input is voluntarily reduced. Barriers to representatively participatory models are thus further ingrained: institutional support, skills and resources are needed to acquire fully off-ball knowledges. Socioeconomic barriers will mean that certain individuals are unable to provide the necessary inputs to be heard and acted upon. Moreover, the need to formulate and verbalize concerns in the context of a large group forum brings social and psychological pressures. Not only do these constrain individuals from expressing contentious views, but the civility or cultural sensitivity of such processes might mean that some contentious issues are simply not raised. Ultimately, argue that active government intervention is necessary to ensure representatively participatory processes are put in place. Current ideas of representation are conceived as overly simplistic, but the next step of this argument—to assert that consultation with a whole variety of different actors is unfeasible—ignores proactive, dynamic strategies to engage with marginal groups and develop forms of participation that sensitive to and build upon varied cultural norms. It is in these later aspects of representation that truly inclusive and effective participatory models reside.

3.2. Equity and Accessibility

Participation is a key pillar of accountability mechanisms. Embracing meaningful and sustainable participation requires careful thought regarding the structure and design of participation models. Research has shown over and over that meaningful participation seldom happens spontaneously. This subsection therefore offers some guidance and principles for practitioners in different contexts of how models and approaches to

participation can be designed to be both inclusive and effective. There is an increasing focus on participation, with the realisation that although inclusion is good in itself, it is also more likely to make participation models and processes effective. The fear that opening up such spaces might heighten the power relations between the privileged and the marginalised further underlies the need to structure participation. This sub-section starts by underlining the following four core principles which are suggested as bedrock foundations of genuinely effective participation: equity and accessibility, relevance and representation, flexibility and feedback, accountability and "ripple effects" (Howard et al., 2018).

The first of these is further broken down into the related components of equity and accessibility. Over the past decade, the emphasis of movements and feminist interventions within development circles has largely shifted from a focus on gender equality to a broader basket of women's rights and a central commitment to social justice, equity and empowerment. Hence, more recent calls to ensure that development "works for everyone, not just those that are easily reached" and to identify and reach the "most marginalized and vulnerable" are understood to entail tailored and adapted responses which are disproportionately greater than elsewhere. Governments, institutions and the co-ordination of the participation models are required to drive and navigate these responses. In this regard, three spheres or layers of assessment and action are a prerequisite, if the opening up of spaces is not to be met with a closing down of rights. The first of these involves the practical dismantling of the physical, financial, attitudinal, informational and legal/human rights barriers which impede marginalised or less-resourced groups from participating.

4. Case Studies of Successful Participation Models

Example 1: Agriculture reward programme in Gurara LGA, Nigeria Example 2: Site selection of new boreholes in Mbarali District, Tanzania Example 3: Formation of management plans for 1000 ha government forest in Bangladesh Example 4: OCMV seasonal forecasts in Mangate, Mozambique

Many participatory approaches aim to involve local people in decision-making activities. Academic literature on participation has burgeoned, increasingly arguing for participation of local actors in a wide range of interventions. Such participatory approaches, however, are more involved to create in practice, with poor design, particularly care with respect to selection methods, possibly leading to easy participatory mistakes, such as elite capture or tokenistic involvement. In order to assist with the task of setting up participatory

methods, and the successful integration of locally-based decision-making into NRM interventions, a 10-point guideline for more effective participation was adapted. To illustrate how these participation guidelines can be applied in practice, four examples of participatory NRM processes are discussed from recent activity in Africa and Asia. The effectiveness and significance of participation in each case are assessed by considering whether the examples provoked more inclusive or equitable outcomes. Each process was designed according to a different mode of participation, and the sustainability of each case is evaluated with reference to transparency and the potential for long-term participation. The concept of participation here refers to the involvement of local stakeholders or other interest groups in decision-making activities. This may encompass any level of local involvement, from nominal consultation only, to complete autonomous control. Participation is strongly promoted in contemporary development policy, particularly with respect to natural resource management. Nevertheless, many overseas activities directed at transfer of participation are involved without theoretical comprehension, and with no ascertainable systems of how to convene participation. Finally, appropriate participatory methods are also problematic to sustain in commercial or bureaucratic venues, where professional judgement and inclined policy often takes priority.

5. Challenges and Solutions in Implementing Participation Models

Inclusive participation models require commitment from stakeholders in implementing the participation model and guarantee that both invited and marginalized actors understand and fulfil their roles. The goal is to increase the effectiveness of participation models by surfacing common problems and proposing feasible solutions. By not glossing over the barriers to designing and implementing well-functioning participatory processes, the discourse can be turned to the task of identifying strategies and mechanisms that can support just and effective participatory practices. Finally, it is emphasized that successful participation is not a matter of adhering to a fixed set of steps. Instead, successful participation is understood as an adaptive process that involves deep learning from successes and failures, and a willingness to adjust approaches over time (Bello-Bravo et al., 2022).

Up to this point, the emphasis has been on considering various structures and practices that bolster successful participation, but the landscape of participation is multifaceted and may give rise to a number of unanticipated issues. Here, the discussion turns to the complexities and obstacles of designing and maintaining functional processes for equitable engagement. Six highly interrelated areas are considered: (i) resources, (ii)

practical obstacles, (iii) systemic barriers, (iv) resistance, (v) trust and communication, and (vi) equity.

Public participation in policy-making is essential for fostering transparency, accountability, and public trust. Engaging citizens in the decision-making process not only enhances the legitimacy of policies but also ensures that diverse perspectives are considered, leading to more comprehensive and effective solutions.

Conclusions:

1. **Enhanced Understanding and Dialogue:** Active public participation equips individuals to engage in meaningful dialogue, fostering a greater understanding of diverse perspectives and respect for differing positions. This process is crucial for political renewal and social cohesion.

2. **Tailored Policy Solutions:** Effective policy-making aligns instruments with the institutional context and stakeholders involved. Given the varying contexts and actors across policy fields and countries, solutions to complex problems need to be customized; one-size-fits-all solutions are seldom effective.

3. **Improved Satisfaction with Policies:** People's participation in public decision-making not only helps ensure transparency and accountability but also contributes to improving their satisfaction with government policies and operations.

Recommendations:

1. **Implementing Deliberative Mechanisms:** Governments should adopt deliberative mechanisms such as citizens' assemblies, participatory budgeting, and referendums to involve citizens directly in policy decisions. These tools can lead to more informed and accepted policies.

2. **Building Communicative Capacity:** Investing in the communicative capacity of both citizens and public institutions is vital. This includes providing platforms for dialogue, ensuring access to information, and facilitating understanding between stakeholders.

3. **Continuous Evaluation and Adaptation:** Regular assessment of public participation processes is necessary to identify areas for improvement. This

involves evaluating the effectiveness of engagement strategies and being adaptable to changing societal needs and contexts.

By embracing these recommendations, policymakers can create a more inclusive and responsive governance framework that not only addresses the needs of the populace but also empowers citizens to actively shape the policies that affect their lives.

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